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Safety Issues For International Students in the United States

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> At noon, one robber was interested in me. Then he wanted to Know about my information. At that time he looked too much drank, also he had a bottle of alcohol with him. Furtuanry nothing was happen. That's it.
>
> Japanese female

Orientation workshops for newly arrived international students are common at U.S. colleges and universities today. An important issue to address in these workshops is safety. Students and their parents as well as host institutions have concerns about students' safety. Moreover, international students coming to the United States often find that safe behavior in their countries differs from safe behavior in the U.S. Stories of international students in the U.S. and safety abound: students publicly pulling out large amounts of cash to pay for a small purchase, students walking alone in a local park late at night, students being approached for money while they are waiting for the bus, students being robbed, and even students being physically harmed.

Issues of health, safety, and responsibility are integral to education abroad programs. An Interorganizational Task Force on Health and Safety in Study Abroad, with NAFSA: Association of International Educators as a member, developed a set of "guidelines designed to promote health and safety in study abroad," including evaluating health and safety aspects of each program, and providing students and parents with information and orientation regarding health and safety issues (Safety, p. 54). Some of these guidelines also apply to international students studying in the United States. Those of us involved with international students in the U.S. ask ourselves what safety issues to cover, when to cover them, how much time to spend on them, and how to introduce and deal with them without making our students overly fearful (e.g., Hafernik, Vandrick, & Messerschmitt, 1999; Kast, 1977; Safety, 1998). To examine these and other questions about safety issues, we conducted a survey of 58 international students at a small private urban university on the West Coast. This paper reports on that survey, with special attention to students' responses to the open-ended questions. The results suggest that there are things we can do to educate students about safety.

Results of the Survey

After conducting a pilot survey, we revised and administered it to 58 international students (27 males and 31 females) from 13 countries, with the majority (74%) from Asia. Ninety percent of the participants were single and 52% were between the ages of 18 and 21. The respondents included undergraduates (48%), intensive English program students at the high intermediate and advanced levels (36%), and graduate students (16%). These international students had a variety of living situations with the largest percentages living on campus (40%) or off campus with relatives (22%). Most of the students were somewhat familiar with the United States; 93% had traveled to the U.S. before and 69% had been in the U.S. over six months. Participation in the study was voluntary.

Importance of certain safety issues

Both male and female respondents felt that a wide range of safety issues were important, such as knowing which areas are safe and which are less safe; knowing about safety using public transportation, using private cars, being at home, being around drugs and alcohol, being with members of the opposite sex; and knowing what is a dangerous situation and how to get help. (See the Appendix for the survey). In rating 14 types of information on a four-point Likert scale from (1) "very important" to (4) "not important at all," respondents felt that all the issues were "important" (2 on the Likert scale) to "very important" (1 on the Likert scale), with the group means ranging from 1.36 (knowing how to get help if you are in a dangerous situation) to 1.81 (knowing how to deal with members of the opposite sex). Unpaired two-tailed t-tests with males and females showed similar results, with only one of the group means for the males and females on the 14 items being statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level: Knowing how to prevent sexual assault. The group mean for females was significantly lower (1.50), rating the item closer to "very important," than the group mean for males (1.92), rated closer to "important." Two themes appeared in the answers to this question: "What other safety issues concern you?": concern about safety at night (3 responses) and concern about strangers (3 responses).

Preferred ways to learn about how to be safe in the United States

Respondents seemed to have no preference about whether safety issues were discussed in orientation or in regular classes. These international students seemed to be comfortable learning about discussing safety issues in coed groups, with only 34% indicating that they preferred single-sex discussion groups. Females seemed to prefer single-sex groups (37%) slightly more than males (31%). With regard to who should conduct the discussion on safety, 57% of the respondents indicated that they would like an adult, faculty member or advisor, rather than other students, to lead the sessions. There

seemed to be no preference for having the material covered in orientation or in individual classes. The data suggest that the important point is that these issues be covered and a variety of methods seems advisable.

Suggestions for how the university can help international students be safe

Twenty-seven respondents (47%) offered suggestions for how the university could help international students be safe. The majority of responses (67%) suggested that more information be provided. Suggestions for dissemination included providing pre-arrival brochures in other languages, offering orientations and classes, providing more literature on campus in various languages, publishing a safety handbook for students, showing safety videos in class, and class visits by public safety officers. One individual suggested making safety the topic of a content-based course within the program. Fifteen percent of the respondents suggested that there be more public safety officers, specifically, bilingual officers. A smaller percentage (11%) suggested that support groups and international clubs deal with safety issues. A few students made suggestions unrelated to the dissemination of information, asking for such concrete actions as "Offer escort service more frequently at night, because there are many night classes."

Personal experiences

Thirty individuals (36%) responded to the open-ended question "Have you had any experiences in the United States when you felt unsafe? Briefly describe the situation(s) below if you are comfortable doing so." Nine of the respondents (seven males and two females) wrote "No" or "None" and six (four females and two males) individuals began their comments with "Yes." Only two (female) students wrote of instances involving physical contact or harm. One stated that her uncle had been hit by a heavy metal object and the other wrote, "I wore a short skirt that day and the gross guy touched my legs unexpectedly." In addition to the students who answered "Yes" or "No," 19 respondents, 12 of whom were females, reflected feelings of being apprehensive about their situation, often indicating that they were not sure if they had actually been in danger. Examples of the 19 responses include the following.

1. "Maybe I wasn't unsafe, but the situation was uncomfortable."
2. "At night when I go to the downtown, some bagger required money. At that time, I didn't know what to do."
3. "They [homeless beggars] try to approach me and want me to give them money. Although they didn't do anything to me, I still felt afraid and unsafe."
4. "When I see many of teenagers are making loud noise and talking roughly in slangs."

The majority (63%) of these 19 responses revolved around being approached and/or followed by beggars or strangers who were perhaps drunk or on drugs (12 responses), whereas six of the responses (32%) dealt with situations at night on campus or on the streets.

Finally, this open-ended question yielded a few positive and insightful comments. One individual cautioned us to provide a balanced perspective:

> Every country is as unsafe as the U.S. I guess we worry too much about safety (of course we need to worry about it, but too much just because we are in the U.S.), because we have been exposed to the violent U.S. movies, some unidentified horrible stories and TV news which most of the time is sensational. I think the info about safe and unsafe places and so on should be balanced. It may give false impression to international students that people in certain areas or from certain ethnic groups are dangerous.

Discussion

Several themes emerge from the survey data. First, international students surveyed were interested in learning more about how to be safe while in the United States and these issues seem equally important to males and females. Second, no particular method of delivering information about safety seemed to be clearly preferred by the respondents.

A third theme emerging from the data, particularly from the open-ended questions, is that international students may be unaware of what services are available on campus and may have unrealistic expectations about what a university can do to help them be safe. Universities often provide such services as an escort service on campus and within a limited area near campus, free self defense classes, showings of safety videos and group discussions, guest speakers, safety brochures and literature, safety programs in the dormitories, articles with safety tips in the campus newspaper, and support groups for individuals who have been victims of crimes. Several responses to the question "What can the university do to help international students be safe?" suggest that some students were not aware of services on campus. For example, one student suggested an escort service, which in fact is already available. Also, students may not be aware that they should call the campus police in certain situations (e.g., a purse or books are stolen, a suspicious person is on campus). Therefore, by informing students of available services, we may be able to improve their safety. For example, one student wrote "I lost some pencils, bookcase, and some writing materials; but I don't know I left them or was theft them. I want the university to knowtice if someone find other's writing materials, they need to submit them to the university." Does this student know that lost items are often

turned in to the campus police or that he should report any theft on campus? Does the student know what precautions he can take to reduce theft?

In addition to informing students about services and precautions they can take, we need to help students have realistic expectations about what a campus security force can do. For example, does the student quoted above have unrealistic expectations of what the campus police can do to prevent theft? Moreover, students need to be aware that the location of the university as well as budget considerations may constrain campus improvements. Several students suggested that the university provide free taxi/cab service, but is this request realistic? Thus, in designing orientations and course materials, we need to include information about existing services and help students develop realistic expectations. Inviting campus security officers to orientation classes or small group discussions is beneficial in conveying this information. In addition, often international students are afraid of police, and by having campus security officers talk with them, they may realize that the officers are approachable and can be helpful.

Finally, a fourth theme that emerges from the data, again particularly from answers to the open-ended questions, is that students may unknowingly put themselves into risky situations, may not be able to judge what a dangerous situation is, and may not know how to get out of uncomfortable situations. This may be especially true for females as 12 out of the 19 responses about being in uncomfortable situations were from female students. For example, several responses dealt with beggars and being followed. One student handled a situation well. She wrote, "One of those men who lay on the street smoking pot all the time followed my friend and I, trying to tell us something he just kept talking while following us. Finally we entered into a store 'til he left." Others did not know how to handle precarious situations. They spoke of being out late at night in an area where they did not feel safe. A female wrote, "One time I was on a disco and when the clock passed 2:00, I was totally on my own. I didn't find a cab so I started to walk and I felt very unsafe." Or another student said, "At night when I went to the downtown, some bagger required money. At that time, I didn't know how to do." These and other responses point out that a discussion of safety issues should include the following: (1) how to deal with strangers asking for money (2) how to get rid of people, (3) when and where it is safe to go alone and (4) how to call a cab.

In making generalizations from the data, one should consider three limitations of the study: the number of respondents (N = 58), the location of the university (West Coast small urban university), and the predominance of Asian respondents (74%). A larger sample might yield different responses, and issues important in our setting may not be relevant elsewhere (e.g., learning how to deal with strangers asking for money may not be important at universities in cities with few homeless people). In addition, individuals from different countries and ethnic groups not represented in our sample

may have particular concerns (e.g., participants from cultures where males and females are routinely separated in school settings may prefer to discuss safety issues in single-sex groups).

Conclusion

The data from this study provide us with the beginnings of some answers to questions about how international students in the U.S. perceive their safety, and what they would like their institutions to do to educate and protect them. The data indicate that international students want information about how to be safe and want their campuses to take a proactive stance on safety. They need and want information in a variety of formats, whether as part of pre-departure information, orientation sessions, regular class work, or written materials while on campus. Students may also be telling us that they want information, but they don't want to be frightened needlessly; a balanced approach is needed.

We, as international educators in the U.S. or any other host country, can help students be informed, alert, and therefore safer. Helping international students feel and be safe is an ongoing process that can begin before their arrival with EFL faculty helping students have realistic views of the host country and its dangers. In our classrooms and institutions, we can educate students to be safety conscious, reduce their risk of harm, and help them fully enjoy and benefit from their time studying in a faraway place.

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APPENDIX

Safety Issues For International Students in the U.S.

I. General Information

Nationality: _____

Gender: ____ Female ____ Male

Marital Status: _____ single _____ married

_____ divorced _____ widowed

If married, is your spouse here with you? _____ Yes _____ No

Do you have children? _____ Yes _____ No

If you have children, are your children in the U.S. with you? _____ Yes _____ No

Your Age: _____ 18–21 year _____ 22–25 years _____ 26–29 years

_____ 30 or older

Type of student: _____IEP/ESL only _____ undergraduate _____ graduate

Where are you living while in the U.S.?

_____ on-campus _____ off campus with relatives

_____ off campus with new friends _____ off campus alone

_____ off campus with friends from my country

How long have you been in the U.S.?

____ less than 1 month _____ 1–6 months

____ 7 months - 1 year _____ from 1–5 years

____ over 5 years

How many times have you traveled to the U.S. before?

_____ never _____ 1–3 times

_____ 4–6 times _____ more than 6 times

II. *Read each of the following statements and indicate how important you think this information is for you and your safety. For each statement, circle the phrase that is most descriptive: "very important," "important," "not very important," or "not important at all." Circle only one answer for each statement.*

1. Knowing what areas are safe and what areas are less safe in San Francisco.

very important important not very important not important at all

2. Knowing how to use public transportation and be safe.

very important important not very important not important at all

3. Knowing how to be safe when using a car.

very important important not very important not important at all

4. Knowing what to do in an emergency (e.g., fire, earthquake).

very important important not very important not important at all

5. Knowing how to be safe in your home (e.g., dormitory room, apartment, house).

very important important not very important not important at all

6. Knowing how to be safe when in the presence of drugs and alcohol.

very important important not very important not important at all

7. Knowing how to tell what is a dangerous situation

very important important not very important not important at all

8. Knowing how to get help if you think you are in a dangerous situation.

very important important not very important not important at all

9. Knowing if someone is trying to cheat you of your money.

very important important not very important not important at all

10. Knowing how to avoid being robbed or attacked.

very important important not very important not important at all

11. Knowing how to deal with members of the opposite sex.

very important important not very important not important at all

12. Knowing how to prevent sexually transmitted diseases.

very important important not very important not important at all

13. Knowing how to prevent sexual assault.

very important important not very important not important at all

14. Knowing how to report a crime.

very important important not very important not important at all

15. Other _____

very important important not very important not important at all

III. *Rank in order what you consider the best ways to learn how to stay safe. Number the top 3 ways with #1 being the best, #2 being the second best, and #3 the third best way.*

___ At an orientation led by faculty and advisors for international students, both males and females.

___ In small groups of students of the same sex, with a faculty member of the same sex.

___ In regular class with both males and females.

___ In small co-ed groups organized and led by other students.

___ In small single-sex groups organized and led by other students.

___ By handing out literature and information about safety issues, with no discussion.

___ Other _____

IV. *Please answer the following two questions. If you do not want to answer either one or both of these questions, leave the question blank.*

1. What other safety issues concern you?
2. What can the University do to help international students be safe?
3. Have you had any experiences in the United States when you felt unsafe? Briefly describe the situation(s) below if you are comfortable doing so. (Answer on the back of this sheet).

10 *TESL Reporter 33,2 (2000), pp. 10–17*

Coded Corrective Feedback: In Search of a Compromise

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Deviation is a natural phenomenon in language learning and indeed in learning any new skill. It is a necessary part of the learning process since no learner can leap from zero competence to full native or near-native competence in a day. Language learner's deviations are by definition due to incomplete mastery of the code. However, learners may also deviate from an intended linguistic norm for a variety of psycho-physiological reasons such as fatigue, quick writing or speaking, carelessness, divided attention, memory lapses and so forth. The latter type of deviation is random and often referred to as performance deviation, including mistakes, slips and lapses. Deviations due to the incomplete knowledge of the language are competence deviations and are referred to as "errors" (e.g., Brown, 1987; Corder, 1981; Ellis, 1990; Michaelides, 1990). Hence, the terms 'mistakes or slips' and 'errors' are used in this study to refer to 'performance' and 'competence' deviations respectively.

A very common practice in second or foreign language teaching is the detection and correction of mistakes and errors in the hope of enhancing the learning process. Provision of corrective feedback is deemed important in classroom learning situations where the students' exposure to the language is not rich enough for self-correction and rapid learning as in naturalistic situations where the language develops without deliberate teaching or correction. This article sheds light on techniques used in providing corrective feedback on the written compositions of EFL university students, particularly the use of correction codes or symbols.

Mini-Survey Findings

Language teachers provide corrective feedback in a variety of ways:

a. Mere indication of the location of the deviation

b. Writing correction codes or symbols

c. Giving rules and explanations leading to the correct forms

d. Direct correction by writing the correct forms

For the purpose of this study, these four techniques were presented to 102 Arabic-speaking EFL university students. They were asked to indicate the technique they preferred.

They were also asked to say briefly (in only two lines) why they preferred that particular technique. Most of the students (99 of them) preferred the use of correction symbols. These ninety students unanimously said they wanted to be given the chance to correct their deviations by themselves. Hence this article is intended to discuss the rationale behind the students' preference by listing as many reasons as possible justifying the use of coded feedback when correcting the written compositions of EFL university students.

Competence vs. Performance Deviations

As discussed earlier, the students' deviations fall into two categories: "competence" deviations (i.e., errors) and "performance" deviations (i.e., mistakes). The errors are expected to decrease with increased proficiency. Mistakes and slips, on the other hand, may not be affected by the progress made in learning EFL since they are not due to the lack of competence in the language. In other words, university students, after nine or more years of EFL study, are not expected to make the same amount of errors they used to make at the stages of their general education. Errors are distinguished from mistakes and slips on the grounds that the students cannot correct themselves in case of errors (e.g., Corder, 1981). Some researchers, however, believe that it is not always easy to differentiate between these two types of deviation. Van Els *et al* (1984), for example, maintain that a learner may be able to correct himself on the basis of his explicit knowledge of the rules but continue to produce the same incorrect forms in spontaneous language production. Faerch and Kasper (1984) and Lengo (1995) attribute this to the instability of the learner's competence. McKeating (1981) points out that self-correction is not a reliable criterion to tell whether a deviation is an error or a mistake. He says that a learner may know that one of two forms is correct and when the teacher indicates a form as incorrect, the learner knows that the other form is correct and produces it.

Hussein (1971) and Xiaochun (1990) suggest a two-step procedure to differentiate between errors and mistakes. First the student revises his work to correct any deviations he can identify, then the teacher points out the remaining incorrect forms and asks the student to correct them. The deviations that the student can correct will be mistakes while the ones that remain uncorrected will be errors. However, a deviation may remain uncorrected simply because it escapes the teacher's or the student's observation. Another problem in following these steps is that, in large EFL classes, teachers have neither the time nor the energy to go through their students' compositions more than once. The difficulty of distinguishing errors from mistakes combined with the difficulty of correcting students' compositions more than once constitute grounds for using correction symbols. Giving rules and explanation leading to the correct forms may in many cases be a waste of time and effort since not all of the students' deviations are errors.

Mere underlining of a deviation may confuse the student and, sometimes, lead him to replace an incorrect form by another incorrect one. For example, if the teacher underlines a verb because of its incorrect tense, the student might think that it is a vocabulary or spelling deviation.

Hypothesis Verification

Many researchers (e.g., Krashen, 1982; Odlin, 1986; Zobl, 1995) talk about acquisition and learning as two different processes of language development. Acquisition refers to the process of internalizing a linguistic form through subconscious assimilation as a result of exposure. Learning, on the other hand, refers to the process of paying conscious attention to the formal features and patterns of the language. The resulting types of linguistic knowledge are referred to as implicit and explicit knowledge respectively. The "learning" process involves hypothesis formation and verification; the internalisation and use of linguistic forms by observing the language data and arriving at a rule. In EFL situations, this universal rule-discovery process is aided by grammar instruction and error correction as a short cut to the learning of the forms and structures which the limited classroom input may not cover (e.g., Terrell, 1991).

As discussed earlier, the 90 students who preferred the use of correction symbols wanted to correct their deviations by themselves. It was indicated earlier that the use of symbols gives the students the chance to correct their performance deviations (i.e., mistakes). This technique also gives them the chance to verify their hypotheses. As McKeating (1981) points out, when the student knows that one of two forms is correct but he does not know which, the teacher's indication of the incorrect form may lead the student to modify his incorrect hypothesis (see also Edge, 1989; James, 1998; Michaelides, 1990; Norrish, 1983). Needless to say, if the student manages to correct the deviation, it will be difficult to tell whether it was an error or a mistake. However, the student might not be able to correct the deviation simply because he does not know any other form or he might replace the incorrect form by another incorrect one. In this case, it will be reasonable to provide the correct form directly if the teacher has the time and effort to follow the steps proposed by Hussein (1971) and Xiaochun (1990).

The Need for Feedback

Some researchers (e.g., Bolitho, 1995; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994) and language teachers maintain that the students need and want feedback on their production believing that it is useful. Feedback refers to any kind of response from the teacher to the students' output. It could be positive or negative. Negative or corrective feedback ranges from mere indication of deviations to lengthy instructions and explanations. Hence, when we say the students in classroom learning situations need or want

feedback, it does not necessarily mean that they need or want their deviations replaced by correct forms. In other words, the need for feedback could not be taken to refer to the need for the provision of the correct forms or rules and explanations. Horner (1988:213) equates feedback with direct correction when he says "feedback is an essential part of language acquisition, and correction is generally accepted as its classroom equivalent." According to him, correction is the teacher's response to the deviations by providing the correct linguistic forms. However, in natural language acquisition situations, linguistic deviations go uncorrected in most cases and feedback is usually on content rather than on form. Thus, feedback is a cover term for both positive and negative response to form as well as content.

The need for feedback can be understood as the need for information indicating the extent of learning rather than the extent of 'not learning.' Every time the students look forward to seeing their compositions free from deviations and hence free from corrections. No student would be glad to see his work covered with negative feedback, otherwise the teacher would not see signs of disappointment and frustration on the faces of his students when they see their compositions cluttered up in red. The need for and the usefulness of feedback may be motivated by the fact that it results in temporary improvement of the students' accuracy. The deviations disappear when the students rewrite the compositions incorporating the teacher's corrections. Once they are asked to write on another topic or on the same topic sometime later, the students make the same mistakes and errors. This has lead Ellis (1990) and Truscott (1996) to conclude that error treatment is not likely to have any effect on language development.

Extensive reviews of error correction literature and the findings of experimental studies comparing various ways of providing corrective feedback (e.g., Hillocks, 1982; Horner, 1988; Kepner, 1991; Leki, 1990; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986) indicate that there is no significant difference between direct correction, naming errors, and offering rules and explanations. Such a conclusion should encourage composition teachers to use correction symbols, a technique which can save their time and effort and at the same time satisfy the students' need for feedback and self-correction.

Teachers' Inconsistency

Language teaching research is rich in statements about the teachers' inconsistency in their provision of corrective feedback (e.g., Ellis, 1990; Nystrom, 1983; Truscott, 1996). Teachers may either use more than one technique simultaneously, use one technique in one assignment and use another technique in another assignment, or use one technique with one student and a different technique with another student. Allwright (1975) believes that the teacher should not be consistent in order to cater for the individual differences between the students. However, one of the main reasons of the teach-

ers' inconsistency is the large classes they teach—at least 35 students in a class—and the large number of deviations - mistakes and errors - in one composition, especially in low proficiency EFL situations. In such situations it might be nowhere near possible for a teacher to get to know the individual differences between the students.

When providing feedback on the written compositions of a large class, the teacher may begin with a combination of two or more techniques and end up only indicating the location of the deviations without even naming them irrespective of the students' individual differences. If a teacher teaches more than one large class, selection of certain deviations for treatment may not resolve the problem of inconsistency. Some 'mistakes' may get corrected and some 'errors' may go uncorrected. Faced with the problem of large classes and the complexity of the process of responding to deviations, some teachers give up not only the idea of correcting students' compositions but also the idea of giving them writing assignments. Thus, the use of clear and understandable coded corrective feedback might be a good idea to alleviate the task.

Psychological and Educational Considerations

According to James (1998:354) "learning is most successful when it involves only a limited amount of stress, when students are relaxed and confident and enjoying their learning." Such an environment conducive to learning could be created, among other things, by adopting a less threatening and less traumatic technique of providing corrective feedback. The teacher should not dominate the treatment process by depriving the students of the opportunity to correct themselves. As discussed earlier, in addition to performance deviations (mistakes and slips), there might be some "errors" which a learner can correct by modifying his incorrect hypotheses. Provision of coded feedback can help in self-correction of such deviations, thus making the environment more hospitable and face-saving (see also Van Lier, 1998). The use of correction codes that name the deviations can be less frustrating to the students than the other types of corrective feedback that cover the composition with the teacher's red ink. Self-correction is also believed to lead to better retention, (e.g., Edge, 1989; Leki 1991).

Regarding the issue of the individual differences discussed earlier, provision of corrective feedback by means of using symbols respects these differences. One student's mistake may be another student's error and one student's error today may become a mistake at some point in the course of learning. Even in small classes, students differ in the number and type of the hypotheses they formulate and in the number of the incorrect hypotheses they are ready to modify and incorporate in their interlanguage. In the face of such a complex learning process, a lot of the explanations, rules and direct corrections provided by the teacher may be a waste of time and effort. Such variations among the students in hypothesis formation and verification could be addressed by

using correction symbols which give the students the opportunity to deal with their deviations according to their own needs, interests and learning stages.

The use of correction symbols is in line with the problem-solving and discovery approach to education. Involvement of the students in the correction process can also be a step toward a learner-centered approach to language teaching. Giving the students the chance to correct their own deviations means acknowledging their ability to shoulder the responsibility of their own learning, thus making for learner autonomy. As in the other aspects of learner-centered language teaching, the role of the teacher will be seen as one of guiding students rather than spoon-feeding them. The students' own contribution to the learning process through self-correction, among other things, entails a change from the traditional teacher-centered situation where the teacher is seen as an authority, a source of knowledge who does most of the work in the classroom, (McGreal, 1989). One more reason that could be added to problem-solving, learner autonomy, and learner involvement is that students' self-correction of their deviations "helps them develop a self-critical attitude" (Xiaochun, 1990:34). Furthermore, self-correction, according to Michaelides (1990), trains the students in using their power of reasoning.

Conclusion

Provision of corrective feedback is a long standing tradition in language teaching. Some teachers believe that it is useful; others feel that they are obliged to respond to their students' production even if the students do not ask for feedback. Still other teaches correct deviations simply because the students need feedback and ask for it, but they themselves may not be convinced of its usefulness. Teachers respond to their students deviations in a variety of ways. The most frequently used techniques are: mere underlining, providing symbols, providing rules and explanations, and direct correction. Mere indication of the location of the deviation may confuse the students and lead to the replacement of an incorrect form by another incorrect one. Explanations and direct correction may be a waste of time and effort since not all deviations are "errors". The students may not understand the rules and explanations or may not be able to do what they are instructed to do. Direct correction deprives the students of the opportunity of self-correction and problem-solving. In the face of these and other drawbacks, EFL teachers may choose to provide corrective feedback by using simple and clear correction symbols. This technique can save the teachers' time and effort, especially in large classes. It addresses the students' need for self-correction and respects the individual differences between them. In view of the obligation to respond to the students' deviations and the skepticism surrounding the effectiveness of this practice, the use of coded corrective feedback may help the teachers arrive at a compromise.

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Critical Language Awareness, Accuracy of Speech, and Communication in EFL

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One of the most controversial issues in the field of ESOL in the conditions of this era of the communicative approach is the question of whether this approach is compatible with formal instruction in grammar as a specific aspect of language, and with focusing learner's attention on language forms. On one hand, there is the purely communicative approach that, as Fotos (1994:323) remarked, is based on giving the learner a rich variety and the greatest possible amount of comprehensible input while totally omitting the teacher-fronted grammar instruction. On the other hand, the cognitive theory of SLA is based on the belief that second language acquisition presupposes constructing a knowledge system where first, attention is paid to language aspects, and then appropriate skills become automatic (interpretation given by Lightbown & Spada, 1994). It requires methods where formal grammar instruction occupies some place in language teaching. It should be pointed out that the latter view is gradually gaining more and more partisans not only among conscious followers of cognitive approaches, but even among those who hold different views. For instance, Ellis (1990) points out that formal instruction can enhance or accelerate second language acquisition processes.

If such an approach is gaining prominence in teaching a second language, when students acquire it in one of the countries where it is spoken by the majority of the population, this approach is all the more needed in foreign language teaching/learning. The issue is that in a non-English-speaking setting, learners are mostly deprived of opportunities of receiving comprehensible input in the target language outside the EFL classroom. At the same time, classroom hours for language learning are, as a rule, limited. As a result, the situation of comprehensible input deficiency inevitably emerges—the situation where the communicative approach in its pure form does not work. The solution can be found only in the preservation of the dominantly communicative approach, as the only one suitable for communicative competence development, but combining it with the advantages of consciously mastering language structures to compensate for deficiencies in the volume of comprehensible input. The question arises, therefore, how to organize grammar instruction to make it efficient for developing learners' language accuracy in the target language without damaging fluency (i.e., communicative competence development), or even contributing to it. It is hardly possible to organize such

grammar instruction effectively in EFL without taking into account the students' mother tongue and its differences from the grammar of the language being learned.

Mother Tongue—Target Language Interaction in EFL and Critical Language Awareness

L1 influence is one of the most persistent factors in ESL/EFL teaching since, even if we have totally driven learners' L1 out of ESL/EFL classrooms, we cannot hope to drive it out of their minds as "whether we like it or not, the new language is learnt on the basis of a previous language" (Stern, 1992:282). L1 is such an integral and inseparable part of their personalities and thinking that everything in the new language is perceived from the point of view of, and compared to, the L1's structure and rules. The implications of this situation for foreign language learning found their development in the works of Russian linguists and psychologists explaining why adult and adolescent learners of a new language will always more or less consciously compare the new language structure to the structure of their mother tongue trying to "enforce and impose" the mother tongue structure on the language to be learned. For instance, a prominent Russian linguist Kolshansky (1985:11)[1] wrote (the translation from Russian is my own),

> Since thinking (if we do not take into account a theoretically possible but practically less probably case) is developed on the basis of one, i.e., mother, tongue, it is natural that acquiring any other language will take place only in the conditions of interaction of L1 and L2—this interaction being of such a nature that one language is the leading, principal one while the other is subordinated (so, subordinated bilingualism can be observed).

The Russian psychologist Galperin and his followers (see Galperin, 1967; Kabanova & Galperin, 1972) developed the theory of "language consciousness" according to which every human language adequately reflects reality. But aspects of this reality are so numerous that the grammar system of any particular language reflects only some of them, ignoring others, or reflecting them not in all their entirety. Grammar systems of different languages may reflect different aspects, or one such system may reflect some of those aspects more or less fully than the grammar systems of some other languages.

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[1] The last names of Russian authors used in the text are given in Latin alphabet. In References the names of those authors, the titles of their works, and all the information concerning a particular publication (publishing house or journal, etc.) are also given in Latin alphabet and in translation into English with indication that the original is in Russian.

For instance, the Russian verb tense-aspect system is different from the system of the English verb. The grammar form of a Russian verb cannot express what is the progressive aspect of an English verb—so, this aspect of reality is not reflected in the grammar system of the Russian language, though it certainly may be expressed by other, mainly lexical, means. In this way, the progressive aspect of the English verb becomes a major source of difficulties and errors for Russian-speaking learners of English.

Following the theory of Galperin, surmounting such obstacles is possible by developing a "target language consciousness" (i.e., a perception of the target language structure from a non-speaker point of view). It is achieved by conscious systemic comparison of L1 and L2 structures, distinguishing similarities and differences, i.e., by students' consciousness-raising as to how they are reflected in their language system and in their speech. Galperin's "target language consciousness" may otherwise be called "critical language awareness," as it is a result of critical cross-linguistic comparison.

In the West, a similar set of issues has always been considered in literature, (i.e., L1 transfer and interference in learning L2). In the last two decades, the revival of interest in this field of research can be observed, so that a number of works on relevant issues has been published (see, for instance, Adjemian, 1983; Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Kellerman, 1984; Odlin, 1989). This is due to the fact that, no matter what paradigm of L2 learning or acquisition is momentarily in vogue, the influence of L1 on this learning/acquisition cannot long be ignored, as it is clearly observed every day in teaching practice.

This kind of research spoken above has engendered the spreading belief that learners' mother tongues should not be excluded but, on the contrary, should be made adequate use of for improving and accelerating target language acquisition. It concerns the use of students' L1 for developing learners' *interlingual awareness (critical language awareness)* with the aim of fostering the use of transfer strategies (see a practical example in the article by Deignan, Gabrys, & Solska, 1997).

The need of using L1 and L2 classroom is especially evident in an EFL setting since in this case, students always lack the sufficient volume of comprehensible input and both the teacher and the students often share the same L1. The first of these peculiarities should be compensated for, and the second adequately used. But to make the use of mother tongue in EFL teaching really appropriate, two questions should be answered. Since recourse to L1 for ensuring critical language awareness is primarily needed for raising learners' accuracy in target language communication, it is necessary to find out:

1. whether critical language awareness really increases such accuracy in EFL, and what critical language awareness-raising techniques are effective for this purpose.

2. whether critical language awareness-raising work in the classroom interferes and has any adverse effect on target language fluency.

The two studies described below were carried out in the process of teaching English to tertiary technical students in one of Ukraine's universities, and were aimed at supplying answers to these two questions.

Study 1 (Methods, Results, Discussion): Critical Language Awareness and "Error Correction" as a Means of Increasing Accuracy in Speaking

The first study was devoted to developing an effective critical language awareness technique for increasing Ukrainian (Russian) students' accuracy in using the verb "to be" as a linking verb. The matter is that it is always a source of major difficulties and errors for Ukrainian (Russian)-speaking learners.

The aim of the preliminary stage of the study was to find the most typical errors students made when using "to be" as the linking verb while speaking English. This was achieved through the observation and tallying of students' speaking errors during the English classes for first year students of Dnepropetrovsk State Technical University of Railway Transport (English classes for the 1st year students at that University are held two times a week; 90 minutes for every class). During a two-year period, 50 students were observed in this way and the total number of registered "to be" errors was 658. The analysis of all the errors demonstrated only five typical ones.

1. The most frequent error (59% of all the errors registered) was omitting "to be" in affirmative, interrogative, and negative sentences in the present tense where using "to be" is obligatory in English. The cause is surely due to interference from L1, where the linking verb is most often not used in such cases.

2. The second most typical error (22%) was breaking the word order in negative and interrogative sentences with "to be," so that sentences like "*Where he is now?*" or "*They not were present yesterday*" could be frequently observed. Here again is a clear-cut case of L1 influence (such structures are used in Russian/Ukrainian).

3. The third (9%) was using "is" for all subjects in the present tense singular and plural indiscriminately (most often instead of "are," but not infrequently instead of "am"). It may also be L1 interference-based since Russian/Ukrainian has only one form of the linking verb for all the singular and plural persons in the present tense.

4. The fourth most frequent error (5%) could be ascribed only to intra-target language influence independent of L1 influence; the use of "was" instead of "were" in the past tense plural. The cause could be false analogy with other English verbs not changing their form in past plural as compared to past singular.

5. The final type (4%) was the "overuse" of "to be" when producing sentences like "I am stay at home every Sunday." It is most probably a case of over generalization when learners, anxious not to omit "to be," prefer to "overuse" it.

The observation and error categorization demonstrated that L1 differences were the principal cause of errors in using the English verb "to be" while speaking. This difference was fully responsible for 81% of errors (cases 1 and 2 above) and at least partially responsible for 9% more (case 3).

In the second phase of the study, students were asked to explore, on the basis of examples, the use of "to be" in English in comparison with the use of a corresponding linking verb in Russian (or Ukrainian)—with concentrated attention on areas of differences. After that, they were to do six specific "error correction" exercises (in written form). All the exercises were collections of sentences (10–12 in every exercise), each containing an error in using "to be" as a linking verb (for instances, sentences like "They not are friends"). The students' task was to find the errors, correct them, and explain the corrections from the point of view of "the rules of English as opposed to the rules of Ukrainian (Russian)." All the other learning activities directed at developing "to be" in speaking were standard, including role-plays, where the content matter required use of "to be" as a linking verb.

Four groups of students of the first year of study at Dnepropetrovsk State Technical University of Railway Transport were chosen for participation in the study with 10 students in each group. Two of the groups were experimental (experimental group 1 and experimental group 2—EG1 and EG2), the others were control groups (CG1 and CG2). The students in all the groups were equalized as to their age (17–19 years old), sex (half males and half females in every group), and starting level of proficiency in English (lower intermediate level). As to the level of starting proficiency in using "to be" in speaking, a preliminary check (written and oral testing tasks) showed it to be rather poor in all the four groups with a great number of errors of the kind described above made by all students.

In the experimental groups during the first three two-hour classes from the beginning of the study the teaching/learning process was organized exactly as described above. In the control groups this organization was identical, except there were no deliberate comparisons with the students' L1 and second, there were no "error correction" exercises. To preserve the volume of "to be" training intact, they were replaced by six traditional form-focusing exercises, such as filling in blanks with the required forms of "to be," etc.

The fourth class period in both groups was devoted to taking the first (immediate) post-test, while the second (delayed) post-test was held a month later with no special "to be" training during that interval. In both tests, students first had to speak in pairs (dialogic speaking) in situations and on the topics described by the teacher and requiring fre-

nt using of "to be." After that, every individual student had to prepare a short talk,) in a situation and on the topic described by the teacher and requiring frequent using 'to be." Naturally, situations and topics for speaking in test 1 and test 2 were differ-. During testing, the teacher registered all the errors made by students when using be" in speaking.

The results of registering are shown in Table 1. All the registered errors in the table divided into two categories—typical errors for the five types given above and "the ers" (errors that are not typical).

Table 1

Number of errors in using "to be" made by students of experimental and control groups in their speaking during tests 1 and 2

	Group	EG1	EG2	CG1	CG2
Test 1	Number of typical errors	8	6	19	18
	Number of "the other" errors	0	1	1	0
	Mean number of errors per one student	0.8	0.7	2.0	1.8
	Group	**EG1**	**EG2**	**CG1**	**CG2**
Test 2	Number of typical errors	6	6	22	14
	Number of "the other" errors	0	0	0	1
	Mean number of errors per one student	0.6	0.6	2.2	1.5

It can be seen from the table that both in immediate and delayed testing the students f the experimental groups demonstrated two or even three times better results as to ccuracy of using "to be" while speaking than the students of control groups.

A logical conclusion from the above is that the suggested critical language awareness-raising technique proved to be very effective in eliminating those errors that were lue to L1 interference and in improving students' accuracy when speaking English. At he same time, the very fact that this technique, based on interlingual comparison, does eliminate such errors lends support to the idea that the L1 is really their source of origin, and therefore, it supports the necessity of developing EFL learners' critical language awareness. No damaging effect on speaking fluency development was observed.

Study 2 (Methods, Results, Discussion): Systemic Critical Language Awareness as a Means of Increasing Accuracy

The second study[2] had the same aim as Study 1—to find out what influence critical language awareness exerts on accuracy and fluency in EFL. The main difference from the first study was its systemic approach. The first study was carried out using a single phenomenon of English (the verb "to be" as a linking verb) in relative isolation from other phenomena. But the grammar of any language is a system of a number of subsystems, and Galperin's theory of language consciousness asserts that target language consciousness-raising (critical language awareness-raising) is most effective when it is done systemically, i.e., when interlingual comparisons of grammar *systems* (or *subsystems*) are made, and not when we simply contrast separate grammatical phenomena.

For testing the effect of such systemic critical language awareness-raising, the passive voice of the English verb in all its systemic tense-aspect-voice manifestations was chosen—first, because it is a good example of a grammatical system (subsystem), and second, because the tense-aspect-voice system of the English verb (especially its passive voice) is the most difficult area of English grammar for Russian (Ukrainian)-speaking learners, and a source of numerous and serious errors that often make what students say in English almost incomprehensible and prevent them from comprehending what they read or hear. The difficulties arise from the great systemic differences of Russian (Ukrainian) and English verb systems.

The study was organized in four groups of the first year students at Dnepropetrovsk State Technical University of Railway Transport: two experimental (EG3 and EG4), and two control groups (CG3 and CG4). All the groups were equalized in the same way as in study 1, and study 2 itself was carried out over a period of three weeks (six classes).

During the first class, students in the experimental groups explored the passive voice of the English verb as a part of the whole tense-aspect-voice verb system in comparison and opposition to the Russian tense-aspect-voice verb system, accentuating the areas of differences and finding out how these differences are viewed from the point of view of English "language consciousness" in opposition to Russian "language consciousness." In full accordance with the recommendations made by Kabanova & Galperin (1972), such an exploration was followed by a specific target language consciousness-raising activity. Students were given a number of various sentences in Russian with a request

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[2] This study was carried out in cooperation with a teacher from the Foreign Language Department of Dnepropetrovsk State Technical University of Railway Transport (Nina Marochkina), the latter being responsible for teaching in experimental and control groups.

to say (and explain why from the point of view of English language consciousness) what tense, aspect, and voice of the verb-predicate should be used if those sentences were to be translated into English. All these activities took somewhat more than half of the first class. The other half and the following three classes were devoted to learning activities of communication-oriented nature (speaking, reading, listening).

In the control groups, the L1 grammatical system was not in any way involved. There was no systemic approach either, as during the first class, only the simple present, past, and future passive voice was discussed. In the second class, attention was focused on the progressive aspect with no attempt made to help students' see the entire underlying system and compare it to their L1 system, etc. All the other activities in the control groups, were the same as in the experimental groups.

In the fifth class period the students both in the experimental and control groups had to take a test for checking their accuracy in using English verb passive voice and, in general, their command of that grammatical structure. As the test was to check only the accuracy and nothing else, formal grammatical tasks were used. The first task was a multiple-choice one. There were blanks to be filled in with appropriate forms of the verb-predicate in seven sentences (one blank per sentence), each form to be chosen out of four alternatives. The second task was similar but more difficult. In six sentences the blanks were also to be filled in by appropriate forms of the verb-predicate. The students were given the verb-predicates in the infinitive and had to transform them into the grammatical forms required by the sense and structure of the entire sentences. In the third task four sentences in the active voice were to be transformed into the passive voice sentences. In the fourth task, in contrast, four sentences in the passive voice were to be transformed into the active voice sentences. The results of testing (four tasks) are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Results of doing four test tasks in experimental and control groups
(mean figures for every group)

Test task	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Total
Group	Correct responses (out of 7)	Correct responses (out of 6)	Correct responses (out of 4)	Correct responses (out of 4)	Correct responses (out of 21)
EG3	5.6 (80.0%)	4.9 (81.6%)	3.7 (93.5%)	3.6 (90.0%)	17.8 (84.7%)
EG4	6.2 (88.5%)	4.7 (78.3%)	3.3 (82.5%)	3.2 (80.0%)	17.4 (82.8%)
CG3	3.8 (54.2%)	2.6 (43.3%)	0.6 (15.0%)	0.4 (10.0%)	7.4 (35.2%)
CG4	3.3 (47.1%)	1.9 (31.6%)	0.3 (07.5%)	0.7 (17.5%)	6.2 (29.5%)

The differences in test results between the experimental and control groups, as can be seen from Table 2, were quite striking, and all the more so the more difficult the test task was.

Therefore, the second study again demonstrated the usefulness of developing students' critical target language awareness in EFL. It proved that the suggested systemic critical language awareness-raising technique had greatly improved students' target language accuracy. This improvement in accuracy was even more impressive (most probably, thanks to the use of systemic approach) than in Study 1.

But it was also necessary to find out whether the suggested technique could in any way impede the development of learners' fluency in English. For that purpose one more battery of tests was administered in the final sixth class to find out what level of skills in reading, listening, and speaking had been reached by the students of experimental and control groups.

The first test in the battery of three was aimed at reading skills. The students were given a short text (300 words) on the topic of international economic cooperation (it was the topic of communication in this study) and had to render in writing its content as fully as possible in their L1 (Russian). Comprehension was evaluated according to how many "units of information" from the text were rendered (there were 14 units of information in the text).

The next (listening) test was designed in a similar way. Students listened to a 300-word tape-recorded text on international economic cooperation with the greater part of verb-predicates in the text in the passive voice forms. The students had to render in Russian (in writing) the information they heard. The comprehension was evaluated by the number of units of information (out of nine) that the students had correctly rendered.

The final test was devoted to speaking skills. Every student had to give a talk (with no limitations as to time and volume of speaking) expressing her/his views, thoughts, and opinions on the subject of international economic cooperation. To increase objectivity, students talked in turns addressing independent assessors.

The results of all the three tests are given in Table 3 (group mean figures). The data in the table make the advantage in development of communicative skills of students from EG3 and EG4 sufficiently visible. The qualitative analysis of students' written work in reading and listening tests and interviews with the assessors demonstrated that: a) students from EG3 and EG4 were always substantially better than students from CG3 and CG4 in accuracy as they did not have any problems in understanding while reading or listening to sentences where the passive voice was used, and they also freely, and practically without errors, used the passive voice in their own speaking; b) students from EG3 and EG4 were better than students from CG3 and CG4 in fluency, volume, logical

cohesiveness of speaking, richness and variety of their talks, and comprehending the content of what they read and listened to.

Table 3

Results of testing students' communicative skills (reading, listening, speaking) in experimental and control groups (mean figures for every group)

	Reading test	Listening test	Speaking test	
Group	Units of information correctly comprehended and rendered (out of 14)	Units of information correctly comprehended and rendered (out of 9)	Mean Grade (with "5" as top grade) (assessor 1)	Mean Grade (with "5 as top grade) (assessor 2)
EG3	13.5 (96.4%)	8.5 (94.4%)	4.5	4.5
EG4	13.6 (97.1%)	8.8 (97.7%)	4.5	4.7
CG3	11.7 (83.5%)	6.6 (73.3%)	3.9	4.0
CG5	10.7 (76.4%)	6.6 (73.3%)	3.6	3.7

Conclusion

Two studies carried out to research the effect of critical language awareness-raising when teaching English as a foreign language to Ukrainian (Russian)-speaking university students learning English in Ukraine, permit us to draw two conclusions as follows:

1. Developing students' critical target language awareness has a great positive effect on increasing their grammatical accuracy in speaking, reading, and listening in English, and also in taking grammar tests.

2. This awareness, and techniques developing it, have no negative effect on students' communicative skill development. On the contrary, their effect may be considered as quite positive and beneficial for acquiring communicative skills, since increased accuracy improves fluency, as well as comprehension.

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K-12 Cross-Disciplinary Collaboration: An ESL In-service Model

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ESL students are taught by content and language teachers who share a school building, but may not share their frustrations, concerns, or expertise for working with ESL students across academic disciplines. Often, teaching schedules, the physical layout of a school, or the socio-political milieu make cooperation among faculty difficult. Although many school districts provide content-area teachers with formal ESL in-service development, ESL practitioners often remain the lone expert on ESL issues within individual schools. ESL students, however, need academic support from all their teachers. Given the circumstances, ESL practitioners are in a position to initiate cross-disciplinary collaboration, and to create both formal and informal in-service opportunities within their schools.

At the National Center for Science Teaching and Learning, language educators had the opportunity to cross academic boundaries to listen to science teachers in Florida (N=9) and Ohio (N=4) discuss teaching second language learners. Analyses of the focus group data (i.e., discussion and written feedback) and surveys completed by pre-service science teachers (N=48) provide insight into successfully pursuing cross-disciplinary collaboration. This article describes a model for creating effective ESL in-service opportunities in K-12 settings.

An ESL In-service Model

Working within a school's system, ESL practitioners must be strategic in advocating for and pursuing cross-disciplinary collaboration. The Appendix represents our three-step ESL In-service Model. In this model, ESL practitioners begin by focusing on an identified concern of content-area teachers. Next, they decide whether to approach collaboration with content-area teachers informally or formally within their schools. Finally, ESL practitioners select an appropriate strategy for conveying information to colleagues. These steps in creating in-service opportunities are described further.

The Concerns. The content of ESL in-service opportunities must focus on the stated, real-world concern of teachers. Our research revealed that the four defining con-

cerns of content-area teachers are how they view learners, language, teaching, and resources. Understanding these concerns and the problems they suggest are essential to appropriately tailoring, and packaging the ESL message for an in-service audience.

Concern 1: View of Learners

Content-area teachers know that ESL students face many challenges in adjusting to a new culture, language, and school system; however, they lack the type of detail about their ESL learners that would be genuinely useful in facilitating student learning. Content-area teachers had many questions about ESL learners' home, school, and community environments.

First, content-area teachers agree that they lack information about their ESL students' home environment: What language is spoken at home? What cultural background and expectations do they have? What attitude does the family have toward higher education? What science background do they have? Some teachers wonder what students' motivation and attitudes are toward learning English.

Second, content-area teachers are concerned about the classroom environment. Some teachers reported that they avoid calling on ESL students in class, and preferred to wait for students to volunteer answers. Other teachers felt that ESL learners are too passive in the classroom. One science teacher perhaps best capture the complexity of the feelings facing teachers of mainstreamed ESL students by admitting.

> I have some conflict in the classroom. The [ESL] students come in, and they do gravitate to the back. I find myself, sometimes when I talk to them, simplifying too much. The other conflict that I have is what about the other students, the normal English speaker? What's their concept about what I'm doing? Is this boring to them? I guess the conflict within me is "What can I do? I can't stop, but how do I go on?"

To prepare for our focus group discussion in Florida, two seasoned high school science educators asked their school counselor to invite a group of their former and current ESL students, six in all, to talk to them about their school and science experiences. Significantly, this was the teachers' first effort to talk in depth with any of their ESL students. One teacher shared that, "It really opened my eyes to sit down with these students at the table and see a different aspect of them: what their concerns are, and how they feel about coming into my class. It changed my whole concept."

Finally, affective factors that influence language and content learning go beyond the classroom to the community as well. One teacher expressed concern that their students face community biases, such as the attitude that "This is America, and I don't want any

of those people coming in." Another teacher noted that, "I never hear anybody say, 'Let's learn a little Spanish.' It's always, you know, '*They* better learn *our* language.'"

Whether the focus is on the home, classroom, or community environment, how the individual ESL student manages, learns, and prospers is unclear to many content-area teachers. The focus seems to be on the *outcomes* rather than the *processes* of survival. One science teacher said, "I really have to admire them [ESL students]. I don't know how they come from these other countries, and are seemingly better than our students that already know English. How do they do it?"

Concern 2: View of Language Learning

Content-area teachers are not bound by second language theories, research, or practice in articulating their views of what it means to learn a second language. Many of the attitudes they have toward language learning are based on intuition. Content-area teachers' language learning concerns were revealed most often through the following two questions: 1) Should students be mainstreamed before they have English fluency? and 2) If they are mainstreamed, what should I expect of my ESL students?

A majority of the teachers we surveyed (77%) agree that students cannot wait for English fluency before entering the content classroom. Nevertheless, many teachers are confronted by people who do not want ESL students mainstreamed. For example, one teacher said:

> I hear that all the time. Not just from teachers, but from spouses of teachers, and parents of my students who are English speakers. "What are they doing in here? If they can't speak English, they're wasting my child's time." I have always had trouble explaining why they're in my classroom, even to myself.

In addition to this issue of fluency, content-area teachers want to know if they should have the same learning expectations of ESL students as they have of native English speakers. Content-area teachers express uncertainty about how to 1) match language abilities to content learning expectations, and 2) judge what is easy or difficult for the ESL learner from a linguistic perspective. Poor oral language skills do appear to be unsettling for some teachers as reflected in the following types of comments: a) "He never says anything in class;" b) "He has been here six months, why isn't he speaking more?" or c) "Why doesn't the student answer questions or read orally in class?"

These comments reflect possible misconceptions about language learning. First, content-area teachers may not understand that comprehension precedes production in language learning, or that oral production carries a heavier linguistic load than listening

or reading. Using the right words, in the right sequence, with the right tenses can be overwhelming when the ESL student does not have good control of the academic content *or* the language. Second, a content-area teacher may not recognize that the use of rich visual or written support materials provide ESL students the linguistic support they need to develop language proficiency. Third, science teachers appear to view vocabulary as the quintessential element of language. They believe we reach ESL students through word-lists and dictionaries: specialized, bilingual, science dictionaries. Determining whether ESL students have problems with the language or with academic content requires a broader view of language learning, one that involves extended discourse, negotiation, and demonstration of understanding in a variety of appropriate contexts.

Content-area teachers are uncertain about what to expect from their ESL students in terms of language development and content learning. Working in isolation, these teachers develop their own, sometimes erroneous, view of language and language learning.

Concern 3: View of Teaching

A vast majority of content-area teachers were not prepared during their undergraduate studies to deal with ESL students in the classroom. Content-area teachers indicate that they lack a sound ESL-based rationale to guide their choices in teaching, modifying materials, and testing.

The first teaching question content-area teachers have is what is the *best*, *most effective*, and *easiest* strategy, technique, or method of conveying academic content to ESL students. Although they ask about the way to teach ESL students, they themselves report using a diversity of teaching strategies, such as the use of concept maps, semantic webs, hands-on activities, cooperative learning, drawing, and learning logs.

While some science teachers told us that they initially looked forward to participating in required ESL endorsement programs, they soon became resentful when they saw the content of such programs. One teacher said that endorsement programs suggest teaching strategies that good teachers use already. Another teacher felt the endorsement programs were insulting because "We're already doing these thing, but we just don't have them labeled as an 'ESL strategy.'" Some endorsement programs may not effectively focus the attention of content-area teachers on second language acquisition, negotiated interaction, effective teacher talk, and the importance of including both language and content objectives in lesson planning.

The second teaching concern content-area teachers have is knowing what materials to use with ESL students. Teachers want to know whether they should use special, bilingual, or simplified materials, and what modifications to materials will work.

The third common teaching concern for content-area teachers is knowing how to assess ESL students' knowledge of content (e.g., science, history, math). Bernhardt, Destino, Kamil, and Rodriguez-Munoz (1995) also feel that this concern is well-founded in that second language students must demonstrate "knowledge in a language over which they have only partial control," (p. 6). Content-area teachers want to know whether they should grade, how they should grade, and how much special help they should give their ESL learners on classroom tests.

Concern 4: View of Resources

Content-area teachers view resources as personnel and facility concerns. They are interested in what resources and personnel are available to help them assess ESL students' reading level and language proficiency. They are concerned about large class sizes, time constraints, heterogeneous language and ability grouping, funding for support programs, and native speaker jealousies toward ESL students for the special programs, resources, and attention given to them.

Our data suggests that many content-area teachers are not accustomed to thinking of their school's ESL teacher as a partner, ally, or accessible resource for meeting the needs of ESL students. Interdisciplinary cooperation is hindered by both perceptions and logistics. Regarding perceptions, one ESL teacher summed up the feelings of many ESL professionals by saying, "I'm willing to work with content teachers; why aren't content teachers willing to work with me?" In terms of logistics, one science teacher notes, "The whole design of schools is against this concept [of cooperation]. I mean they built the schools to keep teachers from communicating, and they've separated us so we hardly see each other except for faculty meetings." These obstacles to collaboration can only be overcome by strategic planning.

The questions that a science teacher may ponder in one corner of the local high school may be well within the grasp and expertise of the ESL teacher down the hall. When a content-area teacher asks "Why don't they talk to me," the ESL teacher can provide family, language, cultural, or affective realities about language learning that may help the content-area teacher understand a student's silence, passivity, or expectations. Dialogue between content-area and ESL teachers about appropriate expectations and effective classroom practices would be beneficial for ESL learners. The public school reality is that these teachers rarely cross paths. Opportunities for collaboration must be created.

One science teacher observes that "Teachers don't have the time to go and look for things. You have to provide it for them in very concrete ways." Another teacher reminds us that "Most teachers have one thing in common: they care about students. . .[approach

us] through these students, and you're going to reach a lot more teachers than if you come to [us] from a professional 'we're-going-to-make-you-do-this' approach."

In summary, the learner, language, teaching, and resource concerns of content-area teachers reveal the challenges teachers face in meeting the needs of ESL students. These concerns should serve as foci in our cross-disciplinary efforts to educate and advocate for ESL students and programs.

The Approach. Although formal, school-level, or endorsement-type in-service opportunities have high visibility and punctuate the importance of ESL issues, more informal approaches to in-service could be explored to support content-area teachers in their individual, day-to-day, and on going efforts to meet ESL students' needs. ESL practitioners could use informal print, one-on-one, or small group approaches, or more formal school level in-service to initiate and create opportunities for collaboration.

As represented in the Appendix, content-area teachers could easily be given a one-page printed handout on a relevant ESL issue to review at their own convenience. Or they might respond more positively to an ESL teacher's input on a one-on-one basis when it focuses on a particular student's progress in their class. ESL teachers may also initiate collaboration by approaching small groups of content-area teachers with similar concerns. These small groups may be defined by discipline (i.e., math teachers), grade (i.e., fifth grade teachers), schedule (i.e., first lunch period), or faculty friendship.

Content-area teachers are pivotal colleagues in educating ESL populations. Content-area teachers would benefit by being seen as learners themselves; that is, as learners with cognitive, social, and affective needs related to learning new content. For example, content-area teachers may face their own social or affective obstacles in teaching ESL students. Approaches to in-service must be planned to account for different cognitive learning styles, and to help teachers, as learners themselves, overcome the biases and limitations that hinder them from instructionally supporting their ESL learners.

The Strategy. Many strategies for presenting ESL-focused information to content-area teachers exist for the creative and strategic ESL practitioner. Teachers' awareness of ESL students can be heightened with printed materials by circulating single-theme monthly flyers, using bulleting boards to display student work, or distributing language-related surveys (e.g., Richards & Lockhart, 1994). This information should be limited to concise, one-page, summaries of what content-area teachers want to know, with examples easy to grasp. Even providing the faculty lounge or library with ESL books, articles, or audio-visual materials may be helpful.

One-on-one, content-area teachers are more apt to ask specific language, culture, and pedagogy questions. Cross-disciplinary dialogue can be initiated by entering the content-area teachers' classroom. One-on-one efforts with content-area teachers should

focus on individual student progress and classroom visits. Using a problem analysis worksheet may be useful.

Although small groups may emerge naturally, there is also benefit in targeting a different department to work with each month. Working with small groups of content-area teachers allows an ESL specialist to 1) discuss teaching practices that help ESL students, 2) demonstrate language objectives for specific content lessons, or 3) help teachers develop prototypical assignment files.

Clearly, school level in-service workshops and professional development days are the most formal and expensive approach to ESL education. Other school level strategies include encouraging content-area teachers to attend local ESL conferences, sponsoring activities showcasing language diversity, or creating formal links between departments within schools. These strategies develop awareness and ameliorate prejudices.

Conclusion

Content-area teachers often work in isolation, in independent classrooms, and rely on intuition about learners, language development, and teaching practices to address the needs of ESL students. Although content-area teachers are not always receptive to our advocacy and teaching efforts on behalf of ESL students, ESL practitioners can play an important role within their schools to initiate collaboration and create in-service opportunities that meet the day-to-day needs of their content-area colleagues.

Whether an ESL practitioner utilizes print, one-on-one, small group, or school level in-service opportunities will depend on each school's readiness to discuss ESL students' needs. In communities where language and culture diversity are just beginning to emerge as school issues, informal in-service approaches may yield the most benefit.

There is a need for cross-disciplinary collaboration between various content domains and ESL specialists. Laying the ground work for such collaboration requires understanding the in-service audience's concerns, and then selecting and approach and strategy that meet your school's needs. Taking advantage of both formal and informal in-service opportunities can help teachers who share a building also share their concerns and expertise across academic boundaries for the benefit of ESL student populations.

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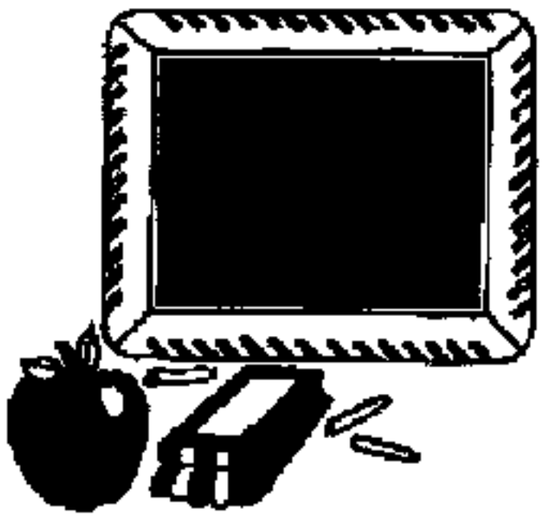
APPENDIX

K–12 ESL In-Service Model

CONCERN	APPROACH	STRATEGY
→	**Print**	Share monthly fliers Make bulletin boards Distribute surveys Display student work List and offer resources Provide student info Share relevant articles
→		Provide useful texts to faculty
* Learner	**One -on-One**	Focus on individual students' progress Visit each others' classroom Work through school counselors Respond to specific questions Develop materials
* Language		
* Teaching	**Small Group**	Encourage interviews/panel discussions with students Create sample assignment files Use audio-visual materials Target a department a month: Identify concerns and provide alternatives Discuss lessons from a second language perspective Teach useful Spanish (etc.) to English-speaking teachers
* Resources		
→	**School Level**	Invite faculty to ESL conferences Encourage workshops on multiple intelligences & multiculturalism Encourage talent shows or other events that showcase diversity Establish formal links between departments
→		



Tips for Teachers

Realia: Real Motivation in the EFL Classes

Carmen Pilar Serrano Boyer, I. E. S. Torreon del Alcazar, Spain

EFL teachers can use realia as one of the best ways to motivate students, arousing in them curiosity and concern about English speaking countries and their way of living. They can also be used in class as any ordinary text which students have to scan to find specific items of information, but if the teacher announces it as a contest involving answering questions, students will feel much more motivated and our EFL class will be "different" that day.

How to Proceed

a. Collect as many realia as possible—tickets, labels, magazines, posters, brochures, invitations, etc.

b. Prepare an envelope for every group you are going to have in class.

c. Put about ten realia into each envelope and also a sheet of paper with questions about those realia.

d. Make groups of four or five people, tell each group to choose one of the envelopes and finally give them a time limit to answer the questions.

e. When they run out of time, swap the envelopes between the groups and give each group an answer sheet to correct the questionnaire they were given.

f. Tell students to give one point to each right answer.

g. Collect the marked sheets and write the score on the blackboard giving each group the opportunity to correct their own questionnaire again—thus students will realize which mistakes they made.

h. The winning group is the one that gets the most points.

An Example

These are the realia questions and answers of one of the envelopes I prepared for my class.

Realia

1. American (questions 1-5): magazine, two posters and a map of the USA.
2. Australian (questions 6-10): surfing information and two brochures.
3. British (questions 11-15): ticket, cut-out from a magazine, brochure and recipe.

Questions

1. Name an American magazine for young people
2. Which is the thirteenth largest city in the USA?
3. What does CNN stand for?
4. When was Coca-Cola born?
5. Which is the state between Wyoming and New Mexico?
6. Name an Australian surfer.
7. When is it winter in Perth?
8. What's the maximum speed limit in Western Australia?
9. What is Cervantes for Australian people?
10. Name a non-government community organization working to conserve Australia's heritage.
11. What does LRT stand for?
12. Who is Zara Phillips?
13. Name one of the most striking Megalithic structures in the world.
14. Where can you see the famous Changing of the Guards?
15. When is "Oen Cymreig Melog?"

Answers

1. Seventeen.
2. Baltimore.
3. Cable News Network.
4. On May 8, 1996.
5. Colorado.
6. Mitch Thorson.
7. From June through August.
8. 110.

9. A crayfishing town.
10. The National Trust of Australia.
11. London Regional Transport.
12. Princess Anne's daughter.
13. Stonehenge.
14. At Buckingham Palace.
15. A Welsh recipe, it means "Honeyed Welsh Lamb."

After correcting this questionnaire my students were surprised that:

– Coca-Cola is so old,

– in Australia it is winter when in Spain it is summer,

– Cervantes, who is a famous Spanish writer, is also an Australian town,

– Welsh is such a "strange" language.

Some students asked me for a photocopy of the Welsh recipe, which was also written in English, and a groups of girls asked if they could borrow "Seventeen."

Conclusion

Using realia in the EFL class proves a positive and rewarding experience since it:

– makes lessons more interesting and enjoyable,

– is a link between language learning and sociocultural learning,

– brings EFL classes nearer to the English speaking countries,

– helps students to "discover" and process new input,

– is a good complement to the usual reading materials.

I do hope other readers of the *TESL Reporter* will benefit from this idea and start keeping some of the written stuff we throw away when visiting an English speaking country—it can be recycled with great benefit in the classroom!

Now Showing: Teaching English with Movie Posters

Daniel Linder, Cursos Internacionales de la Universidad de Salamanca, Spain

American popular culture exerts a tremendous influence on teenage learners' lives in such a way that it seems a shame not to harness this energy as a motivator for the EFL classroom. However, many EFL teachers are at a loss for exactly how to turn student interest in the movies into productive classroom work. Of course, you could show more films or excerpts from films in class, but that is not always the solution.

Why not use movie posters instead? The following set of guidelines outlines a method for using Hollywood movie posters in the EFL classroom. In the *Now Showing* unit of work, after observing actual movie posters, students create movie posters of their own for an ideal movie featuring an ideal cast, an ideal plot and so on. The unit is appropriate for intermediate to upper-intermediate groups from about 14 years of age and up, and it takes about 10 hours of class time to complete.

Preparation

Gather about twenty-five posters and label them with a number. These do not have to be actual movie posters, but they may be advertisements in film fan magazines that are identical to the actual movie posters. You could also collect page-sized movie posters from the Internet by making printouts of movie web sites. Using authentic materials is one of the keys to success in this unit and in other classwork with texts. Comprehensible input leads to productive competence. Therefore, teachers should choose the texts carefully according to your group's level of maturity and English proficiency, and they should grade the tasks that students perform with these texts rather than grade the texts themselves.

Prepare tasks with past participles like *directed* and *produced*, present participles like *starring, presenting* and *introducing*, prepositions like *with, by* and *in,* and vocabulary like *coming, now showing, preview* and *debut.* In addition, plan to give students plenty of class time to work in groups.

Procedure

Make students aware of the unit they are about to take part in by giving them a handout with the unit title, *Now Showing*, and the following statement, which students will be able to say when they complete the unit of work: *I can make a poster for an ideal movie and display it for my classmates to see.*

Observe Authentic Movie Posters

While observing the authentic numbered movie posters, have students do an exercise such as this one:

Observe five movie posters and check (x) the information they contain: *movie slogan, director's name, producers name, scriptwriter, soundtrack, nominations, movie studio, actor/actresses, based on a novel or true story, recommendations*

Remind them to pay close attention to the style of language, layout and illustrations used in these authentic movie posters because of the posters for their ideal movies they are going to make later on.

Perform Tasks for Language Presentation and Practice

Work with verb forms, prepositions, and vocabulary using the tasks you have prepared above. After having observed the authentic movie posters above, the students should be able to contextualize these points according to what they will need for the ideal movie poster assignment which will come later.

Plan the Poster

Now the students must begin to plan for the ideal movie poster writing exercise. They must do an exercise such as this one, which is designed to have them focus on what they want their posters to contain:

In groups check (x) the five (or more) points from the ones above that you want to include in your ideal movie poster.

Make the Poster and Display

In their small groups, students will have chosen which elements from the ten listed above they want to include in their movie poster, and they should now go into details, discussing which actors/actresses, director, singer for the soundtrack, etc. they want to include. The groups may easily reach compromises by including a favorite actor/actress for each member of the group. The groups that have chosen to include a movie slogan or a recommendation should make sure to select their language in such a way that it is realistic, catchy and grammatically correct. At this stage, give them ample leeway for creativity in other aspects that make these posters and texts functional in their authentic contexts; for example, the illustrations and layout of the poster are key.

Follow-up Activities

Once the posters have been displayed on the walls of the classroom, have students walk around and choose a movie they would want to see. Also, in a looping exercise,

ave students complete the observation exercise from above using the movie posters roduced by themselves.

Have students classify the ideal films into types, whether they are horror films, omantic films, dramas, animated films, suspense films, action films, science-fiction ilms, or comedies. Also, have them reflect on what else besides English they learned uring this unit, for example, what they learned about the film industry. In addition, in roups have them write a positive comment about each one of the movie posters, and iven them to the groups anonymously.

Try to open up any avenue possible for publication of the movie posters. This may e a hallway display, school magazines/newsletters, or even posting on the Internet, epending on the facilities at the disposal of each teacher.

Variations and Adaptations

For more mature or higher proficiency groups, you may want to add a research hase in which your students use reference materials or even the Internet to gather a rich ata bank to draw from when writing the posters. Also, with these groups you could dapt this unit in such a way that students make posters for other types of artistic per- ormances, such as plays, concerts, or orchestra performances.

Conference Announcements

inguistic Society of America. January 4-7, 2001. Annual Conference, Washington, .C. Contact Margaret Reynolds, Linguistic Society of America, 1325 18th Street, NW, uite 211, Washington, District of Columbia 20036. Tel. 202-835-1714. Fax 202-835-717. E-mail: lsa@lsadc.org. Http://www.lsadc.org

alifornia Association for Bilingual Education (CABE). January 31-February 3, 001. Conference, "Bilingualism Spells Success in Any Language," Los Angeles, alifornia. Contact CABE, 660 S. Figueroa Street, Suite 1040, Los Angeles, California 0017. Tel. 213-532-3850. Fax 213-532-3860. E-mail: info@bilingualeducation.org. ttp://www.bilingualeducation.org

lofet Institute, Israel. February 12-14, 2001. First Virtual Conference, "Opening ates in Teacher Education," Online. Contact Jean Vermel, Co-convener. Beit Berl ollege. E-mail jean@macam.ac.il. Http://vcisrael.macam98.ac.il

ational Association for Bilingual Education (NABE). February 20-24, 2001. nnual Convention, "NABE 2001," Phoenix, Arizona, Contact NABE, 1030 15th treet, Suite 470, Washington, DC 20005-1503. Tel. 202-898-1829. Fax 202-789-2866. mail: conference@nabe.org. Http://www.nabe.org

Journeys Reading 2

Review by Irinoda Katsutoshi
University of Hawai'i at Manoa

JOURNEYS READING 2. Roni Lebauer. Prentice Hall, pp. 137, 1980, $20.

This book is one of the twelve *Journeys* series: *Journeys Reading, Journeys Writing, Journeys Grammar,* and *Journeys Listening/Speaking,* each of which is divided into three levels from beginning through intermediate. *Journeys Reading 2*, intended for the level between beginning and intermediate, is written by Roni Lebauer, who also wrote *Journeys Reading 1.*

Journeys Reading 2 is composed of 20 units. Each unit includes warm-up questions (1 page), three reading activities (2 pages each), and post-reading activities called "Challenge" (1 page). The reading activities in each unit consist of two intensive readings and one scanning. The book is obviously skill-based, emphasizing such skills as skimming, scanning, guessing the meaning of words, predicting the content by the title, and making inferences.

Each unit contains various materials such as short articles, letters, and conversations. The selection of materials is well-considered and gives new insights to both teachers and students. Topics such as SAD (Seasonal Affective Disorder), graphology, and the origins and meanings of typical names are difficult to find in other ESL/EFL materials.

In "Vocabulary Practice," students are asked to classify words into appropriate categories. Also, along with the authenticity of the articles, the book sometimes uses difficult vocabulary such as "snobbish", "procrastination", and "stick one's neck out" as they are the original passages. Instead of substituting more familiar words, the book gives the paraphrased expression for each, which not only avoids distorting their meanings but also motivates students to use an English-English dictionary.

Another strong point of the book is that students can make their own judgements on some questions. For instance, in one unit students are asked to choose between a high school and a military academy. These questions help students realize they can use their own ideas in reading. One of the mottoes of the book, "Beginning level students have brains and hearts" is here reflected and accomplished.

All in all, I am really a fan of *Journeys Reading 2.* I tried this book myself and enjoyed tackling each activity. An advanced EFL reader like me can share the joy of learning with students by using *Journeys Reading 2.* This skill-based, learner-friendly book is highly recommended to all teachers who want a change in their classes.

Notes to Contributors

The *TESL Reporter* is a semiannual publication of the Division of Languages and Linguistics of Brigham Young University–Hawaii, and is dedicated to the dissemination of ideas and issues of interest to teachers of English to speakers of other languages worldwide.

Manuscripts should be typed and double spaced throughout, generally not exceeding fifteen pages. Each manuscript should be accompanied by a cover sheet with the title; author's name, position, and address; and a short (less than 50 words) biodata statement. Identifying information should not appear elsewhere in the manuscript in order to insure an impartial review. Authors are encouraged to follow APA style and review past issues of the *TESL Reporter* for matters of style. Any tables, graphs, or illustrations should be sent in camera-ready form whenever possible.

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

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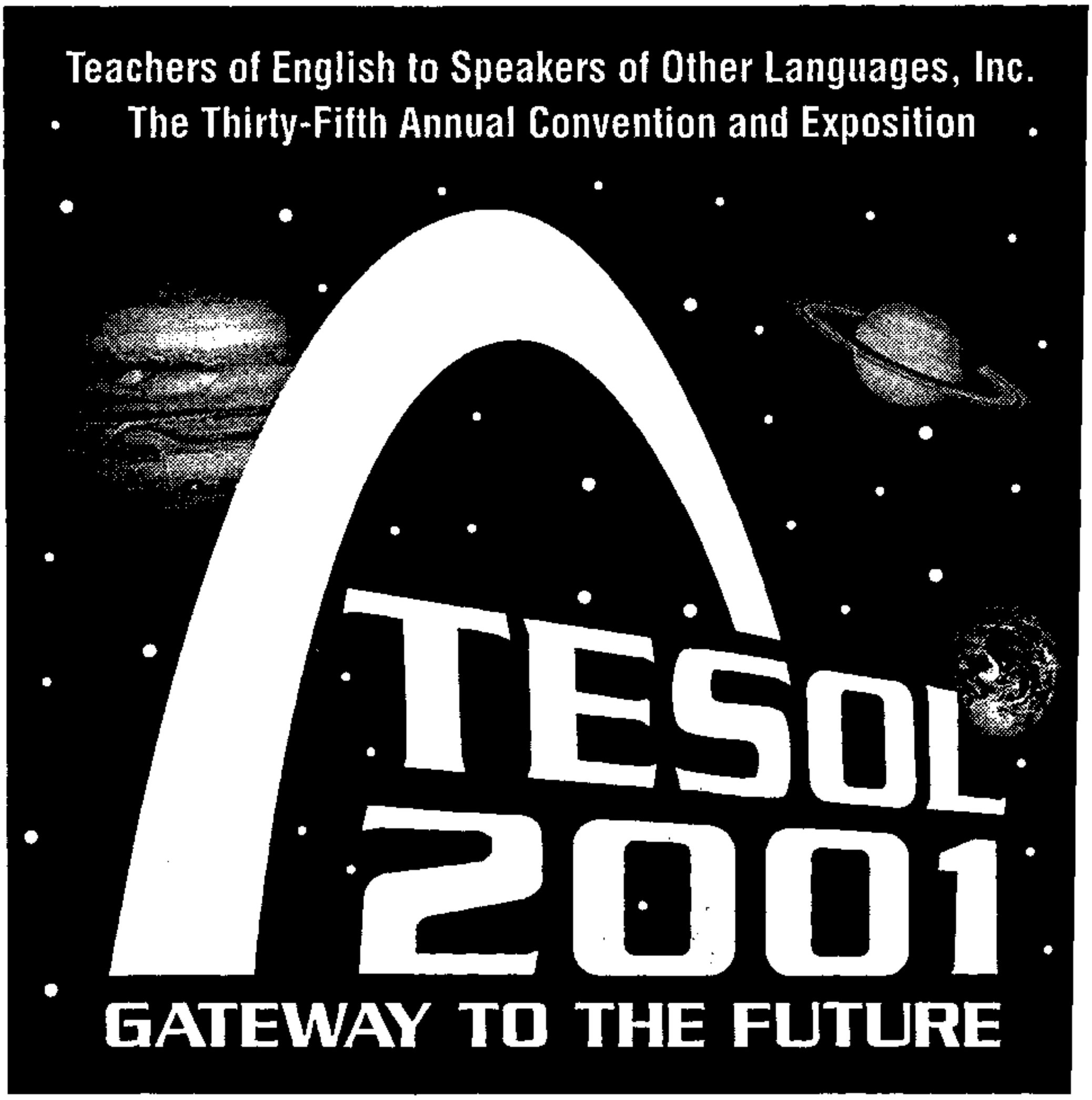
The opinions and statements expressed by contributors are their own and do not necessarily reflect the views of the editors or of Brigham Young University–Hawaii.



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