TESL REPORTER

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

ESL Students in Freshman English: An Evaluation of the Placement Options

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The influx of international students to American colleges and universities is growing at the rate of 5 percent a year (Dodge, 1991). When the large number of recent immigrants who attend these institutions is added to this number, students who speak English as a second language (ESL) form a significant percentage of the undergraduate population. These students, like their native speaker counterparts, are required to take Freshman English courses. In recent years, with the presence of ESL students in almost every Freshman English class, the issue has drawn increasing attention.

The three options for placing ESL students in Freshman English are mainstreaming, placement in basic writing classes, and placement in classes especially designed and designated for ESL students. In this paper, my aim is to argue that ESL students are best served in the third option--in special ESL classes. I will develop my argument by evaluating the three placement options.

An explanation of two terms is needed here. First, I apply the broad term "ESL students" to both international and immigrant students, acknowledging that for many, English could be a third or fourth language. Second, I use the term "basic writers" to include those who use standard English as a second dialect (SESD). These are the students often placed in developmental or remedial classes.

Mainstreaming

When ESL students were few and research on ESL writing was sparse, they were absorbed into regular Freshman English courses designed for and dominated by native-speakers. Despite more than a decade of research on ESL writing which points to the disadvantages of this option, it still appears to be the most common. Although statistics at the national level are not available, an informal survey of colleges and universities in Alabama showed that, of the forty-six campuses where ESL students are enrolled, thirty-six mainstream the students.

Granted, ESL writers share some characteristics of native-speaker writers. Cumming (1989) has shown that ESL students who are expert writers in their first language are able to apply successful writing-strategies, such as planning and revising, (which are similar to those of expert native-speaker writers) when they write in English. Further, the strategies used by inexperienced ESL writers are similar to those of inexperienced native-speaker writers; they do not plan their writing clearly

and have difficulty in retaining chunks of meaning in their mind as they write (Cumming, 1989; Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987).

Despite these similarities, research has shown significant differences that separate second language writers from native-speaker writers. Silva (1994) has analyzed this research, examining 72 studies that compared first and second language writing. The studies dealt with a total of more than 4,000 subjects representing at least 27 different first languages and displaying a wide range of levels in language ability.

Based on his analysis of these studies, Silva concludes that second language writing is "simpler and less effective" and that the composing process of second language writers is "more constrained, more difficult, and less effective" (p. 668). Second language writers did less planning at both the local and global level and found goal setting, and generating and organizing material, to be more difficult, and transcribing "more laborious, less fluent, and less productive" (p. 668). Second language writers also reviewed, reread, and reflected on their writing less. Although they revised more, it was with greater difficulty and they were less able to revise intuitively. Their writing contained fewer words but more errors, and received lower scores in holistic ratings.

Silva also concludes that second language writing displayed "a distinct pattern of exposition, argumentation, and narration" (p. 668). In using background readings and answering essay examinations, second language writers were less effective. In addition, their reader orientation was less appropriate and acceptable. While their sentences included more but shorter t-units, the clauses were fewer though longer. Although the sentences showed more coordination, they also showed less subordination, noun modification, and passivization. The writing contained more conjunctions and fewer lexical ties, and also displayed less control, variety, and sophistication in the use of vocabulary (1994). (While the typical native-speaker college student has a reading and listening vocabulary of around 150,000 words (Murray, 1989), second language writers' vocabulary is much smaller.)

Another area which is problematic in mainstream classes is topic development. ESL writers have little knowledge of topics that most native-speaker writers are familiar with. The 60s, AIDS, drugs, gun control, and divorce, popular topics in most regular Freshman English classes, often pose enormous and sometimes insurmountable obstacles to ESL writers. McKay (1989), who has identified a written discourse accent in ESL writers, emphasizes the need to assign topics which relate to ESL students' background knowledge.

While surface level errors of ESL writers such as in syntax and diction are easily observed and corrected, teachers are often unable to pinpoint more subtle rhetorical differences caused by the different language backgrounds of ESL students. In other languages, textual cohesion and organization may be effected in ways that are

different from those used in academic English (Reid, 1989). If teachers of mainstream classes, with no training in ESL, fail to recognize and acknowledge these rhetorical differences, ESL student essays could be judged as inferior (Land &Whitley, 1989).

In addition to pedagogical inadequacy, mainstream classes could present an ideological mismatch. Santos (1992) has shown how the teaching of composition to native-speakers is viewed in ideological terms, while the aim of ESL composition is more pragmatic. While "changing political goals and/or changing students' political consciousness" (9) appears to be the aim of current neo-Marxist composition theory, the aim of ESL composition is to help ESL students assimilate as quickly as possible. These contradictory aims cause some confusion in setting teaching objectives.

How do teachers react to the presence of ESL writers in mainstream classes? Joseph (1992) conducted detailed interviews with ten teachers of composition, many of whom have taught Freshman English for over 15 years at a medium-size university which enrolls about 900 ESL students. The teachers were asked a series of wide-ranging, open-ended questions. When asked what problems they encountered in teaching ESL students in mainstream classes, the teachers responded that ESL students were reluctant to talk in class, didn't let the teachers know if they understood instructions, had different proficiency levels from native-speaker students and needed more explanations, which the native-speaker students found tedious. When asked if the majority of ESL students had the same writing problems as native-speakers, all the teachers responded in the negative; the main problems they saw were in the use of idioms, prepositions, tenses, and subject-verb agreement. Some teachers said that they had difficulty in understanding the (English) dialects spoken by the ESL students, which caused miscommunication to occur quite often. The teachers said that ESL students expected the teachers to do most of the talking during conferences, and that some students found the one-to-one interaction with the teacher difficult to handle. According to some teachers, the difficulties during conferences only magnified the problems in the classroom. As for rhetorical differences, most of the teachers had no idea of how ESL students would organize a paper in their languages. One teacher commented that she "never dreamed they would organize a paper differently" (p. 5).

If ESL students differ so much from native-speakers, and their presence in mainstream classes is problematic, why is mainstreaming so common in Freshman English courses? The reason may be convenience; administrators do not have to create new courses or hire qualified ESL specialists at a time of budget restraints. However, the consequences of mainstreaming could be disastrous for ESL students, resulting in "resentment, alienation, loss of self-confidence, poor grades, and ultimately, academic failure" (Silva, Forthcoming).

Placement of Basic Writing Classes

Some administrators acknowledge that ESL writers need special attention by placing them in basic writing classes. Despite the long-standing objections of ESL specialists (e.g., Nattinger, 1978; Leki, 1992), Santos (1992) notes that the merging of ESL and basic writers is on the increase. In Alabama, of the forty-six campuses where ESL students are enrolled, seven place them in basic writing classes.

ESL and basic writers share certain characteristics such as problems with punctuation and a lack of coherent rhetorical structure, standard sentence construction, and control over some grammatical structures. Roy (1984), perhaps the best known proponent of placing ESL students in basic writing classes, argues that with regard to goals, learning strategies, and stages of language acquisition, ESL and basic writers are similar. There is no question that ESL and basic writers have a similar goal, the mastery of standard written English. However, in regard to learning strategies, Roy admits the lack of published evidence that ESL students and basic writers acquire forms of standard English in a similar way. Instead, what has been observed is a similarity in many of the errors made by the two groups in the acquisition of standard English. In fact, Roy only cites errors with the terminal "-s" (of the third person singular present tense) in support of her assertion. Further, Roy's contention that meaningful interaction with users of standard English is a necessity for the acquisition of standard forms by both ESL students and basic writers argues against, not for, their placement together. Neither will acquire from the other the standard forms.

Although both groups need special attention in composition classes, Leki (1992) has summarized the numerous differences between ESL and basic writers. For instance, error analysis has shown that when learning a second language, the most difficult features to master are those that are closest to the learners' first language. As a result, basic writers may have more difficulty in mastering standard English than ESL writers. Second, ESL writers, who may have learned even conversational skills from textbooks, tend to use a formal register in their writing, while basic writers often resort to an informal register.

Discussing personal histories with writing, Leki notes that basic writers have usually experienced years of failure as writers, resulting in low self-esteem and low self-expectations. Since the ability to write effectively affects overall academic performance, many basic writers are low academic achievers as well. ESL writers, on the other hand, often consider themselves to be fluent writers in their first languages, on their way to becoming fluent writers in English. Since most ESL writers are academically superior students, earning the respect of their teachers, they possess a high self-esteem. The confidence gained could be severely affected as a result of being placed with basic writers.

Leki also discusses how ESL and basic writers differ in their learning strategies. Basic writers are better able to substitute spoken forms and thereby increase the chances of their writing being understood. They are also able to read aloud and edit written errors. In the case of ESL writers, there is little difference between their spoken and written forms, and often they barely understand what they read aloud, attempting to grasp textual meaning not from context but from individual words. In essence, basic writers use top-down processing strategies, while ESL writers use bottom-up strategies, focusing on words to comprehend sentences and passages. In addition, basic writers share numerous cultural and linguistic assumptions with their teachers, which help them communicate better in the classroom, a facility which ESL writers lack.

The numerous differences between ESL and basic writers described above lead to pedagogical problems when the two groups are taught together. For instance, ESL/basic writing classes are often taught by teachers trained to deal with the problems of basic writers, who may be at a loss when faced with the problems specific to ESL writers. Another problem is the choice of textbooks. Textbooks meant for basic writers may not address the problems of ESL writers and vice versa. Benson, Deming, Denzer, and Valeri-Gold (1992), who compared the writing of ESL and basic writers, state that the many differences between the two groups are better handled separately.

Perhaps the main problem of ESL/basic writing classes is psychological. ESL students, who have a high self-esteem as skilled and experienced writers in their first languages, might "infer that they are being penalized for being culturally and/or linguistically different, and that to be different is to be deficient" (Silva, Forthcoming) when placed in classes with basic writers. On the other hand, basic writers, who are frequently "reminded of their distance from the economic and/or social mainstream" may regard such classes "as another instance of their own marginalization" (Leki, 1992, p. 28).

Special ESL Classes

Given all the evidence that mainstreaming and placement in basic writing classes is detrimental to ESL writers, why aren't they placed in classes especially designed and designated for them? In fact, such classes are offered at many larger campuses, which usually enroll a significant number of ESL students and/or where English department faculty include an ESL specialist. Sometimes, these classes are the result of pressure brought on the university administration by personnel in charge of ESL students (such as International Student Advisors) or by the students themselves. However, a number of reasons are cited for more Freshman English programs not having special classes for ESL students.

One reason is the lack of sufficient ESL students to justify special classes. The U.S. has more than three thousand colleges and universities, and an inhospitable climate, a rural location, limited course offerings, or a high tuition rate can discourage ESL students from enrolling in some institutions. A second reason is that special classes may be seen as remedial and subordinate to mainstream classes, and therefore resented and shunned by ESL students. Third, special classes could be seen as a form of segregation, preventing ESL students from interacting with and learning from native speaker students as in mainstream classes. Finally, the main reason could be that a new program has to be created, with the attendant problems of curriculum design, staffing, and supervision. These problems may be exacerbated by university administrators who discourage the added expense of such classes at a time of budgetary restraints.

Of the reasons cited above, only the first (insufficient enrollment of ESL students) appears to justify the lack of special classes for ESL students. In Alabama, for instance, more than half the campuses have fewer than fifty ESL students. The second reason, the impression that special classes are remedial and subordinate to mainstream classes, can be erased when ESL students and the campus community realize that the curriculum in these classes is as challenging as that in mainstream classes. Most faculty from other disciplines are sensitive to the needs and problems of ESL students, and generally welcome the idea of these needs and problems being addressed by English departments. The third reason, segregation, is not significant since ESL students mix with native-speakers in all classes other than Freshman English. In fact, at many institutions, ESL students are given the option of enrolling either in mainstream or special classes; the students will make an informed decision based on feedback from their peers and academic advisors.

· The fourth, and probably the most daunting reason for not having special classes for ESL students is the logistics of preparing a new curriculum, hiring or training teachers, and supervising them. These logistics may seem insurmountable, but with the help of ESL specialists from within or outside the campus, English departments should be able to begin special classes for ESL students. However, a few issues must be addressed first.

As increasing numbers of ESL students enroll in mainstream classes, administrators will begin to hear from the instructors of these classes, complaining of their inability to cope with ESL students. Requests may also be received for special classes from those in charge of ESL students on campus and from the students themselves. This is the time to address the first issue: do the numbers justify special classes? A census of the ESL students in Freshman English classes should be taken; if around one-hundred enroll annually, special classes are justified.

The second issue is staffing. If possible, an ESL specialist with a M.A. in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL), with some course work in Rhetoric

and Composition, could be hired. This does not have to be a new position; the ESL specialist could be the replacement for a retiring faculty member. If an ESL specialist cannot be hired for the English department, such a specialist can be consulted at the pre-academic intensive English program on campus or at a nearby campus.

The third issue is the selection and in-service training of English faculty, usually from those who teach Freshman English, to handle the special classes. Often, faculty who are sympathetic to the needs of ESL students and those who support change in the curriculum volunteer to be trained to teach these classes. The in-service training sessions should not last more than three days, and can be repeated annually. Curriculum preparation and textbook selection are best done during the training. After adequate publicity is provided on campus, a few special classes could be offered on a trial basis where initial obstacles could be removed and problems solved. Administrators can seek frequent feedback from the teachers and students of these special classes. Regular meetings of the teachers are also important.

Braine (Forthcoming) has described how special ESL classes were introduced to the Freshman English program at a medium-size university. The description outlines the selection and training of English faculty to teach these classes. A three-day training session conducted by an ESL specialist, consisting of readings, discussions, and presentations by international student advisors, intensive English program faculty, and ESL students, is also described.

How do teachers who have taught mainstream classes react to special classes of ESL students? Braine (Forthcoming) reports that most teachers found ESL students, who usually remain passive and silent in mainstream classes, became actively involved in classroom activities and discussions, and often asked questions of the teacher. Some teachers stated that they looked forward to meeting their international students each day, and that the students had rekindled their interest in teaching composition. (Some of these teachers had taught Freshman English for 15 years or more.) One teacher said that she learned as much from the ESL students as they did from her and wished she could return for a Ph.D. in ESL pedagogy.

The response from ESL students has been equally enthusiastic. In a recent survey of 180 students who were or had earlier been enrolled in the special ESL classes at the same institution, 92 percent agreed that the classes should be continued. When asked to explain their reasons, many students said they were free of anxiety in these classes, mainly because they did not have to be embarrassed when speaking with an accent. Others stated that the teachers were caring and understanding of their problems, and paid more attention to them (Braine, Forthcoming).

For many ESL students, the required course in Freshman English is a formidable obstacle to their academic objectives. This is best seen in the large number of ESL

students who excel in their majors, yet choose to postpone Freshman English to the junior or senior year. Special classes in Freshman English will provide a sheltered environment to ESL students, allowing them to develop a sense of community with their peers. Such classes would also signal the English departments' commitment to a group of students who add richness and vitality to the American academic experience.

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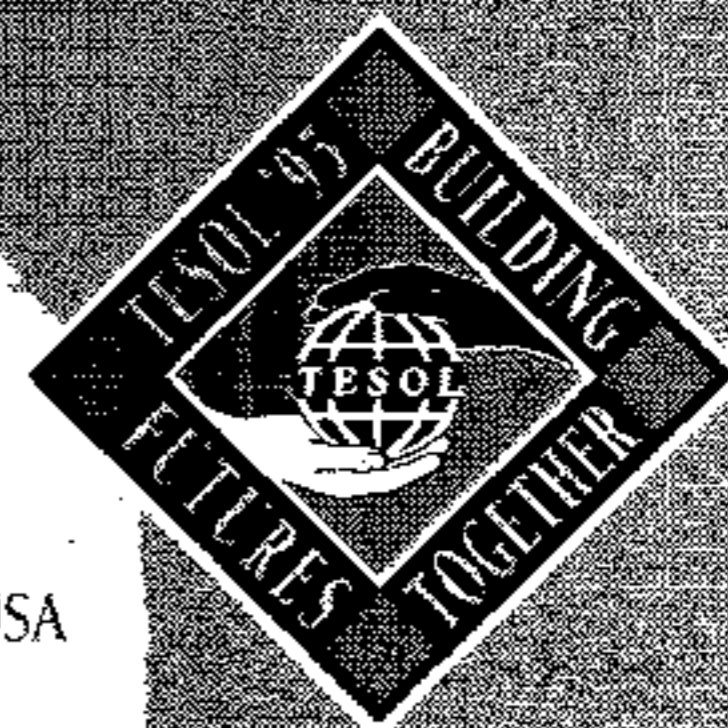
Using Concordance-based Material for Teaching Verb Inflections

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In Nanyang Technological University (NTU) in Singapore, the medium of instruction in all courses is English, and students who are admitted have had at least 12 years of formal instruction in the language. However, some of them still face problems with English grammar. As NTU believes that its graduates who are going into the workforce should possess adequate communication skills in English, it has language-based courses for students in non-language programs like Engineering and Accountancy.

One of the main problem areas that our students face is in the correct inflectional form of the main verb in various types of verb phrases (e.g. *had studied, have been studied, will be studied, can study*). An example of their writing is given below.

Lastly, the base plate consists of lower finger plate and a groove where staples are bend inwards when the staples are force down by the plunger.... Textbooks and notes are secure by staples. It comes in many sizes as for thicker piles of paper, stronger and bigger staples are use.

In our classes for students with low proficiency in English, we found that an approach using material generated by the concordancer was highly effective in helping our students master which inflectional endings ("-ed", "-s" or zero) were used in which types of verb phrases.

This paper describes our use of such concordance-based materials in our classes for the teaching of verb inflections, and evaluates the approach from both the students' and teachers' point of view.

Concordancing

The concordancer is a computer program that stores huge amounts of text and rapidly searches through it for any specific word or phrase, displaying it, together with its immediate context, for whatever purpose the user requires. As far as language learners are concerned, the greatest asset of the concordancer is that they are presented the linguistic context for any word or phrase they are interested in, arranged in systematic fashion, to make it easier for them to discover relevant patterns of language use.

To generate teaching materials using the concordancer, we relied on two data banks. The first was based on engineering reports written by academics proficient in

English. This formed the concordance data for students to examine and come up with their own generalizations about language use.

The second data bank was of assignments and final-year projects that students wrote for their other courses. We edited the data by tagging errors, like adding *[INF]* for wrong inflection, or *[PREP]* for wrong prepositions. For example,

Since more people have switch *[INF]* to other means of transport, the percentage of commuters taking the bus will be affect *[INF]* in a decreasing manner.

This meant that, whenever we wanted to have samples of a certain type of student error, all we needed to do was to ask the concordancer to search for the tag we had inserted, and data containing these errors would then be displayed. This second data bank thus was our source of exercises for error analysis by the students.

Teaching Materials

Our material was concordance-based, because we first got the concordancer to generate the structures we wanted, and then edited the materials into hard copies for our students. For concordance-based data on the verb inflection, we called up auxiliary verbs like *has, have, will,* and *would* in the "KWIC" format. This arranged the keyword(s) systematically one below the other down the centre of the page, with a fixed number of characters of context to the left and to the right, which makes patterns of language use quite obvious to the user.

When asked for structures with *have,* the concordancer would generate all instances of the use of 'have' in its data bank, giving us not only the desired verb phrases, but also irrelevant data like the following, which then had to be weeded out for the benefit of our students.

drawback for the method. Drum mixers have to be modified to ensure that the
reclaimed material. Also, the materials have to remain in the mixer box until
the cold central plant recycling does not have a developed technology at the pre
nt the local Government authorities who have the legal right to lay down standa
discuss, in particular, the effect it will have on the type and suitability of the

Figure 1.

The next step was to arrange the data into groups for the students, with all data, for example, teaching the present participial phrases in the active and passive voices in one group (Fig. 2), and *will/would* + infinitive verb phrases in another (Fig. 3).

ting radius for coating plants which has been established over the years of ope
ling is an established procedure and has been utilized for many years. The pro
and for which the appropriate plant has been developed. Table 1 is a summary
of stone and so this material may have been imported from the nearest sourc
drum and batch heater type plants have been successfully converted to produc

ange which has taken place during aging has produced a bitumen which will pe
cribed above the chemical change which has resulted in the observed decrease
ative product, bitumen. Many countries have recognized that the older section
Departments of Transport and Industry have sponsored a development project
sible, the relevant river authority will have collected evidence of flood leels i

Figure 2.

ly assumed that traffic responsive syste would provide more efficient signal co
cal or economic solution, since vehicles would always operate inefficienty wit
udies. The range and complexity of study will depend on the topography of the r
region through which the road is to pass will play an important part in the dete
ient detail to confirm whether the route will in general follow a particular str

Figure 3.

Exercises

Students were given a few minutes to study the teaching materials, to try to discern patterns of use for the inflectional forms of the main verbs. Then they were given exercises to do, for us to confirm whether or not their deductions were correct, all within 20-25 minutes of class time. Some of these exercises took the form of filling in the blanks, as shown below:

Forms of the main verb use

Fill in the blanks below with the correct form of the main verb "use".

ment work in Indonesia, these have been _____ to control 83 special junctions

of water is one method which has been _____ to control emissions. Most of

many Highway Departments here have _____ their standard, a simple test

since these overladen vehicles will not _____ this section of the highway.

computer store. The traffic cop would _____ this information to make a plan

Alternatively, we asked students to identify and correct errors in verb inflections, based on data contained in our second data bank. As these errors had already been tagged, we called up the tag *[INF]* and generated data in sentence format. An example of such an error-correction exercise is given below:

Forms of the main verb

Identify the incorrect verb in each sentence by circling it; then write the correct form above it.

1. Each interview began with a brief description of the modern facilities the Centre would possessed.

2. From our study of the data, it is very clear that funds have been already release for profitable investment

3. This will provides the company with updated information and enables it to transfer excess materials in one department to other departments facing shortages.

4. Automatic devices or photographs may be used to obtain the traffic data, but this study has rely mainly on observers.

5. If all these methods are practised, it will definitely reduced the stock amount and release a substantial amount for other investments.

To reinforce the grammatical point taught, when students did their essay writing for that lesson, we looked particularly at the verb forms they used, in order to see if they managed to transfer what they had learnt to actual practice. In most cases, the grammar point to be taught arose from the nature of the essay that students were scheduled to write for that lesson. For example, since the passive voice is needed for the writing of procedures, that week we would focus on passive verb forms.

Evaluation of the Approach

Students said that they liked the approach because the KWIC format made it very easy for them to learn the correct verb forms. The main reason given was that the systematic arrangement of the data made the verb patterns very obvious. All they had to do was look at the verb phrase, and not bother about the larger context. They found such an approach effective in helping them focus on the specific error.

The concordance-based approach also meant that students could speed through the grammar correction exercises in no more than 10 minutes, with hardly any problem. In their essay writing too, in most cases, the number of errors for that grammatical point taught was fewer. In fact, the approach could be said to have been too effective when some students over-generalized the rules to produce phrases like "was feeded" and "had been binded."

From our experience, we feel that the concordance-based approach is very helpful for teaching general patterns of usage (though perhaps not of exceptions). Our students can see at a glance the reality of the abstract "rules" they have learnt from grammar books in the past. The advantage lies in the fact that they can see that it is grammar in use, not in theory alone. Using materials relevant to their course of study further reinforces the reality of the grammar rules for them.

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Lai Phooi Ching and Irene F. H. Wong teach communication skills and English proficiency to Engineering, Accountancy and Business undergraduates. Their research interests include the use of computer-generated materials for language teaching and research.

Conference Announcements

The Second International World Englishes Conference. May 25-28, 1995. It will be held at the Nagoya International Center in Nagoya, Japan. Themes include power and ideology, standards and norms, discourse strategies, pedagogy, bilingualism, and evaluation. For further information contact Larry Smith (IAWE) Program on Education and Training, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Rd., Honolulu, HI 96848, USA.

American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL) Annual Conference. March 25-28, 1995 (The week before TESOL). Long Beach, CA. Contact AAAL. Tel. 612-953-0805.

Peace Education in the ESL/EFL Classroom: A Framework For Curriculum and Instruction

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Peace education is one of the hottest topics in pedagogy today. The increasing complexity of our modern world has prompted educators to explore and conceptualize the problems and prospects of incorporating peace education into school curricula. Because of the exacerbation of physical, economic, political, psychological, and ecological violence at the interpersonal, communal, national, and international levels, peace education has gained wider acceptance as an academic discipline in its own right. Furthermore, the applications of peace education are now beginning to find their ways into other academic disciplines. As the American peace educator Betty Reardon notes, the "goals, content, and methodology" of peace education "should be incorporated and adapted to all forms of learning and used by educators as an added perspective from which to plan and evaluate their endeavor" (Wenden, 1992, p. 1).

Reardon's call for incorporating peace education in all forms of learning was echoed by the Organization of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, (TESOL). Thus, at the 1989 convention in San Antonio, a panel of TESOL professionals focused on issues relevant to peace education and cross-cultural understanding. The discussions addressed the rationale behind involving TESOL professionals and the nature and methodologies of their contributions to a more peaceful world. Shortly after the convention, many TESOL professionals began to express their views regarding incorporating peace education into English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) practice. For example, they proposed changes in educational policies(Ashworth, 1990), suggested curricular guides (Fine, 1990), called for priority lists of research topics (Jacobs, 1990), as well as developed instructional units (Stempleski, 1993).

The above eager and spirited responses are quite natural as the ESL/EFL discipline lends itself very well for peace education. The wide linguistic expansion of English as a global language, the very traditions of the discipline as a part of the humanities curriculum, and the cultural and thought pattern variations inherent in linguistic contacts all provide a climate conducive to the development of cross-cultural appreciation, empathy, and understanding. In addition, the long and notable history of foreign language education, especially with the advent of the communicative and humanistic approaches, provides the requisite repertoire of

methodological insights and instructional strategies that facilitate linking peace education to classroom practice.

Clearly, then, the ESL/EFL discipline is well suited as a vehicle for promoting peace education. However, the attempt to incorporate peace themes and conflict resolution skills into regular classroom practice is still in its formative years. Therefore, the purpose of the present research was to devise a framework for curriculum and instruction based on the content, skills, and methodologies involved in a program for incorporating peace education into ESL/EFL practice. A basic premise here is that such a framework would help ESL/EFL practitioners to organize their thinking, and thus facilitate linking peace education to classroom practice.

A Framework For Promoting Peace Education

The framework proposed here is intended to be a useful means for incorporating peace education into ESL/EFL practice. The framework is perceived as a working document which ESL/EFL practitioners can use to match the demands of their curriculum and the needs of their students to those of peace education.

In developing the framework, we adopted the following definition of a framework as a "general pool of constructs for understanding a domain, but is not tightly enough organized to constitute a predictive theory" (Anderson, 1983, p. 12). Consequently, we drew on the works of such noted scholars as Cates (1992), Gudykunst and Young (1984), Seelye (1985), Johnson and Johnson (1985), Fine (1990), Fox (1992), Jacobs (1990), Larson (1990), Ashworth (1991) and others to identify the threads that appear to be running through research, theory and classroom practice in order to provide directions for curricular planning and instruction. Figure 1 shows the dimensions of the framework and corresponding components.

The framework has five main dimensions related to themes, skills, methods, materials and assessment. The dimensions do not exist in isolation. Rather, each dimension occurs simultaneously with the other main dimensions. For example, the theme of communication interrelates with the skill of negotiation and the instructional methods of teaching culture and literature. Also, communication readiness can be assessed through the social distance and semantic differential techniques.

Furthermore, each component of the dimensions is necessarily inclusive of several aspects of peace education. For example, the theme of "Peaceful Coexistence" includes the following subthemes of learning to live together, images of the self and others, celebrating diversity and equity, elimination of prejudice, and recognizing interdependence. What follows in the subsequent sections is a clarification of the framework dimensions and implications of its use.

THEMES	SKILLS	METHODS	MATERIALS	ASSESSMENT
Communication	Negotiation	Cooperative learning	Media	Social distance
Environment	Managing anger	Methods of teaching culture	Literature	Semantic differential
Constructive conflict	Mediating conflict	Literature-based instruction	Games/Puzzles	Checking statements
Peaceful coexistence	Tolerance of ambiguity	Humanistic methods	Amnesty International Report	Forced choice
	Critical thinking		Non-government organizations' reports	

Figure 1. Framework for Peace Education

Themes[1]

There are several relevant peace themes that may be incorporated into ESL/EFL course design. Chief among these themes are cultural variations, crosscultural communication, environmental issues, human rights apartheid, world hunger, peaceful coexistence and so forth. For instance, focusing on cross cultural variation develops better understanding and more appreciation, promotes cultural variations in communication, develops better understanding and more appreciation, promotes cultural relativism, and encourages tolerance. Likewise, introducing such environmental issues as rain forest destruction, pollution, and animal extinction provides a rich source of content, motivates learners, and enhances classroom interaction. Other themes like learning to live together, positive images of the self and others, celebrating diversity and equity, eliminating prejudice, and recognizing interdependence create awareness within students and provide opportunities of meaningful and contextualized language instruction.

Skills[2]

The complexity and interdependence of school life provide good opportunities for developing the skills of negotiation, managing anger, mediating conflicts, tolerance of ambiguity, and critical thinking. Conflicts may arise among colleagues, administrators, parents and students as each party tries to maximize its benefits and achieve its goals. These conflicts as well as other simulated conflicts provide good opportunities for practice in constructive resolution of conflicts through proper definition of issues, revising perspectives, inventing options of mutual benefit, and finally reaching wise agreement (Johnson & Johnson, 1987). The feelings of anger associated with these conflicts provide further opportunities for practice in describing conflicts directly using appropriate verbal and nonverbal means of communication or indirectly through physical expression, psychological detachment, relaxation, and appreciation of one's self upon managing anger constructively. It is also equally important to practice the skills of mediating conflict through breaking up fights and cooling down those involved in conflicts. Besides, ESL/EFL practitioners may develop their students' skills of critical thinking, weighing evidence, and taking the perspectives of others.

Methods[3]

There are several instructional methods that lend themselves well to peace education. These methods can be broadly classified into (a) cooperative learning, (b) methods of teaching culture, (c) methods of literature-based instruction, and (d) humanistic foreign language (FL) methods. Cooperative learning is essentially a series of pro-social methods of instruction which involve students working together

to accomplish some common goals. CL methods can be classified into three main categories: (a) generic methods, (b) content-specific methods, and (c) task specialization methods. The CL methods of Student-Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD) and Team Games Tournaments (TGT) belong to the category of generic methods. Meanwhile, Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) are intended to teach math and English respectively. Task-Specialization methods include Group Investigation, CO-OP CO-OP, and Jigsaw II. In addition, there are other CL structures such as think-pair-share, numbered heads, and mixer review that can be used to promote the themes and skills of peace education. (See Note 3 for suggested further reading.)

Likewise, the techniques of teaching culture such as (a) assimilators, (b) culture capsules, and culture clusters, as well as such techniques common to literature-based instruction and the FL humanistic methods as role-play, games, quizzes brainstorming, video, discussions, simulations, can also be used to achieve the goals of peace education.

Materials

The materials needed for incorporating peace education in the ESL/EFL context are available in various forms and from different sources. Many ESL/EFL practitioners have already developed courses to promote peace education. For example, Cates (1992) designed a course called "Global Issues" with a different problem being dealt with each week (environment, human rights, world hunger etc.) through video, games, quizzes, role play, discussion, and simulation. Instructional units built by other teachers around the movie "Gandhi," or around songs like "We Are the World" and "Imagine" are also available. Along similar lines, Derwing and Cameron(1991a, 1991b) and Stempleski (1993) developed instructional materials and videos that use environmental issues in ESL practice.

There are many organizations pursuing a variety of peace goals. These organizations have developed materials and information which can be used in the ESL/EFL context to promote peace education (Larson, 1992). Indeed, ESL professionals have reported significant results in achievements and interest using Amnesty International materials for the study of human rights. Equally interesting are the materials produced by the National Issues Forum of the Kettering Foundation in Ohio. These materials are used in their abridged form in teaching literacy.

On the other hand, the vast body of world literature in English provides ideal reading materials in the form of short stories, poems, and abridged books with international themes and cross-cultural ethos. Moreover, practitioners of peace education can draw on social studies materials as English cuts across the curriculum as a medium of instruction.

Assessment

The dimension of assessment is significant in any serious attempt to integrate peace education in the ESL/EFL context. Such assessment should go beyond simplistic measurement of superficial knowledge to valid and reliable assessment of skill development and attitudinal shifts.

The easiest and most logical way to measure attitudinal changes is by giving a pre-test at the beginning of the course and then a post test at the end through the techniques of social distance and semantic differential. In addition, there is a variety of assessment methods which measure attitudinal changes such as classroom checklists, objective tests, audio tests, and oral exams.

The Use and Implications of the Framework

As indicated earlier, the framework is intended to help peace educators organize their thinking in the ESL/EFL context. Thus, educators adopting the framework might work for achieving the main goals of creating awareness within their students about variations in communication, environmental hazards, and all forms of violence. Educators need to also develop their students' skills of effective negotiation, managing anger, and resolving conflicts constructively. Furthermore, the framework has implications for classroom practice as it advocates cooperative, humanistic, communicative methodologies of language teaching. Thus, the roles of both the teacher and students differ from those in traditional instruction and are more inclined toward facilitation, problem-solving, critical thinking, and cooperation.

Furthermore, teachers need to be trained in the dynamics of cooperative learning in order to use the framework. Likewise, although instructional materials are available in various forms, these materials need to be adapted by qualified teachers to control for linguistic and cultural difficulties as well as to develop effective exercises.

Notes

1. Communication is a universal process that involves encoding and decoding of thoughts, feelings, emotions, and attitudes through written, verbal, nonverbal, musical, and mathematical symbols. The decoding of these symbols is influenced by the decoders' experiential background and shared cultural knowledge. Thus, effective communication necessitates an understanding of the cultural, psychocultural, sociocultural and environmental influences on communication.

For interested readers, a reference on communication:

Gudykunst W.B. and Young Y.K. (1984). *Communicating With Strangers: An Approach to Intercultural Communication.* New York: Random House.

2. Interested readers in the processes and strategies for developing the skills of conflict resolution are referred to Johnson and Johnson's book *Creative Conflict*, Minneapolis: Cooperative Learning Center.

3. For interested readers some references to methods of instruction:

a) Cooperative Learning: Slavin, R. (1990). *Theory, Research, and Practice.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

b) Teaching Culture: Seelye, N. (1988). *Teaching Culture Strategies for Intercultural Communication.* Lincolnwood: National Textbook Co.

c) Literature-based Instruction: Ghaith G. (1993). The problems of teaching non-native literature in the light of schema theory and beyond. *Al-Abhath*, 41, 49-75.

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Stemplesky, S. (1993). Linking the classroom to the world: The environment and EFL. *English Teaching Forum*, 21, (4), 2-11.

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Conference Announcements

The Ninth Summer Workshop for the Development of Intercultural Coursework at Colleges and Universities. July 12-21, 1995. East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii.   Participants will examine texts, discuss issues with authors of texts now in use, and become familiar with exercises and simulations which can be used to introduce important concepts to students. Housing is available on the East-West Center Campus. For more information write to: Dr. Richard Brislin, East-West Center, Program on Education and Training, Honolulu, HI 96848. Tel. (808) 944-7644. Fax (808) 944-7070.

The Second International Conference on Language in Development. April 10-12, 1995. Bali, Indonesia. The conference aims include broadening and strengthening a network of practitioners and researchers involved with language and communication issues in community and national development. For more information contact: Tony Crooks, Bali Language Centre, Jalan Kapten Agung 19, Denpasar 80232, Bali, Indonesia. Tel. (0361) 221782. Fax (0361) 263509.

Using Annotation in a Process Approach to Writing in a Hong Kong Classroom

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Introduction

Using a case-study approach, this research investigated whether a process writing approach is an effective ESL teaching/learning approach in a genuine Hong Kong secondary school context—one of the classes the author taught. The process writing approach used was modified, with emphasis on making annotations for composition drafts before the final written product was completed.

Theoretical Orientation

The process approach to writing, or process writing, has gained considerable attention from educators worldwide. The approach comes from the snowballing recognition that recursiveness is a major characteristic of the natural process of composing and that, in the process, the writer repeatedly revises his/her drafts. (Murray, 1978; Perl, 1980; Freedman, 1982; Li, 1992)
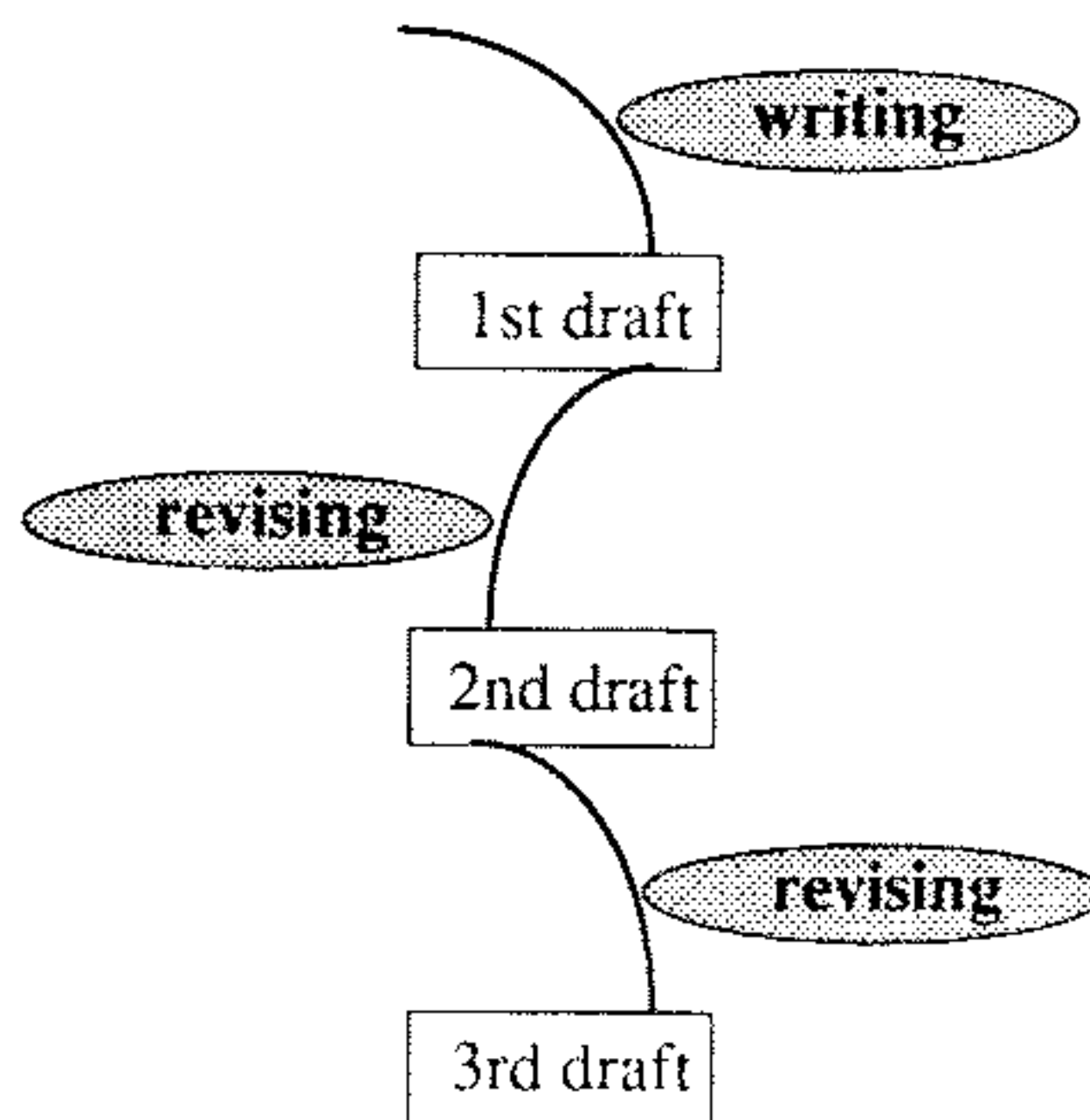

Figure 1. The Process of Writing

Facilitating effective revision is the main goal of process writing. The input to facilitate revision may be based on the draft so-far written or other information. For an example of the latter, the input directed towards the writer's communication message can be some prescribed reading or some vocabulary or knowledge which is related to the composition topic and is introduced by the teacher. The other type of input which is given according to the draft written up to a certain point in time can be called feedback.

Feedback may come from various sources. The common sources are (i) the writer's peers (who are usually the learner-writer's classmates), (ii) writing experts (i.e., the teacher in most language learning contexts), and (iii) the writer himself/herself. Among the three, (ii) has often been criticized for its ineffectiveness (Sommers, 1982) and (iii) is a much unexplored area. On the other hand, (i) is often commended for several reasons. First, unlike feedback from an expert, peer-response offers feedback at the learner's own level of development. Second, since other people, besides the teacher, are the readers of the written product, the writer-learner can gain a greater sense of audience. Third, through the activity of comment-giving, students may learn more about writing. Fourth, in addition to the above reasons already mentioned by Keh (1990), the learner may get the feeling of being a reader of others' writing. Fifth, through experiencing the process of giving feedback, students may appreciate the effort their teachers have made on their written work and take a more positive attitude towards the feedback they receive on their writing.

Feedback can also be done in a number of modes. For example, it may be given verbally on a one-to-one basis, as in the case of composition conferencing. Annotation, by means of which one makes comments in the form of notes on one's own or another's paper, is another example. Annotation from the writer's peers and the writer himself/herself has been found advantageous in a number of ways. Regarding notes made by the writer's peers (peer annotations, PAs), the first is that the response can be given on a separate sheet. This minimizes the second peer-reader's being influenced by the first one. Secondly, because the response is written down, the writer may refer to it at any time s/he needs to. Thirdly, as discovered by Arndt (1993), Chinese students studying English as a non-native language prefer comments to be given in written form, thinking that it is "face-saving" or less embarrassing.

Regarding annotations made by the writer himself/herself (writer annotations, WAs), first, they allow students more control over feedback. Second, they facilitate dialogue between the writer and the teacher or between the writer and his/her peers. Third, they help the student to understand what the problem is, though the student may not yet be able to solve it. Fourth, they reveal crucial information about the writer's intentions. Fifth, they reveal the student's concerns, which may be different from the teacher's (Charles, 1990).

Other than these advantages identified by Charles, written annotation naturally makes the job of identifying errors, which traditionally falls to the teacher as reader, a task that is shared by the writer as well. This shared responsibility gives rise to several additional advantages of WA. First, for a feedback system to function properly, as Johnson (1988) points out, the learner must desire to correct the wrong behavior. As the learner-writers identify concrete questions/problems of their own in their annotations, they are motivated to get feedback on those points and to understand it. Second, through the process of figuring out what the problems are and seeking solutions from the feedback, the learner-writer's consciousness may be heightened, and such consciousness-raising[1] may facilitate learning in his/her language system. Third, in written annotations, the areas of concern are less teacher-directed, making the approach more student-centered. Fourth, annotation is itself a type of writing task which gives students additional practice in meaningful writing[2].

In general, the problems identified in drafts can be classified into two types. The first type of problems are those concerning lower order matters such as syntax, grammar, and mechanics, or in Keh's (1990) terms, matters of form. The second type are those about higher order concerns such as plot, organization, context and communication setting, and deal largely with content. There is a general tendency among educators these days to move the focus from form to content. The effectiveness of feedback on form has often been doubted and criticized (e.g., Hillocks, 1987; Williams, 1989). Among studies attending to the role of form and content in writing, one prominent feature seems to emerge: better writers revise content more than form (Faigley and Witte, 1981; Sommers, 1980). The facilitation of revision can be summarized schematically in Figure 2.

In Hong Kong, process writing has not been popular, and writer annotations and peer annotations are rarely used in writing classes. Though it is common that teachers make notes about students' writing (i.e., using teacher annotations, TAs), the TAs are often predominantly form oriented. Such a tendency seems to be particularly strong when the TAs are for students of low language proficiency. Against such a background, this research aimed to investigate the appropriateness and feasibility of (i) TAs focusing on content only, (ii) PAs, and (iii) WAs (i.e., the shaded parts in Figure 2) in the teaching/learning of the complex process of composing. The research revolved around the central question: Is annotation an effective teaching/learning method in the process of composing in ESL in a Hong Kong secondary school context?

Procedure

The investigation was made in the 1992/1993 school year. Four students from a Form 4 class which the author was teaching were chosen as subjects of the research.

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                      ┌─────────────────────────┐
                      │ facilitation of revision │
                      └─────────────────────────┘
              ┌───────────────────┴───────────────────┐
     ┌──────────────────┐                   ┌───────────────────────┐
     │     feedback     │                   │   other information   │
     │ (based on drafts)│                   │  (not based on drafts)│
     └──────────────────┘                   └───────────────────────┘
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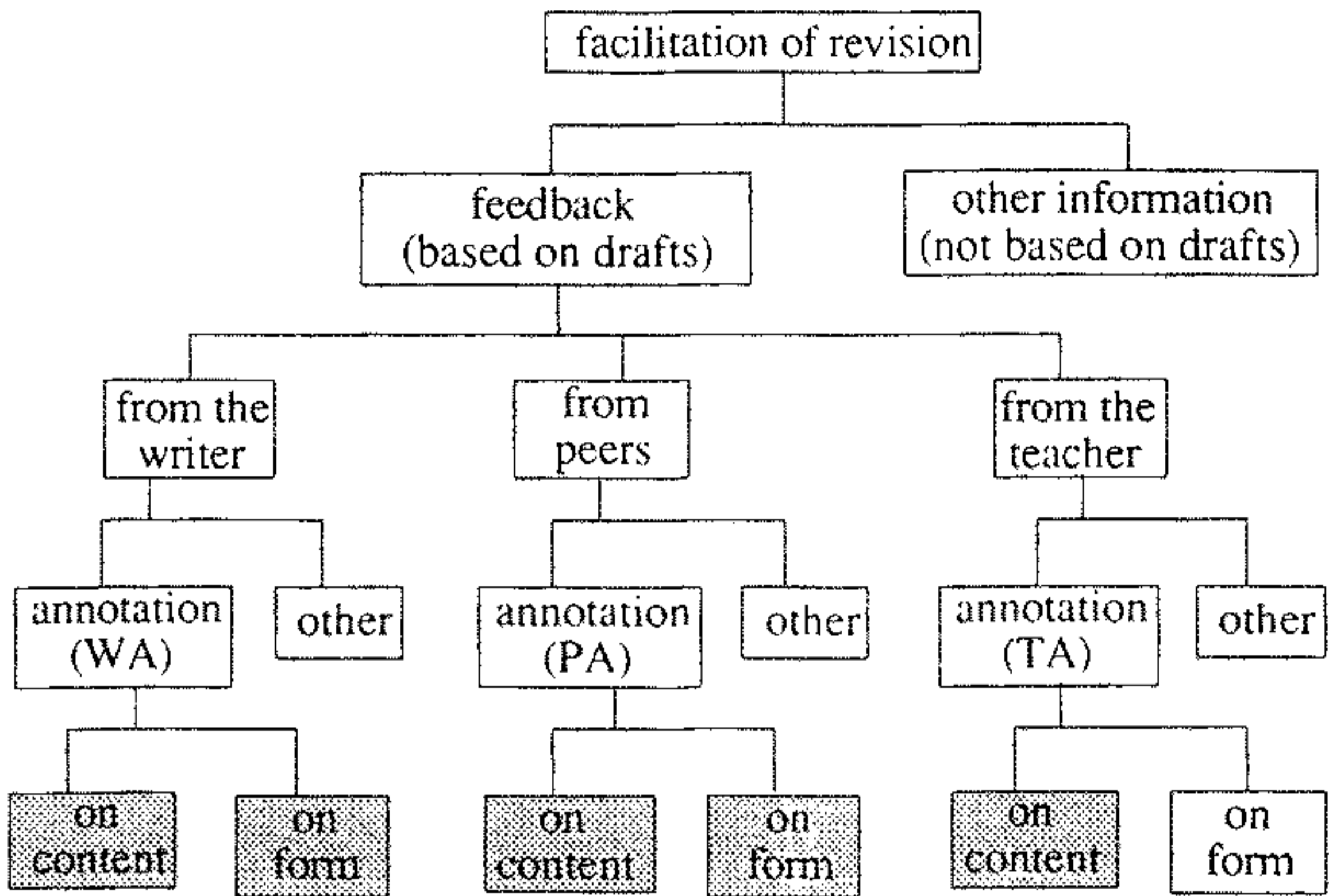
Figure 2.   Types of Revision Facilitation

The subjects were about 16 years old, having Cantonese, a dialect commonly used in the south-eastern part of China, as their mother tongue. Of the four subjects, two were from each of the two different levels of English proficiency represented in the class (labeled "high" and "low"), as judged according to the class's baseline compositions and their performance in the school English tests. The baseline compositions were the first compositions they wrote in the school year, prior to any treatment related to process writing or the use of annotations. Students were given little guidance when they composed the baseline essays, so that the essays genuinely reflected their language proficiency and composing ability. The two subjects of relatively high English proficiency are identified as H1 and H2, whereas the two of relatively low English proficiency are identified as L1 and L2.

A case study approach was used to make a detailed investigation into the subjects' performance. The activities of the study were accomplished on a whole-class basis, though the performance of the four subjects only was used in the research analysis so as to avoid unequal treatment, unnecessary and/or sensitive administrative problems and unnecessary disturbance to the normal class routine or to the teaching progress schedule laid down by the school. This agreed with and fitted the research purpose, which was to examine the feasibility of the process-approach annotation treatment in a genuine local secondary school context. The class from

which the subjects were chosen was one of low motivation[3], and their language ability was generally very weak.[4] In the three-month investigation period, the class was asked to write a total of three compositions in sequence.

Before the submission of the final draft of each composition for the teacher's marking, students were asked to write two drafts of it. After they had finished the first draft, they wrote out their own notes, comments, and questions (WAs) on a sheet attached to the draft, addressed to the readers on specific parts of their work. The WAs were numbered (the first note being numbered A01 and the second A02 and so on), and the places in the draft to which the annotations referred to were indicated by the corresponding numbers.

The first draft and the sheet with the WAs were then passed to two peer-readers for comments. Each of the peer readers made comments (PAs) on another separate sheet, also using a similar number-referenced annotating method. The first note of the first reader was numbered 1R01 and that of the second reader 2R01; the second note of the first reader was numbered 1R02 and that of the second reader 2R02, and so on. To ensure that each peer-reader was an "independent" reader, after the first reader had finished his/her annotation tasks, the comment sheet was given to the writer directly, without letting the second reader know what the response and comments were, though there were numbers left on the original draft for the writer's reference. The draft was then passed to a second peer-reader and s/he made his/her responses and comments in the form of PAs. Examples of typical or insightful annotations were also given to the students to help them understand what they were expected to do in the annotation activities.

After the WA and PA activities, the teacher collected the drafts and wrote TAs on the content of the drafts for the students on a separate sheet. When the writer had received the response and comments from the two readers and the teacher, s/he rewrote the essay again to produce a second draft for the composition, making appropriate revisions. When the writer had finished, the processes of WA, PA and TA were repeated. Then the writer made revisions and finished the final draft. For every revision task, the students had WAs, PAs, and TAs to help him/her.

When the students had finished all three drafts of all compositions, the subjects' drafts were given to two markers (M1 and M2), who were students of the MA (TESL) program of the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong and had over ten years' ESL teaching experience. Using the Jacobs et al. (1981) "Composition Profile," they marked the drafts independently. Before their marking of the drafts, the markers had been reminded to work carefully and to finish all the marking in one sitting, to avoid inconsistency in the application of marking or grading criteria. The subjects' drafts were sent to the markers in a type-written form, randomly ordered. The markers did not know which of the drafts were first, second, or third drafts, or which of the drafts was written by which subject.

After the students had finished the final draft of the third composition, a questionnaire was given to them. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain data about their attitudes towards the treatment of process writing.

To avoid having an unnecessary language barrier, students were allowed to use either English or their mother tongue, Chinese, in their annotations, though they were encouraged to use English to have more practice in English writing. Also, all instructions and questions in the questionnaire were in both English and Chinese.

Analysis of Results

The annotations, the drafts, the grades awarded to the drafts, and the questionnaires were analyzed and the findings of note are summarized below.

Writer annotations (WAs) were oriented almost exclusively towards content. Of the total of 107 WAs, 83% (89/107) were content-oriented and only 11% (12/107) were form-oriented. (Some were about neither form nor content. For example, one WA just said, "The handwriting is clearly legible.") 92 of the WAs suggested changes in the drafts. Of these, half (46/92) paralleled some subsequent changes made in the revision after the annotation tasks. In all the three writing cycles, the number of WAs used in the second annotation tasks were less than that in the first one. Comparing the scope of concern of the content-oriented WAs of the two proficiency groups, the low group showed a stronger tendency to focus on elements at sub-sentence level than the high group [52%(26/50): 26%(10/39)]. In this respect, H2 stood out among the four subjects in that she least used notes covering sub-sentence level scopes and only 14% (3/21) of her WAs were at that level.

As for PAs, a total of 177 notes were made. 79% (140/177) of the PAs were about content, and only 12% (22/177) were about form. And 154 of the 177, that is 87%, of the PAs were different. 73 of the 154 pointed to changes needed in the drafts and 62% (45/73) of them paralleled some subsequent changes made in the revision after the annotation tasks. Such a rate was higher than that of WAs. As high as 85% (150/177) of the PAs were responding to the WAs, though in every annotation lesson the teacher reminded the students they could respond to any other things they liked besides responding to the WAs. This was probably a reason for the following findings. Like WAs, there was a general drop in the number of PAs used in the second annotation tasks as compared with the first ones. Also, like the scope of concern of the content-oriented WAs, the PAs for the low group showed a stronger tendency to focus on elements at sub-sentence level than those for the high group [49%(39/79): 30%(18/61)].

As for TAs, their numbers showed a general increasing tendency, growing from 10, 13, 12, 14, 16, and finally to 17 in the six feedback-giving occasions. Also, the average numbers of words in the TAs given grew from 42.9, 60.8, 80.3, 103.9,

97.5, and finally to 111.3 in the feedback occasions. 56 of the TAs suggested changes to drafts. Of those, 66% (37/56) paralleled changes made in the group's subsequent drafts. Compared with the counterparts of WAs and PAs, this rate was the highest.

The grades awarded to the drafts, on a scale of 1-100 (See Table 1), showed that there were small within-group differences in average grades between subjects of similar proficiency levels (1.31 in both cases) and a substantial between-group difference (14.01) between subjects of the two proficiency levels. This supported the validity of the subject-selection for the research. The grades across revisions and across the three compositions were not so clear-cut however, in their support of the process approach techniques used in this study. Of the four subjects, H2 made the greatest improvement through the rewriting process, and L1 and L2 also generally made slight improvement through revision. However, H1's grades went down in four of the six revising occasions, despite her effort to improve the drafts.

	first comp.			second comp.			third comp.			overall
	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd	average
H1	75	75	69	76	74	69	71	67	75	72.3
H2	64	72	74	68	71	73	66	73	78	71.0
L1	59	57	61	56	51	53	57	59	60	57.0
L2	56	60	58	54	57	61	60	57	62	58.3

Table 1. Average Grades Awarded to Drafts

According to the responses to the first section of the questionnaires, none of the subjects had had process writing experience before the treatment. The second section of the questionnaires marked encouraging results. In general, the responses showed that the subjects were positive about the process approach with annotation and they found the approach useful for their learning of writing.

Discussion

To the research question of whether annotation is an effective teaching/learning method in the process of composing in ESL in the Hong Kong secondary school context, the study seemed to suggest a positive answer for the following reasons:

First, using WAs, the students had great control over what feedback from others was to be addressed. As found in the study, 85% of the PAs were replies to what the writers mentioned as concerns in their WAs. Second, the approach helped students understand their problems, even though they might not yet be able to solve them. This was evident in the subjects' responses to the questionnaire. Third, the approach facilitated and ensured dialogue between the writer and the reader. The above three

reasons echo well the advantages of annotation identified by Charles (1990). Fourth, the annotations made were useful for revision, as reflected in the high percentage of their being used in the rewriting modification. Fifth (to be further discussed below), the approach helped the teacher see clearly how his students worked and how they preferred to work.

The study also offered insights for the teaching/learning of ESL writing. First, the PAs given by different classmates to the same draft were not often similar. There is probably no need to worry that the independently working peers will tend to give similar comments, and/or that asking two, or even three, peers for comments will make the task uneconomical. Second, the general drop in the use of notes in the second annotation task for each composition may imply that the effectiveness of the annotation tasks for the same composition decreases with the increase in the number of times the tasks are given. Third, as found in the research, students' revision work, like H1's, may sometimes lead to deterioration of written products. This should be regarded as interim deterioration and teachers should guard against condemning the students for the deterioration. After all, it is through the trial manipulation and revision of drafts that students learn to improve their writing. Fourth, in parallel with the last point, not marking the interim drafts not only saves the teacher's time, but also avoids discouraging students from attempting revision by not exposing students to the threat of interim deterioration.

Fifth, the study showed that WAs, PAs and TAs could all initiate revision. The students made use of all three kinds of feedback in their revision. Among the three types, TA had the highest rate of adoption for use in revision while WA had the least. Predictably, this implies that the students relied more on opinions from others, especially the opinions from their teacher, than their own judgments. Sixth, as found in the WAs, the students of relatively higher proficiency tended to be more concerned with matters beyond sentence level. This suggests that students' proficiency may somehow be related to their foci of concern, and that, the more proficient one is, the more likely one may look at matters beyond sentence level. Seventh, as shown in the close relationship between H2's success in making consistent progress through revision and her heavy content-oriented concern towards matters covering wider scopes, the wider the scope of the students' concerns were, the better the revision would be. This suggests that teachers should encourage students to lift their eyes from sentence-level concerns and try to focus on elements covering wider scopes.

The experience was illuminating to the teacher. It was found that the approach provided access to help the teacher to understand how his students used English at their own level. As the students produced a number of drafts for the same composition, the teacher could closely observe how his students manipulated the

language as they went through the recursive cycles of rewriting by comparing across drafts. In the period of the investigation, the teacher found that he had learned a lot about the students' use of the language. The new knowledge would hardly have been gained in the product approach to the teaching of writing.

An important finding of this study is the value and vitality of content-orientedness. The orientation towards content, instead of form, could be helpful to both the teacher and the students. The teacher's concentration on content lifted his eyes away from the surface form to focus onto the students' intended communication message. This helped the teacher appreciate what the students had actually done in their revision and, seeing the students' efforts in their revision, the teacher was much moved and motivated to help the students, despite the language errors found and some interim deterioration across drafts. This was evident in the increase in TAs' quantity.

That the subjects' annotations showed a consistent and strong tendency towards content, rather than form suggests that it may have been the way of composing that they preferred or that was most natural for them. For students who are very weak at language form, such as the subjects of the study, a deviation from the emphasis on form could free students from the confines of the form-barriers to communicating their ideas. And as the students felt insecure when handling form, content would be the area they preferred to focus on and manipulate. Also if they worried less about form or mistakes in surface grammar, they would probably write more. And perhaps if they wrote more, they would gain more confidence and more practice in writing. This could lead to a cyclical reinforcement effect and influence the class receiving the treatment in a number of positive ways.

The compositions the class wrote in the school examination held after the third writing cycle were found to be significantly longer than those of other classes of the same level. (The mean length of the compositions of the class studied, in terms of word-number, was 209.9 and that of the other class was 161.2. The standard deviation found was 86.3 and the sample size was 31. The calculated t-value was 3.142, which was significant even at $p > 0.005$.) This suggested that the students receiving treatment could produce text longer than those not having the treatment. A main reason for the ability of the students receiving treatment to produce longer texts could be their confidence to write more. The success of the research treatment in building the students' confidence probably lay in its allowing enough room for content-orientedness to realize its vitality and thus for students to achieve their writing potential.

Conclusion

A classroom case-study investigation of the effectiveness of the process approach to teaching/learning of writing with emphasis on the use of annotations for revision

has been reported. It is hoped that the moderate success of the implementation of the approach will encourage ESL teachers and learners, especially in Hong Kong, to take a more positive attitude towards writing and process writing methods. The fact that the approach was found successful in a low-ability, low-motivation classroom should be encouraging and illuminating to the teachers often complaining about the great difficulties of teaching their seemingly ineducable students to write.

The study also calls for further research in the following areas. First, the study was a small-scale one. Research studying more subjects of a wider range of language proficiency for a longer period of time is needed to substantiate the generalizability of the findings. Second, the study revealed little about the mental processes in the students' mind when they wrote or used annotations. Further research probing the mental processes is needed to obtain information about the difficulties students face when they write.

Notes

[1] The idea of "consciousness raising" is developed by Rutherford (1987, 1988a, 1988b), and Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1988).

[2] Martha C. Pennington, personal communication, 12 October, 1992.

[3] Teachers of the school often complained that the class had a lot of behavioral problems. It was not uncommon to find that one-third of the students were sleeping during the lesson and another one-third were chatting. Some of the students had been involved in gang fights and some were suspected to be triad gang members and addicts of soft-drugs. This class was probably a typical "band 5" one (i.e. students belong to the lowest 20% in terms of academic ability) and it was in such an environment that the research was carried out.

[4] For example, in one of the English lessons, some of the secondary four students asked me if the past form of "has" is "was" and how the word "interesting" is spelled. From the general response of the students, teachers of the class all agreed that the students of the class were mostly band 5 ones, though there were no official or objective data available proving this.

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7 5

Culturally Speaking

Review by Shawn M. Clankie,
University of Cambridge

CULTURALLY SPEAKING. 2nd Edition. Rhona B. Genzel and Martha Graves Cummings. Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle, 1994, 195 pp. $14.00 text, $15.00 cassette.

As its title suggests, this text is designed for communication, with a particular cultural focus to each chapter. The second edition, like the original, is designed primarily for upper-intermediate to advanced university level ESL students in the U.S. and Canada, but is easily adaptable for use in overseas classrooms. It contains nine chapters, each focusing on a particular area of culture, ranging in scope from getting along with people, to building friendships, participating in social events, and going to the doctor. One of the primary strengths of both editions is the topics the book covers which most books often overlook. Considerations such as what to say to someone at a wedding or a funeral, gestures in North America, and an explanation of coupons and how to use them all fortify the value of this text.

Each chapter contains a variety of activities including those found in most textbooks such as dialogues and discussion questions. Yet other activities such as the *Quick Customs Quiz*, multiple choice questions that ask the student what he or she would do in a particular situation in North America, foster a greater understanding of potentially difficult situations. Instead of a standard vocabulary list containing a variety of unrelated or semi-related words, many chapters contain a list of idioms or expressions of a common theme. For example, one list offers idioms related to gestures (to give someone a hand, to twiddle your thumbs, etc.), another is a list of different types of doctors that a student might need to see.

The text comes with an accompanying cassette, but can easily be used without. Although the text does not specify, teachers who go through chapters quickly should be capable of covering the text in one semester. With a fair amount of supplementary materials it can be used over the course of a year.

There are several changes to this edition that make it a superior text to the original. To enhance the practical use of the text as well as to strengthen awareness of other cultures, the new edition replaces the terms of U.S. and American with the more neutral terms North America and North American to refer to the U.S. and Canada and its citizens throughout the activities. This becomes most apparent in the chapter containing holidays in which all major holidays of both countries are included. The vocabulary lists have also been updated to reflect current idioms and

expressions that have come into fashion. Many of the chapters have been expanded and now include an exercise called "Speaking Out," in which students have the opportunity to openly express their opinions on a variety of somewhat controversial topics such as AIDS, credit card overuse, and the regulation of music lyrics. A wonderfully colorful cover with the many faces of the world helps to reinforce the cultural sensitivity of this text and to draw students into it.

The only fault appearing in the text is that the new text has gone to a smaller font and appears at times to cram too much text onto each page. This could make the learners feel that there is a burden in front of them. However, picking and choosing from the variety of exercises (rather than doing all) can easily alleviate this problem.

The first edition of this text was excellent. Overall, the second is even better. The topics covered are important to allow students the appropriate cultural background to successfully fit into life in North America. Teachers interested in a text with a lot of potential topics for conversation and which broadens the cultural awareness of students should definitely take a look at this text.

About the Reviewer

Shawn M. Clankie has just completed a two-year visiting lectureship at Kansai Gaidai University in Osaka, Japan. He is now in the graduate linguistics program at the University of Cambridge.

Conference Announcements

The International Language in Education Conference (ILEC). December 14-16, 1994. In Hong Kong. For more information, contact: The Secretary, ILEC "94, c/o Department of Curriculum Studies, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Rd., Hong Kong. Tel. 852-859-1936. Fax. 852-857-9564. E-mail ilec@hkucc.hku.hk.

SEAMEO/RELC 1995 Seminar. April 17-19. Seminar will be held at RELC in Singapore. The theme is "Exploring language, culture, and literature in language learning." For more information, contact: Chair, Seminar Planning Committee, SEAMEO-RELC, 30 Orange Grove Rd., Singapore 1025, Republic of Singapore.

The ESL Teacher's Book of Lists

Review by Jennifer Wright,

Northern Mariana Islands (CNMI)

THE ESL TEACHER'S BOOK OF LISTS. Jacqueline E. Kress. The Center for Applied Research in Education, West Nyack, New York. 1993, 226 pp. $29.95.

The *ESL Teacher's Book of Lists* provides, as the title suggests, 80 tested lists in seven categories.

1. General Vocabulary
2. Academic Vocabulary
3. Grammar
4. Grammar Patterns and Practice
5. Pronunciation
6. Assessment
7. Curriculum and Instruction

The first three sections are designed to be used in the ESL classroom. The last four sections give practical information, advice, and suggestions primarily for the teacher. The book's format, ringbound on A4 size paper with black and white Victorian style illustrations, make it very photocopier-friendly. The author recommends the book for use with elementary and secondary school students, either in an ESL classroom or in the mainstream classroom, and is not bound to speakers of any particular first language.

Section 1 provides 21 lists of words that can be used in everyday situations, from talking about the weather to filling in application forms. There is also an extensive list of American idioms, a list of idioms across five languages(English, French, German, Spanish and Chinese) and a list of cognates that English shares with Spanish, French, and German.

Section 2 has seven lists of academic vocabulary from basic classroom language to math and social science vocabulary. The lists are graded, providing language first of all at a basic level and then at an intermediate/advanced level.

In section 3, there are 13 lists of grammar rules ranging from parts of speech to article usage and verb tenses. Section 4 contains 9 lists of sentence structures showing, for example, the different tenses, the active and passive voices, common grammar mistakes, and register.

Section 5 presents 13 lists and charts to help distinguish and produce sounds and practice stress and intonation patterns at both the word and sentence level. There are

lists of problem sounds for speakers of other languages, ranging from West European to Asian Languages.

Section 6 offers seven lists of techniques for assessing student performance in all the skill areas and provides a list of 30 available commercial language tests.

Section 7 includes ten lists of practical techniques and activities across all the skill and language areas, from cadence drills to timelines, charades, and outlining. There is also a list of recommended books in all of these areas, a list of publishers of ESL curriculum materials and a list of resource centers.

At the end of the book there is a glossary of ESL terms, providing an explanation and, where relevant, an example, ranging from *Aptitude Test* through *Modal Auxiliary Verb* to *Segmental Phonemes* and *Validity*.

The book provides a wealth of information, both for the ESL student and for the teacher. The book would best be used in conjunction with an ESL textbook, as the material is not presented in a contextual setting and there are no exercises for practicing the language contained in the lists. As with any list, these are not exhaustive and may need to be adapted and/or supplemented by the individual teacher.

I have two main reservations about the book. Firstly, the apparent imbalance in the lists; at times the lists are almost too exhaustive with language items I feel to be beyond the target audience of the book and at other times I feel that the explanations given, for example, in the lists of grammar rules, are somewhat superficial. Secondly, I feel that a number of the language items presented, particularly in the idiom lists, and some of the suggestions for assessing and practicing across the various skill areas, are not as up-to-date as they could be but tend to be rather traditional.

Overall, however, I believe that *The ESL Teacher's Book of Lists* is a valuable resource for ESL teachers.

About the Reviewer

Jennifer Wright graduated from Durham University, U.K., in 1982 with a B.A. in Modern Languages. She then took the R.S.A. Preparatory Certificate in TEFL and later the R.S.A. TEFLA Diploma. She taught in Italy for five years and then in Japan for five years. She is currently living in the CNMI where she hopes to be working soon.

Reactions: Multicultural Reading-Based Writing Modules

Review by Ernest Hall,

University of British Columbia

REACTIONS: MULTICULTURAL READING-BASED WRITING MODULES.   Roni Lebauer and Robin Scarcella.   Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice-Hall, 1993. 356 pp. $17.75.

Reactions, according to its authors, is a writing text for upper intermediate/advanced ESL students which uses thematically-grouped readings with a multicultural perspective (p. vii).

Organized in three modules "Learning a Second Language," "Education," and "Stereotypes," the text presents four or five authentic readings on each topic as well as two or three additional readings at the end of each module for a total of 21 readings averaging 1,500 - 2,000 words in length. Each reading is followed by a vocabulary gloss and True/False comprehension questions as well as an "interaction" activity directing students to discuss questions related to the reading.

As a writing text, *Reactions* engages students in a variety of writing tasks ranging from a "short writing" assignment for each reading, most often writing a letter to a character in the passage, writing a short response to an issue raised by the passage, or writing a response to the reading from a point of view different from that of the passage. Each of these tasks is preceded by two or three authentic model passages by student writers in which students are instructed to locate and correct a specified number of particular grammatical errors. With each reading, students are directed to write a journal entry recounting personal experience related to the issues raised in the passage. Finally, each module concludes with an essay assignment on a choice of two topics.

Although the authors acknowledge the importance of drawing attention to the processes employed during writing, the approach they take to fostering process awareness for the student users of *Reactions* may be problematic. The six essay topics assigned in *Reactions* are each accompanied by several pages showing the development of an essay on the topic by another student. 'The student's planning notes are followed by a first draft, with marginal instructor comments, which in turn is followed by comments and ratings on such criteria as content and organization by student "peer" writers. A second draft with marginal instructor notes follows, and in turn a final version of the essay is presented. While this text-based presentation may be fascinating for the teacher or researcher, it is likely to prove tedious if not

confusing to the student writer. Further, despite the author's admonitions to avoid seeing this text as a model, this presentation introduces a risk that the student may do just that. An instructor using *Reactions* might be well advised to have students develop their own essay drafts before viewing the various stages of the process model presented. Additionally, an instructor would perhaps want to supplement the "Essay Writing Checklists" which follow the essay assignments because these present yes/no questions without providing evaluative strategies. (For example, "my essay sufficiently answers the question or addresses the topic" is a difficult question to answer unless student writers have developed procedures for assessing their texts.) As a writing text, *Reactions* requires a good deal of supplementary instruction in writing processes.

As a text aimed at upper intermediate-advanced university ESL writers, *Reactions* has some other problems. Arguably, the grammar appendix deals with grammar items which these students are likely to have a good grasp of already (e.g., countable-uncountable nouns, subject-verb agreement, simple-continuous verb tenses, passive voice, and participles). Likewise, the appendix dealing with relative clauses presents a syntactic description rather than a rationale for relative clauses as functional units enabling writers to enhance unity through subordination.

The major strengths of *Reactions* are the engaging topics covered by the readings and the effort to involve students in personal and meaningful responses, both oral and written, to these provocative passages. As a reading text, *Reactions* goes a long way. As a writing text, however, it falls somewhat short of its aim.

About the Reviewer

Ernest Hall teaches English for Academic Purposes at the English Language Institute, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. His particular interest is in second language writing processes.

TESOL '95:
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Notes to Contributors

The *TESL Reporter* is a semiannual publication of the Language, Literature, and Communications Division 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 relevant to teaching English as a second/foreign language, bilingual education, intercultural education and communication, and teacher preparation in these areas are welcomed and should be submitted (in duplicate) to the editor. Manuscripts dealing with classroom aspects of teaching are especially encouraged.

Manuscripts should be typed and double spaced throughout, generally not exceeding ten to 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) bio-data 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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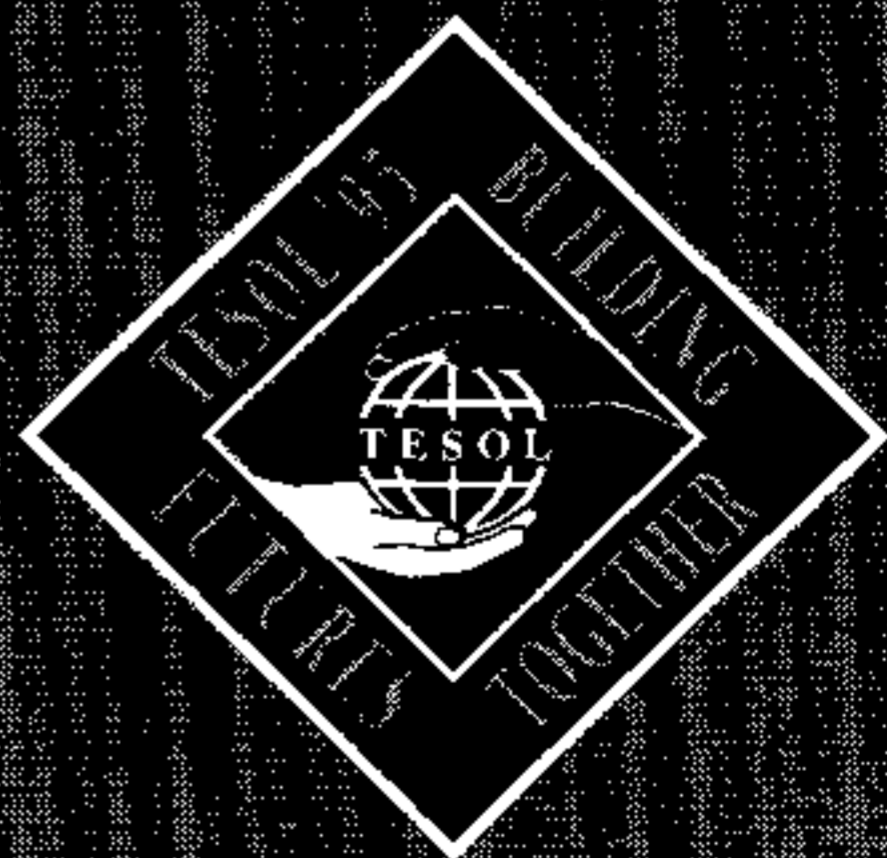Fun Run, Swap Shop, D

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