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ARTICLES

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A Forum for and by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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Contents

English as an International Language Pedagogy: What Teachers' Voices Tell Us

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A look at the literature in the field of English language teaching reveals that much of it has been published in Britain, North America, or Australia. At the same time, a growing number of English language teachers and curriculum developers work in conditions and cultures very different from the ones in highly developed English-speaking countries. Unfortunately, few researchers have shifted their attention to the context of English as a foreign language (EFL); in other words, in countries where English does not have an official status. Holliday (1994; 2005), for example, analyzes the macro characteristics of social contexts. In his work, he cautions against a direct technological transfer from what he terms BANA (Britain, Australasia, North America) to other countries. ("Technological" here is a larger term that entails methods of teaching.) In his view, it is problematic that methodologies developed in these countries are being transplanted "almost everywhere else" (1994, p. 12). Instead, he suggests we should think of methodologies that are appropriate for specific sociocultural contexts. Holliday stresses that teacher trainers should critically examine whether the methodologies developed in Britain or North America in "ideal" teaching-learning situations would be appropriate in other, less ideal contexts. At the same time, he acknowledges that there are "curriculum developers or teachers who are trying to effect appropriate English language teaching with students who are foreign to them" and trying to "understand their attitudes and ways of doing things, which, to the outsider, are often obscure and opaque" (1994, p. 11).

Other scholars (Pennycook, 1994; Canagarajah, 1999) have argued for a similar reconsideration of the transfer of Western pedagogies and techniques, especially the communicative language teaching approach, which may not be appropriate in other cultures. For instance, Canagarajah (1999) has shown how Tamil high school students resisted the Western cultural ideology and social values imposed on them through the use of American textbooks. A direct transfer of methodology may not only be difficult to implement in a foreign language context, but it also carries a certain degree of arrogance with it. In other words, it implies that Western models of pedagogies are the best, regardless of local contexts.

Preparing teachers for EFL contexts has also been made problematic by the fact that in today's linguistic market English has become the unquestioned lingua franca, a global, or world language. In short, English is used not only among the speakers of English as a first language, but among speakers all over the world, speakers who would like to acquire English for business and educational purposes. Moreover, unlike immigrant learners in the United States or Britain, for example, who have to be able to communicate with native speakers of the target language, learners of English as a global language may want to master the language so they can communicate with other speakers of English as an international language. A significant and growing body of research has demonstrated that the globalization of English has changed the very concept of the native speaker and, importantly for language educators, the implications for teaching English itself. McKay (2002), for example, offers a set of pedagogical goals: a focus on intelligibility rather than "correctness," interaction strategies that promote comity (friendly relations), sensitivity in the choice of cultural content in materials, and respect for the local culture of teaching and learning.

This increased interest in English as an international language seems to pose an inevitable question for language teacher educators in the United States: How well do North American TESOL programs prepare students for teaching abroad? And yet, despite the ever-increasing need for English language education in a variety of international contexts, the field has not addressed this question adequately. Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey's (1999) article, "Do U.S. MATESOL Programs Prepare Students to Teach Abroad" stands out as the only one that explicitly looks at the issue. In their study, the researchers examined the teaching situation abroad by analyzing job advertisements, along with the expected qualifications for them, and evaluated M.A. TESOL programs in the United States, focusing on the types of courses being offered, using Garshick's (1995) *Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada*. Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey concluded that, in fact, M.A. TESOL programs do not do a good job of preparing students to teach overseas, and that they could not identify any program that is "quintessentially geared toward preparing ESL/EFL teachers for teaching abroad" (p. 122). The researchers also thought that TESOL, as an institution, was silent on this issue.

Acknowledging Holliday's (1994) claim that there is a lack of data for what is actually happening in a wide range of social settings and classrooms around the world, this article reports on the results of an ongoing study. Although it asks questions similar to those asked by Govardhan et al., the nature of this study is different from theirs. It is not about looking at the teaching situation abroad in general, nor does it examine the offerings of different TESOL programs. Instead, it focuses on the particular experiences

of teachers educated in the United States, who have taught both in North America and abroad. In exploring their voices, the guiding questions were:

1. How well does M.A. TESOL education in the United States prepare students for the challenges of international sociocultural settings?
2. What are the major difficulties EFL teachers encounter?
3. What base of knowledge/what courses do teachers find essential in teaching English as an international language?
4. Can they apply the methodologies they acquire in North American-based programs to a different, foreign language milieu?

While the terminology used to refer to the different contexts of teaching English is quite complex, (for example, English as a second language, English as a foreign language, English as an additional language), this paper will employ the terms English as a foreign language and English as an international language to refer to the contexts in the so-called Expanding Circle where English is not being used as the official language of the country (for a comprehensive review of this terminology, see Nayar, 1997).

The approach that was chosen here—trying to understand teachers' personal experiences and their voices—has already been strongly established in the field of second language education. For instance, Richards (1996) aptly points out that we should approach the research in teaching "from the inside" (p. 281), and that by acknowledging real teachers' voices, we should shift our focus to the everyday realities of teaching. According to Richards, we can accomplish this shift only if we explore teachers' experiences and perceptions. Similarly, Freeman and Johnson (1998) strongly emphasize a focus on teachers as individuals and their personal experiences in the reconceptualization of language teacher education.

The Study

Taking up these theoretical and methodological calls, this study focuses on teachers' perceptions of the English as a foreign language context. Thirty-five teachers participated. All had Master's degrees in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) from programs across the United States. Some participants had doctoral degrees in TESOL or were working toward them. Although most of the teachers had taught in both types of contexts—ESL (e.g., the United States) and EFL (e.g., Latin America, China, the Middle and Far East)—the major goal of this paper is to focus on their perceptions of the EFL context. Similarly, although some of the findings related to the disconnect between methods and theories emphasized in graduate programs may also apply to ESL contexts, the goal of the study was to investigate how prepared graduates were for EFL contexts.

The participants had taught English as a foreign language in a wide range of countries: Hungary, China, Japan, Germany, Spain, Bulgaria, Jordan, Turkey, Thailand, Colombia, Korea, United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Iran, and Qatar. Data was collected over the course of two years. Each participant filled out an open-ended questionnaire (see Appendix) that aimed to elicit their perceptions of teaching abroad. The responses to the questionnaires were submitted either in person or by e-mail. In addition, follow-up interviews were conducted when clarification of the responses or further elaboration was needed. These clarifications were based on the participant's initial response. For example, in one case, a participant wrote that some of her Chinese students felt uncomfortable with her teaching techniques. During an in-person interview, she was asked to elaborate on what these techniques were and whether they were part of the beliefs that she acquired in her TESOL Master's program. In another case, a participant wrote that she found it difficult to adapt ESL materials to the EFL environment, and in a follow-up communication, she was prompted to specify the ways in which she found these materials inappropriate.

Follow-up interviews were tape-recorded when possible. However, because not all of the participants were in close proximity, another way of obtaining follow-up responses had to be employed. Describing the essential role of the interview as a method of inquiry in qualitative research, Fontana and Frey (2005) comment on a new direction the interviewing process has taken because of advances in technology. They write about electronic or "virtual" (p. 721) interviews and claim that these will become even more common in the future. Thus, some of the follow-up interviews were conducted electronically for participants who were not available in person.

In accordance with the goal of this study—to give voice to teachers' own perceptions and experiences—a qualitative approach to data analysis was employed. Once the data were collected, they were analyzed in several stages to identify the major themes. Qualitative analysis by its nature is an ongoing and recursive process in which coding serves an essential function. Miles and Huberman's (1994) guidelines for coding and analysis were followed. The initial data were collected through an open-ended questionnaire, and the "start list" (p. 58) of codes was created based on the responses to these specific questions. As the questionnaires were collected, a table was created for each of the questions and all the participants' responses were typed in the corresponding tables. This stage comprised the preliminary categorization. Some of these first-stage categories were, for example, "difficulties in the EFL environment" and "appropriateness of methods taught in the TESOL programs." As the responses to each of the questions in the questionnaire were reviewed one by one, more specific patterns were identified within each of the initial categories. For instance, within the initial category of major difficulties, patterns such as difficulties at the technical level or

sociopedagogical problems became apparent. This second level of analysis also allowed the identification of certain areas within the participants' responses that needed further clarification or elaboration, and it was also the stage when the participants were selected for follow-up communication. Finally, a third level of analysis reviewed all the data collected, including the in-person interviews and the electronic follow-up responses mentioned above. Throughout this process of analysis, the participants' data and the researcher's conceptual and theoretical beliefs about the issues at hand were informing and influencing each other.

Findings

Based on the questionnaire and the interview responses provided by the participants, the findings are grouped in several categories: perceived difficulties related to teaching abroad, teachers' perceptions of preparedness, the use of methods in the international setting, and the types of knowledge viewed essential for teaching abroad.

Perceived Difficulties

A major question of the study was about the perceived difficulties TESOL graduates experienced in the foreign language environment. In their article, Govardhan et al. (1999) refer to a TESOL colloquium whose panelists discussed some of the difficulties involved in teaching abroad. They list issues such as large classes, lack of teaching aids, lack of resources, and unfamiliar educational bureaucracies. Nearly a decade after this discussion, the teachers who participated in this project reported similar experiences. Among the difficulties they reported many are at a technical level. Among the technical level difficulties were: finding authentic materials, large sizes of classes (over 70 in some countries), and classroom conditions. Teachers talked, for example, about "crowded," "unheated," or "unairconditioned" rooms. As difficulties of a more critical, sociopedagogical level, teachers reported test-driven curricula and conflicts with the educational goals of host institutions. One teacher said, for example:

> The problem is that institutions say they are teaching communication when indeed they are leaving it out because grammar, syntax, vocabulary is what counts. This is the schema students, most teachers, and most administrators have.

Another participant was disillusioned about her role in the new teaching environment. She saw the school practices as a business that cared little about what the students actually learned as long as they were retained:

> The other major difficulty was having to be actively involved with the sales of classes. We would often have to meet with a current student and tell them

> what they need to do improve by telling them how many more lessons they needed.

Among the difficulties at this level, teachers also reported professional isolation (e.g., lack of conferences or opportunities for professional development) in the foreign language context. Several teachers brought up sociopolitical difficulties such as anti-American attitudes. More general issues that almost everyone mentioned involved culture shock, housing problems, and the unpredictability of living in a foreign country.

Perception of Preparedness

The responses to the question whether the participants felt prepared by their programs for teaching abroad varied considerably. Some patterns were noticeable, however. It is worth mentioning that only four of the participants stated unequivocally that they felt prepared for teaching abroad. Seven answered that they were not prepared. Most of the teachers refused to reply directly with a "yes" or "no," and chose to qualify their responses. Many answered with both "yes" and "no" as they provided the reasons for their choices. With only several exceptions, the majority of participants were native speakers of English. They felt prepared because they were teaching their own language, which gave them as one teacher put it, "a sense of security." Interestingly, these who felt prepared gave credit for this level of preparedness not to their M.A. TESOL program necessarily, but to more general factors such as broad teaching strategies including reviewing what the students need, and what they already know. One teacher called these practices critical reflection that could be applied to any educational setting, ESL or EFL. Another teacher said:

> I did feel prepared… I learned this through previous experience living and working in other cultures, not in my TESOL graduate classes.

Many teachers believed that their graduate programs were too theoretical, with little emphasis on the practical aspects of teachers such as how to design a lesson plan or how to teach a large group of students. Several expressed a concern about the lack of training in English grammar. They had difficulty, for example, answering some of their advanced students' questions about "the nuts and bolts grammar of English for the purpose of instruction."

Use of Methods

As numerous examples in the literature on English language teaching methods illustrate, communicative language teaching has occupied a central place in the countries that Holliday (1994) terms as BANA, and other scholars would term the Inner Circle. There have been a number of definitions of communicative language teaching,

but scholars (e.g., Brown, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2000) typically agree that it entails activities that involve authentic materials and interaction as well as small group and pair work. Most of the participants' responses reflected these trends in English language education. A young teacher, for example, who had taught in China, believed that her role as an English instructor there was to create as many speaking opportunities for her students as possible.

One of the questions of the study concerned the teachers' beliefs about the use of methods in the EFL classroom. Four of the participants did not think they needed different methods in ESL vs. EFL contexts. Thirteen claimed that they had to change their approaches to teaching. They said, "Yes, definitely," or "Absolutely." These participants who claimed that they had to use different methods justified their opinion by referring to different educational goals (for example, their EFL programs were not interactive), different student purposes, and student motivations. When pressed for an explanation, however, about exactly what the differences were, teachers often remained vague and were unable to articulate them. The ones who were more specific pointed out that the curriculum abroad required them to use grammar-based instead of the communicative, collaborative activities they wanted to do in class. The majority of the participants agreed that some adjustments needed to be made, depending on the local context. A sample of different participants' explanations for these adjustments follow:

> Adjustments were made daily. . . . The goal of language teaching is communicative competence. Well, it's not when the students have to prepare to take a government English test that requires them to translate large portions of a text on a topic about which they have no background knowledge.

> When I was in graduate school, explicit grammar instruction was very much discouraged. However, out in the real world, I've found it necessary and even helpful for students to be taught grammar.

> I believe in basic conversational skills, first of all, everyday, practical, useful language. And I believe in getting students to speak and getting them to communicate with each other and giving them oral practice. I believe in group work and group interaction. . . . But I found that in China the students were not ready to just get up out of their seats and start exercising with me. . . . And it was completely foreign to them. They were very uncomfortable at first.

> Methods are not the key. A teacher's flexibility in adjusting to classroom situations and learners is [the key].

Scholars in the field today (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Prabhu, 1990) have rejected the notion that there is a fixed set of methods that teachers can practice uniformly. Kumaravadivelu, for instance, talks about the "postmethod" era. Similarly, Canagarajah points out that "classroom realities rarely correspond to any recognizable methods (at least as they are packaged by the research and publishing industry)" (2002, p. 140). While the teachers in this study did not exactly employ the postmethod terminology or display any explicit awareness of it, their words resonated with the view that no specific method could fit the variety of teaching styles, classroom conditions, cultural contexts, and institutional forces that they encountered. These examples suggest that most teachers were aware of having to be sensitive to the needs to their students, in their local contexts. Although, as their responses indicate, communicative approaches were strongly emphasized in methodology courses, the majority of the participants questioned the value of these approaches (and spoke of "adjustments") in EFL situations. For example, one M.A. TESOL graduate and a current teacher in Mexico made the following recommendation to those want to teach abroad:

> Don't underestimate the local teaching talent; they understand more the way of thinking of your students. Listen, adapt, try out, and then decide on your teaching materials. If you are going to teach only by using the English book, I am sure your class will be really boring.

He recommended that English language teachers abroad be open to the local ways of learning and teaching and be ready to accept criticism about how "Americans do things."

Not all teachers, however, were critical of Western methodologies and their application in the foreign language context. A case in point is another teacher, who, in an interview, spoke of her experience in China. While teaching there, she "had the hardest time" getting her college students to move freely around the crowded classroom or to ask them to "sit in circle and do this communicative activity." Despite the obvious student resistance she encountered (they would look awkwardly at each other or simply not move), she thought it was her job to "correct" their learning behavior. Along with the other participants in the study, this teacher found that her M.A. TESOL program had not addressed this particular discrepancy between what the North American programs perceive to be the current "cutting-edge" methodology and the requirements of programs in the other parts of the world, where more traditional approaches were prevalent.

Knowledge Perceived Essential for Teaching Abroad

Freeman and Johnson write, "We believe that the better we as teacher educators understand and define what English language teachers need to know beyond the subject

matter itself, the sooner we can move away from the current situation in many educational markets: If you speak English, you can teach it" (1998, p. 404). Their words are particularly meaningful in the contexts of teaching English as a foreign language, where teachers and employers have often assumed that all one needs is the language competence of a native speaker. One of the last questions was about the knowledge base that teachers should possess before going to teach abroad. A subquestion was related to identifying the specific courses that teachers thought would be helpful in preparing them to teach in international settings.

Almost all the participants emphasized the importance of having some knowledge of the host culture. Notably, this included knowledge of the educational system and general attitudes toward the United States. Some working knowledge of the local language was considered essential, too, and teachers considered it important because it would enable them to relate to their EFL students better. Several teachers stressed, however, that while it is helpful to know about the specific culture in which they were going to teach, general, broad strategies were "the most helpful" as one female teacher phrased it. Such strategies encompassed critical reflection along with assessment of what students already know, and what they need to know. Two experienced professionals made a point that, ironically, they did not find methodology courses helpful at all. One of them, for instance, reflected:

> I don't think a course in designer methods is of any use. More valuable is a preparation in how to approach each new teaching setting and make decisions and choices that are responsive to the needs, expectations, social and cultural contexts of the learners. . . . Development of problem solving and analytical skills are more essential to me than a bag of tricks.

If training in methods was not considered particularly useful, what courses, then, did the participants find essential in their preparation to teach English abroad? The following is a summary of their suggestions: modern English grammar, materials and curriculum design, linguistics (with elements of contrastive analysis), theories of second language acquisition, English phonetics and phonology, sociolinguistics.

Most of the teachers included an English grammar course in their lists, pointing out that they have had to explain nuances of the modern grammar of English to international students and admitted that they did not always have the metalanguage for articulating these nuances. In an interview, one teacher, who worked in Japan, explained that native speakers of English may know how to speak the language, but they do not necessarily know "the ins, the outs, and the whys" of its grammar without the proper training.

Many of the teachers also recommended a course that focuses on the more general aspects of language or linguistics. One teacher, for example, reflected in an interview

that an overview of linguistics would help EFL practitioners by enabling them to realize the "diverse structures" of languages and to be "more understanding of students' having a difficult time catching on to a grammar structure of a certain aspect of the English language that doesn't exist in their language."

A course in second language acquisition was also prominent in the responses, with a particular emphasis on the different approaches to language acquisition and the general mechanisms of language learning. Several students brought up specifics such as the "innateness" approach as being of interest to them. While sociolinguistics wasn't included by everyone, it deserves special mention. Those who included sociolinguistics had either taken a course or read independently in this area. They believed that a course in sociolinguistics was beneficial as it "tells you how language works basically in everyday life, how people use language, and for what purpose."

Several of the teachers emphasized that a course in English phonetics and pronunciation is necessary (one said it was "a must") because, similar to the course in English grammar, it gives them a metalanguage to describe spoken English. Participants also discovered that they needed a knowledge of IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) as their international students requested that they use these symbols. Interestingly, only two of the 35 participants suggested a course in teaching English as a foreign language specifically.

Discussion

A recent issue of *Applied Linguistics Forum* (2006) addressed the training of teachers for EFL contexts. Five discussants, led by scholars Donna Brinton and Sandra Fotos, concluded that graduate programs in the United States typically focus on TESL and do not emphasize TEFL. The teachers' voices in this study echo these discussants' conclusions. Despite the variability in the responses to the first research question-whether the English language teachers in this study felt prepared for teaching abroad-the majority of the participants indicated that their M.A. TESOL programs did not address this issue adequately. This became apparent in their responses about the use of methods in the EFL classroom, specifically the discrepancy they found between their training in communicative teaching methodologies in the United States, and the need for more structured and even grammar-based approaches in many of the EFL contexts. One would assume that a course on methods would be especially beneficial to teachers, but teachers rebuffed the value of the courses in methods they had taken. In their view, the current methodology courses are too focused on the history and theory behind the so-called designer methods (as Nunan, 1989, calls methods such as Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and others) and little attention is given, for

example, to classroom issues such as lesson planning. Instead of specific methods or techniques, flexibility (when curriculum requirements differed from teachers' expectations) and creativity (when resources were scarce) were repeatedly accentuated by the participants as the most needed qualities for success in teaching abroad.

One of the major questions in this study asked participants about the knowledge they deemed essential in preparing them to teach abroad, and, specifically, the courses they found helpful and would recommend be included in a TESOL program. The responses revealed that the core courses, from which teachers believed that they would benefit most, are essentially language-based: a solid knowledge base of linguistics, along with pedagogical grammar. Several of the more experienced teachers pointed out the importance of some contrastive analysis. It is certainly not possible to include a course on all the local language backgrounds in which an English teacher may find herself working in, but an understanding of language typology in terms of phonology, morphology, and syntax will help a teacher understand some of the difficulties her students are experiencing when acquiring English as a foreign language.

A course in sociolinguistics was suggested by the teachers; however, the ones who have taken such a course during their graduate training added that these courses tended to stress the social contexts in the United States. Along with the typically discussed issues (e.g., dialects, gender, or language policy), a sociolinguistics course designed to prepare students for the TEFL environment should incorporate a more global perspective on the use and status of English in the world today. A discussion of the notion of multilingualism and the concept of identity, particularly how it relates to the use of English in diverse contexts, will enrich teachers' sociocultural awareness of the different student populations they may encounter. Importantly, a sociolinguistics course in a TESOL program should help teachers gain an insight into the use of speech acts. It should emphasize that while certain linguistic or cognitive processes of learning may be universal across different cultures, speech acts are not. This is related to another finding of this study. Teachers did not find cultural diversity courses particularly helpful (as the majority of those courses focus on the different ethnic groups in the United States). However, they did suggest a course in cross-cultural communications. This is an interesting finding as the teachers' suggestion dovetails with current beliefs about the pedagogical goals in teaching English as a lingua franca and intercultural communication.

In a study like this, it is important to discuss not only what the participants' responses contained, but also what was missing. An issue that became apparent during the analysis was that most of the teachers' responses focused on grammar when asked about their training or knowledge of the local language. Very few of the participants demonstrated an explicit sociolinguistic or sociocultural awareness. Discouragingly,

even fewer demonstrated an awareness of English as a World Language or the implications of this construct for teaching. Only two of the participants mentioned the importance of World Englishes because they were exposed to this notion in their M.A. programs. Unfortunately, most teachers demonstrated a lack of sensitivity to the variety of Englishes in the world and related sociolinguistic implications. One teacher, for example, spoke of her frustration with native speakers of "Hinglish," and particularly with their "reluctance" to use Standard English forms (as in American or British). She believed it was her responsibility as an instructor to teach them the Standard English form. To the majority of participants, English was something that students wanted to learn for their own purposes. They saw students as either motivated to learn about the English language and culture or not. Most had not considered their own role as conduits of very specific cultural values. Fewer had thought about or had been introduced to the role of English as an international language. In an interview, one teacher admitted that even though she had taken a graduate sociolinguistics course, she heard the phrase "English as an international language" for the first time during the interview. This discovery is quite surprising, given the extensive body of literature on the status of English as a lingua franca and the pedagogical implications it carries.

Thus, one specific recommendation for TESOL programs would be to incorporate a World Englishes perspective into their curricula. Teachers have to know that the status of English in the world is changing, and that today speakers who don't belong to the so-called Inner (e.g., Britain, U.S.A., Canada) or Outer Circles (former British colonies) are calling English their own language as well. These different speakers of English as a global language bring their own sociopolitical worldviews and attitudes and redefine the whole concept of native speaker. While it is not possible for our TESOL students to learn about each single variety of English in the world (this is beyond the scope of any single course), it is important for M.A. programs to acknowledge the existence of regional varieties of English and teach graduates to value the unique local contexts in which these varieties function. As teachers begin to understand that English is used in different ways around the world and for different purposes, they will also develop an appreciation for the variety of teaching methods that have originated in other countries.

At the same time, the study found an encouraging trend. Despite the lack of awareness of the varieties of English in the world and the lack of awareness of the rapidly growing research in this area, teachers exhibited a kind of intuitive understanding of different pedagogical contexts and different local conditions. Again, as stressed above, this understanding had been acquired during the participants' teaching practices and not during formal M.A. TESOL study. Teachers found it discrepant that they had to study what were considered the most accepted methodologies in North America (e.g., communicative), but they encountered a need for a very different

approach in their local pedagogical contexts (one that was more focused on grammar, for instance).

Some expressed frustration with this and attempted to transplant the beliefs about learning and teaching they acquired in North America to their international settings without questioning or examining the sociocultural implications (for instance, the young teacher in China who tried to make students move or sit in a circle despite their resistance). However, other teachers were more critical of the knowledge they had acquired and more willing to question its value in a different context (for example, the male teacher in Mexico who cautioned against following "the book" without reevaluation of local practices). Although they were not able to use the terminology current scholars have employed (Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Canagarajah, 2002), these more reflective teachers found their own words to voice the same concerns about transplanting a methodology from one setting to another. What is of crucial significance here is that to many of the teachers, this very openness to the local educational traditions constituted the key to becoming a successful EFL instructor.

Conclusion

Although the nature of this investigation is quite different from the Govardan et al. (1999) study and from Brighton and Fonton's (2006) discussion, the results of the three share a common thread. In particular, M.A. TESOL programs in North America tend to focus their students' preparation for ESL rather than EFL contexts. Of particular interest was that even participants who claimed they were prepared gave much credit for their preparedness to other factors (for instance, the ability to be flexible, previous experiences with other cultures, and other teachers' anecdotes about teaching overseas), and not necessarily to their TESOL training. Given the wide array of difficulties and challenges teachers encounter in diverse international settings, it is impossible to prepare teachers for each of these situations. Each government and school within a country requires its own curriculum or variety of English. Without a doubt, an understanding of linguistics and explicit knowledge of English grammar would certainly increase teachers' competence in the classroom. The participants pointed out that a set of "general strategies" would be most beneficial in their TEFL preparation.

This closely dovetails with Kumaravadivelu's (2001) conception of the role of the postmodern teacher. Such strategies would equip M.A. students with the skills to identify learners' needs, attitudes, and learning styles. It would enable them to explore and evaluate a wide range of resources, including the ones English language learners bring to the classroom.

In a postmethod era, Kumaravidevelu proposes a pedagogy of particularity, a pedagogy that is relevant to a particular group of teachers and particular group of learners. Similarly, Kramsch and Sullivan (1996) call for an "appropriate" (p. 211) pedagogy. This pedagogy, the researchers claim, should be embedded in the local sociocultural context.

In a way, it is even problematic to talk about a pedagogy; rather, teacher education programs should give students the tools to develop and implement multiple pedagogies. If we are to adopt this multiple pedagogies viewpoint, teachers' most important role in an international context then becomes one of researcher of the needs and requirements of their local settings. These needs will be both pedagogical and sociocultural.

This study addresses only a few aspects of teaching English as an international language. To understand the contexts of English language teaching, we need more data from a variety of settings. One suggestion for future research, for instance, would include a comparison between teachers' experiences in ESL and EFL contexts. We also need studies that investigate whether and how teachers apply the knowledge they have acquired in their M.A. TESOL programs not only to EFL, but also to different ESL environments. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, we need more research on teachers' actual experiences in the real world, how they perceive their contexts, and their needs for training in these contexts. However well-built our theories of language teaching are, and however advanced our knowledge of the characteristics of educational settings is, our research is incomplete without understanding how teachers actually function in these contexts.

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About the Author

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study! Before you respond to the questions, please tell me about your background.

Highest degree achieved _____ Academic field _____

Are you currently taking TESL courses?_____

Where are you currently teaching? _____

In which country(ies) did you teach English as a foreign language? _____

1. You've taught in (or know) both ESL and EFL contexts. What did you find were the main differences between the two?
2. What are the major difficulties you have experienced as an English as a foreign language teacher (any possible aspects)?
3. When you were teaching in an EFL context, did you feel prepared for this challenge? In what ways?
4. Did you find you could apply what you had learned here, in the States, about TESL to the EFL classroom you were in? Please specify.
5. Have you found that you need to use different methods in the two contexts? Please explain.
6. Did you have to adjust any of the methods/techniques you studied in your TESL program to the new EFL environment? Please explain how.
7. What do wish to have known before you went to teach EFL?
8. What do you think English teachers, educated in the U.S., should know before going to teach English as a foreign language abroad (e.g., what courses might you suggest)?
9. When you started to teach abroad, what did you know about English as a World language or English as a lingua franca?
10. Please share any other comments you may have on this topic.

Implementing Writing-Across-the-Curriculum in Hong Kong: The Challenges of a WAC Tutor

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Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) has gained currency in the United States since the late 1970s. This curriculum aims to integrate the rhetorical approach of *learning to write* and the cognitive approach of *writing to learn* (McLeod & Miraglia, 2001) to improve students' communication and thinking skills by incorporating writing in all disciplines. Despite its success in the U.S., not until 2002 was a WAC programme first launched in Hong Kong (WAC at CUHK, 2004), where English is taught as a second language (ESL).

This paper examines the implementation of a WAC programme in Hong Kong. In particular, the paper focuses on the challenges a WAC tutor encountered in an ESL environment. By reviewing the philosophy of WAC, the paper identifies the differences between the WAC programme as implemented in Hong Kong at CUHK and in U.S. settings. It is hypothesized that the differences produce a set of unique challenges to the WAC tutor in the present study. The paper then presents the research method followed by the results. The challenges unique to WAC in Hong Kong are finally discussed.

Philosophy of WAC: Learning to Write and Writing to Learn

Writing as a process and as a mode of learning are regarded as the backbone of WAC programmes (Thaiss, 1998). Britton (1970) views writing as a recursive process of rewriting upon feedback from the reader(s). Hayes and Flower (1986) further decompose the recursive process into three stages, namely, planning, sentence generation, and revision. Planning requires strategic knowledge which is used to organize goals and subgoals to construct a coherent writing plan. Sentence generation involves the translation of organized ideas into texts which are governed by the grammar of a particular language. Revision refers to the process of evaluating and editing the texts and may consequently change the meaning of the original work. Hayes and Flower have found that the amount of time spent on revision is positively correlated

to the level of expertise of writers. It is thus reasonable to postulate that revision in meaning is one of the indicators of expertise in writing.

What then conceptualizes writing as a mode of learning, or simply writing to learn? Emig (1983) argues that writing employs the brain and this reinforces learning. Some research findings echo Emig's idea. For instance, studies of patients with unilateral brain damage have established that two neurological pathways can be used to transform thoughts into writing. One route goes from thought directly to writing, whereas the other uses phoneme-to-grapheme correspondance rules as an intermediary (Shallice, 1981). Both pathways train students' problem-solving skills: In the writing process, people try to link different thoughts together to produce a coherent article.

Features of the WAC Programme in Hong Kong

The rationale of the WAC programme at CUHK follows the philosophy of WAC in the U.S. It attempts to enhance students' English writing skills by encouraging professors from different disciplines to include multiple drafts, peer review, and reflective writing in their courses. Over 90 courses of different faculties have been affiliated with the WAC programme since its inception at The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK), a bilingual university (WAC at CUHK, 2004). Yet WAC in Hong Kong differs in three areas which led to a set of unique challenges for the WAC tutor in the present study: the difficulties of writing in a second language, cultural differences in basic educational assumptions, and the logistical difficulties of implementing the programme.

A significant difference in the Hong Kong context is that students experience both learning to write and writing to learn techniques in their second language (L2) whereas in the U.S., students develop these skills in their first language (L1). This difference influences knowledge creation (Hunt & Agnoli, 1991) and the communication process as thoughts produced in the native language must be translated into English. Given this, the WAC tutor might require a wider range of expertise.

The success of a writing curriculum depends on its compatibility with the culture in which the curriculum is implemented. Chinese living in Hong Kong may share a distinctive set of beliefs and practices, which are dissimilar to those of Americans. It is plausible to postulate that the WAC programme at CUHK might be subverted by some basic differences in educational assumptions held firmly in the mind of students. The WAC tutor might need extra resources in dealing with these differences in mindset.

At the implementation level, the Hong Kong WAC model differed by two main factors. First, the WAC tutors were not graduates from the same department as the students. Instead, the writing tutors were housed in the English department. Second, the

WAC tutors were nonnative speakers of English. These implementation disparities were due to a lack of skilled writers who had practiced process writing in their undergraduate study (Braine & McNaught, 2006). These discrepancies may also contribute to a set of unparalleled challenges which the WAC tutor may need to overcome. This study thus centres on two research questions:

1. What challenges could these three sources of differences pose to the WAC tutor?
2. Could the challenges of the WAC tutor be overcome to improve students' communication and thinking skills?

Methodology

The research design of this study included triangulation of data comprising of interviews, students' writing analysis, and the reflective journals (RJ) of the WAC tutor. This design uncovered both an emic perspective (i.e., the interpretations of the WAC tutor of her challenges), and an etic viewpoint (i.e., outsider sources such as the students and the course lecturer). Two WAC journalism courses were selected for the study which lasted two consecutive semesters from September 2003 to April 2004. Data for the interviews and students' writing analyses were collected in the second semester while the reflective journals covered both semesters.

Course-End Interviews

Both the course lecturer and the students were interviewed at the end of the final individual conference. These interviews focused on two main points: the perceived challenges of the WAC tutor who had little knowledge of journalism, and the perceived learning outcomes.

Students' Writing Analysis

This measure aimed to reveal the writing behaviour of students and track the changes of their writing performance. Fifteen out of a possible 21 writing samples for each student were analysed. Six pieces were excluded because the students did not return either the first draft or the final draft. The length of the included pieces ranged from one-half to five and a half pages for the first draft and from one and a half to seven and a half pages for the final draft.

The differences, or revisions, between the first and final drafts were categorized according to an analytic framework used to analyse the writing skills of Chinese EFL learners (González, Chen, & Sanchez, 2001). The framework was modified to capture the intention of the writers in making the revisions. There were four categories of revisions: syntactic, grammatical, word, and format. Each category consisted of a few subcategories, under which the revisions were further fitted into *meaning-altering* revisions

or *meaning-conserving* revisions. According to the perceived intention of the revision, the changes were further classified into *clarification, information addition, or information deletion* in the case of altered meaning and into *style or mistake correction* in the case of conserved meaning, if possible. The subcategories of each group are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Categories and Subcategories of Changes in the Students' Writing Analysis

Syntactic revision	Sentence rewriting or sentence addition/deletion, word order, subject-object relationship, pronouns
Grammatical revision	Verbs, subject-verb agreement, tense, adjectives, adverbs, noun pluralization, prepositions, articles
Word revision	Word or phrase addition/deletion, word choice, collocation or journalism-specific wording or jargon, spelling, typo error
Format revision	Punctuation, abbreviations, capitalization, rhetorical connections

The students' writing changes were then analysed according to the quantity of the revisions, variety of the revisions, and purpose of the revisions. Some specific revisions and errors of the students were also recorded. Since revision or rewriting is one of the most crucial procedures in recursive writing (Hayes & Flower, 1986), these three dimensions disclosed students' behaviour and attitude towards process writing.

Reflective Journals (RJ) of the WAC Tutor

The journals attempted to record the experience of the WAC tutor in teaching all WAC courses throughout the study period. Although the tutor wrote the journals bi-weekly, only 15 entries were pertinent to the journalism courses. The journal entry analysis primarily concentrated on the perceived challenges the tutor faced in teaching newswriting and in the interaction with the students and the course lecturer.

The Selected WAC-Affiliated Courses

Two journalism courses, English News Reporting I (ENR-I) and English News Reporting II (ENR-II), were affiliated with the WAC programme at CUHK in the academic year 2003-2004 for the first and the second semester respectively. ENR-I aims to acquaint students with the principles and skills in general newswriting writing. ENR-II intends to further students' news writing repertoire in in-depth reporting, precision journalism, interpretative writing, and opinion writing. These journalism courses were chosen for two reasons. First, journalism writing seems to be compatible with the concept of WAC (Hurlow, 1989; Olson, 1987; Panici & McKee, 1997; Riley, 1996). Given the limited exposure of Hong Kong students to English writing, the journalism students were killing two birds with one stone—learning to write and learning to write investigative reporting. These two, presumably, are different skills, the second one being discipline-specific. Second, the WAC tutor had established a good interpersonal relationship with both the course lecturer and the students.

Students were required to take part in the reporting and editing of the *Varsity* magazine, the School of Journalism and Communication's English language practicum publication at CUHK. *Varsity* is an award-winning monthly magazine created for the tertiary students and the faculty at CUHK.

The journalism courses encompassed three WAC elements: individual conferences, mini-workshops, and multiple drafts of submitted work. The WAC tutor held one-to-one conferences twice a month with students during the semester. Each conference usually lasted for 30 minutes. In the conference, the tutor commented on the overall coherence, English usage and grammar, and journalistic conventions in the drafts. Optional mini-workshops on plagiarism and verb tenses were organised for students in both semesters. The workshops lasted for around two hours. Interactive presentations, exercises, and small group activities were employed. Students submitted a writing plan, a first draft, an optional second draft, and a final draft to the WAC tutor for comments. Writing plans and drafts were not graded by the WAC tutor and were only marked by the lecturer. Suggestions for improvement made by the WAC tutor were endorsed by the lecturer in the evaluative process.

Participants

The first author of this paper was the WAC tutor. She was a full-time WAC tutor for two academic years from September 2002 to July 2004. The tutor, holding a master's degree in applied English linguistics, was trained to provide WAC teaching services to students and professors (WAC at CUHK, 2004). The tutor was a native speaker of

Cantonese, the dialect of Chinese spoken in Hong Kong. She could also speak English and Mandarin. Her English proficiency was near-native.

All 21 students in this study enrolled in both ENR-I and ENR-II in the academic year 2003-2004. The students, with a mean age of 18, were full-time second-year undergraduates in the School of Journalism and Communication when they first participated in this study. Eighteen students spoke Cantonese and three spoke Mandarin as their mother tongue. The English proficiency of the students was considered to be upper intermediate.[1] Most students had lived in Hong Kong for more than six years.

The course lecturer, an associate professor in the School of Journalism and Communication, was a native speaker of English. He was born and educated in the U.S. He had taught English news reporting in Hong Kong for over a decade.

Results of the Qualitative Data

Data were grouped according to their relevance to the three possible sources of programme differences (i.e., the difficulties of writing in a second language, cultural differences in basic educational assumptions, and the logistical difficulties of programme implementation). Representative data from interviews and journals were excerpted for each source. A few responses showing the perceived learning effectiveness of the WAC programme were also gathered.

The Difficulties of Writing in a Second Language

The data reflected the problems or feelings ESL students had in the WAC writing process, particularly in writing task examination, idea generation and organization, and text generation. The lecturer's expectations of the WAC tutor in providing newswriting instructions to the students were also noted. These characteristics or expectations were believed to pose challenges to the tutor.

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[1]Their proficiency echoed the score of students admitted to the Journalism and Communication Programme in 2002, when the median and the lower quartile of the examination results in English language (Syllabus B) on the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination of the admitted undergraduates were C (Joint University Admissions System [JUPAS], 2006), corresponding to a TOEFL paper-based score of around 530 (Hogan & Chan, 1993), equivalent to a score of 197 on the computer-based TOEFL.

1. "The tutor should be able to speak Mandarin because some mainland students may find it difficult to express their thoughts in English or in Cantonese." (Student A)
2. "I can communicate well with the coach in Cantonese. Sometimes, it is hard to express my ideas in English during consultations." (Student B)
3. "I communicate easily with the tutor because we speak the same mother tongue . . . . The tutor can translate the sentences, in which I have problems in the expressions, from Cantonese to English." (Student C)
4. "The tutor is able to provide the English equivalents of the Chinese terms or Chinese proverbs." (Student D)
5. "The bilingual coach will understand my writing in Chinglish." (Student E)
6. "The tutor's Cantonese speaking ability is a principal asset which is important . . . to talk about writing. . . . Students' inability to use English well was a great challenge to the tutor. The students lacked analysis in newswriting due to a lack of experience in newswriting. The students sometimes lacked sophistication in their work because they could not logically present lots of readings and ideas." (Lecturer)

As shown in excerpts 1-3, the WAC tutor was expected to demonstrate a high level of proficiency in Cantonese, Mandarin, and English so as to communicate with students in their mother tongue to facilitate the writing process. Excerpts 3-5 show that students felt the WAC tutor should be proficient in Chinese-English translation to help them develop and express their ideas. More importantly, the tutor needed to be aware of why Cantonese Chinese made Chinglish mistakes. Excerpt 6 reveals a possible origin of ESL students' difficulties in writing not shared by their American counterparts. Students in Hong Kong were not motivated to read, write, speak, or think in English. The tutor needed to go beyond teaching learning to write and writing to learn, and assist students with their English skills.

Cultural Differences in Basic Educational Assumptions

The data were related to the students' concept of writing. This concept might stem from some basic educational assumptions since the students shared the culture of education in Hong Kong and/or China.

1. "Most students were criticized . . . due to wordiness of their writing." (RJ)
2. "[A student] came to my office, sat down, and said to me, 'You read [the copy].' She expected me to give her inputs on the refinement of the story." (RJ)

3. "[A student] always submitted the first draft . . . very early, say one week, before the due date. However, she did not really pay attention to the organisation, grammar, and the choice of words. She thought that I would turn her draft into an error-free article. This time, I asked her politely to re-read her draft carefully and re-write. But she insisted that I should spot the errors for her. She was kind of forcing me to 'edit' the draft for her." (RJ)
4. "Some students failed to understand the value of the subject matter as well as the value of education." (Lecturer)

Excerpt 1 shows that students failed to appreciate the beauty of the "less-is-more" philosophy. Students held the idea that the richer the content of their article, the higher the grade they would be assigned by the lecturer. The overemphasis on the content for grades was at the expense of organization, clarity, and grammatical correctness. However, due to the Chinese view that perfection should come at all levels, students were self-conscious of their organization or grammatical weakness, and thus sought editing help before submitting their papers to the lecturer who had the ultimate power to grade. This idea converged with the phenomenon in excerpts 2 and 3 where the students expected a "free lunch" from the WAC tutor. This grade-orientation was possibly what the lecturer referred to in excerpt 4 as a failure in understanding the value of education.

The Logistical Difficulties of Programme Implementation

The data also centred on challenges due to the limitations of the WAC tutor since she lacked discipline-specific expertise.

1. "Because *Varsity* is a local magazine, many topics are related to local issues. The bilingual writing coach understands local issues such as child adoption in Hong Kong, Chinese martial arts, and Hong Kong tramways." (Student F)
2. "For the next issue of *Varsity* magazine, some students plan to write stories about cross-border school children, the entertainment reporter, and sports scholarship scheme in Hong Kong universities. To be frank, I do not know much about the topics they will write." (RJ)
3. "Many people have a concept that a good essay is in a five-paragraph form. However, in newswriting, one sentence can constitute a paragraph for the sake of increasing the readability level." (RJ)
4. "Journalism students often ask me, 'How to develop my own style in writing?' It is difficult for me to teach style in conferences because developing the quality of style is a truly personal discovery for writers." (RJ)

5. "It was difficult teaching English newswriting for her because the subject matter was not concrete with facts and theories; rather, it was creative and personal. . . . The tutor was inexperienced in teaching newswriting . . . and journalistic conventions because she was neither journalism major nor a journalist." (Lecturer)

Excerpt 1 demonstrates students' demand that the tutor be sensitive to local and current issues. The tutor mastered some but not all of these issues, as evident in excerpt 2. Despite the fact that the tutor understood the general paradigm of journalism writing (as reflected in excerpt 3), the personal nature of journalism writing and the involved discourse community conventions required some sophistication in the discipline as indicated in excerpts 3-5.

Effectiveness of the WAC Programme

The data focused on the perceived effectiveness of the WAC programme to communication and thinking development.

1. "I have seen a significant improvement in the organization of my stories from the first story to the last one." (Student D)
2. "I have improved my reporting skills, my journalistic style, and my organization in writing." (Student G)
3. "My use of English language and organization in writing has improved." (Student H)
4. "The students' English improved dramatically in the use of English writing skills. My students did better this year than last year." (Lecturer)

The usefulness of the WAC programme appeared to be positive for a wide range of writing components. Yet only a few students claimed that they benefited from the tutor for her disciplinary knowledge. No comment was received regarding the development of critical thinking skills.

Results of the Quantitative Data

The major focus of the quantitative data was to reveal the quantity, variety, and purpose of students' habitual revisions which were pertinent to students' attitudes towards and their performance of writing.

Quantity of Revision

In the 15 pieces of student writing, 593 revisions were located *(M = 39.5; SD* = 44.2). Individual differences were prominent, with the minimum number of

revisions in an article being three and the maximum being 154. Three pieces of writing (piece 6, 13, and 15) had a frequency of five revisions or below. Three students submitted an incomplete first draft (for piece 9, 14, and 15). These appeared to show either some misunderstanding of or resistance to process writing in the students' mind.

Variety of Revision

Among the four categories (i.e., syntactic, grammatical, word, and format revisions), syntactic revisions were the most frequent, followed by word, grammatical, and format revisions. The results obtained from ANOVA show that there was a significant main effect in the revision type, $F(3,56) = 2.863$, $p < .05$. Post-hoc *t*-tests show that all differences between categories of revisions were not significant, $p > .05$. These results suggest that the type of revisions influenced the revision frequency but the students did not focus on a particular type of correction. Statistical details of these four categories are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Statistical Details of the Four Categories of Revisions

	Syntactic revision	Grammatical revision	Word revision	Format revision
n	236	92	200	65
%	39.8%	15.5%	33.7%	11.0%
M	15.7	6.1	13.3	4.3
SD	17.95	8.49	14.40	5.74

The bivariate correlations among the four categories are shown in Table 3. All correlations were highly positive, ranging from ß = .759 to .914, and were significant, $p < .001$, indicating that these revision categories were interconnected. This interconnectedness suggests that students' ability in revising their various types of errors grew as a holistic repertoire. Students did not fixate on certain kinds of revisions but developed evaluation and editing skills which covered all four categories—syntax, grammar, word, and format.

Table 3

Bivariate Correlations Among the Four Categories of Revision

	Syntactic revision	Grammatical revision	Word revision	Format revision
Format revision	1			
Syntactic revision	.775**	1		
Grammatical revision	.911**	.759**	1	
Format revision	.914**	.805**	.925**	1

Note: $N = 15$, ** $p < .001$

Among all subcategories, stylistic changes in sentence rewriting were ranked the first in terms of revision frequency ($n = 93$ or 15.7%), with word choice for stylistic purpose being the second ($n = 76$ or 12.8%), and information addition at the sentence level the third ($n = 59$ or 9.9%). Other than these top three subcategories, it is interesting to note that contrary to what has been stated in the literature (Holt, 1997), no revision was made to subject-verb agreement.

Purpose of Revision

All 593 revisions were classified either as meaning-altering or meaning-conserving. Only 35.9% of the total number of revisions was meaning-altering with the remaining 64.1% meaning-conserving. Paired sample *t*-tests show that the difference between these two groups was not significant, $M = 11.13$, $t(1,14) = 1.69$, $p > .05$, indicating that students did not intentionally revise meanings in their texts. However, if the revisions involving sentence and word addition were discounted, only 21.2% of the revisions were meaning-alteration. There was no revision made to paragraphing and merely one revision in sentence transitions to change the original structure or idea. It appeared that students were not fully capable of revising their writing at the global level.

Discussion

The qualitative and quantitative data from different measures and from all parties seemed to converge. With respect to the sources of differences between the programme in Hong Kong and in the U.S., the tutor was found to face a set of unique challenges.

Table 4 summarizes the relationship between the sources of differences and the relevant challenges.

Table 4

The Relationship Between the Sources of Differences and the Challenges

Sources of differences	Specific challenges
1. The difficulties of writing in a second language.	The demand for integrated multilingual and metalinguistic expertise.
2. Cultural differences in basic educational assumptions.	The robustness of product-oriented, teacher-centered writing in students' mindset due to a focus on grades.
3. The logistical difficulties of programme implementation	The demand for discipline-specific expertise.

The Demand for an Integrated Multilingual and Metalinguistic Expertise

The first challenge unique to a WAC tutor in Hong Kong was a critical demand for an integrated multilingual-metalinguistic ability. Students suggested that the tutor be able to communicate with them in whatever languages they liked. The multilingual ability must be coupled with a strong metalinguistic awareness to understand and explain the complicated and, worse still, illogical mistakes of ESL or EFL learners in L2 writing, and how L1 intervenes with the whole writing process.

One of the representations of metalinguistic awareness needed by the tutor was the ability to discover the "tricks" in L1-L2 translation. This idea converges with the notion of translation as an L2 writing strategy (Liu, 2005). Liu has found that proficient L2 writers struggle more at the semantic level while unskilled L2 writers at the syntactic level when they translate. Similarly, Wang and Wen (2002) have suggested that both L1 and L2 are used in L2 writing; yet at what stages L1 is employed depends on the nature of writing tasks, the writing prompts, and the language proficiency of both L1 and L2. Understanding the influence of translation on L2 writing, the WAC tutor in the Hong Kong context had to exercise her metalinguistic knowledge in Cantonese, Chinese, and English and intervene at specific stages of writing in the process paradigm.

This challenge of the WAC tutor was partly overcome since the tutor had a diverse language background and had training in applied linguistics and second language writing. Nonetheless, the tutor had to cater to the individual needs of 21 students. The linguistic and cultural diversity of the student population might have negated the effectiveness of the WAC programme in the growth of communication and thinking repertoires (Foote, 1999). In addition, the lecturer's feedback regarding ESL students' difficulties in writing indicated that students' overall lack of English practice and weaknesses in reading, listening, and speaking negatively affected the development of writing skills.

The Robustness of Product-Oriented, Teacher-Centred Writing in Students' Mindsets

The second challenge of the WAC tutor was a deeply rooted mindset of students about writing. Process writing puts equal emphasis on the intermediate writing stages as on the final product. The writing-to-learn paradigm encourages students to think deeply about their ideas and the meaning of what they write. However, did the students in this study understand and act according to the philosophy of process writing? The first impression from the data yielded a negative reply. Some students were not selective in choosing the content for their writing and thus produced wordy articles. As reflected in the results related to the quantity of revisions of individual papers, some students did not plan well in their first draft and hence submitted a final draft with a lot of new information which the tutor did not have time to comment on. Others hardly revised their first draft.

Misunderstanding of process writing? The above findings were, at first sight, an outcome of students' misconception of what process writing was. However, the overall pattern of students' revisions told another story. Students did not fixate on a particular revision type. As Perl (1979) has argued, this phenomenon was a probable indicator of intermediate expertise in process writing as students did not correct and edit their work with strategies that reduced "the flow of composing without substantially improving the form" (p. 328). Furthermore, students produced a reasonable amount of meaning-altering (semantic) revisions in their final drafts. These semantic alterations, though not extensive, were unlikely to be made by students who failed to comprehend process writing (Hayes & Flower, 1986). Rather than attributing the sloppy writing behaviour of students to the limited understanding of process writing, it was posited that the existing concept of writing as a teacher-centred product in Chinese culture probably resisted the full operation of writing to learn and learning to write techniques.

Product orientation. Chinese students face pressure to produce a "perfect" final draft for their coursework (Koffolt & Holt, 1997). However, perfection means content

sufficiency to some Chinese students. The stress on content overrides the importance of organization and clarity. This writing concept lay not only in students' minds but also in those of teachers. Some faculty expect a polished piece, not inventive thinking (Foote, 1999). Poor writing quality is thus overlooked or even reinforced by some faculty as long as the students get the facts correct (Davis, 1985). The development of this expectation for content sufficiency can be traced back to the examination-oriented secondary schooling to prepare students for their matriculation examinations in which keen competition exists. To score, students simply have to regurgitate what they have learnt by rote without a clear presentation in their essays. This education culture produces a biased focus on the writing product.

Given the bias toward content sufficiency, the submission of incomplete first drafts and wordy final drafts flooded with new information yet with only a few global-level, meaning-altering revisions could be understood. Students wanted only a perfect shot which could, in their eyes, impress the appraiser most. Not given ample time for the perfect shot in the first draft, a few students produced one or two pages of writing which were "error-free" (again in their eyes) in both grammar and organisation. They did not amend these pages in the final drafts, even though the WAC tutor gave explicit recommendations for changes as these one- or two-page drafts were claimed to be perfect—"Tutor, I am just not given sufficient time for a full piece of work! Anyway, the first draft is not graded, right?" The failure to appreciate the less-is-more writing principle—to be concise and precise by being selective with content—was fully evident in the scarcity of revisions in information deletion at both the word and sentence levels in final drafts, as compared with the number of revisions in information addition. This resulted in lengthy articles with loosely connected ideas. This kind of product-oriented concept absolutely hindered the cultivation of the learning to write habits of the students.

Teacher as the centre of writing. For most Chinese students, the definition of perfection in content varies from appraiser to appraiser. Chinese students show much respect (Braine, 2003) and fear of teachers, and view them as the ultimate authority in the class and even in their own writing. The inclination to authority makes writing an act that is not an exercise in critical thinking but an act of repeating what the students think the professor wants to hear (Koffolt & Holt, 1997). Coupled with the product-oriented attitude and the dread of penalties related to grades in creating new but odd propositions which might offend the ideas of the faculty, students simply regurgitate the points the faculty utter and even the way the faculty organize and convey these points rather than demonstrating their own critical analysis. Thus, organisation, format, and even rhetorical connections are fixed in the first draft or even in the writing plan. This

probably explains why the writing to learn technique could not fully operate and students did not revise much at the global level in this study.

The Demand for Discipline-Specific Expertise

The third challenge of the WAC tutor was the demand for disciplinary sophistication. Advanced knowledge such as a sharp sensitivity to disciplinary trends and personal experience in disciplinary writing were sought after. Researchers demanding an integration of language and discourse conventions propound that teaching these two elements separately render learning ineffective (McLeod & Miraglia, 2001). However, what level of sophistication should the WAC tutor attain? Could a writing generalist not teach WAC even with a shortage of suitable candidates such as in the case of Hong Kong?

Chanock (2004) argues against the notion that WAC tutors should possess disciplinary knowledge. She demonstrates that a general paradigm of questioning should be sufficient in teaching WAC for all disciplines. The role of a writing tutor in this model is to teach students how to ask themselves useful questions with regard to the writing task. For instance, in the planning stages for idea generation and organization, the tutor may cultivate students' habit of asking themselves how the various topics covered in the course are related. This technique can be viewed as a research-like paradigm: "Academic communities engaged in the construction of knowledge through a cycle of questioning, research, critical reception, and further questioning" (Chanock, 2004, pp.28-29).

The WAC tutor practiced this interrogating model to develop students' internal ability to perceive problems in writing and thinking. For instance, the tutor once suggested that instead of asking the interviewees about their "feelings towards the tramcars," the student might ask them to describe "their memorable experience of riding on the tramcars" (RJ). Repeatedly asking informational questions allows more details to be obtained. From there, topics can be narrowed and content selected based on the writing plan. Despite this interrogating paradigm which can boost students' thinking skills, admittedly, the WAC tutor may still need more knowledge in journalism conventions (e.g., the use of quotes in a news article) in correctly marking students' coursework.

Effectiveness of the WAC Programme

Both students and the course lecturer were satisfied with the performance of the WAC tutor. Positive learning outcomes were observed. The quantitative figures showed that students developed a holistic pattern or ability in editing their work in a wide variety of language aspects. Although the level of meaning-altering revisions, an

indicator of writing expertise, remained relatively low and all students were unable to discover their mistakes in subject-verb agreement, this group of students benefited from WAC in Hong Kong.

Except overriding the deeply rooted product-oriented and teacher-centred writing concept, the WAC tutor was able to cope with most challenges with the employment of WAC techniques. It is of interest to note the following claim by McLeod and Miraglia (2001).

> WAC techniques that work well for native speakers do not work at all for ESL learners. Teachers in the disciplines who are told they do not need to know about grammar in order to use writing in their classes feel betrayed when faced with a non-native speaker's grammatical and syntactic tangles in a write-to-learn assignment. (p.12)

Considering students' robust mindset of writing which could not be immediately manipulated by the WAC tutor in this study, the above claim is not justifiable—the tutor did help the students produce better writing given the difficulty of changing the mindset of the students.

Conclusion

The paper describes how a unique set of challenges of a WAC tutor arose due to the differences in language, culture, and logistical factors between the WAC programme as implemented in Hong Kong and in the U.S. Challenges such as the demand for an integrated multilingual and metalinguistic awareness and discipline-specific expertise on the part of the tutor could be overcome with additional training or special pedagogical methods from cooperating faculty. Yet it is difficult to convince students of the benefit of writing to learn. The creation of such a new writing culture with the eradication of old mindsets is formidable. It takes much time for the WAC philosophy to be embedded in students' minds and, consequently, to influence their writing habits.

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Teaching Writing to Second Language Learners: Insights from Theory and Research

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Writing is one of the most difficult skills that second-language (L2) learners are expected to acquire, requiring the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competencies. As many teachers attest, teaching L2 writing is a challenging task as well. This paper aims to summarize the main findings of L2 writing theory and research concerning the nature of the writing competencies that learners need to develop in order to be able to write effectively in L2 and how instruction can help them attain these competencies.

What L2 Learners Need to Learn

Different theoretical orientations tend to focus on different aspects of L2 writing competencies and to emphasize the importance of learning and teaching them in different ways (Cumming, 2001; Hyland, 2002). Here I review findings from three orientations—text-focused, process-focused, and sociocultural—with the aim of answering the question, what do students need to learn to become effective L2 writers? The focus in this paper is on teaching writing for academic purposes to intermediate and advanced second and foreign language learners (e.g., English for Academic Purposes, EAP).

Text-oriented research sees L2 writing development in terms of the features of the texts that L2 learners produce. According to this orientation, to be able to write in an L2 effectively, writers need to learn the orthography, morphology, lexicon, syntax, as well as the discourse and rhetorical conventions of the L2. For instance, among the competencies that L2 learners need to attain to achieve proficiency in L2 writing are the ability to produce lengthy texts that have appropriate metadiscourse features (e.g., exemplifiers, connectives, hedges) and varied and sophisticated vocabulary and syntactic structures (e.g., see Buckwalter & Lo, 2002; Grant & Ginther, 2000), to employ different patterns of overall text organization (e.g., description, narration, argument), and to incorporate others' ideas and texts in their own writing effectively (Cumming, 2001).

Process-oriented research sees learning L2 writing as the acquisition of successful writing strategies. From this perspective, learning L2 writing is seen as the acquisition of both macro strategies such as planning, drafting and revising, and micro strategies such as attending to content and form concurrently and automatic searches for words and syntax (Cumming, 2001). For example, in their review of the literature, Roca De Larios, Murphy, and Marin (2002) list five major behaviours that L2 writers need to acquire:

> The ability to manage complex mental representations, the ability to construct rhetorical and organizational goals and hold them in mind while composing, the efficient use of problem-solving procedures in order to formulate their texts, the ability to distinguish between editing and revision as two different operations distributed in different stages of the composition process, and the adoption of a flexible attitude toward the use of rhetorical devices (p. 27).

It should be noted here that knowledge of L2 linguistic and discourse aspects, the type of knowledge that text-oriented research tends to emphasize, affects these processes. Thus, knowledge of these L2 linguistic and textual aspects allows writers to use their linguistic resources more fluently and to plan, draft, and revise more effectively (Chenowith & Hayes, 2001; Cumming, 2001; Sasaki, 2000).

Finally, sociocultural research sees writing development as the learning of the genres, values, and practices of the target community. This research emphasizes the role of context and audience in learning L2 writing. According to this orientation, proficient L2 writers are those who can "act effectively in new cultural settings" (Hyland, 2002, p. 60). Such writers go through a socialization process in which they learn the values (i.e., how to see, value, and do things), expectations, knowledge, and genres (i.e., what, how, and why to write) of their target communities, whether professional or academic (Parks & Maguire, 1999; Spack, 1997). This socialization process involves also adopting a new identity and conforming to the prevailing norms of the target community (Parks & Maguire, 1999). During this process learners master such macro features as the ability to tailor both information and the interpersonal aspects of the message to recipient needs and knowledge, and micro-discursive acts such as negotiating, formulating, and mediating (Candlin, 1999, as cited in Hyland, 2002; Cumming, 2002). For instance, Parks and Maguire's (1999) Francophone nurses, who learnt to write English nursing notes appropriately, and Spack's (1997) Japanese student, Yuko, who learnt the "American way" of writing at university, all internalized the rules of their L2 communities and underwent both individual development and shifts in self-image and identity (Cumming, 2001).

Obviously, full proficiency in L2 writing entails mastery of *all* the writing competencies and aspects mentioned above. The different theories and studies discussed above draw attention to the multiple competencies that students need to attain to be able to write in a second language effectively (i.e., what to teach). Given these findings, how can we best teach writing in the L2 classroom?

The literature suggests several instructional practices that may help learners attain the competencies outlined above. Process-oriented research emphasizes the importance of explicitly teaching effective writing processes. Text-focused and sociocultural orientations highlight the value of modelling target texts, with the latter orientation advocating a broader focus on text forms as well as the contexts, audiences, purposes, and functions of texts. The three orientations emphasize the importance of encouraging learners to engage in writing frequently and of providing them with useful and appropriate feedback and support. In addition to addressing the linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural aspects of learning, L2 writing teachers need to attend to affective factors as well. This paper, as a result, discusses also several strategies for generating and maintaining student motivation in the L2 writing classroom, such as holding positive teacher attitudes and expectations and promoting learner autonomy and self-assessment.

Process Modelling

Process-oriented research suggests that we can help students become more competent L2 writers by describing and modelling for them the processes and strategies that underlie effective writing (e.g., generating ideas, planning, drafting, and revising) and providing them with feedback on their performance until they are able to apply these processes and strategies independently and flexibly in relation to their goals and task requirements (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001; Cumming, 2002; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Hyland, 2002; Roen, 1989; Sasaki, 2000; Sengupta, 2000). As Roen (1989) has argued, "when [students] understand the processes in which effective writers engage, [they] will be better able to engage in them, recursively, on their own" (p. 199). One model that teachers can adopt to improve their students' writing and self-regulatory skills is Zimmerman and Kitsantas's (2002) four-step social-cognitive model which involves students in observing how a skill is performed, emulating or enacting the skill, using self-control to achieve automaticity in the skill, and developing self-regulation where students learn to adapt and transfer the skill to different contexts. In stage one, teachers can, for example, think aloud while responding to a writing task in front of their students or show their students videos of "coping models" (e.g., a student struggling to implement a writing strategy). In stage two, teachers can ask students to verbalize their thoughts while composing in a conference or in pairs and give them feedback on their writing processes and strategies. In stage three, teachers need to raise students'

awareness about their writing strategies and teach and model procedures to regulate these and other strategies (i.e., why and when to use them). As several studies have shown (e.g., see Devine, 1993; Kasper, 1997), extensive instruction, practice, and assistance with such self-regulation strategies as goal setting, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation (e.g., using checklists) have positive effects on students' L2 writing motivation, learning, and performance.

Text Modelling

Text-focused and sociocultural orientations highlight the value of providing explicit instruction about, exposure to, and practice of the target L2 texts. However, while the former orientation focuses mainly on text forms (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, organization), the latter advocates a broader approach that focuses on text forms as well as the contexts, audiences, purposes, and functions of these texts (e.g., see Feez, 1998; Flowerdew, 2000; Hyland, 2002, 2003; Paltridge, 2001).

As Hyland (2002) argues, such a broad approach can help students learn "strategies of engagement and response to a community's discourses" as well as "how to structure their writing experiences according to the demands and constraints of target contexts" (p. 81). This knowledge can be achieved through explicit instruction about *how* and *why* texts are written the ways they are, integration of reading and writing tasks that are related to the texts and contexts that the learners will have to deal with, and target text modelling. Text modelling involves introducing, negotiating, researching, modeling, and practicing the target text-types (e.g., reports, abstracts, proposals). The approach moves gradually from a teacher-centred mode (i.e., teacher modeling, analyzing, and discussing texts), to joint negotiation and construction of texts by the entire class, to peer discussion, to independent individual work when the learner attains the necessary knowledge and skills (Feez, 1998; Hyland, 2002). During this process, teachers can investigate the texts and contexts of students' target situations, encourage students to reflect on the writing practices of their target situations, and use group analyses of authentic texts in order to provide students with the necessary language to describe and discuss target texts. The use of authentic target texts and tasks in the L2 writing classroom can also help familiarize the students with different text types and rhetorical and linguistic conventions and strategies to realize different text stages, achieve cohesion, adopt appropriate tone, manage information flow, and achieve specific purposes (Hyland, 2002). Teachers should be careful, however, not to ignore the writing process and learners' experiences and not to give students the false impression that target text types are static and decontextualized, rather than dynamic and varied (Hyland, 2002, 2003; see also Feez, 1998; Flowerdew, 2000; Myles, 2002; Paltridge, 2001; Raimes, 1998).

It has been argued that text and process modelling are more effective when combined (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Hyland, 2002; Myles, 2002; Yeh, 1998). Yeh (1998), for instance, has demonstrated how combining explicit instruction about target text types (e.g., structures, content, functions, audience expectations, and criteria used to evaluate text) and practice (e.g., appropriate writing strategies, discussion, peer feedback, drafting) in the L2 writing classroom helps L2 learners acquire the necessary skills to write argumentative texts and empowers them by preparing them to function effectively in their target communities. As Myles (2002) argues, combining process training and text models in the L2 writing classroom connects strategic effort and outcomes and enables learners to use the new language as a tool in the process of becoming self-regulatory.

Audience Awareness

In addition to text modelling, sociocultural orientations emphasize the importance of raising students' awareness about target audience expectations. Hyland (2002), for example, maintains that "effective writing instruction involves guiding students to an awareness of their readers, and the interactional strategies, background understandings and rhetorical conventions these readers are likely to expect" (p. 83). Johns (1996) also emphasizes the importance of raising students' awareness about L2-speakers' expectations of topic organization and development so that students can produce coherent "reader-considerate" texts (p. 137; see also Reid, 1989). Beach and Liebman-Kleine (1986) add that teachers should encourage their students to think *as*, rather than *about*, readers when writing and help them develop schemata about readers and how readers read. This includes also raising students' awareness about L2 conventions concerning how to use others' ideas and texts in one's own writing and how these conventions differ across cultures (Casanave, 2004; Hyland & Hyland, 2001). To help students anticipate L2 readers' needs and expectations, teachers can discuss with their students the expectations of L2 audiences and how these expectations differ from those of readers in other languages such as those of the students. They can also ask students to research real audiences and to write to different audiences. Other strategies to help students develop audience awareness include integrating reading and writing skills and tasks in the classroom, using reader think-aloud protocols of students' texts, and encouraging students to imagine reader attributes and use those attributes in creating hypothetical rhetorical contexts and assessing their own texts accordingly (Beach & Liebman-Kleine, 1986; Cumming, 2002; Hyland, 2002; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Johns, 1996; Reid, 1989).

Feedback

In addition to modelling and raising students' awareness about L2 writing processes and conventions, teachers should provide learners with constructive feedback on their L2 writing (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). As Casanave (2004) cautions, however, research findings concerning feedback practices are mixed. While some studies (e.g., see Fazio, 2001) found no significant effects, others (e.g., see Ferris & Roberts, 2001) reported positive effects for correcting students' errors. In addition, while some practitioners (e.g., see Elbow, 1996; Leki, 1992) argue against correcting students' errors if we want to encourage students to write fluently and help them build confidence, others (e.g., see Myles, 2002; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) argue that feedback is necessary because students expect it and it improves accuracy. Roca De Larios, Murphy, and Marin (2002) point out that research suggests that the development of accuracy and complexity in the use of the L2 appears to not be amenable to explicit instruction and is probably more dependent on the acquisition of higher levels of L2 proficiency. Ferris and Roberts (2001), on the other hand, found significant positive effects for both explicit and implicit error correction on students' texts. Qi and Lapkin (2001) also found that "noticing," or drawing learners' attention to such areas as lexis, grammar, and discourse, has a positive impact on their L2 writing.

The mixed findings outlined above about feedback effectiveness concern mainly teacher comments on form (i.e., grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics). There is less disagreement about the value of feedback on content (e.g., ideas, coherence, use of others' texts, but see Ashwell, 2000) and on writing processes and strategies. Zimmerman and Kitsantas (2002), for example, found that social feedback on writing processes (i.e., feedback given to a learner by others about his/her writing performance) promotes both learning and motivation. This seems to suggest that we need to accustom ourselves to responding to L2 learners' writing as *readers*, rather than as language sticklers.

We also need to consider how and when to provide feedback. It is important to provide feedback on work in progress to help students understand how they can perform the writing task (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Williams, 2003). This feedback should be neither so detailed that it overwhelms L2 writers and discourages substantive revision, nor so sketchy that it leads to surface text modifications only (Myles, 2002). Myles also warns that the effectiveness of teacher response may depend on students' levels of motivation, current L2 proficiency, cognitive style, learning experiences, and attitudes to teacher and class, as well as the clarity of the feedback itself (e.g., see Hyland, 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Teachers need also to be sensitive to issues related to text ownership. Cumming (personal communication, February, 2004), for example,

emphasizes the importance of nurturing students' ownership of (and pride and identity in) their writing when helping them by ensuring that students, themselves, take the primary responsibility for what they want to say and how to organize it.

Finally, in order to enhance the effectiveness of feedback, teachers can encourage learners to discuss, analyze, and evaluate feedback, discuss why it is given, and how it is intended to affect their writing. Teachers can also reformulate a student's draft and then discuss and compare the reformulated and original drafts in the class. Another strategy to enhance the effectiveness of feedback is to use such tools as revision and editing checklists to help students develop self-correction and self-revision strategies (Ashwell, 2000; Hyland, 1998; Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Myles, 2002; Qi & Lapkin, 2001). Teacher-student conferences can provide another effective tool for teachers to identify, discuss, and address students' problems, provided that students do most of the talking, only a small number of points are dealt with at a time (e.g., most serious and/or common problems), and teachers adopt "a *questioning* strategy that directs students' attention to features that need improvement" (Williams, 2003, p. 149; Cumming, 2002). As Williams argues, questioning "engages students in the processes of critical inquiry and problem solving that are essential to continued improvement in writing performance, because they are discovering things about their writing for themselves. As a result, the revisions they make are *their* revisions, not the teacher's" (p. 150).

Frequent Practice

The three theoretical orientations suggest also that we can help students learn L2 writing by providing them with opportunities, support, and encouragement to write frequently even before they master the necessary skills. Chenoweth and Hayes (2001), for instance, found that fluency in writing increased as the writer's experience with the language increased. As a result, they argue that in addition to guiding students to practice effective writing strategies, teachers need to give students many opportunities to practice L2 writing, so that processes such as lexical retrieval can become more automatic (e.g., see Myles, 2002). Integrating reading and writing and encouraging students to read and write extensively in and outside the classroom can provide opportunities for practice, help raise students' awareness about the conventions of L2 texts, and compensate for the often short time of instruction (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). Another strategy to support and encourage students to write frequently is to use writing workshops, where students are actively involved in researching, talking, and writing about texts (Williams, 2003).

Motivating Students

Motivating students to write frequently can be a tricky task, however. As Hyland (2002) emphasizes, teachers need to attend to both cognitive and motivational factors in the L2 writing classroom. Motivational factors include learners' beliefs about the nature and importance of writing, the differences between L1 and L2, their attitude to the L2, and about their writing competence, which in turn influence learners' engagement, effort, and learning in the L2 writing classroom (Dornyei, 2001; Victori, 1999). Teachers need to be aware of these affective factors and to help their students become more motivated. Motivation should help learners want to increase their practice time and to set new writing goals for themselves (Dornyei, 2001).

The motivation literature suggests several strategies and techniques that teachers can use to create and maintain learner motivation in the L2 writing classroom (Dornyei, 2001). First, teachers should identify and discuss learners' writing experiences, beliefs, needs, and goals with the aim of rectifying misconceptions (e.g., that writing is a gift) and enhancing positive attitudes towards writing. Second, teachers should help students see themselves as successful writers by providing them with positive experiences with writing activities; emphasizing that they can be successful in these activities through their own efforts; praising them on work well done; and helping them "start seeing themselves as writers, [rather than as students], who can get things done with written discourse" (Williams, 2003, p. 121). Williams warns, however, against "hollow praise" which "applauds students whether they succeed or fail and which, consequently, leads many students not even to try" (p. 128; cf. Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Third, teachers should ensure a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom where the students can feel safe and trusting (Dornyei, 2001). Fourth, as Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) have argued, teachers should take the different backgrounds, experiences, and expectations that students bring to the writing classroom into account when selecting teaching materials and approaches, developing reading and writing assignments, constructing assessment instruments, and providing feedback. Fifth, the reading and writing tasks and activities used should be meaningful, relevant, and varied in terms of content and genre. Finally, teachers should be explicit about the goals of the learning and assessment tasks they use, provide learners with clear goals and strategies to make writing tasks manageable, and allow students choice (Cumming, 2002; Dornyei, 2001; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Hyland, 2002; Raimes, 1998; Williams, 2003).

Teacher Attitudes and Expectations

An important set of factors in the L2 writing classroom relates to teacher attitudes and expectations (Dornyei, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Williams, 2003). Williams

(2003) cites research indicating that sound teaching methods could fail to produce significant improvement in performance if the teachers do not believe that they can make a difference in the classroom and/or view students as having little or no competence. As Proctor (1984) has argued, to be effective, teachers must:

a. Feel good about teaching and about students;
b. View class work as meaningful and important;
c. Believe that they can influence student learning;
d. Expect student progress;
e. Accept accountability and show a willingness to examine performance;
f. Plan for student learning, set goals, and identify strategies to achieve them;
g. Develop joint ventures with students to accomplish goals; and
h. Involve students in making decisions regarding goals and strategies.
(Cited in Williams, 2003, p. 127)

Furthermore, teachers should hold appropriate, high expectations and take a firm position on them in the classroom. Citing Vygotsky's notion of the *zone of proximal development*, Williams (2003) argues that "students should always be expected to perform beyond their comfort level" (p. 130). For example, teachers should insist on papers that are totally free of surface errors (e.g., spelling) because students often have time to revise repeatedly. Teachers should also insist that students rewrite their texts in response to feedback they receive from them and from their peers.

Learner Autonomy and Self Assessment

Another strategy to both motivate learners and help them become more competent L2 writers is promoting learner autonomy and self-assessment (Dornyei, 2001; Myles, 2002; Ross, Rolheiser, & Hogaboam-Gray, 1999). In first-language writing, both Foster (1996) and Huot (2002) have argued for the value of student self-assessment as a powerful tool for the development of learner motivation, autonomy, and writing ability. Huot (2002), for instance, encourages teachers to engage their students in *reflective writing* (writing about one's own writing) and *self-assessment*, which, he contends, can enhance learning, effective revising, and the ability to respond to others' feedback. By engaging students in self-assessing their own work, Huot argues, we make them aware of what it is they are trying to achieve and how well their current drafts match the linguistic and rhetorical targets they have set for themselves.

For L2 writing, Ross et al. (1999) report that students who received training in self-assessment became more accurate in their self-evaluations and performed better on narrative writing than those who did not receive such training. Myers (2001) also

shows how encouraging students to reflect on their texts and writing processes, using journal writing and guided questionnaires, helped them identify their writing strengths and weaknesses, become more conscious of their writing processes, and achieve autonomy.

Promoting learner autonomy can be achieved by gradually delegating responsibility to students (i.e., increasingly moving from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred mode), and enhancing the self-assessment skills of students (Myles, 2002). Teachers can teach students self-assessment by demonstrating to them various self-assessment and problem-solving strategies. Teachers can, for example, develop scoring guidelines with students so that students know what to look for and expect from teacher assessment of their work. Or they can encourage and help students develop and discuss (with teacher and/or peers) specific assessment criteria for each piece they write. Another strategy will be to encourage students to apply discussions of writing quality to their own texts. Teachers can also use student-teacher conferences to discuss texts of students that they identify as strong or weak (Foster, 1996; Huot, 2002). Elbow (1996) suggests another strategy, teacher "liking" of student writing, to promote student motivation, self-assessment, and learning in the writing classroom. Elbow contends that people need first to like their texts to improve them, as "only if we like what we write will we write again and again by choice—which is the only way we get better" (p. 210). As Elbow emphasizes, the role of the teacher is critical in this process, as "we learn to like our writing when we have a respected reader who likes it. Therefore, it's the mark of good teachers to like students and their writing" (p. 214).

Conclusion

Learning and teaching writing in a second language are very challenging tasks, not least because of the myriad of affective, linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural factors involved. The goal of this paper has been to review L2 writing research and theories to draw out some practical pedagogical implications about what writing to teach and how to teach it to L2 learners. Several teaching practices have been suggested. Teachers need to raise learners' awareness about successful writing processes, L2 reader expectations, and L2 linguistic and textual conventions. They need also to support learners by providing them with models, clear and specific learning goals, meaningful contexts to practice writing, carefully structured activities, clear presentation of materials, useful feedback, encouragement, and high standards. Finally, teachers need to promote learner autonomy in and outside the L2 writing classroom. It is hoped that this paper provides a set of potentially useful insights and suggestions from which teachers can select according to their actual priorities and concerns and the characteristics, needs, and

composition of their students. As Hyland (2002) has repeatedly emphasised, "fundamentally, writing is learned, rather than taught … the teacher's best methods are flexibility and support" (p. 78).

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Conference Announcements

JALT CALL. June 1-3, 2007. "CALL: Integration or Disintegration?", Waseda University, Topkyo, Japan.. Web site http://www.jaltcall.org.

Applied Linguistics Association of Australia. July 1-3, 2007. "Making a Difference: Challenges for Applied Linguistics," University of Wollongong, NSW Australia. Web site http://www.uow.edu.au/conferences/ALAA/home.html.

EUROCALL. September 5-8, 2007. "Mastering Multimedia; Teaching Through Techonology," Coleraine, Northern Ireland, United Kingdom. Web site http://www.eurocall-languages.org.

AMEP National Conference. October 4-6, 2007. "Changing Identity: Changing Needs," Mooloolaba Centre, Sunshine Coast Institute of TAFE, Queensland, Australia. Telephone 61-2-9850-7592, Fax: 61-2-9850-7849, E-mail amep@nceltr.mq.edu.au. Web site http://www.nceltr.mq.edu.au/conference/index.html.

AMEP Research Centre. October 5-7, 2007. "Cultures of Learning," Central TAFE, Perth, Australia. Contact AMEP Coordinator, AMEP Research Center, NCELTR, Macquarie University, North Ryde 2109, Australia, Telephone 61-2-9850-7592, Fax 61-2-9850-7849, E-mail amep@nceltr.mq.edu.au. Web site http://www.nceltr.mq.edu.au/conference/index.html.

Independent Learning Association. October 5-8, 2007. "Learner Autonomy Across the Disciplines," Kanda University of International Studies, Chiba, Japan. E-mail garold-murray@aiu.ac.jp. Web site http://www.independentlearning.org.

MEXICO TESOL. November 8-11, 2007. "Where To From here?," World Trade Center, Veracruz, Mexico. E-mail nationaloffice@mextesol.org.mx. Web site http://www.mextesol.org.mx.

Word Association: Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition and Instruction

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In the field of second language (L2) acquisition, much effort has been given to grammar, phonology, and syntax rather than lexicon although L2 lexical learning is a basic and probably the most significant part of L2 acquisition. However, the situation is quickly changing. Some researchers have begun to focus their interests on L2 lexicon study from different perspectives such as L2 vocabulary development (Henriksen, 1999; Jiang, 2000, 2004), the importance of word-meaning awareness (Jullian, 2000), L2 word learning strategies (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 1990), retention (Ellis & He, 1999; Newton, 1995), bilingual mental lexicon (Dong, Gui, & MacWhinney, 2005), and even gender differences in L2 vocabulary learning (Catalán, 2003). In recent years, researchers have realized that lexicon is the driving force in sentence production. Without vocabulary, one cannot express thoughts and communicate with others either textually or orally (Levelt, 1989). Vocabulary is also critical in comprehension because lexical information helps determine syntactical relationships (Altman, 1990, cited in Gass & Selinker, 2001).

The major task of second language lexical research is to discover how L2 learners acquire vocabulary. Word association is one means of measuring L2 vocabulary acquisition (e.g., see Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003; Meara, 1978; Schmitt, 1998; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Zhang, 2003) because it signifies a complete knowledge of lexicon (Nation, 1990). One important study, by Meara (1978), investigates the lexical associations produced by learners of French. The author found that learners tended to produce rather different associations from those of native speakers of French. For instance, native speakers (NSs) primarily give paradigmatic (e.g., the animal paradigm: *man—woman, boy, child, dog*) or syntagmatic association (e.g., the syntactic structure: *brush—teeth; hold—hands; bank*—robber) associations based on semantic factors. However, nonnative speakers (NNSs) tend to give responses based on phonological similarity known as clang responses. That is, NNSs may produce words such as *plafond* (*ceiling* in English) or *professeur* (*professor* in English) to the stimulus English word *profound*.

According to Meara, NSs' mental lexicon is mainly organized on semantic lines, and "words of similar meaning or words that have the same range of convenience are

stored in such a way that they readily evoke each other" (p. 208). In the case of L2 learners, however, the organization of mental lexicon is different because the semantic link is not well established. L2 mental lexicon has a close connection with the learners' first language (L1) and L2 learners may depend on L1 translation for L2 vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, Meara stated that L2 learners "make use of the form of words rather than their meaning" (p. 208). Gass and Selinker (2001) second Meara's claim and state that a possible interpretation of this phenomenon is that L2 learners have not constructed the network of relationships necessary for fluent word association in their L2. Zhang's (2003) English word association experiment at a Chinese university demonstrated that Chinese native speakers gave a number of clang responses as well as some random responses even though these Chinese participants were English-major advanced learners. Zhang's study results replicate Meara's claims.

Green and Meara (1987) examined visual processing strategies for letter searching in both L1 and L2, and found that all three groups of subjects (Spanish, Arabic, and Chinese) used visual search strategies remarkably similar to those used in their respective L1 when performing the task in their L2. This finding indicates that L2 learners, to some extent, utilize the orthographical cues in their L2 lexical processing. Schmitt and Meara (1997) tried to investigate word associations by Japanese learners of English, especially word associations and their relationship with verbal suffixes. Without surprise, the authors found that the ability of producing associations was related to suffix knowledge as well as the vocabulary size and the English proficiency of the learners.

Jiang's (2000) psychological model of L2 vocabulary acquisition gives a clear explanation of why these types of word association responses are found in L2 learners. According to his model, L2 vocabulary acquisition needs three stages: the formal stage when a lexical entry with formal (phonological and orthographical) specifications is established, the L1 lemma (semantics and syntax) mediation stage when the lemma information of the L1 counterpart is copied into the L2 lexical entry and mediates L2 word use, and the L2 integration stage when semantic, syntactic, morphological specifications are integrated into the lexical entry (p. 47). He further explains that "due to the practical constraints imposed on L2 learning, many L2 learners fossilize in their vocabulary acquisition during the second stage," and "the integration of the lexical entry becomes difficult" (p. 47). In this sense, L2 learners tend to learn a new word through paying attention to the form rather than to the content of the lexical entry.

L2 learners, adult learners in particular, tend to rely on their L1 vocabulary system because the meanings of L2 words are already established and stored in their minds. Thus, when learning L2 vocabulary, using L1 translation to comprehend the meanings of the L2 words seems easy to L2 learners because they only need to memorize their L1

counterparts. Hence, Jiang determines his claim that only when L2 learners reach the integration stage can they produce phonological, semantic, and syntactical word associations. The fact that L2 learners pay less attention to the meaning of L2 words may be a main cause of fossilization during the second stage. This can also be a possible reason why some studies (e.g., Meare, 1978; Schmitt & Meare, 1997; Zhang, 2003) report that L2 learners produce some phonological association responses and why word association is closely related to learners' L2 proficiency.

Although a number of studies have dealt with word association, and pointed out that clang (phonological) association is one type of response besides the paradigmatic and syntagmatic association, few studies, except Green and Meara's (1987), have explored whether L2 learners also produce other types of responses such as orthographical association (form-related responses). There is no study closely examining other possible types of responses by L1 learners either. Thus, this study aims to find out, first, whether L2 learners produce other types of responses. It hypothesizes that because of the L2 vocabulary acquisition stages, some significant differences between NSs and NNSs will be found with word association: paradigmatic responses (e.g. *doctor—nurse)* and syntagmatic responses (e.g. *doctor—white*) will occur most frequently with NSs whereas NNSs will produce both phonological and orthographical responses and some random responses with semantic responses being the most common. Second, the study aims to find out whether NSs will produce other types of responses besides the commonly known semantic responses, including paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations.

Method

Participants

A total of forty-six ($N = 46$) subjects chosen at the researcher's convenience from Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP) including 21 NSs and 25 NNSs participated in this quasi experiment (see Table 1). In the group of NSs, nine were male and 12 were female from different disciplines. They were working on their degree studies from bachelor to doctoral levels. Their ages varied from 20 to 59. In the group of NNSs, the total participants were 25, including 12 males and 13 females from different disciplines. The NNSs were from China ($n = 10$), Europe ($n = 3$), Korea ($n = 3$), Japan ($n = 3$), the Middle East ($n = 3$), Thailand ($n = 2$), and Indonesia ($n = 1$). Among them, three were undergraduate students and the rest were graduate students. The paper-based TOEFL scores of the NNSs ranged from 550 to 660 out of a total possible of 677. In addition, they displayed a range of 3 to 9 on a self-rating of English proficiency, with 1 representing minimum proficiency and 10 representing native-like proficiency. Their

ages varied from 22 to 51. All of the NNSs reported that they started learning English at the age of 11 to 14 years old and their average period of English learning was more than ten years. Their length of residency in the United States or other English-speaking countries ranged from 5 months to 4 years.

Table 1
Participants

Group	Age	Gender		Total Number
		Male	Female	*N* = 46
NSs	20-59	9	12	21
NNSs	22-51	12	13	25

Instrument and stimuli

A total of 51 stimuli (see Appendix 1), including three practice words (*moon, doctor, dark*) and 48 experimental words, were employed in this experiment. Each participant was asked to write down their first word response when seeing the stimulus word. Each stimulus word was presented for about 10 seconds so that the participants could have enough time to write down the first word which they associated with the stimulus. After data collection, the researcher randomly interviewed some NSs and NNSs in small groups in order to find out why they produced certain responses and to ensure the researcher correctly categorized their responses for further analysis.

The stimuli were a set of common words. The main criteria for choosing these stimulus words is that, first, the stimuli were common words that the participants would be familiar with; second, the stimuli would stimulate the participants to associate without difficulty. Also, some words were prepared purposefully to examine whether the participants would produce phonological/clang associations or orthographic/form-related associations. For example, the stimulus *fork* was chosen to see whether Korean participants would produce clang associations. In the Korean language system, since there is no voiceless fricative /*f*/, Koreans usually produce the voiceless bilabial /*p*/ instead of the voiceless fricative /*f*/. In this vein, when a Korean reads the stimulus *fork*, unconsciously he or she probably will be thinking the word *pork* due to the influence of Korean phonology. If so, then some possible responses

might be related to the word *pork* rather than to the word *fork.* At the same time, the stimulus *fork* may also stimulate some orthographical responses, such as the word *folk*. One specific stimulus worth mentioning is the stimulus word *flue*. The investigator intended to use the stimulus *flu*, but due to a typing mistake, the stimulus became *flue*, a new word to NNSs and unfamiliar or unusual to some of the NSs. Therefore, the responses to this stimulus would not be predictable.

Procedure

Because it was hard to find a period of time available to all participants, the experiment was conducted in different classes before or after class time, at the IUP library, or at the participants' apartments with either only the NSs or the NNSs or both the NSs and the NNSs. The researcher first explained the purpose of the study to the participants, and then had them decide whether or not to participate in the experiment. After they signed the consent form, each participant was asked to fill out the demographic information (see Appendix 2) before the experiment. On the experiment sheet, places were provided for the three practice words, and each response word with corresponding numbers so that the participants could write down their responses with the help of the numbers (see Appendix 3).

The 51 stimuli were presented by the researcher using 51 white flashcards. The stimulus was printed in the middle of each flashcard using bold faced 72 font type. During the experiment, the researcher presented the stimuli one by one holding each flashcard for about 10 seconds in order to give the participants time to write down their responses. In order to help the participants be familiar with the process and guide them to respond in an appropriate way, the directions and three words were prepared for the participants to practice before the experiment started. The experiment lasted about 10 to 20 minutes depending on each participant's language proficiency. Needless to say, the group of NSs spent less time than the NNSs group in reading and responding. The NNSs needed at least 15 minutes to complete the experiment while the NSs took less than 10 minutes. Therefore, more often than not, the NSs needed to wait for the NNSs when they did the experiment together.

Data collection and analysis

The original convenience sample size was 53; however, after carefully reviewing the data, the researcher found that seven participants' responses were not valid due to one of the following reasons: 1) the participants made either an incomplete response or just copied the same stimulus as their response, 2) the participants provided incomplete or vague personal information (e.g., one participant marked that her native language was both Malaysian and English), 3) the participants gave either more than one response or

a phrase, not a one-word response, and 4) the participants' English proficiency was not high enough (e.g., the TOEFL scores were under 550). Thus, 46 out of 53 participants' responses were valid for categorization and further statistical analysis.

The word association responses by the 46 participants were classified into three types: 1) semantic association, including paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations, 2) nonsemantic associations, including clang (phonological-related) and orthographical (spelling-related) associations, and 3) random or other types of associations. Take the stimulus *pan* as an example, responses such as *cook, fry, egg*, or *kitchen* to the stimulus *pan* were categorized as the semantic type of association; however, if the responding words were *pen* or *pain*, they were labeled as the nonsemantic type of response; the third type, random or other association words, were those that had no connection with the stimulus word. For instance, it is hard to figure out what the connection was between the responding word *skill* not the word *skillet* to the stimulus *pan*. Some further interviews for the clarification of some responses helped the researcher categorize the responses accurately.

Because of the different numbers of participants in the two groups, the total number of the responses is different. The NNSs group produced 1200 (n = 48 x 25) responses and the NSs group produced 1008 (n = 48 x 21) responses. The data were interpreted and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Science program (SPSS 12.01 version for Windows). The independent samples *t*-test was used in order to get the results of the response types in each category as well as to compare the differences between the two groups.

Results and Discussion

The statistical results indicated that although the total number of responses produced by the group of NNSs was larger than the NSs group, the NSs produced more semantic associations and fewer nonsemantic and random or other types of associations than the NNSs did (see Figure 1).

Overall, both the NNS group (88.92%) and the NS group (98.12%) responded mainly with semantic associations. First, the NNS group produced 1067 semantic associations out of the total of 1200 while the NS group responded with 989 semantic associations out of the total of 1008. Second, the portions of nonsemantic and random or other types of responses by both NNSs and NSs were comparatively small. The NSs produced only 1.19% nonsemantic responses and 0.69% random/other types of responses. In contrast, the NNSs produced 7.73% and 2.75% nonsemantic and random/other types of responses respectively (see Figures 2 and 3).

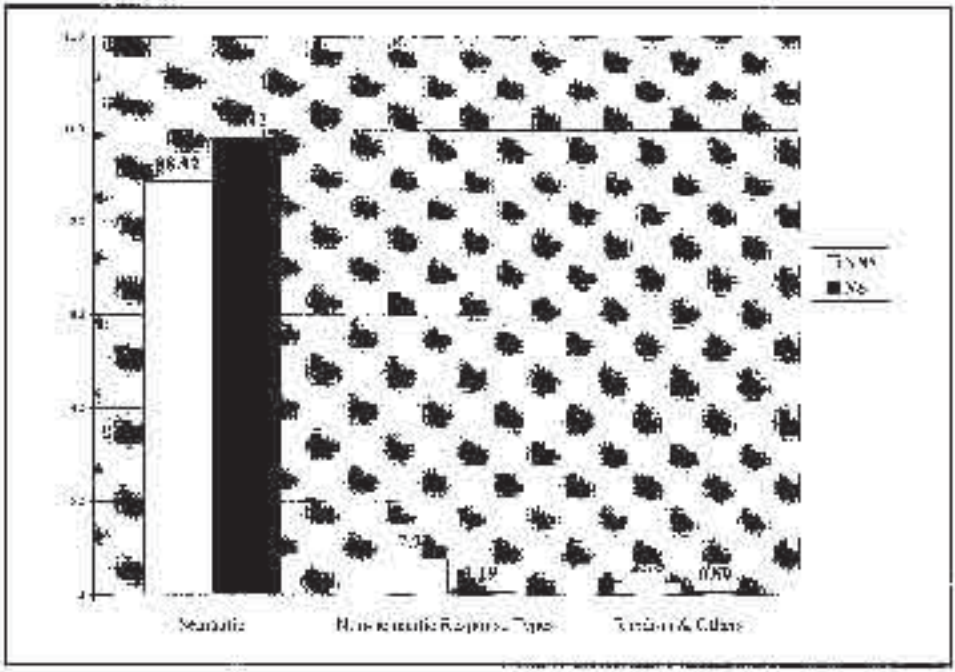

Figure 1: Percentage graph of word association types by NSs' and NNSs'

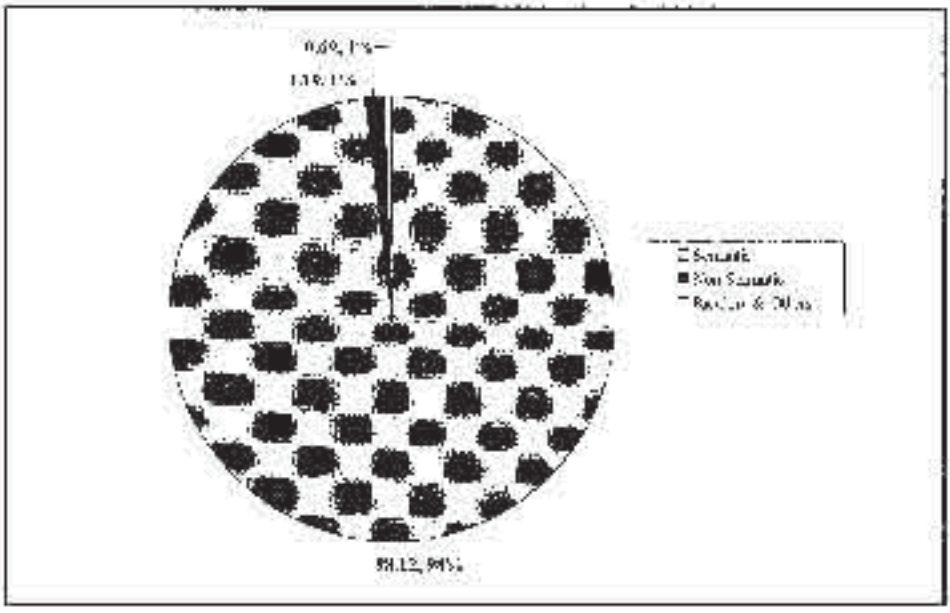

Figure 2: NSs' response types in percentage

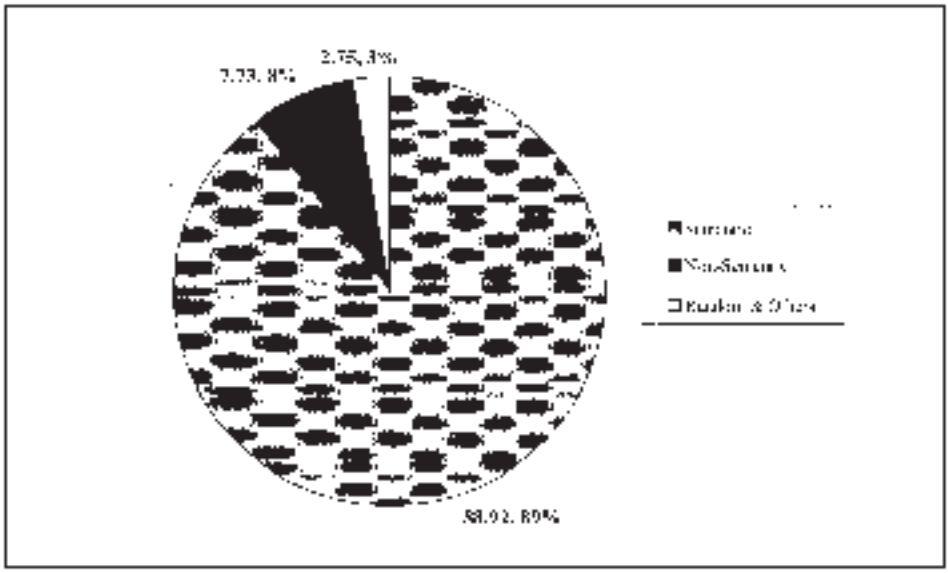

Figure 3: NNSs' response types in percentage

Furthermore, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the semantic responses produced by both the NS and the NNS groups. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups in producing the semantic type of responses in word association, t (26) = 5.136, p < .05 *(p* = .000). The NS group (M = 47.09, SD = 0.70) produced more semantic responses than the NNS group (M = 42.68, SD = 4.23). In addition, the independent samples *t*-test was also conducted in comparing the nonsemantic responses between the two groups and the statistical results indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups' responses to the nonsemantic word associations, t (25) = 4.312, p < .05 (p = .000). The NSs produced much fewer nonsemantic responses (M = .571, SD = .507) than the NNSs (M = 4.00, SD = 3.94). Similarly, the independent samples *t*-test also found that the two groups were significantly different in producing random or other types of responses, t (32) = 3.046, p < .05 (p = .005). The NS group (M = .33, SD = .57) produced much fewer random or other types of responses than the NNS group (M = .32, SD = 1.49). The results (see Table 2) indicated that NSs mainly produced semantic word associations while NNSs produced other types of responses besides the semantic associations even though the semantic type of response occurred most often.

Table 2

Independent Samples t-test Results of the Three Types of Responses

Responding Types		Mean	Standard Derivation	*p-value
Semantic type	NSs	47.095	.7003	.000
	NNSs	42.681	4.230	
Nonsemantic type	NSs	.5714	.5071	.000
	NNSs	4.000	3.937	
Random/Other type	NSs	.333	.5774	.005
	NNSs	1.320	1.49	

*$p < .05$

Obviously, both NSs and NNSs produced the semantic type of responses to the stimuli even though the two groups also produced other types of responses. However, the study also found that NNSs who had high English proficiency indicated by TOEFL scores above 650 and who rated their proficiencies as near native-like could produce an equal amount of semantic associations as NSs. For instance, three advanced NNSs were found to be able to produce 46 or 47 semantic associations, which were equal to the amount of NSs' production of semantic associations. This finding is in line with Namei's (2004) claim that "responses of proficient learners are comparable to those native speakers" (p. 366). Similarly, based on the participants' TOEFL scores, their self-rated language proficiency scores, as well as the types of their responses, the researcher could easily notice that the vocabulary size seemed to be small for the less advanced learners.

Following this vein, if the vocabulary storage is not large enough, NNSs then tend to produce fewer semantic associations and more nonsemantic or random associations. In other words, NNSs are able to produce semantic associations if the stimulus is a common or familiar word to them; on the contrary, once the stimulus is unfamiliar or less frequently used, or the meaning of the stimulus is unknown, they may produce other types of responses. For example, the word *kiwi* could be an uncommon word to some NNSs; some responses to this word were *Hi-Fi*, *Hawaii* or even *kawa*, indicating that these NNSs did not know the exact meaning of *kiwi*. This finding supports the belief that word association is closely connected with learners' vocabulary size and language proficiency (Schmitt &

Meara, 1997) as well as their word knowledge and the frequency of the word use (Greidanus & Nienhui, 2001). That is, the more extensive vocabulary size and the higher proficiency the learner has, the more semantic association he or she produces.

The results also clearly indicated that culture and discipline as well as one's native language phonology could influence the participants to make different associative responses. Take the stimulus *commit* as an example. Most of the NNSs produced semantic associations such as *do* or *crime* as well as nonsemantic responses such as *committee*, while most of the NSs produced the word *marriage* because this association was culturally constructed as were the responses of *sweep* and *Santa Claus* to the stimulus *chimney*. Moreover, the researcher also noticed that the Japanese participants wrote *bitter* rather than *sweet* as their response to the stimulus *chocolate*. It was hard to understand whether Japanese chocolate tastes bitter or their culture believes that chocolate is bitter rather than sweet. Whatever the reason, this finding is indicative of cultural specificity, too. As for discipline-related word association, one student majoring in accounting semantically responded *gross* to the stimulus *net*, and computer science people associated the word *computer* with the stimulus words *bug* and *mouse*. These results demonstrated that the type of association sometimes is closely tied to people's cultural backgrounds and their academic fields.

Apart from the cultural and discipline influences, NNSs' responses were influenced by their L1 phonology. For instance, two Korean participants responded *meat* and *dumpling* respectively to the word *fork*. Because some Koreans have difficulty telling the difference between the fricative labiodentals */f/* and the voiceless stop */p/,* thus, they produce these two sounds interchangeably. Due to the phonological influence of their native language, */fork/* might be pronounced as */pork/*. Thus, it is easy to figure out why these two Koreans associated *meat* or *dumpling* with *fork*. This analysis was later proved by the Korean participants through the interviews. Similarly, in the sound system of Chinese, there is no phonological counterpart to "*th*", thus some Chinese often produce the */s/* sound instead of the /θ/ or /∂/ sound in words with "*th*" letters. Following this vein, then the responding word *mouth* as an association to the stimulus *mouse* could be understood. Due to the influence of Chinese phonology, the word *mouth* is often mispronounced as */maus/*. Therefore, the word *eat* was found as the response to the stimulus *mouse.*

To identify whether the response was clang or orthographic was one of the questions of this study. It seemed hard to differentiate the two subtypes based on the responses. However, the fact that NNSs made associations depending on the word pronunciation and spelling was confirmed through the interviews. For example, the NNSs produced words such as *pain*, *pen*, *van*, and *ban* to the stimulus *pan*; *folk* to the stimulus *fork*; *nest* to the stimulus *net*; and *bag* or *beg* to the stimulus *bug*. All the

responses were minimal pairs with the given stimuli, and the spellings were also similar to each other in each pair. In this sense, it is hard to tell whether the response was clang or orthographic. Nonetheless, in some cases, it was easier to differentiate. For instance, the responding word *Chinese* to the stimulus *chimney*, or *dessert* to *desert* could be identified as orthographical, a form-related response whereas such responses as *sheep* to *sheet*, or *cheers* to *chairs*, or *kitchen* to *chicken* were probably phonological responses. Similarly, some NSs also made clang or orthographical responses. For example, the responding word *enough* to the stimulus *cough* was considered a phonological response while the responding word *cheerios* to the stimulus *cheers* was considered an orthographical response.

To differentiate between the two kinds of subtypes of responses is indeed complicated with certain responses such as the words *mouth* or *eat* to the stimulus *mouse*, and *industry* or *agriculture* to *industrious*. Apparently, *mouth* to *mouse* and *industry* to *industrious* were clang associations because they were minimal pairs. However, investigating such responses as *agriculture* to *industrious* and *eat* to *mouse*, the possible interpretation to their responses, determined through interviews, was that some of the participants just mistook the stimulus words *industrious* and *mouth* for the words *industry* and *mouse*. Thus, they produced *agriculture* and *eat* respectively. From this perspective, because the words *industrious* and *mouse* share similar forms of the words *industry* and *mouth*, the associations that the participants produced could be influenced by the stimulus words' orthography rather than their phonology. Moreover, the researcher believed that the word *industrious* might be unfamiliar to some NNSs and they simply thought the word *industrious* must have a connection with the word *industry*. These examples confirm that it is hard to neatly separate the clang from the orthographical associaton. It is a mystery whether they can be identified independently if another different set of stimuli were used.

Interestingly, both NNSs and NSs made nonsemantic or random types of responses to the stimulus word *flue*. A close examination of the responses of the NSs revealed that among the 21 NSs, three of them wrote the word *flu* as their response, which has the same phonological and a similar orthographical relation to the stimulus; another six wrote *cold*, *sick*, *fever* in responding to the stimulus word *flue*, responses which are closely associated with the word *flu*; two of them wrote *wow* and *hah* as their responses, which can only be categorized as the third type of response. Although many of the NSs wrote *fire* as the responding word, obviously the word *flue* is unfamiliar or strange to the NSs. Thus, they made various types of responses.

As for the responses by the NNSs, none of them made a semantic association including the few advanced learners whose TOEFL scores were above 660 out of 677. Moreover, none of them realized the word *flue* was not the word *flu*. They

misunderstood the word *flue* as *influenza*, and most responses were *sick*, *illness*, *cold*, as well as some random type of responses. One of them produced the word *music* as a response. The possible reason was that he might have mistaken *flue* for *flute*, the musical instrument. Therefore, based on all these responses, the study indicated that when producing association with an unfamiliar word, both NSs and NNSs tended to depend on phonological or orthographical clues rather than semantic clues because there was no semantic link stored in their brains. The result of word associations to the given word *flue* seconded a claim that NSs and NNSs may produce irregular or clang responses to low-frequency and unfamiliar words (e.g., Namei, 2004).

Another type of response produced by the NNSs to the stimulus words that needs further examination are compound words such as *carpool* and *butterfly*. Some NNSs responded *car* or *pool* to the stimulus *carpool*, and *butter* or *fly* to the stimulus *butterfly*. Although the researcher classified the responses of *car* and *fly* as the semantic type because of the semantic connection to the stimulus words, and put the responding words *pool* and *butter* into the nonsemantic type, it was still hard to conclude whether the responses of *car* and *fly* were not influenced by the orthography and should be categorized as the nonsemantic type of response. Further investigation of the compound words is necessary because even the participants themselves were not able to clarify their answers.

In addition, an interesting finding which is beyond the researcher's expectation was that the NSs' second language might unconsciously influence their association. To be specific, some of the NSs produced the word *bread* to the stimulus *pan* which could be interpreted as the use of a pan to heat bread. However after the interviews, the researcher realized that the word *bread* means *pan* in Spanish, and they associated a translation with the stimulus. Another similar example was that one native speaker wrote a Spanish word *siesta* (*nap* in English) to the stimulus *sleep*. Unfortunately, these responses could only be classified as the third type of response not the first two types. That one's L2 may have an impact on word association is a new finding and worth further research.

Conclusion

The results confirm the hypothesis that NNSs produced more types of word association besides paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations and clang associations, and indicate that there is a significant difference between the NSs and the NNSs in all three types of association. Overall, the NSs produced more semantic associations than the NNSs, while the NNSs produced more nonsemantic and random or other types of associations than the NSs. In addition, there are other types of associations such as the orthographical association produced by the NNSs. The study clearly demonstrates that

first, lower level L2 learners gave fewer semantic but more nonsemantic and random associations than the higher level L2 learners. Second, one's native language phonology, culture, and academic discipline influence word association to some extent. Third, the NSs produce other types of association rather than semantic when facing unfamiliar words as the NNSs do. In other words, unfamiliar words evoke nonsemantic and/or random associations by both the NNSs and the NSs. Moreover, if native speakers have a second language, their associations may be influenced by their second language.

Undoubtedly, this study has some limitations such as the sample size of the participants, the choice of the stimuli, and the experimental environment (the NSs and the NNSs sometime were tested together). Due to these factors, the results might be inaccurate to some degree. However, the major findings confirm that L2 learners' vocabulary acquisition is different from that of L1 learners' because L2 learners need time to combine the form, phonology, and meanings of a word step by step in order to make an association with a given stimulus. This also indicates that L2 learners are in the continuum process of interlanguage development. Semantic development in L2 is a process of gradually mapping L1 meanings into the L2 and then gradually developing L2 meanings and meaning structures. That is, L2 learners have a word-knowledge continuum which L1 learners do not because they acquire a word mainly through meaning. However, the difference can be lessened over time with the increased proficiency of L2 learners (Coady, 1993).

Pedagogical Implications

This study offers some pedagogical implications in L2 vocabulary instruction. To begin with, instructors need to pay attention to the meaning instruction of L2 vocabulary. In other words, teaching words in isolation is not effective; teaching word form and word meaning together is appropriate and crucial in L2 vocabulary acquisition. Second, since the study found that L2 learners use phonological and orthographical cues in vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Koda, 1988, cited in Coady & Huckin, 1997; Green & Meara, 1987; Jiang, 2004; Zhang, 2003), L2 vocabulary instructors need to motivate the learners to associate the meanings of a new word to its spelling (orthographical form) and pronunciation. That is, when teaching vocabulary, instructors should teach the form, meaning, and pronunciation of a word together as a package rather than teaching only one aspect of the word. Activities such as recalling the form of the new word as well as listening to and reading aloud the new word might be helpful (Nation, 1990). Third, L2 learners should be allowed to acquire L2 vocabulary with the help of their L1 lexical knowledge because it is already established and stored in their brains. However, instructors must also realize that apart from the facilitative influence, using the L1 may be interruptive in L2 vocabulary acquisition. Thus, explicit vocabulary instruction

seems very significant. Fourth, because beginners or low-proficiency learners may store words in memory on the basis of sound and spelling rather than by association of meaning due to the limited extent of their vocabulary, teaching the relationship of sound and spelling seems important and necessary at the beginning level. Then, gradually teachers need to help learners improve other aspects of word knowledge with the increase of their language English proficiency. In addition, improving reading skills and learning vocabulary within a meaningful context are effective for learners' vocabulary building and growth.

More importantly, the study indicates that different learners apply different vocabulary learning strategies. For example, some L2 learners may find it difficult to differentiate words with similar forms or meanings; others, however, may be good at memorizing vocabulary through the means of semantic association. Instructors, thus, should realize the differences and determine appropriate strategies to meet the needs of the learners at different levels. To be specific, if learners tend to produce associations depending on the form of words, instructors should avoid teaching words with similar forms. Further, instructors need to be aware that for lower level learners in particular, teaching new words with similar or closely related meanings together can be problematic or dangerous (Nation, 1990; Tinkham, 1993) because vocabulary taught in semantic groups may confuse learners and hinder their vocabulary retention (Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003; Folse, 2004).

However, once learners are familiar with the words, teachers may think of the semantic association as a mnemonic means to helping learners retain these words (Nation, 1990), and teach words in groups based on a theme or topic (Cohen, 1990). On the other hand, other learners, such as advanced L2 learners, may prefer to acquire and memorize new words through associating them with semantically similar words because word development is an incremental process, and new words are not learned independently from knowledge of other words, rather, they are "interrelated and heterogeneous" (Scott, 2005, p. 71). Thus, the appropriate way of teaching words is directly using the mnemonic technique to present semantic sets. Moreover, whatever strategies are used, direct and explicit vocabulary instruction is necessary to L2 learners besides incidental learning.

Although the study leaves some unsolved questions for further investigation, it shows how L1 and L2 mental lexicons are different and how L1 and L2 learners acquire vocabulary in different ways. In addition, the study reveals how individuals differ in their vocabulary acquisition. Thus, it is necessary for language instructors to bear these differences in mind and adapt appropriate strategies in their vocabulary instruction.

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Appendix 1

Stimuli of Word Association Experiment

Part I: Words for practicing: 1) moon _____ 2) doctor _____ 3) dark _____

Part II: Words for experiment:

pan	dress	weather	bridge	kiwi	sheet	pillow	food
sink	chimney	nest	sword	carpool	frog	barrel	fork
basketball	principal	flue	mouse	industrious	light	jury	dessert
bug	web	sleep	soldier	hungry	commit	net	parking
butterfly	cheers	fish	needle	sandwich	horse	sauce	bitter
connect	quiet	cough	vote	calcium	kitchen	noise	camp

Appendix 2

Demographic Information of Participant

Put checkmarks or write down your answer in the spaces provided below.

1. Current Degree Program: _____ BA/BS _____ MA/MS ____ PhD ____ Other
2. Gender: ____ Male ___ Female
3. Age: _____
4. Native Language: _____

If your native language is not English, please continue answering the following questions.

5. TOEFL scores _____
6. At what age did you start learning English? _____
7. How long did you study English in school and college? _____ (years/month)
8. How long have you been in this country? _____ (year/month)
9. If you have been to other English-speaking countries, how long did you stay there?

_____ (year/month)

10. Rate your own English proficiency on the following scale by circling the numbers:

	minimal ----------									near-native
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Listening	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Reading	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Writing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Appendix 3

Word Association Responding Sheet

Directions: Please write down the first word that comes into your mind in the given spaces one by one when you read the presented word. The researcher will leave 10 seconds after presenting each word so that you can write down what comes into your mind. The first 3 are for you to practice the procedure. The real experiment will consist of 48 words.

Practice: 1_____ 2_____ 3_____

Now the experiment begins:

1. _____	2. _____	3. _____	4. _____	5. _____
6. _____	7. _____	8. _____	9. _____	10. _____
11. _____	12. _____	13. _____	14. _____	15. _____
16._____	17. _____	18. _____	19. _____	20. _____
21. _____	22. _____	23. _____	24. _____	25. _____
26. _____	27. _____	28. _____	29. _____	30. _____
31. _____	32. _____	33. _____	34. _____	35. _____
36. _____	37. _____	38. _____	29. _____	40. _____
41. _____	42. _____	43. _____	44. _____	45. _____
46. _____	47. _____	48. _____		

Tips for Teachers

Finding an Overseas English Teaching Job

Jimmy Crangle, World TEFL School, Bangkok, Thailand

Have you wanted to travel or live abroad? Are you intimidated by the process of finding a job or relocating to a country that you have not visited before? Fortunately, if you are a qualified ESL or EFL professional, you do not need to be intimidated. A growing number of ESL/EFL positions are available worldwide, but there are not enough English teachers to fill them. If you want to teach abroad, you are pushing at an open door.

The plan outlined below can make it possible for a qualified candidate to find an overseas teaching position. A qualified candidate is a native or near native English speaker who holds a TESL/TEFL certificate or degree from a recognized institution. The importance of obtaining formal training in TESL or TEFL cannot be emphasized strongly enough. It is becoming increasingly difficult to secure a decent teaching job in most countries without such training. The old assumption that if you can speak a language, you can also teach it, is now widely regarded as false. So, if you have the requisite English skills and TESL/TEFL training, you can find a teaching job abroad, often in ten days or less, by following these ten steps.

Step 1: Decide where you want to go.

Reasons for wanting to teach in a particular country, or countries, will be many and varied. It may be somewhere you have always wanted to visit or one that you know well and want to settle in for a while. It may be a place that presents a challenge or has personal significance for you. Whatever your chosen country, and whatever your reason for going there, you will find receptive pupils who are willing to learn and who will be grateful to you for teaching them English. It is no exaggeration to say that many will remember you for the rest of their lives.

Step 2: Book a flight and room.

The Internet and your local library have many sources of information about budget flights and cheap rooms. However, you may not always want to pick the cheapest option. Comfort and security are as important as the price. Book a room for one night. Once you are there, you can see other options and perhaps negotiate a good monthly rate. If your destination requires a visa, travel on a tourist visa. When you find a job, your employer should be able to arrange for your work permit (see Step 9).

Step 3: Prepare the materials you need to sell yourself.

Put together a professional résumé or curriculum vitae before leaving. Include copies of your TEFL certificate, college or university transcripts, any other relevant certificates or diplomas, and a summary list of the specific TESL/TEFL courses or workshops that you have taken. Many institutions will ask for a recent photo when you apply, so take a supply of 12 or more pictures with you.

Most employers will also ask for references. Arrange these before you leave. Former employers, teaching colleagues, and co-workers make the best references. Ask each to write a brief letter addressing your work as a teacher and to leave the letter undated so that you can use it into the future. Each letter should also include an address, phone number, and e-mail address where the writer can be contacted. If you do not have any relevant teaching experience, ask your TEFL trainer to write a reference about the skills you have learned in your course.

Take at least two paper copies of all these documents with you in a protective case. Where possible, save everything in your e-mail account, and keep a back up copy in your e-mail folder or on a memory stick.

Step 4: Pack nice clothes.

Unfortunately, some employers may be more concerned by your appearance at your interview than by your qualifications. Dress conservatively. For men, this generally means a shirt, tie, dark pressed trousers, and polished shoes. For women, a long dark skirt, white blouse, and covered shoulders are probably best. Avoid the temptation to wear clothing or jewelry that may be interpreted as setting a bad example for the students that you may be teaching.

Step 5: Arrive and hit the ground running.

If possible, ask your hotel to pick you up at the airport. Alternatively, book a taxi from the taxi desk inside the airport arrival hall. You might pay a bit more than bargaining on the street, but it is safer and less troublesome. On the first day in a new country, this can save you some anxiety. It is best not to search for a job on your first

day. Instead, take a stroll, locate an Internet café, and let your body and mind adjust to the new environment. Unpack your interview clothes, and if necessary, find a laundry service to have them ironed. Hang up your clothes, polish your shoes, and check your résumé. Finally, relax.

Step 6: Buy a mobile phone.

Prospective employers will want to call you. They will not be impressed by your professionalism if you ask them to leave a message at a hotel or guesthouse. It is best to get a mobile phone with a local number. In most places, mobile phones are cheap and easy to find. Before leaving the shop, ask the staff to switch your language options to your native language.

Step 7: Find your job.

Although these are not the only possibilities, the three most common means of locating a job are with an Internet search, through the local newspaper, and walking in.

Using the Internet

Visit www.eslcafe.com, the primary Internet site for teaching jobs around the world. Scan the job listings and copy any that sound promising. E-mail a cover letter and your résumé to each employer. It may be better to paste the résumé into the body of your e-mail message rather than attaching it as a file as many schools will not open attachments. Be sure to send individual e-mail messages to each potential employer. Employers do not respond well to applicants whose messages show that they are sending a blanket message to many recipients.

In your cover letter, tell the school that you are currently in the country and are interested in a position immediately. This will greatly increase your chances of a quick response. Keep it short, but ask the school to look at your résumé and to consider inviting you for an interview. End the letter with your phone number and e-mail address. Later, follow up your e-mail with a phone call to the school or program director. Check your e-mail messages often, and respond to inquiries right away.

Using local newspaper(s)

Go to a newsstand or coffee shop and look through English language or local newspapers. Sit down and scan the classifieds. These almost always contain help wanted ads for English teachers. Circle them and immediately call those that list phone numbers. Mention that you meet their requirements and that you are interested in a position. If possible, arrange an interview. E-mail any contacts that you could not reach by phone. Beware of unscrupulous agency ads, which are usually easy to spot by their vague offers.

Walking in.

This can often be the most effective way of finding a teaching job. Spend a day or two visiting local private language schools. Put on your best business clothes, and carry multiple copies of your résumé, transcript, reference letters, and photos. Compile a list of 4 to 6 schools and visit them. In my experience, this is the most effective way of job searching.

Walking into a school will help you grow more comfortable talking to employers if they call you back for an interview later. Greet the receptionist; ask to talk to someone about a teaching position, and hand him/her a copy of your résumé. Always smile and show enthusiasm. You may get an interview and a job offer on the spot. This happens more often than you would ever believe. However, do not be discouraged if nothing happens right away.

Step 8: Prepare for the interview.

If you have followed Steps 1-7 carefully, the invitations for interviews should begin rolling in. Make sure you get a good night's sleep so that you look rested and alert at your interview. Dress smartly, but conservatively, for an interview, even if you are applying for a temporary or casual post. In fact, dress like a sales executive. After all, you are selling yourself. In some settings, employers may be more concerned by your appearance, smile, and enthusiasm than they are by your qualifications or work experience.

Step 9: Consider your job offers.

Do not automatically accept the first job you are offered. Examine the contract carefully, and ask questions including these:

a. How many hours a week will I be teaching? [Over 25 is too many.]

b. Will you arrange for a work visa? [They should.]

c. Will you help me find an apartment? [They should.]

d. What will be my salary? [This varies greatly depending on the setting.]

You might also ask whether the school provides orientation or training with their teaching methods or can arrange for some peer observations. If possible, talk to other teachers at the school, and confirm that they are treated well and paid on time. Sign the contract when you are satisfied, but only when you are satisfied.

Step 10: Sign the contract.

Congratulations. Wherever you are, you will be teaching English to grateful pupils in a fascinating country as well as embarking on a fulfilling and life changing experience.

Some Caveats

The ten steps outlined above will enable you to find a teaching job anywhere in the world. With careful planning, a little organization, and a neat appearance, it is relatively easy to find a job within ten days of arriving in a new country. On the other hand, there are some pitfalls that you want to avoid.

1. Do not attempt to teach English without a TESL/TEFL certificate or degree.

Any assumption that you can teach a language based solely on the fact that you can speak it is a false one. The time and money that you spend earning your TESL/TEFL credentials will be well worth it later. If you do not possess the proper degree or have limited teaching experience, consider applying first for only part-time positions because the interview process is less rigorous. If you obtain the part-time position and are able to prove yourself to be competent or better, your employer will soon forget about your weak credentials.

2. Do not write to schools before leaving home.

Unsolicited written applications from afar are often a waste of time and lead to disappointment on the part of the school. In many parts of the world, the pool of teachers who are locally available is adequate. Similarly, sending your résumé or CV to every school in the local Internet directory will probably not yield positive results. For one thing, most ESL schools do not have the time or personnel to go through dozens of e-mail inquiries a day, knowing from experience that the teacher they select will probably accept a position elsewhere. Many ESL/EFL schools have lost count of the number of times they have read, “Due to some family/personal problems I will not be able to take up my position. . . .” This is why my advice is to get on a plane, fly to the country of your choice, and search once you get there.

3. Do not assume that all of your students are beginners.

One of the biggest mistakes novice language teachers make is treating all ESL students as beginners. Often, your students will have been studying English for several years. They will come with questions; you should have strategies for answering them. Learning how to teach grammar and handle difficult questions is part of a strong TESL/TEFL training program.

4. Do not let your students down.

Most foreign students are desperate to learn English, and their classes may be costing them a small fortune. It is important that you establish a reputation for integrity. Without it, you will have nothing of value as an outsider in their country. They are not fooled about their teachers' motivation. If a teacher is unenthusiastic or interested only in his/her paycheck, they will quickly spot it. But, they will be equally quick to recognize a good teacher who can make a difference to their education and their lives. The gratitude they will have for you and your hard work will likely exceed anything you could experience as a teacher at home.

5. Do not be timid.

Nervousness is normal. You will inevitably have some butterflies in your stomach as you set off, but if you are enthusiastic and genuinely care for your students, the world truly is your oyster. Once you are settled, you will quickly discover opportunities for further personal and professional development that you probably did not foresee.

About the Author

Jimmy Crangle has extensive experience teaching English as a foreign language throughout Asia. He now resides in Bangkok, Thailand, where he works as a marketing consultant for a number of TEFL schools around the world. Feel free to email him with any comments, suggestions, or questions at: jimmyc@thailandexperience.com

Making Written Feedback Work

Ruth Ming Har Wong, The Hong Kong Institute of Education

Motivating learners who take English as a compulsory subject is difficult. It is complicated by the fact that techniques that work well for some learners do not work well for others. However, I have discovered a technique that addresses a problem faced by many ESL and EFL teachers—getting students to pay attention to and apply the suggestions or advice in comments that they have written on student papers. I call my solution "written feedback only."

No doubt you have noticed student responses when we hand back writing assignments that have both a grade and written comments. Usually the first thing they look at, and sometimes the only thing, is the score or grade, not the comments that we have so thoughtfully composed. In order to change students' responses to my comments on their papers, I have experimented with an alternate form of giving feedback, one that is more consistent with the writing process than what I was doing before. I no longer give grades on writing assignments until my students have revised their work making use of my written comments.

This technique works especially well for students who are extrinsically motivated. They pay greater attention to my written feedback now because they must make use of it. They also appreciate the opportunity to improve their work by revising it. The grade appears only on their revised work. Here are the steps that I follow.

1. Read student papers and give written feedback only.
2. Return work with comments to students.
3. Allow time for students to read comments and ask questions.
4. Allow time for students to revise their work.
5. Give grade on revised work.

The procedure ensures that students see revision as a necessary part of the writing process. They respond well to what they perceive as an extra chance to improve their grades. Finally, the procedure also helps me consider very carefully the feedback that I give my students.

About the Author

Ruth Ming Har Wong is a teaching fellow in the Department of English at the Hong Kong Institute of Education. She has been teaching ESL learners of different age groups since 1993. Her research interests include second language teaching and learning, language arts, and learning motivation.

College Writing: English for Academic Success

Review by Zuzana Tomaš
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COLLEGE WRITING: ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC SUCCESS. Series Editors: Patricia Byrd, Joy M. Reid, and Cynthia M. Schuemann, 2006, Boston, MA. Houghton Mifflin Company, $26.07 per volume.

The *College Writing* series successfully complements the other three Houghton Mifflin *English for Academic Success* series (Reading, Vocabulary, and Oral Communication). The series targets second language writers in North American academic settings, but could be easily adapted in first language and EFL contexts. It comes in four volumes: low intermediate, intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced. The student book is accompanied by *Essentials of Teaching Academic Writing,* a helpful resource for writing instructors.

The *College Writing* series promotes a logical, step-by-step approach to mastering academic writing. The topics and skills are carefully arranged by a gradual increase of difficulty in each successive chapter and volume. This does not mean, however, that the topics and skills in the four volumes are not reviewed. In fact, unlike some other materials, which avoid returning to skills already taught, *College Writing* excels in revisiting areas that tend to be challenging for second language writers. For example, paraphrasing is first introduced in volume 2, and then returned to with more detailed information in volumes 3 and 4.

The series encourages revision and (peer) editing. The authors' belief that it is essential to continue to develop grammatical knowledge while focusing on the improvement of academic writing skills is evident throughout the series as each chapter contains a grammar focus carried out in a variety of sentence and paragraph level exercises.

Additionally, the series stands out in setting clear objectives at the beginning of each chapter and in allowing students to assess the attainment of these objectives. This practice focuses students' attention on the most important points raised in the chapters and helps them develop the ability to analyze their performance critically.

Finally, the *College Writing* series surpasses other textbook series in terms of authenticity. The reading passages that model various writing processes and skills are

selected from a variety of disciplines. Similarly, assignments are adjusted in ways that allow students from different fields to apply new information in contexts most relevant to their academic careers.

More information about the series can be found at http://college.hmco.com/flash/esl/hmeas/index.html

About the Reviewer

Zuzana Tomaπ is a Ph.D. student at the University of Utah. She teaches teacher training and ESL courses. She has presented on topics pertinent to academic writing at TESOL and AAAL. She is currently working on an academic writing activity book.

College Vocabulary: English for Academic Success

Review by John Macalister
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COLLEGE VOCABULARY: ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC SUCCESS SERIES. Series Editors: Patricia Byrd, Joy M. Reid, and Cynthia M. Schuemann, 2006, Boston: MA. Houghton Mifflin Company, $10.47 per volume.

Let's start with a couple of true/false statements.

1. Students without an adequate vocabulary struggle at university.
2. Some words are more useful than others.

If you think both are true, then read on. These books may be for you.

The four volumes of *College Vocabulary* form one strand of the Houghton Mifflin *English for Academic Success* series, which aims to prepare students for degree study (the other strands in the series are oral communication, reading and writing). The target vocabulary in these books is taken from the *Academic Word List* (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000), a list of 570 word families that occur frequently in tertiary level study. Knowing these words is, therefore, very important for such students and thus time spent directly studying them is time well-spent. *College Vocabulary* provides the materials for such study, with each volume dealing with a quarter of the AWL words.

Although each volume has a different author, the approach taken in each is similar. By and large, principles of vocabulary teaching are evident and successfully operationalized. Different aspects of "knowing" a word are covered, and words are presented in meaningful contexts. Attention is paid to the importance of repeated encounters with a word, and typographic signals assist the student: a new target word is written in bold, a previously introduced target word underlined.

Another pleasing feature is that students are introduced to self-study techniques, such as dictionary use and flash cards. Furthermore, while the range of techniques is limited, different ways to use them are introduced at different levels. Many students may also appreciate the opportunities for further independent study provided through website addresses.

Apart from the fact that each volume contains a different set of target AWL words, the difference between these volumes is that as they span the four levels of the series,

College Vocabulary 1 is aimed at low intermediate and *College Vocabulary 4* at advanced. At first glance, the difference appears to be in the cognitive load of the "carrier topics"—"Libraries" at level 1, "Ethics" at level 4, for example. But an informal analysis of the words introduced at each level suggests that attention has been paid to dealing with the most frequent words from the AWL before the least frequent. That is as it should be.

So, who would find these books useful? They are most likely to suit students preparing for tertiary study in a supervised rather than an independent learning situation, and are clearly targeted at users of American English rather than any other variety. Furthermore, the many culturally-specific illustrative examples of the words in use suggest that the books are very probably intended for the U.S. market rather than learning environments elsewhere.

For teachers in that situation, however, these books demonstrate good vocabulary learning principles and will ensure that students know the words that are essential for tertiary study. The main challenge may be getting students to look past the rather drab monochromatic presentation of the material.

Reference

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(2), 213-238.

About the Reviewer

John Macalister is a lecturer at Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand, and has previously worked as a teacher educator in Namibia, Thailand, Cambodia, and various countries in the Pacific. His teaching and research interests include second language reading and writing, and language curriculum design.

Content-Based Instruction in Primary and Secondary School Settings

Review by Eun Hee Jeon
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CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL SETTINGS. D. Kaufman & J. Crandall, (Eds.), 2005, TESOL, $32.95 (member $24.95), ISBN 1-931185-17-4.

Kaufman and Crandall's edited volume entitled *Content-based Instruction in Primary and Secondary School Settings* is a useful reference for educators (including classroom language teachers, content teachers, curriculum developers, and school administrators) who are committed to pursuing their second and foreign language students' balanced language and content knowledge growth. The volume consists of three parts, each of which respectively focuses on the implementation of content-based instruction (CBI) in school settings, reflections on implementation processes, and finally issues concerning the pursuit of CBI in standards-based education settings.

In part 1, "Partnerships and Constructivist Notions in Content-Based Instruction," five case studies detail collaboration efforts among language teachers, content teachers, and school administrative staff at varying levels of education (i.e., primary, secondary, and tertiary) and in different subject areas (e.g., social studies, science). Part 2, "Reflection and Inquiry in Content-Based Instruction Professional Development," comprises four chapters that report on the impact of CBI approaches on curriculum and course design, student development, and school administration. In part 3, "Standards and Content-Based Curriculum, Assessment, and Professional Development," authors present case studies that largely highlight how CBI and assessment were successfully implemented while meeting the needs of existing, standards-based instruction frameworks commonly imposed by many U.S. states.

In addition to the succinct case studies, the strength of this edited volume is in its organization. Every chapter follows a consistent sequence of introduction, context, and further description of the case study setting. To wrap up each chapter, distinguishing features of the curriculum or course introduced in the chapter are presented. This, in turn, is followed by my personal favorite section, "practical ideas." As the name suggests, this section draws several important ideas from the discussed case study and

provides useful tips for readers contemplating a similar approach in their own teaching or curriculum development activities.

Another strength of this volume is its visual presentation of information. Easy-to-read tables and figures are used throughout most chapters; the tables and figures in many of the appendices provide micro- and macro-level information ranging from lesson plans and teacher training materials, to curriculum templates and a list of teaching principles. Overall, with its collection of quality case studies which showcase settings of the U.S. and around the world (e.g., Israel, Thailand, Uruguay). *Content-based Instruction in Primary and Secondary School Settings* would make a worthwhile investment for any educator searching for alternative approaches to language and content teaching.

About the Reviewer

Eun Hee Jeon is a PhD student in the Applied Linguistics program at Northern Arizona University. Her research interests include L2 reading fluency development, instructional L2 pragmatics, content-based instruction, and research methods.

TESOL Symposium on English Language Assessment

Kyiv National Taras Shevchenko University

Kyiv, Ukraine
Friday, October 26, 2007

Assessment in ELT is a very topical issue throughout the wider European community. The goal of the symposium is to discuss English language testing developments in the region and worldwide. More specifically, it will focus on effective ways to develop English language tests and assessment procedures in accordance with the national and international standards and practices.

The symposium will provide an opportunity for ELT professionals to discuss various approaches to language testing and explore language exam and test development, considering the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

For more information, visit www.tesol.org

Notes to Contributors

The *TESL Reporter* is a refereed semiannual publication of the Department of English Language Teaching and Learning of Brigham Young University Hawaii, and is dedicated to the dissemination of ideas and issues of interest to teachers of English to speakers of other languages worldwide.

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Reviews of recent textbooks, resource materials, tests, and nonprint materials (films, tapes, or computer software) are also invited. Potential reviewers who indicate a particular area of interest to the review editor will be contacted concerning recent titles in that area. Requests for review guidelines should be addressed to the review editor. Authors of published reviews will receive two complimentary copies of the issue in which the review is published.

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