TESL Reporter

Vol. 36(1) April 2003

ARTICLES:

TESL Reporter

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

Vol. 36, No. 1

April 2003

ISSN 0886-0661

A publication of the Department of English Language Teaching and Learning, Brigham Young University Hawaii.

TESL Reporter

Volume 36, Number 1 **April 2003**

Contents

Ageism in TEFL: Time for Concerted Action

Bill Templer
Lao-American College, Laos

> Ageism seems to be the last major demographic dimension of western social prejudice to have escaped significant self-reflective attention in popular media and academic discourses (Coupland, 1997, p. 44).

In social perception and everyday encounters, we all tend almost automatically to categorize other persons along three dimensions: race, sex, and age. Conscious or not, noticing these attributes drives our interactions with others. Although the social and behavioral sciences have given much attention to the stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination that arise from this in the analysis of racism and sexism, ageism—the "systematic stereotyping of and discrimination against people because they are old" (Butler, 1969)—has been relatively neglected. Indeed, scholars are just beginning to scratch the complex surface of this long neglected area of prejudice research (Wilkinson and Ferraro, 2002). Yet age bias, often unconscious or implicit, remains "one of the most socially condoned and institutionalized forms of prejudice in the world—especially in the United States—today" (Nelson, 2002a, p. ix). It frequently goes unchallenged and even unnoticed in many societies, may be reinforced by the media and can lead to various forms of overt and subtle discriminatory practices. McCann and Giles (2002, p. 188) conclude: "It is beyond question that ageism plays a particularly pernicious role in the workplace," where older workers are "the targets of ageist attitudes, ageist communication, and age discrimination."

The rapidly expanding global profession of TESOL, uniquely international in its spread, is not immune to ageism, especially in emerging patterns of hiring and employment practices in diverse areas of the planet. This paper seeks to spark reflection and dialogue by spotlighting and exploring some of ageism's distinctive manifestations in the ESL profession and beyond, suggesting a blueprint for action to uncover and reduce it in our workplaces. Moreover, the discussion and analysis of ageism in the English-speaking countries and within the diverse societies where we work—and the related problem of negative attitudes and patronizing or authoritarian behavior toward the *young* based solely on their age, termed "adultism"—should, I argue below, become part of the array of topics we deal with in our ESL classrooms

and syllabi. We need to encourage critical examination of the representation and "imaging" of age in films, the entertainment media and TV, literature, and society.

Five Pillars of Ageism in TEFL

Occupational Hazards

TEFL is especially susceptible to the abuses of ageism in the workplace. Its distinctive political economy of diverse job settings across the globe—coupled with low job security and high mobility by teachers—opens the doors to the effects of "cultures of age bias" in numerous national locales. Despite the planet-wide boom in the profession, ever more expatriate TESOLers in their late-40s and upwards who try to extend contracts or (re)enter the job market run up against prejudicial practices in recruitment and contracting: age and experience are disvalued, connected with an unspoken maxim that "more is less." In many corners of the international job market, EFL job-hunting at age 50 or 55 can often be a daunting task, qualifications notwithstanding. Once you reach 60 you may find your job applications go unanswered, as hiring practices in the field convey the message you are "ready for the scrap heap," "fading fast" or "best left to rest on the shelf."[1]

The Youthquake and EFL

The global spread of English is closely interwoven with consumerist youth culture and the special value of youthfulness permeating many of the societies and institutions where we work—and the attitudes of our students and superiors in the workplace. This may drive a pattern of preference for "enthusiastic, young" EFL teachers wherever available, whatever their combination of experience or its lack. Those in charge of hiring, especially at private schools, often believe that learners under the age of 30 want teachers under the age of 30, especially from abroad. This phenomenon is reflected in part in the mounting flood of barely qualified native-speaker teachers along TESOL's Pacific Rim and in Southeast Asia, whose "dynamism" may be one of their chief qualifications. Moreover, a number of the older practitioners in TESOL have been trained in linguistics, foreign languages and other fields, and entered TEFL at a time when there were far fewer specific degree and diploma programs. As a result, they may have extensive experience and publications, but do not possess a specific recent certificate like CELTA/DELTA or an academic degree with a major in EFL. That formal lack may be held against them when reentering a job emporium now filling with ever more young teachers armed with minimal but recognized TEFL qualifications. Such teachers are often cheaper to hire than experienced older candidates, and easier to fire. Indeed, there are few teaching professions where a one-

month intensive course (even via correspondence) and native fluency are considered sufficient basis to work as a language instructor in a private or state school or university. In this respect, TEFL may well be unique.

The Emergence of the Virtual Job Emporium

The growth of Internet job boards has radically transformed the employment market over the past four years, making it far easier for anyone seeking a position to be systematically informed about openings and apply online, a manifestation of the dense "global hypermedia environment" that has developed within TESL (Corbel, 2000). As a distinctively transnational field spanning the planet, the impact of this electronic revolution on the political economy of TEFL is especially powerful. At the least, it has served to lure growing numbers of experienced teachers back into the job market as they discover attractive options online, adding fuel to a sense of dissatisfaction with one's present position. How many seasoned older teachers of EFL who never thought seriously of venturing out onto the job hunt again have now been tempted to do so by an online vacancy posting, especially in East Asia, only to find they stand in a cyberline with half-a-hundred other applicants, most much younger?

The Iceberg of Discrimination: Subtle, Unchallenged, Invisible

The greater majority of discriminatory practices against EFL specialists over the age of 45 go unreported and undocumented, in part because of the opacity of hiring procedures in various venues and the subtlety of age discrimination in internal institutional practice. This is compounded in many places by restrictions intrinsic to being an expatriate "outsider" staff member, such as yearly contracts without job security, and the near total absence of adequate networking to expose manifestations of discrimination in the profession.

The Iron Ceiling

Moreover, mandatory age maximum limits of 55 to 60 in Saudi Arabia and along the Gulf, and of 60 in Thailand and a string of other countries badly in need of experienced TESOLers impose an absolute barrier to the more seasoned teachers in our ranks looking for a new post in dynamic markets—a form of arbitrary "institutionalized ageism" (Gillen and Klassen, 2000). Experience has shown that applications from older teachers over the mandatory age limit are normally discarded upon receipt, though there are always exceptions.[2]

Voices from the Field

Ageism would appear to be especially rampant in certain fast expanding EFL markets on the Pacific Rim—part of attitudes in the broader society and accepted practices in recruitment and staffing. Based on observations in South Korea, Robert Dickey (1998) of KoTESOL comments:

> My own personal perspective is that ageism and sexism in employment practices is rampant in Korea. Particularly in the language institutes that are catering to the (perceived) whims of the customer/student (and their parents!!!). At a university I worked at previously, the Dean was upset because someone he hired based on a photo and telephone conversation turned out to be not only 45 (which the Dean was aware of) but a bit greyer, and much, much heavier, than anticipated. This instructor's life was made pretty miserable, and furthermore, at the time for contract renewal, he was told in no uncertain terms that "his health" was the reason they couldn't rehire him. The argument I always hear from the employers is the "level of energy" needed to teach. This argument isn't reserved for those teaching children's classes.

Such impressions (and allusions to alleged "energy levels" or "state of health"), recently reconfirmed (Dickey, 2002), are undoubtedly but the tip of an iceberg, one that is growing as the profession expands and ages. Evidence is varied, though largely anecdotal. For example, a brief discussion of ageism on TESLJB-L listserv in late November 2002 yielded some interesting insights. In commenting on Japan, D. T. remarked that "you are out of the running for a full-time position at around 45 or 50 and in some cases 35 or over .... in general, Japanese universities don't really want foreign teachers to hang out too long, learn the ropes of the political in-fighting, and perhaps stick their noses into a system that does quite well without them" (TESLJB-L listserv, "discriminatory hiring practices," November 22, 2002). Another ESL teacher observed that numerous language education openings at tertiary level in Japan "actively advertise for younger applicants. There may be many reasons for this, thus we can not assume that ageism is totally to blame." The poster went on to note that employment activists in Japan have stressed that foreign teachers there are discriminated against "not only through ageist employment practices" but "through a lack of security in long-term commitment on the part of the employer" (T., TESLJB-L listserv, "discriminatory hiring practices," November 22, 2002). A British TESOLer noted: "I applied for a summer job in England (not Korea or Japan)—good old England. Where I hail from. Response— I quote, "Let me assure you that we do not practise age discrimination but, given your wide experience, we wondered how old you were." I coyly admitted to being in the mid sixties and she . . . never contacted me again" (G.V., TESLJB-L

listserv, "discriminatory hiring practices," November 23, 2002). We need to put such inside observations on more solid footing, gathering empirical data from within TESOL and elsewhere in the relevant national job market. In Japan, for example, a recent poll by the Tokyo-based Unemployed Workers Union found that "almost 60 percent of surveyed unemployed workers say they've experienced age discrimination while looking for a job" (*Mainichi Shimbun*, 2001).

Discriminatory Attitudes and Practices in the Corporate Workplace

Educational institutions and their employment practices are of course part of the broader market economy. One problem in TESL as elsewhere is what Maher terms "ageism by euphemism": "I've consulted on thousands of hires. Even in private, those doing the hiring never say "We only consider young candidates." Rather it's simply "We need employees to be energetic and vigorous," or "up on all the latest trends" or "able to relate to our customer demographic."[3] The language conceals the underlying bias. Yet observers such as Steinhauser (1998) stress that these exclusionary practices are actually counterproductive: "Such flawed corporate cultures are based on misguided assumptions. Today's older adults tend to be enthusiastic, fit, stable and confident in their skills-exactly the type of employees companies say they are seeking." Indeed, in a survey conducted by the National Council on Aging (1999), "employers described their older employees as high on dimensions of reliability, dependability, conscientiousness, loyalty, and stability" (McCann and Giles, 2000, pp. 169-170). Nonetheless, these practices persist and may be worsening. Writing about ageism in *Information Technology in the United States*, Joss (2001) notes: "One day you may look around the conference room to find you're the oldest person in the room. Everyone, including your boss, is younger than you. If the prospect of finding yourself the oldest kid on the block makes you wonder if your career may be in jeopardy due to your age, you're not alone." Negative bias regarding the performance of older employees runs deep: in a recent survey in the business world, 773 CEOs responded that "peak productivity" of workers was on average "around age 43" (Munk, 1999; see also Simon, 1996). When forced to "downsize" in the 1990s, the BBC laid off older staff workers and encouraged others to opt for early retirement (Plattman and Tinker, 1998). Diverse studies have shown that older job applicants in industry and business are repeatedly perceived by management as "more difficult to train, harder to place in jobs, more resistant to change, less suitable for promotion, and expected to have lower job performances" (Avolio and Barrett, 1987).

Toward a Profile of Aging in TESOL

One primary category of ESL Professional is the "nomadic TESOLer": a professional who has taught ESL over the years, moving from one institution and country to another, pursuing a career more horizontally then vertically, and who finds at 50 or 55 that further doors are suddenly slamming shut. He or she doesn't want to continue at the same institution, there are plenty of electronic job offerings, especially for "native speakers"; but their career may seem at an unexpected impasse, blocked from moving on, no matter how competent and experienced. A compounding factor is that such "wandering teachers," like many others with substantial experience in EFL, often lack the Ph.D, forcing them to compete in the largest and most fluid segment of the EFL market, language instructors. A second growing category are professionals with many years of teaching experience in ESL or other subjects at secondary or tertiary level in the U.S., Britain or Australia, perhaps in a non-tenurable position or as "contingent" part-time teachers with no job security, who have decided at mid-life to reinvent themselves, to "put their boots on" and seek an EFL post abroad. A third category are expatriate teachers who reach mandatory retirement age and are denied any extension by the ministry. A fourth group in this typology, also likely growing, are older teachers in their native countries who have "retooled," deciding to go into the expanding field of English teaching after an extended career in some other sphere. They can find themselves confronted with insurmountable age barriers in trying to land a job at schools and colleges in their own country, where even the age of 35 may be an official cut-off for new staff.[4] Commenting on hiring patterns in Korea, H. C. noted: "most Koreans (regardless of what area of work they do) applying for entrance level jobs (assuming their highest level of education is a bachelor's degree) have to be no older than in their late 20s" (TESLJB-L listserv, "discrimination in hiring," November 21, 2002).

Meanwhile, at the management end, the younger directors of studies or departmental chairpersons don't want competitors with more experience around—and may perceive a new colleague with 20 or 25 years in the classroom as a potential threat to their authority. They may also prefer to have frequent turnover in their staff from abroad, what is termed the "fluid bottom," so that few expatriate teachers can "settle in" longer-term and gain influence in the department. Among prevalent false conceptions such older professionals have to grapple with is the myth that older teachers don't know (and can't adopt or adapt to) the new tricks of the trade, like "communicative" syllabi, computer-assisted instruction, role-plays and games—the stereotypy of "inflexibility." That can be made worse by the cliché of "lack of vigor" that Dickey mentions above,[5] and the typical response older experienced teachers may receive that they are "overqualified" for the position(s) advertised.

Racism and Sexism as Compounding Factors

The situation for female TESOLers as they grow older is worsened by a mixture of sexism and ageism that still persists in many locales, along with its multiple connections with homophobia (Encel and Studencki, 1997; Harrison, 2002) and ethnicity. A posting from an African-American teacher working in East Asia provides insight into his experiences and local attitudes toward race, as does a recent thread on the ESL Café General Job Discussion Forum.[6] Reports from women in TESOL working in Korea, both foreign and Korean nationals, have pointed out the strong presence of what they regard as sexist and patriarchal attitudes among their male Korean counterparts, which often go unchallenged. As S. C. notes: "Sexism here is absolutely a nightmare. I have had one man pound his fist on the table at me in front of other men because he didn't like my suggestion that there needs to be equality for women. . . . There is no question that gender is a critical issue in hiring and in keeping one's job as a woman" (TESLJB-L listserv, November 23, 2002). Another anonymous electronic posting also comments on this problem in Korea:

> . . . racism and ageism is not limited to Asia by any means . . . but some of the worst occurrences are in the private schools (hagwons) of Korea and Taiwan, . . . why do you think they always ask for a photo along with your credentials? . . . It sure ain't to check your dental records . . . Besides skin color, the prospective employers want to check your age. They prefer YOUNG blonde blue-eyed teachers. . . . I have been a victim of this kind of age discrimination myself . . . it does not matter how much qualification, experience a person has. . . . youth and good looks take precedence (Racism, Ageism in TESOL, 2001).

Writing in an ironic vein, T. C. observes: "Korean Schools (and Japanese schools) often prefer not to hire women or Blacks. This is a peculiar cultural affectation. However, if Westerners want to be consistent—they would respect another culture's choices and not try to impose their Eurocentric values. The Koreans are simply exercising their 'freedom of choice'" (TESLJB-L listserv, "discriminatory hiring practices," November 21, 2002). How much such overlapping of discrimination of various types is prevalent in our field is something we need to examine in terms of concrete settings and examples, the specific stories of individuals, "employment biographies," generating the basis of a kind of empirical "ethnography of aging" in TEFL's global economy.

Cross-Cultural and Comparative Aging Research

As our profession spreads, we need to better understand the "ecology" of ageism, learning from the growing body of research on culture-specific attitudes toward aging. Park and Kim (1992) and Sung (1995) shed light on ageist attitudes in Korea, while Giles et al. (2002) and Harwood et al. (1996) examine changing patterns in Asia and on the Pacific Rim.[7] Illuminating is Levy's (1999) study on how older adults in Japan maintain a positive self-image in the face of apparently very strong ageist attitudes in Japanese society (see also Koyano, 1989; Tobin, 1987). Chang, Chang and Shen (1984) investigate differences in attitudes towards aging in the United States and Taiwan, and Lee (1986) notes that Chinese Americans, in line with their subculture of filial piety, generally hold less ageist attitudes than European Americans. Masako (1997) has examined intergenerational relationships in immigrant communities among Chinese, Japanese and Korean Americans. Despite ancient traditions of filial piety and its psychological influence in Chinese society (Ho, 1996; Sung, 1998; Yue and Ng, 1999), reports suggest a new ageist bias on the rise in urban China, directed against older Chinese who are less able or willing to adapt to the new "market economy and its challenges."[8] Research indicates that we should be prepared to find ageism in distinctive forms across East Asia and in multicultural immigrant settings such as Hawaii, and that these patterns may impact on the EFL teaching profession in complex ways.

Concrete Steps for Action

In the ethos of the recent Second World Assembly on Aging,[9] TEFL professional associations need to build a sustained transnational struggle against ageism and its impact in the TESOL workplace. Its abuses have to be addressed in departments, dean's offices, conference panels, commercial language schools, job emporia and, where possible, at ministerial level. As sociologist, Sheldon Steinhauser, (1999) argues, for the business world, it is imperative to "recognize age bias and discrimination as the pervasive, escalating issue it is." We should carry that insight into our own discipline and take concerted action.

Fact-finding: Creating a Better Picture of What is Happening

First, it is necessary to assemble a better empirical picture of age structure and age diversity in TESOL, by country and educational sector, seeking to uncover data on what often are quite subtle exclusionary practices in recruitment and contract renewal. Some ads openly specify age limits,[10] but most do not. A primary task for IATEFL and TESOL, Inc. affiliates is to spur discussion, get some graduate students to gather and analyze input from the job front, encouraging a few targeted surveys, oral "job

histories," developing several M.A. theses. Given the unique cultural politics of English as an international language (Pennycook, 1994, 1998), the distinctive political economy of EFL as an international discipline (Templer, 2002) is a topic more EFL degree programs should be addressing, both in teaching and research.

Creating a Caucus or Forum

Second, at the very least, teachers with tales to recount need a professional structure to turn to. One paradigm that is generating considerable current interest is the Caucus on Part-time Employment Concerns (COPTEC) in TESOL, Inc., its ranks growing as more and more part-time and "adjunct" teachers are hired to shoulder an ever-larger segment of instruction and testing in ESL and other fields. The problems of job equity for those professionals, often underpaid and overburdened, is reflected in the recent "Adjunct Labor Resolution" adopted by the U.S. Conference on College Composition and Communication, and is central on the agenda of the Coalition on the Academic Work Force, representing 25 academic associations. Perhaps a global site could be created, or a body analogous to the Aging and Ageism Caucus in the National Women's Studies Association in the United States, a relevant model from which we can learn.[11] This could serve to galvanize transnational debate and spark advocacy initiatives, a few convention panels, an online forum, even some kind of pressure group. Only recently has IATEFL GISIG (Global Issues Special Interest Group) begun to address the issue of ageism. Significantly, the General Job Discussion Forum of the online ESL Café recently carried a number of postings on "age discrimination," prompted by a question from an older teacher whether she should embark on an M.A. degree in TEFL (Age Discrimination, 2003). Strategy and tactics can also be adapted from the senior rights movement in the United States (Powell, et al. 1996), including the Gray Panthers and other action groups. As a first step, a body in the profession could call for banning age specification in ads on all TEFL job boards, and publicize documented cases of perceived age discrimination (and discrimination based on other "differences," including religion), particularly in Asia, the Gulf countries and on the Pacific Rim. Of course, it is always hard to conclusively "prove" ageist workplace discrimination, which is often masked (McCann and Giles, 2002, p. 179), but our internal professional standards for what constitutes solid evidence need not be those of the courtroom.

Age Diversity as a Goal: Improving Intergenerational Communication

Third, such structures could encourage advocacy around the ideal of a "quality age diverse workforce" in TESOL. We need materials to help colleagues identify myths and stereotypes about age in the workplace and aid them in examining their own

attitudes. This can be combined with "age diversity workshops" to raise consciousness among staff (and students) about intergenerational issues (Ng, et al. 1998; Noor Al-Deen, 1997; Williams and Nussbaum, 2001). Schools and universities can learn how to organize an "audit" to assess the workplace "culture" and better determine how employees feel about older workers and how those feelings manifest themselves in the workplace. Schools can experiment with "focus groups" with older employees, sharing their experiences with and opinions of the workplace culture with younger staff members (Steinhauser, 1998; 1999). If this can be done in a range of settings in the world of business, it's all the more imperative in education. Braithwaite (2002) provides relevant insight on how to reduce negative stereotypes of old age, outlining a "ten-point plan for ageism reduction" (pp. 331-332), including "heightening sensitivity to the stereotyping of older people," "seeking out opportunities for intergenerational cooperation," and "having greater commitment to recognizing and responding to diversity in dealings with older people."

Accenting Pertinent Paradigms in Legislation

Fourth, administrators and authorities in our locales of practice need to be made aware of paradigms in relevant legislation:[12] such as the 1967 Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) in the United States, which protects most federal, state and private employees 40 and older from discrimination in recruitment, hiring, training, promotion, pay, benefits, firing, retirement and other employment practices (McCann and Giles, 2002, pp. 177-179). In the United Kingdom, the Department for Education and Employment launched a media campaign against age discrimination at work in February 2000, designed to reinforce and popularize a voluntary new Code of Practice on Age Diversity in Employment. The campaign's slogan: "Age prejudice-you're old enough to know better." A useful text for stimulating dialogue on age discrimination is the discussion paper of the Australian Human Rights & Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC, 2000), created to spur debate in the context of the 1999 International Year of Older Persons. Commenting on job equity litigation in the U.S., Steinhauser (1998) observes a trend of the times: "In each of the past four fiscal years, age discrimination comprised about 20 percent of all discrimination charges filed with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), following only race, sex and, more recently, disability." The biggest recent class action suit on age discrimination before the EEOC is that against "ageism in Hollywood," brought by 28 senior TV and film studio writers, alleging rampant "graylisting" and other abuses in the entertainment industry, especially directed toward older women (Maio, 2001).

Working to End Mandatory Retirement and Arbitrary Age Cut-Off Points in Hiring

Fifth, we should build advocacy around the evident benefits of dismantling age ceilings for teaching staff, especially in the case of critically needed experts from abroad. Here the U.S. experience is germane, a possible model for appropriation: the mandatory retirement age of 70 for federal workers was revoked in 1979 and eliminated for college teachers in 1993. In Australia, the Equal Opportunity Act in South Australia (1994) and Victoria (1995) also ban compulsory retirement for most workers (HREOC 2000). In countries like Thailand, a reasonable goal is "utility with maximum flexibility": seasoned teachers with their unique expertise can contribute enormously in the classroom, while serving as mentors for younger staff members, or as facilitators in training modules and weekend seminars for English teachers in the schools. Why not persuade legislators to exempt them from national labor law maximum age regulations or amend such laws to create more flexibility in hiring senior TESOLers and renewing their contracts? It is not a utopian demand. At some universities in North America and Europe, there are faculty members well into their 70s on staff as "emeritus professors," still lecturing and among the most productive scholars in their field. Various institutions also have the category of "recall professor" for a retired colleague who returns to teaching, or what is termed "mentoring": "recruiting back our retirees as consultants, because we find we can't do without them" (Baltzell, 2000).[13] "Within thirty years, the over-65s will make up a quarter of the population. Every business enterprise, from an international aluminum producer to a university, has to adjust to these facts. That adjustment will be confused by a cocktail of myths (like the one about 65 being the natural retirement age)" (Baltzell, 2000). Moreover, employees' fears that keeping on older staff blocks the hiring of younger professionals is largely a myth: many economists predict future shortages of younger workers with advanced job skills in a number of fields (Steinhauser, 1998).

An inventive paradigm is the flexible practice in the People's Republic of China: institutions, both public and private, are actively recruiting expatriate TESOLers even into their mid-70s, including retirees who have decided to "unretire." That openness in the People's Republic of China to older ex-pat experts is, of course, a manifestation of a different culture of age respect, nourished in part by widespread Confucian traditions across the region (Ho, 1996; Hwang, 1999; Yum, 1988). The gist of personal commentary on ageism in January 2003 on the Job Discussion Forum of ESL Cafe suggests that the PRC is by far the most open of countries toward hiring older ESL professionals (Age Discrimination, 2003). The Peace Corps has of course long known the benefit of this worldwide, as has the organization Global Volunteers, boasting an EFL teacher in the field at 89.

Toward Critical Pedagogies of Ageism: Our Work in the Classroom

Ageism should also be on the engaged agenda in theme-based EFL curricula and classes committed to confronting social issues. This is intrinsic to a critical pedagogy that looks to a more inclusive "society for all ages," sensitive to an ethics of difference, "unlearning the myths that bind us" (Christensen, 2000, pp. 39 ff.). Coupland contends that "a programme of 'language awareness' on aging and ageism is arguably an appropriate future project for applied linguistics. . . . it is striking how linguistically unaware contemporary western societies, and particularly European societies, are of ageist . . . processes in text and talk" (1997, p. 44). TESOLers can tap this growing body of work on the sociolinguistics of aging, ageism and their discourses[14] as an introduction to a theme in research that seeks to "deconstruct the semiotic processes that socially constitute old age" (Coupland & and Coupland, 2001, p. 468).[15] We need to treat "society's systematic undervaluing of and disenfranchising of old people—the elderly as a minority group-values . . . reproduced through language and communication" (Coupland, 1997, p. 35) as a new focus in our teaching. Global Issues SIGs and TESOLers for Social Responsibility should incorporate such concerns into their agendas. Useful are Couper and Pratt (1997), Dodson and Hause (1996), and numerous resources on negative age imaging and how to confront this, accessible online via the website of the National Academy for Teaching and Learning about Aging (NATLA).[16]

Adultism and the Oppression of Youth

Ageism against kids, youth and Generation X (see Williams and Coupland, 1998) can also be explored, generating dialogue with students about their own lives and age-group. How do societies construct age and its boundaries more generally (Schönert 2000)? How do groups impose stereotyped identities on others and marginalize them through discourse, part of the dynamics of "othering" (Coupland, 1999, pp. 4 ff.)? Here is a natural starting point—an empowering focus for encouraging students to respond openly about the age-based restrictions they know so well. Most adolescents are painfully aware of the workings of power and its manipulations in their everyday lives: one challenging platform is the website of ASFAR (Americans for a Society Free from Age Restrictions), which offers a Declaration of Principles, several pamphlets, and their journal, *Youth Truth*.[17] Another site rich with materials and links is The Freechild Project.[18]

Bias in Language, Text, and Imagery

In our own domain of language and communication, Nuessel (1991), Coupland (1999) and others have examined ageist discourse, a focus for sensitizing students to the semantics of "patronizing speech" or "elderspeak," investigated by Giles et al. (1998) in a cross-cultural frame. Fascinating for students to discuss and analyze are visual representations of aging and the body-as-symbol in magazine texts and ads (Coupland and Coupland 1997) and the ways "contemporary body-culture discourses in the mass media encode an ageist, anti-elderly ideology" (Coupland, 1997, p. 42). "The imagery of decrement, frailty, and incompetence is still generally acceptable as an icon of late life in the UK, even in travel brochures, insurance pamphlets and televisions ads" (Coupland, 1999, p. 11). The portrayal of elderly persons on American TV is another potential topic for classroom units or projects (Davis and Davis, 1985). More than any other age group, older adults are likely to appear in North American television and film in a stereotyped way, emphasizing their physical and mental ineffectiveness. Studies show that U.S. television portrays less than two percent of its characters as elderly, and these mostly in minor roles, reflecting the subtle forms of segregation of the elderly from mainstream society in Western cultures (Zebrowitz and Montepare, 2000), while minority elderly persons remain almost invisible (Cassata and Irvin, 1997).[19]

Denying the Face of the Future

One of the unique features of ageism is that age, unlike race and sex, represents a category "in which most people from the in-group (the young) will eventually (if they are fortunate) become a member of the out-group (older persons). Thus, it seems strange that young people would be biased toward a group they will eventually belong to. Where does this negative affect originate?" (Nelson, 2000a, p. x). Some existential psychologists, working in "terror management theory,"[20] suggest that age prejudice is grounded on a deep fear of our own mortality, our own inevitable aging in a hostile and terrifying universe where death is the only certainty—and that we seek culturally based defense mechanisms to dissociate from the elderly (both physically and mentally), who are a living reminder of our own ultimate fate (Becker, 1973). "As reminders of death, they are likely to arouse a host of . . . terror management defenses, largely directed at derogating, avoiding, and psychologically distancing from the elderly" (Greenberg, p. 41). Our EFL classrooms can attempt to broach this highly sensitive topic of the dread of death and personal annihilation, aiding students in demystifying old age. They can be challenged to confront and cope with fears about the elderly and their own aging processes, learning to view the elderly "as individuals instead of in a general or generic and hurtful way" (Schimel and Mertens, 2002, p. 45).

We can experiment in creating a "curriculum of empathy" that puts students inside the lives of others (Christensen, 2000, pp. 5-6), promoting "social imagination" (pp. 134-137), the ability to empathize with those with whom they may seem to have little in common.[21] As Simone de Beauvoir urged: "Let us recognize ourselves in this old man or in that old woman. It must be done if we are to take upon ourselves the entirety of our human state" (de Beauvoir, 1972, p. 5).[22]

Conclusion

TESOL is now the most international of all professions in second language teaching, and must grapple more decisively with the manifestations of ageism its practitioners are exposed to in many corners of the globe. As EFL specialists, we frequently work at a complex cultural interface between several worlds. This offers us a unique site to develop comparative materials geared to illuminating biases in the cultures we teach and teach in, a springboard for students to reflect on their own beliefs. We need to stimulate students and colleagues to reexamine age-related prejudice and discrimination-its reality in the profession and as a topical theme in our classrooms, relevant to students' lives. This can be incorporated within a critical applied linguistics that explores how age is interconnected with race, ethnicity, gender,[23] sexual identity, social class and disability in specific local situations. The goal should be teaching that empowers students, within an engaged pedagogy of TEFL[24] oriented to more equitable and just social worlds, "as part of an ethical and political vision of change" (Pennycook, 2001, pp. 161-162; see also Martin, 2001; Hafernik et al., 2002).[25]

Notes

1. Typical negative phrases in ageist language, which are beginning to appear in age discrimination lawsuits in the United States, see McCann and Giles (2002).

2. As for example the experience of a retired American EFL teacher W. J.-E., Afro-American/Native-American, aged 67, described in a posting Sept. 28, 2001 on the Job Information Journal Asia/General of ESL Café, "Ageism and Racism in Asia," retrieved March 30, 2003 from http://www.eslcafe.com/jobinfo/asia/sefer.cgi?display:1001677183-18022.txt He claims to have received 15 offers from East Asia in 48 hours, though his Ph.D. and extensive experience as a school administrator probably helped.

3. In a recent survey by Mahe's consultancy firm, two virtually identical highly qualified resumes were submitted to each of a client company's 30 plus offices around the country. "In one set, the job applicant's experience showed him to be about 36. In the second set, the applicant appeared to be about 54. All but two of the resumes for the 36-year-old generated calls for interviews. NONE of the resumes for the 54-year-old did. Not a single one" (see New Study). An analogous experiment, matching pairs of applicants similar in appearance, demeanor and (fabricated) qualifications, but different in age (32 vs. 57 years old) is detailed in Bendick, Brown, and Wall (1999), with intriguing findings. We need such "mystery shopping" experiments in TEFL job emporia.

4. As in national law at public universities in Bulgaria.

5. Though we all know that some teachers are rigid and inflexible at 29-why essentialize? This guideline of sensitivity to real people and their actual abilities, their "social" rather than chronological age, is central to the reasoning in ASFAR and The Freechild Project, see below.

6. See the posting dated March 12, 2002 on the Job Information Journal Asia, General (http://www.eslcafe.com), entitled "Comparative Black Experience (Japan/Taiwan/China)," retrieved March 28, 2003 from http://www.eslcafe.com/jobinfo/asia/sefer.cgi?display:1015953487-28328.txt. And the many postings in the thread "Racism in Asia???????" on the ESL Café General Job Discussion Forum, retrieved March 29, 2003 from http://www.eslcafe.com/forums/job/viewtopic.php?t=511&postdays=0&postorder=asc&start=0 We need far more detailed input from expatriate ESL teachers from diverse ethnic and racial backgrounds.

7. A transnational project informed by comparative gerontological perspectives is "Intergenerational Communication around the Pacific Rim," http://people. ku.edu/~harwood/pacrimhp.htm, which has generated a number of papers on cross-cultural attitudes toward filial piety and related dimensions. Giles and McCann (2000) note that "recent theoretically-grounded, cross-cultural work around the Pacific Rim has shown, somewhat surprisingly, that the reported intergenerational communication climates of young people in East Asian contexts are more unfavorable than their Western counterparts."

8. BBC World Service special report, June 28, 2002.

9. Madrid, April 8-12, 2002. The final "Political Declaration" and "Plan of Action," which also briefly address ageism, are available online: http://www.un.org/aging/coverage. For a general introduction to ageism, see Bytheway, 1995; Nelson, 2002a; Palmore, 1990; "Age Discrimination" online; Novak (1997) provides a gerontological look at aging in Canada. Nelson (2002b) is an insightful textbook on the psychology of prejudice, see especially Chap. 7, "Ageism" and Chap. 8, "Racism."

10. As in a June 2002 ad on the http://www.ajarn.com Thailand ESL job board, specifying age 25-50. As Coupland observes: "Anti-discrimination legislation may outlaw the specification of preferred age in job advertisements, but texts of the form: 'Wanted: enthusiastic young person . . .' are commonplace in the UK" (2001, p. 476).

11. See their URL: http://www.nwsa.org/aging.htm, retrieved February 15, 2003.

12. Whether this is foisting Anglo-American notions of social justice or "political correctness"—a form of "value imperialism," Eurocentric "globalization" and homogenization—on the societies and institutions in which we work is of course a crucial issue open to debate, see "Resistance, Appropriation and Third Spaces" (Pennycook, 2001, pp. 68-73). Some will view this as neo-imperial, imposing elements of BANA (British/North American/Australian) legal standards on other cultures.

13. Baltzell's trenchant remarks, from the perspective of an ALCOA Australia CEO, dispel many myths about older workers and suggest creative ways for fostering "age diversity" in a company. See also his section "90 and still working."

14. See Coupland (1999), Coupland & Coupland (1997, 1999, 2001) and bibliography there. The CLC that Nikolas Coupland heads at Cardiff University is one of the few linguistic centers encouraging systematic research on language, aging and ageism.

15. They continue: "The social practice perspective we are proposing is essentially a critical analysis of the classificatory work done through language and discourse to construct our routine cognitive orientations—our definitions, evaluations and presuppositions—about aging and old people" (ibid.).

16. It contains an "Ageism in Literature Analysis Form," guidelines for "Analyzing Literature for Ageism," Kettering (2002) (http://www.cps.unt.edu/natla). Hollywood blockbusters that target transnational youth audiences are especially fascinating to explore for ageist imaging. See also the useful site: Aging Internet Information Note, http://www.aoa.gov/NAIC/Notes/inro.html. A handy introduction to ageist "language" is the one-page Australian handout "Don't Call me Granny" issued in conjunction with the UN International Year of Older Persons 1999, http://www.iyop.nsw.gov.au/textonly.granny2.html.

17. URL: http://www.asfar.org. ASFAR also operates an online bookstore; its materials are highly provocative as a point of departure for critical discussion of the rights of children and teens.

18. See their URL: http://www.freechild.org. The site has much material on adultism and how to reduce it, encouraging youth activism, youth rights. See also Cohen (1980) and Ludd (1995). On the broader question of EFL and the disabled, see three recent articles on physically challenged teachers and learners in *IATEFL Issues*, esp. Kaye (2001) and the new discussion board "Teaching English to

Disabled Students" at ESL Café Discussion Center,http://www.eslcafe.com/discussion/dz2/, retrieved March 28, 2003.

19. For a bibliography of the imaging of aging in the North American media, see Nuessel (1992).

20. For a brief online introduction to TMT, see http://www.geocities.com/zone_omega/terrormanagement.htm, retrieved March 1,2003.

21. Christensen utilizes the technique of the interior written monologue in her classes, the "imagined thoughts of a character in history, literature or life at a specific point in time" (p. 134).

22. A classic "on-the-road" fictional portrait of a courageous worker in his seventies who escapes from a rest home in California is Albert Maltz's *The Journey of Simon McKeever* (1949), an excellent text for exploring growing old in America and one man's quest for dignity in old age.

23. See review by Abrams (2001) of Paoletti; cf. also Sunderland (1994).

24. In East Asia and the Pacific, note the new *Journal of Engaged Pedagogy*, (2002) established by EFL teachers in Japan, oriented to theories of the African-American feminist pedagogue Bell Hooks, URL: http://engagedpedagogy.org.

25. See Pennycook, "The Politics of Difference" (2001, pp. 141-63). The author mentions age only once in passing (p. 153), but it is clear that his conception of the scope of a critical applied linguistics can be amplified by the inclusion of the multiple intersections of age with other "embodied differences" that matter—"gender, sexuality, ethnicity, disability" (p. 163).

References

Abrams, J. (2001). Review, I. Paoletti, Being an older woman: A study in the social production of identity (Erlbaum 1998), *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 11*, 123-127.

Age discrimination: A pervasive and damaging influence. Retrieved June 5, 2002 from http://www.aoa.gov/factsheets/ageism.html.

Age Discrimination. (2003, January). Thread, ESL Cafe General Job Discussion Forum, January 2003, retrieved March 10, 2003 from: http://www.eslcafe.com/jd2/ index.cgi?read=125928.

Avolio, B. J., & Barrett, G. J. (1987). Effects of age stereotyping in a simulated interview. *Psychology and Aging, 2*, 56-63.

Baltzell, B. M. (2000). Implications of an aging population. Retrieved June 15, 2002 from http://www.alcoa.com.au/news/speeches/BMBFulbrightspeech.html.

Becker, E. (1973). *The Denial of Death*. New York: Free Press.

Bendick, M., Brown, I. E., & Wall, K. (1999). No foot in the door: An experimental study of employment discrimination against older workers. *Journal of Aging and Social Policy, 10*, 5-23.

Braithwaite, V. (2002). Reducing ageism. In T. D. Nelson (Ed.), *Ageism: Stereotyping and Prejudice Against Older Persons*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Butler, R. N. (1969). Age-ism: Another form of bigotry. *Gerontologist, 9*, 243-246.

Bytheway, B. (1995). *Ageism*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Cassata, M., & Irwin, J. (1997). Young by day: The older person on daytime serial drama. In H. S. Nor Al-Deen (Ed.), *Cross-cultural Communication and Aging in the United States*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Chang, B., Chang, A., & Shen, Y. (1984). Attitudes toward aging in the United States and Taiwan. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 15*, 109-130.

Christensen, L. (2000). *Reading, Writing and Rising Up: Teaching About Social Justice and the Power of the Written Word*. Milwaukee: Rethinking Schools.

Cohen, H. (1980). *Equal Rights For Children*. Totowa, NJ: Rowan and Littlefield.

Corbel, C. (2000). ESL teaching in the global hypermedia environment. ACTA Background Papers, No. 4. Australian Council of TESOL Associations.

Couper, D., & Pratt, F. (1997). *Teaching About Aging: Enriching Lives Across the Life Span*. National Academy for Teaching and Learning about Aging.

Coupland, N. (1997). Language, ageing and ageism: A project for applied linguistics? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(1), 26-48.

Coupland, N. (1999). "Other" representation. In J. Verschueren et al. (Eds.), *Handbook of pragmatics 1999* (pp. 1-24). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Coupland, N., & Coupland, J. (1997). Bodies, beaches and burn-times: "environ mentalism" and its discursive competitors. *Discourse and Society, 8*(1), 7-25.

Coupland, N., & Coupland, J. (1999). Ageing, ageism and anti-ageism: Moral stance in geriatric medical discourse. In H. Hamilton (Ed.), *Language and Communication in Old Age: Multidisciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 177-208). New York: Garland.

Coupland, N., & Coupland, J. (2001). *Language, Ageing and Ageism*. In W. P. Robinson and H. Giles (Eds.), *New Handbook of Language and Social Psychology* (pp. 465-486). London: Wiley.

de Beauvoir, S. (1972). *The Coming of Age*. New York: Putnam.

Dickey, R. J. (1998, March 10). Remarks, "ageism," KoTESOL discussion list. Retrieved March 28, 2003 from http://www.well.com/user/greg/KOTESOL/list/KOTESOL-L.LOG9803B.

Dickey, J. R. (2002, June 12). Personal communication.

Dodson, A. E., & Hause, J. B. (1996). *Ageism in Literature. Analysis Kit for Teachers & Librarians* (1981), accessible online.

Encel, S., & Studencki, H. (1997). *Gendered Ageism—Job Search Experiences of Older Women*, NSW Committee on Ageing and the Department for Women, Sydney.

Giles, H. et al. (1998). Stereotypes of the elderly and evaluations of patronizing speech: A cross-cultural foray. In R. K. Agnihotri and A. L. Khanna (Eds.), *Research in Applied Linguistics IV: The Social Psychology of Language.* New Delhi: Sage.

Giles, H., & McCann, R. (2000). Ageism in the workplace: A cross-cultural perspective, project abstract. Retrieved June 20, 2002 from http://www.ucop.edu/research/pacrim/pdf/psychology.pdf.

Giles, H., McCann, R., Ota, H., & Noels, K. (2002). Challenging stereotypical beliefs across Eastern and Western cultures. In M. S. Kaplan, N.Z. Henkin, and A. T. Kusano (Eds.), *Intergenerational Program Strategies From a Global Perspective.* Honolulu: University Press of America, Inc.

Gillen, C. T., & Klassen, T. R. (2000). Retire mandatory retirement. *Policy Options.* July-August, accessible online.

Greenberg, J., Schimel, J., & Mertens, A. (2002). Denying the Face of the Future. In T. D. Nelson, (Ed.), *Ageism: Stereotyping and Prejudice Against Older Persons.* Cambridge/MA: MIT Press.

Harrison, J. (2002). What are you really afraid of? Gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgender and intersex aging, ageism, and activism, *Word is Out E-Journal,* no.2, March. Retrieved June 8, 2002 from http://www.wordisout.info.

Harwood, J. et al. (1996). College students' trait ratings of age groups around the Pacific Rim, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology, 11,* 307-317.

Hafernik, J. J., Messerschmitt, D. S., & Vandrick, S. (2002). *Ethical Issues For ESL Faculty: Social Justice in Practice.* Mahwah, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Ho, D. Y. F. (1996). Filial piety and its psychological consequences. In M. H. Bond (Ed.), *The Handbook of Chinese Psychology* (pp. 155-165). Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

HREOC. (2000). *Age Matters: A Report on Age Discrimination.* Retrieved February 28, 2003 from http://www.hreoc.gov.au/minority_rights/older_australians/age_matters.html.

Hwang, K.-K. (1999). Filial piety and loyalty: Two types of social identification in Confuciansim. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 2*, 163-183.

Joss, M. (2001). Ageism in IT rears its ugly head, *ComputerUser*, October 2001, online.

Kaye, R. (2001). Special needs: a challenge neglected by *ELT, IATEFL Issues, 158*, January.

Kettering, C. F. (2002). Problems of ageism in literature. Retrieved June 1, 2002 from http://www.cps.unt.edu/natla.

Koyano, W. (1989). Japanese attitudes toward the elderly: A review of research findings, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology, 4*, 335-345.

Lee, J. (1986). Asian-American elderly: A neglected minority group. *Ethnicity and Gerontological Social Work, 4,* 103-116.

Levy, B. R. (1999). The inner self of the Japanese elderly: A defense against negative stereotypes of aging. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 48*(2), 131-144.

Ludd, R. E. (1995). *Children's Rights Re-envisioned: Philosophical Readings.* Stamford, CT: Wadsworth.

Maio, P. (2001). High Noon for Older Writers, *AARP Bulletin*, June. URL: http://www.aarp.org/bulletin.

Mainichi Shimbun. (2001, Sept. 22). Unemployed plagued by ageism, *Mainichi Daily News*. Retrived September 5, 2002 from URL: http://mdn.mainichi.co.jp.

Maltz, A. (1949). *The Journey of Simon McKeever*. Boston: Little, Brown.

Martin, R. (2001). *Listening Up: Reinventing Ourselves As Teachers and Students.* Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Masoko, I. K. (1997). Intergenerational relationships among Chinese, Japanese, and Korean Americans. *Family Relations, 46*, 23-32.

McCann, R., & Giles, H. (2002). Ageism in the workplace: A communication perspective. In T. D. Nelson (Ed.), *Ageism: Stereotyping and Prejudice Against Older Persons*. Cambridge/MA: MIT Press.

Munk, N. (1999). Finished at forty. *Fortune, 139*, 50-66.

Nelson, T. D. (Ed.) (2002a). *Ageism: Stereotyping and Prejudice Against Older Persons*. Cambridge/MA: MIT Press.

Nelson, T. D. (2002b). *The Psychology Of Prejudice.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

New study uncovers shocking ageism by euphemism. (2002, March 29). Retrieved June 10, 2002 from http://www.prweb.com/releases/2002/3/prweb35990.php.

Ng, S. H., Higgins, T. R. P., Liu, J. H., Loong, C., Mataamua, R., & Weatherall, A. (1998). *Ages Ahead: Promoting Inter-Generational Relationships*. Wellington, NZ: Victoria University Press.

Noor Al-Deen, H. S. (1997). *Cross-Cultural Communication and Aging in the United States*. Mahwah, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Novak, M. (1997). *Aging and Society: A Canadian Perspective*. 3rd ed., Scarborough /Ont. : Nelson Canada.

Nuessel, F. (1991). *Semiotics of Ageism*. Toronto: Semiotics Circle.

Nuessel, F. (1992). *The Image of Older Adults in the Media: An annotated Bibliography*. Westport/CT: Greenwood Press.

Palmore, E. B. (1990). *Ageism: Negative and Positive*. New York: Springer, 1990.

Park, M-S., & Kim, M.-S. (1992). Communication practices in Korea, *Communication Quarterly, 40*, 398-404.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language*. New York: Longman.

Pennycook, A. (1998). English and the discourses of colonialism. London: Routledge.

Pennycook, A. (2001). *Critical Applied Linguistics: A critical Introduction*. Mahwah, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Plattman, K., & Tinker, A. (1998). Getting on in the BBC: A case study of older workers. *Aging and Society, 18*, 513-535.

Powell, L. A., Williamson, J. B., & Branco, K. J. (Eds.), (1996). *The Senior Rights Movement: Framing the Policy Debate in America*. New York: Twayne.

Racism, Ageism in TESOL. Would Brad Do a Homestay? (2001, August 9). Job Information Journal Asia, General, ESL Cafe (http://www.eslcafe.com). Retrieved March 28, 2003 from http://www.eslcafe.com/jobinfo/asia/sefer.cgi?display:997360885-24807.txt.

Schönert, J. (2000). Der alltägliche Age-Ismus, 60. *Lust* (July). Retrieved June 4, 2002 from http://www.lust-zeitschrift.de.

Simon, R. (1996). Too damn old. *Money, 25*, 118-126.

Steinhauser, S. (1998, July). Age bias: Is your corporate culture in need of an overhaul?, *HR Magazine*. Retrieved June 6, 2002 from http://clem.mscd.edu/~steinhas.

Steinhauser, S. (1999). Successfully managing an age diverse workforce. Retrieved June 6, 2002 from http://clem.mscd.edu/~steinhas.

Sunderland, J. (Ed.) (1994). Exploring gender: Questions and implications for English language education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Sung, K. (1995). Measures and dimensions of filial piety in Korea, *The Gerontologist, 35*, 240-247.

Sung, K. (1998). Filial piety in modern times: Timely adaptation and practice patterns. *Australasian Journal of Aging, 17*, 88-92.

Templer, B. (2002). The political economy of TEFL: A levy on English as a native language privilege. *TESOL Matters, 12*(3). Retrieved March 30, 2003 from http://www.tesol.org/pubs/articles/2002/tm12-3-09.html.

Tobin, J. J. (1987). The American idealization of old age in Japan, *The Gerontologist, 27*, 53-58.

Wilkinson, J., & Ferraro, K. F. (2002). Thirty years of ageism research. In T. D. Nelson (Ed.), *Ageism: Stereotyping and Prejudice Against Older Persons*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Williams, A., & Coupland, J. (1998). Talking about Generation X: Defining them as they define themselves. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 16*(3), 251-277.

Williams, A., & Nussbaum, J. F. (2001). *Intergenerational Communication Across the Lifespan*. Mahwah, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Yue, X., & Ng, S. H. (1999). Filial obligations and expectations in China: Current views from young and old people in Beijing. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 2*, 215-226.

Yum, J. O. (1988). The impact of Confucianism on interpersonal relations and communication patterns in East Asia, *Communication Monographs, 55*, 374-388.

Zebrowitz, L. A., & Montepare, J. M. (2000). Too young, too old: Stigmatizing adolescents and elders. In T. F. Heatherton et al. (Eds.), *The Social Psychology of Stigma* (pp. 334-373). New York: Guilford Press.

About the Author

Bill Templer is a Chicago-born linguist with research interests in EAP, critical applied linguisitcs, American fiction and post-colonial studies. He has taught at universities in the U.S., Ireland, Germany, Iran, Nepal, Israel, and Bulgaria, and has recently joined the senior humanities staff at Lao-American College in Vientiane. A widely published translator from German and Hebrew, he is chief translator at the Dubnow Institute for Jewish History, University of Leipzig. Email: bill_ templer @ yahoo.com

TESL Reporter 36,1 (2003), pp. 23-29

Use of Corpora in Language Learning

Jackie F. K. Lee
The Hong Kong Institute of Education

The Corpus

Within linguistics, a corpus is defined as a collection of texts, spoken and/or written, which is generally assumed to be representative of a given language or a variety of a language for linguistic analysis. With the advent of computers which make it possible to store, scan, and classify large masses of material, there has been a rapid expansion of corpus linguistics in the last four decades.

The turning point in the development of corpus study was the Survey of English Usage, which began at University College London in 1958 under the supervision of Randolph Quirk (Rundell and Stock, 1992). The aim of the Survey was to examine English usage, particularly grammar. By today's standard, the corpus was small. It consisted of one million words of running text, which were recorded manually and stored on index cards. Half of the texts collected were spoken and half were written English. Because the data were not originally stored computationally, the limitation of the Survey is that physical access was not easy.

The first machine-readable corpus was developed at Brown University in the United States. The Brown Corpus, completed in 1964, consisted of 500 written samples with a total of one million words of running text. Since the corpus was designed to be entirely synchronic, all of the texts chosen were first published in the United States in a single year (1961). The text categories chosen ranged from scientific writings and newspaper reportage to westerns and romances. In order to achieve a representative balance of the different genres, extracts of 2,000 words only were made from each selected sample. The Brown Corpus was thus carefully balanced and provided valuable information about word frequency and related statistical data.

In 1978, the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB), a computer corpus of British written English designed to match the Brown Corpus, was completed at the University of Lancaster, with the assistance of Stig Johansson at Oslo and the Norwegian Computing Centre for Humanities at Bergen (Collins, 1987). Similar to its American counterpart, the LOB Corpus was composed of 500 written texts of about 2,000 words each. The year of publication (1961) and the sampling composition were the same as those of the Brown Corpus, though there were some inevitable differences in text selection.

Whereas the Brown Corpus and LOB were mainly used for exploration of linguistic patterns (Kjellmer, 1987; Meijs, 1988), nowadays, applied corpus linguistics is being developed with the aim to modify pedagogic materials. Corpora are being used to compile dictionaries and grammar books. COBUILD has made extensive use of the Bank of English, which amounted to 450 million words in January 2002, to write dictionaries, grammar and usage books to dispel the myths about the English language which were based on the intuitions of some "armchair" writers (Collins COBUILD). The widespread availability of computing facilities these days also enables teachers and learners to consult large collections of electronic texts on-line. They can search for word combinations, check word frequencies and see examples of how particular words are used. A good deal of the corpus-based work (e.g., Butler, 1991; Johns, 1991; Johns, 1994) focuses on the production of teaching and testing materials so as to develop students' inductive learning strategies and their learning autonomy.

An effective learning approach as suggested by a number of researchers (e.g., Littlejohn, 1985; Cotterall, 1995) is to increase learner autonomy, which is characterised by students' taking significant responsibility for their own learning. Littlejohn (1985) comments that an outcome of promoting learner autonomy may be an increase in enthusiasm for learning. Using corpora in teaching is a way to increase learner autonomy because instead of telling students why a certain structure is unacceptable, the teacher can abandon the role of expert and say, "Let's read the corpus examples and find out the answer together." By searching corpora, students can do their own research and discover the usages of contemporary English at their own pace.

In this paper, I would like to demonstrate how to use corpora for error correction and vocabulary building in a language classroom. There are some publically available corpora which anyone can use for free. Users only need access to the internet to be able to perform corpus searches. The World Wide Web Access to Corpora Project (W3-Corpora), which aims to provide free access to existing linguistic corpora under the Gutenberg Project via the web to students and researchers in linguistics and related disciplines, is run by the Department of Language and Linguistics at the University of Essex. The corpus data can be used in a number of ways, including the following:

a. Comparing two similar words

b. Building vocabulary

c. Examining debatable usages

The following are some illustrations showing how to use the search engine.

Comparing Two Similar Words

Previous studies (e.g., Lockhart, 1996; Sengupta and Falvey, 1998) reveal that teachers are concerned with grammar and mechanics in their rating of students' essays. The traditional method used by many teachers is to mark every error students make. This method, however, has long been criticised as "ineffective" since marking every error is time-consuming for teachers and humiliating for students, who find the "bloody" corrections discouraging. As a consequence, writing and marking compositions are often regarded as the most unpopular tasks for students and teachers respectively (Chen, 1996/1997, p. 29). What is worse, despite the hard work of teachers who work as "marking slaves" or "marking robots", many students seem not to be learning from error correction since they keep making the same mistakes. A more effective learning approach is to increase learner autonomy by incorporating the idea of research in the classroom and asking students to find out the correct usage for themselves. The following example shows how to let students realize the difference between the two easily confused adjectives: *live* and *alive*.

In the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1995), the following definitions are given for *live* and *alive*.

Live: not dead; living

Alive: still living and not dead

It seems that the two words *live* and *alive* mean the same. By looking at the KWIC (keyword-in-context) concordance data,[1] however, one can find that the two words cannot be used interchangeably. Take a look at the following examples:

Live:

a person, a real <u>live</u> person, who would be fond of me

He had never seen any <u>live</u> boys, but he had seen pictures of them

Still there must be many <u>live</u> creatures in the world besides caterpillars.

Alive:

They have not the joy of being <u>alive</u> which is a kind of earnest

the criminals will still be <u>alive</u>; but when he cuts off their

the weak anthrax virus would be <u>alive</u> in the anthrax-infected field,

reason, I am sure that you remain <u>alive</u>: it is impossible that you should

The corpus data show that *live* is an attributive adjective used before a noun, whereas *alive* is a predicative adjective, which is used after stative verbs such as *be* and *remain.* By studying the output from the searches, students can see how similar words are used in real context, and work out the correct usages by themselves.

Vocabulary Building

Doing corpus searches also helps students to develop vocabulary by learning the central words and how words are formed with prefixes and suffixes. Take an example of the string "separa". At the time of writing this paper, the match frequency found for this string was 2,027 in all the corpora under the Gutenberg Project. To examine what those words are, one can go to the Lexical Frequency page, which provides the following information:

separate	736	*inseparably*	23
separated	554	*separations*	17
separation	293	*separators*	10
separately	111	*separator*	5
inseparable	86	*inseparables*	4
separating	68	*separable*	3
separates	36		

The Lexical Frequency table above shows that the words given are all semantically related to "separate". By looking at the frequencies of each word, we find which word is the central one, which might be useful, for example, when deciding which word a foreign learner of English might want to learn first. We see that the most frequent words here are separate and separated, with 1,290 instances, which is about 64% of the total. These statistics suggest that *separate* and *separated* are the central items to learn. The second most frequent is the noun *separation,* with 293 occurrences, which is approximately 14% of the total, and the third most frequent is the adverb *separately*, with 111 occurrences (5%).

By studying the frequency list, we also see some examples of word-formations including the string "separa". We can see how some suffixes can be used to mark different parts of speech, for example *-ion* and the less common *-ble* for nouns, and the inflectional endings *-s* marking the plural form and *-ed* marking the past tense and past participle. The common prefix *in-* is found with the string, forming words such as *inseparable* and *inseparably.* For advanced learners, activities can be designed to let students guess the meanings of new words in sentence concordances. For example, by

studying the following sentences taken from the corpora in the Gutenberg Project, students can be asked to work out the meanings of each of the words underlined.

- *She was facing courageously the three inseparables, Hagar, Viney, and Lucy, squatted at the top of the steps, and she was speaking her mind rapidly and angrily.*

- *Two—this exactly like the first, except that those inseparables, Hagar, Viney, and Lucy, whom Miss Georgie had inelegantly dubbed "the Three Greases", appeared, silent, blanket-enshrouded, and perspiring, at the office door in mid-afternoon.*

- *A ship could not be spared to convey him to England; he therefore travelled through Germany to Hamburgh, in company with his inseparable friends, Sir William and Lady Hamilton.*

Examining Debatable Usages

Since corpus data reflect authentic usage, some linguistic myths and distortions that originated from the intuitions of some 18th-century purists such as Samuel Johnson, Bishop Lowth and Lindley Murray, and perpetuated from generation to generation via dictionaries and grammars can be refuted. Take the Latin plural *data* as an example. Some concordances for this word are given below:

Few of these data were ever actually used, however;
almost all the numerical data are largely guess work. It will
so many of the data, whether for hope or fear, were
The observational data are not yet sufficiently accurate
where a great deal of data may be found. Edison says with
free flight, to get as much data as possible regarding the conditions
gave a good deal of useful data for the construction of later vessels
the Details. With this data as a guide it should be
Ross-Smith's flight valuable data was gained in respect of reliability

Although the legitimacy of treating the foreign plural *data* as a singular noun is disputed, it does exist as a singular noun in actual practice. In the corpora studied, *data* is used in two constructions: (1) as a plural noun with a plural verb and certain plural modifiers (e.g., *these, many, few*); (2) as a mass noun, taking a singular verb and singular modifiers (e.g., *this, much, a great deal of*). By examining the concordances, students can realise that the prescriptivists' teaching that *data* is a foreign plural and must precede a plural verb is without empirical foundation in real English.

Conclusion

Apart from the three uses of corpora suggested in this article, Stevens (1991) and Johns (1994) recommend other ways of learning vocabulary and grammar by means of concordance-based inductive learning strategies. Experience in using concordance data has indicated that it is a powerful stimulus to student enquiry in a learner-centred classroom and it helps students become better language learners and researchers outside school. An appropriate role for the teacher is no longer an authority figure but a research organiser who provides a stimulating context in which the learner can develop strategies for self-discovery. In Johns' (1991, p. 2) words, "we [teachers] simply provide the evidence needed to answer the learner's questions, and rely on the learner's intelligence to find answers."

Notes

1. A computer-based concordance program will find all the instances of a particular item (morpheme, word, expression) in the texts selected. KWIC is a way of displaying concordances; that is, it prints the item in the middle of the screen, with a fixed number of characters of context to the left and to the right.

References

Butler, J. (1991). Cloze procedures and concordances: The advantages of discourse level authenticity in testing expectancy grammar. *System, 19* (1/2), 29-38.

Chen, J. (1996/1997). Issues in the teaching of writing in Hong Kong. *Hong Kong Polytechnic University Working Papers in ELT and Applied Linguistics, 2*, 29-38.

Collins COBUILD. The Bank of English. Retrieved December 6, 2002 from http://titania.cobuild.collins.co.uk/boe_info.html.

Collins, P. (1987). Computer corpora in English language research: a critical survey. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 10*, 1-19.

Cotterall, S. (1995). Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. *ELT Journal, 49*, 219-227.

Johns, T. (1991). Should you be persuaded: Two examples of data-driven learning. *English Language Research Journal, 4*, 1-16.

Johns, T. (1994). From printout to handout: Grammar and vocabulary teaching in the context of data-driven learning. In T. Odlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on Pedagogical Grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kjellmer, G. (1987). Aspects of English collocation. In W. Meijs (Ed.), *Corpus Linguistics and Beyond*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Littlejohn, A. (1985). Learner choice in language study. *ELT Journal, 39*, 253-261.

Lockhart, C. (1996). Teachers' beliefs about writing in Hong Kong secondary schools. *Perspectives: Working Papers, 8*(2), 45-79.

Meijs, W. (1988). *All But* and *If Not* in Brown and LOB. In M. Kyto et al. (Eds). , *Corpus Linguistics, Hard and Soft*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Rundell, M., & Stock, P. (1992). The corpus revolution. *English Today, 30*, 9-14.

Sengupta, S., & Falvey, P. (1998). The role of the teaching context in Hong Kong English teachers' perceptions of L2 writing pedagogy. *Evaluation and Research in Education, 12*(2), 72- 95.

Stevens, V. (1991). Concordance-based vocabulary exercises: A viable alternative to gap-filling. *English Language Research Journal, 4*, 47-61.

University of Essex. Welcome to the W3-Corpora site! http://clwww.essex.ac.uk/w3c/

About the Author

Jackie F. K. Lee is a lecturer in the Department of English at the Hong Kong Institute of Education, where she is responsible for teaching language courses to pre-service and in-service student teachers.

Implications of MI Theory For Designing ELT Materials

Aysegül Daloglu
Middle East Technical University, Turkey

Introduction

According to Howard Gardner (1983, 1993), intelligence refers to the human ability to solve problems or to make something that is valued in one or more cultures. He has identified eight intelligences so far and our intelligence profiles consist of combinations of different types: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist.

The multiple intelligences (MI) theory challenges the notion of IQ, leading to discussion of different abilities that make learning possible. For example, we can talk about a logical-mathematical ability or intelligence, or a linguistic ability or intelligence. This theory acknowledges that genetic factors may set some sort of upper limit on the extent to which an intelligence may be realized or the degree to which it may be modified in a given individual. Nonetheless, it maintains that given enough exposure to the materials of an intelligence, almost every individual can achieve significant results in that domain (Haggerty, 1995).

One of the questions commonly asked is whether we can strengthen our intelligences. Howard Gardner's response to this question is that "we can all get better at each of the intelligences, although some people will improve in an intelligence area more readily than others, either because biology gave them a better brain for that intelligence or their culture gave them a better teacher" (Checkly, 1997, p.10). Therefore, the role of the teacher is to help learners use their combination of intelligences to be successful, to help them learn whatever it is they want to learn as well as what the teacher and the society believe they have to learn. What Gardner opposes is the notion that there is only one way to learn how to read, one way to learn how to compute, etc. However, he also opposes the belief that everything should be taught in seven or eight ways. The point, therefore, is that any topic of importance, from any discipline, can be taught in more than one way.

What are the implications of this theory for English language teaching? More specifically, how can this theory contribute to materials production in English language teaching? Christison (1996) proposes that MI theory offers ESL/EFL

teachers a way to examine their best teaching practices and techniques in light of human differences and suggests two steps to be followed in understanding how MI theory applies to TESL/TEFL. The first step is to identify the activities that we, teachers, frequently use in our lessons and to categorize them. The second step is to track what we are doing in our lessons with multiple intelligences:

1. Awaken the intelligence: The lesson begins with a riddle or a teaser. The teacher divides students into groups and gives each one a series of riddles. The students then work collaboratively to solve the riddles.
2. Amplify the intelligence: Practice with the awakened intelligence and it will improve. Students practice describing commonly known objects.
3. Teach for/with the intelligence: Students describe objects in a large group discussion.
4. Transfer the intelligence: Help students to reflect on their learning in the previous stages and help them make the lesson content relevant to their lives outside the classroom. (p. 13)

Another implication of MI theory is creating a learner-centered classroom. Haley (2001) reports that teachers who used real-world applications of MI theory in their ESL/EFL classroom experienced a more learner-centered classroom, were energized and enthusiastic about their pedagogy, and felt they were able to reach more students. The teachers attributed this positive affective outcome to the greater degree of flexibility, variety, and choice that MI strategies allowed students in their classrooms. Their students, moreover, demonstrated keen interest in multiple intelligence concepts and showed positive responses to the increased variety of instructional strategies used in their EFL/ESL classrooms.

As the MI theory proposes, unless we, English language teachers, teach multi-modally and cater for all the intelligence types in each of our lessons, we can fail to reach all the learners in the group, whichever approach to teaching we adopt. It is also apparent that if we impose learning styles on our learners, they will prove to be ineffective. Learners with highly developed spatial intelligence, for example, will respond to the use of diagrams to record new vocabulary whereas this technique may have little or no impact on others who are more developed in other intelligences. As a result, in each lesson, we can reach the maximum number of learners if we employ activities that cater for many intelligences simultaneously. Christison (1995) believes that "success in helping our language learners develop their intelligences is a combination of the right environmental influences and quality instruction" (p. 10). Both environmental influences and quality instruction in the classroom can be managed through the teaching materials.

Does the fact that we have a unique profile of learners in each of our classes mean that we should plan individual lessons for everyone in the class to take this into account? Clearly, this would be impractical so the solution lies in including materials designed to appeal to each of the intelligences in every lesson we teach.

Principles for the Materials Designer

The following principles can guide the materials design process:

1. Appeal to more than one intelligence simultaneously, using the most appropriate instructional method for the teaching point. If an inappropriate instructional method is used, the effort to activate students' intelligences may lead to creating an artificial learning environment which may hinder learning rather than stimulating it. In addition to giving learners opportunities to benefit from the intelligences they are already strong in, materials that appeal to more than one intelligence at a time will give them the opportunity to strengthen their weak intelligences.
2. Use variety in content and text types. A multi-disciplinary approach to the same topic can provide the learner with different perspectives and different ways of thinking, leading to a critical analysis of the issue. For example, if World War II is the topic chosen for the English language lesson, reading passages from the disciplines of history, sociology, and economics provide the learners with different perspectives on the issue. Such variety in the perspectives materials provide will enable the learners to gain expertise in different areas, a desirable learning outcome which Garner defines as "multiple windows leading into the same room" (Gardner, 1995, p.204).
3. Give the students options about how they would like to learn both in class and outside class. This way, students confront their weaknesses and engage their strengths. Besides, since they are empowered to make choices, their ownership of their own learning improves. As Beckman (1998) puts it, "MI theory is a way of thinking, it is an attitude about people which allows for similarities and differences. It allows for inclusion and enrichment, for self-esteem building and the development of respect for each individual and the gifts they bring to the classroom." As learners make choices in the learning process they will become autonomous learners who respect the different ways in which different individuals learn.
4. Assess students' learning through activities that require more than just demonstration of what they have learned. Asking the students to generalize what they have learned, provide examples, connect the language learning to

their personal experiences, and apply their knowledge to new situations will make the learning more memorable and, therefore, long-lasting.

Having established the general guiding principles for the materials designer, the next question is how can the English language teaching materials cater for the different intelligences.

How to Cater for Linguistics Intelligence

Language learners who are fascinated with words and their manipulation, who enjoy expressing themselves orally and in writing as well as listening to stories are likely to have well-developed linguistic intelligence. Usually books are very important for these learners and they are good at games like Scrabble or password, both in the native language and in English. Group discussions, completing work-sheets, giving and listening to presentations, word puzzles, word building games, story-telling, choral reading, and journal writing are among the activities that stimulate the linguistic intelligence in the English language classroom.

How to Cater for Logical-Mathematical Intelligence

Students who enjoy science subjects and working with computers are likely to have a high degree of logical-mathematical intelligence. These people are problem-solvers, capable of both deductive and inductive reasoning. They appreciate precision and like organizing information by sequencing and prioritizing it. Brainteasers or games that require logical thinking stimulate learners who are strong in logical-mathematical intelligence. Since they believe that almost everything has a logical explanation they want to learn the rules of the language. Materials that involve logic puzzles, logical-sequential presentations, problem-solving, guided discovery, and critical thinking stimulate learners' logical-mathematical intelligence.

How to Cater for Spatial Intelligence

Students with a high degree of spatial intelligence tend to think in pictures, are comfortable with maps, charts and diagrams, enjoy drawing, and are likely to make use of colored markers. When they close their eyes, they often see visual images and reading materials with lots of illustrations attract them. Visual problem-solving devices such as spider diagrams, memory maps, diagrams, movies, and imagination games are appropriate language teaching materials for such learners. Guided visualization (guided fantasy) can also be used to cater for spatial intelligence in the classroom. Mind-maps are effective tools in vocabulary presentation and recording.

How to Cater for Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence

Learners who are high in bodily-kinesthetic intelligence prefer to learn by doing. They enjoy working with their hands on concrete activities such as model-building, sewing, weaving, etc. Rather than just reading or seeing a movie about a new concept, they learn best when they practice it. They participate in a sport or a physical activity on a regular basis and enjoy spending time outdoors. This intelligence is activated through activities and games that involve physical movement, role-playing, dancing, miming, manipulating materials, and simulations.

How to Cater for Musical Intelligence

Learners who have a strong musical intelligence are sensitive to rhythm and patterns. They can easily identify and imitate musical and naturally occurring sound patterns. The language teaching materials usually serve two quite different roles: provide the learners with situations that lead to authentic communication and opportunities for the learners to practice the language. From the teacher's perspective, both of these roles are equally important but when analyzed from the learner's perspective, there is no need to be consciously aware of what new target language is being practiced. The need to communicate overtakes. As Berman emphasizes, "learning is more likely to take place when conscious attention is deflected from the goal, which is how incidental learning occurs" (Berman, 1998,: p. 25). For example, a certain task may have the goal of providing controlled practice of the target structure but the authentic reason of doing the task may be different for the students—that is, the communicative purpose of the task. The distinction between these two purposes of language teaching materials is significant when stimulating the learners' musical intelligence in the language classroom is concerned. Songs, jazz chants, and background music can be employed with the purpose of creating a need for authentic communication as well as providing practice.

How to Cater for Interpersonal Intelligence

Interpersonal intelligence refers to the ability to communicate and work with others. Learners strong in interpersonal intelligence usually enjoy the challenge of teaching others how to do something and, therefore, are good at peer teaching. They can freely express their opinions. They consider themselves leaders and enjoy holding a leading role in classroom activities. Cooperative learning, group activities, peer coaching, and pair work stimulate this type of intelligence.

How to Cater for Intrapersonal Intelligence

Intrapersonal intelligence indicates the ability to look with oneself to identify causes and to find solutions to problems. Learners strong in intrapersonal intelligence prefer to spend time alone, reflecting or thinking about important questions. They usually consider themselves to be independent minded or strong willed. Therefore, relaxation is the key to activating intrapersonal intelligence. Since they enjoy keeping a personal diary or journal to write down their thoughts or feelings about life, learner diaries are powerful tools for such students. Self-instruction, either learner-centered or materials-centered, prove to be effective in activating intrapersonal intelligence. Personal goal setting and learner contracts are useful in creating learner empowerment and autonomy.

How to Cater for Naturalist Intelligence

Naturalist intelligence is the ability to recognize plants, animals, and other parts of the natural environment such as clouds or rocks. This ability can also be used to deal with the world of man-made objects. When students look for patterns in the world around them, they see order in stead of chaos, which builds confidence in their understanding of how the world or the language works and gives them greater control over it. Naturalist intelligence can be catered for in the language classroom by noticing relationships, categorizing, and classifying. Observing plants and animals or collecting rocks would not appear to be immediately relevant neither would listening to the sounds of the natural world. However, natural sounds could be used in the background to help create an atmosphere conducive to students' feeling relaxed and able to produce their best work.

Table 1

Activities that Develop the Eight Intelligences

Intelligence	Teaching Activity	Instructional Strategies
LINGUISTIC INTELLIGENCE	-Group discussions -Completing work sheets -Giving presentations -Listening to Lecturers -Reading -Word-building games -Storytelling -Choral reading -Journal writing	Read about it, write about it, talk about it, listen to it
LOGICAL MATHEMATICAL INTELLIGENCE	-Logic puzzles -Logical-sequential presentations -Problem-solving -Guided discovery -Science experiements -Critical thinking	Quantify it, think critically about it, conceptualize it
SPATIAL INTELLIGENCE	-Charts -Mind-maps -Guided visualizations -Diagrams -Movies -Imagination games	See it, draw it, visualize it, color it, mind-map it

Table 1 Cont'd

Intelligence	Teaching Activity	Instructional Strategies
BODILY KINESTHETIC INTELLIGENCE	-Circle dancing -Brain gym -Role-play/drama -Relaxation exercises -Craft work -Simulation activities -Dance	Build it, act it out, touch it, get a feeling of it, dance it
MUSICAL INTELLIGENCE	-Songs -Jazz chants -Background music	Sing it, rap it, listen to it
INTERPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE	-Group work -Brainstorming -Games -Pair work -Peer teaching -Information gap activities	Teach it, collaborate on it, interact with respect to it
INTRAPERSONAL INTELLIGENCE	-Project work -Learner diaries -Relective learning acitivies -Self-study -Personal goal-setting -Individual instruction	Connect it to your personal life, make choices with regard to it
NATURALIST INTELLIGENCE	-Classifying and categorizing activities -Background music-in the form of sounds created in the natural world	

Adapted from Armstrong, 1994 & Berman, 1998.

Guiding Questions for the Materials Designer

During the process of materials writing, the writer should be constantly questioning oneself to ensure that the work in progress adheres to the materials design principles mentioned earlier. To ensure that more than one intelligence is activated simultaneously, the following questions below can be kept in mind.

Table 2

Questions for the Materials Designer

Intelligence	**Questions to be asked by the materials designer**
Linguistic Intelligence	How much written or spoken language will the learners produce/manipulate?
Logical-mathematical Intelligence	To what extent will the learner deal with numbers, calculations, classifications or critical thinking?
Spatial Intelligence	How will the learner use visual aids, visualization, or visual organizers?
Bodily-kinesthetic Intelligence	How will the learner involve his/her whole body or live hands-on experiences?
Musical Intelligence	How will the learner use musical sounds, rhythm, or melody?
Inter-personal Intelligence	How will the learners learn from and with each other?
Intra-personal Intelligence	To what extent will the learner communicate with oneself, utilize his personal feelings and memories, and make personal decisions?
Naturalist Intelligence	How will the learner use natural sounds or natural classifications?

Conclusions

When designing materials that aim to activate the multiple intelligences of the learners, the materials designer should be constantly questioning him or herself, trying to answer the above questions. While doing so, another point to bear in mind is whether the teaching/learning materials appeal to more than one intelligence simultaneously, using the most appropriate instructional method for the teaching point. Through the activation of more than one intelligence, learners will benefit from the intelligences they are already strong in and have opportunities to strengthen their weaker ones.

Using variety in content and text types is another principle materials writers that aim to activate learners' multiple intelligences should keep in mind. A multi-disciplinary approach to the same topic can provide the student with different perspectives and different ways of thinking, leading to a critical analysis of the issue. For example, exploring the same content area through different disciplines encourages activation of different intelligences.

Materials that give learners options about how they would like to learn both in class and outside class encourage development of learners' intelligences. If students can choose how they will learn, they can confront their weaknesses and engage their strengths. Besides, since they are empowered to make choices, their ownership of their own learning improves, as does their independence as learners.

Students' learning needs to be assessed through tasks and activities that require more than demonstration of what they have learned. If the materials require the learners to generalize what they have learned, provide examples, connect the language learning to their personal experiences, and apply their knowledge to new situations, their learning becomes more memorable. This personal dimension of learning makes it long-lasting.

As a final word, one concept of MI theory is that we rely on and use strategies that match our strongest intelligences (Hine, 1998). When we identify our less developed intelligences, we realize that we are untrained in or have avoided using the strategies that aim to develop those intelligences in our learners. Therefore, it is our responsibility to identify the strong and the weak intelligences both in ourselves and in our learners and to design activities that promote further development of the strong ones together with providing opportunities for the growth of the weaker ones.

References

Armstrong, T. (2000). *Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom* (Second Edition). Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Armstrong, T. (1994). Multiple intelligences: Seven ways to approach curriculum. *Educational Leadership, 52*(3), 27-30.

Beckman, M. (1998). Multiple ways of knowing: Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences extend and enhance student learning. Retrieved March, 2003 from http://www.earlychildhood.com/articles/index.

Berman, M. (1998). *A Multiple Intelligences Road to an ELT Classroom*. Carmarthen: Crown House Publishing.

Checkly, K. (1997). The first seven. *Educational Leadership, 55*(1), 8-13.

Christison, M. A. (1995). Multiple intelligences and second language learners. *Journal of the Imagination in Language Learning, 3*:8-13.

Christison, M. A. (1996). Teaching and learning through multiple intelligences. *TESOL Journal, 6*(1): 10-14.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences.* New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple Intelligences: Theory into Practice*. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1995). Reflections on multiple intelligences: Myths and messages. *Phi Delta Kappan, 77*(3), 200-208.

Haggerty, B. A. (1995). *Nurturing Intelligences.* California: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Haley, M. H. (2001). Understanding learner-centered instruction from the perspective of multiple intelligences. *Foreign Language Annals, 34*(4): 355-367.

Hine, C. (1998). Developing multiple intelligences in young learners. Retrieved March 4, 2003 from http://www.early childhood.com/articles/index.

About the Author

Aysegül Daloglu is an assistant professor at Middle East Technical University, Department of Foreign Language Education, Ankara, Turkey. Her areas of professional interest include assessment and evaluation, materials design and professional development in F.L.T. Currently, she is serving on the TESOL Board of Directors.

University Students' and Teachers' Attitude Towards An EFL Reading Program

Esma Maamouri Ghrib
Université 7-novembre à Carthage, Tunisia

Introduction

This study is part of a large research on Tunisian EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards EFL reading and writing at the secondary and tertiary levels (see Maamouri Ghrib in press-a and b, 2002). It investigates university students' and their teachers' attitudes towards the reading program, the instructional materials, and the teaching approach as a whole. It deals with the learners' motivation for EFL reading, and is also interested in whether there is any gap between the students' and their teachers' assessment of problems.

Over the past few last decades, much emphasis has been put on learners' attitudes, motivation, beliefs, and perceptions of learning and teaching, especially within the field of second language acquisition (Cotterall, 1999; Gardner, 1983; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Nunan, 1988; O'Neill, 1991; Wenden, 1999; Yang, 1999). Many researchers showed that attitudes and motivation played a major part in language learning; Gardner (1983) stressed the idea that learners' attitudes to the target language, to learning the target language, and to the whole language situation "determined the level of their motivation."

Riley (1996 cited in Cotterall, 1999, p. 495) contended that the learners' perceptions of learning and teaching "may directly influence or even determine . . . (a learner's) attitude or motivation or behaviour when learning the language in question." Riley, (1996 in Cotterall, 1999, p. 511) argued that "[w]hat *they* [learners] believe will influence their learning much, much more than what *we* believe, because it is their beliefs that hold sway over their motivations, attitudes and learning procedures. And obviously if there is a misfit between what learners believe and the beliefs embedded in the instructional structure in which they are enrolled, there is bound to be some degree of friction or dysfunction."

Horwitz (1988, p. 293) suggested that "knowledge of learner beliefs about language learning should 'increase teachers' understanding of how students approach the tasks required in language class . . . . " Barkhuizen (1998, p. 102) also explained

that "once teachers are aware of their students" perceptions, they can, if necessary, plan and implement alternative behaviours and activities in their classes' thus showing the benefit that could be gained from the study of learners' beliefs and attitudes. This could, in fact, lead to more positive attitudes to teaching and learning. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993, p. 9) pointed out that "teachers, instructional aids, curricula, and the like clearly have an effect on what is learned and how students react to the experience . . . " hence stressing the importance of some of the major variables that have to be taken into account when discussing attitudes towards a language program.

Other researchers were concerned with what improved learner reading fluency, proficiency, attitudes, and motivation. Polak and Krashen (1988, p. 145), for example, spoke about the positive effects of voluntary reading contending that "besides spelling, there is good evidence that [it] leads to improvement in many areas of language, including reading ability, vocabulary, grammar, and writing style."

Mason and Krashen (1997, pp. 93, 99) also spoke about the impact of extensive reading on second language learners' attitudes and performance; they found that "many of the once reluctant students of EFL became eager readers in the first study, and that extensive readers outperformed traditional students in the second and third studies."

Day and Bamford (1998), reviewed a comprehensive body of research, all of which demonstrated the benefits that could be drawn from extensive reading. According to the reviewed studies, extensive reading not only improved students' reading skills and reading speed, but also ameliorated the learners' general language proficiency and developed positive attitudes toward reading and language learning. Day and Bamford contend that "if used appropriately, an extensive reading approach can considerably improve second language reading instruction and the chances that students will enjoy reading in the second language" (p. xiv).

To my knowledge, despite the growing body of literature concerning attitude and motivation in learning to read a foreign language, little research has been done on Tunisian students' attitudes towards, and motivation for, reading in English, and on EFL reading instruction in the Tunisian context. My aim in conducting this research was to find out what Tunisian EFL learners think about what they are taught in the reading class, how they are taught it, and whether they benefit from the reading skills and techniques they are introduced to in class. I also wanted to see whether there is any discrepancy between the teachers' and their students' perceptions of the reading issues. Such an understanding may help colleagues, administrators, and program developers review and even alter some of their teaching practices, and thus help improve and facilitate the learning and teaching of such an important skill.

Method

Participants

Three hundred Tunisian university students participated in the study (first, second, and third year students: 100 from each level); 246 were female and 54 male. These figures reflect the real proportions of female and male students in the institution in which this study was conducted. The subjects' ages varied from 19 to 24; they were all speakers of Arabic, French, and English. All the students had English as a major subject in college, and had had four to five years of English as a foreign language (FL) for 2-3 hours a week in high school. Most of the 3rd year students in this study specialised in linguistics; only a few took literature as a major.

Thirteen out of sixteen reading teachers took part in the research; their teaching experience spanned 1-25 years (1-10 years for the 1st year teachers, and 1-25 for the rest). Three of the teachers were male and ten female; two of them were native speakers of English.

The Reading Program

Reading is a compulsory subject for all the English Maîtrise [1] students. The reading courses cover five semesters, each one of them is a one-hour weekly course that is normally scheduled with the writing course, and is somewhat integrated with it.

The approach used in teaching reading is "eclectic." Teachers try to establish a balance between a process-based and a product-based approach; they not only try to make students learn skills and techniques that would enable them to improve their reading abilities and pass their exams, but they also try to make them become aware of the reading process. They teach the learners various strategies/techniques such as: skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from context, understanding the organisation of a text, finding the thesis statement, deduction, and inference to make them read better and faster. They show the students not only how to proceed when reading academic texts, but they also make them pay attention to the way ideas are built up and organised, and texts structured.

---

1. The English Maîtrise may be considered as the equivalent of the Bachelor of Arts. Studies last four years, the 1st and 2nd years are devoted essentially to reinforcing the language skills; the 3rd and 4th years are years of specialisation; i.e., students either major in linguistics, or in literature and culture studies.

The reading course over-all objectives are to make students :

a. practise reading by using strategies and skills

b. improve their reading fluency and proficiency; namely, speed and comprehension when reading academic texts

c. and develop critical reading and interpretation.

The instructional materials/hand-outs used for the 1st year are excerpts from various sources (authentic texts, tasks, and exercises taken from various books) that students are required to use in and outside the reading class; some of the texts, tasks, and exercises are former exams. The hand-outs for the 2nd and 3rd years come from the same book; the first part is for the 2nd year, and the second for the 3rd year. In addition to the book, there are extensive readings (magazine/ newspaper articles, critical essays, and excerpts from books) that 3rd year students are required to read at home and discuss in class.

Students are required to attend courses and do their reading assignments regularly (i.e., once a week); they are also required to sit for two final exams (one at the end of each semester), and two make-up exams for those who may need them at the end of the year.

As there is no continuous assessment, the students' evaluation is based only on the exam marks, which are taken into account when calculating the students' averages; i.e., when deciding whether to allow them to pass, or fail the reading-writing-grammar module (10/20 is the passing average).

Questionnaires

This study is based on Student and Teacher questionnaires as well as interviews during the academic year 2001-2002. The Student Questionnaire, which was in English, was administered to 1st, 2nd and 3rd year students (all volunteers). It was conducted during regular reading classes, and the teachers who were in charge of it were asked to help students with the questions whenever required. The respondents spent 40-50 minutes to fill it out. On the whole, it did not pose problems.

The questionnaire was constructed to inquire about the learners' motivation for reading in general, and EFL reading more specifically. It investigated their reading habits and objectives as well as attitudes towards reading, the reading program, the instructional materials/hand-outs, the reading skills and strategies, the reading texts, and topics, the reading course, and the teaching approach as a whole. The last questions were about what might improve reading and their reading course. The questionnaire comprised 25 yes-no, multiple choice, and open questions in all.

Twelve of the thirteen teachers answered the Teacher Questionnaire. They were asked about their teaching experience, and about the teaching approach as a whole. The teachers had to evaluate the reading program, instructional materials, texts, topics, the teaching approach they used in class, and the testing system they followed. The last questions were about whether they enjoyed teaching reading and about their suggestions for changes that would improve the reading course. There were 19 closed and open questions in all.

Interviews

Due to various constraints, only ten students volunteered for the interviews (four 1st year students, three 2nd year, and three 3rd year students (six females, and four males in all), and seven teachers were interviewed (1st year teachers, 2nd year and 3rd year teachers). Both students and teachers were asked more or less the same questions as in the questionnaires, but were also free to speak about their perceptions of reading issues and to provide suggestions for solutions. All the interviewees were quite talkative and cooperative, they all, especially students, appreciated being asked to present their own points of view.

Data Collection and Procedures

The students' and teachers' responses from the questionnaires and interviews, which were recorded, transcribed, and classified according to level (1st/2nd /3rd year student/teacher) and gender. Then they were grouped, classified and analysed in relation to the points under investigation. Some percentages and frequency counts were provided whenever needed, and whenever possible. Given the small number of participants in the interviews, no firm conclusions could be drawn from this source. However, quoting from them was done to support or complement questionnaire results.

Results

Table 1

Students' Responses to Whether They Liked Reading In English

Responses/Level	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	Total	
	%	%	%	No.	%
very much	18	15	24	57	19
much	32	41	33	106	35
moderately	32	33	38	103	34
a little	17	7	5	29	10
not at all	_	4	_	4	1
NA*	1	_	_	1	.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100

*NA: no answer/vague/not clear/don't know

Table 2

Female & Male Students' Responses to Whether They liked Reading in English

Responses/Gender	Female		Male	
	No.	%	No.	%
very much	43	17	14	26
much	91	37	15	28
moderately	88	36	15	28
a little	21	9	8	15
not at all	2	.8	2	4
NA	1	.4	_	_
Total	246	100	54	100

Table 3

Students' Objectives in Reading

Responses/ Level	1st year			2nd year			3rd year			Total		
	Scores	%	Rank	Scores	%	Rank	Scores	%	Rank	Scores	%	Rank
for pleasure	55	15	4	60	16	4	76	19	4	191	16	4
to gain information	88	23	2	87	23	2	84	21	3	259	22	2
to fulfil teacher's demands for the course	54	14	5	50	13	5	67	16	5	171	15	5
to pass tests and exams	81	21	3	79	21	3	89	22	1	249	21	3
to learn the language	97	26	1	98	26	1	87	21	2	282	24	1
Miscellaneous	3	.7	6	7	2	6	6	1	6	16	1	6
Total	378			381			409			1168		

Table 4

Students' Responses to Whether Reading is an Important Skill

Responses/level	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	Total	
	%	%	%	No.	%
Yes	87	76	82	245	82
No	3	7	1	11	4
NA	10	17	17	44	14
Total	100	100	100	300	100

Table 5

Students' Responses to the Question of Whether the Reading Course Prepared them for Other Courses

Responses/Level	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	Total
	%	%	%	No. %
Yes	93	80	77	250 83
No	5	19	21	45 15
NA	2	1	2	5 2
Total	100	100	100	300 100

Table 6

Students' Attitudes Towards the Reading Program

Level/Responses	Positive Responses No. %	Negative Responses No. %	Total
1st year	77 57	58 43	135
2nd year	45 35	82 65	127
3rd year	50 35	92 65	142
Total	172 43	232 57	404

Table 7

Students' Attitudes Towards the Instructional Materials

Level/ Responses	Postive Responses No. %	Negative Responses No. %	+/- Responses No. %	Total
1st year	104 89	12 10	1 .8	117
2nd year	78 64	41 34	2 .2	121
3rd year	101 75	33 25	_ _	134
Total	283 76	86 23	3 .8	372

Table 8

Students' Responses to the Question of Whether the Reading Strategies Taught Were Helpful or Not

Responses/ Level	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	Total	
	%	%	%	No.	%
Yes	89	90	90	269	90
No	4	8	6	18	6
NA	7	2	4	13	4
Total	100	100	100	300	100

Table 9

Students' Responses to the Question of Whether they Attended Reading Classes Regularly

Responses/ Level	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	Total	
	%	%	%	No.	%
Yes	79	52	66	197	66
No	21	45	32	98	33
NA		3	2	5	1
Total	100	100	100	300	100

Table 10

Students' Attitudes Towards the Teaching Approach

Level/ Responses	Postive Responses No.	%	Negative Responses No.	%	+/- Responses No.	%	Total
1st year	67	70	29	30	_	_	96
2nd year	34	28	87	71	2	2	123
3rd year	48	41	67	57	2	2	117
Total	149	44	183	54	4	1	336

Table 11

Female & Male Students' Attitudes Towards the Teaching Approach

Gender/ Responses	Postive Responses No.	%	Negative Responses No.	%	+/- Responses No.	%	Total No.
Female	130	48	140	51	3	1	273
Male	19	30	43	68	1	2	63
Total	149	44	183	54	4	1	336

Table 12

Students' Attitudes Towards the Way They Were Tested

Level/ Responses	Postive Responses No.	%	Negative Responses No.	%	+/- Responses No.	%	Total
1st year	30	45	35	53	1	2	66
2nd year	6	6	99	94	_	_	105
3rd year	13	16	68	82	2	2	83
Total	49	19	202	80	3	1	254

Analysis

Motivation for Reading

Student motivation for EFL reading was higher than for reading in general; 54% claimed that they liked reading in English "much" or "very much" (Tables 1 and 2). Learners also reported in interviews that they liked reading short stories mainly. This could be linked to the short length, or to the fact that the short story is a very popular form of literary fiction in the Arabic-speaking world.

When asked in the interview which language they read most in, 1st year students placed Arabic first before French and English; a rather normal classification that matches the introduction of these languages in the school curriculum, and that may well go with their level of proficiency. The 2nd and 3rd year students claimed that English was the language they read most. Responses also indicated, however, that 73% of the students devoted less than ten hours a week to reading in English, and 48% said that they read less than 30 pages a week. Students' main objective in reading in English was "to learn the language" (see Table 3).

Attitudes towards Reading

Eighty-two percent of the respondents claimed that reading was an important skill (see Table 4) and had positive attitudes generally. The respondents, whatever their level and gender, believed that reading improved writing first and foremost, and some added that it improved one's language proficiency in general, increased fluency, broadened one's horizons and world view, and developed one's imagination, critical thinking and argumentation.

Attitudes towards the Reading Course

Most (83%) of the students said that the reading course prepared them for other courses, especially the literature and civilisation courses (see Table 5). Most all the teachers (11/12) who answered the questionnaire concurred. Eight said that they enjoyed teaching it although two of them admitted that they "got a bit bored with the same old texts," and of teaching the same tasks in the second semester. A few stated that they did not enjoy teaching the course because they were often disappointed by their students' lack of interest in reading, and lack of work in the course. This was confirmed by five of the interviewed teachers, who reported that the reading course was 'uninteresting' for students; they pointed out that the problem with this course was that like any skills course; students did not like to practice [illegible] assignments,

which they did not find "challenging"; One teacher said that students were rather "passive", and that "they just recorded the information they received from the teacher."

Attitudes towards the Reading Program

Comments upon the reading program (see Table 6) were rather negative, (57% of the total), particularly among the second and third year students. Although they considered the program "interesting," they thought that it was "long" and "hard." The 1st year teachers' comments about the program were also rather negative. They considered the 1st semester better because they had "revamped it", but that the second semester was "not very satisfying. In contrast, the 2nd and 3rd year teachers" comments were positive on the whole.

Attitudes towards the Instructional Materials/Hand-outs and Texts

The students' comments upon the instructional materials/hand-outs used in the reading class were positive, representing 76% of the total count of the answers (see Table 7). The students qualified them as mainly "useful' and "interesting". Nevertheless, a few comments were negative such as: "not interesting", "not useful", "boring" etc. Only 54% of the respondents considered that the hand-outs "answered their needs." In contrast again, the teachers' comments upon the hand-outs were mostly positive; most of them (10/12) claimed that they met the students' and their own requirements.

Comments concerning the texts were mixed. Learners, generally speaking, judged them "interesting," but "difficult." Some students stressed the fact that they were "not well selected," and rather long. Students were in general agreement that what they did not like most about the reading course were texts.

As far as 1st year teachers are concerned, their remarks about the texts were rather negative; some described them as "easy", "not interesting", and "not as varied as they should be". On the other hand, the 2nd and 3rd year teachers' comments were positive on the whole.

Attitudes towards the Topics

Most (63%) of the students' comments were positive concerning the topics dealt with in the reading class. The learners, whatever their level or gender, judged the topics "motivating," "challenging," but "difficult." Interestingly, however, the 1st and 2nd year teachers' remarks about the topics were rather negative, depicting them as "not really inte[illegible]" "not motivating," "boring," "not varied," etc.

Attitudes towards the Reading Skills/ Strategies

When asked about whether they used reading strategies or not when reading in English, 53% answered positively. The students, whatever their level or gender, contended that the reading strategies/skills they used most were: scanning, skimming, summarising, outlining and paraphrasing. Moreover, 90% recognised that these strategies were helpful and that they improved their reading skill (see Table 8). Students also claimed that strategy learning was what they liked most about the reading course.

Nevertheless, some students expressed their skepticism by saying that these skills helped them read "faster", but not "better". They argued that when the texts were difficult, the strategies did not help much, they rather became "a waste of time", and a few declared that they did not need to be taught such skills, saying that they knew how to read, and that they did not need to learn how to do it; what they really needed, they said, was to read "good stuff".

The teachers reported that when teaching reading, they focused upon skimming, scanning, guessing meaning from context, understanding the organisation of a text, finding out the thesis statement, and inference. According to them, these skills/ strategies were very helpful. They claimed that the most useful were: vocabulary deduction, guessing meaning from context, skimming, scanning and inference. However, they did not believe that their students knew how to use these strategies when reading many texts in English. One teacher said that he did not think they applied the various strategies on texts outside the course, or in exams.

Attendance Rate

Table 9 indicates that 66% of the students attend reading classes regularly. However, "regular attendance" did not necessarily mean the same for students and teachers. In fact, for a good number of students, 3-4 absences per semester and per subject, was considered "normal." This may result partially from the fact that in this system absences are not taken into consideration in the computation of students' averages. Stated reasons included:

1. The course was "not useful," "boring," "tiring" or "unnecessary."
2. The reading course came after a two-hour writing class.
3. Some did not have time for all the courses, so they dropped those they considered less useful/ important.
4. Attendance was not compulsory, so students felt free to attend or not.

5. Three students mentioned that they did not need the teacher, and that reading was a personal task; One of the interviewees said: "I'd rather work on my own, I can choose my texts and my writers".

Regarding teachers' responses, it should be noted that in spite of the fact that a good number of students claimed that they attended reading classes regularly, most teachers (i.e., 8/12) complained about low attendance, especially in the second semester (in the case of the 1st year students mainly).

The most likely causes according to them included those mentioned by students, but also included possible course difficulty, and students' perception that reading was easy and that their reading proficiency already good enough.

Attitudes towards Teaching and Assessment

When asked about the way they were taught reading, only first year students responded positively, (see Table 10). It is interesting to note that this is one of the few areas where there was a marked difference between male and female students. The male students were far more negative about instruction (Table 11). In addition, the students complained about the way they were tested; 80% of their comments were negative (Table 12). In interviews, students said that exams were much "longer" and "harder" than expected and that they did not reveal their reading abilities. In fact, only half said that exams tested their abilities.

In contrast, eight out of the twelve teachers who answered the questionnaire reported that they were satisfied with the way they taught and assessed reading; those who were not, admitted that they neglected the reading course because they felt that the learners needed to be helped with writing more than reading.

Most (8/12) claimed that the exams reflected what had been taught in class (skills development and strategy use) and reflected students' abilities, but that students lacked practice in speed reading and in all the reading skills and strategies. They put the blame on students' shoulders contending that many of them did not attend classes regularly and hence could not benefit from the reading techniques/skills introduced in class. Nine out of twelve teachers reported that most students did not do their assignments, and that they did not read much even though they claimed the opposite. They added that many of the learners considered that they knew how to read, and consequently, were not convinced of the usefulness of the reading course.

Teachers and students, on the whole, were most at odds with each other on the issues of instruction and assessment. The data here points to a major area where there are differences of opinion which need addressing.

Students' and Teachers' Suggestions

The following are among suggestions made by students and teachers to improve reading and the reading course:

- Reading a lot (this was the claim of 78% of the students; and all the teachers)
- Inciting students to use reading strategies
- Selecting "good texts" (good academic texts from various sources) and "interesting and varied topics"
- Involving students in program preparation
- Having a "competent", "dynamic", "motivating", "encouraging" teacher
- Separating the reading course from the writing course
- Increasing the number of hours per week for reading (1.5/2 hours per week)
- Having a more appropriate schedule for the course
- Having more practice in class; more exercises, and more challenging tasks
- Reinforcing co-ordination between reading and content-based courses teachers, and establishing bridges between the reading course and content courses (e.g., literature, civilisation/culture studies, and linguistics courses)
- Integrating the various skills (grammar, reading, writing, oral expression)
- Having a better evaluation system (i.e., establishing criteria for both text selection and testing; reconsidering the choice of exam texts and questions; choosing shorter and less difficult texts similar to those dealt with in class—texts that would assess both comprehension, strategy use and degree of assimilation of the various skills).

Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

Our efforts yielded a number of interesting findings and areas where further discussion between administrators, teachers, and students could bring about better communication, cooperation and needed improvements. Most of the students said that they were conscious of the importance of EFL reading, and of the usefulness of reading and the reading course, and 54% of them actually indicated that they enjoyed reading in English. These findings are generally encouraging. What should also be noted here is that there was a slight increase in motivation for EFL reading across levels, despite decreasing attitudes among the 2nd and 3rd year students about the reading program. Efforts should to be taken to capitalize on initial positive attitudes and motivation. This could involve several of the suggestions mentioned above:

including students in course preparation, doing more reading (i.e., extensive reading), experimenting further with content-based materials and methods, modeling strategy use, and altering the nature of the assessment procedures. Both teachers and students stressed the fact that the teacher still had an important role to play in inciting learners to read and in showing them how to do it.

Consequently, instructors need to put a great deal of thought into: developing programs which will foster their students' interest, selecting reading materials that are well within their students' linguistic competence (in terms of vocabulary, grammar, content, topic, length, etc.),and choosing materials and tasks that are appealing to their students. They could also ask their students to collect and choose some of the reading material in order to enhance their motivation, and incite them to read what they want to read, not just what they are required to read. This option has actually become much easier to accomplish since the advent of the internet.

As classroom reading is not sufficient (even with 2 hours per week), it must be complemented by extensive reading outside the classroom (e.g., collections of short stories (since they expressed their preference for this literary genre)), while making sure, in motivating ways, that reading is actually taking place. Reading for pleasure would help improve the learners' reading fluency and proficiency, and would certainly have a positive impact on their attitudes towards EFL reading.

To sum up, our research has given us a good foundation upon which to address the attitudes and motivations of our students. We have also gained a better understanding of the differences in perspective of our teachers and students. Such a foundation will go a long ways towards future program improvement, teacher in-servicing efforts, and student morale, all of which are important variables in learning. While program directors and teachers may not always have the resources to conduct such a detailed and wide-ranging study such as ours, the principle of becoming more aware of our learners, becoming more learner-centered, is obtainable to some degree by us all.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my colleagues and all the students who generously gave their time for this research. I also thank the reviewers for providing helpful comments on a previous versions of this paper.

References

Bacon, S. M. C., & Finnemann, M. D. (1992). Sex differences in self-reported beliefs about foreign language learning and authentic oral and written input. *Language Learning, 42*, 471- 495.

Barkhuizen, P. G. (1998). Discovering learners' perceptions of ESL classroom teaching/learning activities in a South African context. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 85-108.

Cotterall, S. (1999). Key variables in language learning: What do learners believe about them? *System, 27*, 493-513. Retrieved at http://www.elsevier.com/locate/system

Day, R. R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Gardner, R. C. (1983). Learning another language: A true social psychological experiment. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 2*, 219-239.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning*. Rowley, Massachussetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A student's contributions to second language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching, 26*, 1-11.

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal, 72*, 283-294.

Maamouri Ghrib, E. (in press-a). University students' and teachers' perceptions of EFL writing issues. Writing Conference 2000, European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction. Verona, Italy, (6-9 September 2000).

Maamouri Ghrib, E. (in press-b). Learners' and teachers' perceptions of learning and teaching issues. *Revue tunisienne des langues vivantes,* Faculté des Lettres de la Manouba, Université de la Manouba.

Maamouri Ghrib, E. (2002). EFL learners' and teachers' attitudes towards the writing program (unpublished manuscript).

Mason, B., & Krashen, S. (1997). Extensive reading in English as a foreign language. *System, 25*, 91-102.

Nunan, D. (1988). *The Learner-Centred Curriculum: A Study in Second Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nyikos, M. (1990). Sex-related differences in adult language learning: Socialization and memory factors. *The Modern Language Journal, 74*, 273-287.

O'Neill, R. (1991). The plausible myth of learner-centredness: Or the importance of doing ordinary things well. *ELT Journal, 45*, 293-304.

Polak, J., & Krashen, S. (1988). Do we need to teach spelling? The relationship between spelling and voluntary reading among community college ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*, 141-145.

Yang, N-D. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use. *System, 27*, 515-535. http://www.elsevier.com/locate/system.

About the Author

Esma Maamouri Ghrib is Maître Assistant d'anglais at the Institut Supérieur des Langues de Tunis, Université 7-novembre à Carthage. She teaches linguistics and psycholinguistics. Her research interests are EFL writing, reading, and literacy/ illiteracy issues.

Tips for Teachers

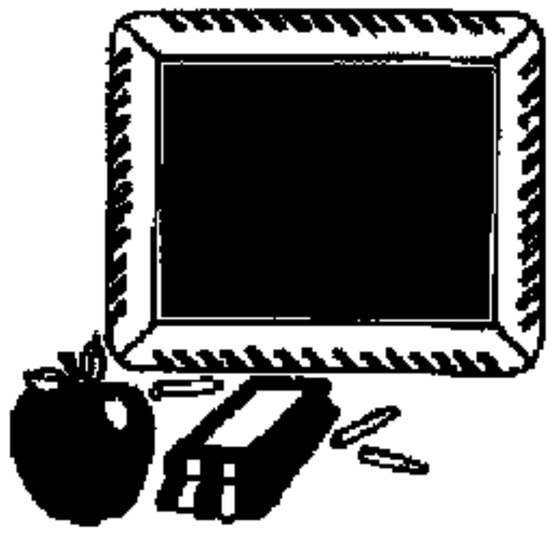
Have you been wondering how to get something published? Do you have an activity that works well every time? Does your colleague have a teaching technique that we should hear about?

TIPS FOR TEACHERS

would like to help you publish these ideas. All submissions are welcome. Editorial advice and assistance is available. See inside back cover for details.

Jean Kirschenmann
c/o Center for English Language Programs
Hawai'i Pacific University
1188 Fort Street Mall, Room 133
Honolulu, HI 96813 USA

jkirschenmann@hpu.edu



Tips for Teachers

Teaching Pseudo Synonyms to ESL Students: The Case of "Do" and "Make"

Alexander Astor, Hostos Community College, City University of New York

Vocabulary teaching in TESOL curricula has been historically relegated to secondary status in favor of an emphasis on grammar. Most programs assign vocabulary instruction to reading or listening comprehension courses where it is often seen as a means to an end but not as a goal in itself. The result of this kind of instruction is hardly a surprise: college-level students, who have completed ESL courses, find themselves at a literal "loss for words" in the uncontrolled English-speaking environment of the American university. They feel frustrated and sometimes claim that their ESL years were wasted since they experience enormous difficulty understanding and using English in their daily academic and nonacademic endeavors.

In order to remedy this situation, college level ESL curricula should be redesigned to include direct vocabulary instruction. Our students will be evaluated as much on their lexical proficiency as they are on their command of syntactic structures. Thus, it is incumbent on us to provide them with sufficient vocabulary instruction to function normally in an uncontrolled English-speaking environment. We have made strides in the *t*eaching of grammar, and there is no doubt that we can be as successful in teaching vocabulary. At present, however, since few college-level ESL programs provide for direct vocabulary teaching, ESL instructors must often create their own materials.

One area of vocabulary instruction that has intrigued me for a number of years is student confusion with what I call pseudo synonyms. Unlike typical synonyms, pseudo synonyms classify disparate groups of concepts, phenomena, and objects. There are two main categories of pseudo synonyms in English-those that can be used interchangeably in certain linguistic contexts, like vehicle and car, and those that cannot, like famous and notorious. Use of pseudo synonyms that are not

interchangeable can result in generating statements that are absurd, that do not convey the speaker's intended meaning, or that disrupt the flow of discourse.

My students have produced these sentences, which illustrate confusion with pseudo synonyms.

The wages were aroused.	instead of	The wages were raised.
He gave up the job.	instead of	He refused the job.
I did not listen to the news.	instead of	I did not hear the news.
He suggested repeating the experiment.	instead of	He offered to repeat the experiment.
He did not see me.	instead of	He did not look at me.

There are several reasons for these errors in adult ESL student speech. At the beginning level, ESL students often confuse pseudo synonyms due to the influence of their first language. One term in a student's first language may correspond to two or more in English, for example come and go; say, speak, and tell; teach and learn; suggest, offer, and propose; and make and do. In other cases, lexical difficulties are compounded by specific grammatical co-occurrence restrictions or the semantic intentions of the speaker. Without direct instruction, however, our students are frequently unaware of the differences in usage between pairs of ostensibly synonymous words in English. They are unable to correct errors because they unaware of them. They do not fully understand the complexities involved in mastering the usage of a word. Even students who are aware of the complexities of vocabulary use are frequently frustrated in their attempts to seek help. Most dictionaries and thesauri are written for native speakers who have the background knowledge to select an appropriate word or phrase for a given context from a long list of synonyms.

Below are examples of activities that I have used to draw student attention to the meaning and use of pseudo synonyms. While these exercises are specific to the pseudo pair "do and make," similar exercises can be used for other sets of pseudo synonyms.

One reason students confuse "do" and "make" is illustrated in these questions and responses:

1.	What does a baker do?	He makes bread.
2.	What does a tailor do?	She makes suits.
3.	What do shoemakers do?	They make shoes.
4.	What does a contractor do?	He makes houses.
5.	What does the desk clerk do?	She makes reservations.

Exercise 1

The following questions, set in the context of getting to know a classmate, can be used to draw student attention to common expressions that use forms of "make" and "do." Students can work in pairs and take turns asking and answering the questions. Since these sentences are short and simple, students are able to attain a degree of automaticity with these expressions.

1. Do you always do your assignments?
2. When do you do your homework?
3. Did you make many mistakes in your last test?
4. Did you make grammar or spelling mistakes?
5. Do you help your mother do the housework?
6. Do you make friends easily?
7. Do you make up with your friends after a fight?
8. What do your parents do?
9. Have you done your project yet?
10. Did you make a donation to the food bank?

Exercise 2

These proverbs and common sayings contain "do" or "make." Can you understand them? If not, you may need to consult a dictionary or ask your teacher to explain them to you.

Sayings and proverbs with "do:

1. When in Rome, do as the Romans do.
2. What we do willingly is easy.
3. What has been done cannot be undone.
4. Well begun is half done.
5. If you want something done well, do it yourself.
6. Promise little, but do much.
7. Anything that is worth doing is worth doing well.
8. Never put off till tomorrow what you can do today.
9. If we can't do as we would, we must do as we can.
10. Do unto others as you would have others do unto you.

Sayings and proverbs with "make"

1. Make hay while the sun shines.
2. Don't make mountains out of molehills.
3. Two wrongs don't make a right.
4. Haste makes waste.
5. As you make your bed, so you must lie on it.
6. You cannot make an omelet without breaking eggs.

Exercise 3

Change the following imperative sentences into polite requests using , "Would you mind . . .", "Please . . .", or other appropriate phrases.

	Imperative form	*Polite form*
1.	Do me a favor.	Would you mind doing me a favor?
2.	Make the bed.	Please make the bed
3.	Don't make so much noise.	
4.	Do the translation first.	
5.	Make a list of everything you need.	
6.	Make room for another person in your group.	
7.	Do your homework in the library.	

Exercise 4

Here are some rules of advice that people commonly give each other. We call rules written in this way "dos" and "don'ts." Can you understand them? Do you agree with them? Can you add to the list? Write your own dos or don'ts.

1. Don't make this mistake again.
2. Don't go to bed until you have done your homework.
3. Don't make mountains out of molehills.
4. Don't do anything till I come back.
5. Always do your best.
6. Do as you like.
7. Do your work first and then play.
8. Be the labor great or small, do it well, or not at all.

Exercise 5

The following statements are false. Work with a partner to correct them.

1. Violins are made of glass.
2. It is easy to make a house.
3. Cows make nests.
4. Beer makes flowers grow.
5. The story was so funny that it made me cry.
6. If you want something done well, ask someone to do it for you.
7. Smoking will do you no harm.
8. It will do you good to go to bed late every night.

Exercise 6

Use the appropriate form of "do" or "make" to complete theses sentences. The sentences tell about a plastics factory.

1. This factory ___ plastics.
2. The founder of this company had ___ everything himself.
3. The first thing he ___ was to borrow money from the bank.
4. Don't ___ anything ___ the foreman angry.
5. Try to work like he ___.
6. If you ___ the work by 4:00, you will ___ progress.
7. Please ___ everything possible ___ the new worker feel at home.
8. What are plastics ___ of?
9. Work the morning shift or the evening shift. It ___ no difference to me.
10. You must ___ your best ___ as few mistakes as possible.
11. It will ___ you good to give up smoking.
12. Don't rush, because haste ___ waste.

About the Author

Dr. Alexander Astor teaches ESL, composition, and reading courses at Hostos Community College of the City University of New York.

Building and Using a Picture File

Jean Coffman, Hawai'i Pacific University

The cliché that a picture is worth a thousand words expresses advice that language teachers can put to good use. While I do not often draw a thousand words out of my ESL students, I have found pictures to be a very simple means of sparking ideas and eliciting language, even from reluctant, beginning level students. About ten years ago, I began to organize a picture file that has now grown to several hundred pictures, organized and stored in a way that makes them available to over 50 ESL teachers at my university. The process by which this file was created could be adapted for use by other programs or institutions.

Building the File

Step 1: Creating Storage Space

Deciding where and how the completed picture file will be stored is a good place to begin. This will determine the size and source of the pictures to be collected. Our file is stored in a file cabinet. Depending upon their situation, teachers may wish to use smaller pictures that could be stored in index card files, photo storage boxes, or other smaller files.

Step 2: Collecting the Pictures

Perhaps the easiest part of the process is gathering pictures. My primary sources of pictures were discarded magazines and calendars. I looked for pictures that were visually attractive, clear, colorful (for the most part), and free of distracting text. I also included pictures of unusual, humorous, or exotic people and places. Once colleagues knew about the project, they donated pictures for our file as well.

Step 3: Preparing the Pictures

Creating a file that can be used and cared for by many people requires some extra care in preparation. It is important that all the pictures be carefully trimmed and easy to handle. All of our pictures are mounted on colored sheets of 8fi by 11 inch paper. This size works well for us because the pictures are large enough to be shared by several students and can sometimes be shown to an entire class. As noted above, it is also cheap and easy to find pictures that will fit on paper of this size. Smaller pictures can be mounted on index cards of various sizes. If it is possible, the cards should be

laminated. This makes them durable and keeps them clean. We are fortunate to have the help of student workers to prepare and maintain our pictures.

Step 4: Organizing the Pictures

Some system for classification is necessary so that teachers with a particular activity in mind can quickly find what they are looking for. Our file is organized into about a dozen categories including individuals, groups of people, people at work, man-made things, animals, nature, and recreation and sports. These categories are labeled in the file cabinet so that teachers can quickly go to the section where they are likely to find what they are looking for. To help us return pictures to the right place, each card also has a sticky label on the back, coded to fit the category where the card belongs.

Step 5: Maintaining the File

Anything used by a large number of people requires upkeep. Busy teachers don't always check where they are putting pictures when they return them to the file. Occasionally pictures go missing. The sticky labels eventually fall off. Just as library shelves need to be checked and organized periodically, so does our picture file. We continue to look for pictures to add to the file, and once in awhile we add a new category of pictures.

Sample Picture Activity—My Daily Routine

The steps below describe a picture-based activity that works well with intermediate level students who have recently begun to work on subordination. The activity promotes oral fluency, provides guided practice in sentence construction, encourages students to ask for help, and gives them a chance to use their imagination or sense of humor.

1. From the picture file, select enough pictures for each student to have one of each in the categories of places where people might live (houses, apartments, igloos, tents, etc.), ways people might travel (cars, trains, boats, buses, horseback, etc.), types of jobs people might have (cutting down trees, surfing, doing office work, teaching, driving bus, etc.), and kinds of leisure activities people might enjoy (swimming, eating at a restaurant, catching butterflies, hiking, boating, etc.)

2. Layout the four sets of pictures. Ask students to choose one picture from each group. Try not to get the piles of pictures mixed up. Do not tell them anything more at this time.

3. As students are choosing their pictures, write on the board or overhead projector the adverbial conjunctions and relative clauses that the class has been using

to introduce subordinate clauses. These probably include when, while, because, although, after, where, and that.

4. After the students have chosen their pictures, write the following on the board or overhead projector. You can add or delete information depending on your students' level.

Where I live

How I get to work

What I see

What I do on the job

What I do later (my hobby)

5. Tell students that they need to use their pictures and the cues on the board to create an imaginary short story about themselves. Then, demonstrate, making the story as humorous as possible. For example: I live on a tropical island where the temperature is always mild. As I travel to work on my dogsled, I usually see chimpanzees along side the road. I have good job catching butterflies for the Ministry of Science and Technology although it doesn't pay very well. After we get off work, my colleagues and I often go disco dancing. Remind students to try to use some subordination although they may use other sentence structures as well.

6. Arrange students in small groups to practice. Encourage them to take turns telling their stories 2-3 times. One person at a time in each group can be designated to pay close attention to the use of subordination. Ask students to call you for help if they find something in their pictures that they do not know how to say in English. If time permits, groups can be rearranged so that students can tell their stories to a new audience as well. Pictures can also be shuffled and redistributed.

7. Once an activity like this has been taught, similar sessions with other targeted forms can become a routine yet fun form of periodic practice or review.

Many instructors in my program have their favorite picture-based activities. When one teacher finds another pulling pictures out of the file, there is often a brief exchange about how the pictures are going to be used. With just a minute or two of dialog, a teacher has a new idea for bringing life to his or her ESL lesson.

About the Author

Jean Coffman is Associate Professor of ESL at Hawai'i Pacific University. She also teaches TESL methods courses in which she encourages future teachers to begin developing their own picture files.

A Pinch of Salt: Using Etymology to Flavor EFL Classes

Ding Jiali, People's Republic of China

EFL classes can sometimes be dull especially when taught in settings where students have little contact with English outside of their foreign language classes. About 15 years ago, I began spicing up my EFL classes by introducing the etymology of interesting words and phrases. My students' interest level always rises when I tell a story of word origins. They learn the current usage of the word or phrase as well as some cultural or historical information. Most important, they enjoy using these words and phrases in their own speech. Gradually, they acquire a more and more complete picture of English and its complex history.

A good place to begin the study of word origins is with the origin of the word "etymology." I tell my students that this word is derived from the Greek root etumos, meaning "real" or "true", and the suffix -ology meaning "the study or science of". Thus, etymology is the study of word origins. I also point out that they have seen the suffix, "-ology" in other words that they know like biology or geology. Students begin to see how English is related to many different languages and how English words are built from meaningful pieces.

There are a number of different ways to introduce a story of etymology into an English lesson, but one of the best is when student curiosity leads to a question. For instance, my students were puzzled by reference to an experiment conducted on guinea pigs. Why would a small rat-like creature be called a pig? Does it have anything to do with the African country of Guinea? I compliment students who raise such questions, and I try to satisfy them with what I know about the etymology of the word. A Guinea pig is not a kind of pig as the word suggests. It is actually a kind of rat and originally came from South America. In the early days of trans-Atlantic trade between Africa, South America, and Europe, there was probably confusion about whether this cute creature came from Guinea or Guiana. Calling it a pig, which was a domesticated animal, had a better connotation than calling it a rat. Guinea pigs are often used for medical experiments because they have a rapid rate of reproduction, and since the early 20th century, the term has also referred to people who have been used as subjects in scientific experiments. My students are amused by this kind of story. More important, they remember the phrase and understand its usage.

Besides student questions, stories of etymology can grow out of the study of literature including the Bible, novels, plays; and folk tales. Literature is the source of common expressions used in a variety of contexts from newspapers to academic

publications. Studying the etymology of such phrases is both entertaining and useful for students who may encounter the expressions again in other readings. An example of such a word is "albatross." When my students first encountered this word, they had no difficulty understanding the primary dictionary definition of a white seabird, but they could not understand why the word also connotes "trouble" or "vexation." How could a bird signify "a burden that one cannot seem to get rid of"? It helps to know that in ancient times, a superstition said that anyone who killed an albatross would have misfortune. Then in his "The Rime of the Ancient Mariner," the English poet, S.T. Coleridge, described how an old sailor killed an albatross and caused his crew misfortune. The old sailor was forced to shoulder the dead bird as atonement for what he had done. This is how the word "albatross" came to be associated with the idea of a terrible burden.

Even relatively simple words have interesting stories. In one class, we were reading about an atlas. A student asked about the meaning of "atlas." This is another word with its origin in Greek mythology. Atlas was a mythical giant. When he got into trouble, he was forced to hold up the heavens as his punishment. In the 16th century, a geographer illustrated his book of maps with a drawing of Atlas holding up the world. Other publishers follow this example, and gradually, Atlas turned from a proper noun into a common noun. It is interesting that the mapmaker who first used the illustration of Atlas was Mercator, whose name has also come to mean something more than just a person's name.

The particular setting in which one teaches is another source of stories about word etymologies. I live and teach in China. My students are often puzzled by the English use of "Mandarin" to refer to both Chinese civil servants during the Qing Dynasty and the national language of our country. Today, the official language of China is Putonghua. How did Putonghua come to be known to English speakers as Mandarin? This question leads to another story of etymology. The first Europeans to travel in the Far East were the Portuguese. They associated the Indonesian word menteri/mantri meaning "minister" with the Portuguese word mandar meaning "command" and coined the term mandarim referring to high-ranking Chinese officials and the official language as well. Other speakers of European languages, including English, borrowed this term. Times have changed, and we do not call government officials mandarins anymore, but outside China people still refer to Putonghua as Mandarin. When I was in Australia and South Africa, people asked me if I spoke Mandarin. At first, I was amused, but when I realized that they had no idea what Putonghua was, I learned to refer to my language as Mandarin. Understanding the story behind these words helps my students accept the use of a foreign word for the name of their language.

The relatively new world of high technology is another source of words with interesting etymologies. Recently, I recommended that my students do a Google search to look for listening and reading materials on the Internet. During the next

class, a student asked the meaning of Google because he could not find it in his dictionary. Another student had found information about its etymology on line. He explained that Google is a variation of the word googol, a term coined by the nephew of an American mathematician to refer to the number 1 followed by 100 zeros. In other words, it symbolizes a very large number or amount. The search engine Google uses a variation of the term to reflect the company's mission of organizing an immense, seemingly infinite amount of information on the Internet. The other students were fascinated by what he had learned.

My experience is that etymology can be used as a pinch of salt to add some flavor to my EFL classes. If we want to make language learning a more enjoyable and more beneficial experience for our students, it is always worth trying new ingredients in our teaching approaches. Of course, too much seasoning will spoil the food, so I am always careful to choose just a few word etymologies at a time. Students become more motivated, active, and curious about the target language. In short, they realize that language learning can be fun.

References

Of course, I don't always know the answer to questions about etymology. Fortunately, I have found several good reference works that I have listed here. As my students are finding out, the Internet is another good source of information on etymology as well.

Ayto, J. (1990). *Bloomsbury Dictionary of Word Origins.* Bloomsbury: World Publishing Corp.

Ciardi, J. (1980). *A Browser's Dictionary*. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Collins, V. H. (1956). *A Book of English Idioms*. London: Longmans, Green and O. Ltd.

Soukhanov, A. H. (Ed.). (1986). *Word Mysteries & Histories.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Lugang, Z. (1984). *The Dictionary of Greek and Roman Mythology.* The Publishing House of China Sociological Academy.

Zhuang, H. (1997). *Amusing Origins of English Words*. Shanghai Foreign Languages Publishing House.

About the Author

Ms. Ding Jiali teaches English in the Foreign Languages Department of Jiangnan University, Wuxi, the People's Republic of China. She was a visiting scholar in Australia in 2000.

Can a Non-native English Speaker Be a Good English Teacher?

Wang Xin, Inner Mongolia Polytechnic University

I believe most ESL and EFL professionals would respond to the question posed in my title as I used to do. My answer to this question was always, "Yes, of course," until one day a student in my freshman reading class made me read aloud a sentence he had made using "however." The sentence read, "Mr. Wang is a good teacher; *however*, he has a strong Chinese accent." My student's attempt to show his dissatisfaction with my class led me to reflect seriously on this question: Can a non-native English speaker (NNS) be a good English teacher?

I taught non-English majors for five years before I started teaching English majors. Of course, during my first few years of teaching, I asked myself this question quite often. Whatever doubt I had helped motivate me to do my best, however. After five years, I was comfortable in my role, and I did not give the matter much thought anymore. It was a shock, then, when in some of my first encounters with English majors, I was asked such questions as: "Are you a new college graduate?" "What are your qualifications?" "How long have you been teaching English?" I realized that it would take much more effort to convince these students that NNS teachers can be equally good, if not better, English teachers than their native speaker (NS) counterparts can.

What I have learned since then is that arguing with my students about the relative merits of being a native or non-native speaker of English does not convince them. Rather, I have to show them that I am a good teacher. It sounds simple, but once they accept me as a good teacher, their concern about my English fades. What makes a good teacher? From my own experience and observation, and from student feedback, I conclude that students' understanding of a good teacher is often affected by four factors: (a) a teacher's skill and experience, (b) the quantity and quality of help a teacher gives (c) the personal relationship a teacher develops with his or her students, and (d) the degree to which a teacher can help students lower their affective filters. In view of these four factors, the issue of native language becomes irrelevant.

A mythical belief among some students is that NS teachers are by nature more fun, open-minded, friendly, and more patient than NNS teachers. They often believe that NNS teachers are also more capable of, or interested in establishing good relationships with their students. But, do NS teachers necessarily possess better skills and knowledge in English teaching than NNS teachers do? Do NS teachers really have more pleasant personalities or personalities that are more fit for teaching? When I can show my students that the answer to these questions is "no," I no longer have to worry

about being challenged as a NNS teacher. What follows are some of the ways in which I try to demonstrate that I am a good teacher. No doubt teachers in my situation will think of similar strategies.

Strategy 1: Demonstrating Skill and Experience

I may or may not be able to demonstrate superior teaching skills or experience compared to my native English-speaking colleagues, but I can demonstrate greater experience in learning English as a foreign language. I can capitalize on my experience as a successful English language learner. I understand the needs, frustrations, difficulties, and experience of my students. I have spent a large amount of time and effort trying to master English. I can share the strategies that have helped me learn grammar, expand my vocabulary, and improve my pronunciation and listening comprehension. My determination to succeed, and the fact that I have succeeded (at least to some degree), provide an excellent example for my students. Without the need to say or explain anything, I am a good role model for my students.

Strategy 2: Providing Help

Although my NS colleagues can use English more skillfully than I can, as a NNS, I often have an advantage when is comes to explaining difficult grammatical structures. Our students get different kinds of help from each of us, but both forms are valuable. Recognizing their enthusiasm for learning idiomatic English, I often use proverbs to teach language as well as to help my first year students form more realistic expectations regarding their teachers and themselves. For example, I begin with "Rome was not built in a day," a proverb which reminds them that the mastery of language is not easy and requires painstaking effort. My second piece of advice to them might be "Do in Rome as the Romans do," a saying which teaches them that in order to learn a foreign language well, one has to know something about the culture where the language is used. I use this opportunity to explain that language competence depends on accent, vocabulary, grammar, listening ability, writing, knowledge of the foreign culture, and more. In this way, I hope to change their distorted vision of the necessity for a "perfect" accent. Finally, I might help them understand, "There's more than one way to skin a cat," a reminder emphasizing the fact that one does not have to depend on a foreign teacher or to live in a foreign country in order to learn the language well.

Strategy 3: Establishing Personal Relationships

My students have limited opportunity to hear native English spoken outside of the classroom setting. I try to find ways to expose them to more English that also

demonstrate that I am interested in them as people, not just my students. For example, I spend at least one hour each week with my freshman students listening to Voice of America radio broadcasts in the early morning. We discuss the program, and I share with them the notes that I took while the program was on. In this way, I break down the cold wall between my students and me, and they see me in the same boat with them learning English as a foreign language.

Strategy 4: Lowering Affective Filters

Teachers can affect learning in a number of ways that go far beyond the transmission of knowledge. My students often begin their university studies assuming that they are second-rate learners because they failed to win admission to a top-ranked university. Some even believe that they have low intelligence. They frequently lack self-confidence and motivation. The degree to which I am able to lower their affective filters makes a big difference in how they view themselves and their foreign language studies. I try to help my students understand that I believe in them and they should believe in themselves as well. Past failures do not have to stand in the way of future successes. After all, many famous people faced setbacks in their careers. I remind them regularly that each of them has strengths or potential that others do not have. Instead of focusing on other people's strong points and their own weaknesses, I urge them to spend their time and energy discovering and developing their own special abilities. Thus, another feature of a good teacher is the ability to help students discover their own potential and to make full use of it.

In defending myself as a NNS teacher, I by no means intend to belittle my NS colleagues. Rather, I am appealing to more NNS teachers to make improvement in their teaching that will make us better all around teachers. It is my firm conviction that what makes us good English teachers has little or nothing to do with our nationality, native language, or accent. Rather, it is the drive, the motivation, and the passion within us to help our students. If there were more highly motivated NNS teachers, my students would no longer look at me with disapproval and ask skeptically, "Are you a new college graduate?" They would no longer take advantage of my accent and try to embarrass me by questioning my competence as an English teacher.

About the Author

Wang Xin graduated from the Department of Foreign Languages of Inner Mongolia Polytechnic University in 1993. Since then, he has taught English in that department.

Tips for Teachers

Have you been wondering how to get something published? Do you have an activity that works well every time? Does your colleague have a teaching technique that we should hear about?

TIPS FOR TEACHERS

would like to help you publish these ideas. All submissions are welcome. Editorial advice and assistance is available. See inside back cover for details.

Jean Kirschenmann
c/o Center for English Language Programs
Hawai'i Pacific University
1188 Fort Street Mall, Room 133
Honolulu, HI 96813
USA

jkirschenmann@hpu.edu

Teaching and Researching Motivation

Review by Neil McBeath

Technical School, RAFO, Sultanate of Oman

TEACHING AND RESEARCHING MOTIVATION. Zoltan Dornyei. Harlow Pearson Education, 2000.

This is the first book from a new series—*Applied Linguistics in Action*—which appears under the general editorship of Christopher N. Candlin and David R. Hall. The blurb for this volume claims that it:

- provides a theoretical summary of the various facets of motivation
- examines how the theoretical insights can help classroom practitioners in their everyday teaching practice
- looks at how motivation can be researched and assessed
- offers practical recommendations and tips

It must be admitted that in this instance the blurb does not oversell the content.

The theoretical summary is sound, with Dornyei examining psychological theories of motivation, and only then turning his attention to the motivation, and only then turning his attention to the motivation to learn a second or foreign language. He is not explicitly concerned with the problems of motivating EFL learners, but much of the research cited comes from that field. He then offers his own process model of L2 motivation, showing how wishes, hopes, and desires can be transformed into goals, and then into intentions which lead to the achievement of the goals.

For classroom practitioners, there are no simple checklists that guarantee success, for Dornyei is acutely aware of the different variables that can affect each student's own motivation. He does however, offer some motivational techniques, strategies, and micro-strategies and tackles the problem of demotivation and the difficulties of peer pressure.

He also devotes an entire chapter to teacher motivation, exploring the sociocultural and contextual influences on teachers. He also offers a set of self-motivating strategies for teachers threatened with "burn-out".

The sections on motivational research and assessment are, perhaps, less accessible for the classroom practitioner, for not all teachers will intend to conduct even action

research. Even so, Dornyei outlines the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative, quantitative, cross-sectional and longitudinal research, and offers sound advice to those compiling either self-report tests or questionnaires.

In the same way, resources and further information presents a useful list of abstracting journals, databases, journals, magazines, measuring instruments and sample tests. These are offered within the framework of the place of motivational research in applied linguistics, and their relevance will vary from reader to reader, but no one who consults this book is likely to derive anything but benefit.

About the Reviewer

Neil McBeath is an English Education Officer working for the Royal Air Force of Oman. He is currently teaching ESP courses to aircraft engineering technicians. He holds two Masters degrees and has been awarded the Distinguished Service Medal of the Sultanate of Oman.

Conference Announcements

The Language Centre, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology. June 24-28, 2003. International Conference, "Fostering Partnership in Language Teaching and Learning, "Hong Kong, SAR, China. Contact 2003 conference Committee, Language Centre, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology, Clear Water Bay, Kowloon, Hong Kong, SAR, China. Fax 852-2335-0249. E-mail:lcconf03@ust.hk. Http//:lc.ust.hk/~centre/conf2003/

Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE). June 26-28, 2003. The 2003 KATE International Conference, "English Language Policy and Curriculum," Daejeon, South Korea. Contact Dr. Lee, Hwa-ja, conference Chair. Tel. 82-61-750-3327. E-mail:edprograms@tesol.org. Http://www.kate.or.kr/

FIPLV and SAALT. July 2-5, 2003. FIPLV 21st World Congress, "Identity and Creativity in Language Education," Johannesburg, South Africa. Contact Anna Coetzee. E-mail:aec@rau.ac.za. Http//:general.rau.ac.za/fiplv

Paraguay TESOL (PARATESOL). July 10-11, 2003. "Building up Cooperative and Professional Growth," Centro Cultural Parguayo Americano, Asuncion, Paraguay. Contact Person: Andrea Amarilla Saguier, andreaccpa@yahoo.com. Tel. 595-21-208-963. Fax 595-21-613-565. E-mail:andreaaccpa@yahoo.com. Http://www. geocities .com/paratesol/webpage.html

Japan Association for Language Education and Technology (LET). July 31-August 2, 2003. 43rd National Conference, "Strategies for the Future in Foreign Language Education: Media, Cognition and Communication," Osaka, Japan. E-mail:pfb01373@nifty.ne.jp. Http://www.LET-kansai.net/LET2003information-e.html.

Panama TESOL. Septemer 19-21, 2003. Conference Panama City, Panama. Contact Carolos Prescott, Panama TESOL President, Apdo. 87-1017, Panama 7, Panama. Tel. 507-221-5595.

IATEFL Hungary Conference. October 3-5, 2003. Contact person: Eszter Falus, 1146 Budapest, Ajtosi Durer sor 19-21, Hungary. Fax 00-36-1-460-4403. E-mail:eszter.falus@iatefl.hu. Http://www.iatefl.hu/

INGED-Turkey, BETA-Romania, ETAI-Israel, and TESOL-Greece. October 10-12, 2003. Joint International Conference, "Multiculturalism in ELT Practices: Unity and Diversity," Ankara, Turkey. Tel. 90-312-234-10 10/1336. Fax 90-312-234-11-77. E-mail:taseda@softhome.net. Http://www.inged-elea.org.tr/

SPELT - Society of Pakistani English Language Teachers Conference, October 10-12, 2003. "Teachers in Action: Research and Methodology Perspectives," in Karachi, Lahore, Islamabad and Abbotabad. Contact Person: Khalida Sa'Adat. Tel. 9221-4900440, khalida@spelt.org. E-mail:khalida@spelt.org.

Sixth International Conference on Language and Development. October 15-17, 2003. "Linguistic Challenges to National Development and International Co-operation," Tashkent, Uzbekistan. Contact Language and Development Conference, British Council, 11 Kounaev Street, Tashkent 700031, Uzbekistan. Tel. 998-71-1206752/3. Fax 998-71-1206371. E-mail:info@ldc-tashkent.org. Http://www.ldc-tashkent.org/

KOTESOL. October 18-19, 2003. Annual conference, "Gateways to Growth: Exploring Resources in ELT," Seoul, South Korea. Contact Yangdon Ju, Department of English and Tourism, Hyechon College, Daejon City, South Korea. E-mail:ydju@hcc.ac.kr. Http://www.kotesol.org/

English Teachers' Association (Taipei, Taiwan). November 7-9, 2003. The 12th International Symposium and Book Fair on English Teaching, "Curriculum Reform in ELT," Taipei, Taiwan. Contact Andy Leung, President, ETA, Taipei P.O. Box 86-37, Taipei, Taiwan 111. Tel. 886-3-5742707. Fax 886-2-88615832. E-mail: etaroc 2002@yahoo.com.tw. Http://www.eta.org.tw/

TESL Canada/BC TEAL. November 13-15, 2003. 2003 Conference "Connecting Communities: Inspirations and Aspirations", Burnaby, B.C. Canada. Contact B.C. TEAL, 201-640 West Broadway, Vancouver, B.C. Canada V5Z 1G4. Tel. 604-736-6330. Fax 604-736-6306. Http://www.bcteal.org/

Puerto Rico TESOL. November 21-22, 2003. 30th Annual Convention, "Teaching English in the Digital Age," Dorado, Puterto Rico. Contact Estella Marquez, P.O. Box 366828, San Juan, Puerto Rico 0096-6828. Tel. 787-757-5151 or 5152. Fax 787-768-3615 or 787-809-5613. E-mail:tesol@puertoricotesol.org. Http://www.puertoricotesol.org/

TESOL Ukraine. January 29-31, 2004. IX TESOL-Ukraine Conference. Horlivka State Pedagogical Institute of Foreign Languages, Horlivka, Donestska oblast, Ukraine. Contact Person: Valeriy Leshchenko, vul. Rudakova 25, Horlivka 84626, Donetska Obl, Ukraine. Tel. 380-624-244857. For Proposal Information Contact: Nina Lyulkun, president@tesol-ua.org by the deadline of September 30, 2003. E-mail:vallesh@forlan.ghost.dn.us. Http://www.tesol-ua.org/

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (TESOL). March 31-April 3, 2004. 2004 Annual TESOL Convention, "Soaring Far, Catching Dreams," March 30-April 3, 2004, Long Beach, California, USA. Visit http://www.tesolonline.org/ proposals/for online proposal submissions before May 1, 2003. E-mail:conventions @tesol.org. Http://www.tesol.org/conv/index-conv.html

Far Eastern English Language Teachers' Association (FEELTA). June 24-27, 2004. The Fifth Pan-Asian Conference on Language Teaching at FEELTA 2004, "Sharing Challenges, Sharing Solutions: Teaching Languages in Diverse Contexts," Vladivostok, Russia. Http"//www.dvgu.ru/rus/partner/education/feelta/pac5/