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Edited by Richmond Stroupe & Kelly Kimura

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Edited by

Richmond Stroupe & Kelly Kimura

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Contributors

Suksiri Bounchan (sbounchan@yahoo.com.au) is a Senior Lecturer at the Institute of Foreign Languages, Royal University of Phnom Penh. She has taught across the BEd (TEFL) curriculum, but specializes in Literature Studies. Her research interests include language teacher education, intercultural communication and gender studies.

Anne Burns (anne@burns.name) holds joint positions as Professor of Language Education at Aston University, Birmingham, and Professor of TESOL at the University of New South Wales, Sydney, and is also an Honorary Professor at the University of Sydney. From 2009, she has served as the Chair of TESOL's Standing Committee on Research. She has published extensively on teacher education, action research, the teaching of speaking and reading, and grammar instruction. Her most recent books are *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Teacher Education* (CUP, 2009), co-edited with Professor Jack C. Richards, and *Doing Action Research in English Language Teaching: A Guide for Practitioners* (Routledge, 2010). Two further volumes with Jack Richards, The *Cambridge Guide to Pedagogy and Practice in Second Language Teaching* (CUP) and *Tips for Teaching Listening* (Pearson) will be published in 2011.

Theara Chea (theara.chea@acecambodia.org) is the Resources Manager at ACE Cambodia. He has been teaching English since 2003 to various levels and age groups. He has a BBA in tourism and a BEd in TEFL. He has presented papers in China and Japan. His main interest is independent learning styles.

Peter Collins (pcollins@tokai-u.jp) is an associate professor in Tokai University's Research Institute of Educational Development (RIED). In addition to teaching reading and academic writing, he is involved in secondary school teacher development and has co-authored junior and senior high school textbooks in Japan. His research interests include collegiality, team- teaching, and task-based learning.

D. Malcolm Daugherty (malcolm@soka.ac.jp) is currently a full-time lecturer at Soka University, Tokyo, Japan. He has worked at all levels from kindergarten to university. His academic interests include curriculum development, content-based language education (ESP), vocabulary development and motivational techniques for learning.

Jonathan Hull (jonathan.hul@kmutt.ac.th) has taught English in Britain, Jordan, Oman, Hawaii and Micronesia. He has also been a university lecturer in Hong Kong, Japan and Taiwan. He is currently teaching at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT), Thailand. He has a master's from the University of Hawaii and a doctorate from the University of Glasgow. His professional interests include curriculum design and materials development as well as the use of introspective methodology in applied linguistics research.

Yukiko Ishikawa (yisikawa@soka.ac.jp) is currently Self-Access Program Manager at Soka University, Japan. She has an MA degree in Second and Foreign Language Teaching from Soka University of America. Her research interests focus on learner autonomy and cooperative learning.

Kelly Kimura (kelly@soka.ac.jp) is a lecturer and the Professional English Coordinator at the World Language Center, Soka University, Japan. She has over 20 years of teaching experience in Japan. Her professional interests include materials development, Business English, vocabulary acquisition, and academic journal editing.

Jun Liu (junliu@email.arizona.edu) received his Ph.D from the Foreign and Second Language Education Program in the College of Education at Ohio State University in 1996, and is Professor and Head in the Department of English at the University of Arizona. His research interests include curriculum and standards development and syllabus design, teacher education, classroom-based second language learning and teaching, and second language reading and writing. His publications include Teaching English in China: New Perspectives, Approaches and Standards by Continuum Publishing (2007). The first Asian TESOL President (2006-2007) in TESOL's 41-year history, he has always been engaged in empowering nonnative English speakers in the field of TESOL.

Sonita Ly (lysonita@yahoo.com), former Resources Manager at ACE Cambodia, also taught English in the General English Program. She received a BEd in TEFL from the Royal University of Phnom Penh in 2001. Her professional interest is to help students learn more efficiently and understand the importance of studying independently.

Lary MacDonald (mac@soka.ac.jp) is an assistant professor and the Assistant Director of the World Language Center at Soka University in Tokyo, Japan. He teaches a variety of content-based and EAP courses and has worked in a variety of educational contexts. His research interests include education policy, reform and practice in Japan.

Alan Maley (yelamoo@yahoo.co.uk) has worked in ELT for over 40 years. He has lived and worked in 10 countries, including the People's Republic of China, India, Singapore and Thailand. He has published many articles, reviews, and books in the field and is series editor for the Oxford Resource Books for Teachers. He now lives in the UK but travels widely, especially in Asia, his second home!

Stephen Moore (stephen.moore@ling.mq.edu.au) is a Lecturer in Applied Linguistics at Macquarie University, Sydney. He has been involved in ELT in Cambodia since 1994, initially through English teaching and teacher education, and more recently through research. His research interests span TEFL in Asian contexts, pragmatics, discourse analysis, and language assessment.

Nguyen Thi Thu Ha (fatcat9993@yahoo.com) achieved a Bachelor in TEFL (Honors), Fast-track Stream from the College of Foreign Languages, Vietnam National University, Hanoi. She currently lectures in American Studies, ELT Methodology, and ESP (Economics) at VNUH. The study reported was for her BA TEFL thesis, which was rated excellent.

Daniel Sasaki (dsasaki@soka.ac.jp), after completing his Master's in Second and Foreign Language Education at Soka University of America, has been a lecturer at the World Language Center at Soka University, Japan since 2006. His academic interests include international comparative education, children's education, and methodology.

Visal Sou (visalsou@yahoo.com) is an ESL lecturer at the Institute of Foreign Languages, RUPP. He holds a BEd and Bachelor of Business Administration. With experience in teaching English and knowledge of management, he continues to develop his interest in educational management, focusing on education for all and independent learners.

Richmond Stroupe (richmond@soka.ac.jp) has worked with university and professional language learners since 1989. He is Chair of the Master's Program in International Language Education: TESOL at Soka University, Japan, and Chair of the Standing Committee on Standards with TESOL. His research interests include curriculum and professional development, and international comparative education.

To Thi Thu Huong (ttht04@gmail.com) is an English Lecturer at the English Department, Vietnam National University, Hanoi. She has conducted extensive research, consultancy work and lectures in various TESOL areas (methodology, ESP, testing, assessment, and evaluation). She is currently interested in ELT methodology, ESP, EAP, testing, assessment, evaluation, and leadership.

Mai Ngo Tuyet (ntmai1901@yahoo.co.uk) has an MA in Education from the University of Sydney, Australia and an MBA from Latrobe University, Australia. She is Dean of Foundation Studies at Hanoi University, Vietnam and Academic Manager for ELICOS in the joint BA program between Hanoi and Latrobe Universities. Her interests include program administration and management, teacher training, and technology in ELT.

Shinichi Jason Yamamoto (shingoku57@yahoo.com) has a Master's in Second Language Acquisition from Soka University of America. He has taught at Soka University and currently teaches at Soka High School, Japan. His academic interests include content-based learning, cross-cultural studies, and reducing the affective filter.

Acknowledgements

This publication has its genesis in the professional development workshop series conducted by IDP Education in Cambodia since the late 1990s. Workshops conducted at the Australian Centre for Education (ACE) in Phnom Penh were a feature of the teaching environment and were particularly valued due to the relative isolation of Cambodia at the time. These workshops were opened up to teachers from other schools in the early 2000s and became so popular that, after several changes to the program to accommodate the demand, it was decided to conduct a national workshop in 2004. This led to the beginning of the CamTESOL conference series in 2005.

Thanks go to the teachers who participated in and presented at those professional development workshops at ACE in the 1990s and early 2000s. These teachers gave their time voluntarily and they were prepared to share their ideas not only internally at ACE but externally to teachers in public schools and the embryonic private English schools that were beginning to sprout at that time in Phnom Penh. In particular, thanks to the very first plenary presenters who presented at that 2004 workshop. They will recall how they guided the participants away from the Opening Plenary session into 'break-out' sessions – a novel structure for local participants at that time, unused to such a large professional development opportunity. The plenary sessions were delivered by Ms Psyche Kennett and Dr Jonathan Hull.

Since 2005 the CamTESOL conference has attracted papers, workshops and posters from around the world. While the conference is the national ELT conference for Cambodia, it has become a very international conference. In its first five years (2005-2009) the dominant foreign source country for presenters has been Japan. The conference now attracts around 400 international delegates from over 30 countries, as well as around 900 participants from within Cambodia. But the Japanese link remains, with over 100 participants and almost as many presenters coming annually from Japan.

No conference proceedings have been published. However, an international Editorial Board was formed in 2005 and submitted papers were blind reviewed; those accepted were published in an online publication known as *CamTESOL Selected Papers*. These papers are available on the CamTESOL website: www.camtesol.org. Based on the

growth of the conference, it was felt appropriate at this point, i.e., after the first five conferences, to request the Editorial Board to choose a limited number of papers for publication in hard copy format. A number of papers have been updated and further edited for this publication.

Recognition goes to the inaugural Editor-in-Chief and Assistant Editor-in-Chief of *CamTESOL Selected Papers* from 2005: Mr Om Soryong and Mr Ted O'Neill respectively. Early CamTESOL conferences were hosted at a different ELT establishment each year. The key point of contact at each host venue was invited to be the Editor-in-Chief and an international mentor group was established to support both the conference and the publication. As the size of the conference and the number of paper submissions grew, the Editorial Board grew in size, structure and international orientation. Dr Richmond Stroupe joined the Editorial Board in 2006 and has remained an active force on the Board ever since. Many thanks to Richmond for guiding and overseeing the growth of the Editorial Board and its various components.

An important developmental contribution has been made by an "international mentor group". In the period 2005-2009, several of the CamTESOL plenary speakers, notably Professor David Nunan and the late Dr Kate McPherson contributed their time and ideas to mentor members of the various CamTESOL committees. Some international mentors, notably Dr Stephen Moore and Dr Richmond Stroupe, conducted professional development workshops – including on classroom research and text editing – that have greatly assisted an increasing number of Cambodians to carry out their roles on the Editorial Board and to contribute specifically to this publication.

I would like to acknowledge the work of the many professional colleagues who have contributed to making this publication possible. Thanks to the Editorial Board for re-reading the papers and choosing the ones for publication. Thanks to Dr Richmond Stroupe and Ms Kelly Kimura at Soka University in Japan for final editing and coordinating the publication. Thanks to Mr Net Wanna and Mr Heang ChanVeasna at IDP Cambodia and to staff at IDP Melbourne for their various contributions in facilitating this publication.

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Finally, my thanks to the presenters at the conferences held in the period 2005 – 2009. It has been very gratifying to observe the dramatic increase each year in the number of papers presented for consideration for publication. In 2009, that number was already close to 100. The size of the publication itself has grown enormously. In particular, thanks to all those who have submitted their papers for consideration for publication and congratulations to those authors whose papers have been chosen by the Editorial Board for publication in this book.

Paul Mahony

Founder and Convenor
CamTESOL Conference Series, and
Country Director, IDP Education (Cambodia)

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Supporting Underrepresented EIL Authors:
Challenges and Strategies

Richmond Stroupe
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

Kelly Kimura
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

For most academics, regardless of context, scholarly publication in academic journals is often a prerequisite for employment, promotion, and eventual consideration for tenure (Belcher, 2007). With the advent of globalization, this process has taken on a more international focus (Armstrong, 2010), with little research seen as exclusively local (Lillis & Curry, 2010). This focus often places emphasis on publishing in international journals; for most, English is likely the de facto medium of publication (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Flowerdew, 1999). While the publication process can be difficult for any prospective author, English as an International Language (EIL) authors experience the added challenge of seeking publication outside their first language (Belcher, 2007). This paper will consider the increased pressure to publish internationally, the linguistic power relationships that this pressure serves to promote, the rationale for encouraging publication by underrepresented EIL authors, challenges these authors face, and ways in which such authors can be supported.

The Increased Pressure to Publish in International Journals

The pressure to publish is nothing new to university faculty members, who are familiar with the phrase "publish or perish" and all that it entails. What has more recently occurred though, like in many other areas, is the influence of the globalization process on academic publishing. Lillis and Curry (2010) point out that no longer does a researcher publish in localized isolation, but rather each researcher is being encouraged (read "required" in some contexts) to join the global community of academics and publish in "international" journals. The process is complex, including not only authors, but editors, reviewers, and publishers, all of whom have an influence on who and what gets

published (Fairbairn, Holbrook, Bourke, Preston, Cantwell, & Scevak, 2009).

While academic publications in local languages continue to thrive in some contexts, they are often provided to a limited audience based on the language of publication (Kratoska, 2007; Shi, 2002; Swales, 1988). English as an International Language (EIL) authors are increasingly expected, and in some cases required, to publish in international journals; this often means publishing in English (Braine, 2005; Flowerdew, 1999, 2001; Kratoska, 2007; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Shi, 2002). Whereas in some contexts, an article in a local language journal is viewed with the same status as one published in an English-medium journal (Kratoska, 2007), more often than not, the article published in English is awarded significantly higher status (Braine, 2005). Additionally, researchers are expected to publish in top-tier journals (Braine, 2005; Fairbairn et al., 2009; Shi, 2002)

These expectations place EIL authors in a more highly competitive situation compared to their native English-speaking counterparts. From 2002 to 2007 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics [UIS], 2009), the overall global number of researchers increased, with the most notable proportional increases occurring in Asia (from 35% in 2002 to 41% in 2007), with significant growth in China (14% to 20%), at the expense of those proportions in North America (25% to 22%) and the EU (20% to 19%). Japan produces a higher percentage of researchers in its national population than the United States and other native English-speaking countries (UIS, 2009). Nevertheless, Fairbairn et al.'s (2009) comprehensive survey of education journals indicates that 95% are published in eight countries, with the majority being published in the United States (46%), the United Kingdom (29%), and Australia (11%). Of these eight countries, only one (Hong Kong) is a non-native English-speaking country. In addition, authors from the country of publication dominate the contributions in their respective journals. Indeed, considering contributors, there is an overall pattern of North American influence, and particularly that of the United States, on the journals published in those countries (Magnan, 2006; Swales, 1988), even though more recently this has been recognized and measures have been put into place to counterbalance this inequality (Triplett, 2005). Furthermore, for educational journals in the global publishing arena, each field of study occupies a narrow niche. While the number of journals in a particular field of study may vary, the overall percentage for which any one field of study accounts hovers at the highest around 6%. For example, only 5% of educational journals specialize in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and Languages Other Than English (LOTE) (Fairbairn et al., 2009). Therefore, in general, globally, because of the disproportionate

representation of native English-speaking authors and the relatively narrow focus of publications, the avenues for publication in English are limited and competitive for, and statistically do not favor, EIL authors.

Linguistic Power Relationships

The negative impact of the hegemony of English has been discussed by a number of authors, pointing to the cultural and political dominance and de-emphasis of local languages that is a potential consequence of the spread of English as an international language (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Pennycook, 1995; Phillipson, 1992). On one hand, the spread of English and the prevalence of research published in English have significantly increased access to scholarly works compared to the past. In addition, the benefits of expanded dissemination of information (education, cultural understanding, capacity building, to name a few) have been realized (Flowerdew, 1999). In contrast, Swales (as cited in Belcher, 2007) noted the "North-South imbalance" (p. 2) with reference to publishing in research areas dominated by English. In such cases, EIL authors may not be able to take full advantage of being engaged in research and scholarship, and in some cases may be closed out of the process completely (Belcher, 2007; Flowerdew, 1999; Wen & Gao, 2007).

Well-known are Kachru's (1985) inner, outer, and expanding circles of English language use, where influence, status, and impact are felt from the center of the model to the periphery. With reference to research and publication, some authors have suggested the emergence of discourse communities (Belcher, 2007, 2009; Canagarajah, 2002, as cited in Sahakyan & Sivasubramaniam, 2008; Flowerdew, 2000; Shi, Wenyu, & Jinwei, 2005) that span all three concentric circles. In such a model, those authors within the inner circle may have more opportunities to be published in English-medium journals. Additionally, while some argue that all authors face similar challenges when attempting to publish (Sahakyan & Sivasubramaniam, 2008), others suggest that this process is easier for native English-speaking authors as they are working in their own language. As a result, these authors publish more often, gain more status, and disseminate their findings, understanding, and interpretations of the field in which they study more frequently. In contrast, those authors from the expanding and peripheral circles have fewer opportunities to publish and fewer possibilities to offer alternative views from results and interpretations based on different contexts. Furthermore, editors and editorial boards, which are often dominated by North American members, have been described as complicit, albeit unintentionally, in this process as they set standards for publications based on their own experiences, backgrounds, and linguistic and structural preferences (Belcher, 2007).

Encouraging International Publication

In an effort to rectify this imbalance in publication and dissemination of research, some journals have made specific efforts to "internationalize" their publications. The danger is that such an internationalization process can simply be defined as publishing in English, and therefore perpetuating the existing inequality (Armstrong, 2010; Belcher, 2007; Flowerdew, 2001; Lillis & Curry, 2010). Suresh Canagarajah, the editor for *TESOL Quarterly* (2005-2008), indicated that this publication was strategically broadening both the geographic representation of its articles as well as access to the publication and representation on the Editorial Advisory Board (Triplett, 2005). Canagarajah also recognized the need for audiences to be more "accommodating [of] differences in discourse in scholarly communication" (para. 29).

Such approaches have the potential to support the publication of underrepresented EIL authors because, as the increase in the number of published papers from all regions and all countries from 1985 to 2005 indicate (Kato & Chayama, 2010), research conducted in varying contexts does exist. There is clear value in including the perspective of peripheral colleagues. Publications developed from a limited contributor base can become conservative and myopic, and can lack variety. In contrast, contributions from varying contexts based on differing perspectives and utilizing localized methodologies can contribute to the innovativeness and vitality of a publication (Flowerdew, 2001; Sahakyan & Sivasubramaniam, 2008). Seeing how accepted approaches and theoretical models are applied, successfully or otherwise, in different contexts is also useful (Flowerdew, 2001). This process thereby allows for the implementation and sharing of differing research traditions (Belcher, 2007; Flowerdew, 2001) and of contextualized alternative perspectives and interpretations of research outcomes. A broader perspective also allows for research into non-English languages. In many cases, EIL researchers have access to content and research situations unavailable to monolingual English-speaking researchers (Flowerdew, 2001). For example, Moore and Bounchan (2006) have suggested several action research projects that are easily accessible to EIL authors in the development context in Cambodia.

In order to incorporate valued contributions from underrepresented EIL authors, flexibility and understanding need to be heightened with all involved, including potential authors as well as editors and reviewers. Flowerdew (2001) suggests that native English-speaking editors do recognize the challenges that EIL authors face; these editors want to be supportive and want to work to include papers submitted by such authors in their publications in order to create a truly

international discourse community. In the case of the *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching (AJELT)*, a Hong Kong-based English-medium publication, a strategic initiative of promotion and mentoring was undertaken to encourage and support submissions from China; since that time, increasing numbers of submissions from the mainland have been published (Braine, 2005). In many other cases, good intentions aside, it is more difficult to offer the type or amount of support that may be necessary (Flowerdew, 2001). Nevertheless, Belcher (2007) found in her research on accepted and rejected EIL manuscripts to an applied linguistics journal that honest, genuine (positive and negative), detailed, unambiguous, and constructive feedback to authors was very much appreciated and useful, and helped underrepresented EIL authors navigate the revision process more successfully than indirect, overly positive, or formulaic comments.

Authors must also be aware of the challenging process that any prospective author, native English-speaking or EIL, endures in order to have a manuscript published (Sahakyan & Sivasubramaniam, 2008). Authors should remain persistent throughout the revision process; even submissions by well-known authors to leading journals almost always go through revisions (Belcher, 2007). The difficulty that EIL authors face is not always a reflection on the quality of research (Singh, 2006), but rather an unfamiliarity with the style of writing expected, the blind review process (Shi et al., 2005), or the "status-equal (peer) criticism of their work" (Belcher, 2007, p. 19). In short, understanding, and clear, constructive communication need to be provided and received appropriately from all involved in the process.

Linguistic Issues

Many EIL authors may also struggle with specific linguistic issues. While both native English-speaking and EIL authors may have to address organizational and content issues in their writing, it is not surprising that EIL authors may have to focus more on surface errors (Belcher, 2007; Flowerdew, 2001). More importantly, there are variations in writing style that can be more challenging to adapt. In some cases, EIL authors may have trouble hedging their statements, or on the other hand, may make statements that are too over-arching (Braine, 2005; Flowerdew, 2001). Additionally, like more experienced authors, based on Swales moves (1990, as cited in Flowerdew, 2001), EIL authors need to effectively summarize previous research, indicate a gap in the existing research, and situate the current research within that context (Wiles, 2006). Also like native English-speaking authors, some EIL authors have difficulty finding their "authorial voice" (Flowerdew, 2001, p. 138), where they speak with appropriate yet measured authority rather than deference.

Additionally, the norms of academic writing in one culture may seem too direct, "flowery," or inaccurate in another. Whereas the style of American authors may be characterized as original, frank, and objective, Chinese authors may choose to be more "poetic," focusing on "historical allusions and moral correctness" (Li, 1999, as cited in Flowerdew, 2001, p. 123), and Sri Lankan authors may be more indirect (Belcher, 2009). Canagarajah (Triplett, 2005) comments that British authors submit articles which are more "essayistic or controversial," and Americans prefer more "impersonal" and "data-driven" submissions, whereas South Asian authors write more "personally" (para. 18). The discussion here is not necessarily about the correct or best form, but that a variety of forms of communication exist, and that both editors and audiences need to be more accepting of such diversity (Triplett, 2005).

Challenges Faced by EIL Authors

EIL authors encounter numerous challenges in the processes of writing and publication; some shared with NS authors, some shared with groups or subgroups of EIL authors, and some unique to the context of the individual. Whether shared or not, these challenges can seem to be overwhelming barriers to publication to the solitary EIL author.

Research and writing in a second language. Performing research and writing in one's own language are not necessarily easy; how-to books abound, yet "displacement activities" (Curry, 2010, para. 3), in this case, any activity that authors do to avoid the task of writing, are familiar to many. For EIL authors, researching and writing in English can present complex challenges (Flowerdew, 2001). Looking for materials, even by using keywords in indexes or search engines, does not always immediately produce appropriate resources. Numerous pages may have to be studied before relevant information is found. Access to current journals and books in English may be very limited and the selection available narrow, which may make literature reviews seem outdated and insubstantial (Triplett, 2005). Although Internet resources are expanding, EIL authors in developing countries may be constrained by a lack of access to the Internet, slow or unreliable Internet connections, or the cost of subscriptions to online academic digital archives such as JSTOR (an abbreviation of Journal Storage; see http://www.jstor.org/). Writing conventions may be different to the point of being opposite in approach (Shi, 2002), requiring much time, thought, and energy to produce a paper in English conforming to "mainstream" publication standards.

Even in Hong Kong, with its long experience with English, Braine (2005) notes that most of the postgraduate students he supervises

there do not publish their research; he attributes part of the cause to underdeveloped writing skills. While writing skills may be a problem in bringing completed research to publication, in other cases, the problem may go back to one or more components in the design and structure of the research itself (Singh, 2006): formulating clear and relevant research questions or hypotheses, establishing the theoretical framework, recognizing limitations, using appropriate approaches and methodologies, gathering and organizing reliable findings, drawing valid conclusions, and making practical, sound recommendations.

Resources. A common challenge in many EIL contexts in developing countries is the lack or scarcity of resources. In their study, Sahakyan and Sivasubramaniam (2008) found that scholars in Armenia pursuing publication in international journals considered the lack of resources to rank just below the challenge of language proficiency. In some cases, without, for example, adequate salaries, motivation and time for research and writing are drained by the necessity of earning additional income in order to attend to the basics of daily life (Kato & Chayama, 2010; Sahakyan & Sivasubramaniam, 2008). In addition to sufficient salaries, other resources that may be difficult to obtain include funding (e.g., research allowances or grants), equipment for research and writing (e.g., audio or video equipment, computers, and printers), time (e.g., lightening of teaching loads, sabbaticals), the literature and information as previously mentioned, as well as limited or nonexistent professional development or academic social networks (Curry & Lillis, 2010). The struggle for resources can "create a harsh reality for nonmainstream scholars who wish to publish and maintain visibility in the international forum" (Shi, 2002, p. 625). Kato and Chayama (2010) point out that these deficiencies in resources also exacerbate the long-term challenge for developing countries to encourage their young scholars to do research.

Logistics. Canagarajah (1996, as cited in Flowerdew, 2001) cites logistical challenges EIL authors face, including such basic procedures as making copies of a manuscript and sending it to a journal. An increasing number of journals, including *Language Education in Asia*, are requesting electronic submissions. While this eliminates the possible costs of photocopying and postage in submitting physical copies, it does assume Internet access with uploading and downloading privileges to send the original submission and revisions and to receive documents an editor may send. Knowledge of how to perform these actions and possession of the necessary equipment to do so (e.g., computers or USB flash drives) are also assumed. This may be problematic for those who do not have computers: public access computers may restrict or forbid the uploading or downloading of materials. However, in a blog post (itself an example of how much technology and the Internet have changed the world since his 1996

paper), Canagarajah (2009b, para. 15) comments, "Much against the notion of the digital divide, the web appears to be a great equalizer *at least for the purpose of article submission*" (italics added) and adds that electronic submissions have led to "more diverse submissions" at journals.

Nevertheless, the digital divide does still exist: as of 2010, 22.5% of households in developing countries owned a computer, compared to 71% in developed countries, and just 15.8% of households in developing countries had Internet access, compared to 65.6% in developed countries (ITU, 2010). Within the developing context, some EIL authors may be more likely to have access to resources than other authors, enabling them to reach and complete the submission stage, but at the same time moving the international inequalities that exist to an intranational level. For example, submissions from EIL authors in a particular developing country may tend to be from only one prestigious university, or from one politically, academically, or economically elite group. Authors on the other side of the digital divide in some countries may be deterred by the electronic submission process, even if some access is available. Flowerdew (2001) declares that journal editors must "ensure that all contributors, whether native or nonnative, have equal access," (p. 147) and while he was speaking of the editorial process, the same applies to submissions, where the process begins.

Parochialism. Frequently mentioned both in the literature and at the editor's desk is the problem of a paper being too local, or "parochial" (Flowerdew, 2001, Lillis & Curry, 2010), when the research or practice described is focused on one location-based context and the recommendations cannot be generalized. Miranda and Beck (2005) state that a parochial paper may be more of a problem than a paper with linguistic issues because the author fails to offer a solution to a current problem or bring up a new issue of interest to the wider field.

For a higher likelihood of publication, well *before* writing, the EIL author (and indeed all authors) should carefully consider the audience of the targeted journal: editors, reviewers, and publishers, and depending on the journal, its local, national, regional, or international readership. The author sometimes must consider if a shift in focus in the research is required, and then decide if this is worth doing to ultimately increase chances for publication in a targeted journal. Swales (2004, p. 52, as cited in Belcher, 2007) calls this "the skewing of international research agendas toward those most likely to pass the gatekeeping." However, this shift to a more international and general appeal can be successfully accomplished to overcome parochialism. Practical examples can illustrate how the research in question is relevant in a broader context (Flowerdew, 2001). For example, rather than focusing on the development of one content-based language

program in Japan (very limited focus), a prospective author can focus the paper on the overall challenges and benefits to implementing content-based curricula in general, and use the context of Japan as an example (rather than the focus) to illustrate how specific strategies were used to overcome the unique issues presented in this situation, and how those strategies could be adapted to other similar contexts in other countries in the region and beyond (providing a broader, international focus).

In addition to fulfilling the requirements of the audience, the paper must suit the purpose and scope of the target journal (Fairbairn et al., 2009). Papers which do not (e.g., a paper on elementary school teaching practice submitted to a journal which focuses on teaching practice in higher education) are likely to be rejected, regardless of quality. Authors should research each journal in which they hope to publish by looking for information on its purpose and scope online or in print and reading some of the articles the journal has published to obtain a sense of what the editor looks for in submissions (Fairbairn et al., 2009). If the paper does not meet the needs of the audience as well as fulfill the purpose and fall under the scope of the journal, a more appropriate journal should be considered. This alternative choice may not always be an international journal; in cases where the paper is parochial to the extent that the applicability of the recommendations is quite limited to a local context, perhaps the best matching journal - with the most appreciative audience - is one that is local or national.

Publication guidelines. Another challenge for authors is following the publication guidelines. Journals often have explicit, detailed guidelines; nonetheless, it is not unusual for editors to receive papers that seem to show that the author, EIL or otherwise, has not read, given regard to, or understood the guidelines. When a paper displays the author's lack of attention to detail such as this on the surface level, editors and reviewers may tend to more closely question the research itself (Archer, as cited in Weller, 2001). Not following the guidelines is a common reason for rejection (Fairbairn et al., 2009) that could be avoided with effort that is minimal in relation to the effort of researching and writing the paper itself.

Citation and referencing formats. An understanding of the referencing systems required may be one obstacle in following guidelines. Uniformity in referencing allows the audience to find and more deeply explore the research on which the foundation of the paper is based. Fortunately, following a referencing system does not require possession of the associated manual. Many journals provide the specific referencing guidelines or indicate the system required for their publication. Online resources offer explanations and examples. If Internet access is unavailable, even studying and then meticulously imitating the format of the references in articles published by the

targeted journal will make a better impression than submitting a paper with unformatted references. Again, inadequate attention to referencing systems may imply, correctly or incorrectly, a carelessness in overall approach to the research, which in turn could cast doubt on the overall suitability of the submission.

Plagiarism. Connected to the problem of referencing and citation is plagiarism. When writing for a journal using western academic writing conventions, using another's words or ideas without proper citation, even one's own prior work, can cause a paper to be rejected. With search engines and plagiarism detection systems or software, editors can more easily find instances of suspected plagiarism within a paper than ever before. Even if there are different ideas about the acceptability of using another's words or ideas in the local context, when seeking publication in international journals, for the sake of one's reputation, it is best to take special care to avoid possible plagiarism. Even in a situation where strict referencing is not currently required, Shi (2002) mentions a Chinese professor who uses citations and references in the expectation of their usage becoming standard practice in academia in China; when citing and referencing do become the norm, the professor does not want to risk accusations of plagiarism.

Self-plagiarism. Citations and references also apply to one's own previously published work. The object of citing and referencing one's own work is to avoid the appearance of presenting previously published work, whole or in part, as new, and to avoid violating copyright on previous work. Roig's (2006) discussion of self-plagiarism includes redundant publication (publishing the same paper in multiple journals without the knowledge or permission of the editors), duplicate publication (using the same data set in superficially different papers without acknowledgment), data fragmentation (deriving the maximum number of papers from a complex study), data augmentation (adding new data to an older study and publishing a paper presenting all the data as new), and text recycling (using chunks of text from previous works without attribution).

For EIL and other multilingual authors, the issue of self-plagiarism may extend to papers written based on another the author has written in a different language. Wen and Gao (2007) argue that this should not be considered self-plagiarism: the different writing conventions, the different audiences, and the subsequent necessary changes are likely to lead to a paper that is more than a straight translation. Accepting this practice would enable contribution to international journals and participation in the international discourse community without impoverishing the body of knowledge or discourse community in local contexts. Wen and Gao (2007) do add conditions: there should be a

clear indication that a version of the work exists in another language and that copyrights should be respected.

Revision. Authors, both native English and EIL speakers, who do not realize that there is a range of possible outcomes of the review process may misunderstand a request to revise as a rejection. A revision request means that the paper, depending on the quality of revisions, is still under consideration for publication. Hedging by the editors in the communication may be confusing (Canagarajah, 2009a); the pragmatics of constructive criticism on the part of the reviewers may be negatively misinterpreted as a list of errors.

What may seem like criticism to the author is oftentimes meant as support in bringing the paper to publication; thus, disappointment may ensue upon receipt of what appears to be a superficial revision. In some cases, this may happen because the author does not have a clear understanding of the requests made (Belcher, 2007) and perhaps does not realize that editors will respond to questions about revision requests. In other cases, the author may feel that the work is publishable as is; however, it is rare for a paper to be deemed so and to be accepted upon initial submission (Klingner, Scanlon, & Pressley, 2005). Authors should also understand that revision requests may be negotiable; if the authors can explain their reasoning for retaining the original, perhaps clarification is all that is necessary.

Rejection. In one study, nearly 60% of authors whose submissions were rejected by an international journal did not submit again to another (Sahakyan & Sivasubramaniam, 2008). While receiving a rejection letter is never pleasant, no matter how politely worded, it should not be a deterrent to submitting to other international, national, or local journals, nor should the rejection be taken personally. A rejection can be turned into a learning experience that can make the submission of the paper in question to another journal successful. If reviewer comments are not included in the rejection letter, authors may want to contact the editor to ask for these to see where the paper could be revised. A refusal to critically examine the paper through the comments of others may lead to a repeat of the same flaws and subsequent rejections for future papers.

Methods of Support for EIL Authors

EIL authors have a variety of resources that they may draw on or develop. While writing may seem to be an individual activity, EIL authors can find support by seeking and maintaining connections with other researchers and authors, exploring online resources, accessing professional development opportunities, and submitting to internationally oriented journals.

Networking. Scholarly writing for international publications seems to require extensive expertise in one's field, research

methodology, English in general, and western writing conventions in particular. Networking, joining the international discourse community in one's field of study, is one way to actively seek resources that complement the strengths and address the weaknesses of the author. Lillis and Curry (2010) categorize network resources for the production and international publication of academic papers into seven areas, including working with professional colleagues, co-authors, and others who may provide access to writing resources and publishing opportunities.

Lillis and Curry (2010) mention network resources for EIL authors with Internet access: Globelics (http://www.globelics.org/), an international academic network; the Academic Blog Portal (http://academicblogs. org/); and the Directory of Open Access Journals (http://www.doaj.org/). Other open access gateways include Open J-Gate (http://www.openj-gate.org/) and the WorldWideScience Alliance (http://worldwidescience.org/).

Mentoring. Braine (2005) encourages the formation of university mentoring programs to help EIL faculty with each stage of writing. Canagarajah established a mentoring system based on the reviewers at the *TESOL Quarterly* for EIL authors of papers that have a possibility of publication after revision (Triplett, 2005). Lillis, Magyar, and Robinson-Pant (2010) recount the efforts of the journal *Compare* to establish a mentoring program to support EIL authors in the production of scholarly papers. However, such programs are relatively rare; an author interested in finding a mentor may have to look outside such programs, by making inquiries through networks. An online mentoring network mentioned by Lillis and Curry (2010) is AuthorAID (http://www.authoraid.info/), which provides a venue for authors from developing countries to find suitable mentors; the international development agencies of three countries provide support for this initiative.

Language Support. Aside from mentoring programs providing language support, Sahakyan and Sivasubramaniam (2008) and Braine (2005) recommend the establishment of academic writing courses for EIL authors as essential to acquire the necessary writing skills for publication in international journals. Oftentimes this requires an institutional shift of philosophy, priorities, or resources in peripheral contexts which may not be practically feasible because of financial or administrative constraints, or may not be viewed as an institutional responsibility, but rather the responsibility of individual academics.

Collaboration. One method for increasing the number of underrepresented EIL authors is through collaborative research and writing. Such initiatives are particularly successful when one author is from a low-income country (countries in Sub-Saharan Africa reached

an 80% rate of co-authorship during the period between 1998 and 2007, the highest recorded, while the maximum rate of North American collaboration was the lowest at 30% [Kato & Chayama, 2010, p. 23]). Collaboration can overcome the traditional lack of connection between teachers in the work environment, which is described by Lortie (1975, as cited in Collins, 2007) as having an "egg carton structure" (p. 32) that makes collaboration less likely, whether on lesson plans, research projects, or papers. Lunsford and Ede (1990, as cited in Johnson & Chen, 1992) suggest that collaborative relationships may be more productive if there is good communication and no hierarchical issues; given the many challenges of collaboration, open, yet respectful communication, ideally on an equal basis, is essential.

As teachers, EIL speakers have much to offer in a collaboration, such as the ability to "see phenomena from the students' perspectives" (Johnson & Chen, 1992, p. 218) that researchers who are native speakers of English may miss from a lack of in-depth knowledge about the language, culture, and society. Penny, Ali, Farah, Ostberg, and Smith (2000, p. 446) note that EIL speakers can give "insider perspectives" while the "outsider perspective" is retained.

Collaboration is not always easy. While ultimately encouraging collaboration, Liu (2009) offers a cautionary list of challenges that collaborations may bring, and the attitudes that are necessary to successfully manage these relationships:

> There are so many factors working against it in the real world: time and energy constraints, turf wars, feelings of inadequacy or superiority with language and pragmatics, and general inexperience with the idea of collaboration. Working with others, especially those with differences in background and cognitive style, requires willingness, understanding, tolerance, and respect. (p. 5)

Penny et al. (2000), in their study of their own collaboration, mention additional challenges, including differing motivations or goals, as well as ethics and values, and cite other research that found collaboration, despite its reputation for bringing synergy to a project, could be an exhausting undertaking (Punch, 1986, as cited in Penny et al., 2000; Glaser & Strauss, 1978, as cited in Penny et al., 2000). In developing countries, where funds are scarce in the first place, collaboration comes at a higher cost than in developed areas in "...data gathering, knowledge dissemination, travel, and communication," not to mention the time and effort needed (Duque, Ynalvez, Sooryamoorthy, Mbatia, Dzorgbo, & Shrum, 2005). These issues can be challenging for both EIL and native English-speaking authors during the collaborative process, but nonetheless can be overcome.

As with any relationship, there is always a chance that one party will take advantage of the other. Johnson and Chen (1992) warn in particular against "the potential exploitation of teachers by university-based researchers" (p. 219). Power dynamics are not the only basis for exploitation; therefore, to increase the likelihood of a successful collaboration, it is important to have a thorough understanding of and agreement on the details of the collaboration, ranging from the division of responsibilities and expected timeframes to whose name comes first on publications. Questions should be asked to clarify as much as possible. In the process of negotiating the collaboration, the parties involved can establish an equitable relationship.

Internationally representative journal boards. One way for journals to signal support and equitable treatment for EIL authors is to have EIL board members (Belcher, 2007; Flowerdew, 2001; Triplett, 2005); this includes the advisory and editorial boards. The existence of an internationally representative board can encourage EIL authors to submit.

CamTESOL Support Initiatives

One of the purposes for the development and continuation of the CamTESOL Conference series is to not only disseminate information, teaching methodology and skills to local Cambodian teachers, but also to provide a platform for local researchers to present their research. While there are a number of universities situated in Cambodia, most located in Phnom Penh, it has quickly become evident that some local researchers needed support in their research endeavors.

Skills. In order to increase the number of research-based presentations at the annual CamTESOL Conferences, the Organizing Committee developed the Cambodian ELT Research Group with the goal of developing the skills and capacity of local researchers (approximately 20 per workshop). Since 2007, a total of nine research workshops have been offered on topics ranging from developing research questions and proposals, conducting action research, to analyzing and interpreting qualitative and quantitative data. A small number of local researchers have participated in a number of these workshops, and as a result, have received funding for, conducted, presented, and written up their research projects. Most recently, an additional Vietnamese ELT Research Group has been established, with the same goals and objectives.

Mentoring. Early on during the development of the CamTESOL Conference series, an International Professional Mentor Group was established to support the Steering, Organizing and Program Committees for the conference. Later, members of the same group, who

were academics based in the U.S., Hong Kong, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and the U.K., also assisted local researchers.

Funding/Mentoring. As Cambodia is a developing country, local academics/researchers have very little funding for research purposes. Because of their limited salaries, most of their time is dedicated to working in paying positions (the concept of professional development is somewhat foreign in this context). Therefore, the CamTESOL Conference series established a number of research grants (funded by different international organizations) in amounts ranging from US$500 -700. Applicants must participate in the ELT Research Group workshops, produce progress reports during their research, present at the following CamTESOL Conference, and complete a paper based on their research for consideration for publication, formerly in the *CamTESOL Selected Papers*, and now in the *Language Education in Asia* online publication. Each grant recipient is paired with an experienced researcher from the International Professional Mentor Group whose role is to support the recipient throughout the research process. Proposals are judged based on clarity, relevance, potential contribution to existing literature in the field, and feasibility. Proposals include background to the research topic, design and methodology, a draft budget, and a timeline for completion.

Discourse community/Networking. The various forums organized in conjunction with the CamTESOL Conference series (e.g., Leadership and Management, Quality Assurance) have been designed with the explicit goal of bringing together international, expatriate, and local academics with similar interests to facilitate networking, collaboration, and the exchange of information and experiences. Most recently, the ELT Research Forum was designed to provide an opportunity for international and local researchers to share ideas, discuss the challenges of conducting research in the development context, and share strategies to overcome these obstacles. In the 2011 forum, regional presenters from China, Vietnam, Thailand, Cambodia, Iran, and Indonesia shared the challenges that they faced and how they overcame obstacles to their research. They were joined by a panel of researchers from New Zealand, Australia, the U.S., and Japan, all with experience in the region, to exchange views and ideas. The audience consisted of both international and local conference participants with a special interest in developing collaborative opportunities to conduct research in the region.

CamTESOL Selected Papers and *Language Education in Asia*

From 2005 to 2009, the *CamTESOL Selected Papers* provided a platform to publish blind-reviewed and accepted papers from the CamTESOL Conference series, in support the Conference's aim of creating a discourse community based in Cambodia, but international

in scope, and also to encourage and support EIL authorship. Throughout its existence, the *CamTESOL Selected Papers* editors also actively sought out members of the editorial board from Cambodia and other Asian countries; *Language Education in Asia* continues this policy with its Advisory and Editorial Boards. The *CamTESOL Selected Papers* remain an open-access publication to support the spread of knowledge about the region, as does the new publication, *Language Education in Asia*. As of 2010, *Language Education in Asia* continues to publish blind-reviewed and accepted submissions from conference participants; however, the journal additionally accepts submissions for consideration of publication outside the conference, thus removing a possible challenge for EIL authors in the development context.

English Language Teaching Practice in Asia

Turning to this publication, the editors are pleased to present eleven selections from the 2005-2009 *CamTESOL Selected Papers*. All papers were blind-reviewed and accepted by the Editorial Board before original publication; for this book, members of the Editorial Board each went through all previously published papers and chose those that they felt were exceptional examples from the five volumes of the *CamTESOL Selected Papers*.

The papers included in *English Language Teaching Practice in Asia* fall into four categories: limited resources, teaching practice, self-access, and management. EIL authors from Cambodia, China, Japan, and Vietnam are represented in addition to other expatriate authors teaching in the Asian region. It is our hope that this collection of literature from the contexts presented contributes to the international body of knowledge related to the teaching practice of English, and provides a platform for these authors to present their findings, views, observations, and interpretations to a broader international audience.

Conclusion

Publication in English-language journals has become vital to the professional success of many EIL authors. These authors must cope with the myriad challenges presented in writing and publishing at an advanced level of English, often individually, and without adequate support or resources. Native English-speaking journal editors and scholars, as well as institutions worldwide, must develop a better awareness of and sensitivity to the challenges EIL authors face and strive to lessen, if not remove, these obstacles so that the contributions of these authors may enrich what will then become a truly international discourse community.

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Teaching Speaking and Listening with Scarce Resources

Jonathan C. Hull
King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Thailand

There may be advantages to teaching in an environment that is rich in resources such as textbooks, DVD players, computers and the internet. Nevertheless, in all contexts, even in supposedly resource-challenged ones, there remains a crucially important resource: teachers. However, many teachers, even those with considerable experience, feel reliant on published materials and do not realize that they can produce their own. Focusing on listening and speaking, this paper seeks to show that teachers can write their own materials and that these materials may be far more suitable to the local context than those written for the global market.

Textbooks, not least those for English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL/EFL), provide a substantial proportion of many publishers' revenue. These are often books designed for an international market and, depending on the context, are seen variously as bland or offensive. Clearly, since there is such a large global market for textbooks, there must be some compelling reasons why institutions and students buy them; one of these reasons is likely to be convenience. Nowadays, textbooks offer increasingly comprehensive packages that include such peripherals as teacher's editions, workbooks, audio CDs (both for classroom use and for self-study), DVDs, CD-ROMs and interactive whiteboards. However, teachers who work in environments that do not have access to such rich resources should not see this as an insurmountable handicap; rather, they should see it as a challenge to write materials for their local contexts, something textbooks for a broad market cannot possibly do.

This paper briefly reviews the literature on the use of published materials and then goes on to describe and illustrate, with reference to a sample unit of speaking and listening materials, how teachers can write materials suited to their own students.

Using Published Materials

This review explores reasons why teachers use published materials and considers factors that drive teachers to adapting them. It concludes that, since most teachers have such expertise in adaptation, writing for the local context is a manageable challenge and that developing this

skill, though useful for all teachers, is particularly necessary where resources are relatively scarce.

Most teachers, however much experience they have, use published materials. According to Hutchinson and Torres (1994), probably the most important reason for this reliance is that "the textbook provides confidence and security" (p. 318). However, this sense of support is not confined to actual teaching. Richards (1998) says that "in many schools and language programs the textbooks used in classrooms are the curriculum…Textbooks and other commercial materials in many situations represent the hidden curriculum of many language courses" (p. 125). In other words, textbooks can save time and provide security at several levels, from that of the entire curriculum to that of providing answer keys to individual exercises. This seems to be particularly important for novice teachers; indeed, it is well known that inexperienced teachers teach more closely to textbooks than more experienced ones (e.g., Roberts, 1998).

However, it is not only teachers who like the use of textbooks. As Hutchinson and Torres (1994) have said, textbooks can give learners a sense of autonomy because they can see what, in what sequence, and how they are going to learn items in the target language. In other words, learners also utilize textbooks for the various levels of content they offer – from an overview of the syllabus to individual activities. As Crawford (1995) says, "it may well be this sense of control which explains the popularity of textbooks with students" (p. 28).

Even so, textbooks are not always suitable for particular classes. They may not reflect local culture and so may not motivate students. In any case, both teachers and students may become bored with the same materials. Some schools encourage teachers to write their own materials, but many teachers feel not only that they are too busy but that they do not have the expertise to write materials. In a Hong Kong study, Richards, Tung, and Ng (1992, cited in Richards 1998) found that "only 28%" of secondary school teachers reported that they made significant use of materials they wrote themselves (p. 127). To these researchers, this percentage clearly seemed small even though Hong Kong is a resource-rich city where one might expect teachers to feel that they do not need to create their own materials. However, it seems reasonable to suppose that, in places with fewer resources and less new technology, there is a greater need for teachers to develop their own materials. The question, then, is whether teachers in such contexts can rise to this challenge.

Part of the answer to this question is that many teachers are already developing their own materials, though they may not realize they are doing so. Substantial numbers of teachers regularly adapt published materials. Indeed, Studolsky (1989) believes teachers may not use

textbooks as intensively as is commonly believed. She notes that teachers might teach a topic in a textbook but use their own materials to modify or replace the presentation in the book. Furthermore, as Freeman and Porter (cited in Studolsky, 1989) point out, even teachers who are wedded to textbooks still have to make important decisions about time management, quality of learning based on student performance, and modify instructions so that all students understand them. Why is such extensive adaptation necessary?

Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) identify five mismatches teachers often identify between published materials and their teaching situation; these are shown in Table 1 (p. 12).

Table 1

Reasons for Adapting Published Materials (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004)

Reasons	Examples
Teaching environment	The materials may not have been designed for the local culture.
Learners	The materials may not suit the learners in terms of factors such as age, language level, prior learning experience, or learning styles.
Teachers' preferences	The materials may conflict with the teachers' beliefs; for example, they may contain a lot of communicative activities but the teacher wants more grammar, or vice versa.
Course objectives	The school's or the government's objectives may conflict with those of the materials.
Texts and tasks	The texts may be interesting but their associated tasks very boring, or vice versa.

In many ways, it is a very challenging task to write a textbook for the international market. As Byrd (1995) has suggested, "For the writer of textbooks, possibly the most demanding of the differences between writing for a particular class and writing for publication is the search for coherence" (p. 7). Writers have to generate sequences of activities that lead both teachers and learners through the topic and language items presented in such a way that it is not only at a suitable proficiency level for the target learners but also enjoyable and motivating, and provides sufficient and useful practice. Thus, even where a textbook is fundamentally suitable to the local culture, it is a challenge for writers to produce an optimum sequence of activities for a particular class. Where a book is culturally inappropriate, teachers have to adapt even more radically; moreover, where some exercises or components of a book depend on technology that is not available in a particular locality, they may be neither useable nor adaptable.

Richards (1998) observes that teachers should therefore "approach textbooks with the expectation that deletion, adaptation, and extension will normally be needed for the materials to work effectively with their class. These processes...constitute the art and craft of teaching" (p. 135). For the purpose of evaluating textbooks for suitability, Richards suggests that teachers work together, using the following three macro-criteria: teacher factors (e.g., the quality of the teacher's manual), learner factors (e.g., the interest level of the content), and task factors (e.g., the degree to which the tasks meet their objectives). He also suggests several micro-criteria, such as whether the book promotes interaction among learners and whether it reflects authentic language use.

But what should teachers do if they evaluate a book and find it completely unsuitable for their students? Richards, a well-known textbook writer himself, recommends that they try writing their own materials. Indeed, this advice seems particularly pertinent where self-reliance is required since other resources including new technology are not available.

Writing One's Own Materials

Richards' recommendation that teachers should try writing their own materials is echoed by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) who, in the introduction to their book on developing materials, write:

> Teachers often think of themselves as being dependent on materials writers and they often do not believe that they are capable of writing good materials themselves. However, all teachers are materials developers in that they are involved every day in matching materials to the needs and wants of their learners. In order to do this, they select, adapt and supplement materials when preparing their lessons and they make decisions about their materials throughout their lessons in response to learners' reactions. They add, they delete, they lengthen, they shorten, they modify. They make use of their experience in teaching and their beliefs about language learning to 'develop' materials of optimum use to their learners. (p. 1)

According to Richards (1998), one way to start this process is to form a team of teachers. First, the team selects a text (either a spoken or a written text); next, each teacher works alone and writes a set of tasks for the text; finally, teachers can come together again to compare and evaluate their respective tasks. If a text from a textbook is selected, the tasks the teachers devised can then be compared with those of the textbook writer.

Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) also suggest that teachers begin by collecting texts (both spoken and written); this process should focus on topics that are of potential interest to their students. Then teachers should sift through the bank of texts they have generated and select texts that could be used with tasks written by teachers. Tomlinson and Masuhara (pp. 27-28) suggest several criteria for text selection, including the following:

- Is the text likely to interest most of the students? Does it connect to their lives?
- Are the students likely to be able to understand it?
- Do the text and any associated tasks meet the course objectives?

Tomlinson and Masuhara go on to stress the importance of clear and concise instructions and the potential for illustrations; they end by discussing design issues such as the use of art and photos. Here, it is useful to distinguish between two contrasting functions that artwork can play in instructional materials. First, it may be entirely decorative, in which case it is dispensable; in places with scarce resources, such artwork could, optionally, be added if a particular teacher is a talented artist. Second, artwork may be essential for a particular task; where resources are scarce and no teacher is an artist, such art-dependent tasks should usually be avoided. However, sometimes even nonartists can develop simple artwork (e.g., drawing a simple map for a lesson on giving directions).

For any teachers who still feel nervous about the progression from material adaptor to material writer, there are role models aplenty. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) know of groups of teachers getting together to produce supplementary materials in several countries, including several that are (or have, until recently, been) relatively resource-challenged in Africa and Southeast Asia: South Africa, Botswana, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam. There seems no reason why Cambodia could not be included in this list.

This challenge, if taken up, could lead to the development of textbooks for local markets. This would be consistent with the recent move away from general international textbooks designed to satisfy everyone in every culture towards either regional supplements to these textbooks or to country-specific textbooks. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), among others, have observed this trend and they list several countries where national textbooks have been produced recently, including Bulgaria, Romania, Morocco, Namibia, and Russia.

Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) list eleven characteristics of local materials, among which are that they tend to:

  – be written by groups of local teachers and teacher trainers
  – be pilot tested on target learners and then revised
  – be text-driven (both spoken and written texts) rather than language-driven
  – be content-focused and meaning-focused (i.e., English is used to gain new knowledge and skills)
  – use both local and international topics
  – have localized tasks so that learners can personalize and make connections with their own lives
  – focus on the target students' known needs and wants

(pp. 37-38)

With reference to these characteristics, the remainder of this paper describes a sample unit of materials designed to focus on listening and speaking.

Materials for Speaking and Listening

Introduction

This sample unit of materials for speaking and listening, adapted loosely from Richards and Hull (1987), has been designed with Cambodia as the local context (see Appendix). Its purpose is to show teachers that writing materials with few resources, while hard, is nevertheless a manageable challenge.

The unit has four linked phases. For the purposes of most of the tasks, listening is regarded as an integral part of speaking. In normal conversations, people speak and listen; in other words, they interact: when they speak, they are both expressing their own thoughts and also reacting to what the other person is saying. Nonetheless, one of the phases contains tasks that focus on listening.

Resources required. The following resources would be needed for local teachers to create a similar unit:

  – Word-processor and printer (typewriter or handwriting)
  – Photocopier
  – Audio-recording equipment (CD or cassette): For teachers without access to audio-recording equipment, the listening tasks (Phase 4) can be omitted without affecting the other three phases.
  – Speakers willing to be audio-tape-recorded
  – Teacher(s)

This final resource is the most crucial. As already stated, a team of teachers working together can more easily create a viable series of

activities as each can give the others feedback; also, and crucially, if several teachers pilot test their materials, both the quantity and quality of the information is likely to enhance any post-trial modifications. In addition, teams of teachers can act as speakers for the recording. No artwork was required for this unit, though there is scope for talented teachers to add decorative art.

Topic selection. The topic is public holidays, which happened to be the first item the writer found when surfing the Internet on Cambodia. Local teachers are experts on their own locality and, in this case, would not need to resort to the internet for information about Cambodian public holidays. Nonetheless, the web is a useful source of a wide variety of English language texts on such ubiquitous topics as public holidays. Even if the Internet is not available at educational institutions, it may be possible for teachers to access it elsewhere and select useful ideas for use as the basis for instructional materials. There are also alternative, more traditional sources of authentic English-language materials such as libraries, travel agents and English language newspapers. For instance, in Cambodia, the Phnom Penh Post is a useful source; on this newspaper's website, the writer found letters to the editor on traffic problems in Phnom Penh – another topic that, while ubiquitous, is also of considerable local concern.

Proficiency level. Although this unit has been designed for students who are at pre-intermediate or intermediate level, the same topic and similar tasks could be used for lower or higher levels. To do this, both the level of the language input and the difficulty level of the tasks could be modified; for instance, for a lower level, the listening text could be shorter, the speakers could use lower-level grammar and vocabulary, and the tasks could be easier.

Sequencing a series of related tasks. As already mentioned, one of the main challenges in developing materials is writing a series of related tasks and then selecting the best sequence for them to be used in the classroom (e.g., Nunan, 1995; Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005). This unit has four linked phases. While Phase 1 is designed to schematize students to the topic of public holidays and should therefore come first, as is explained below, the remaining phases can be taught in various sequences.

Phase 1: Getting Started

Purpose and explanation: This simple ranking task (see Appendix) serves to provide some ideas on the topic as well as some language input; both the ideas and the language can be adjusted for different proficiency levels.

Developing similar tasks: There is a wide range of possible opening tasks, including brainstorming, making lists, categorizing, matching, answering questions and giving personal information. In contexts

where resources are supposedly scarce, there is usually a wealth of realia (real things) that can be used or adapted. For instance, if the topic is travel, teachers can obtain English-language brochures from local travel agents. If the topic is food, real menus or copies of them can be brought to the classroom; where menus are in the first language only, the teacher can make the original into a bilingual menu, or, for higher proficiency levels, in English only.

Phase 2: One Way to Say It

Purpose and explanation: The purpose of the input is twofold. First, it serves to clarify the main speaking task – sometimes an example of a task is much simpler than an explanation. Second, it provides language the students can use when they do the main speaking task (Phase 3), and it can include some relatively long turns (in the attached sample unit, some turns are three lines long). This is a reflection of normal conversations, though many ESL/EFL textbooks only offer models of short turns.

Optionally, this phase could be audio-recorded for teachers who want to provide an extra dimension to the dialogue. In addition, it could be deleted where teachers feel their students would be able to do the speaking task without such task clarification or if they feel that their students do not need this language input. (Alternatively or in addition, the listening task could be inserted here; see Phase 4.)

Developing similar tasks: Since this is a model dialogue to prepare students for the main speaking task, it has been devised from the cues in the speaking task (see Phase 3 below). Essentially, there are two main considerations for the materials writer:

- deciding how the idea in each cue can best be put into words
- ensuring that speakers listen and react to their interlocutors (the people they are talking to)

This dialogue is designed for elementary level, but it could be shortened for lower-level students and lengthened with more complex language and even longer turns for higher-level students.

Phase 3: Now It's Your Turn to Speak!

Purpose and explanation: This is the main speaking activity and, reflecting normal conversations, it involves both speaking and listening. (Phases 1 and 2 act as pre-activities and Phase 4 serves as a possible follow-up activity.) The task seeks to have pairs of students talk informally about a topic that, though ubiquitous, has a local slant (talking about local public holidays). To achieve this, each student in

the pair is explicitly asked to take turns formulating questions from a list of prompts and answering those questions. At lower proficiency levels, these cues provide practice in forming questions; as students progress to higher proficiency levels, however, the purpose of such a task could shift so that the cues merely serve as a springboard for a relatively free conversation. This might mean that each student "chats" informally about the ideas in the cues as well as about ideas of their own.

Developing similar tasks: Many teachers have classrooms where the furniture cannot easily be moved; thus, it is often much more practical to devise pair tasks rather than group tasks. Having divided students into pairs, it is a good idea (except, perhaps, for advanced students) to give explicit instructions on which of the two students in the pair should start speaking first (in this case, Student A is given the first utterance in the conversation).

Phase 4: Listening to Other People

Purpose and explanation: This task is designed to provide students with exposure to different voices and accents. Another feature of this phase is that the speakers are talking from cues and thus they are using language more spontaneously and, hopefully, more authentically than if they were speaking from a script. Specifically, unscripted conversations are more likely than scripted ones to contain features of genuine conversations such as hesitations, false starts and restatements. Such features are not only what students have to confront when listening outside the classroom but can also make comprehension easier than in carefully edited scripts that are devoid of such features as restatement.

The recording is then transcribed (see attached transcript) so that listening tasks can be devised. In this case, the tasks have a dual focus: listening to what others say about the topic (both listening for gist and for details) and how they say it (language use).

As the final phase in this sequence, it serves as a post-activity to the main speaking task; however, as already mentioned, it could equally well serve as a pre-activity, either with or instead of the model dialogue (Phase 2). As a pre-activity, it would have additional purposes: to provide language input and to clarify the main speaking task.

Developing similar tasks: This task is very simple to create. Having first written the cues for the speaking task (Phase 3), the teacher needs to find two speakers (not necessarily native speakers of English) who can do the task confidently while being tape-recorded; usually, one rehearsal is sufficient. Once a satisfactory recording has been made, it should be transcribed so that teachers can devise suitable listening tasks. As with all the tasks in this sequence, the listening task can be adjusted for various proficiency levels.

Conclusion

The four-phase unit of materials on speaking and listening described here was devised without the use of high technology. The key resource for such projects is teachers who acknowledge their existing expertise as adaptors of published materials and are willing to extend their sphere of work to include writing original materials. Such teachers, preferably working in small teams, can pool their local knowledge, including their knowledge of topics that their students are likely to enjoy, and create tailor-made materials. This process is already being achieved in many places with scarce resources. Perhaps the biggest challenge is to get started; though, once the process is underway, it is certain to be a rewarding and professionally developmental experience.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix
Sample Unit of Materials for Speaking and Listening

Topic: Public Holidays

Phase 1: Getting Started

A. What do you like doing on public holidays? Which of these things is most important for you? And which is least important? Rank the items from *1* (most important) to *10* (least important).
   ____ spending time with family and friends
   ____ buying something nice for myself
   ____ buying gifts for others
   ____ going shopping
   ____ doing something different from usual
   ____ eating nice food
   ____ traveling to somewhere I've never been before
   ____ catching up with things I need to do (e.g., homework, housework)
   ____ keeping fit (e.g., doing a sport)
   ____ doing nothing

B. Work in pairs and compare your rankings in A above. Then write down two more things you like doing on public holidays and compare your ideas.
   _____
   _____

Phase 2: One Way to Say It

A. Work in pairs and practice this conversation.

Lily: What's your favourite holiday, Vutha?
Vutha: Hmm! It's hard to decide as I really enjoy time off work! But I suppose my favourite is New Year …
Lily: New Year? Why do you like it so much?
Vutha: Well, for one thing, it's a long holiday. Three whole days!
Lily: That sounds nice. Do you go out anywhere?
Vutha: Sure…most people go out. Lots of people go to pagodas and offer food to the monks. And they pray. Oh, and there are traditional games, and dances such as *roamvong* and *chhole chhoung.* I really love them!
Lily: Interesting! I'm sure I'd love them, too.
Vutha: Yes, and the best place to see them is at Wat Phnom. Most people go there.
Lily: Do you go there with friends?
Vutha: Sure! Most of my friends enjoy the occasion … it's really festive.
Lily: And what else do you do? Do you eat anything special?
Vutha: Yes, in my family, we always cook a lot of special dishes. One of them is Moan Kwai, that's roast chicken. And there's Tea Kwai…roast duck. They're both delicious. We always eat far too much…But what about you, Lily? What's your favourite holiday?
Lily: Oh, that's easy! It's …

B.   Do you agree with Vutha? What do you think of the New Year holiday?

Phase 3: Now It's Your Turn to Speak!

First, work alone and complete Student B's information below. Don't show your partner! Then work in pairs: one of you is Student A and the other is Student B.

Student A
Ask your partner about his or her favourite public holiday. Use some of the ideas below and any ideas of your own. Listen to your partner's answers and try to ask some follow-up questions. Begin like this:

"What's your favourite holiday?"
Ask why he/she likes it so much.
Ask if he/she goes anywhere or stays at home.
Find out who he/she spends the day with.
Ask what he/she does during the day.
Ask what he/she does in the evening.
Ask if he/she eats anything special.
Ask any other questions you can think of.

Now you are Student B: continue the conversation.

Student B
Answer your partner's questions about your favourite public holiday.

My favourite public holiday: _____
The reason(s) I like it: _____
What I do with my family and/or friends: _____
What I do during the day: _____
What I do in the evening: _____
What I usually eat: _____

Now you are Student A: continue the conversation.

Phase 4: Listening to Other People

Listen to Harvey and Chamroeun talk about their favourite holidays and answer the questions. Harvey is an American living in Thailand and Chamroeun is from Cambodia.

A. Listen for the main points and complete the table.

	Harvey	Chamroeun
Favourite holiday?		
Stays home?		
Goes out?		

B. Now listen for some details. Answer these questions.
   1. Can you give two places Harvey goes with the children?
   2. What kinds of games do the children play in Harvey's family?
   3. What happens during the Royal Ploughing Ceremony?
   4. What do Chamroeun and his friends eat during the ceremony?

C. Listen again to parts of the conversation and complete what the speakers say.

Chamroeun: Uh, when you stay at home, do you cook anything special?
Harvey: *I don't* _____, but my _____.
Excellent! And she _____.
Harvey: Well, talking about dinner, _____ do you have ...?
Chamroeun: Uh, we don't have anything special, _____ _____ because

_____

because it's really kind of exciting to go around and watch everything around _____

_____,

so we just take _____.

Transcript for sample unit on public holidays

Chamroeun:	Harvey, what's your favourite holiday?
Harvey:	Mmm…I think my favourite holiday would be New Year's.
Chamroeun:	New Year…
Harvey:	Yeah…
Chamroeun:	…why do you like it so much?
Harvey:	It's a…it's a time when…four families get together either at my place or one of their places.
Chamroeun:	OK, so when you get…when all the families get together, do you stay at home or do you go anywhere special?
Harvey:	Both!
Chamroeun:	Both?
Harvey:	We stay at home…usually a lot of the time is at home because we have a lot of food around the table…we have children…each family has their own kids…and so the kids are playing computer games and other games outside. So a lot of that time is at home. And then, usually, we will plan a trip out, either to the sea or to the butterfly farm or someplace special so that it's enjoyable for the kids.
Chamroeun:	It really sounds interesting and sounds really nice. Uh, it seems that you have a lot of fun when you get together and have kids around…playing with the kids, right?
Harvey:	Yes, a lot of fun!
Chamroeun:	And do you do any other things in the evening?
Harvey:	In the evening, usually we come back if we've gone out. We come back home and, uh, a lot of that time is for sitting round talking and drinking and eating and playing with the kids and just…enjoying ourselves.
Chamroeun:	Yes. Uh, when you stay at home, do you cook anything special?
Harvey:	*I* don't cook anything special 'cos I don't like to cook, but my mother-in-law is an excellent cook. Excellent! And she does a lot of the cooking, but some of her children that are mothers now, they do a lot of cooking, too. So the women folks do the cooking and I and the men folks do the drinking and eating!
Chamroeun:	Wow! So I…imagine that there would be, I mean there are a lot of food during the day and…

Harvey:	A lot…throughout the day…even when we go out with the children, it's kind of like a picnic while the children are playing, especially at the sea.
Chamroeun:	OK, so, well, it's really nice.
Harvey:	Really, really nice, we really enjoy it.
Chamroeun:	OK, thank…
Harvey:	But tell me…I've been talking about my favourite holiday, what is your favourite holiday?
Chamroeun:	Uh, my favourite holiday is the Royal Ploughing Ceremony.
Harvey:	The Royal Ploughing Ceremony?
Chamroeun:	Yes…OK, Cambodians call it *Preah Reach Pithi Chrot Preah Neangkol*, which means it's a…it's a festival, uh, celebrated at the beginning of the rice-growing season…
Harvey:	Oh…
Chamroeun:	Yeah, it's a celebration…a celebration of life and hope …and it's…it's usually celebrated in May all over Cambodia.
Harvey:	In May?
Chamroeun:	Yes, in May. I usually participate in it in Phnom Penh. The streets are full of people…but there are actually, well, in the main part of the ceremony, the king leads two cows or oxen with a plough…they plough a ceremonial field…and then the queen follows…sowing seeds.
Harvey:	Oh, really?
Chamroeun:	Yes, and the cows are offered different kinds of food, such as maize, rice, beans, you know, sesame, green beans, grass…and drinks, including water and rice whiskey…
Harvey:	Huh! And what do they choose to eat and drink?
Chamroeun:	That's just it! They choose different things each year… and the food they choose is important…uh
Harvey:	Oh, you mean, if they choose, say, rice…?
Chamroeun:	Right! The food they choose allows soothsayers or fortune-tellers to make predictions about the harvest in the coming year…
Harvey:	Ah, yes, yes…I see…
Chamroeun:	It's really incredible…a very old tradition in Cambodia… I really love it. It's fun…everybody is out in the streets and…
Harvey:	Who do you go with?

Chamroeun: Uh...a couple of my close...my friends...I mean they're really my close friends so we can go and have dinner and talk and, yes...

Harvey: Well, talking about dinner, what kind of food do you have...?

Chamroeun: Uh, we don't have anything special, actually, we don't normally have anything special because we kind of want to save time because it's really exciting to go around and watch everything around rather than spending hours and hours sitting in a nice restaurant and things like that, so we just take whatever is available there...just...

Harvey: Well, sounds great!

Chamroeun: OK?

Harvey: Listen, I would like to, uh, I would like to come to Cambodia some time and enjoy the ceremony...and...

Chamroeun: Yeah, you may want to try it. I think it's really great...so, you're always welcome!

Harvey: Oh, thank you very much.

Chamroeun: All right. Thank you very much.

A Study of EFL Instruction in an Educational Context with Limited Resources

Nguyen Thi Thu Ha
Vietnam National University, Hanoi, Vietnam

To Thi Thu Huong
Vietnam National University, Hanoi, Vietnam

This paper reports on a study exploring the beliefs of teachers and students about Content-Based Instruction (CBI) and the realities of CBI in EFL reading classes at the College of Foreign Languages, Vietnam National University, Hanoi. The aim is to improve the method of EFL reading instruction through integration of content and language in the Bachelor of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (BA TEFL) program, thus helping to enhance instruction with limited resources, leading to better preparation of English teachers for Vietnam. Salient findings emerged from the data concerning the mismatch of beliefs between teachers and students, the lack of professional subject-related topics in the reading programs and the less than satisfactory design and implementation of the intended curriculum. Respondents also suggest useful ways to handle CBI to improve the teaching of ESP and the development of curriculum/materials. Recommendations regarding administrators/higher level leaders, teachers, and students are then provided.

As the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) model of teaching English, dominant till approximately the end of the 20th century, has been said to have produced a failure pattern of "low proportion of learners reaching high proficiency" (Graddol, 2007, p. 90), ELT practitioners have been seeking other models for improvement.

Since the second half of the previous century, there has been a growing interest in combining language and content teaching. In the American context, programs, models, and approaches have proliferated in all levels of instruction, creating various forms of incorporating language and content teaching. From the mid-1990s in Europe, curriculum innovations have been directed toward the content and language integrated learning approach, in which both curriculum

content (e.g., science or geography) and English are taught together (Graddol, 2007). All these forms of incorporating language and content teaching fall under the heading of content-based instruction, which is similar to what Graddol (2007, p. 86) termed the "content and language integrated learning" or CLIL, "a significant curriculum trend in Europe."

Content-based instruction (CBI) is a curricula approach or framework, not a method (which involves a syllabus to be used: teaching and learning objectives as well as teaching and learning activities), in that it entails:

1. the view of the nature of language as a tool for communication;
2. the belief about the nature of language teaching/learning as interactions between language, content, teachers, and learners; and
3. the idea of how these views should be applied to the practice of language teaching.

<div align="right">(To, Nguyen, Nguyen, Nguyen, & Luong, 2007)</div>

In contrast to some EFL curricula with a focus on learning about language rather than learning to use language for meaningful communication about relevant content, the CBI approach seeks to reach a balance between language and content instruction. In line with this emerging direction, the English program for a Bachelor of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (BA TEFL) at the English Department, College of Foreign Languages, Vietnam National University in Hanoi (ED, CFL, VNUH) has been designed on the basis of different general themes such as education, health, environment, and entertainment, as theme-based is one variant of CBI (Brown, 2007). Although designed to be theme-based, until the end of 2008, the English language development program has been implemented in "segregated-skill" instruction with separate classes in the four English macro skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing as often found in the EFL model. There has been anecdotal evidence that newly graduated teachers of English from the Department lack proficiency in the language they are supposed to be qualified to teach. This raised a question on the alignment of the intended/claimed program, CBI, and the implemented one for intended outcomes: good nonnative teachers of English with an acceptable level of English proficiency. Thus, there appears a real need to empirically explore the beliefs of teachers and students about CBI and the realities of CBI in some English classes at the ED.

In response to this call, a study was conducted at the ED in 2008. This study, limited to English reading instruction, was framed specifically to explore ways to enhance EFL instruction in the

constraints of the limited resources within the intended CBI framework. The findings revealed that teachers and students of English in limited-resource institutions could exploit their "location-specific" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001) curriculum concepts and subjects to supplement the limited instructional materials and resource collection along the CBI approach for optimal results. The next section presents the study, originally entitled "*Content-based instruction: Beliefs and reality in EFL reading classes at English Department, College of Foreign Languages, Vietnam National University, Hanoi,*" conducted by Ha Thi Thu Nguyen.

The Study

Definition of Related Terms

Limited resources. To define *limited resources*, it would be easier to first look at resource standards for the teaching and learning of English. Then *limited resources* in this study context could be defined as the lack of such standards of resources for the teaching and learning of English. According to Richards (2002), the resource standards for ELT are:

- instructional materials to facilitate successful ELT. They are up-to-date, accessible to all teachers, and include print materials, video tape recorders and cassettes, audio tape recorders and cassettes, as well as a range of realia;
- computerized language instruction and self-access resources for learning; and
- a resource collection of relevant books, journals, and other materials which is easily accessible to teachers and students.

(p. 230)

Another definition of limited resources from the WeekendTEFL website is the lack of "access to modern equipment, adequate course materials and other teaching aids."

As such, the resources available in educational contexts in many Southeast Asian institutions, including the ED, can be regarded as *limited*. Teachers and students in these ELT institutions do not have frequent access to modern equipment, adequate course materials, or other teaching aids. Furthermore, they rarely have computerized language instruction or self-access resources for learning and professional development.

Content-based instruction. In Richards' work (2005), CBI is described as a "process-based CLT approach," an extension of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) movement which takes different routes to reach the goal of CLT, i.e., developing learners'

communicative competence. This approach is the "integration of a particular content [e.g., Math, Science, Social Studies] with second language aims...It refers to the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills" (Brinton et al, 1989, p. 2). Curtain and Pesola (as cited in Met, 2007), however, limited the term to only those "...curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language... appropriate to the grade level of the students..." (p. 35).

This paper adopts a view similar to that of Curtain and Pesola (1994) in which CBI involves teaching content in the second language at a level suitable to the grade of the students.

Content. Different authors have different views about what *content* should be. In Crandall and Tucker (1990), content is seen as "academic subject matter" while in Genesee (as cited in Met, 2007), content "...need not be academic; it can include any topic, theme or non-language issue of interest or importance to the learners" (p. 3). Chaput (1993) defines content as "...any topic of intellectual substance which contributes to the students' understanding of language in general, and the target language in particular" (p. 150). Met (as cited in Met, 2007) proposes that "...'content' in content-based programs represents material that is cognitively engaging and demanding for the learner, and is material that extends beyond the target language or target culture" (p. 150).

This paper adopts the definitions of Curtain and Pesola (1994), which is most relevant to the research context. Thus, *content* in this study is seen as materials, or "curriculum concepts," that are "cognitively engaging and demanding for the learner," and "that extend beyond the target language or target culture."

Models of CBI. Overall, the various definitions of content do not conflict with each other; in fact, they represent the diverse characteristics of programs that integrate content and language (different models of CBI). Through a careful review of related literature, this paper adopts the classification based on models which are diverse in characteristics and are put into a continuum which illustrates the relative role of content and language with the content-driven program at one end and the language-driven program at the other. These CBI models differ in the degree to which outcomes determine priorities in designing instruction from the general to the specific: units, lessons, tasks and activities. The continuum is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Content-Based Language Teaching: A Continuum of Content and Language Integration

Content-Driven				**Language-Driven**	
Total Immersion	Partial Immersion	Sheltered Courses	Adjunct Model	Theme-Based Courses	Language classes with frequent use of content for language practice

Along this continuum, the English programs at the ED, using the theme-based model of CBI, could be said to be skewed toward the language end. This points to the need to examine the fit of the designed and implemented programs in general, in the setting of English classes in particular, to ensure program effectiveness.

Belief and reality. *Belief*, in a broad sense, is the "acceptance of the mind that something is true or real" ("Belief," 2008). In the language class context, teachers' and students' beliefs are their views and perceptions about the language learning process. These views and perceptions can greatly shape the way they teach and learn a language. In the work of Lightbown and Spada (2000), it is proved that learner beliefs can be strong mediating factors in their experience in the classroom. Their learning preference, whether due to their individual learning styles or their beliefs about how languages are learned, would influence the strategies they choose to learn new materials. Similarly, teachers' beliefs would affect the way they teach, in particular, the way they organize resources, guide classroom procedures and activities, and assess the learning outcomes of their students (Lightbown & Spada, 2000). Therefore, in the context of the current research, it is of high significance to investigate teachers' and students' beliefs about CBI in the English reading classes.

Reality, on the other hand, is defined as the actual being or existence, as opposed to an imaginary, idealized, or false nature ("Reality," 2008). In this study, thus, reality in English reading classes is identified as what actually happens in the in-class reading lessons, including the reading course syllabus, materials in use, assessment, and classroom activities.

The Setting of the Study

The curriculum. The aim of the curriculum is to produce professionally competent and able-bodied teachers of English of the

highest quality with a strong sense of responsibility (Undergraduate Programs, 2005). There are 5 blocks in the curriculum (Table 2).

Table 2

The Curriculum

Block 1. Common subjects (57 credits)	Field experience (5 credits)	BA TEFL Curriculum (216 credits)
Block 2. Mathematics and Natural Science subjects (5 credits)		
Block 3. Basic subjects (17 credits)		
Block 4. Fundamental subjects (93 credits)	Minor thesis or Graduation examination (10 credits)	
Block 5. Professional subjects (23 credits)		

The reading program. The ED reading program belongs to Block 4 and the courses go under the names Reading 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. First-year students take Reading 1 and 2, second year students take Reading 3 and 4, third-year students take Reading 5 and 6, and fourth-year students take Reading 7. The aim of the program is to prepare students for the required reading proficiency level 4 of the Association of Language Testers of Europe (ALTE 4).

The Problem and Rationale for the Study

At the ED, to earn a BA TEFL, students must accumulate 216 credits comprising 5 blocks of knowledge (see Appendix A).

Final-year students often complain about the lack of time, background knowledge, and, sometimes, English proficiency to comprehend instructional materials for linguistic/cultural/professional subjects such as English Phonetics and Phonology, Introduction to English Semantics, English Morphology, English Syntax, English Literature, American Literature, British Studies, American Studies, Cross-Cultural Studies, and Language Teaching Methodology 1, 2, and

3. The students appear to only vaguely notice the link and purposes of the different blocks of knowledge in the program. As a result, many of the graduates still do not reach the required ALTE 4.

Many teachers working in different divisions such as English Language, Linguistics, ELT Methodology, Literature, and Cross-Cultural Communication seem to operate in their own world, almost failing to notice what is happening in the other divisions. The fact is that the necessary content to prepare English teachers well has not been optimally strengthened through language work. This calls for a need for a study on the beliefs and realities of CBI in EFL classes at the ED so that even better integration of content (curriculum concepts/ materials) and language in the BA TEFL program leads to good preparation of English teachers for Vietnam, the aim of the research reported in this paper. The reading class setting was selected as it was hypothesized that reading instruction could be the most appropriate area to apply the CBI approach.

One of the difficulties for this study was the lack of available research in similar fields (CBI in EFL contexts). To the researcher's best knowledge, there are some studies seeking to integrate content and language in the same context, e.g., Davies (2003) team taught psychology and English with a psychologist at a Japanese college; Luchini (2004) integrated a methodology component into a language improvement course at Universidad Nacional de Mar del Plata in Argentina; Adamson (2005) tried to combine teaching sociolinguistics to Japanese and Chinese second-year students at a college in Japan with EFL; and Shang (2006) applied CBI in literature classes at I-Shou University in Kaohsiung, Taiwan. However, these studies dealt with the technical level of CBI, not at both the technical and evaluative development of a CBI reading program as the current study attempted.

Research Questions, Design, and Procedures

The aim of this study was to explore the beliefs of both teachers and students on how to handle CBI in the English reading classes at the ED and the congruence between the teachers and students' beliefs in reality. The investigation was to eventually find out possible ways to handle CBI in the reading lessons for better train future English teachers. To realize the above aim, three research questions were detailed:

1. How do teachers and students at the English Department believe CBI should be handled in the reading classes?
2. How are teachers using the required materials for CBI in the reading classes?

3. How do teachers and students suggest applying CBI in the reading classes?

Participants. Thirty teachers involved with the EFL program at the ED and 100 students of mixed proficiencies from Year 1 to Year 4, Fast-track and Mainstream, were the target participants of the study. However, only 19 teacher questionnaires could be used for further data analysis. Seven teachers from these 19 were interviewed on the basis of their voluntary participation (Tables 3.1 and 3.2). All 100 students agreed to participate in the study (Table 3.3).

Instrumentation. The methodology of this research was qualitative. Three data gathering instruments, namely belief questionnaires for teachers and students (see Appendix B), interviews with teachers (see Appendix C), and classroom observations (see Appendix D) in 8 classes, each over 6 hours, were used to ensure accurate information from the respondents (Wallace, 1998). The researcher also conducted an analysis of available official documents on syllabi and relevant policy papers for in-depth information on the BA TEFL program. In the main section, the set of questionnaires is comprised of 4 parts: (i) general information; (ii) beliefs about content-based instruction in the English reading classrooms at ED, CFL, VNUH; (iii) the block(s) of knowledge to be integrated into the language classroom; and (iv) participants' judgment on the appropriateness of the techniques to be employed in the CBI context.

Table 3.1

A Classification of Surveyed Teachers by Division

Division	Number of Teachers	Percent
English 1	2	10.5
English 2	4	21.1
English 3	3	15.8
Country Studies	1	5.3
Fast-Track Program	3	15.8
ELT Methodology	2	10.5
ESP	2	10.5
Minority Group	2	10.5
Total (*n*=19)	19	100.0

Table 3.2

Brief Background of Teacher Interviewees

Teacher Interviewee	Gender	Division	Teaching Experience
T1	Female	English 4, Country Studies	30 years
T2	Female	English 2, 3	4 years
T3	Female	English 2	1 year
T4	Female	English 2	2 years
T5	Male	ESP	13 years
T6	Male	Fast-Track Program	1 year
T7	Male	Country Studies, Minority Group	6 years

Table 3.3

Student Participants by Classes and Academic Year

	Mainstream Students	Fast-Track Students
Year 1	7	21
Year 2	5	11
Year 3	27	14
Year 4	5	10
Total (*n*=100)	44	56

Interviews were conducted in Vietnamese. They were translated into English or notes were taken in English by the researcher in order to probe in-depth information, as Vietnamese is the mother tongue of both interviewer and interviewees. Triangulation was utilized through the translations or notes of the transcriptions and then confirmed with respondents for accuracy.

Data analysis. The collected data were classified and then qualitatively and statistically analyzed. Data from questionnaires were statistically analyzed via SPSS software Version 14 to find answers to research questions number 1 and 3. Prior to being inputted into SPSS, questionnaire data were coded (see Appendix B). Then means, standard deviations, and percentages were calculated; charts and tables were generated for comparison, interpretation, and discussion.

Data obtained from interviews and classroom observations were analyzed interactively (Huberman & Miles, 1994, p. 436) in a matrix

merging both cases and variables for trends and patterns within categories of themes. These themes were:

- For teachers:
  1. necessary and sufficient conditions for the successful handling of CBI
  2. what they have done to implement CBI in their English reading classes
  3. their suggestions for even more successful implementation of CBI

- For students:
  1. description of the reading program they attended
  2. their perceptions of the effectiveness of that program in preparing them as students of professional subjects and as teachers of English
  3. their perception of the appropriateness of integrating the contents of the professional subjects (e.g., English Language Teaching Methodology, Country Studies, Literature, Discourse Analysis) into the reading program in Years 1 and 2
  4. their suggestions for even more successful integration of these contents into the reading program

The resulting information helped to triangulate data from questionnaires and to answer Research Question 2.

Major Findings and Discussions

How Do Teachers and Students Believe CBI Should Be Handled in the Reading Classroom?

The study found that both teachers and students held high beliefs toward the benefits of CBI. However, teachers appeared to endorse all belief statements with their means for Beliefs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 being consistently lower than those of the students. Teachers endorsed Belief 2 and Belief 6 more than students. Table 3.4 and Figure 1 present the information; the highest level of endorsement is 1.00 and the lowest is 5.00.

Table 3.4

Types of Knowledge and Skills Needed to Handle CBI

Beliefs	Teachers	Students
1. <u>Both teachers and students</u> should have **a good knowledge of the Bachelor of English Teaching Program** they are working for, e.g., its aims and objectives, how many blocks of knowledge it consists of, the subjects in each block.	2.00	2.30
2. <u>Both teachers and students</u> should **understand the relevance and linkages of the different blocks of knowledge** and different subjects in each block in the program, e.g., Logics is useful for English writing and critical thinking, Statistics for social sciences is a good tool for scientific research, Psychology, Pedagogy, and ELT Methodology are very important for teachers of English.	1.74	2.48
3. <u>Both teachers and students</u> should **understand what CBI is**.	2.11	2.58
4. <u>Both teachers and students</u> should come to an understanding that **CBI is a good way of preparing students for various job-related requirements** in the future.	1.95	2.68
5. **Teachers** should **know** the various CBI models and techniques.	2.32	2.65
6. <u>Teachers</u> should be **able to apply** the appropriate CBI models and techniques to their classroom teaching.	1.89	2.66
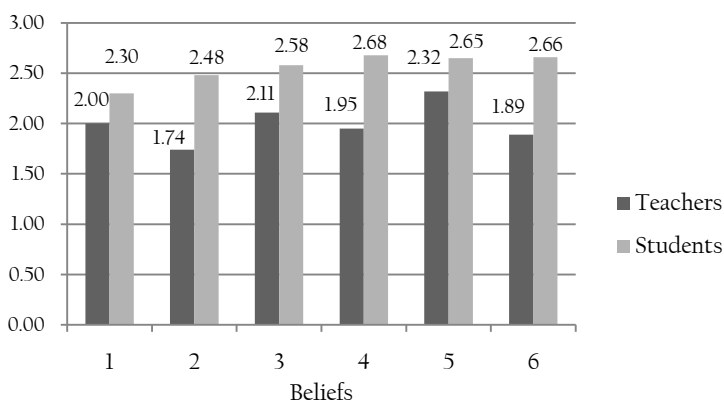
Figure 1. Students and teachers' beliefs about content-based instruction in the English reading classes at ED. See Table 3.4 for a description of each belief. The highest level of endorsement is 1.00 and the lowest is 5.00.

From students' perspectives, it was "a good idea" to integrate content of the professional subjects such as ELT Methodology, Country Studies, and Discourse Analysis into the reading programs even in Years 1 and 2 as the academic load was much lighter in these years. However, they stressed that the reading materials should cover only the introduction to the professional subjects to be studied in the following years.

Their teachers, however, seemed a little reserved about the use of CBI in the English reading classes. They mentioned several necessary and sufficient conditions for the successful handling of CBI such as teachers' content knowledge and pedagogical skills, students' proficiency and study skills, suitable materials, and physical conditions.

Thus it could be concluded that both teachers and students believe that for successful handling of CBI in the English reading lessons at the ED, both teachers and students should try very hard to improve themselves in terms of content knowledge and professional-pedagogical skills (especially teachers), critical reading (students), and a thorough knowledge of the curriculum (both).

To What Extent Do the Beliefs Teachers and Students Have About CBI in the Classroom Match the Reality?

The findings showed a trend with both Fast-Track and Mainstream students. They seemed to share common ideas that the themes in the reading programs were "too broad" and "not so interesting." Thus, to a

large extent, the beliefs of students about CBI in the English reading classrooms were not matched: the reading themes were repetitive and did not cover areas that facilitated the study of subsequent professional subjects. Some of the teachers were not active enough in helping to provide students with supportive learning conditions/experiences.

As for teachers, although they believed that CBI was a good way of teaching at the ED, the reality of their English reading classes was still far from perfect for CBI. Classroom observations showed that teachers only used a language-driven approach, using materials that dealt with topics such as food and drink, the weather, relationships and travel. Data from the Teachers' Beliefs Questionnaires on the use of tasks for CBI in the English classrooms revealed a limited number of tasks that teachers reported using. They were: student expressing an opinion or idea on a specific topic, student justifying why he chooses to do something a certain way, and role play.

There were, however, some young teachers who had appropriately focused their class activities on eliciting "knowledge of content, acquisition of thinking skills and development of English language abilities" (Shang, 2006, p. 5). These young, successful teachers also recommended that CBI should aim to develop all of the four macro skills of English, not just the reading skill.

To What Subjects and Activities Do Teachers and Students Suggest Applying CBI in Reading Classes?

The findings yielded useful information on blocks of knowledge to be used for CBI, and the appropriateness of fundamental and professional subjects for CBI.

While both teachers and students appeared to agree on the appropriateness of Blocks 1, 2, and 3, they seemed to disagree on Blocks 4 and 5. Teachers thought that Block 4 was much more appropriate for CBI than Block 5 (with a respective mean difference of 1.27), but students held different ideas such that there was a slight difference of only 0.64 between the means of these two blocks, with Block 5 having a higher level of endorsement than with teachers. The mismatch may lead to a differing focus by teachers and students, thus causing difficulties and ineffectiveness in the process of teaching and learning in the English reading classes at the ED.

In terms of the CBI appropriateness of fundamental subjects, there was congruence between teachers' and students' perceptions. The only exceptions were British Studies and English-Speaking Countries Studies, where teachers thought that these subjects were more appropriate than students did. The reverse happened with the subjects of English Literature, Cross-Cultural Studies 1 and 2, Communication Skills, Reading-Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, Advanced English,

Translation, Consolidated Oral Communication, and Consolidated Written Communication (Figure 2). Teachers, students, and administrators should be made aware of such mismatches if quality teaching and learning at the ED is to be striven for.

Regarding the appropriateness of subjects in the Professional Knowledge Block for CBI handling, teachers consistently displayed a lower level of endorsement than students with most professional subjects. Both teachers and students showed their agreement on the CBI appropriateness of the subjects of Language Teaching Methodology 1, 2, 3, and 4 with their respective means of 2.11 and 2.10. This means that both teachers and students majoring in English teacher training were fully aware of the importance of Language Teaching Methodology and wished to use its content in English classes.
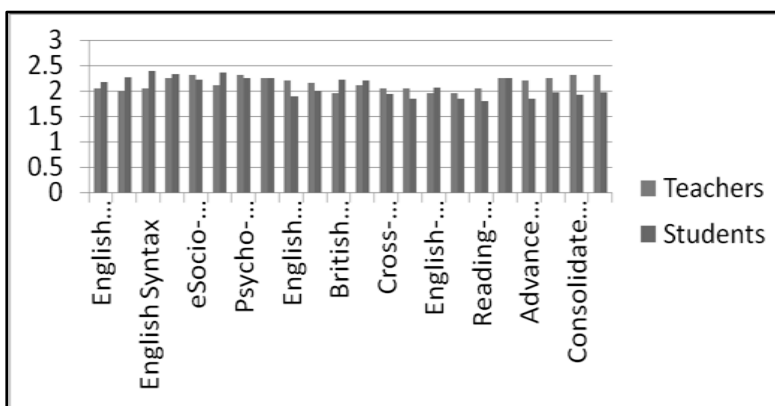
Figure 2. Subjects for CBI in Block 4

Table 4

The Appropriateness of Activities for Learning and Practicing English in CBI Classrooms as Perceived by Teachers and Students

Activities	Teachers		Students	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Review of previously learnt content	1.68	.671	1.96	.828
Use content-related visuals	1.84	.688	1.93	.665
Reaction journals	1.95	.848	2.48	.867
Vocabulary previews	1.79	.713	2.30	.868
Free association	2.11	.809	2.71	.968
Visualization exercises	2.58	.838	2.57	.912
Anticipation reaction guides	1.79	.631	2.32	.930
Grammar development	2.21	.855	2.30	1.032
Vocabulary expansion	1.63	.684	1.75	.708
Reading guides	1.79	.713	1.87	.772
Information gap tasks	1.79	.713	2.08	.909
A variety of text explication exercises, either oral or written	1.84	.602	2.05	.906
Role-plays	1.95	.780	2.40	1.133
Debates	1.37	.597	2.20	.964
Discussions	1.37	.597	1.86	.829
Essays	1.68	.749	2.43	.956
Summarizing	1.58	.607	2.29	.889
Pair work	1.47	.697	1.99	.919
Group work	1.37	.597	2.07	.949

Reporting	1.53	.697	2.59	.966
Description	1.89	.737	2.57	.923
Telling a story	2.16	.834	2.62	.951
Giving instructions	1.89	.809	2.22	.881
Presentations	1.68	.820	2.02	.924
Interviews	1.89	.994	2.45	1.061
Practicing dialogues	2.32	.820	2.64	1.138
Reading comprehension	1.58	.692	1.77	.848
Problem solving	1.37	.597	1.94	.876
Giving/defending opinion	1.58	.838	2.04	.989
Substitution activities (drills)	2.32	1.003	2.66	.967
Translation (E-V & V-E)	2.16	.898	2.62	1.122

In short, the findings from questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation revealed that although teachers and students at the ED held high beliefs about the benefits of CBI, some of their beliefs were mismatched in the appropriateness of the different blocks of knowledge and subjects within each block and the types of suitable classroom activities. Classroom observations showed that though the curriculum was claimed to be theme-based, a branch of CBI, the implementation of CBI in the reading classroom could still be further improved with better integration of more professional subject-related topics into the reading programs. In order to ensure the successful handling of CBI at the ED, there are many things to be done regarding teachers, students, and the physical conditions.

Implications

Recommendations for a more effective implementation approach to the integration of language and content in the BA TEFL curriculum:

- Integrating some introductory content of the subjects in the professional knowledge block into the fundamental knowledge block, specifically into the reading program of the ED, to provide richer and more professional subject-relevant content to prepare students for their BA TEFL. The themes in the reading program of the ED, currently revolving around general topics of education,

transportation, etc., need to be made more relevant to the professional subjects of the third and fourth years (ELT Methodology, Pedagogy, Psychology, etc.).

- Integrating content of the linguistic, literature, and culture-related subjects into the language classes (covering all the four macro English skills) within the fundamental knowledge block.
- Adopting the adjunct model to optimally prepare students for their learning of the professional subjects as well as preparation for their future careers; that is, language and content should be integrated using a team design, in which a content course instructor works collaboratively with a language instructor. At the ED, a content course instructor could be a lecturer from ELT Methodology, Linguistic, Literature, or Cross Culture Communication Divisions (Theory Divisions). A language instructor could be a teacher from English Skills Divisions 1, 2, 3, 4 (Practice Divisions). The best arrangement could be that a lecturer at the ED should be able to work at both types of divisions for the successful implementation of CBI.
- Providing on-going professional support and development as well as better teaching conditions to teachers.
- Raising awareness and training students for optimal handling of CBI.

What should teachers do?
- Obtain a good knowledge of the English language and the subject matter that they integrate in their reading lessons.
- Organize class discussions focused on explaining difficult phrases, main ideas, and interesting aspects of the teaching materials. To make this activity more effective, the teachers can call on some students to form a group which is supposed to answer any questions from the audience about the reading passage or question the audience.
- Encourage students to have more real-life examples related to a difficult view during discussions. Help students enhance background knowledge.
  Advantages of this activity:
  – enhances comprehension
  – gives students the chance to discuss different views on one idea; by discussing, they can figure out or have a clearer idea of difficult phrases/ideas in the material
  – makes students have the feeling that they are not being tested and read actively
  – improves explanation skills (useful for future teaching)

Difficulty of this activity: choosing suitable topics (interesting, updated, not very specialized)

What should students do?
- Understand the importance of CBI for their future careers or for further study
- Increase their English vocabulary and proficiency level
- Read widely in both English and Vietnamese
- Understand that English should be a tool for the acquisition of knowledge
- Have a good knowledge of the BA TEFL curriculum

What should be done about the physical conditions?
- Check if classrooms are well equipped and teaching conditions are good.
- Verify that reading materials are really "content based."
- Vary the themes to include more professional-subject-related topics.

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Appendix A
The Five Blocks of Knowledge for the BA TEFL

Block 1 - Common subjects (57 credits): all taught in Vietnamese

Block 2 - Mathematics and Natural Sciences (5 credits)

Block 3 - Basic subjects (17 credits): Fundamentals of Vietnamese Culture, Introduction to Linguistics, Vietnamese 1 and 2, Logics, Contrastive Linguistics, which are taught in Vietnamese, and Research Methodology, which is taught in English

Block 4 - Fundamental subjects (93 credits):
1. Linguistic knowledge subjects
   Compulsory: English Phonetics and Phonology, Introduction to English Semantics, English Morphology, English Syntax
   Elective: English Stylistics, Introduction to English Pragmatics, Socio-Linguistics, Introduction to English Discourse Analysis, Psycho-Linguistics, Introduction to Functional Grammar
2. Cultural knowledge subjects
   Compulsory: English Literature, American Literature, British Studies, American Studies, Cross-Cultural Studies
   Elective: Literature in other English-speaking countries, Communication Skills
3. Language components
   English for Specific Purposes (English for Economics, Finance and Banking), Translation, Listening 1,2,3,4,5,6, Speaking 1,2,3,4,5,6, Reading 1,2,3,4,5,6, Writing 1,2,3,4,5,6, Academic Writing, Advanced English

Block 5 - Professional subjects (23 credits): General Psychology, Psychology for Teachers, General Pedagogy, Pedagogy for General Education, State Administration of Education and Training (taught in Vietnamese), Language Teaching Methodology 1,2,3 (taught in English) (compulsory), Music, Drawing (taught in Vietnamese), Technology in Language Teaching (taught in English) (electives)

The Field Experience (5 credits) and **Minor Thesis or Graduation Examination (10 credits)** make up the final 15 credits.

Appendix B
Belief Questionnaires for Teachers and Students

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

My name is Nguyen Thi Thu Ha, from K38A1. I am conducting a research on **how to handle Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in the English reading classes**. Content-based Instruction is basically an approach which seeks to integrate the learning of a subject (content) with language learning. Its principle is that students can learn a language better through learning content in that language.

As part of the research project, I would like your input on how you **believe**, **actually deal with** and **suggest** that CBI should be handled in your reading classes. Please take your time to respond to this survey as the information you give us will help improve the preparation of English teachers at the English Department. The survey will take you approximately 15 minutes. When answering the questions, think not only of the courses you are teaching now, but also about the courses you have taught in the past. If you have any questions, please see Ms Vu Mai Trang, my supervisor. All the information you provided will remain anonymous. Thank you very much for your help.

Background information - Please provide us some relevant information before you go to the next parts:
      Your gender:
      Your division:

Part 1. Your beliefs about Content-based Instruction in the English reading classes at ED, CFL, VNUH

Things to be considered when handling Content-based Instruction (CBI)
In the left hand column are the things that we think should be taken into consideration when handling CBI in classes. In the right hand column **rate** each of these items on a scale from **MOST important (1)** to **NOT important (5)**.

THINGS TO BE CONSIDERED WHEN HANDLING CBI	RATING
Both teachers and students should have a good knowledge of the Bachelor of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language Program they are working for (e.g., its aims and objectives, how many blocks of knowledge it consists of, the subjects in each block…).	
Both teachers and students should understand the relevance and linkages of the different blocks of knowledge and different subjects in each block in the program (e.g., Logics is useful for English writing and critical thinking; Statistics for social sciences is a good tool for scientific research; Psychology, Pedagogy, and ELT Methodology are very important for teachers of English…).	
Both teachers and students should understand what CBI is.	
Both teachers and students should come to an understanding that CBI is a good way of preparing students for various job-related requirements in the future.	
Teachers should know the various CBI models and techniques.	
Teachers should be able to apply the appropriate CBI models and techniques to their classroom teaching.	
Others: Please feel free to fill in other things that we fail to identify.	

Part 2.   Which block of knowledge and subject do you think is most appropriate for CBI in the reading classrooms:

If CBI were to be employed in your course, which block of knowledge and which subject do you think is the most appropriate to be integrated into your reading classes? In the right hand column **rate** these items from **MOST appropriate (1)** to **NOT appropriate (5)**.

BLOCKS OF KNOWLEDGE/ SUBJECTS	YOUR RANK
Block 1: Common subjects (57 credits):	
1. Marxist-Leninist Philosophy; Political Economics; Ho Chi Minh Ideology	
2. Scientific Socialism; History of Vietnamese Communist Party	
3. Basic Informatics 1 & 2; Logics	
4. Second Foreign Language 1, 2, 3, 4	
5. Physical Education 1, 2; National Defence Education 1, 2, 3	
Block 2: Mathematics and Natural Sciences (5 credits):	
1. General Geography	
2. Statistics for Social Sciences	
3. Human and Environment	
Block 3: Basic subjects (17 credits):	
1. Fundamentals of Vietnamese Culture; Introduction to Linguistics	
2. Contrastive Linguistics; Vietnamese	
3. Research Methodology (taught in English)	
4. Critical Thinking (taught in English)	
Block 4: Fundamental subjects (93 credits) are subdivided into three areas:	
Linguistic knowledge subjects:	
1. English Phonetics and Phonology	
2. Introduction to English Semantics	
3. English Syntax	
4. Introduction to English Pragmatics	
5. Socio-Linguistics	
6. Introduction to English Discourse Analysis	
7. Psycho-Linguistics	
8. Pragmatics	
9. Functional Grammar	
Cultural knowledge subjects:	
1. English Literature	
2. American Literature	
3. British Studies	
4. American Studies	

5.	Cross-Cultural Studies 1, 2	
6.	Communication Skills	
7.	English-Speaking Countries Studies	
Language components:		
1.	Listening-Speaking 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
2.	Reading-Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
3.	ESP (English for Economics, Finance and Banking….)	
4.	Advanced English	
5.	Translation	
6.	Consolidated Oral Communication	
7.	Consolidated Written Communication	
Block 5: Professional subjects (23 credits):		
1.	General Psychology (taught in Vietnamese)	
2.	Psychology for Teachers (taught in Vietnamese)	
3.	General Pedagogy (taught in Vietnamese)	
4.	Pedagogy for General Education (taught in Vietnamese)	
5.	State Administration of Education and Training (taught in Vietnamese)	
6.	Language Teaching Methodology 1, 2, 3, 4	
7.	Technology in Language Teaching	
8.	Music (taught in Vietnamese)	

Part 3. How should CBI be handled in the English reading classes?
The following is a list of activities that were thought to be appropriate for learning and practicing English in CBI classes. For each item in the list, please mark (✓) how appropriate you think the activity is for practice in the classroom.

Activity	Very Appropriate	Appropriate	Somewhat Appropriate	Not Very Appropriate	Not Appropriate
Review of previously learnt content					
Use content-related visuals					
Reaction journals					
Vocabulary previews					
Free association					
Visualization exercises					
Anticipation reaction guides (to assist students in accessing the new content material)					
Grammar development					
Vocabulary expansion					
Reading guides (e.g., idea sequencing and/or text completion exercises)					
Information gap tasks (such as jigsaw reading)					
A variety of text explication exercises, either oral or written					
Role-plays					
Debates (formally arguing pros and cons of an issue)					
Discussions					
Essays					
Summarizing					

OTHER:					
Pair work					
Group work					
Whole class activities					
Reporting					
Description					
Telling a story					
Giving instructions					
Presentations					
Interviews					
Practicing dialogues					
Reading comprehension					
Problem solving					
Giving/defending opinion					
Substitution activities (drills)					
Translation (E-V & V-E)					

Thank you very much for your help!

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

My name is Nguyen Thi Thu Ha, from K38A1. I am conducting a research on **how to handle Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in the English reading classes**. Content-based Instruction is basically an approach which seeks to integrate, or combine, the learning of a subject (content) with language learning. Its principle is that students can learn a language better through learning content in that language.

As part of the research project, I would like your input on how you **believe**, **actually deal with** and **suggest** that CBI should be used in your reading classes. Please take your time to respond to this survey as the information you give us will help improve the preparation of English teachers at the English Department. The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes. All the information you provided will remain anonymous. Thank you very much for your help.

Background information - Please provide us some relevant information before you go to the next parts:

Your gender:

Your class:

Part 1. Your beliefs about Content-Based Instruction in the English reading classrooms at ED, CFL, VNUH

Things to be considered when handling Content-Based Instruction (CBI)

In the left hand column are the things that we think should be taken into consideration when handling CBI in classes. In the right hand column **rate** each of these items on a scale from **MOST important (1)** to **NOT important (5)**.

THINGS TO BE CONSIDERED WHEN HANDLING CBI	RATING
Both teachers and students should have a good knowledge of the Bachelor of Arts in Teaching English as a Foreign Language Program they are working for (e.g., its aims and objectives, how many blocks of knowledge it consists of, the subjects in each block...).	
Both teachers and students should understand the relevance and linkages of the different blocks of knowledge and different subjects in each block in the program (e.g., Logics is useful for English writing and critical thinking; Statistics for social sciences is a good tool for scientific research; Psychology, Pedagogy, and ELT Methodology are very important for teachers of English...).	
Both teachers and students should understand what CBI is.	
Both teachers and students should come to an understanding that CBI is a good way of preparing students for various job-related requirements in the future.	
Teachers should know the various CBI models and techniques.	
Teachers should be able to apply the appropriate CBI models and techniques to their classroom teaching.	
<u>Others:</u> Please feel free to fill in other things that we fail to identify.	

Part 2. Which block of knowledge and subject do you think is most appropriate for CBI in the reading classes?
If CBI were to be employed in your course, which block of knowledge, which subject do you think is the most appropriate to be integrated into your reading class? In the right hand column **rate** these items from **MOST appropriate (1)** to **NOT appropriate (5)**.

BLOCKS OF KNOWLEDGE/ SUBJECTS	YOUR RANK
Block 1: Common subjects (57 credits):	
1. Marxist-Leninist Philosophy; Political Economics; Ho Chi Minh Ideology	
2. Scientific Socialism; History of Vietnamese Communist Party	
3. Basic Informatics 1 & 2; Logics	
4. Second Foreign Language 1, 2, 3, 4	
5. Physical Education 1, 2; National Defence Education 1, 2, 3	
Block 2: Mathematics and Natural Sciences (5 credits):	
1. General Geography	
2. Statistics for Social Sciences	
3. Human and Environment	
Block 3: Basic subjects (17 credits):	
1. Fundamentals of Vietnamese Culture; Introduction to Linguistics	
2. Contrastive Linguistics; Vietnamese	
3. Research Methodology (taught in English)	
4. Critical Thinking (taught in English)	
Block 4: Fundamental subjects (93 credits) are subdivided into three areas:	
Linguistic knowledge subjects:	
1. English Phonetics and Phonology	
2. Introduction to English Semantics	
3. English Syntax	
4. Introduction to English Pragmatics	
5. Socio-Linguistics	
6. Introduction to English Discourse Analysis	
7. Psycho-Linguistics	
8. Pragmatics	
9. Functional Grammar	
Cultural knowledge subjects:	
1. English Literature	
2. American Literature	
3. British Studies	
4. American Studies	
5. Cross-Cultural Studies 1, 2	

6.	Communication Skills	
7.	English-Speaking Countries Studies	
Language components:		
1.	Listening-Speaking 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
2.	Reading-Writing 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
3.	ESP (English for Economics, Finance and Banking....)	
4.	Advanced English	
5.	Translation	
6.	Consolidated Oral Communication	
7.	Consolidated Written Communication	
Block 5: Professional subjects (23 credits):		
1.	General Psychology (taught in Vietnamese)	
2.	Psychology for Teachers (taught in Vietnamese)	
3.	General Pedagogy (taught in Vietnamese)	
4.	Pedagogy for General Education (taught in Vietnamese)	
5.	State Administration of Education and Training (taught in Vietnamese)	
6.	Language Teaching Methodology 1, 2, 3, 4	
7.	Technology in Language Teaching	
8.	Music (taught in Vietnamese)	

Part 3. How CBI should be handled in the English reading classes
The following is a list of activities that were thought to be appropriate
for learning and practicing English in CBI classrooms. For each item in
the list, please mark (✓) how appropriate you think the activity is for
practice in the classroom.

Thank you very much for your help!

Activity	Very Appropriate	Appropriate	Somewhat Appropriate	Not Very Appropriate	Not Appropriate
Review of previously learnt content					
Use content-related visuals					
Reaction journals					
Vocabulary previews					
Free association					
Visualization exercises					
Anticipation reaction guides (to assist students in accessing the new content material)					
Grammar development					
Vocabulary expansion					
Reading guides (e.g., idea sequencing and/or text completion exercises)					
Information gap tasks (such as jigsaw reading)					
A variety of text explication exercises, either oral or written					
Role-plays					
Debates (formally arguing pros and cons of an issue)					
Discussions					
Essays					
Summarizing					

OTHER:					
Pair work					
Group work					
Whole class activities					
Reporting					
Description					
Telling a story					
Giving instructions					
Presentations					
Interviews					
Practicing dialogues					
Reading comprehension					
Problem solving					
Giving/defending opinion					
Substitution activities (drills)					
Translation (E-V & V-E)					

Coding Scheme for Questionnaire Data	
Variables	Coding
Male	1
Female	2
Belief 1	BLF 1
Belief 2	BLF 2
Belief 3	BLF 3
Belief 4	BLF 4
Belief 5	BLF 5
Belief 6	BLF 6
Block 1: Common subjects (57 credits)	BLK1
Marxist-Leninist Philosophy; Political Economics; Ho Chi Minh ideology	BLK1.1
Scientific Socialism; History of Vietnamese Communist Party	BLK1.2
Basic Informatics 1, 2; Logics	BLK1.3
Physical Education 1,2; National Defence Education 1,2,3	BLK1.4
Block 2: Mathematics and Natural Sciences (5 credits)	BLK2
General Geography	BLK2.1
Statistics for Social Sciences	BLK2.2
Human and Environment	BLK2.3
Block 3: Basic subjects (17 credits)	BLK3
Fundamentals of Vietnamese Culture; Introduction to Linguistics	BLK3.1
Contrastive Linguistics; Vietnamese	BLK3.2
Research Methodology (taught in English)	BLK3.3
Critical Thinking (taught in English)	BLK3.4
Block 4: Fundamental subjects (93 credits)	BLK4
English Phonetics and Phonology	BLK4.1.1
Introduction to English Semantics	BLK4.1.2
English Syntax	BLK4.1.3
Introduction to English Pragmatics	BLK4.1.4
Socio-Linguistics	BLK4.1.5
Introduction to English Discourse Analysis	BLK4.1.6
Psycho-Linguistics	BLK4.1.7
Pragmatics	BLK4.1.8
Functional Grammar	BLK4.1.9
English Literature	BLK4.2.1
American Literature	BLK4.2.2
British Studies	BLK4.2.3
American Studies	BLK4.2.4
Cross-Cultural Studies 1,2	BLK4.2.5
Communication Skills	BLK4.2.6
English-Speaking Countries Studies	BLK4.2.7
Listening-Speaking 1,2,3,4,5,6	BLK4.3.1
Reading-Writing 1,2,3,4,5,6	BLK4.3.2
ESP (English for Economics, Finance and Banking…)	BLK4.3.3
Advanced English	BLK4.3.4

Translation	BLK4.3.5
Consolidated Oral Communication	BLK4.3.6
Consolidated Written Communication	BLK4.3.7
Block 5: Professional subjects (23 credits)	BLK5
General Psychology (taught in Vietnamese)	BLK5.1
Psychology for Teachers (taught in Vietnamese)	BLK5.2
General Pedagogy (taught in Vietnamese)	BLK5.3
Pedagogy for General Education (taught in Vietnamese)	BLK5.4
State Administration of Education and Training (taught in Vietnamese)	BLK5.5
Language Teaching Methodology 1,2,3,4	BLK5.6
Technology in Language Teaching	BLK5.7
Music (taught in Vietnamese)	BLK5.8
Review of previously learnt content	CBI1
Use content-related visuals	CBI2
Reaction journals	CBI3
Vocabulary previews	CBI4
Free association	CBI5
Visualization exercises	CBI6
Anticipation reaction guides (to assist students in accessing the new content material)	CBI7
Grammar development	CBI8
Vocabulary expansion	CBI9
Reading guides (e.g., idea sequencing and/or text completion exercises)	CBI10
Information gap tasks (such as jigsaw reading)	CBI11
A variety of text explication exercises, either oral or written	CBI12
Role-plays	CBI13
Debates (formally arguing pros and cons of an issue)	CBI14
Discussions	CBI15
Essays	CBI16
Summarizing	CBI17
Pair work	CBI18
Group work	CBI19
Whole class activities	CBI20
Reporting	CBI21
Description	CBI22
Telling a story	CBI23
Giving instructions	CBI24
Presentations	CBI25
Interviews	CBI26
Practicing dialogues	CBI27
Reading comprehension	CBI28
Problem solving	CBI29
Giving/defending opinion	CBI30
Substitution activities (drills)	CBI31
Translation (English-Vietnamese & Vietnamese-English)	CBI32

Appendix C
Interview Schemes
Questions for Interviews with Teachers

My name is Nguyen Thi Thu Ha, from K38A1. I am conducting a research on how to handle Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in the English reading classes. Content-Based Instruction is basically an approach which seeks to integrate the learning of a subject (content) with language learning. Its principle is that students can learn a language better through learning content in that language. Following are some interview questions which aim to investigate your beliefs and suggestions on how CBI should be applied in the Reading Classes.

I.   General Information:
        1.   Your gender:
        2.   Your division:

II.   Specific Information:

T	1. What do you think are the necessary and sufficient conditions for successful handling of CBI?	2. Could you please share what you have done to handle CBI in your English (reading) classes?	3. What would you suggest for even more successful handling of CBI in the English (reading) classes?
T1			
T2			
T3			
...			

Questions for Interviews with Students

My name is Nguyen Thi Thu Ha, from K38A1. I am conducting a research on how to handle Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in the English reading classes. Content-Based Instruction is basically an approach which seeks to integrate the learning of a subject (content) with language learning. Its principle is that students can learn a language better through learning content in that language. Following are some interview questions which aim to investigate your beliefs and suggestions on how CBI should be applied in the Reading Classes.

I.   General Information:
        1.   Your gender:
        2.   Your class:

II.   Specific Information:

S	1. Can you briefly describe the reading program you are attending this semester? (in terms of syllabus, assessment criteria, assignments, class activities)	2. Do you think the reading program better prepares you for your study of Professional subjects (e.g., English Language, Teaching Methodology, Country Studies, Literature, Discourse Analysis...) and your future career as a teacher?	3. Do you think integrating the contents of the Professional subjects (e.g., English Language Teaching Methodology, Country Studies, Literature, Discourse Analysis...) into the reading program in Years 1 and 2 is a good idea?	4. If yes, can you suggest some ways to successfully integrate these contents into the reading program? If no, can you please give the reason(s)?
S1				
S2				
S3				
S4				

Appendix D
Classroom Observation Checklist

I. Class Profile

Class Observed _____   Date _____

Number of Ss _____   Time _____

Current Theme _____   Materials Used _____

II. Activities

	Very Frequent	Rather Frequent	Frequent	Not very Frequent	Not Observed
Methods					
Invites class discussion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Employs other tools/ instructional aids	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Delivers well-planned lecture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discussions/activities relevant to course	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Teacher-Student Interaction					
Solicits student input	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Involves a variety of students	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presents difficult ideas using several different methods	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

III. Content Evaluation

	Very Frequent	Rather Frequent	Frequent	Not very Frequent	Not Observed
Content					
Explains concepts clearly	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Relates concepts to students' experiences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Selects learning experiences appropriate to level of learning	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Relates concepts to fundamental knowledge contents (Block 4)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Relates concepts to professional knowledge contents (Block 5)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other comments:					

Grammar and Communicative Language Teaching: Why, When, and How to Teach It?

Anne Burns
Aston University, Birmingham, UK
University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia

This paper is based on a plenary presentation given at the 5th CamTESOL Conference, held in Phnom Penh in February, 2009. It looks at various theories of grammar that have had an influence on English language teaching and discusses their key characteristics. It also considers some of the main features of communicative language teaching (CLT) and touches briefly on different positions that have been taken about where grammar is considered to fit in this approach. The main purpose of the paper, however, is to discuss recent international research which surveyed 231 teachers in 18 different countries about what approaches they took to integrating grammar into their practices and what they believed about the effectiveness of these practices.

The questions of why, when, and how to teach grammar are ones that confront second and foreign language teachers all over the world – particularly since the advent of communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches. Teacher training courses provide various forms of advice about teaching grammar, such as the PPP (presentation, practice, production) sequence that is often recommended for communicative approaches. Despite such advice, teachers inevitably develop their own beliefs and ideas about the place of grammar in their language programs and how they should go about teaching it. In this paper, I will provide a very brief overview of various approaches that the language teaching field has taken to the teaching of grammar and will then look at the key features of CLT and the position and role of grammar in this approach. However it is the second half of the paper that is my main focus. I report on an international study that looked at how teachers view grammar, what they believe about it, and how they say they go about integrating grammar into their language teaching.

What Is Grammar?

A few years ago I asked this question to students enrolled in a master's course I was teaching at my university. The students came from many different countries, particularly countries in Asia, and all of them had experienced at least two years of teaching. Here are responses from two of the students:

> I think of grammar as "necessary evil" for language contexts. Or something poisonous (poison). If we abuse or misuse it, it will be fatally harm[ful]. (Korean teacher)

> On the way to the lecture, there was a funny picture [that] appeared in my mind. [Next to this quote, there is a picture of a person fishing from a boat with fish labelled with grammar terms swimming into his net.]   (Chinese teacher)

These comments (Burns, 2003) present two very different views about grammar teaching. The first comment suggests that the teacher sees grammar as something that must be taught even when you don't want to teach it, but could be dangerous if it is overused – a bit like having to take medicine if you are sick but not overdoing it in case it kills you! We get the sense here of an unpleasant situation, of grammar having to be taught in a rather boring and teacher-centred way, maybe through exercises and drills that students must be prepared to do for their own good. The second comment is very different. This teacher seems to see grammar as something that can be fun – like going fishing and not quite knowing what you are going to catch. Different kinds of "fish" (grammar terms) might swim into the net and will be very useful at the time when they are caught. So, here grammar is seen more like food, a nourishing resource that will strengthen students' learning of the language. We get the sense of something that students (and their teacher) will enjoy as part of pleasant and relaxing learning activities.

Defining grammar is certainly not straightforward, and teaching grammar will depend on what theories of grammar a teacher is aware of, the teacher's own experiences of learning a language and then teaching it, and whether the teacher feels these experiences have been effective. However, I'd like to look briefly at some different concepts of grammar that have had an impact on language teaching and have shaped the way grammar has been viewed and taught in language programs.   Here I will briefly overview just three of the major theoretical approaches that have influenced practice in the English language teaching field.

Traditional grammar. Typically, traditional grammar sees language as a set of rules which were originally taken from the written classical

languages, Greek and Latin. Latin was thought to be a logical and organised language and so it was used as a basis to categorise or "codify" parts of speech (article, noun, verb, pronoun, conjunction and so on). The unit of analysis in traditional grammar is the sentence, and the grammar student's role is to be able to recognise and classify the words in a sentence into the part of speech to which they belong. This teaching approach is usually referred to as the grammar-translation method. Teachers and students using this approach would typically rely on exercises and drills, especially written ones, translation, vocabulary lists, and the reading aloud of written passages.

This approach can be described as a prescriptive one as it relies on acquiring "standards" of usage that do not necessarily reflect the reality of how people use language. For example, the famous phrase from the Star Trek movie

> ... to boldly go where no man has gone before...

would be considered "incorrect" in a traditional approach because the infinitive *to go* is split by an adverb (the "split infinitive" from which good users of grammar are discouraged).

Formal grammar. This grammar, associated with the theories of Chomsky, responds to the question of why humans are able to learn language at all. Language is seen as a cognitive, or psychological, process that goes on in the brain and for which humans are predisposed at birth. Chomsky believed all humans possess a deep "universal" grammar from which they develop the specifics of their mother tongues. The deep structures of universal grammar are used to generate the language a person learns and to enable him or her to use transformations to create particular sentence structures in that language - hence the term transformational-generative grammar, which is sometimes used to describe this model.

Chomsky referred to people's innate ability to produce language as their "competence." He was less interested in the learner's "performance" or the language the learner actually used, as this aspect was seen as too untidy and disorganised. Using the idea of the ideal and competent language user, formal grammar works at the level of the sentence. It analyses the syntax, or the components of the sentence, and looks at how complex sentences are formed (e.g., passives, negatives, questions). It has also provided a way of looking at learner acquisition at different stages of learning and learner errors. Chomsky's theories were very influential in second language learning, although they were not seen as having direct application to language teaching. Nevertheless, approaches such as audiolingualism, with its emphasis on drilling, repetition, memorisation, and accurate production, can trace their sources to the ideas of formal grammar.

Again, formal grammar takes a prescriptive (or rule-governed) approach. To give an example - once when a famous Australian boxer was being interviewed on the television about his retirement from boxing, he ended the interview by saying:

I love youse all!   [*youse* = you, plural]

He was using a colloquial, slang form of Australian English which would easily be understood by Australian English speakers. However, his "performance" would not be seen as correct in this view of grammar because of the syntax of the sentence.

Functional grammar. More recently, grammar teaching has looked to grammars that show how meaning is created in different cultural and social contexts. This approach is descriptive, rather than prescriptive, as it is interested in how people actually use a language to communicate meaningfully with each other in daily life. Functional grammar looks at language used beyond the level of the sentence; a central idea here is text. A text, spoken or written, can be as short as one word, "Stop!" or as long as a whole book. The point is that the text should make sense and be able to be interpreted in relation to its cultural and social context. In the functional approach, the key questions that would be asked about a text are: What is this text about? Who is involved in producing this text and what are their relationships? How does this text hang together so that it makes sense? Functional grammarians would also look at how the grammar patterns in the text respond to these questions. If we look again at the expression

I love youse all!

we could say that it is the closing-off phase of a longer text, an interview. It is performing the function of a fond farewell to the well-known boxer's followers, who are members of the public who love boxing. Over time, the boxer knows that he has been appreciated by this public and so he is expressing his relationship to them in a warm way that is likely to be well received by his audience. He speaks in a familiar and vernacular way. What he says is not "incorrect," but it is an expression that his audience is used to hearing and use themselves; it gives him an inclusive relationship with that audience. The text links with the rest of the interview and makes perfect sense as the ending to this interview, where the boxer is saying farewell to his public.

Where Does Grammar Fit in CLT?

Communicative language teaching arose in the 1970s from dissatisfaction with grammar-translation and audiolingual approaches,

which began to be seen as too limited in enabling learners to learn how to actually use the language. CLT put the focus on natural and meaningful communication related to real life and to "authentic" use of language in various contexts. Teachers were encouraged to expose learners to written realia such as magazines, newspapers, forms, or instructions, or to spoken interactions that were used in problem-solving, decision-making, or personal conversation in general. Communicative tasks in which learners perform realistic exchanges to complete the task came to be seen as the foundation for meaningful language teaching. The focus was placed on the student and his or her needs for learning the language, and teachers were encouraged to develop their learners' self-awareness about learning and encourage them to become independent learners.

CLT has introduced a more holistic view of language and language learning into the second language teaching field. Among its advantages is that it gives learners an opportunity to see the relevance of the language to different situations in which they might find themselves and to practise using it. It is also capable of providing genuine information-gap and problem-solving situations where learners can potentially use the language they are learning critically and creatively. It places emphasis on learning as an active process of collaboration between the teacher and learner where each must play a role rather than see learning as a transmission of knowledge from teacher to learner.

Some of the dangers of CLT, however, are that it can sometimes result in an unbalanced curriculum where too much emphasis is placed on one language skill (e.g., communication = speaking) at the expense of others. Taken to extremes, being learner-centred could place all responsibility for learning on the learner, which raises the question of what role should be played by the teacher's expertise. Finally, communicative tasks that generate the actual skills and interactions that learners need at a certain points are not easy to design. With its emphasis on interaction, CLT may also downplay the role of grammar ("communication must be authentic" or "teaching grammar could be dangerous and interfere with communication"). So what is the role of grammar in an effective CLT curriculum?

Various positions on the place of grammar and the type of grammar that should be taught have been taken within CLT approaches. Some authors have advocated a totally "natural" (hands-off?) approach and have argued that this allows acquisition to develop gradually. Krashen (1981, p. 6), for example, famously stressed: "Language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drills." Krashen argued that acquisition would be bound to occur if learners were exposed to meaningful interactions where their focus was not on the form of the interaction but on the

messages they were exchanging. More recent research (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998) has questioned this rather extreme position. For example, Norris and Ortega (2000), who conducted an extensive review of the literature on second language instruction, concluded that a focus on meaning alone is not sufficient for learning. Instruction that leads to effective language learning includes a focus on grammar.

To Integrate or Not to Integrate Grammar?

A key question that arises from the argument that teaching grammar is necessary for effective language learning is whether teachers should teach grammar separately or integrate it into classroom tasks and texts. In a recent study (Borg & Burns, 2008), I undertook joint research with Simon Borg from the University of Leeds to explore this issue. We had four key research questions:

1. How do teachers define effective grammar integration?
2. What practices do teachers adopt in order to integrate grammar effectively?
3. What beliefs about language teaching and learning underpin these practices?
4. What evidence do teachers cite to support their beliefs that their approach to integration is effective?

Procedures. We surveyed 231 teachers of adult learners (i.e., learners over 18 years old) in eighteen countries using both qualitative and quantitative questions to generate their responses. Our respondents were working in both the adult ESL and adult EFL fields. We distributed the questionnaires through personal contacts in these countries and the surveys were completed both online and on hard-copy, depending on which version was the more convenient for our contacts and the teachers in those countries. Because of the way the respondents were selected (convenience and non-probability sampling), the results cannot be considered to be statistically significant. The key findings which I explore in the next section do, however, provide a picture of some general trends suggesting the way the teachers who responded view the integration of grammar into their teaching.

Key findings. Teachers were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree) to the following statement that aimed to explore their basic belief about integration:

Grammar should be taught separately, not integrated with other skills such as reading and writing.

Teachers were overwhelmingly opposed to the concept of separating grammar teaching from the teaching of other skills, with 84% indicating they disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. The idea of contextualized grammar, which links with the skills they are aiming to develop, seems to have strongly influenced teaching practice. To explore this aspect of teaching further, we asked teachers:

In your teaching, to what extent is grammar teaching integrated with the teaching of other skills?

Table 1 below shows that while the percentage of teachers who claimed complete integration was fairly small (11%), a majority of teachers (56%) indicated that they favoured substantial integration, with 31% indicating some integration. Very few teachers (2%) claimed that they used no integration in their teaching. Overall, these results support the teachers' disagreement with the separation of grammar instruction.

Table 1

Extent to Which Teachers Claim They Integrate Grammar with Other Skills
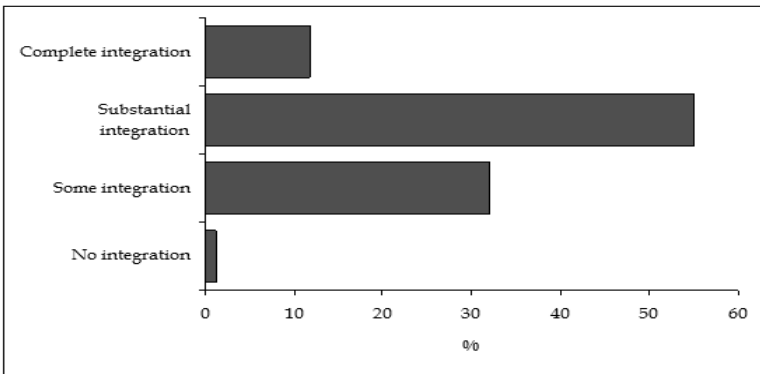
We were also interested in how effective the teachers believed the approaches they used to be. Teachers were asked to select from one of the following options to identify their beliefs about grammar and how effective they thought their approach was for their students' learning:

Table 2

Survey Options to Question on Effectiveness of Approach to Teaching Grammar

I separate grammar teaching from teaching the other skills, and I believe this helps my students learn language effectively.	
I separate grammar teaching from teaching the other skills, but I do not believe this helps my students learn language effectively.	
I integrate grammar teaching and teaching the other skills, and I believe this helps my students learn language effectively.	
I integrate grammar teaching and teaching the other skills, but I do not believe this helps my students learn language effectively.	

Again, overwhelmingly, teachers stated that they integrated grammar, and they believed this approach led to effective learning for their students (90%). In addition, a small percentage of teachers (3%) responded that they separated grammar, but they did not find this approach effective, which could, on the one hand, mean that they believed integration would be more effective, or on the other, that they saw the approach they were taking as simply not an effective one for their particular students. A small number of teachers stressed that they separated grammar teaching (5.6%) and found this approach to be effective. We asked the teachers to cite their reasons for indicating these responses through this question:

> How do you know that your approach to separating or integrating grammar is or is not effective in helping your learners improve their English?

Their qualitative responses clustered around a number of themes. Student performance was one aspect, with comments that the teachers observed communicative ability and progress as indicators that their teaching approach was effective. Student affect, personal and emotional responses to teaching, also led teachers to believe their approaches were working. Teachers also pointed to the feedback their students gave them as well as to student performance on assessments. Finally, teachers noted that their own experiences as teachers in the classroom with their learners informed them that they were being effective in the approaches they were adopting.

From the teachers' descriptions of how they actually undertook their practices of integrating grammar into their teaching (the why, when and how of the title of my talk), we noticed that two major orientations emerged from their comments. The first was what could be called a *contextual orientation*, in other words, teachers used the context of the lesson, the task, and the interaction that would unfold between the two to guide their decisions about their practices. Thus,

in deciding what grammar to teach either before or during a lesson, they would draw the grammar focus from the text they were using for a particular task or lesson. Alternatively, they chose texts with the purpose of illustrating a particular grammar point they wished to cover. Another approach was to focus on the grammar that they felt students required for a particular task.

The second orientation was what we termed a *temporal approach*, where the teacher determined the appropriate timing for teaching grammar in relation to what was to be covered or developed. Thus, grammar might be taught beforehand in order to prepare for particular skills work (e.g., the grammar needed for tasks that promote reading development). Alternatively, teachers claimed they taught grammar to follow up work that had been planned to develop a skill (e.g., speaking) when it became clear that the students' grammar was not sufficient. A third aspect of this orientation was to teach grammar during skills work in order to enhance students' ability to complete the task.

Some Conclusions

Here I will discuss some conclusions and implications for teaching grammar that can be drawn out of this research and from this brief discussion in general.

What Can Be Concluded from the Research?

Despite the fact that these findings cannot be said to be statistically significant or generalisable, what is interesting about them is that these teachers from eighteen widely dispersed countries in Europe, Asia, Australia, and Latin America share overall a strong belief in the need to avoid teaching grammar in isolation of skills work. Thus, in an era when CLT is now widespread, the idea that grammar teaching should be a contextualised feature of classroom practice appears to have become prominent. The teachers expressed strong beliefs that grammar integration, not separation, is effective in promoting language learning. The concept of integration appears to rest on two major orientations that motivate teachers' decisions about their practices – first, the importance of contextual factors and second, the importance of temporal factors. These two orientations form important linkages that teachers state as underpinning their practices. Interestingly, the evidence teachers cite for the effectiveness of integration rests overwhelmingly on experiential and practical considerations as they relate to their interactions with their learners in the classroom. It was rare in our data to find teachers basing their beliefs on formal theories about grammar teaching that appear, for example, in the second language acquisition literature. There was a distinct absence of

technical terms or explicit references to a particular research finding or theoretical concept. This does not suggest that the teachers are ignorant of formal theory – a substantial number of the teachers we surveyed had master's level qualifications – but rather that in the complex interactions and decisions that make up their daily work, teachers rely on practical approaches, often well-honed by their teaching beliefs and experiences, to mediate their pedagogical actions.

What Can Be Concluded From This Discussion and the Literature?

A number of points can be made on the basis of the discussion in this paper. Teachers' decisions about grammar and their orientations to teaching it suggest that students need grammar not for its own sake, but in order to scaffold their learning effectively so that they can achieve particular skills and tasks. Thus, teachers will always need to make decisions about whether grammar should be integrated before, during, or after communicative activities. This research, as well as other recent research (e.g., Norris & Ortega, 2000), suggests that teaching grammar "at the point of need" is the most effective approach. This means the teacher makes judgments about what is most appropriate for their students – when they need grammar in preparation for particular tasks or skill work, as they are doing the activity and need input on a particular grammatical feature, or after an activity to strengthen their knowledge and to help them to refocus attention on key patterns or vocabulary needed to complete a similar activity.

Grammar teaching has not disappeared in the age of CLT. It is more the case that it is slowly coming of age. To find ways of effectively integrating grammar teaching into CLT practice, it is also important that teachers' beliefs about grammar and the personal and practical knowledge they hold about ways of teaching it should be placed more centrally into the research spotlight.

Acknowledgement

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Integrating Skills in the EFL Classroom

Lary MacDonald
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

D. Malcolm Daugherty
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

Richmond Stroupe
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

With the implementation of the Internet-based TOEFL (iBT), integrating language skills (e.g., listening, reading, speaking, and writing) has taken on greater significance in many EFL classrooms. Students are now required to capture the main points of written and listening passages and synthesize the information in an integrating task utilizing critical thinking skills. In this educational context, constructing courses for segregated language skills seems inadequate to reflect the current needs of learners. In this paper, we will provide the rationale and theoretical background for an integrated skills approach to EFL instruction, give a working definition of our integrated skills approach that continues to evolve, provide some example activities that illustrate this approach, reflect on our progress towards developing and implementing this approach, and consider its implications for the global EFL environment.

With the increasingly globally competitive international environment, foreign language fluency, particularly related to English, is becoming more important. In developed countries such as Japan or EU countries, in emerging economies such as India and Brazil, and in developing countries such as Cambodia and Thailand, foreign (English) language fluency allows for ease in negotiation and information exchange and provides economic and educational opportunities. In employment and educational settings, international examinations are increasingly being used to assess the effectiveness with which individuals can use and integrate a number of language skills (e.g., listening, reading, speaking, and writing) to communicate in English, rather than simply show knowledge of grammar or understanding of a

reading passage. The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) has traditionally required examinees to make use of, or integrate, the language skills they have developed over time (IELTS, 2008). More recently, other international examinations are also taking a more integrated skills approach. As a result, and appropriately so, whether in university classrooms in Japan or the EU or rural secondary classrooms in Cambodia and Thailand, educators are considering how to take a more integrated skills approach in order to foster the communicative skills of the language learners in their institutions.

The Internet-based TOEFL (iBT) test is a vivid example of the movement towards an integrated skills approach to EFL instruction. Most language teachers are familiar with the traditional TOEFL test, in which reading and listening comprehension and writing exercises are independent tasks. For example, the traditional TOEFL writing task provides questions such as "It is better for children to grow up in the countryside than in a big city. Do you agree or disagree? Use specific reasons and examples to develop your essay" (Phillips, 2007). To respond to this type of essay question, students are required to develop a 5-paragraph essay with a concise thesis statement stating preferably three reasons why they agree or disagree with the statement. This writing task, now known as the independent writing task, is still part of the iBT test. However, in addition to the traditional essay question, students must also complete another writing task in which they have to read a short paragraph, listen to a short passage, and respond in writing to information from *both* the reading and listening passages. This is the integrated writing task. The directions for this task are noted below:

1. Read the passage. Take notes on the main points of the passage.
2. Now, listen to a teacher lecture on a topic. On a piece of paper, take notes on the main points of this listening passage.
3. How does the information in the listening passage differ from the information in the reading passage? Please write your answer. You have 30 minutes to complete the task.

(Phillips, 2007)

In order to successfully complete this task, students need to not only read and understand a reading passage of college-level difficulty, but also listen to a short lecture-style listening passage and determine the main idea and pertinent supporting details. Next, in order to address the question, students have to determine how the two resources differ, e.g., do the reading and listening passages provide opposing views of the issue or additional information about the topic?

Finally, students have to answer the question in written form, integrating and synthesizing information from both passages into a cohesive response. Those who teach TOEFL iBT preparation courses know that this can be a daunting task for students.

While this process challenges students, the TOEFL iBT has the potential to create backwash, which Hughes (2003) describes as the effect that testing has on teaching and learning. While English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers might consider backwash a negative consequence of testing, i.e., testing forces teachers to "teach to the test," on the contrary, as Moore (2007) makes clear, effective testing can produce positive backwash for teaching and learning. This paper considers this possibility, reflecting on the integrated component of the TOEFL iBT as an opportunity to reflect on EFL methodology in general and consider if and how this pedagogical process of integrating information from various resources can alter what teachers do in the classroom, and in the process, help students prepare for the TOEFL iBT examination.

In this paper, we will consider the theoretical basis for an integrated skills approach to EFL instruction. We will explore some methodologies that are in practice and consider the effectiveness of these models in the context of college-level EFL classrooms in Asia. We will then describe the educational context within which we work and provide examples of integrated skills activities to illustrate how they can be implemented. Finally, we will provide some suggestions to further develop an integrated skills approach to EFL instruction.

Rationale

English as a foreign language (EFL) classes often use a segregated skills approach. Oxford (2001) describes this as a learning environment in which the mastery of discrete skills such as reading and speaking are seen as successful learning. Language learning is often isolated from content as a series of isolated tasks. The grammar/translation method is a clear example of this segregation because this method does not consider the use of language for communicative or academic purposes (Oxford, 2001). Listening tasks are often organized as isolated events as well. In cloze exercises, for example, students are asked to listen to a passage and fill in the missing words on a worksheet. During the process, students listen so intently to catch the missing words that they are likely to miss the main point and most of the important supporting details of the listening passage. As a way to prepare for the iBT, in which grasping the main point of a listening passage is essential, this type of listening activity is woefully inadequate and perhaps counter-productive, since it seems that we are training students to

focus on individual words rather than the main and supporting points of a listening passage.

Communicative activities may also be segregated learning events as well. Numerous researchers (Savignon, 1987; Littlewood, 1981) have identified Communicative Language Teaching as the functional, task-based use of language. Clearly, this approach is evident in EFL textbooks and classrooms. However, in our examination of textbooks, we felt that while students may learn the proper words and phrases to accomplish the task, this type of task-based communicative activity does not ensure that students can apply what they have learned to actual communicative situations. In short, a segregated skills approach to language learning, on its own, seems to be inadequate in providing learners with sufficient skills to function in unique, naturally occurring communicative situations, nor does it prepare them with the skills necessary for the TOEFL iBT.

Integrated Skills Approach

When considering the transition from a segregated skills approach to EFL instruction to an integrated skills approach, it is important to understand what differentiates the two approaches. While a segregated skills approach includes independent activities dealing with listening, reading, speaking, and writing, an integrated skills approach goes one further step. An integrated skills approach requires learners to access different packets of information (e.g., a listening passage and a reading passage) in order to complete a particular task. Based on this premise, the following working definition of an integrated skills approach is offered:

> An integrated skills approach is a cognitive learning approach in which thematic content is acquired using receptive language skills (e.g., listening and reading) and synthesized in an integrated skills activity in which students must respond in written and/or spoken form to the content, using higher-level critical thinking skills to compare and contrast, show cause and effect, or otherwise confirm the relationship that may exist between the differing sources of information.

In the paragraphs below, we will provide greater detail about the components of the working definition noted above, specifically the meaning and application of: 1) cognitive learning theory, 2) thematic content, and 3) critical thinking.

Cognitive Learning Theory

As noted in the definition, this integrated skills approach to EFL instruction is based on a cognitive learning theory, the central idea

being that an organized whole is greater than the sum of its parts (Bigge & Shermis, 1992). The applications of cognitivism to language learning are substantial. Cognitive learning theorists suggest that learning is a process of relating new information to previously learned information through the formation of mental associations (Oxford, 2001). In the EFL context, this implies that retention of learned communication patterns and vocabulary is difficult unless the learner can connect the patterns and vocabulary to previously learned content.

Secondly, cognitivists such as Bruner (1966) believe that learning is the result of interactions between the learner and social environment. Bandura (1986) states that learning is the result of interaction between the individual, the environment, and behavioral patterns of the individual and group. Thus, learners will be motivated to make sense of the world around them through problem-solving based on restructuring and insight only if they are actively involved in the learning process. In the EFL environment, opportunities for interaction with the social environment using English as the medium of communication may be limited to the short amount of time students are in class. Accordingly, providing students with a variety of language input in various forms (e.g., listening and reading) and opportunities to react to this input through writing or discussion, simulating as much as possible an English-only social environment, will promote retention.

Finally, Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is a primary tenet of cognitive learning theory. Vygotsky defines ZPD as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (1978, in Walqui, 2006). Vygotsky stresses that maximum cognitive growth, or optimal learning, occurs when the ZPD is acquired, in other words, when students are cognitively challenged, but not overwhelmed, by the complexity of the task. Concretely, the learning task should be neither too easy nor too difficult for students.

Thematic Instruction

Peregoy and Boyle define thematic instruction as "a learning sequence organized around a theme or a topic offering students opportunities to use oral language, reading, writing, and critical thinking for learning or sharing ideas" (1997, p. 75). Themes provide a conceptual framework in which students can apply their language and critical thinking skills to learn about a particular topic. In our examination of EFL textbooks, we found that at the beginning and elementary levels, most texts are socio-affective in nature and focus on communication through question/response. While the texts might

include short reading passages and short-response writing activities, the focus is typically on listening comprehension and conversational fluency. Themes at this level may include sports and fitness, shopping, travel, and holidays. We also discovered that from the intermediate level, academic themes emerge. Reading and listening passages are more extensive and the grammar/sentence structures and vocabulary are more developed. Specialized academic vocabulary is incorporated in the texts and the nature of the content is often somewhat controversial, frequently requiring students to express their opinions about a topic. The themes at this level are often based on contemporary social issues, from global warming to biogenetic engineering, from human rights to peace and conflict. In thematic EFL instruction, the selection of an appropriate theme is essential - it must be relevant to students and thus motivate them to want to learn how to engage with the content in English.

As noted, most EFL textbooks are thematic in content, satisfying this requirement of the integrated skills approach to EFL instruction. However, we have found that even though texts tend to be thematic, they still rely almost entirely on segregated language skills. Therefore, these texts fall short of the integrated skills approach to EFL instruction as defined in our working definition because they lack an integrating skills activity, that is, the opportunity for students to respond in spoken and/or written form to multiple sources of information, utilizing critical thinking to compare and contrast, show cause and effect, or otherwise confirm the relationship that may exist between the differing forms of information.

Critical Thinking

Finally, critical thinking is an essential component of the integrated skills approach because students must compare and contrast and/or otherwise identify differences between two different sources of information (e.g., a listening passage and a reading passage). Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) have offered a revision of Bloom's Taxonomy which introduces the learning process as a structured hierarchy of thinking skills. This hierarchy is organized from lower-order thinking skills, i.e., remembering, understanding, and applying, to higher-level thinking skills, i.e., analyzing, evaluating, and finally, creating. The revised taxonomy includes a list of key skills that learners need to master at each level.

In the integrated skills approach that we propose in this paper, students are required to operate at the analyzing level in order to compare different sources of information. As mentioned in Anderson and Krathwohl's taxonomy (2001), the lower levels must be obtained prior to students reaching the level of analysis. Specifically, the understanding level is of primary importance to our integrated skills

approach. If students' receptive skills are not developed to the point at which they can understand the content of the information, they will not be capable of comparing the content and identifying differences.

In sum, the integrated skills approach to EFL instruction that we propose requires a cognitive learning focus that is holistic, encompassing the four primary language skills; incorporates information that is thematic and within the cognitive abilities of students; requires students to utilize critical thinking skills to make mental associations between information presented from different sources; and induces students to interact with their immediate social environment. All of these elements are essential in our working definition of an integrated skills approach to EFL instruction.

Integrated Models of English Language Instruction

Two integrated models of English language instruction utilized in the United States in an English as a Second Language (ESL) learning environment have informed our research. Chamot and O'Malley's Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) was developed for second language learners in U.S. public schools. CALLA, based on cognitive learning theory, "integrates content-area instruction with language development activities and explicit instruction in learning strategies" (1996, p. 259). The CALLA approach has three interrelated components. First, the content is academic. Chamot and O'Malley (1996) argue that language as a medium permeates all aspects of curricula; therefore, it is necessary for students to acquire the language structures and vocabulary needed to perform in academic/professional contexts. Second, CALLA stresses the development of academic language skills such as synthesizing information from various resources and engaging critically with this information. As students progress in the public education system, their need for academic language skills increases substantially as they read science texts, discuss and negotiate in business classes, and write lab reports/business reports. In addition, the CALLA method suggests explicit instruction in learning strategies that can be applied to both language learning and the academic requirements of high school, university, and the work environment (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996). Learning strategies can help students organize and group ideas, listen selectively, and take notes effectively. By mastering learning strategies, students gain power over their learning, which will assist them in attaining academic success.

Another integrated methodology that we examined was Walqui`s scaffolding approach, termed *cyclical curricula* (2006). Walqui cites Gardner (1989, in Walqui, 2006) to support her argument that when presenting new material, teachers should not expect students to grasp

the knowledge immediately. She argues that the reintroduction of concepts at increasingly higher levels of complexity leads to greater understanding, a cognitive learning theory concept reminiscent of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development. Likewise, language teachers need to provide students with multiple opportunities to engage with the language and the content and utilize all four primary language skills. Walqui's cyclical curricula provide the structure to accomplish this, thereby offering students ample opportunity to gain language skills as well as academic knowledge.

Developing an Integrated Curriculum: The Soka University Context

Soka University is located in Tokyo, Japan. The student population of approximately 8,000 exhibits a wide range of English language proficiency. Most communicative language programs, as well as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses developed through the collaboration of WLC language teaching specialists and content specialists in various departments, are housed in the World Language Center (WLC). Academic preparation is an important component of many of the communicative language courses at the university.

WLC courses are organized into six ability levels: basic, elementary, intermediate, upper intermediate, advanced, and advanced intensive. TOEFL iBT preparation courses are taught at the intermediate level and above. Because students have struggled with the integrated speaking and writing tasks on the iBT, WLC instructors considered how the lower level general English classes could better prepare students for the iBT. During the 2007-2008 academic year, we decided to work towards an integrated skills approach to courses. Initially, we evaluated the textbooks in use to determine the degree to which they utilized integrated skills activities. While there was some variation, for the most part, we discovered that the texts did not implement integrated skills activities. Although the texts were thematic, skills were segregated; thus based on our working definition, the texts did not meet the criteria for the integrated skills approach because they did not contain an integrated skills activity that requires students to synthesize and/or consolidate information from multiple sources. As a result of this preliminary investigation, in the fall of 2007, we formed research teams and set about the task of working towards an integrated skills approach within the WLC.

Based on our preliminary findings, we present the following example lesson to illustrate an integrated skills approach to EFL instruction. The lesson shows how a series of segregated activities can be incorporated into an integrated skills approach using simple thematic content and supplementary activities.

From Segregated Skills to an Integrated Skills Approach

As mentioned previously, the majority of textbooks usually contain a series of activities based on a common theme focusing on single, segregated skills such as structure, vocabulary development, listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking, or writing. These skills comprise an important part of the learning process and each has its place. Models of these types of activities will now be presented to exemplify what is meant by segregated language skills.

Listening exercises. Typically, listening activities are set up using the familiar format of students listening to a spoken passage such as a lecture or a dialogue between two or more people. Students then have either a cloze activity to do or a series of listening comprehension questions to answer. The format of listening comprehension questions (true-false, multiple-choice, written answers) may vary depending on the level of the students.

In this model (Model Exercise 1: Listening), students listen to an extract from an interview about food and eating habits. While the students are listening, they are asked to think about the answer to the following listening comprehension questions. In this model, all three types of questions are used (the complete script and exercise are provided in Appendices A and B).

Model Exercise 1: Listening

Lary:	Umm...first question: How many meals do you eat each day?
David:	Well...some days I eat two, some days I eat one, some days I eat three or four, but usually I eat three.
Lary:	OK. How about breakfast? What do you like to eat for breakfast?
David:	Well, I'm not a typical American. I don't really like eggs and bacon, and I don't eat cereal very much; but I do like fruit and, of course, I love coffee. So I usually have fruit and coffee for breakfast.
Lary:	OK. Uh, how about lunch?
David:	I am a typical American when it comes to eating lunches. I usually have a sandwich of some kind. Some other typical foods Americans eat for lunch are soup and salads... something light and quick, but I go for a good old sandwich.

Answer the following questions using the information you hear in the interview.

1. T   F   David usually eats two meals each day.

2. What does David usually have for breakfast?
    a. eggs   b. fruit   c. cereal   d. bacon   e. salad   f. coffee

3. What does David typically have for lunch?

    _____

This type of activity, though probably more valuable than a cloze exercise in that it requires students to listen for the main point and specific information, still only requires that students listen and recognize the information presented. The problem with this format is that the questions themselves often point out the main or specific information the students need to listen for, robbing the students of developing that necessary skill. Even the written response question is little more than a listening-dictation exercise and does not require in-depth listening skills or synthesis of information.

According to our definition of an integrated skills activity (which includes gaining information from multiple sources of information, e.g., a reading and/or listening, and using critical thinking skills to synthesize that information in an integrated skills activity in which students must respond in written and/or spoken form), Model Exercise 1 is not an integrated skills activity. This exercise does not require the students to gain any information outside of the listening itself in order for the activity to be completed. The exercise also entails the use of only the basic critical thinking skills of recognition, identification and selection to complete.

Communicative exercises. Communicative activities have now become commonplace in textbooks, usually consisting of rehearsed conversations needed to complete a task or a series of questions that have the students ask and answer questions related to the topic of the lesson. These exercises aim at developing the students' oral communication skills towards speaking competence.

In this model (Model Exercise 2: Communication), the latter format is used, requiring the students to ask their conversation partners the same questions which were used in the interview in the previous listening exercise (the complete activity is available in Appendix C).

Model Exercise 2: Communication

Ask two conversation partners the following questions. Write the answers your partner gives in the space provided.

1. What is usually your biggest meal?

Partner 1:	
Partner 2:	

2. What is a typical meal at your home?

Partner 1:	
Partner 2:	

Although this exercise does give the students some freedom in answering, the relative rigidity of the questions in an interview format firmly regulates the flow of communication. An interview is primarily only acquiring information from one source: the interviewee. In reality, while the interview format produces spoken language and allows for structured practice, it is not an effective means to develop more advanced critical thinking skills for use in authentic communicative situations. Even though this activity also includes writing by the interviewer, who records the answer given, this activity is merely another form of a listening-dictation exercise. The communicative and writing parts of the activity are still segregated. Likewise, these parts are detached from information outside the confines of the exercise, leading us to the conclusion that this is not an integrated skills activity.

Reading exercises. Reading activities usually consist of a passage or dialogue with questions to determine students' skills in discerning the main ideas or specific information given in the reading. Grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation activities are other exercises often associated with reading in textbooks.

In this model exercise (Model Exercise 3: Reading), students read a passage about Khmer cuisine and answer comprehension questions (the complete reading passage and exercise are provided in Appendices D and E).

Model Exercise 3: Reading

> **Khmer cuisine** is another name for the food widely consumed in the country of Cambodia. It is noted for its exotic and unique flavors.
>
> Khmer cuisine is similar to the cuisines of its Southeast Asian neighbors, but is relatively unknown to the world compared to the cuisines of its neighbors. It has been described as similar to Thai cuisine, though not as spicy. Curry dishes, known as *kari*, show its ties with Indian cuisine. Influences from Chinese cuisine can be noted in the use of many different types of rice noodles. Beef noodle soup, known simply as *kuytheav*, is a popular dish brought to Cambodia by its Chinese settlers. Also, *banh chiao* is the Khmer version of the Vietnamese *bánh xèo*, which is the Vietnamese imitation of the French crepe.
>
> <div align="right">(Nationmaster, 2008)</div>
>
> Answer the questions using the information from the passage.
>
> 1. What country's cuisine is called Khmer cuisine?
>
> _____
>
> 2. Which cuisine is spicier, Khmer or Thai?
>
> _____
>
> 3. What are some countries whose cuisines have influenced Khmer cuisine?
>
> _____

Similar to the listening and interviewing activities presented above, this reading exercise does not meet our criteria for an integrated skills activity. The exercise is a self-contained segregated skill task. Students can adequately respond to the questions by referring only to the reading passage. There is no need for them to access and synthesize information from another source (e.g., a listening passage or oral communication) and use critical thinking to organize ideas, compare and contrast, and/or differentiate information gained from these other sources to complete the task.

Implementing integrated skills activities. According to our definition of integrated skills activities, information is acquired through receptive language skills (listening and reading) and this information is synthesized in written and/or spoken form. In this next section, several different integrated skills activities will be introduced, using the contents previously presented.

This first activity provides students with the opportunity to synthesize information from the full listening activity (Appendix A) and the reading passage (Appendix D). The students will use information from both sources to complete the following prompt:

> Using the information from the listening activity and the reading passage, write or speak about the differences between typical meals in the United States and Cambodia.

This activity requires the students to produce a unique response using information from each of the sources, synthesizing the pertinent information from both to create a cohesive answer. Within a speaking format, students may be asked to speak about the topic for one to two minutes. As a writing exercise, the students may be asked to write either in class or as a homework assignment. Of course, time limits and length of writings may vary depending on the level of the students, the difficulty of the resources, and/or the stage of development in the process of integrating skills. However, the goal is ultimately to have the students complete the tasks within the time parameters set forth by the iBT. An example of a written response may be as follows:

Meals in both the United States and Cambodia contain similar ingredients, such as meat and cooked vegetables; however, there are several differences between the two. One difference is that in Khmer meals, rice is often eaten, while potatoes are a main part of the meal in America. We can also see that in Cambodia there are almost always several dishes served in the meal while one-pot meals seem to be common in the United States. Lastly, in Khmer cuisine, individual dishes having a specific sense of taste, such as sweetness, saltiness, sourness, or bitterness, are incorporated into each meal so that there is a wide variety of tastes available with each meal. This does not seem to be the case with American cuisine.

As can be seen with this response, the writer had to incorporate information from both sources to complete the activity. The information is compared and contrasted and then combined to create the response. The writer also makes some assumptions when information is not explicit in the two sources. These higher-level critical thinking skills are essential for accomplishing the task effectively.

This second activity provides students with opportunities to synthesize the information available in the full listening activity

(Appendix A) and the information gathered in the communication activity (Appendix C). Students must again utilize information from both sources to fulfill the prompt.

> Using the information from the listening and the response of one of your partners from the communication activity, compare a typical lunch/meal each has.
>
> <div align="center">or</div>
>
> Using the information from the listening and the response of one of your partners from the communication activity, compare the responses about who does the cooking in the home.

An example of a spoken response to the second prompt may be as follows:

In both David and Thira's families, the mother seems to be the person who is of charge of cooking for the family. In Thira's home, her mother does all of the cooking for the family by herself. Thira's grandmother used to help, but now she is too old and is sick. However, at David's home, the children have to help their mother cook or cook the meals by themselves for the family.

This second activity provides students with opportunities to synthesize information from the listening activity and information gathered from the personal interaction of the students in the interviewing/speaking activity. Organizing ideas, comparing and contrasting, and differentiating are all complex critical thinking skills which are utilized in these types of responses. These activities also necessitate the fusion of elements from both sources to accurately respond to either of these prompts.

Other suggestions for integrated skills activities. All of the segregated skill activities presented in this paper may be adapted into integrated skills activities. In addition, other activities not previously suggested may also be utilized in integrated skills activities such as having students use information from the communicative activity and the reading passage or compare the responses from two conversations partners from the communicative activity. Adapting the activities found in existing textbooks is the easiest way for teachers to develop integrated skills activities; however, it is not always possible to modify activities adequately. If this is the case, teachers may need to prepare supplementary materials from outside sources.

Conclusion

While integrated skills activities in EFL texts may be a relatively new approach in text design, due in part to the backwash produced by the movement towards an integrated skills approach in international examinations such as the IELTS and TOEFL iBT, the concept of integrating skills in an educational setting is certainly not a new one. Consider students' educational experience in the U.S. and other western education contexts. In many cases, students are asked to read materials before class. During classes, professors lecture and question students regarding the concepts presented in the text, and also in many cases bring in examples from their experiences to illustrate and expand on what is presented in the text. During the exam period, many professors ask students to present their understanding of the concept from the text (possibly in the form of a definition), explain how the concept applies to a particular context (based on additional reading or information in lectures), and possibly express opinions on the importance of the concept in written form (essay exam). This is a common approach to education that many Americans, Australians, British, and Canadians experience as students. Through this approach, students are required to integrate the language skills used (reading the text, listening to the lecture, writing responses on the essay exam) in synthesizing information. It is clear that integrating skills is not a novel approach: it is what occurs in many learning contexts. What is less common, and what is useful for EFL students now, is to bring this same approach into EFL teaching contexts. Adapting or developing materials in order to provide an integrated skills approach in EFL classrooms does take some time; however, whether in Japanese or Indian university classrooms, or primary and secondary EFL classrooms in Korea or Cambodia, or ESL/EFL classrooms in the United States, the benefits go far beyond simply preparing students for the iBT. Teaching students through an integrated skills approach provides them with a more holistic learning experience, prepares them to excel in academic fields where they will be required to integrate the skills they use, allows them to develop their critical thinking skills, and further prepares them to be competent and successful in their future careers.

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Appendix A
Listening Activity Script

The following is the script of the dialogue to which the students would listen. (The students would not see this script.)

Lary:	Hello. My name is Lary, and today I'm going to be talking to David about his eating habits and food. Hi, David.
David:	Hello.
Lary:	How are you today?
David:	Fine.
Lary:	Very good. Umm......first question: how many meals do you eat each day?
David:	Well......some days I eat two, some days I eat one, some days I eat three or four, but usually I eat three.
Lary:	OK. How about breakfast? What do you like to eat for breakfast?
David:	Well, I'm not a typical American. I don't really like eggs and bacon, and I don't eat cereal very much; but I do like fruit and, of course, I love coffee. So I usually have fruit and coffee for breakfast.
Lary:	OK. Uh, how about lunch?
David:	I am a typical American when it comes to eating lunches. I usually have a sandwich of some kind. Some other typical foods Americans eat for lunch are soup and salads...something light and quick, but I go for a good old sandwich. I've eaten sandwiches for lunch since I was a kid.
Lary:	OK. And what about dinner?
David:	Umm...dinner...I usually just eat something light. Umm...I don't cook a lot for my dinner, uh...maybe something like a soup or something...
Lary:	OK.
David:	Or a stew.
Lary:	OK. Uh, what meal is your biggest meal usually?
David:	Umm, well, I guess my biggest meal would have to be lunch because I don't eat a big breakfast and I don't eat a big dinner.
Lary:	OK, so, lunch is the biggest meal.
David:	Yes.
Lary:	OK. Ah, what is a typical meal that you eat at your home?

David: Well...because I live by myself, I don't really eat typical meals, but when I was growing up, uh, there were basically two kinds of typical meals that we had at home. One was a meat, just a plain meat, and then a potato dish, always potatoes, mashed potatoes, fried potatoes, boiled potatoes, baked potatoes...some kind of potatoes, and then cooked vegetables on the side...or maybe some kind of salad.

Lary: Sounds very American.

David: Yeah, and the other kind of meal was a one-pot meal, either a stew or chili or macaroni and cheese or something else where everything was put together into one dish and cooked and then everybody ate out of that one pot or one dish. Some of these one-pot meals were simple and some were complex.

Lary: Sounds good. Ah, all right, what is your favorite food?

David: Hmm... I guess I would have to say that my favorite food would be...hmm...lasagna. I really like lasagna, one of those one-pot meals. Yes, lasagna is my favorite.

Lary: OK. All right, what food, then, don't you like?

David: Well, I don't like eggs...and I don't like green beans. Umm, the reason I don't like eggs is because when I was growing up, we had a farm; and we had eggs every day.

Lary: Is that right?

David: At almost every meal, we had some kind of eggs it seemed, so now I just don't like eggs.

Lary: OK.

David: And I don't like green beans because one time when my mother was having a baby, my dad only cooked green beans every day, every meal...for it seemed like forever...

Lary: Is that right?

David: ...we had green beans...

Lary: Ha ha ha.

David: ...so I don't like green beans now.

Lary: OK. Umm, so you're an American, right?

David: Yes.

Lary: All right, what kind of food then is popular in...in the United States?

David: Well...that's sort of hard to say because there are so many different kinds of food there. It's a very multi-cultural food country. Umm...of course, some people like Chinese; some people like...uh...uh...different ethnic foods. Umm, probably where I was from, pizza would be a very popular food. And most fast foods - hamburgers and hot dogs and...uh... maybe some kinds of Mexican food - were also very popular.

Lary: All right, all right then, what is a typical food then in the United States?

David: Hmm...I would say...hmm...typical food, again because it's so multi-cultural, there is no real American food, but if you had to go with typical, I guess you would have to go with the typical fast foods like hamburgers and French fries or hot dogs...and pizza.

Lary: OK.

David: All those popular foods are also the very typical foods.

Lary: All right, who usually cooks at your home?

David: Well, when I was growing up, my mother cooked, but we also took turns cooking, the children. We had a large family, so each of the kids had a night that we cooked or we helped to cook with my mother. Umm, now, I live by myself, so if there is any cooking done, I have to do it by myself.

Lary: Well then, can you cook well?

David: Well, I think so. Umm, I don't know that everyone thinks so, but a lot of my friends like what I cook, and I like what I cook so...and I like to cook. So I think it's probably a hobby if I have one.

Lary: Interesting. Well, you'll have to cook something for me some time.

David: OK.

Lary: Thank you very much, David.

David: You're welcome, Lary.

Appendix B
Listening Activity Exercise

Answer the following questions based on the information you hear in the dialogue.

Lary is interviewing David about food and his eating habits.

Circle (T) if the statement is true or (F) if the statement is false.
 1. T   F   David usually eats two meals each day.
 2. T   F   David usually has eggs, bacon, and coffee for breakfast.
 3. T   F   A typical American lunch is a sandwich.
 4. T   F   David usually has a big dinner.

Circle the answer or answers for each question. For some questions there may be more than one correct answer.

 5. Which is David's biggest meal of the day?
     a. breakfast   b. lunch   c. dinner   d. all are about the same

 6. What was a typical meal at David's home when he was growing up?
     a. meat and potatoes   b. meat, potatoes, and cooked vegetables
     c. only vegetables   d. a one-pot meal

 7. What is David's favorite food?
     a. meat   b. stew   c. lasagna   d. all Italian food

 8. What foods doesn't David like?
     a. eggs   b. stew   c. potatoes d. green beans

Write an answer on the line under the question.

 9. According to David, what are two popular foods in America?
     _____

10. What some typical foods in America?
     _____

11. Who cooked at David's home when he was growing up?
     _____

12. Who cooks at David's home now?
     _____

13. Is David a good cook?
     _____

Appendix C
Speaking/Interview Activity Worksheet

Ask two partners the questions and write their answers.

1. How many meals do you eat each day?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

2. What do you usually eat for breakfast/lunch/dinner?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

3. What is usually your biggest meal?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

4. What is a typical meal at your home?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

5. What is your favorite food?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

6. What is a food that you don't like? Why?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

7. What kind of food is popular in your country?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

8. What is a typical food from your country? Tell me about it.

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

9. Who usually cooks at your home?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

10. Can you cook well?

Partner 1	
Partner 2	

Appendix D
Reading Passage

Khmer Cuisine is another name for the food widely consumed in the country of Cambodia. It is noted for its exotic and unique flavors.

Khmer cuisine is similar to the cuisines of its Southeast Asian neighbors, but is relatively unknown to the world compared to the cuisines of its neighbors. It has been described as similar to Thai cuisine, though not as spicy. Curry dishes, known as *kari*, show its ties with Indian cuisine. Influences from Chinese cuisine can be noted in the use of many different types of rice noodles. Beef noodle soup, known simply as *kuytheav*, is a popular dish brought to Cambodia by its Chinese settlers. Also, *banh chiao* is the Khmer version of the Vietnamese *bánh xèo*, which is the Vietnamese imitation of the French crepe.

Khmer cuisine is noted for the use of *prahok*, a type of fermented fish paste, in many dishes as a distinctive flavoring. When *prahok* is not used, the flavoring is likely to be *kapĭ*, a kind of fermented shrimp paste. Fish sauce is also widely used in soups, stir-fried cuisine, and as dipping sauce. Coconut milk is the main ingredient of many Khmer curries and desserts. Almost every meal is eaten with a bowl of rice. In Cambodia there is regular aromatic rice and glutinous or sticky rice. The latter is used more in dessert dishes with fruits such as durian.

Typically, Cambodians eat their meals with at least three or four separate dishes. Each individual dish will usually be sweet, sour, salty or bitter. Chili is usually left up to individuals to add themselves. In this way, Cambodians ensure that they get a bit of every flavor to satisfy their palates.

(Nationmaster, 2008)

Appendix E
Reading Exercise

Answer the questions according to the information in the passage.

1. What is the name of the fermented fish paste used in Khmer cooking?

   _____

2. What type of rice is used more for desserts?

   _____

3. What are some countries that have influenced Khmer cuisine?

   _____

4. How many dishes are usually served in a meal in Cambodia?

   _____

5. Why do Cambodians serve dishes that have different tastes (e.g., sweet, sour, salty, or bitter)?

   _____

Global English? Implications for the Teacher

Alan Maley
Leeds Metropolitan University, Leeds, United Kingdom

> The global spread of English is now a given. However, there are two main ways of conceptualizing it: as a highly complex, infinitely varied number of interactions, each of which needs to call on "accommodation" for its success – English as an International Language (EIL) or as a newly-evolving variety of English "in its own right," termed English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). In this paper I shall try to demonstrate the untenability of an ELF model and offer some alternative suggestions for teaching English in international settings.

The emergence of English as the dominant language of global interaction in the second half of the 20th century has been the subject of much speculation, debate, and scholarly inquiry (Crystal, 2003; Kachru, 1992; McArthur, 1998; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006). While few, if any, would deny the fact that English is a global language, the nature of such a language is hotly debated. On the one hand, there are those who focus on the description and discussion of the many varieties of English and the multitudinous contexts of their use around the globe. This we may call an English as an International Language (EIL) or a Global Englishes (GI) approach (Görlach, 2002; Kirkpatrick, 2007). On the other hand, there are those who contend, sometimes with great vehemence, that they can detect the emergence of a new global variety of English, which they call English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), (Jenkins, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2001). In this paper, I shall attempt to show that the ELF approach is both unfounded and unhelpful to teachers and to offer an alternative approach based on the acceptance of difference and the mutual negotiation of meaning in international settings.

What Are the Claims for ELF?

There seem to be three main claims underpinning the case for ELF:

1. It is claimed that there are now considerably more non-native speaker (NNS) users of English in the world than there are native speaker (NS) users. From this fact, it is deduced that there must therefore be more NNS to NNS interactions than there are NS to NS interactions. Therefore, the way the

language is developing is increasingly in the hands of NNSs, so this is what we should be focused on, rather than on some NS standard. Some have even gone so far as to state that NSs are "irrelevant."

2. In their analysis of phonetic and grammatical features of NNS-NNS interactions, Jenkins (2000) and Seidlhofer (2001) have identified what they call "core" and "non-core" items. Core items are those which would cause misunderstanding if they are not mastered. Non-core items are those features which do not cause misunderstanding and which can therefore be safely ignored by learners and their teachers. On the basis of this analysis, it is claimed that there is an "emergent" (or "emerging") new variety of English, which they call English as a Lingua Franca, characterized by common features among all its speakers.

3. It is further claimed that this new variety deserves due attention from linguists, administrators, materials writers, and teachers. Such is the importance of their research into this new variety that its pedagogical significance should be recognized and eventually used as the basis for language teaching syllabi and materials, and as an alternative to standard language models, which are inevitably dependent on NS norms.

Do These Claims Stand Up to Scrutiny?

The statistical claim. There are a number of issues which render the statistical argument a good deal weaker than is claimed.   In particular, there is a logical weakness in the claim that because there are more NNS than NS users of English in the world, therefore there are more NNS-NNS interactions. What are these weaknesses?

1. The reality is far more complex than is claimed. There are approximately 350-450 million NSs interacting on a daily basis, which is not a negligible number. Using Kachru's (1992) three circles model, which describes an Inner Circle of NS countries like the UK, the USA, Australia, etc., an Outer Circle where English is used widely and is officially sanctioned, as in India, parts of Africa, etc., and an Expanding Circle, where English is a foreign language, as in China, Russia, etc., there are also numerous other kinds of international interactions which cannot be reliably counted. These are interactions between Inner and Outer Circle users, between Inner and Expanding Circle users, between Outer Circle users within the same country (as in India), between Outer Circle users from different countries (for example, Indians and Nigerians), and between Outer Circle and Expanding Circle users (for example, between

Chinese and Indians). It is significant that none of the above are considered under the ELF model, which concentrates exclusively on NNS-NNS interactions. The claim that NNS-NNS interactions form a majority of global interactions in English is therefore open to considerable doubt.

2. It is useful to make a distinction among types of NNS users. Many of the so-called users are, in fact, learners, rather than fully fledged users, and there is clearly a world of difference between a learner of English and a proficient and active user. There are also those who are relatively passive consumers of English rather than fully participatory users. Many people, even if they are proficient in English, do not engage in actively using it much. Their engagement with English comes through watching films and TV, surfing the WWW, or reading newspapers and books in English. As such, they cannot be regarded as contributing toward changes in English, since they are consuming, not creating, English. The last group is the fully-proficient users. This is necessarily a much more restricted number. And even such fully-proficient users may not be engaging in interactions in English all day and every day. Needless to say, such users are least likely to be using the non-standard variety of English described by ELF researchers.

For all the above reasons, we can legitimately question the claim that a majority of global English interactions are between NNS-NNS users. The situation is far more complex and nuanced than that.

The emerging/emergent variety claim. How accurate is the claim that the identification of core and non-core items marks the emergence of a new ELF variety? Again there are some pertinent objections to this claim.

1. For a new variety to emerge, it needs a base in a speech community, where daily interactions within the same community over a period of time lead inevitably to the evolution of the language, as has occurred in countries like India, Nigeria, and the Philippines. The global totality of interactions does not have such a basis in a community. Virtually every new encounter is unpredictable and needs to be negotiated afresh.   It is this process of negotiation or accommodation which is central, not some newly-minted product in the form of an ELF variety.

2. The so-called core and non-core features so far identified are very few in number. Jenkins (2000) has identified a number of common non-core features in the spoken language, and Seidlhofer (2001) has done the same for grammatical features. However, the list of these features is not long and hardly justifies the claim that ELF is an emerging variety. One has

only to compare the relatively exiguous features listed by Jenkins and Seidlhofer with the lists of distinctive features of existing varieties (see Kirkpatrick, 2007 for a recent account of some of the major world varieties) to note the weaknesses of the ELF claim.

3. Whether language features interfere or not with efficient communication between speakers from different communities depends greatly on context. In particular, the degree of shared knowledge will play a major role. If two participants from different language backgrounds interact in English, they will do so more successfully if they share a familiarity with the subject matter than if they do not. For example, if an astronomer from Russia and one from India interact, they will make sense to each other whatever the differences in their individual language features. The role of context and shared knowledge has been well documented by Anderson and Lynch (1988) as well as Brown and Yule (1983).

4. It is misleading and unhelpful to postulate a new emerging variety. What happens in international interactions is a pragmatic process of negotiation of meaning, not the deployment of a new variety. The phenomenon of accommodation, whereby speakers tend to mutually converge towards a comprehensible exchange of information, is well-documented, and it is this, rather than the promotion of a mythical new variety, which should be the focus of our attention. In other words, we "do" ELF, we do not "use" ELF.

5. There is credible counter-evidence which shows that in prototypically ELF contexts, proficient users, in fact, use a standard variety of English. The study by Mollin (2007) of people working in English in the context of the European Union showed that these proficient users tended overwhelmingly to use a standard model of English, with no evidence for non-core usage.

In view of the issues discussed above, the case for an emergent new variety loses a good deal of its persuasiveness.

The pedagogical claim. The proponents of ELF speak with forked tongues about the applicability of an ELF variety to the teaching of English as a foreign language. At times, they deny that this is their intention. At other times, however, it is clear that they do see ELF emerging as a challenger to a standard variety of English as the model for syllabi, teaching materials, and teaching. They certainly argue quite vehemently that ELF should be taken seriously by all the stakeholders: linguists, publishers, exam boards, curriculum designers, etc. There are again a number of objections to these claims for recognition.

1. On the few occasions when learners themselves have been consulted about the variety of English they wish to learn, they have unequivocally expressed a preference for a standard variety (Prodromou, 1992; Timmis, 2002).

2. Teachers, too, have been less than enthusiastic about the idea of basing their teaching on the new ELF model, as Jenkins herself admits, even if she regards them as "misguided," an epithet she liberally applies to anyone who does not share her views (Jenkins, 2007). This is hardly surprising, given that there is no full description of ELF, and there are no materials for teaching it. It is also true that teachers are innately conservative, in particular when it comes to threats to the standard variety of English which they have spent so much time and effort to acquire.

3. It is also patently clear that teachers actually teach what they are able to teach. They may aspire to a British or American model, but they will inevitably only approximate more or less closely to it. In most cases they will use a local variety of English, because that is the variety used in their community, while trying to ensure that it is maximally comprehensible to other English users internationally. And this is perfectly fine. What alternative do they have?

4. As to changing to an ELF model, it is not even on their screens. Teachers typically have more pressing concerns: long teaching hours, additional administrative and pastoral duties, pressures from the examination system, etc. They are also expected to perform impossible tasks: to bring students to a reasonable level of "competence" within a ludicrously small number of classroom hours and at the same time, to prepare students for "capability," that is, being able to operate with competence in the real world after the course is over. These are responsibilities teachers have to their students, as Penny Ur reminds us (Ur, 2008a, 2008b). It is hardly surprising that they are unenthusiastic about sea changes such as those implied by ELF. The most realistic position is that described by Prabhu in his article Teaching is at Most Hoping for the Best (1999).

5. As for publishers and examination authorities, there is next to no chance that they will sacrifice a cash cow for a white elephant! Standard varieties are their bread and butter. To switch metaphors, they are hardly likely to kill the golden goose of standard English(es) for the unfledged ugly duckling of ELF. Those in charge of curriculum specification and syllabus prescription are equally unlikely to embrace what they, rightly or wrongly, would perceive as a substandard variety.

6.   Last but not least, we need to draw a clear line between applied linguistics research and the day-to-day practice of language teaching. Applied or even pure linguistic investigation into the nature of languages and the patterns of use is a wholly legitimate endeavor. But its results have no necessary connection, direct or indirect, with real teaching. Research has as one of its aims the discovery of new truths. Teaching has to do with the pragmatic management of learning in difficult circumstances. It is unfortunate that academic researchers, with their greater power (through access to publication, etc.), have tended to present themselves as essential and relevant to teaching, when they are no such thing.

Alternatives for Language Teaching

What practical strategies can teachers adopt to cope with the English communication needs of their students in a globalized world?

Concentrate on existing varieties. It makes sense to concentrate on teaching within existing varieties. Apart from the relatively well established and well-described varieties in the Outer Circle countries (in the Indian sub-continent, East and West Africa, Malaysia, Singapore, the Philippines, etc.), there are clearly recognizable varieties in, for example, Spanish-speaking countries, Brazil, Scandinavia, Russia, Middle Eastern countries, Vietnam, etc. Teachers in these countries will naturally use English which is close to a standard but more or less strongly flavored by local characteristics. Working with and within local varieties will be far more productive than trying to introduce an unacceptable new ELF variety. It will also validate the responsible, professional practice of well-trained and committed teachers worldwide. They will always be striving to achieve the highest level of proficiency they can, while recognizing that local features will inevitably be incorporated.

Move from product to process. I suggest that, in terms of teaching, we need to move away from a product-based to a process-based approach. Rather than attempting to incorporate the core features of ELF into our teaching, we should be inducting students into an awareness of diversity and of strategies for dealing with it. (And this is something which could also profitably be extended to NSs!) There is no way we can teach all the diverse varieties students will meet. What students need is some firm basis from which they can confidently reach out. As in art or music, we need to master the fundamentals before experimenting with variations. What we can try to teach is how to deal with diversity, through developing a respect for difference and a positive attitude to accommodation.

These qualities will be the key to survival in the world of English outside the classroom. In other words, we will always be faced with a degree of unpredictability, so that it makes better sense to prepare students for this than to equip them with a codified system which will fail to meet their needs. It is the skills of accommodation which are needed, not another codified system. As Canagarajah points out,

> We know from studies in speech accommodation that speakers make mutual modifications in their speech to facilitate intelligibility. We also know from conversation analysis that speakers skillfully employ strategies of repair, clarification and paralinguistic interpretation (that includes gestures, tone and other cues) to negotiate differences. (As cited in Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006, pp. 208-209)

In adopting this approach, we would be more concerned with the use of the language rather than the teaching of a model: with the user rather than the code.

Expand opportunities for learning out of class. The limited amount of exposure to English which students receive in classrooms is a key issue. There is no way a student can achieve reasonable proficiency with five hours a week of classroom teaching over seven years (Barker, 2009). I suggest that we need to expand the opportunities and incentives for students to encounter and engage with English outside the classroom. That is, after all, where most of us learn what is useful to us in the real world. Given the massive expansion of multimedia and electronic communication, getting an education outside school is now a far easier task than it once was. Through popular songs, e-mail, the WWW, blogging, texting, DVDs, TV, and the abundance of reading materials now available, learners have the opportunity to acquire aspects of English we do not or cannot ordinarily teach in the classroom. They are already primed and motivated to do this. Our role is to encourage, rather than to discourage it. But we also have the responsibility of trying to develop a sense of appropriacy through our classroom teaching. Learners need clear-cut and authoritative guidance, and they need to feel secure that their own English is fit for the purpose of reaching out to others whose English may differ markedly from their own. It is our responsibility to help our learners navigate the troubled waters of convention, as well as preparing them for difference.

Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, I would like to clarify some possible misreadings of my position.

- I have argued that the ELF position is untenable. This does not imply that I am taking up a position in defense of the continuing dominance of the NS as the model for language teaching. On the contrary, I favor the polycentric model of many varieties of English. Such varieties have the function of defining local identities while remaining comprehensible in the international arena.

- The proponents of ELF tend to conflate "Native Speaker English" with "Standard English." This is unfortunate. It is not necessary to be a NS to use a standard variety of English. Indeed, many NSs themselves do not use a standard variety. The problem arises from the confusion of "provenance" with "competence." The fact of being born and raised as a NS does not guarantee competence in the use of a standard variety. And the fact of not having been born and raised as a NS does not prevent NNS users from achieving high levels of competence in a standard variety. It is in some ways regrettable that the Kachru three circles model has gained such wide acceptance by segregating users on the basis of geographic provenance. A better model would be the one where the central higher ground is occupied by the most highly proficient users, with less proficient users fading away to the margins.

- One of the more disturbing characteristics of the proponents of ELF is a populist, anti-NS stance and a concern for PC (Political Correctness). This leads them into adopting highly polemicised "critical" positions against anyone who happens not to share their views. This is unfortunate, if only because the "critical" view they have of others does not extend to themselves. By setting themselves up as critical judge and jury, they flout the Latin tag *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* (Who polices the police?) Those who criticize must themselves be subject to criticism.

- My position throughout this paper has been to respect language variation and to suggest how better mutual comprehension can be achieved. To do this, we do not need a new variety; instead, we need to develop interpretative skills, tolerance of diversity, and the willingness to engage with "the other."

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Guided Individual Learning Centre: A Non-Classroom Learning Environment

Sonita Ly
Australian Centre for Education, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

Theara Chea
Australian Centre for Education, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

Visal Sou
Australian Centre for Education, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

This paper will discuss basic concepts and practical experiences regarding shifting a traditional library, where students are left to study without guidance, to a Guided Individual Learning (GIL) Centre where students are guided to become autonomous learners using effective learning strategies and useful learning tools. A literature review on self-access and autonomous learning is provided as a theoretical framework for the paper. In addition, this paper will also point out some difficulties that teachers encountered at the GIL Centre at the Australian Centre for Education (ACE) during the implementation process of transforming students' traditional attitudes towards a learning Centre into newly proactive learning attitudes.

The last decade has seen very significant growth in English as a foreign language learning. Cambodia is just one among many countries which benefit from being able to communicate in English. Therefore, the learning process itself has become the focus of attention in many of the language schools in Cambodia. The Australian Centre for Education (ACE) is an example of one of the language schools in Cambodia implementing changes to the teaching of English in the country. As a part of its mission, ACE has always been enthusiastic to nurture autonomous learning habits among its students. The establishment of the Book Club, Listening Club, and the Guided Individual Learning (GIL) Centre on the campus are examples of these activities.

Roles of Independent Learning in Languages Acquisition

Scharle and Szabo (2000) explain that no matter how hard teachers work, or how effective classroom and course books are, students can only learn effectively if they are willing to learn; as the saying goes, "you can bring the horse to water, but you cannot make him drink" (p. 4). Through our own experiences as English teachers and our network in this field, both Cambodian teachers and their counterparts agree that establishing independent learning routines plays a primary role in helping students learn successfully.

To maximise their language learning effectiveness, Cambodian students need to break through their cultural barrier of being dependent on their English teacher for their learning outcomes. In this case, establishing a Centre where they can access learning resources at their own pace is a significant part of the language schools' missions.

The Self-Access Centre: Theory and Practice

As illustrated by Sheerin (1989), in a self-access centre (SAC), students should be able to access audio cassette players and recorders to work on their listening and pronunciation, whilst computers can allow them to improve their vocabulary, access testing software, and type their assignments. Information Technology and Computer (ITC) advancement has led to the development of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) software that was also recommended by Sheerin (1989). In addition, video and cable TV have also given students opportunities to access authentic listening materials, such as news and other programs produced by native speakers (Sheerin, 1989). Gardner and Miller (1999) consider a wider range of elements for SACs to provide an effective learning environment for students. They combine the necessary features of a SAC into a list including, but not limited to, resources, people, management, and materials development.

Up to 2005, ACE maintained a SAC on campus. It was a traditional model of self-directed learning in a modest room, furnished with five tables and around 35 chairs. The SAC, an English language-focused centre, had mostly English learning materials. The collection was book-based and the materials were not often updated. Two computers were available for students to use mainly to type their assignments and to search the Internet. Internet access was fairly limited compared to the needs of the 400 students who were entitled to use the SAC. Students did not communicate with the SAC teachers very much at that time: the teachers interacted very little with students who studied in the SAC, and therefore the centre did not meet ACE's previously stated goal of developing autonomous learners. It was decided that the SAC needed to be overhauled and that a GIL Centre based on the Australian model would benefit the more advanced students.

From Self-Access Centre to Guided Individual Learning Centre

As language learning cannot be solely dependent on the classroom, it is widely believed that language acquisition outside the classroom should help students to learn a language faster and more effectively. In a research project conducted by the National English Language Teaching Accreditation Scheme (NEAS) Australia, Brandon (2004) mentioned two fundamental principles for second language learning: student individuality and internal acquisition capacity. As she describes, a single teaching style cannot satisfy all the students, with their varied personalities, intelligence, and educational and cultural backgrounds. Likewise, as students have a natural language acquisition capacity, they learn a great deal that teachers do not teach them and fail to learn a great deal of what teachers do teach them. Therefore, having a centre where they can access language-learning resources at their own pace is crucial in helping them to become effective learners.

As an objective outcome for the research project, "Guided Individual Learning" was chosen as an appropriate term and is defined as goal-oriented activities related to meeting students' individual learning needs and supported by skilled teaching staff (Brandon, 2004). In other words, as students choose to adapt their preferred learning style, the opportunities in individual learning situations are accordingly available. Also, students are encouraged to activate their "inquisitional creativity" (Brandon, 2004, p. 7).

Based on the research presented here, it was determined that a GIL Centre model on autonomous learning should serve the following basic goals:

- Develop skills for further study
- Enable students to improve in their weak areas
- Give opportunities for students to practice, consolidate, and/or extend input received in class
- Provide time for learning or reflecting free from the pressures of classroom interaction
- Enable students to study specialised topics that cannot be offered in the normal syllabus
- Encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning

To provide as much assistance as possible to students to fulfill their needs in language learning, the GIL Centre manager is responsible for deciding which material is to be used and displayed, and for making sure that the resources are available and appropriate for the Centre. As

a supporting group, supervising teachers working in the Centre must be knowledgeable and skillful and should be able to:

- Identify students' learning needs
- Suggest appropriate activities
- Respond to students' language-related questions, usually covering a range of proficiency levels and course types
- Help students use the technology

The GIL Centre at the Australian Centre for Education

With an attempt to build up independent learning styles among its students and based on existing theory, ACE decided to upgrade its SAC to be the GIL Centre. The decision to equip the GIL Centre with its current features was based on research outcomes from NEAS and other literature on self-access practice. However, the practice of those theories has been modified to meet the practical needs and the learning styles of Cambodian students.

For instance, making current issues of newspaper and magazines available to students is mentioned as a best practice in Guided Individual Learning (Brandon, 2004); however, utilising older newspaper clippings files is not. Because Cambodian students do not usually make full use of back issues of newspapers and magazines, even though we believe that this is an excellent source of learning materials, specific sets of newspaper clippings files have been created and students are encouraged to make use of them. Each newspaper and magazine clipping is supported by a worksheet developed by GIL teachers. In addition, we try to make the clippings file very selective in terms of topic areas that are usually linked to International English Language Testing System (IELTS) preparation, which is an important educational goal for our Cambodian students. Also, we have introduced the "Listening to Online News Broadcasts" section in the GIL Centre, where everyday news from three radio stations, Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC), British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), and Voice of America (VOA), is made available to provide students as much access as possible to authentic listening materials. These resources are also discussed later in this paper. An additional advantage of such resources is that they are almost free of charge and can be developed and maintained by the GIL Centre teachers.

Opened in January 2006, the Centre is available to students sixty-five hours a week. There are between five to ten EFL teachers who are GIL Centre teachers scheduled by the Resources Manager on a rotating basis to supervise the Centre. The core roles of these teachers are discussed in detail later in this paper.

GIL Centre Layout

Situated in a large rectangular room, the Centre consists of a help desk positioned directly opposite the only entrance to make students feel that they are being welcomed as they enter. Two TV corners at each of the far ends of the room contain two large cable TVs, VCD/DVD players and videotape players. There are more than 60 comfortable chairs and five large tables. Tables and chairs are placed in two areas, a quiet area and quiet discussion area. Books, self-study packs, and other learning materials are displayed on shelves along the walls that take up three sides of the room.

Facing the help desk are twenty LCD computers. This position allows teachers to fully monitor the usage of those computers among students. With the computers, students can access the Internet, type their assignments, practice their listening skills and, especially, access CALL software, as eight of the computers are installed with privacy screens so students do not disturb their neighbors, while twelve other computers are for surfing the Internet.

There is a comfortable corner that offers an inviting area for students to read newspapers and magazines with their friends or just sit down and have a quiet chat to improve their speaking skills. The GIL Centre is specifically aimed at upper-intermediate level students and above. It provides a wonderful learning environment, is well equipped with a large range of English learning materials, and offers improved student services. All of these improvements have created a completely new learning atmosphere to encourage more students to come and study.

Resources for Autonomous Learning

Specialised resources for EFL. As the name suggests, the GIL Centre aims to provide students with a full range of services focused on helping them to become independent learners. Therefore, most of the books and other materials, including self-study packs and computer learning software, are for English learning purposes and are balanced between the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The Centre has an acquisition budget, and every month GIL teachers select new, suitable materials from a variety of bookstores, international publishers, and websites.

Newspaper clippings file. Newspaper articles of general and academic interest, including those that frequently appear as IELTS topics, are cut out and laminated. These clippings are then categorised according to IELTS topics, such as education, environment, and politics, using a system of color-coding.

The rationale for this is based on trying to improve students' reading skills and to expose them to new vocabulary in different areas. Worksheets have been developed to enable students to exploit the articles more fully.

Online news broadcasts. The news is available daily from ABC, BBC, and VOA radio programs. Students can access them at any time and can complete the specially created generic worksheets, which help to focus students' listening and help them remember facts and figures. Furthermore, this material can help students to improve their listening skills by allowing them to become familiar with different English accents, including Australian, British, and American.

Worksheets. Different types of generic worksheets have been designed by the GIL Centre teachers for different kinds of resources, such as TV and radio programs, newspapers, magazines, and books. These worksheets encourage students to listen actively and enhance their ability to retain information after reading or listening.

Computers. There are twenty new LCD computers, featuring new interactive learning software, and 24-hour Internet access.

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) software. There is a wide variety of sophisticated and user-friendly CALL software in the GIL Centre. Students can improve their four macro skills by following a variety of programs including "Pronunciation Power 2," "Study Skills Success," "Listening to Lectures," or "Read Up Speed Up." Most of these programs contain interactive activities that are important for improving speaking and pronunciation. "Pronunciation Power 2," for example, allows students to record their own voices and gives feedback on their speaking and pronunciation.

Internet service. Students can access the Internet on 12 of the computers whenever the GIL Centre is open. They can also use all 20 computers to type their assignments and homework. However, this does not mean that GIL Centre teachers place more focus on, or push students to use computers all the time. In fact, there is still a large number of students who prefer hard copy materials as references for their work. This is one reason why the school continues to add new books to the Centre.

GIL Centre Teachers

In trying to develop the GIL Centre, GIL Centre teachers have been providing a helpful service by assisting students in selecting interesting, useful, and interactive materials. One of the most important jobs for the GIL Centre teachers is to help students gradually change their habits and learning styles when using the learning centre. Commonly, there are students who do not use their time well in the GIL Centre and do not have a clear study plan. Some students are not aware of how to improve their learning outcomes as they are totally dependent on

teachers for their learning and knowledge, while others are reluctant to ask for help despite knowing what their problems are.

Many Cambodian students think that the best way to improve their writing is by memorising model texts, so that when they have to write about the same or a similar topic they can quickly write from memory. When students are not familiar with the subject of their given task, their writing is often off-topic. This is a pervasive problem, and one of the GIL Centre staff duties is to redirect students away from rote learning. This not only occurs with writing but also with all areas of their learning. This is one of the objectives of the GIL Centre that can be generalised to all language schools in Cambodia. By being proactive in the way GIL Centre staff perform their duties, with close supervision of what the students are doing while they are in the GIL Centre, and by advising those students who might be using inappropriate learning strategies, it is believed that over time these traditional problems can be rectified.

Therefore, GIL Centre teachers act as resources in guiding students to relevant materials that are appropriate for their actual abilities. They also act as facilitators, helping students tackle their learning problems. This is part of a NEAS requirement: that all the GIL Centre teachers are qualified and well trained in EFL and have experience teaching English. In addition, they are also trained by the Resources Manager before they become fully qualified to help the students to become independent learners, and help to fulfill the students' needs.

Introduction for new students. When students become eligible to join the GIL Centre, they are offered an orientation program. This takes around one hour, including time to complete the induction worksheet. A GIL Centre teacher leads students on a tour. The introduction is important for new students as they are given a chance to get to know the GIL Centre, the availability of Centre resources, and how certain materials and resources are used such as computers, the Internet, self study packs, listening CDs, DVDs, TVs, and others.

GIL Centre Club. The GIL Centre staff are very keen to help students use the materials and resources as much as possible, and to encourage them to become more independent learners. An initiative the staff has put in place to encourage this to develop is a learning club called the GIL Centre Club. There are regular sessions where students come together with one of the GIL Centre teachers to receive training on various topics, ranging from demonstrations on how to use new materials to learning strategies. Attending this club is free of charge, and all GIL Centre members are very welcome. These sessions are offered twice a week. There is a new lesson every week, and suggestions are accepted to run special sessions for other groups of students in the school, or others on topics of students' choice.

Teacher liaison. GIL Centre teachers have a good relationship with other teachers at the school. They identify useful materials that teachers could use in their classes, recommend materials to be purchased, or suggest resources for their students to use to supplement their study outside the classroom. Teachers also receive information on new books and materials that are assessed, and, if appropriate, added to the GIL Centre.

Advice to students. Students are given advice on their learning problems. The GIL Centre teachers help solve students' problems, and guide them to materials suitable for them. They also try to be proactive in identifying student needs by approaching the students. Students are encouraged to consult with the GIL Centre teachers and to discuss their weaknesses.

GIL Centre evaluation. The GIL Centre teachers' efforts have proved successful as shown by the results of a survey in a questionnaire form conducted in December, 2006, a year after the GIL Centre opened. In the questionnaire, aimed at evaluating the GIL Centre materials and services, the GIL Centre staff discovered that, among the 28 students who completed the questionnaire, 18 said the learning materials were very good, and that the services were helpful. In addition, students who had been studying as independent learners in the GIL Centre for up to 6 months said they became more confident in language communication skills as they had improved greatly. This was viewed as an important outcome of the work in the Centre.

A study based on students' IELTS results at ACE has also supported the effectiveness of the GIL Centre in the school. In order to graduate from the General English Program (GEP) at ACE, students have to score at least 5.0 on IELTS. In 2005, a year before the GIL Centre opened, 77.09% of the all IELTS candidates scored 5.0 or above; the figure increased to 82.50% in 2006. According to the register book in which students record their names before using the GIL Centre, a large majority of the students who were to sit for the IELTS had utilised the GIL Centre.

It is also acknowledged that there were some criticisms from the students in their questionnaires that were mainly connected to the approachability of the staff. It is a major objective for any self-directed program in language learning that students feel comfortable approaching staff for help. Steps have been taken to rectify this. Continuous training on customer services at the GIL Centre has been prioritised as a part of overall training.

Conclusion

While ACE has implemented a successful model with the GIL Center, for independent learning, the emphasis for language schools in Cambodia should be less on the final product and more on the process

of developing these independent learners. At this point, few schools can imitate the ACE model completely, but they can certainly implement ideas that have been presented in this paper.

For example, EFL teachers can develop quite useful reading materials from back issues of newspapers and magazines. They need only to carefully select and catalogue those articles for appropriate subject areas. Even though the Internet is not widely accessible in Cambodia, free podcasts and other listening materials from news websites, such as those produced by BBC Worldservice, Voice of America, and ABC Australia, are available. The strength of these materials is that students can have access to three different accents with authentic listening materials produced by native speakers. Teachers who are keen on technology in education can also develop CALL software from Hot Potato, which is freeware, for their students to use.

Finally, developing self-directed learners who are not only proficient in the four macro skills, but also in their ability to function independently in English, should not be a luxury that only a few schools in Cambodia deem crucial to language education. Promoting a non-classroom learning environment should be part of the learning outcomes for all language schools within Cambodia.

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Integrating Critical Thinking Skills into the EFL Classroom

Yukiko Ishikawa
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

Daniel Sasaki
Soka University, Tokyo, Japan

Shinichi Jason Yamamoto
Soka High School, Tokyo, Japan

Integrating critical thinking skills into the EFL classroom can help further develop students' communicative abilities and analytical thinking and allow students to practice communicating in a variety of situations. This article will introduce a summary of an example of the integration and implementation of critical thinking skills into the language classroom at Soka University, Japan, which was presented in a workshop at CamTESOL 2007. First, the article reviews some definitions of critical thinking and explains critical thinking as measurable skills. Next, the means for integrating critical thinking skills into the EFL curriculum in the program will be introduced. Several examples of implementation will follow. In the conclusion, some issues raised by the participants at the presentation at Cam TESOL 2007 are considered.

There are a number of researchers who have attempted to define critical thinking. For instance, Dowden (2002) says "[t]o think critically, is among other things, to be fair and open-minded while thinking carefully about what to do or what to believe." Scriven and Paul (2004) state critical thinking is:

> ...that mode of thinking - about any subject, content or problem - in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them...in short, [critical thinking is] self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking.

In her learning strategy textbook for college freshmen, Hopper (2003) introduces critical thinking as follows:

A critical thinker is constantly asking questions, trying to distinguish between fact and opinion. Not about memorizing, but analyzing all sides of an issue to find more in the situation than the obvious and makes assertions built on sound logic and solid evidence. (p. 37)

Among the variety of definitions, Ennis (1978, as cited in Stroupe, 2006) summarized critical thinking simply as "a process incorporating the skills necessary to decide what to do and believe" (p. 3).

These definitions explain the concept of critical thinking in a manner that not only emphasizes the way information is processed and applied, but also stresses the consciousness or awareness of this process taking place. This emphasis or awareness is required by teachers to facilitate critical thinking in the classroom.

Why Teach Critical Thinking?

On the importance of critical thinking in education, Facione (1992) claims that critical thinking is fundamental in a democratic society, stating "Without critical thinking, people would be more easily exploited not only politically but economically" (p. 20). Students need to think critically to understand how they are connected to the world around them and are affected by different events occurring in their local areas and in the world. According to Huitt (1998), critical thinking has come to be considered an important topic of schooling in this age of information. With unlimited access to information through the advancement of technology, the ability to think of ways on how to utilize information effectively and differentiate the reliability of sources is required of students. Hopper (2003) also emphasizes that to be a critical thinker is essential to be a successful college student as students need to go beyond just memorizing the facts and develop tools or skills to be used on the facts or information presented to them throughout their learning.

In terms of the English learning context, the use of questions can enhance learning and critical thinking as Brock (1986) has shown in research conducted on the effects of questions on ESL classroom discourse. She claims that native speakers frequently use questions when initiating topics in conversations addressed to non-native speakers of English. The research showed that the amount of learner output was increased with the use of referential questions and suggested that questions might be one of the most important tools in the language classroom. King (1994), in her experimental research on teaching children how to question, concludes that practice of the use of questions can enhance higher order thinking and engage students in more complex knowledge construction. Further, she claims that in

order for the acquisition of the skill of questioning to take place, a great amount of training or repetitive practice is necessary.

The acquisition of questioning skills described above demonstrates one of the many ways in which learning to think critically takes place in the context of classroom language learning instruction. In fact, critical thinking can be incorporated into any activity within the language classroom if the teacher provides opportunities for students to develop these skills. For example, Devine (1962) claims that how to think critically cannot be taught directly, but it is possible to teach it through critical reading or critical listening activities. Further, he claims that English teachers should be able to teach critical thinking by refocusing and revising existing lessons and units. Critical thinking develops with training and repetition; however, it also requires a vehicle. Critical thinking can be found within and developed through the act of language learning where the listening, speaking, reading, and writing tasks are the vehicles that carry students through the process of developing these thinking skills if used consciously for that purpose.

Thus, to sum up the points addressed above, critical thinking is essential to be successful as a student and as a working member of society in this rapidly changing environment where an overwhelming amount of information is available. English language learners are no exception. Therefore, it is important for language teachers to realize the potential and possibility of teaching critical thinking in the form of concrete skills such as asking questions, and also for critical thinking to be integrated in reading, listening, or speaking activities in language classrooms. In order to do so, teachers need to focus on the skills to try to provide ample opportunities for students to develop the capacity to think critically.

Critical Thinking as Measurable Skills

In the 1950s, a group of educators gathered and tried to classify educational goals and objectives according to what teachers would like their students to know. This is widely known as Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1994). According to the taxonomy, learning takes place in a hierarchy of six levels of thinking, from low to high: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Bloom's Taxonomy has long been referred to and cited as educational objectives in schools. Huitt (2004) provides a comprehensible definition for each level with sample verbs to make the concept more concrete:

1. Knowledge level: "Student recalls or recognizes information, ideas, and principles in the approximate form in which they were learned." (write, list, label, name, state, define)

2. Comprehension level: "Student translates, comprehends, or interprets information based on prior learning." (explain, summarize, paraphrase, describe, illustrate)
3. Application level: "Student selects, transfers, and uses data and principles to complete a problem or task with a minimum of direction." (use, compute, solve, demonstrate, apply, construct)
4. Analysis level: "Student distinguishes, classifies, and relates the assumptions, hypotheses, evidence, or structure of a statement or question."   (analyze, categorize, compare, contrast, and separate)
5. Synthesis level: "Student originates, and combines ideas into a product, plan or proposal that is new to him or her." (create, design, hypothesize, invent, develop)
6. Evaluation level: "Student appraises, assesses, or critiques on a basis of specific standards and criteria." (judge, recommend, critique, justify)

Similarly, Ennis (1993) criticizes Bloom's taxonomy as "too vague" (p. 179) to guide critical thinking assessment, and elaborates critical thinking as 10 skills that can be assessed in a critical thinking test:

1. Judge the credibility of sources.
2. Identify conclusions, reasons, and assumptions.
3. Judge the quality of an argument, including the acceptability of its reasons, assumptions, and evidence.
4. Develop and defend a position on an issue.
5. Ask appropriate clarifying questions.
6. Plan experiments and judge experimental designs.
7. Define terms in a way appropriate for the context.
8. Be open-minded.
9. Try to be well informed.
10. Draw conclusions when warranted, but with caution.

(p. 180)

In similar attempts to make this taxonomy more applicable to classroom activities, Wakefield (1998) has applied Bloom's Taxonomy; she lists a number of verbs in each level as measurable behaviors. For example, student improvement in comprehension skills can be measured by improvement in summarizing, paraphrasing, and contrasting information. She also provides lists of materials or activities that can enhance learning of each level. This list of behavioral verbs and materials along with definitions of each level of taxonomy is presented in Appendix A.

Critical Thinking Skills in an EFL Curriculum

Based on Bloom's Taxonomy and Wakefield's applied taxonomy, Stroupe (2006) incorporated critical thinking skills into a university EFL curriculum.   The World Language Center (WLC), at Soka University in Tokyo, Japan, offers English courses which are divided into four levels according to students' TOEFL ITP scores: Advanced (480+), Intermediate (430-480), Elementary (380-430), Basic (330-380). Critical thinking skills are incorporated in the syllabus as part of course objectives in each level and are considered incremental skills to prepare for higher order thinking behaviors as students move up to higher level courses. Appendix B shows examples of critical thinking skills development tasks in each level of WLC courses (Stroupe, 2006).

Classroom practice. Using the Basic level, an example of the way critical thinking skills are incorporated in classroom practice is presented in this section. The Basic level is the lowest level of WLC courses (Appendix B) and offers two types of communication courses; one course offers two 90-minute intensive classes a week and another course offers one 90-minute class a week. Both courses intensively focus on developing students' communication skills (i.e., mainly speaking) and integrating critical thinking skills are specifically indicated as part of the course objectives in the course description. Below is an excerpt of the course description:

Increase communicative competency
a. Express or exchange information about ideas, knowledge or feelings (*critical thinking*)
b. Express opinions (*critical thinking*)
c. Describe something or someone (*critical thinking*)
d. Explain or give reasons (*critical thinking*)

Improved listening competency
a. Drawing conclusions about who, what, and where (*critical thinking*)
b. Discriminating between emotional reactions (*critical thinking*)
c. Recognizing topic in a dialogue/sentence
d. Identifying the speaker

Based on these course objectives, the following are examples of how critical thinking skills are incorporated into classroom practice for the Basic level WLC courses. Measureable behaviors based on Wakefield's application of Bloom's Taxonomy are identified for each example (Wakefield, 1998) (see Appendix A).

Example 1. When a teacher asks "Do you agree or disagree with...?" students usually answer with "I agree/I disagree" short answers. Keep

encouraging students to extend answers with a reason clause starting with "because" until they practice enough and become able to support their answers. Here, students practice agreeing/disagreeing with statements using extended answers, utilizing what Wakefield (1998) labels as "state" (Knowledge level) or "explain" (Comprehension level) critical thinking skills.

Example 2. Students tend to leave things unclear to them without asking teachers; therefore, they need to first practice how to ask questions. Elicit questions that clarify the meaning or ideas such as, "What does __ mean?" "Could you explain it again?" "How do you say __ in English?" Here, students practice how to "identify" (Knowledge level).

Example 3. When using a poem or a song as teaching material, have students discuss what the writer is trying to express. Provide a prompt such as, "Here the writer is feeling…" so that it becomes easier for students to predict or hypothesize the author's intention. Here, students try not only to understand the surface of the text, but also what is behind the text. This learning task is an example of "hypothesize" (Synthesis level).

Example 4. When students work in pairs, they ask each other questions, and one person reports to the teacher what the partner said. Ask the student questions about the partner to encourage students to apply different question strategies to find out more information and report it properly. As such, students "apply" and "report" information (Application level).

Example 5. Have students adapt a story or create a role-play utilizing lessons, phrases, grammar points, and other items to review what was learned. Students practice summarizing or combining the information they learned in class. Here, the students practice "combine," "create," and "role-play" (Synthesis level).

Example 6. When using a role-play from a textbook, create questions that require more critical thinking and guessing from the information in the text, not just comprehension type questions (Figure 1).

Julia: I'm so excited! We have two weeks off! What are you
          going to do?
Nancy: I'm not sure. I guess I'll just stay home. Maybe I'll catch
          up on my reading. What about you? Any plans?
Julia: Well, my parents have rented a condominium in Florida.
          I'm going to take long walks along the beach every day and
          do lots of swimming.
Nancy: Sounds great!
Julia: Say, why don't you come with us? We have plenty of
          room.
Nancy: Do you mean it? I'd love to!

Questions:

1. Are Julia and Nancy students? From which sentences can you
   tell?
2. What is Julia going to do during the break?
3. What is Nancy going to do during the break?

Figure 1. Sample role-play. Note: adopted from Richards, J. C. (1997). *New interchange: English for international communication: Student's book 2* (p. 28). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Question 2 can be answered only from the information in the text (from Julia's sentence "Well, my parents have rented a condominium in Florida. I'm going to take long walks along the beach every day and do lots of swimming."). On the other hand, Questions 1 and 3 require predicting, using the information from the text to hypothesize possibilities. Here, students practice how to "hypothesize" (Synthesis level).

The examples above illustrate how Bloom's Taxonomy can be applied to basic language activities. Furthermore, it is important to recognize that Bloom's taxonomy is not necessarily sequential or hierarchical. For example, students asking and answering questions about their weekend would be describing (Knowledge) events, explaining or comparing (Comprehension) events, and possibly recommending (Evaluation) things to do. Clearly, various measureable behaviors (knowledge, comprehension, evaluation) from Bloom's taxonomy are present in this activity and in fact, in any language activity if properly facilitated by the instructor. Therefore, repeated practice of the critical skills in different contexts and at different levels (of the courses in the curriculum) promotes the acquisition of these skills.

Critical Thinking in Self-Access: The Chit Chat Club

Along with offering English language courses, the WLC runs self-access facilities that include English conversation programs in order to provide more opportunities for students to practice their speaking and develop critical thinking skills. One of the English conversation programs, called the Chit Chat Club, is geared primarily for Basic and Elementary level students (Institutional TOEFL Placement [ITP] Test score range 330-430). The main goal of the Chit Chat Club is to build confidence in students' communicative ability by providing them with opportunities for additional English speaking practice outside of the classroom. The program is also closely connected with WLC English courses, which aim to develop critical thinking skills and gradually incorporate more complex thinking skills. Most students who register in Basic/Elementary WLC English courses are required to join Chit Chat Club sessions seven times in a given semester.

Staff members (usually international students who are studying at the Institute of Japanese Language or Japanese undergraduate students who have experienced studying abroad) sit at tables with five to six students. The program used to offer 45-minute topic-free sessions; however, we began topic-specific sessions focused on critical thinking skills in 2006. Staff members prepare for upcoming topics and skills at monthly staff meetings. Here they have an opportunity to brainstorm questions and methods to practice skills with fellow staff members.

The following are examples of questions the staff have asked in the sessions. The topic of the week and critical thinking skills focus for the topic are provided in parentheses:

- Tell us about your favorite food. What does it look like?
  (Food/Describing)
- How do you come to Soka University?
  (Travel/Explaining the Process)
- What do you study? How does it relate to your future dream?
  (Future Dreams & Career/Relating)
- Tell us about the best birthday party you ever had.
  (Childhood Memory/Narrating)
- What does your name mean?
  (Name/Explaining)
- What are the differences between university life and high school life?
  (University Life/Comparing)
- Tell us your favorite sport and least favorite sport.
  (Sports/Comparing)

- If you could use magic, what would you do?
  (Wishes & Hopes/Predicting)
- If you got an unlimited credit card for one day, what would you buy?
  (Money/Predicting)
- Tell your scary story.
  (Halloween/Narrating)
- When you open the door, what do you see in your room?
  (My Room/Describing)
- What will happen if children keep playing TV games for many years?
  (Computer Game/Finding Causes and Effects)
- Tell us about your favorite store.
  (Favorite Store & Shopping/Analyzing)
- Are you doing anything good for your health?
  (Stress & Health/Exemplifying)
- Do you agree with having school uniforms? How about your parents?
  (School Uniforms & Rules/Shifting Perspectives)
- What does your father usually do on New Year's Day?
  (New Year's Day & Customs/Explaining)

The Chit Chat Club provides many benefits for the students. They not only enjoy using English outside of the classroom but also build confidence communicating in English. Students become accustomed to asking the staff and other students questions related to the topics and also asking questions to understand and develop their own ideas further. It should be noted again that some critical thinking skills overlap in different weekly topics. By providing repetitive practice in different contexts and using different topics in addition to the classroom, the Chit Chat Club allows students the opportunity to develop critical thinking skills the acquisition of the skills will take place and transfer these skills to upper level English courses as they progress in the WLC program.

When this topic was presented at CamTESOL 2007, two major issues were brought up by the participants. One issue was that teaching critical thinking was still not culturally accepted in Cambodia. As critical thinking is considered to be or is supposed to be "transferable" (Ennis, 1993; Lawson, 1993), if students learn to think critically, it does not mean they do so only in English classes, but also in other classes. As a result, one major concern is that transfer can be provocative in Cambodian education, where some professors tend not to welcome questions from students. As Atkinson (1997) suggests, we need to carefully examine the cultural context in each situation when

we implement the teaching of critical thinking. Another issue is how we assess whether critical thinking has successfully taken place or not. As assessing "thinking" is not a simple task (Ennis, 1993), we have not yet developed a method of assessing the effectiveness of implementing critical thinking skills. Also, a way of measuring how critical thinking skills affect learners' English speech production needs to be developed and further researched.

Conclusion and Future Considerations

This article has shown the benefits of incorporating critical thinking skills into the EFL classroom and a self-access facility. It has also explained the concept of critical thinking skills and the measurable behaviors of higher order thinking. This paper has demonstrated that critical thinking takes place at all levels of the EFL curriculum. Furthermore, we have discovered that measureable behaviors based on Bloom's taxonomy (Wakefield, 1998; Huitt, 2004) are not exclusive or sequential: they can occur in random order.

In conclusion, teachers often facilitate critical thinking in their students indirectly, without being aware of it. However, it is important that teachers raise their awareness of this process in order to manipulate the classroom discourse to enhance the development of students' capacity to think critically. The capacity to think critically is imperative in today's global environment. Therefore, it is our responsibility as EFL educators to provide opportunities for students to develop this ability to process information efficiently.

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Appendix A
Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Materials, and Measurable Behaviors

Bloom's Level	Definition	Materials	Measurable Behaviors
Knowledge	Student recalls or recognizes information, ideas, and principles in the approximate form in which they were learned.	Events, people, newspapers, magazine articles, definitions, videos, dramas, textbooks, films, television programs, recordings, media presentations	Define, describe, memorize, label, recognize, name, draw, state, identify, select, write, locate, recite
Comprehension	Student translates, comprehends, or interprets information based on prior learning.	Speech, story, drama, cartoon, diagram, graph, summary, outline, analogy, poster, bulletin board	Summarize, restate, paraphrase, illustrate, match, explain, defend, relate, infer, compare, contrast, generalize
Application	Student selects, transfers, and uses data and principles to complete a problem or task with a minimum of direction	Diagram, sculpture, illustration, dramatization, forecast, problem, puzzle, organizations, classifications, rules, systems, routines	Apply, change, put together, construct, discover, produce, make, report, sketch, solve, show, collect, prepare
Analysis	Student distinguishes, classifies, and relates the assumptions, hypotheses, evidence, or structure of a statement or question.	Surveys, questionnaires, arguments, models, displays, demonstrations, diagrams, systems, conclusions, report, graphed information	Examine, classify, categorize, research, contrast, compare, disassemble, differentiate, separate, investigate, subdivide

Synthesis	Student originates, integrates, and combines ideas into a product, plan or proposal that is new to him or her.	Experiment, game, song, report, poem, prose, speculation, creation, art, invention, drama, rules	Combine, hypothesize, construct, originate, create, design, formulate, role-play, develop
Evaluation	Student appraises, assesses, or critiques on the basis of specific standards and criteria.	Recommenda-tions, self-evaluations, group discussions, debate, standards, editorials, values	Compare, recommend, assess, value, apprise, solve, criticize, weigh, consider, debate

Note: Adapted from Wakefield, D. V. (1998, November). *Bloom's Taxonomy and Critical Thinking.* Paper presented to the Governor's Teaching Fellows, Athens, GA. Retrieved December 15, 2008 from Encouraging Achievement-Gifted Education Resources Website: http://www.greenwood.wa.edu.au/internal/eager/Bloom's%20Dara%2 0Wakefield.html#anchor8914; Huitt, W. (2004). *Educational Psychology Interactive: Bloom et al.'s Taxonomy of the Cognitive Domain.* Retrieved from http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/cogsys/bloom.html

Appendix B
Integration of Critical Skills Development Tasks
in WLC Course Offerings by Level

Level	Two Khoma[1] Courses	One Khoma Courses	Practical Examples
Advanced 500+	English Communication Advanced: Intensive (Argumentation, International Comparative Education, Human Rights, Art and Peace)	TOEFL Preparation: Advanced Intensive	Developing and supporting referenced argumentative essays, judging credibility of a source, comparing and evaluating educational systems, formulating new and explaining decision processes and rationales for answering TOEFL questions
Advanced 480+	International Communication (Academic, Business, English Literature, Sociology)	English Communication: Advanced, Academic Reading: Advanced, Academic Writing: Advanced, TOEFL Preparation, TWE [Test of Written English]	Explaining decision processes and rationales for answering TOEFL/ grammar questions, comparing/contrasting literary themes, evaluating main points in an essay with appropriate evidence
Intermediate 430-480	English Program: Intermediate	English Communication: Intermediate, Academic Writing: Intermediate, TOEFL Preparation: Intermediate, TOEIC Preparation: Intermediate	Proposing possible solutions to global problems, identifying and (peer) evaluating paragraph structure, explaining decision processes and rationales for answering TOEFL/ TOEIC/grammar questions
Elementary 380-430	English Program: Elementary	English Communication: Elementary, Academic Writing: Elementary, TOEFL Preparation: Elementary, TOEIC Preparation: Elementary	Agreeing/disagreeing with statements (with support), identifying and (peer) evaluating sentence structure, explaining decision processes and rationales for answering TOEFL/ TOEIC/grammar questions

Basic 330-380	English Program: Basic	English Communication: Basic (Below 380)	Agreeing/disagreeing with statements (with extended answers), offering options, predicting outcomes of conversations, comparing and contrasting, ranking according to importance (with explanations)

[1] Khoma is the Japanese classification for a 90-minute period; therefore a two-khoma course typically meets twice a week, while a one-khoma course typically meets once a week during a given semester.

Note: Adopted from Stroupe, R. R. (2006). Integrating critical thinking throughout ESL curricula. *TESL Reporter*, *39*(2), 42-61.

Teaching, Testing, and Researching: "The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly" Dimensions of ELT?

Stephen H. Moore
Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia

Suksiri Bounchan
Institute of Foreign Languages
Royal University of Phnom Penh, Cambodia

This paper explores the relationships between and among English language teaching, testing and researching. Teaching is often viewed as the "fun" part of ELT; testing as a "necessary burden." Researching, on the other hand, is usually seen as beyond the teacher's domain and, therefore, an "unwelcome intrusion" in the classroom. Good teaching nurtures learning and good testing provides useful feedback on that learning. Good researching improves both teaching and testing. Thus are good teaching, testing and researching inextricably linked. This paper probes the discontent that many teachers feel about language testing and research, and suggests that disinterest in either domain can have detrimental consequences for language learning. Testing that generates positive washback and classroom-based action research that leads to informed teacher intervention are highlighted as two critical links in the teaching, testing and researching "model" and, indeed, as "good practice" in ELT whatever the international setting.

While teaching and testing (or assessing) are activities that are central to the work of language teachers, it is harder to make the claim that research should also play a significant part in the work of language teachers. Indeed, the authors' own views on the relevance of research to language teachers have evolved over the years in step with the context of their own work: initially, as language teachers, they were largely disinterested in research; as postgraduate students, they became more interested; and now as university lecturers, the authors are committed to promoting the benefits of research to language teaching professionals (see, for example, Moore, 2007). This paper has been written with a view to de-stigmatizing the commonly held perception

of "research" in language teaching circles, and clarifying how research can complement teaching and testing.

Teaching, Testing, and Researching: The Stereotypical Views

Although some readers might disagree with the following profile, based on the authors' decades of involvement with English language teaching in many different cultural contexts, we perceive a stereotypical language teacher to be one for whom teaching is fun; testing is burdensome; and researching is a luxury "extra." This typical teacher enjoys teaching, tolerates testing, but avoids researching. Moreover, we believe that this profile would be typical of perhaps the majority of teachers in many language-teaching settings, including in Cambodia. Complementing this profile are the perceptions of language learning students. Again, based on the authors' experience, students are likely to view teaching as stimulating (or boring); testing as fear-inducing; and researching as irrelevant. Not coincidentally, these student perspectives can be seen to echo the teachers' sentiments, and this suggests that how teachers' attitudes are perceived by students might have a significant impact on the development of students' own attitudes about language classroom experiences.

It is worthwhile exploring further what factors may be reinforcing these perspectives about teaching, testing and research. Knowing what they are could provide the key to unlocking their constraints on teachers' professional practices.

Reasons Why Testing and Researching are Not Popular with Language Teachers

Let us first consider language testing. There are many reasons why language teachers may not like testing. Among the most common would be the following:

- It is difficult and time-consuming to design good language tests or assessments (i.e., balancing issues of validity, reliability, and practicality).
- Marking tests can be very time consuming.
- Testing may be viewed as an imposition on teachers, especially if it is perceived as excessive and detracting from quality teaching time.
- Testing requires training and a commitment to continuous professional development to maintain good standards. It is not something that is simply learned once and then known forever.
- Testing may not be inherently interesting for many teachers, and it may be easy to defer an institution's testing responsibilities to one or two teachers who *are* interested in it.

- Quantitative and statistical techniques used in test analysis may frighten or confuse teachers.
- Teachers may have pre-conceived ideas of a normal distribution (i.e., "bell curve") for their student cohort and not see the need to bother with formal testing.
- Test results may be overruled by management (e.g., management may not allow a student to fail), and this can be very de-motivating for a teacher who wants to design good and fair tests.
- Good testing practices might not be recognized by the institution and therefore the institutional rewards for good testing may not be distinguishable from the rewards for bad testing.
- Students who are unhappy with test results can be difficult to handle and/or can create problems for the teacher.
- Teacher-created tests pose risks to the teacher. For example, a teacher may lose face if a student can identify a poor question and publicly challenge the teacher about it.

The combination and accumulation of these various factors constitute a considerable barrier to be overcome. It is no surprise therefore that testing is not popular among language teachers.

As with language testing, there are many reasons why a language teacher may not be interested in researching. Among the most common reasons would be the following:

- It may be difficult for teachers to see the relationship between research and actual ELT classrooms. Many teachers are happy enough with their status quo. For them, research may be seen as largely irrelevant, or an unnecessary "luxury."
- There may be very limited access to relevant research literature. Indeed, it may be too difficult to learn about research.
- Research, especially when it involves statistics, may be impenetrable to the majority of language teachers. Moreover, these teachers might question the validity of using quantitative techniques to measure educational outcomes.
- There may be no "voice of authority" in the workplace that values and promotes research. This means there may be no "culture of research" possible.
- There may be no obvious reward at the workplace for being interested in research. Any time spent on research may be seen by colleagues as "wasteful."

- There may be no time to conduct research or to read about it. Any interest in research that does exist cannot be nurtured.

These various factors influencing negative perspectives on testing and researching may make change difficult but certainly do not make it impossible. Indeed, many language teachers *do* "go against the flow" and get involved in testing and research. Institutions can support these teachers and encourage others through the provision of professional development (PD) programs that address the various needs of professional language teachers (Bartels, 2005). Within a quality PD program, the positive benefits of developing knowledge and skills related to testing and researching can be systematically presented and reinforced.

Teaching, Testing, and Researching: Shifting the Paradigm

Why should teaching be perceived as "good," testing as "bad," and research as "ugly"? A reconfiguration of these settings might be helpful in challenging stereotypes and therefore in changing teacher perceptions and attitudes. Indeed, the title of this paper questions the view that teaching is necessarily "good," testing is "bad," and that researching is "ugly" (i.e., *worse* than "bad"). Let us consider, therefore, in what way testing and researching could be seen as "good." Likewise, let us consider more critically the notion of "bad" teaching and, indeed, the worst case scenario (i.e., the "ugly") for all three domains. Table 1 provides some suggestions in response to these questions and challenges.

Table 1

Reinterpreting Teaching, Testing, and Researching

	Teaching	Testing	Researching
Good → Teacher satisfaction	– students participate and learn language; – teacher learns about teaching	– fairness of assessment; – positive washback; – diagnostic value for teaching	– taking valid action to address a significant issue; – useful feedback; – professional development for teaching
Bad → Teacher frustration	– students don't participate or learn; – teacher doesn't learn about teaching	– unfair assessment; – negative washback; – no value for teaching	– taking invalid action to address a significant issue; – useless feedback; – no professional development for teaching
Ugly → Teacher failure	– classroom chaos →harmful teaching	– "good" students fail; "weak" students pass →harmful assessment	– "wrong" interpretation of results →harmful research

What Table 1 shows overall is that good teaching, testing and researching underlie teacher "satisfaction," whereas bad teaching, testing, and researching result in teacher "frustration." "Ugly" teaching, testing, and researching would mean, quite simply, teacher "failure." Within Table 1, there are clear parallels (i.e., mirror images) reflected between the criteria of good and bad teaching, and testing and researching, while the "ugly" dimension can be seen as extending beyond "bad" to "harmful" in each of these domains. What does this configuration of teaching, testing, and researching suggest about how teachers' practices might actively avoid falling within the undesirable categories of "bad" or "ugly"?

There are many books available on language teaching methodology that deal quite effectively with "best practice" in the teaching domain (see for example, Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Ur, 1991; Nunan, 2000; Harmer, 2001), and teachers do seem able and willing to read them and learn from them. However, in the domains of testing and researching, teachers are more reticent or even reluctant to pursue paths which could assist their performance as effective language teachers. Also, there seem to be fewer "user-friendly" books to guide teachers in their quest for self-improvement, although Hughes (2003) and Brown (2005) are both highly accessible accounts of language testing and assessment for teachers, and Nunan (1992) likewise provides a clear teacher-friendly account of research methods in language teaching. In what follows, we shall focus only on the testing and researching domains and, with a view to the Cambodian ELT context, briefly make one strong recommendation for each of them.

Positive Washback: A Focus for Testing

As shown in Table 1, one feature of good testing is that it provides positive washback (or "backwash") on teaching and learning. As Hughes notes, "backwash is the effect that tests have on learning and teaching….[It] is now seen as a part of the impact a test may have on learners and teachers, on educational systems in general, and on society at large" (Hughes, 2003, p. 53). Teachers can create conditions for positive washback in their testing practices by following the suggestions provided by Hughes (2003, pp. 53-55):

- Test the abilities whose development you want to encourage.
- Sample widely and unpredictably.
- Use direct testing.
- Make testing criterion-referenced.
- Base achievement tests on objectives.
- Ensure the test is known and understood by students and teachers.

Washback has also been the subject of a significant number of research studies (see, for example, Cheng, Watanabe, & Curtis, 2004), which have attempted to measure its impact, but with mixed results. Washback appears to be a simple notion in theory, but it turns out to be a complex issue to investigate in practice (see Alderson & Wall, 1993). Nevertheless, implementing Hughes' suggestions identified above will help toward generating a positive impact on language teaching and learning; Cambodian teachers should embrace them.

Action Research: A Focus for Researching

While much of language-related research can seem impenetrable and far-removed from classroom reality and needs, there is one kind of research which is particularly well-suited to educational environments: action research. Action research in language education is typically a classroom-based research involving an iterative cycle of observation, planning, intervention, and evaluation (see Figure 1). It can lead to improved teaching (and learning) through facilitating appropriate interventions in classroom practices (Burns, 1999; Wallace, 1998). There are many published accounts of this sort of research, often depicted as "teachers' voices," which show how informed interventions have improved the quality of the language learning and teaching experience in specific classroom settings. Interestingly, Watanabe (2004) also recommends action research as an appropriate method for investigating washback in language testing.
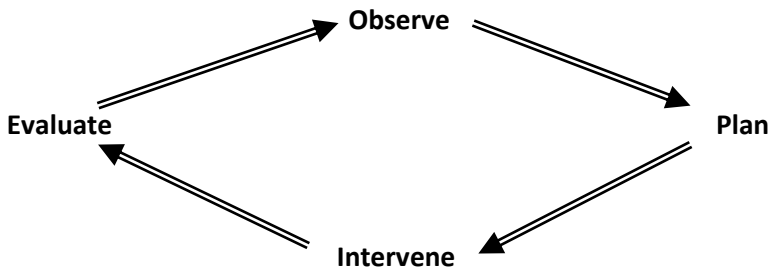

Figure 1. Action research "cycle"

Action research is highly appropriate to the Cambodian ELT environment (Moore, 2006) and Cambodian teachers who adopt it will stand to reap considerable benefits not only in terms of their teaching but also in terms of their students' learning. Let us briefly consider four possible action research projects that could be investigated in Cambodian language classrooms.

Classroom management. A teacher might notice that students sitting at the back of the classroom do not fully participate in lessons and tend to disturb other students. An action research study could be conducted in which the teacher investigates the effect of giving task instructions from a position in the centre of the classroom rather than from the front. This could enable students who sit at the back to more clearly hear the instructions and, along with the proximity of the

teacher, help encourage these students to get "on task" rather than talk and disturb other students.

Teacher-student interactions. A teacher might notice that during group-work tasks, some groups are much more active than others. An action research study could involve the teacher creating specific groupings of students which are used repeatedly for an extended period of lessons. The groupings might involve combining a strong student, a weak student, and two students at an in-between proficiency level. Improvements in negotiating meaning among student members could be measured and thus the project could have implications for testing as well.

Teaching reading. A teacher might notice that students read too slowly in class and refer too frequently to dictionaries. An action research study could involve the teacher introducing a top-down approach to the reading of all texts used in class, and restrict access to dictionaries. Again, student progress could be measured and this project could link with language assessment.

Formative assessment. A teacher might notice that he/she has insufficient time to provide feedback to all students on their written work. An action research study could be designed which involved regular peer assessment of student writing. Students would of course need to be taught how to assess one another's writing, based on clear, formative criteria.

These four examples are just a few among dozens of potential action research projects that could be undertaken in Cambodian English language classrooms. They serve to illustrate how action research is a very useful type of research for language teachers to engage with.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to sketch out and simplify some aspects of the complex relationship linking language teaching, testing and researching. To summarize, good teaching is fundamental to nurturing good learning. Testing (or assessment) is equally important for the feedback it gives on learning (and teaching). Researching too has a distinctive and necessary role in improving teaching, testing, and ultimately language learning.
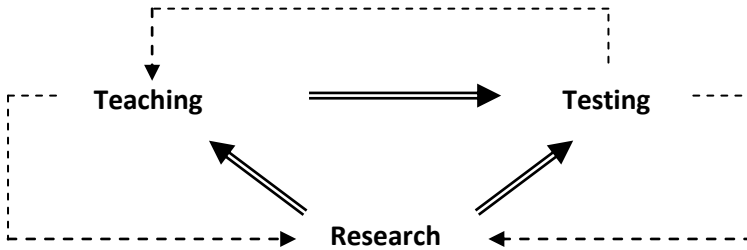
Figure 2. Research informing teaching and testing.

As shown in Figure 2, while teaching leads sequentially to testing; research findings can directly impact both teaching and testing. Moreover, while testing provides feedback to teaching, teaching and testing both provide feedback to research. Thus, these three dimensions of ELT are inextricably linked. Attention to any one of them should therefore involve consideration of the other two as well. A language teacher who aspires to be the *best* teacher he/she can be cannot afford to ignore the domains of testing and researching.

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Outside the Egg Carton:
Facilitating High School Teacher Collaboration

Peter Collins
Tokai University, Tokyo, Japan

Many high school English teachers in Japan admit that, for a variety of reasons, they seldom meet with their colleagues to set communication goals, plan lessons or collaborate on teaching materials. Tokai University's in-service Teacher Development Program advises and supports teachers in Tokai-attached high schools around the country. Former participants, however, often report on the difficulty of replicating the norms of collegiality introduced in the program. To help teachers explore ways to improve teamwork within their English departments, a collaboration component has been introduced into the program. This paper will outline the contents and organization of this new component, and share participant reflections on how collaboration is advancing their professional outlook and impacting their English departments.

The notion of collegiality and its impact on teachers' job satisfaction and students' learning outcomes has long been of interest, even since before Lortie (1975) coined the term "egg carton structure" to describe the isolation inherent in many teaching settings. Though every situation is unique, interaction with colleagues - or the lack of it - impacts all teachers, inspiring Little (1990) to pose the fundamental question, "How central or peripheral are teachers' relations with colleagues to their success and satisfaction with students, their engagement in their present work, and their commitment to a career in teaching?" (p. 509).

Conventional wisdom holds that teacher collaboration is a challenging, yet ultimately rewarding practice. McConnell (2000) notes that "[t]ruly cooperating on a lesson plan and its implementation requires a willingness to engage in the give-and-take of mutual criticism…" (p. 211). Johnston and Madejski (1990) advise that teamwork begins at the planning stage, when lesson plans are discussed. When two creative minds consider a task, the resulting creative energy far exceeds each individual's alone. Inger (1993) lists various advantages of collegiality, including job career rewards,

reinforced confidence for beginning teachers, and improved student achievement – all desirable aspects of a teaching environment.

The reality of many school settings, however, differs greatly from these somewhat idealized models of teacher interaction. Little (1990) points out that:

> ...the texture of collegial relations is woven principally of social and interpersonal interests. Teacher autonomy rests on freedom from scrutiny and the largely unexamined right to exercise personal preference; teachers acknowledge and tolerate the individual preferences or styles of others. (p. 513)

The scenario described by Inger (1993) is a similar one:

> By and large...teacher collaboration is a departure from existing norms, and, in most schools, teachers are colleagues in name only. They work out of sight and sound of one another, plan and prepare their lessons and materials alone, and struggle on their own to solve their instructional, curricular, and management problems. (p. 1)

This lack of interaction not only complicates individual teacher situations, but is also potentially detrimental to the school and even the field of education. Sandholtz (2000) notes that "teacher isolation has been identified as the most powerful impediment to reform." (p. 39)

To help Japan's high school teachers experience and appreciate the benefits of collegiality, Tokai University's Research Institute of Educational Development (RIED) has introduced a collaboration component into its year-long, in-service Teacher Development in English (TDE) Program. This paper will outline the rationale, contents, and organization of this new component. In addition, selected participant responses gathered from online surveys and an online writing journal will be presented, the anecdotal and numerical data providing insight into teacher perceptions of leadership, professionalism, and departmental dynamics. Though it is difficult to measure the impact of the collaboration component on teacher practices and learning outcomes, the RIED staff has perceived a positive shift in teacher collegiality.

Japan's High School English Departments

There is a tendency in some writing on teacher collaboration to generalize about its challenges and benefits, overlooking the culture-specific features of certain settings. While there is a growing body of literature on Japan's junior and senior high school teaching and learning situations, there has been relatively little written in English on

how teachers in these settings interact with each other outside the classroom. Shimaoka and Yashiro (1990) do warn prospective native English teachers (NETs) that in Japanese high school culture, "...each individual has to refrain from pushing his own will too far so as not to impinge on others' will" (p. 97). This reticence may, in some situations, mask a level of discomfort; Sturman (1992) reports in one study that "[s]ome Japanese schools do not have a good atmosphere in the staffroom. In several schools, the Japanese teachers disliked the atmosphere so strongly that they would barely speak in front of the other teachers" (p. 153).

New teachers joining an English department may have little power to improve the departmental dynamics, and for a variety of reasons may actually avoid attempting to do so. Lovelock (2001) observes that the context of Japanese teacher's rooms does little to encourage training or guidance: Senior teachers are hesitant to guide more junior colleagues in their teaching, while more junior colleagues do not want to "bother" more senior teachers with too many questions. When asked about this lack of collegiality, teachers often cite a lack of time and administrative support for professional development. LoCastro (1996) corroborates this view, noting that "...individuals find resistance at their places of employment to their participation in outside in-service training activities" (p. 43). When this is compounded by insufficient background in educational theory and vague guidelines from Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), teachers may become pessimistic about their potential for achieving autonomy or effecting change.

English department meetings, as commonly held at many high schools in Japan, do little to further chances for reflection, either in or on action (Schön, 1983). Collins (2006) found that native English teachers (NETs) were often frustrated by the lack of meaningful dialog at department meetings, one reporting "In six years, not once have the English teachers had group discussions about teaching English. And no teacher has really shared what they are doing in their classes."

The Research Institute of Educational Development

While public school teachers in Japan must participate in a certain number of professional development days each year, no such minimum is required of their private school counterparts. With such limited incentive, teachers can feel a sense of isolation; in addition, their teaching practices may fossilize. Lamie (2000) recognizes that such "...teachers have a tendency to perpetuate the methodological status quo" (p. 33). Participating in a peer community not only provides support, but is also an important source of inspiration and critical reflection (Sykes, 1996). With this in mind, Tokai University

established its Research Institute of Educational Development (RIED) in 1997. Since then, the instructors and staff at RIED have advised and supported English, math, and science teachers at 14 Tokai-attached high schools around Japan.

The Teacher Development in English Program

Now in its ninth year, RIED's year-long, in-service Teacher Development in English (TDE) Program to help English teachers at Tokai-attached schools meet the challenges set forth in the Ministry's Action Plan to "cultivate Japanese with English abilities" (MEXT, 2003). Over the course of the year, participants also explore the latest educational perspectives, define "learning" and "teaching" for themselves, and develop empathy for their own students through experiential, project-based learning (Suzuki & Collins, 2007). The skills they develop through participation include goal-setting, problem-solving, critical thinking, leadership, and team-building. The 2006 calendar, running from April 2006 to March 2007, features nine monthly Saturday Seminars and a round of Open Classes in December. In addition, participants attend a six-day Summer Intensive Seminar and two days of Reflection Presentations at the end of the year. Generally, each Tokai-attached school sends a different full-time teacher to participate in the program every year. The 2006 participants include 11 senior high school teachers and one junior high school teacher. Five are "repeaters," having taken part in the program before.

TDE 2005 Assignments

In the past, TDE participants expressed some frustration that while they had learned much about planning and teaching practices in the program, they were not able to use the materials they had created for the program in their own future teaching. To address this situation, the 2005 participants were asked to target a lesson (equivalent to a unit and taking approximately ten classes to cover) from one of their own English I, English II, or reading textbooks. For this lesson, participants created a spring syllabus and a complete lesson plan. Additionally, they planned and created first and second drafts of lesson introduction PowerPoint slides, text comprehension exercises, target linguistic item explanations, and a communication test. The participants were then expected to use their materials with their own students.

In the fall, participants targeted a second lesson, again completing a set of materials to teach in their classes. This time, they also created supplementary readings and accompanying worksheets, as well as an activity to extend the communication goals of the lesson. They also planned and created a range of supplementary CALL materials.

In addition to the above assignments, participants were asked to videotape a 50-minute class during their spring target lesson, and

another in the fall. Both times they submitted a protocol analysis of the class and drew conclusions about their students' learning attitudes as well as their own teacher roles.

Participant reflections on the 2005 TDE Program. An important component of the TDE Program experience is the online writing journal. With a rotating topic leader, participants and RIED staff are able to set their own topics, ask for advice and share ideas about a variety of educational issues. Toward the end of the 2005 academic year, the author posted the question: "How much and what kind of interaction do you have with your colleagues, in terms of goal-setting, planning and creating materials and tests?"

In their responses, some participants wondered what caused the lack of communication within their departments. One chalked it up to Japanese culture, claiming that:

> We Japanese don't have a good skill to have a good communication or real interaction with other people, especially while we have to build up some consensus on some issues. We have a tendency to speak up only what we think is correct. And we don't want to listen to other ideas.

Another addressed the dynamics of their departmental meetings:

> The persons who attend some meeting unwillingly accept the idea that is suggested in a loud voice or strongly...When some people are modified on their ideas or schemes, they will misunderstand that they are denied their personality.

A third described unease about class visits by colleagues:

> I know it is not for students but I don't want my classes to be observed, perhaps because I don't want to show my weak points to the others. It's OK to observe the other teachers' lessons. I guess my colleagues have almost the same feeling.

Some participants were frustrated in their attempts to share what they were learning through the TDE Program with colleagues at their own schools. One complained about his department's dismissive attitude, saying that:

> After finishing Saturday seminar, most of our teachers don't show their interests about it. Though I sometimes talked about my experiences on this seminar, they just answered, "Fun." I am sad.

Not all were pessimistic, however; some felt empowered by their positive experiences in the TDE Program enough to address the stagnation characterizing their departments:

> I want to break that wall of English department at (our school). We have to change the atmosphere of our school little by little. Someone should start to do it...It may difficult for the teachers to find the time to discuss or talk with colleagues. We can't make good atmosphere and make good relationship at all. So again I will break it.

As positive as some participants remained, it became clear to the RIED staff that a more structured approach to collaboration would benefit 2006 TDE participants, and that their reflections would continue to provide insights into the success of the approach.

2006 TDE Program Collaboration Component

The list of assignments facing participants in the 2006 TDE Program was largely unaltered from the previous year. The difference was that now, each was asked to find a collaboration partner within the participant's own department, ideally a JTE teaching the same course as they were. In cases where the participant was the only one teaching a particular course, that person could work with an NET. The partner was expected to collaborate in planning and creating all the spring target lesson materials, and to use them in their own classes, as well. In addition to the video data analysis project, the participant and partner were asked to visit each other's target lesson once and fill out a report. Both class visits were bookended by pre-observation meetings (Randall & Thornton, 2001) and follow-up discussions.

Most of the participants were understandably apprehensive about asking a colleague to collaborate with them. Due to the typically hierarchical nature of high school English departments, some younger teachers were hesitant to request help from older teachers; similarly, teachers who had just been transferred from one Tokai-attached school to another were reluctant to approach their new colleagues. For a variety of reasons, some of the older participants were also nervous about requesting help from their younger colleagues.

Participant responses to the collaboration component. From the beginning of the year, the 2006 TDE participants have shown themselves to be considerably more vocal than previous groups, willing and able to think critically and articulate their opinions, without becoming overly negative. The author saw their initial nervousness about the collaboration component as another opportunity to explore issues of teacher collegiality.

For the week of April 3 – 13, 2006, the author posted the following topic to the online writing journal:

> Some of you seem a little nervous about the idea of collaborating with other teachers in your English department. So here are my questions for this week:
>
> 1. What are the difficulties in planning and creating materials with your colleagues?
> 2. What can you – and your colleagues – do to make things easier?

Inger (1993) reports that when teachers work together, "they reduce their individual planning time while greatly increasing the available pool of ideas and materials" (p. 1). Perhaps predictably, however, the time factor was the most common reason cited for lack of collaboration, one participant reporting that:

> Every English teacher has their other responsibilities. Sometimes these responsibilities are urgent and no other teacher can take a role of them, for example students of their classes or clubs. We put our priority on this kind of work. Therefore, it is rather difficult to have a meeting with all English teachers' attendance.

This was echoed by another's comment:

> I have only one difficulty in collaborating with my partner. "Time" is the biggest problem…We would like to talk about the teaching plan with my partner after school, but teachers have to do many things, such as participating other meetings, checking students' attitude and other school rules.

A third participant, however, recognized the time factor as something of an excuse, admitting that, "[a]nyway we tend to lack communications with other teachers under the pretext of the shortage of time." Another common thread among participant responses reflected a hierarchy within participant-partner teams. Still, struggling themselves to understand the nature of the collaboration component, some participants voluntarily took on the role of leader:

> My worry is just that (my colleague) is a newcomer to our school (and) is a part-time teacher… I will lead at first I will share the materials. I have to discuss how to teach them before the lessons.

In some cases, partners saw themselves not as full status collaborators, but as assistants, causing the participants some frustration:

> Yesterday the other two English 1 teachers and I had the second meeting. We had meaningful time, but unfortunately, that meeting was for ME and MY assignments rather than OUR classes or OUR students. They think themselves my "supporters," not my equal partners. At least at the moment, they are still cooperative "supporters." We need a little more time and a few more meetings to change them from "supporters" to "teammates."

Little (1987) notes that "[t]he accomplishments of a proficient and well-organized group are widely considered to be greater than the accomplishments of isolated individuals" (p. 496). In reality, however, teachers who work together are often faced with the need to articulate, defend, and perhaps even compromise their teaching beliefs. Within this type of interchange, a lack of interaction skills can become highly visible. One participant, for example, responded, "I think the English teachers at our school tend to lack communication, though we teach English, a subject to communicate with others." Others were more specific about their disagreements, one stating that "…we have very different opinions about how students acquire English or when you say they have acquired English, and it is not easy to change someone else's opinions." Another pointed out that:

> I believe setting a good goal is very important in collaborating with other teachers. However, even with a good goal I still find it very difficult to work with other teachers since what we expect as the outcome of our lessons are usually different, sometimes the different is too big even to share a material.

One participant was particularly honest, admitting a resistance to collaboration:

> Generally I think Japanese teachers… like to teach by their own way including myself. We apt to cling to our own way of teaching…But if it is the matter of his personality, it is very hard to cooperate with, if the teacher hates to communicate with other teachers.

Though many participants seemed daunted at this early phase of the collaboration component, others were determined to maintain a positive, proactive stance, one reporting,

For the past several days, I have tried to establish friendly relations with them through the discussions about the Spring Syllabus. Thanks to this assignment, the ties between English I teachers is becoming quite strong little by little, I believe.

Another asserted that:

English proficiency of each teacher of English department at our school is different and almost all teachers are in charge of class. They are really busy and they don't have time to spare…But I will never give up at this point. I just try to ask them to collaborate on plans and materials persistently.

Another important feature of the TDE Program is the regular Reflection Surveys, which provide participants a chance to reflect on the ideas and concepts introduced in the program and comment on their applicability. Participant responses also provide important quantitative and anecdotal data which inform future TDE Program planning. The RIED staff took advantage of the convenient online format to gather quantitative data about the participants' experiences with the spring collaboration component (Table 1).

Table 1

Reflection Survey Responses on Spring Assignment Collaboration

It was easy for me to find a partner to collaborate with me on the spring assignments.		
agree strongly	0	0.0%
agree	7	58.3%
disagree	3	25.0%
disagree strongly	2	16.7%
How much of your Spring Syllabus did your partner create?		
51 – 100%	1	8.3%
25 – 50%	4	33.3%
1 – 24%	5	41.7%
0%	2	16.7%
How much of your Topic Introduction did your partner create?		
51 – 100%	0	0.0%
25 – 50%	3	25.0%
1 – 24%	4	33.3%
0%	5	41.7%

As shown by the data, participants found it difficult to initiate collaboration on their spring target lesson plan. Some partners did collaborate on the Spring Syllabus, perhaps seeing it as one of their regular departmental duties. Responsibility for creating the Topic Introduction, however, was left almost entirely to the participants; similar ratios of participant-partner contribution were reflected in later assignments, as well.

These numbers are echoed by anecdotal data generated by the open-ended "Further comments/questions on your spring assignments collaboration." Inevitably, the time factor arose most frequently in participant responses:

> My partner is so busy that it seems to be difficult for him to think of creating materials. Because of his busy schedule, I feel very sorry to interrupt his work. Also, as I have club activity after school, I work for the assignment... after the club and I was not able to have a time to talk with him.

The uneven contribution by collaboration partners was another recurring theme, one participant reporting that:

> At the end, I collaborate with one teacher, but other two teachers did the same lesson as us. It was very hard to collaborate with other English teacher. Actually, I made most of the plan (and work) and the partner checked these and she made a correction and adjusted them.

This was supported by another response:

> My teaching partners were cooperative (not willingly, though) to collaborate with me on my assignments. I usually asked the teachers to give me a lot of good ideas and suggestions, especially for Spring Syllabus and Spring Lesson Plan. Their advice was very helpful for me. Though I completed (the teaching materials), I gave all the materials I created to share them with my partners for their reference and information.

Reflection on the class visits provided further insight into their collaboration experiences (Table 2). As the numerical data shows, participants generally found the post-lesson meetings more valuable than the pre-lesson meetings. This may have been due to their relative familiarity with post-lesson meetings, whereas the purpose of a pre-lesson meeting may still have been unclear. Additionally, participants appreciated a colleague visiting their class slightly more than their partners did.

Again, an open-ended question elicited anecdotal data of interest. Most responses were generally positive about the experience, stating, for example:

> I found it so important to visit other class. I could see the helpful points. Some were good and some were not good. If I see the other lessons, I can make my class better. However, to find the class which I can visit is difficult.

Table 2

Reflection Survey Responses on Spring Class Visits

I found it valuable to meet with my teacher BEFORE my video lesson.

agree strongly	1	8.3%
agree	9	75.0%
disagree	1	8.3%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%
no response	1	8.3%

I found it valuable to meet with my teacher again AFTER my video lesson.

agree strongly	4	33.3%
agree	7	58.3%
disagree	0	0.0%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%
no response	1	8.3%

I found it helpful to visit my partner's class.

agree strongly	5	41.7%
agree	6	50.0%
disagree	1	8.3%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%

My partner found it helpful to discuss his / her class with me.

agree strongly	3	25.0%
agree	9	75.0%
disagree	0	0.0%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%

Other participants tried to get as much as they could from the class visits:

> Visiting my partner's class and analyzing the classroom with using video were a great chance for my partner and me. It took a long time to discuss how we improve our lesson, I could have valuable feedback from my partner.

One participant was able to draw connections between the spring TDE assignments, the class visits and departmental dynamics:

> Through the TDE Program, I found it is difficult but very important to have meetings with other teachers and to visit their classes. We teachers get few chances to do so even if we find the importance. As for meetings, some teachers think they are too busy to have meetings, even weekly regular meetings of their department. Some participants must think they don't want to too much trouble them any more just for their meetings or assignments. I hope all the English teachers will realize the importance of talking with other teachers and take more positive attitude toward meetings.

The class reports themselves represented a range of participant involvement in the collaboration component. Outliers included participants who either misunderstood the assignment or failed to complete it. On the whole, comments by both participants and partners tended toward diplomacy, giving comments which were appreciative and tactful, but lacking in constructive criticism. Some, however, took the class visits as an opportunity to reflect meaningfully on their teaching, identifying areas for improvement in their own and their partners' classes.

Summer Intensive Seminar Group Discussion Project

The Summer Intensive Seminar provides participants with the opportunity to advance their performance abilities, English fluency, and reflection skills. 2006 also saw participants undertaking a group discussion project in preparation for their fall target lesson. In the late spring, participants were asked to identify a lesson featuring a particularly challenging topic. They then photocopied the lesson for two other TDE participants, who did an Internet search for materials to supplement the lesson topic. The worksheet they completed for each supplementary reading they found (see Appendix A) provided the scaffolding they needed to analyze the material in terms of appropriateness and discourse.

Three mornings of the Summer Seminar included one-hour group discussions. Each participant took a turn facilitating a three-person "department meeting" for which they had set a practical outcome goal such as, "By the end of this hour, we will have decided the best way to

provide background cultural knowledge for this topic," or "We will have set a project which will extend the communication skill of this lesson." Though the discussions were loosely structured, they tended to follow a pattern: the facilitator announced the hoped-for outcome of the meeting, each member reported on the supplementary materials they had gathered, and the group spent the rest of their time forming an action plan to achieve their goal. Throughout the discussion, the group leader took notes on each member's contribution (see Appendix B). Each discussion session was followed by a brief whole-group discussion at which that day's four leaders reported outcomes and commented on their experiences. Finally, leaders and group members completed reflection sheets on the experience (see Appendix C).

Participant responses to the group discussion project. In the follow-up discussions, most participants admitted that their facilitation experience had been something of a revelation; as previously noted, departmental meetings seldom touch on teaching practices. One participant admitted that:

> We discuss the team-teaching class and decide many things to do. For example, textbook, making grades, a proctor for tests, and so on. We don't have much time to discuss the way of lessons or report our lessons.

Immediately following the Summer Seminar, participants were again asked to complete an online Reflection Survey on their experience (Table 3), the responses to which tended to confirm RIED staff expectations.

Table 3

Reflection Survey Responses on Group Discussion Project

Facilitating a discussion in English was a valuable experience for me.

agree strongly	9	75.0%
agree	2	16.7%
disagree	1	8.3%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%

My group members were able to help me reach the goal of my discussion.

agree strongly	7	58.3%
agree	5	41.7%
disagree	0	0.0%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%

I feel that the outcome of my discussion will benefit me in planning my fall target lesson.

agree strongly	10	83.3%
agree	2	16.7%
disagree	0	0.0%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%

I was able to help my group members achieve the goals of their discussions.

agree strongly	3	25.0%
agree	8	66.7%
disagree	1	8.3%
disagree strongly	0	0.0%

I am optimistic that I will be able to hold this kind of discussion with other teachers in my own department.

agree strongly	1	8.3%
agree	6	50.0%
disagree	4	33.3%
disagree strongly	1	8.3%

The numerical data demonstrates the value participants saw in the group discussion experience; it also indicates the strong potential Japanese high school teachers have for enhanced collegiality when their situation lends itself to positive and productive interaction. Unfortunately, the numbers also demonstrate a definite pessimism

among the participants regarding the possibility of holding a similar discussion within their own departments.

Once more, the open-ended "Further comments and questions on the Group Discussions" question elicited meaningful responses. One participant commented on how the preparation and organization of the members contributed to the positive outcome of the discussions:

> To discuss the lesson was so helpful and I found it important to discuss. Also I surprised that it doesn't take much time to do (but if all members prepared for it). I think it will take much time if we don't prepare before the meeting.

Another volunteered a comparison between the discussions and their own experience collaborating on the spring target lesson:

> The Group Discussions in the Summer Seminar were very helpful for me. In spring semester, two teaching partners and I tried to talk about our teaching as often as possible. However, I always hesitated to ask them to have meetings to discuss more because I am a participant of the TDE Program and we needed to talk for MY assignments. I wish I could have felt free to have more chances to talk with them without hesitation.

Others asserted that they were in the midst of an uphill struggle, but were determined to effect change in departmental dynamics:

> Thanks to my assignments of the TDE Program, I'm trying to build up the teamwork with other English I teachers. However, to be honest, I don't think the English teachers at our school show our real ability as a team for now...I would like to try to communicate more with other teachers, making the best of the TDE Program this year.

Through the participants' responses to the group discussion project, it became apparent that they had recognized the benefits of collegiality, especially with regards to collaboration.

Fall Cross-Content Collaboration

Sandholtz (2000) notes that teachers are more likely to turn to each other, rather than to administrators for support, instructional ideas, and help in problem-solving. To help teachers tackle the concepts and practices of cross-content learning, the RIED staff extended the collaboration component into the fall. Participants used the lesson they had discussed at the Summer Intensive Seminar as their fall target

lesson. It was hoped, but not required, that they would continue working with the same collaboration partners to complete a set of planning and teaching materials, as they had done in the spring. In addition to the high-structured materials, however, they were also asked to revise and use the supplementary materials their discussion group had generated at the Summer Intensive Seminar, and to set a project or activity which would extend the contents and communication goal of the lesson. Participants were then asked to identify a cross-content collaboration partner from another department. The content of the lesson would determine whom they would approach. One participant's lesson, for example, featured a reading passage on the differences between men's and women's brains; he had the luxury of choosing to work with a biology teacher, a social studies teacher, a home economics teacher, or a combination thereof.

Their next task was to research what background knowledge their students already had of the lesson topic, and to brainstorm with the other teacher(s) how they could improve the efficiency of their students' learning by spiraling the vocabulary and content in both classes. Additionally, participants were encouraged to invite an NET on at least one day of the target lesson to serve as a "cultural informant" on the topic (Browne & Evans, 1994).

Each participant was required to schedule an open class, inviting English teachers and cross-content teachers whose schedules would allow them to attend. Sandholtz (2000) points out that teachers' enjoyment in their work is linked to their sense of school community; to help expand the definition of this community, two participants were chosen to hold "Model Open Classes" and follow-up meetings. In lieu of a December Saturday Seminar, the other TDE participants attended one of the two open classes, RIED staff attending both.

Research Questions Arising from the 2006 Collaboration Component

The research done so far has produced interesting pieces to a puzzle whose picture grows richer and more complex with further investigation. Following are some of the research questions which have occurred to the author during the course of the 2006 TDE Program and in reflecting on the participant reactions to its collaboration component:

1. What are participants' notions of leadership, teacher autonomy and collegiality?
2. How does the collaboration component impact teachers' professional and personal relationship with their collaboration partners?

3. What impact on departmental culture is the collaboration component having? What factors of this culture pose obstacles?
4. Do students perceive a difference in their teachers' organization, confidence, and teaching practices?
5. How does the collaboration component impact student learning outcomes?
6. Participants are expected to do all reflection in their second language, English; what effect, if any, does this have on the data itself?

Ongoing Data Collection

Now that the end of the 2006 academic year is approaching, RIED staff will begin to collect data regarding participant experiences with the fall collaboration component; some of it may shed light on the above questions. For a start, by studying the Open Class Reports as well as the Video Data Analysis sheets, an understanding may emerge of how participants' understanding of autonomy and its impact on learning outcomes has evolved over the course of the year. Program evaluations and the year-end Collaboration Component Survey are expected to provide quantitative and qualitative data on participants' views of leadership and collegiality. Finally, each participant will give a 20-minute Reflection Presentation in March of 2007 on what they have gained over the course of the year and how they will try to apply it in the upcoming academic year. The presentations will also inform decisions about ways to improve the focus and organization of the collaboration component.

Other possible sources of data include exploratory and reflection surveys distributed to target populations outside the sphere of 2006 participants:

1. For the English department head teachers: Whether the contents of the 2006 TDE Program have been shared within the department, and how
2. For the 2007 participants: Whether the 2006 collaboration component had any impact on them
3. For the 2006 participants (six months after the TDE Program): Whether the TDE Program and collaboration component have had lasting impact on their professional relationships and teaching practices
4. For the students: Whether they are aware of their teachers' efforts at collaboration in planning and materials creation

Conclusion

Collegiality, particularly teacher collaboration, still seems like a "luxury item" to many of Japan's junior and senior high school teachers. Inger (1993) reminds us, however, that:

> Serious collaboration – teachers engaging in the rigorous mutual examination of teaching and learning – is rare, and where it exists, it is fragile. Yet it can and does occur, and the enthusiasm of teachers about their collaborations is persuasive. (p. 4)

Inger (1993) stresses that in order for teachers to create a collaborative atmosphere, they need, among other things, administrative support and reward for collegiality, and increased chances for autonomy and leadership roles. While it may be impossible to measure precisely the impact of the TDE Program, the labors of the 2006 participants have the potential to make the egg carton model obsolete in their departments.

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Appendix A
Article Worksheet

Discussion

Leader / Date	
Course / Textbook	
Lesson Title	

Article: Details

Title	
Author/Source/URL	
Date Published	
Word Count	
Notes on the contents	

Interest level (check one)

☐ interesting   ☐ so-so   ☐ boring

Discourse style (check one)

☐ appropriate   ☐ reasonable   ☐ inappropriate

Difficulty level for students (check one)

☐ too difficult   ☐ appropriate   ☐ too easy

Rewriting for students (check all that apply)

☐ OK as it is   ☐ need to shorten
☐ not worth it!   ☐ need to simplify vocabulary
                       ☐ need to add target vocabulary / grammar
                       ☐ need to improve discourse style
                       ☐ need to add pictures / graphics

Appendix B
Facilitator Note-Taking Sheet
Leader Discussion Notes

Leader / Date	
Course / Textbook	
Lesson Title	
Discussion Goal(s)	

Name	Report
(Leader)	

Discussion Outcome / Decision

We were able to meet my discussion goal (check one)

☐ Yes   ☐ No

Appendix C
Facilitator Self-Evaluation and Reflection Sheet

Discussion: Reflection

Group leader	
Topic	
My name	

Leader

1 = needs work; 4 = very strong

1. lesson choice	1	2	3	4
2. clarity of goal	1	2	3	4
3. keeping us focused, moving ahead	1	2	3	4

Group

1 = needs work; 4 = very strong

1. level of preparation	1	2	3	4
2. quality of the materials we reported on	1	2	3	4
3. staying in English	1	2	3	4
4. use of discussion phrases	1	2	3	4
5. equal talking time	1	2	3	4
6. positive attitude	1	2	3	4
7. my own effort	1	2	3	4

Other comments
For the leader
About the group

What I learned
About the content
About group discussions

Management of a University-Based English Language Program in Asia's Non-Native Contexts: An Innovative Approach from Vietnam

Mai Tuyet Ngo
Hanoi University, Hanoi, Vietnam

For many English language teaching (ELT) programs in Asian universities, program leadership is an area little explored, though it is essential for their successful planning, design, development, implementation and evaluation. The focus of this paper is how quality English teaching and learning are achieved and managed through effective ELT leadership in an English language program in a non-native context like Vietnam. The author strongly argues that quality teaching and learning in an ELT program are achieved not only as a consequence of how well teachers teach and how well students learn, but through creating contexts and work environment that can facilitate good teaching and learning. The author also stresses that leadership can be learnt and shared at all levels for the best benefit of an innovative quality ELT program. The purpose of the paper is to showcase the innovative approach of a real ELT program in the Foundation Studies Department, Hanoi University, Vietnam so that practical lessons are critically analyzed and drawn.

"Some innovation springs from a flash of genius but most stem from a conscious, purposeful search for innovation opportunities"

(Drucker, 1991)

Managing quality English Language Teaching (ELT) Programs within a business environment is a challenge for many public universities in such countries as Vietnam. Meeting high quality objectives and academic standards, while at the same time meeting financial imperatives, seems virtually impossible for ELT program leaders. In addition, ELT research has for a long time seemed to focus more on ELT teachers' professional development and teaching methodologies and learners' learning styles rather than on ELT leadership. A perspective missing from this teaching and learning-based view of ELT program is the role of effective ELT leadership in creating suitable contexts and work environments in which both

English Language teachers and learners can do their best and the program's deficiencies can be addressed. In this paper, therefore, the rather simplistic assumption that the focus on good teaching and learning can automatically result in a successful ELT program is challenged. The current management practice of many Vietnamese universities copying one another's ELT programs is also challenged. The important multiple roles of effective ELT program administrators, teachers and learners who together can make context-specific choices during the planning, designing, developing and evaluating process are highlighted in this paper.

Although it is teachers themselves who directly implement an ELT program, its ultimate success depends on whether program managers can create a context in which innovation opportunities can be sought and leadership can be shared at all levels. Through a critical analysis and comparison of old and new ways of managing an ELT program in the Foundation Studies Department (FSD) at Hanoi University over the past three years since its inception, this paper not only provides some practical insights into the management of a university-based ELT program, but also showcases an innovative approach for teachers, ELT program administrators, curriculum developers, and other ELT professionals. It is believed that the practical lessons drawn in this paper can be applicable in creating a higher standard of other university-based ELT programs in Vietnam and other similar contexts.

This paper consists of four main parts. The first part explores the basic meanings of two key concepts of innovation in education, ELT, and ELT leadership. As the paper highlights the importance of context in which innovation takes place, the second part provides some basic background on the Vietnamese higher education system, public universities, and current trends in the management of their ELT programs. The third part compares, contrasts, and evaluates the past and present practices of managing FSD's ELT program to highlight FSD's suggested model of innovation. The paper concludes with some practical learning points. It is believed that these lessons learnt can help ELT program administrators and managers by providing them with a greater sense of confidence and willingness to create a higher standard of university-based English programs for their students. It is argued that not all ELT practices in FSD are the best, but that the institution is trying to be the best, and its progressive practices in Vietnam`s constantly changing and challenging context reflect the institution's specific goal of actively seeking innovative opportunities (Drucker, 1991).

Concept of Innovation

Throughout the paper, the two concepts of *innovation* and ELT *leadership* are repeatedly emphasized. It is a good starting point to explore the basic meanings of these two key concepts in order to judge how innovative the existing ELT program in FSD is and to find out what and how to manage an innovative university-based ELT program in Asia's non-native contexts like Vietnam. The definitions of these two key concepts seem to complement each other in the sense that innovation requires leadership and leadership can promote innovation.

Concerning the concept of educational innovation, there have been different definitions containing different elements and offering different perspectives over the years. Different definitions tend to stress the roles of different key stakeholders in the success of innovation. Kennedy (1988) stresses the roles teachers can play as implementers in bringing about innovation in educational programs. Other researchers such as White (1992) and Stoller (1997) credit educational innovation to curriculum designers and developers. Their common basic premise is that innovation is not only a question of introducing new practices of curriculum design and development; it also involves adjusting and changing the behavior and attitudes of the people concerned. This paper also highlights the concept of innovation as something that simply emerges from efforts made under quite challenging circumstances (Nicholls, 1983; Hamilton, 1996) or something that "stems from a conscious, purposeful search for innovation opportunities" (Drucker, 1991). In other words, innovation can therefore be discovered and introduced either by administrators, teachers, students, or even outside consultants. Furthermore, a strong and determined leader who supports the innovative process from initiation to implementation and diffusion is required for successful innovation (Stoller, 1997).

Putting this concept into the ELT context, the responsibility for innovation must therefore be shared among all key stakeholders of program administrators, teachers, support staff, and learners. Collaborative decision-making and mechanisms for teamwork should therefore be developed. Steps toward innovation can only be taken in such an innovation culture necessitating trust, openness toward experimentation, a desire for self-renewal, and the acceptance of possible failure. However, it is worth noting that innovation in ELT is grounded in practical considerations, explaining why some innovation can be strongly accepted in some language programs and vigorously criticized in others.

Concept of ELT Leadership

Everyone seems to know how necessary and important leadership is, but agreement becomes harder when people begin to discuss what it really is. Literally hundreds of definitions of leadership have been offered. Behind each definition, in turn, is a different theory about the source, process, style, and outcome of leadership. Several words and phrases stand out when leadership is defined: purpose, direction, individuals, groups, culture and values, shared vision, priorities, planning, change, and risk management. The definition of leadership as the ability to motivate a group towards goal achievement (Robbins, 2003) is supported in this paper. In addition, such leadership, rather than remaining centralized with one person, expands throughout the organization such that all within the organization are able to sense ownership (Smith, Porch, Farris, Fowler, & Greene, 2006). More simply, leadership is the ability to get things done through other people and effective leadership requires achieving goals and influencing others.

From the ELT perspective, ELT leadership should be understood as getting the job of English language program planning, designing, developing, and implementing done not only *through or by* people but also *with* them. In other words, shared and distributed leadership toward common goals is the key to a successful ELT program. In fact, ELT leadership in ELT programs does not move aimlessly and it does not and cannot cover every aspect of ELT programs ranging from the development, implementation, and evaluation of curriculum; materials, and testing and assessment; to teacher development, learner expectations, inputs and attitudes. Instead, it is purposeful and directional and based on priorities. Rather than making every effort to improve a bit of everything at the same time, priorities should be given to particular aspects of the program that need urgent action. Leaders should be flexible enough to understand and work out what is most important for the time being while keeping in mind the vision and mission assigned. In some programs where teachers lack experience, ongoing support for teachers' professional development should be prioritized while in others where the curriculum fails to meet students' learning outcomes, more attention should be paid to curriculum reform. Setting priorities right should be the starting point, followed by the distribution of leadership power among all key stakeholders.

Background

Vietnamese higher education. As the second country after China with the highest sustained economic growth during the first years of the 21st century, Vietnam is currently reconsidering its higher education system. The government recognizes the increasing role of

English as the language of international communication and the importance of international cooperation to help adapt its higher education system, (notoriously slow in change management) to the rapid pace of its economy. However, managing a quality higher education system in Vietnam is still very challenging at both macro and micro levels. Underfunded public universities, lack of competitiveness, lack of quality control mechanisms and standard certification, and low teacher salaries (US$60-100/month), are the key issues to be addressed at the macro levels. Moreover, at micro levels, the entire higher education system is facing several crises such as out-of-date course curricula, lecturer-dominated methodology, research activities separated from teaching activities, gaps between theory and practice, teachers' lack of focus on formal teaching, and a shift to private evening classes. All these have resulted in a large number of graduates being unable to find jobs. Domestically, university courses fail to meet the local labor market demand for students with sufficient social, critical thinking, and foreign language skills. Internationally, Vietnamese university degrees are not recognized. As a result, there is a huge demand for better quality and more practical educational services which acknowledge teachers, encourage learners' active participation with critical thinking skills, and improve learners' foreign language skills.

University-based ELT programs. English is becoming an increasingly popular foreign language in almost every Vietnamese university. Though English language training is in high demand, many universities are still treating English as just a separate subject with greater focus on the *knowing about English* (English grammar) than on the *using of English* (English language skills). Like other higher education programs, ELT programs in universities are still struggling with the enormous constraints of poor resources, lack of qualified and motivated English teachers, out-of-date and ineffective ELT methodologies, inappropriate teaching materials, and insufficient monitoring and evaluation. This results in an unsuitable English language curriculum which fails to meet learner and market needs. As a consequence, Vietnamese students tend to learn English for the sake of passing tests rather than for communication purposes or preparation for their future jobs.

More seriously, ELT programs in public universities experience the common practice of copying each other's programs. These practices are related to the copying of new modern facilities, new ELT technologies, ELT teaching and learning materials, appropriate teaching methodologies, and assessment systems, which are considered important factors of the success of any ELT programs (Richards, 2005). Most ELT centers in Vietnamese universities look the same as they end

up making the same choices regarding premises, technologies, teachers, teaching materials, methodologies, and testing assessment systems. As a consequence, the same teachers can be found teaching in several universities at the same time, teaching the same commercial textbooks, and repeating their own teaching methods again and again, despite their students' different entry and exit levels. Almost every ELT teacher talks about communicative language teaching (CLT) methods without hands-on practice of applying these methods in real classrooms. Universities seem to ignore learners' different learning styles, strengths, and weaknesses, and fail to take into consideration the institution's own context, program aims and objectives, and the roles of program administrators, teachers, and learners.

Universities in Vietnam need to find a better alternative to this current copying trend in order to maintain a competitive advantage and long-term sustainable development. It is suggested that ELT program leaders should   engage their teachers and students in designing, revising, implementing, evaluating, replanning, and redeveloping   the   teaching   materials,   programs,   facilities, methodologies, and testing systems based on the size of the program, staff, learners' entry levels, and the nature and goals of each program.

The Foundation Studies Programs – Hanoi University

The Foundation Studies Department (FSD) program, a one-year English-only program, takes place in a setting (Hanoi University) where the university is striving to become an English-medium university. FSD was established in 2005 to meet the needs of English language training for Hanoi University's first-year students. Since its establishment, FSD has had the very challenging missions of providing students with adequate English language skills for English-medium majors and helping the students achieve IELTS scores of 6.0 or above. FSD has experienced many constraints. Like other university departments, FSD has to cope with scarce human, physical, and financial resources. Moreover, starting from scratch, FSD had to undertake a sequential process of teacher recruitment, material selection, curriculum development, assessment design, teacher training, and development of its own working culture. Due to a limited preparation time of only 2 months and internal and external shortcomings, the FSD program struggled in its first year from a lack of facilities and resources, lack of experienced and committed teachers, unsystematic planning, and an incoherent curriculum. However, after three years of development, the FSD program has been well evaluated by its teachers, learners, and other major faculties. With an increasing number of students achieving IELTS 6.0 (from 65% in 2005 to 85% in 2007), FSD has been recognized as a successful department achieving

its goal. FSD takes pride in being granted a national innovation award by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training in 2007.

Management Practices of FSD Programs – Past and Present

Over the past three years of its development, the FSD has been experiencing the same challenging institutional and departmental contexts in program planning, design, development, implementation, and evaluation. Institutionally, like all Vietnamese university teachers, FSD teachers still receive low salaries and limited financial support while the private sector offers high salaries, making it hard for FSD to attract and retain qualified teachers. Departmentally, FSD has had the same small number of program administrators over the years despite an increasing number of students with more variety of levels and an increasing workload for teachers. In other words, FSD has been operating in the same resource-poor conditions with the same goal of helping its increasing number of students achieve IELTS 6.0.

Despite this less than optimal context, the FSD has witnessed some noticeable changes in its management practices. As can be seen from the Appendix, there are many improvements between the past and present models of management. Unlike the past practices in 2005 when FSD approaches were strictly top-down with centralized curriculum planning, designing, and implementation, the present management practices implemented in 2007 are bottom-up, where program administrators become more involved and teachers are granted more freedom and have a central role in all aspects of curriculum development and implementation. Moreover, by promoting learner autonomy with ongoing assessments, the current practices tend to be more learner-centered and outcomes more focused than the past teacher-dominated and input-based practices.

The key reasons for these positive changes are the results of ongoing course evaluations conducted on all aspects of the program by all key stakeholders. Realizing the importance of both formal and informal evaluation, FSD over the years has made every possible attempt to gather and analyze information with the aim of recognizing and promoting its strengths and addressing its weaknesses. By encouraging self-evaluation, peer evaluation, top-down evaluation, and students' evaluation in all aspects of FSD programs, problems are identified and promptly addressed. Holding the strong belief that there is a always a better way of doing things, all FSD administrators, teachers, and learners are encouraged to evaluate themselves and others by critically rethinking what, how, and why all things are done in the FSD. In so doing, they develop the habit of being reflective about their own FSD practices, revisiting them, and examining them in the light of research and theory.

However, the only drawback of the current management practices in 2007 compared to 2005 seems to be the increased workload for both teachers and learners. More work is created due to improvements in some activities. Yet, in the long term, these practices are believed to be in the best interests of all key stakeholders, especially the students, having a more positive impact on the sustainability of the FSD program which may no longer suffer from inexperienced teachers, weak teamwork, unsystematic planning, incoherent curriculum design and inadequate testing systems.

Practical Lessons Learnt

The FSD models of progressive practices provide practical implications for successful innovative ELT programs. Studying what makes FSD different now from their past practices can help indicate practical lessons. One of the greatest lessons is that quality English language teaching is achieved not only as a consequence of how well teachers teach and how well students learn, but through understanding institutional and departmental factors, creating contexts and work environments that encourage a purposeful search for innovation, and facilitating good teaching and learning. In order to successfully create such a work environment, the multiple roles of program administrators, teachers, and learners are highlighted.

Multiple roles of program administrators. In order to purpose-fully search for innovation, the role of program administrators is central. The lesson learnt from FSD suggests that language program administrators should play different roles at different stages of program development rather than the simple single role as administrators. These roles can range from leader, organizer, promoter, employer, teaching participant, and human resource user, to observer, coach, consultant, monitor, and evaluator. The question is which one of these is the most important role. In fact, as can be seen from the Appendix, they are all equally important, depending on different stages and on the different knowledge and skills of each program administrator. But among those multiple roles, the key role as a participant, involved in planning, designing, and implementing, seems to be ignored in a top-down administrative culture, while it is evident as a key to FSD's success and is promoted in the current FSD management practices.

Another question is when to play which role. In order to answer this question, program administrators need to be aware of diverse factors, understand the context, and understand themselves and their team. In other words, it depends on a critical analysis of the current situation, and the strengths and weaknesses of oneself and others. For example, to manage a team of teachers who are inexperienced and

unfamiliar with a program, a program administrator should stand out as a leader who leads the teachers. But once the teachers become more and more effective participants, they should be empowered to lead and make decisions while administrators should work as observers or coaches. In fact, the administrators' willingness to be open to change, responsive, flexible, supportive, and participatory is of great importance. The FSD model suggests that all these qualities can help program administrators easily explore innovative alternatives with their teachers, identify early weaknesses as well as the potential for innovation, and quickly align the potential, aspirations, and talents of their staff to the direction of the program, serving as a catalyst for change and innovation. The lesson learnt from FSD also indicates that good program administrators need the habit of looking back, rethinking and reflecting on how and why what has been done has been undertaken before looking ahead. Innovative program administrators should therefore keep asking themselves the questions of how they can do better, what they are doing now, and how the future will be different from the present.

Multiple roles of teachers. Research shows that "real educational change depends on what teachers do and think" and "the single most important feature of any program is teaching faculty"(Grewer & Taylor, 2006). In fact, good teachers create good programs and determine the ultimate success of an ELT program. In self-supporting language programs, the nature and quality of the teaching faculty can literally "make or break" the operation. Therefore, it is important to recognize the importance of teachers and the central role they play in all aspects of curriculum planning. The FSD experience suggests that teachers should be encouraged to play multiple roles as curriculum planners, designers, developers, implementers, and self-evaluators. By being directly involved in the whole sequential process, teachers should also be recognized by program leaders as change agents who are in the best position to understand the situation, learn from experience, identify their own learning needs, and search for innovation opportunities. Though in some cases teachers might find it hard or even intimidating to be leaders or planners, a supportive and empowering environment is needed to motivate them and recognize their talents.

Nevertheless, not all ELT programs can afford to employ teachers who are qualified and experienced enough to play all those key roles. In an ELT program like FSD, it would be ideal to have all the best qualified and most experienced English language teachers with a combination of knowledge, skills, and personal qualities such as a love for teaching. However, in reality, it is hard to find, attract, and retain good teachers in the Vietnamese educational context where good teachers have choices to make. Current practices in FSD support the

idea that a careful teacher recruitment process with appropriate recruitment techniques should only be the first step, to be followed by ongoing support. In fact, committed and passionate teachers who may lack teaching experience can compensate for poor quality teaching resources and materials if they work in a motivating, empowering, and ongoing supportive context.

Multiple roles of learners. Unlike learners' passive roles in the traditional language program, in an innovative ELT program, they play active roles as key participants in curriculum planning, development, implementation, and evaluation. The lesson learnt from FSD's current practices supports the hypothesis made by Nunan (1988). Thus, like teachers, learners play central roles in most of the decisions about aims, objectives, materials, methodology, management approach, and program effectiveness. In so doing, the program itself can become learner-centered, avoiding the gap between administrator plans, teacher input, and learner intake. In order to determine which relevant roles learners should and can play successfully in each stage of a language program, it is important to be aware of the importance of their beliefs, attitudes, and expectations, which very much affect the effectiveness of their roles.

Role of a shared leadership context. Once all key stakeholders, including program administrators, teachers, and learners, have their own multiple roles to play, there is a need for a context in which they can all have their own sense of belonging and can work collaboratively and flexibly. A sharing mechanism of power is needed to ensure the continued health and existence of an ELT program such as the FSD program. It is therefore in the best interests of all key stakeholders for a language program to commit considerable resources of time, personnel, and money to create a supportive culture enabling and encouraging good teaching and learning. Trust, confidence, a supportive atmosphere, and support for risk-taking - a culture that tolerates risks and failure - must be promoted. In such a positive teamwork culture, each opinion must be valued, whether it comes from a program administrator, teacher, or learner; the workload is shared; all information is communicated openly and transparently; and most importantly, everyone is part of the success of the program.

Other practical factors under consideration. In addition to the roles played and the climate created which are within the control of language program providers, there are a number of other practical factors that are often beyond their control. These factors, including governmental policies, rules and regulations, and societal status quo, may be barriers to innovation, which in case in Vietnam. However, language curricula must be developed with practical considerations of these factors in mind because, as Richards (2005) suggests, different

ELT programs take place in different settings with different human, physical and financial resources, and different societal and institutional situations. The experience of the FSD in past and present practices reflects how important it is for every key stakeholder, especially the leader, to have a full understanding of practical factors related to the institution, department, and curriculum, and to be sympathetic and realistic about current practices. It is important, therefore to identify what these factors are and analyze what their potential effects might be when planning, designing, and implementing an appropriate ELT program. Failure to take them all into consideration will have a negative impact on the success of whatever innovative ideas or approaches there might be.

Conclusion

In conclusion, a university-based ELT program in the Asian context needs more than teachers and their teaching skills. A university may employ the best qualified teachers in the world, but without effective shared leadership in which everyone at all levels becomes involved, with various roles to play, success and innovation can not be guaranteed. In fact, there is no simple formula for success, no rigorous science, no cookbook that automatically leads to the successful management of a university-based ELT program. Instead, it is an art, a conscious and purposeful search, a deeply reflective process, full of trial and error, victories and defeats, timing and stance, and intuition and insight, that can help bring about opportunities for success.

In this paper, some of the key concepts of innovation, ELT leadership, and a practical analysis of past and present management practices of an ELT program in the Foundation Studies Department, Hanoi University, have been examined in order to draw practical lessons on management of university-based ELT programs. These lessons learnt are related to the awareness and acknowledgement of multiple roles of program administrators, teachers and learners, and the importance of shared leadership contexts. However, what works best in the FSD program will not necessarily work for other programs in other university contexts. This paper is limited to a description of the leadership roles of all key stakeholders and an analysis of the importance of a continuous purposeful search for innovation in university-based ELT programs in Asia's non-native contexts such as Vietnam. More follow-up studies are therefore needed to further explore *how* to support innovation through leadership strategies, qualities, and techniques, to ensure the soundness and coherence of a university-based ELT program and the satisfaction level of both teachers and students in the language classroom.

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Appendix

Past and Present Management Practices of FSD (2005 vs. 2007)

	Management Practices in 2005	Management Practices in 2007	Notes
Contexts in which programs operate	• Same poor resources and facilities constraints • Same number of program administrators and managers • Same expected outcome (Students achieving IELTS 6.0 + adequate English language skills for English-based major courses) • Low salaries for teachers • Heavy workloads for both the Board of Management (BOM) and teachers		
Working environment	Centrally controlled; rule-driven	More open and flexible; more inclusive; power and freedom to all teachers	*FSD teachers rank its working environment as the most positive factor in FSD*
Program duration	1.5 years	1 year	*For early graduation, the course duration is now 1 year only (full time study)*
Program goals	Ambitious and ambiguous	Sound and clearly described; more realistic	*Program goals are documented and well communicated to teachers and students*
Program philosophy	Focus on products; focus on inputs; focus on teachers' methods and approaches; prescriptive and rule-driven	Focus on learning process; focus on learning outcome; focus on learner differences, learner strategies and learner self-direction and autonomy; flexible and adaptable	*The philosophy governs all FSD activities, both academic and non-academic*
Program approach	Traditional classrooms only	Blended learning (applying ICT): classrooms, computer labs, & language labs	
Learning process	Individual learning	Collaborative & individual learning	*More group work, group projects and assignments are provided in class and at home*

Management approach	Centrally controlled; decisions are made by administrators and managers before the program starts; fragmented, tight organizational framework	Participatory and empowering; decisions are shared; collective efforts are made by all; coherent; more focus on students; more open to change organizational framework ICT application: group email/ forum for teachers	*Teachers are currently assigned more tasks, getting more involved and held accountable to all delegated tasks; teachers are also encouraged to take initiative*
Curriculum planning	Only program administrators	Teachers, learners in negotiation and consultation with program administrators	*Planning and replanning are practiced in 2007*
Curriculum design and development	Teacher and manager controlled; curriculum not documented	Learner centered; curriculum well-documented	*Learners are put at the center of the whole process of curriculum planning, designing, developing, and implementing*
Curriculum implementation	Teachers are key implementers	Both teachers and program managers are key implementers (dean and deputy dean also teach)	
Students' entry	300 students/ academic year; entry levels: intermediate levels	500 students/ academic year; entry levels: starter, elementary, lower intermediate, intermediate and above	*Changes in student numbers and entry level are due to the University's new enrolment policies and establishment of new multi-disciplinary faculties (Accounting, Banking & Finance)*
Teachers	20 teachers: 50% official, 50% contractual; teachers as workers only	45 teachers: 50% official, 50% contractual; teachers as course designers, implementers, self-evaluators, and action researchers	*Increasing number of students results in new recruitment of teachers; FSD teachers have been actively involved in writing and presenting research papers inside and outside FSD*

Teacher recruitment	Interviews & written essays	Combination of interviews, pronunciation test, written essays, micro-teaching, & teacher induction programs	*Since 2007, FSD's experienced teachers are involved in interview panels.*
Teachers' professional development	Monthly workshop by visiting lecturers; practicum course for teachers; no peer class observation	Workshops by department teachers and visiting lecturers; practicum course for teachers; class observation by peers and BOM; coaching and counseling activities; teacher performance appraisals at the end of the course	*Observation plans are made at the beginning of each course; observation is promoted as an effective training tool for teacher professional development in FSD's learning culture; observation activities are conducted in non-judgmental manner.*
Support for teachers	Only support right after recruitment and before courses start	Ongoing support; orientation: adequate materials, course guide, recommended materials and methods, suggested learning activities, procedure for assessments, & division of responsibilities for teachers; monthly working lunch for sharing experience	*All support activities are supported by FSD teachers and for FSD teachers; support is provided on an as-needed basis*
Teachers' morale and motivation	Low	Clear goals; challenging but suitable tasks; good internal communication	*All experienced FSD teachers are retained and well-motivated.*
Support for learners	Workshops for students initiated and organized by teachers	Workshops for & by students; weekly face to face & online student counseling services	*Support is provided on a voluntary basis*

Teaching materials	Suggested and selected by BOM; materials are used for students learning only	Selected, adopted, and adapted by teachers (group leaders); materials are used as teacher training aid; technological software (English Discoveries Online) is introduced and integrated in blended learning approach	*Teaching materials are mostly Western textbooks adapted and localized to meet FSD students' needs.*
Tests and assessments	Exams only; all tests drafted and finalized by BOM; teachers are the only markers and assessors	Tests & ongoing assessments; all assessments are drafted and designed by teachers and approved by BOM; learners are involved in self-assessment; teachers are final markers.	*IELTS test is still used as a proficiency test at the end of the 1 year FSD program*
Course evaluation	Twice a course; manual evaluation: hard copies of evaluation sheets distributed to students and summarized by BOM; all evaluation results are internally publicized but not welcomed by teachers	Ongoing with online evaluation: instant summative results; only positive evaluations are publicized and recognized ("best teacher of the course" award); for negative evaluations, individual teachers' weaknesses are supported by BOM; self-evaluation of both program administrators, teachers and learners is promoted	*By encouraging teachers to critically evaluate their own performance, evaluation now becomes an integral part of both curriculum and teacher development; evaluation is viewed as not simply a process of obtaining information: it is also a decision-making process*

| Achievements | Struggling to run the whole program; positive working culture for teachers; positive attitude between teachers and students and English language learning; however only 65% of students achieve IELTS 6.0 | A positive collaborative working culture with shared values; strong student body; various student support activities; 85% of students achieve IELTS 6.0; recognition from Hanoi University leaders and Ministry of Education and Training; better reputation for the department and the program | *FSD now has a very strong student body which gets involved in organizing all academic and non-academic activities* |

Complexities and Challenges in Training Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers: State of the Art

Jun Liu
University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona, United States

Nonnative English-speaking teachers constitute the majority of the language teaching population in EFL settings. Methods and strategies that are usually considered efficient and effective for training native English-speaking teachers could have different effects on nonnative English-speaking teachers. Drawing from the earlier work of Medgyes (1994), Braine (1999), and Liu (1999, 2001, and 2007), the purposes of this paper are to review the state-of-the-art discussion in this area of research, discuss the challenges and difficulties nonnative English speaking teachers face, and suggest how an overall framework of training can be developed to cater to nonnative English-speaking teachers in EFL contexts.

About twenty years ago, when I left China for the US to pursue my doctorate in foreign and second language education at the Ohio State University, there was no doubt in my mind that I was a nonnative speaker of English, as I spoke quite differently from the American people around me. I knew that I needed to brush up my English at full speed in order to be accepted as an in-group member in the mainstream society. About ten years ago, when I returned to China for the first time after a decade in the US, my former colleagues complimented me on my fluency in English, though they still considered me an advanced nonnative English speaker with an obvious Chinese accent. When I was invited to lead an English program in a university in China six years ago, I was asked to hire many foreign teachers in order to create an English-speaking environment on campus, which I did. But I hired English teachers from Romania, Malaysia, Russia, and Austria, in addition to those from America.

Observations were made that some of these teachers I hired were not native English speakers, but their presence as foreign teachers with their diverse cultural backgrounds and varieties of English contributed immensely to the richness of the campus culture, and motivated many Chinese students to enhance their English skills.

About three years ago, I expanded my research interests to the area of teaching Chinese as a second/foreign language, which allowed me opportunities to observe and reflect on the learning and teaching experiences from the perspective of a native speaker. Many Chinese teachers I observed were vulnerable and insecure when they taught Chinese to foreigners as they did not have the metalanguage to explain to their students whenever "why" questions were asked. They were exhausted by using excuses such as "That's the way we say it," or "This is an idiomatic expression." Deep in my mind I was aware that being a native speaker of Chinese does not give the person any guarantee of being a competent Chinese teacher. As with nonnative speakers of the language, a language teacher's credibility needs to be earned, not merely given if the person is a native speaker.

Everyone is a native speaker of some language/s, but not everyone is a nonnative speaker of a language other than their mother tongue. Those who speak more than one language clearly have advantages over monolinguals in teaching a second or foreign language because of the very experience of learning an additional language, but the common perception of native speaker superiority is still prevailing.

This paper, based on my plenary speech given at the 2009 CamTESOL Conference, will introduce the native/nonnative divide, explore what it means to be a nonnative English-speaking teacher, and discuss some challenges and complexities in training nonnative English-speaking teachers in TESOL.

The Native/Nonnative Question

For years, native speakers were considered the only reliable source of linguistic data (Chomsky, 1965). The first challenge to this notion was in Paikeday's book, *The Native Speaker is Dead!* (1985). He argued that the native speaker "exists only as a fragment of the linguist's imagination" (p. 12). Paikeday proposed the term *proficient user* of a language to refer to all speakers who can successfully communicate in that language. Paikeday's notion was later endorsed by Rampton (1990), who used a slightly different term, *expert speaker*, to include all successful users of that language (Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

Can a second language learner become a native speaker of the target language? This question, proposed by Davies (2003), has drawn a lot of interest in the area of social identities. Anecdotes tell us that those who were born and raised in non-English speaking environments and who went to English-speaking countries before puberty are likely to be acculturated like native speakers without any differentiation in speaking. Even adult language learners can, apart from pronunciation, become like native speakers with regard to intuition, grammar,

spontaneity, creativity, pragmatic control, and interpreting quality (Davies, 2003).

But even if second language learners can become native speakers of the target language, why should they pursue nativeness? Kramsch (1997) asserts what while students can become competent in a new language, they can never become native speakers of it. She simply questioned why they should disregard their unique multilingual perspective on the foreign language and its literature and culture to emulate the idealized monolingual speaker.

Needless to say, labeling someone as a native or nonnative speaker is more complicated than we imagine. Making that distinction pertains to one's language proficiency, cultural affiliation, social identity, self-perception, among other factors. Sometimes these factors are intertwined and contextualized.

The Divide Between Native/Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers

The divide between native and nonnative speakers has direct relevance and implications in the field of English language teaching. Some researchers paid attention to the notion of native and nonnative English-speaking teachers in the early '90s (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999; Davies, 1991; Medgyes, 1994; Phillipson, 1992). To challenge the view of identifying a native speaker (NS) as the ideal language teacher, a tenet proposed at the 1961 Commonwealth Conference on the Teaching of English as a Second Language, Phillipson (1992) uses the term *native speaker fallacy* (p. 195) and questions its validity. He claims that non-native speakers (NNSs) can be trained to gain abilities that are, according to the tenet, associated with NSs (i.e., fluency, correct usage of idiomatic expressions, and knowledge about the cultural connotation of English). Moreover, Phillipson evaluates the learning process of NNS teachers and posits that it is a valuable quality that NSs cannot emulate.

According to Widdowson (1994), when the emphasis is moved from the contexts of use to the contexts of learning, the advantage that NS teachers have will disappear. Medgyes (1992) challenges the idea that NSs are better teachers than NNSs, and claims that both NS and NNS teachers have their own strengths. Subsequently, his book addressing the NS-NNS dichotomy (Medgyes, 1994), along with the study he conducted with his colleague (Reves & Medgyes, 1994) investigating English teachers' perceptions in ten countries, caught scholars' attention. In their study, Reves and Medgyes used a questionnaire to collect data from 216 NS and NNS teachers in ten countries. Analysis of the data revealed that two-thirds (68%) of the respondents believe that there are differences between NS and NNS

teachers, and that the majority (75%) considers NNS teachers' linguistic difficulties to have an adverse effect in teaching.

Reves and Medgyes suggest that exposure to an English-speaking environment and pre-service training with a focus on proficiency might be helpful for NNS teachers. In addition to this suggestion, they claim that NNS teachers should be made aware of their strengths.

It was not until a colloquium organized by George Braine at the annual TESOL convention in 1996 that NNS educators began to express their concerns and experiences to an open audience. This groundbreaking colloquium, which inspired a number of individuals in the audience, mainly NNSs, through the sharing of poignant autobiographical narratives, has led not only to more sessions and publications in subsequent years, but also to the establishment of the Nonnative English Speaking Teachers (NNEST) Caucus in TESOL. Although there are numerous locally born teachers all over the world where English is taught as a foreign language, the issue of NNESTs had always been under-represented and under-researched because "the topic was an unusually sensitive one, long silently acknowledged but too risky to be discussed openly" (Braine, 2004, p. 16). Research in this area began with the establishment of the NNEST Caucus in TESOL in 1998, thanks to Braine, Liu, and Kamhi-Stein. In subsequent years, proposals and presentations on NNESTs at TESOL conventions appeared to grow from a dozen to a few dozen, and now many doctoral students choose NNESTs as their dissertation topic. TIRF (The International Research Foundation for English Language Education) made the subject of NNESTs their priority research topic one year, and TESOL Quarterly has published a number of high-quality articles in this area that have had an impact on our field.

Challenges and Complexities in Training
Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers

It is widely acknowledged that the majority of the English teachers worldwide are NNESTs (Liu, 1999, 2001). It is also a fact that in EFL settings such as Cambodia, China, Japan, Korea, and Thailand, studying English from instructors whose mother tongue is the same as their students is not only realistic, but also very successful. NNESTs have unique characteristics described by Medgyes (1994), who acknowledges that NNESTs can:

1. Provide a good learner model for imitation;
2. Teach language learning strategies more effectively;
3. Supply learners with more information about the English language;
4. Anticipate and prevent language difficulties better;
5. Be more empathetic to the needs and problems of learners; and
6. Make use of the learners' mother tongue.

In addition, Tang (1997) posits that NNESTs can be in a favorable position by being able to predict potential difficulties for the students and to know how to help them learn based on their own language learning experiences. However, because of the limited access to native English-speaking cultural experiences and lack of authentic input, the hiring of native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) to join the teaching faculty in EFL settings has continued to be very popular. This is not necessarily successful for several reasons, such as the compromise of hiring criteria, limited supervision and mentoring, and a lack of encouragement of collaborative efforts in curriculum development, syllabus design, lesson preparation, and professional development.

Nevertheless, NNESTs have long suffered what is called an inferiority complex. The NNESTs will never be able to measure up to the linguistic standards that are so valued in their profession, such as a native accent from the US or the UK. They will be led to believe that their interlanguage, or the knowledge of the L2 they possess, is always inadequate (Cook, 1999). It is assumed that in order to meet the high expectations of their students, NNESTs have to work harder than NESTs in order to prove themselves worthy of being in the profession (Thomas, 1999).

The Scope of Research on Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers

Although efforts have been made to study NNESTs for more than a decade, the scope of research in this area is limited. According to Kamhi-Stein (2004a), the research field of NNESTs consists of three phases with respect to its trend of topics and foci that gradually shifted as the field developed. In the first phase, Self-Perception, the primary focus was on NNESTs' self-perceptions. Besides Reves and Medgyes' (1994) study cited above, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) investigated the self-perceptions of 17 NNS graduate students enrolled in a course in the MATESOL program at an American university. By triangulating data employing both qualitative and quantitative techniques via questionnaires, interviews, and written reflections, the researchers found that the participants' self-perceptions had become more positive over a period of ten weeks.

The second phase was characterized through studies that focused on the credibility of NNESTs. These qualitative studies often made use of autobiographical narratives (e.g., Amin, 1997; Braine, 1999; Thomas, 1999). Thomas (1999) shares her disappointing experience as a teacher being evaluated by her students on the basis of her race, not her teaching performance. Her credibility as a teacher was explicitly challenged by her students, especially by one comment, which said that the class would have been better had it been taught by a NS instructor. She also notes that not only the students, but also NS colleagues threatened her confidence. Based on her experience, she argues that NNESTs' lack of confidence is the outcome of these overt challenges to credibility. Braine (1999) reflects on the days when he was in graduate school in the United States and explains how the disadvantage followed him because of his non-nativeness. For instance, an unfortunate treatment he experienced when he applied for a teaching position at an intensive English program led him to wonder why NNS teachers are not appreciated for their diversity and multiculturalism, whereas ESL students are usually praised for what they can bring into language classrooms. Thus, NNS professionals' own experiences as graduate students, teachers, and job applicants in an English-speaking environment not only struck others in the field who could identify themselves with these professionals, but also helped raise more important issues known to scholars in teaching English. Consequently, what NNS teachers can contribute to the language classroom started to gain prominence.

The third phase of research in this area focuses on how NNESTs are perceived by others, such as administrators and students (e.g., Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2002; Mahboob, Uhrig, Newman, & Hartford, 2004). Mahboob, et al. (2004) conducted a survey study to shed light on the hiring issue, looking at the NS-NNS population ratio in ESL programs in the United States. Data was collected by 122 administrators of intensive English programs (IEPs) in the United States (with a response rate of 25.5%). Analysis of the data showed only three criteria to be significant: whether one was a native English speaker or not, recommendation, and teaching experience. Mahboob, et al. (2004) suggested that IEPs in the United States reexamine their hiring practices if they seek to offer their students exemplary role models of NNESTs and reflect "a realistic and inclusive picture of the diversity represented by world Englishes" (p. 116). Likewise, Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2002) research investigated students' perceptions of their English teachers using a questionnaire to test four hypotheses based on past NNEST research. They found that students at all levels (primary, secondary, and university) showed a higher preference for NS teachers. The students indicated a preference for NS

teachers in the areas of pronunciation, speaking, vocabulary, and culture and civilization, whereas NNS teachers were preferred for areas such as learning strategies and grammar. Nevertheless, each of the above-mentioned lines of research has its own drawbacks in research methodology (e.g., surveys and interviews) without much cross-sectional triangulation or prolonged engagement, and also in their narrow scope by hearing only one side of the story. For instance, too much attention was focused on perceptions, rather than empirical studies to see the effects on teaching and learning outcomes. Much research is done in ESL contexts while the major contexts of EFL are mostly neglected. No research to date has focused on NNESTs who do not share the L1 with the students while teaching in that country – for instance, Cambodian teachers teaching English in China, Chinese teachers teaching English in Russia, or Thai English teachers teaching English in Korea.

Also questionable is the way in which NS and NNS teachers were treated, as if they were at the opposite ends of a scale with absolute characteristics (Kamhi-Stein, 2004b; Matsuda, 2003). Such a view is no longer supported, as it does not "capture the complexities involved in being a NNES professional" (Kamhi-Stein, 2004b, p. 3). Rather, both NS and NNS professionals are now considered to have skills and competencies that complement each other. Currently, the point of discussion is the possible effect that can be brought about when NSs and NNSs collaborate for the same purpose of teaching English, provided that they each have qualities that the other does not possess.

Limitations in Training Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers

Admittedly, many nonnative English-speaking teachers have a sense of inferiority in front of their native English-speaking colleagues. Many of these teachers learned English the hard way and many did not have any opportunities to study abroad. They carry heavy teaching loads in their schools, and they are often evaluated based on the scores of their students. Even though they want to help students improve their communicative competence, they endure the pressure to equip their students with strategies to do well on all kinds of examinations.

The experiences are not always positive for those who have had opportunities to visit English-speaking countries for one year or half a year as visiting scholars or exchange visitors. Upon return, these teachers often regretted that the time abroad was not well spent. These teachers usually design their own programs by sitting in some classes without participation or spending much time in the library without supervision. The lack of clear objectives and engaged agenda facilitated by the home institution often translate the limited opportunities into disappointing experiences. Apart from the fact that only a few

colleagues have this opportunity and it takes so long to get such a chance, we have to ask whether visiting English-speaking countries is a worthy investment.

Back in EFL contexts, nonnative English-speaking teachers are encouraged to collaborate with their native English-speaking colleagues. But the collaboration is full of challenges. Collaboration, despite the growing popularity of the concept, sometimes can be difficult to foster. There are so many factors working against it in the real world: time and energy constraints, turf wars, feelings of inadequacy or superiority with language and pragmatics, and general inexperience with the idea of collaboration. Working with others, especially those with differences in background and cognitive style, requires willingness, understanding, tolerance, and respect. While nonnative English-speaking teachers may feel inferior working with their native counterparts, the latter might also feel constrained not to impose native superiority on their nonnative English-speaking colleagues.

A Framework for Training Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers

While nonnative English-speaking teachers have many advantages of being English teachers in EFL contexts (Medgyes, 1994), they also admittedly have a number of drawbacks (Liu, 2009):

1. Lack of native intuition to the language
2. Lack of authentic input
3. Lack of the target cultural backgrounds and contextual clues
4. Lack of strength in colloquial and idiomatic expressions
5. Lack of professional development opportunities
6. Lack of language environment

For years, we have judged our nonnative English-speaking colleagues by criteria based on how much they know about English and how well they speak or write in English. To a large extent, this judgment holds truth in that the lack of the target language environment has made us more realistic in not imposing high qualifications on nonnative English-speaking teachers. Also supported is the fact that we are judged by additional criteria based on how well our students perform on tests and examinations, which are more knowledge-based than skills-driven through multiple choices and translation. Rather than being rebellious to this reality, our training for nonnative English-speaking teachers should start with these criteria in mind, but immediately move beyond this by adding other ingredients in the domain, such as language processes and strategies, intercultural

competence, broadly-defined language teaching methodology, and professional development, to form a sustainable training framework.

Needless to say, nonnative English-speaking teachers should possess knowledge in linguistics and be able to demonstrate knowledge of the nature of human language and the phonological, morphological, lexical/semantic, and syntactic systems of English. They should be able to describe the similarities and differences between English and their first language in these areas. Related to linguistic knowledge are the skills of the language; nonnative English-speaking teachers must also demonstrate adequate oral and written proficiency in social and academic English. Both knowledge and skills in English are considered the basis for successful English language teaching. Many of our nonnative English-speaking teachers need constant improvement in these areas. Therefore, efforts should be made and ongoing professional development opportunities should be provided for these teachers to polish their communication skills and expand their linguistic knowledge.

The next domain of training is in language processes and learning strategies. Nonnative English-speaking teachers should understand the nature of human language and the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic processes, as well as factors involved in native and non-native language acquisition and use. Just because nonnative English-speaking teachers have learned English as a foreign language does not mean that they are aware of the specifics of the process. They may be just as unaware of the specifics of the process of second language acquisition as they were when achieving their first language acquisition. Fundamental theories in second language acquisition should be part of the teacher training. Learning styles and learner strategies should also be discussed and understood in order to help them understand the causes and/or sources of problems in their students' learning and have good strategies in dealing with them as they occur.

Perhaps the most vulnerable area that needs more training is intercultural communication and the pragmatic skills of language use. Teachers should understand the nature of language and culture and communicative styles and skills in various intercultural communication contexts. This is not easy for those who have never experienced the native culture of the target language, so proper training in this area, focusing on cultural comparisons and intercultural competence building, is of vital importance as experience and mastery in this area will bear direct relevance to teaching.

The broadly defined domain of teaching methodology is usually familiar to most nonnative English-speaking teachers. Although teachers are introduced to and familiar with various methods for and approaches to teaching English as a foreign language, the methods era

is gone (Liu, 2007). They should understand that there is no best method in language teaching. Instead of searching for the best method, they should seek alternatives to methods and come up with what will work in a particular context, depending on various factors such as learning objectives, learner variables, and classroom constraints. Nonnative English-speaking teachers should be highly encouraged to focus on basic principles of teaching and learning English, because the principles will allow flexibility and creativity to occur under sound rationale and pedagogical perspectives. Training on testing and assessment is also important. Teachers need to know how to assess their students' learning outcomes in a variety of ways. It is important to study the best practices though case studies and to develop skills in critical thinking. The broadly defined methodology includes curriculum development, syllabus design, and lesson planning. It is important that nonnative English-speaking teachers demonstrate adequate skills in designing and implementing effective materials, learning tasks, and activities in the classroom. Furthermore, we must train our teachers in knowledge of and skills in technology. They should demonstrate familiarity with and application of technology in teaching.

Also important in training is the ongoing professional development that bears crucial consequence to the overall effectiveness of teaching in the long run. Nonnative English-speaking teachers should stay current on research, trends, policies, and legal mandates regarding TESOL, TEFL, or ELT programs. They should also demonstrate their knowledge of both qualitative and quantitative research methods and know they can use these methods to reflect on their teaching and improve their classroom practice.

Conclusion

The effectiveness of training nonnative English-speaking teachers in teaching English as a foreign language depends on a number of factors. We should set up clear and attainable objectives for teacher training, design small-scale, theme-based, and level-specific training programs, implement localized teacher certificate programs at provincial and national levels, utilize online resources and the expertise of core teacher trainers, and strengthen nonnative English-speaking teacher pre-service training programs while providing an objective evaluative supervision mechanism. Above all, we should provide sustainable mentoring programs, encourage collaboration at all levels, and educate our administrators to give more steady support to our nonnative English-speaking teachers, who are contributing to the education of world-citizens with English as the lingua franca.

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