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ARTICLES

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Corpora and English Language Teaching: Pedagogy and Practical Applications for Data-Driven Learning

Michael Lessard-Clouston, Biola University, California
Tracey Chang, Bethesda University of California

Introduction

Although corpus linguistics has become quite influential in English language teaching in recent years, the actual use of corpora (large, searchable collections of real language, electronic texts) by practicing teachers still seems to be fairly limited. In their introduction to data-driven learning (DDL) in the classroom, Gilquin and Granger (2010) declare, for example, "one reason for not doing DDL might simply be that the teacher does not know enough about corpora and the possibility of using corpora in the classroom" (p. 366). This article aims to help fill this gap, by assisting teachers in understanding potential uses of corpus linguistics for English language teaching (ELT). To do so we will introduce key concepts in this area as well as potential applications for pedagogy, including introductory worksheets for teaching collocations in English as a second and/or foreign language (ESL/EFL) contexts with an online corpus.

Key Concepts in Corpus Linguistics and Language Teaching

According to Reppen (2010), a *corpus* is "a large, principled collection of naturally occurring texts (written or spoken) stored electronically" (p. 2). Good reasons to use such corpora (plural) are that they help identify both "linguistic and situational co-occurrence patterns" and offer "a ready resource of natural, authentic, texts for language learning," in addition to removing some of the guessing of native speakers of languages, whose intuitions are "often ill-informed" (p. 4). Thus corpora and DDL are of great value to both native- and non-native-English speaking teachers who question their own intuitions of English language use.

A corpus linguistics approach to teaching and learning is largely *frequency-based* (using a cost-benefit view – see Barker, 2007) with an emphasis on *authentic, real-life examples* that are to be examined *in context.* While the machines of years ago may have caused frustration for most people, corpus linguistics has flour-

ished in the last 20 years with technological advances now providing more user-friendly access to corpora, especially on the Internet. Corpus linguistics and DDL require a corpus, a computer, and concordancing software to analyze the corpus (usually built-in to online corpora sites), plus specific questions to research and answer, and a process for studying the results. We hope to offer examples of the latter two.

While corpus linguistics is used in many linguistic areas (McCarthy & O'Keefe, 2010), language learning and teaching is a primary one, especially for ESL/EFL. The applications of corpora in teaching are myriad, including vocabulary learning and teaching, phraseology, register, English for academic and specific purposes, and materials design. Our examples in the Appendices focus on teaching collocations. Key classroom approaches for DDL with corpora include using word lists, concordance lines for examples of real language use, texts tagged with parts of speech, and examples of register use in language (Reppen, 2010). Our focus in this article is on simple tasks that teachers who are new to corpora and DDL can implement.

A final important concept to note is that DDL requires that teachers and students take on new roles in class. As Gilquin and Granger (2010) clearly state, for teachers it is important to have adequate knowledge about corpora and some of the potential options for using them in the classroom, but DDL also implies something of "a less central role…than in traditional teaching," because the teacher facilitates learning and helps learners arrive at answers to their questions (p. 366). As a result, teachers cede the role of expertise to the corpus, "take risks, and agree to 'let go' and let the student take pride of place in the classroom" (p. 367). Similarly for students, DDL requires some training, as well as guidance in developing questions, determining what resources are available, and the means for understanding and evaluating information that corpora provide.

Approaches and Resources for DDL

Evison (2010) outlines the basics of corpus analysis as "generating frequency lists and concordances" (p. 122). The Key Word in Context (KWIC) approach to concordance analysis enables people to consider a targeted word or phrase to be displayed for easy analysis, centered:

three options we have are a **shopping** centre, a park or entertainment
Bournemouth has got enough **shopping** centres I suppose … The people won't go

know about that, erm, the **shopping** mall. I'm not so sure about the
(Evison, 2010, p. 130)

This example allows us to see that 'shopping' is not just an activity (from the verb 'to shop'), but may also function as an adjective modifying the place where people shop. KWIC examples allow students and teachers to see lexical and grammatical patterns in the various examples offered.

Sinclair (1991) defines a concordance as "a collection of occurrences of a word-form, each in its own textual environment" (p. 32). A concordance example with "up" from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) is included in Appendix A, shown in Search 4. While KWIC is only one approach to displaying concordance lines, it is likely the main one that most language teachers and learners use. Tribble (2010) discusses concordance searches for words and/or phrases, many of which will involve four steps. However, for more complex words or structures, his full 7-stage process is as follows:

1. *Initiate* a search by looking for patterns in a set of concordance lines (as in the short KWIC example for "shopping" above).
2. *Interpret* the concordance line results by noting patterns (e.g., shopping can be an adjective, so "a shopping centre" or "mall" seems to be a place where one shops).
3. *Consolidate* by looking for further additional patterns in your concordance lines, and report them to others (perhaps ARTICLE + shopping + NOUN).
4. *Report* your results to others by writing out your explicit, testable version of what seems to be happening (e.g., "shopping" precedes the noun it modifies).
5. *Recycle* your results by looking for further information and patterns in this and other contexts in your list of concordance lines (this might evaluate additional findings).
6. *Result* – focus your results for additional study, perhaps incorporating what other authorities (dictionaries, etc.) state that is relevant to your concordance examples.
7. *Repeat* the process above with more data from your corpus, as helpful. (Adapted from Tribble, 2010, pp. 179-182.)

For the "shopping" example, steps 1-4 may suffice. For more complicated words or expressions, one may wish to do the three additional steps where we re-

cycle our findings, focus on the results, and determine whether we need to repeat the process again for further examples and information.

Lee (2010) helpfully introduces key corpora available for teachers to use for concordance or other analyses; see also our starter list of useful online corpora and other resources in Figure 1.

Ten Corpora for ESL/EFL Teaching and Research

British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus:
http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/research/collect/bawe/

British National Corpus (BNC): http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/

☞ See also the Brigham Young University BNC site: http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/

Collins Wordbanks Online (Bank of English):
http://www.collins.co.uk/page/Wordbanks+Online (requires a subscription)

☞ Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA): http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
Academic Vocabulary Lists in the COCA: http://www.academicvocabulary.info/

Corpus of Global Web-Based English (GloWbe): http://corpus2.byu.edu/glowbe/

Corpus of Historical American English (COHA): http://corpus.byu.edu/coha/

☞ Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE):
http://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/micase/

Open American National Corpus (OANC): http://americannationalcorpus.org/

Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English:
http://www.linguistics.ucsb.edu/research/santa-barbara-corpus

☞ Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE):
http://www.univie.ac.at/voice/index.php (lingua franca English)

Other Useful Corpus-related Internet Resources

Humanising Language Teaching (journal - see esp. its ☞ "Ideas from the Corpora" articles): http://www.hltmag.co.uk/ (geared to EFL, but applies to ESL and other contexts)

Learner Corpus Association: http://www.learnercorpusassociation.org/

☞ Tom Cobb's "Compleat Lexical Tutor": http://www.lextutor.ca/
(many resources, including concordances, tutorials, research, and teachers' pages)

Word Frequency Lists and Dictionary from the COCA: http://www.wordfrequency.info/

(Note: ☞ = particularly recommended.)

Figure 1. Online corpora and other useful resources for ELT and DDL.

Most corpus resources, like those listed above, also allow teachers and students to consider not only English grammar and vocabulary, but also phrases and phraseology. Scott (2010) rightly suggests that computers and corpus software do many things well, such as generating word lists and recognizing patterns, but they cannot analyze data or tell us what it means. That is where teachers who understand

basic corpus linguistic approaches and DDL come in, and can assist their ESL/EFL students in analyzing and understanding corpus results. In our experience, when students conduct their own searches and work with corpus results, this inductive approach makes their ESL/EFL learning more meaningful and memorable.

Implications of Using DDL for ELT

Before moving to pedagogy, let us consider some implications of using DDL in the classroom for English language teaching. While our activities and materials may look similar to traditional approaches, using DDL emphasizes *real examples,* as opposed to fabricated ones we might find in some dictionaries, resource books, or textbooks. One way to ensure this is by using corpus-based textbooks and materials. We can also use tools (like those listed in Figure 1) to search for relevant examples for our classes and to answer our own and our students' questions.

As Gilquin and Granger (2010) indicate, using DDL places the teacher in more of a facilitator role, rather than being the "expert" in class. Overall, we do not perceive this to be a problem, as our goal is to help learners acquire real English language knowledge. Teachers using corpus approaches and DDL can also model and help students to use online and other tools in order to help them learn how to use corpora to learn, by posing questions and finding answers.

We appreciate Sripicharn's (2010) suggestions for preparing learners in class for using corpora by first finding out what they know and providing relevant information on corpora and DDL; second, identifying tasks and related types of corpora to use; and, third, providing access to online corpora or preparing relevant corpora (such as the ones in Figure 1). In addition we may, fourth, introduce corpus analysis tools such as concordancers, as well as possible types of queries with them; and, fifth, help students interpret the results of corpus searches, so they can implement what they learn and know how and when to start again. This cycle, like the one outlined earlier from Tribble (2010), recognizes that as we pose and answer questions with corpus results, repeating the process to arrive at the most useful results may be necessary.

Finally, it is worth noting that although it is possible to use printed concordance lines from corpus research with students, it is now often expected that teachers and students have access to computers during classes, so each teacher will have to determine just how to proceed.

Potential Tasks for the Classroom

Many great books (e.g., Anderson & Corbett, 2009; Bennett, 2010; Campoy, Belles-Fortuno, & Gea-Valor, 2010; Flowerdew, 2012; Reppen, 2010; Shaw, 2011; Sinclair, 2004) introduce, in much greater detail, various ways that teachers can use corpora and English corpus results in their classes. Accordingly, in this article we aim to describe some things that teachers who are not already doing so might begin to incorporate using DDL, in simple, practical ways.

Perhaps the first way that teachers can use corpora for ESL/EFL teaching is in creating and using word frequency lists. In addition to using already established English word lists (e.g., see Lessard-Clouston, 2012/2013, for an overview) and the new Academic Vocabulary List (Gardner & Davies, 2014), for example, with the online Corpus of Contemporary American English (or COCA; Davies, 2008-), teachers can prepare specific lists of English words and then use them either in the preparation of lessons and materials for particular classes or for students to study. Beyond individual words, however, we can also use corpora to help us find collocations and teach lexical chunks (Lessard-Clouston, 2013), as shown in the worksheets included in the Appendices. Like Kathpalia and Ling (2008), we believe collocations can help students develop their proficiency in English, and that using collocations helps learners go beyond individual words and enables them to see that language tends to work in larger phrases or chunks. An excellent resource for much more detail on such approaches to vocabulary teaching using corpora is McCarthy, O'Keefe, and Walsh's (2010) helpful book.

Yet corpora are not only useful for vocabulary teaching. Another way that corpora are valuable is in how they help in examining grammar patterns in English. As alluded to earlier, corpora and concordance lines with real English examples can help both teachers and their students consider specific words and phrases in spoken or written contexts, where they can study preposition use, verbs and complements, and adjective + noun and/or other combinations that will assist English language learners and teachers consider their own speaking and writing. A final task that should be mentioned is that students and teachers may use corpora to compare students' English use (spoken or written vocabulary, grammar, phraseology, etc.) with that of native English speakers (e.g., using the COCA) or other ESL/EFL students (e.g., with the English as a lingua franca Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English, or VOICE, corpus).

Pedagogy for DDL: The COCA and Collocations

It is not an overstatement to say that online corpus websites are difficult for the uninitiated to navigate. For American English, perhaps the most useful online corpus is the COCA (Davies, 2008-), introduced earlier. As teachers, it has taken us multiple attempts to use the COCA website and much time spent studying tutorials to come to a point where we would feel comfortable doing an impromptu search of the COCA in front of an ESL/EFL class.

We believe that many teachers would say that they think corpora are powerful tools, but that they do not feel ready to teach their students to use them extensively, due to their own limited knowledge. In terms of pedagogy, then, we wanted to create worksheets to help both teachers and students understand the basics of using the COCA online and to feel empowered to use it on their own. In part this is because we believe the COCA is very helpful for teachers and learners to use as a tool for investigating English phraseology and for correcting coded writing errors on their own. Thus, please refer to the Appendices, where our first worksheet introduces the COCA and how to use it to learn which words go together as collocations, and the second one (building on the first) addresses correcting written collocational errors in ESL/EFL.

We chose the COCA because it is a freely available, well-respected website with a very large corpus of over 450 million words of American English. We focused specifically on collocations and collocational errors because learning proper collocations is an area of both interest and difficulty for students. Students may be expected to learn collocations just by taking in a large amount of comprehensible input, and we agree with McCarthy, O'Keefe and Walsh (2010) that concordances can serve as a shortcut to this type of language exposure.

The two worksheets in Appendices A and B are designed to double as lesson plans. They can be used to serve as the very first introductions to using corpus websites. However, while not essential for successfully completing these worksheets, it could be useful to first familiarize students with the skill of reading concordance lines. Teachers can use printouts of concordance lines to do this, perhaps with the four questions outlined by Sripicharn (2010) for observing patterns. Our worksheets do not fully explore the COCA functions, which allow users to compare words, explore synonyms, narrow a focus down to specific genres, and look at words across time. They also do not introduce the very useful search syntax for

searching for a lemma, which collects all parts of speech for a word, plus its inflected and reduced (e.g., n't) forms.

The following worksheets include much explanation to help teachers and students learn to think about search strategies and to navigate the COCA for their own searches. A very self-motivated student could perhaps complete the worksheets on his or her own, but in reality the number of students who would undertake such study would likely be few. Our expectation is that ESL/EFL teachers would go through the worksheets on their own to familiarize themselves with the techniques, and then walk through the scenarios and examples with their students in class, with each student being given worksheet copies to follow along with and work through. Instructors could then assign further searches as homework. They could also give error examples in class and have students discuss (but not execute) the strategies they would use to discover the correction using the COCA. Students could then be asked to try out their proposed methods as homework, with students reporting back in the following class on their findings.

The potential of corpora in the hands of knowledgeable students is great, but the task of helping students learn to use corpora on their own can be daunting. We hope that the worksheets will serve as a useful introduction. Please read through Appendix A for an introduction to using the COCA to help ESL/EFL students learn which words go together, and Appendix B for one approach to helping students learn to use the COCA to correct their written, coded errors.

Final Suggestions for Corpora and DDL Pedagogy

In addition to suggesting that readers explore the COCA using the worksheets provided, we would like to end with some further suggestions for using corpora and DDL pedagogy. Overall, we suggest that teachers feel free to start small, perhaps by using a corpus-based textbook and considering how its examples, vocabulary, etc., differ from other materials they use that are not based on corpus findings. See Lessard-Clouston (2012/2013) for examples of textbooks and other resources focusing specifically on ESL/EFL vocabulary and corpus-based word lists. In addition, we encourage teachers to use all of the corpus linguistics resources that publishers offer related to their textbooks. As teachers are able, we encourage them to explore online resources like the COCA and the Compleat Lexical Tutor in order to further inform their materials selection, understanding of

grammar and vocabulary in class readings, etc. These sites (and many others beyond the short list in Figure 1) can help provide word lists, concordance lines, phrasal combinations, etc., to focus on in specific classes you teach. If you are looking for book-length guides, please consult Bennett (2010), Reppen (2010), or Sinclair (2004). Each is teacher friendly and offers specific steps for particular tasks and Internet sites.

If you have corpus-based resources (textbooks, reference materials, etc.) in class, we suggest you introduce these to your students and gear simple exercises and activities to helping them explore DDL. You might go through the steps outlined by Sripicharn (2010) and Tribble (2010), for example, in terms of using concordances, before attempting to use the worksheets in the Appendices here. We highly encourage you to access whatever resources and tools are available to you, like the online tutorials in the COCA. And don't feel shy about asking colleagues or students who are familiar with the technology to assist you, and help you to learn. Finally, you can refer to the References for good articles and books, as well as Figure 1 for a starter list of online corpora and other web resources that can help with using corpora and implementing DDL in your specific ESL/EFL courses, with their range of levels and skills. Hunston (2010) explains how to use corpora to explore various patterns and Römer (2011) offers a good academic introduction to corpus applications in teaching, while Van Zante and Persiani (2008) provide great examples of using corpora with their ESL classes.

Conclusion

In this article we have outlined practical concepts in corpora and language teaching and introduced basic approaches to and resources for data-driven learning in ELT, including implications for DDL and potential tasks for ESL/EFL classrooms. Whether a refresher for those who know about such options or an initiation into DDL for others, we hope that this overview and the worksheets in the Appendices here will assist those who wish to incorporate online and other corpus resources in their ESL/EFL teaching, especially in the area of collocations.

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About the Authors

Michael Lessard-Clouston (Ph.D., Toronto) is a professor in the Department of Applied Linguistics and TESOL at Biola University in La Mirada, California, where he coordinates the M.A. in applied linguistics and teaches in both the on campus and online M.A. TESOL programs. His research and teaching interests include corpus linguistics, intercultural communication, second language acquisition, and vocabulary learning and teaching.

Tracey Chang (M.A., Biola University) teaches academic ESL at Bethesda University of California and English composition at the Salvation Army College for Officer Training at Crestmont. Her research interests include technology-enhanced language learning, vocabulary learning and teaching, and learner autonomy.

Appendix A
Corpora and Collocations 1
Using the COCA to Learn Which Words Go Together

Introduction: Do you sometimes know a word but aren't quite sure how to use it correctly? It would be helpful to have examples, wouldn't it? A *corpus* is a giant database of the English language full of sentences from books, magazines, and TV. We are going to explore a corpus website called the Corpus of Contemporary American English (or for short, the COCA, http://www.americancorpus.org), where you can look at lots of sentence examples that can help you understand how Americans speak and write in real, everyday English.

You can use the COCA to discover lots of information about language. Today we are going to use it to find out more about words that go together. Words that often go together are called *collocations.* These words seem to be such good "friends" that when you try to put them next to another similar word, it just sounds odd or even wrong to native English speakers.

Here are some examples:

Americans say…	but they don't say….
his **little** sister	his **small** sister
do your homework	**make** your homework
face a **problem**	face a **blessing**
my car is **not working**	my car is **broken**
loyal **to** each other	loyal **for** each other

Let's use the COCA to look at the words *pick up.* This is a special type of grammatical collocation called a phrasal verb. You can say:

(a) "Can you **pick Karen up**?" and (b) "Can you **pick up Karen**?"

It would be logical to think that you can say:

(c) "Can you **pick me up**?" and (d) "*Can you **pick up me**?"

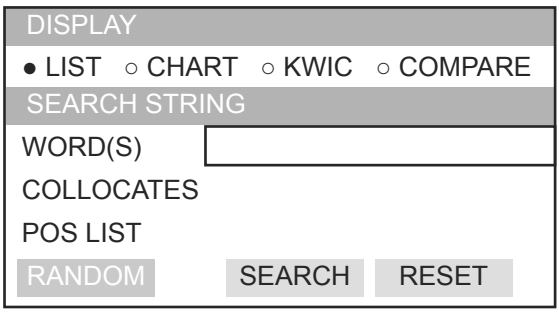
But wait! Did you notice something is wrong? Question (d) is incorrect. You cannot say "*Can you **pick up me**?" It would also be incorrect to say, "Yes, I can **pick up you**." However, it would be correct to say, "Yes, I can **pick up Karen**." Strange, right? There is actually a rule that would help you to know where you can or cannot put the object of the phrasal verb *pick up.* If you had a list of example sentences, you might be able to figure it out on your own. We can use the COCA to do just that. So, the question we want to investigate is, "What is the rule that tells me when I should put the object between *pick* and *up* or when I should place it after *pick up*?" Our strategy will be to look for a list of example sentences containing the phrasal verb *pick up.*

Search 1: LIST + WORD(S)

Question: What is the rule that tells me when I should put the object between *pick* and *up* or when I should place it after *pick up*?"

Strategy: Look for a list of example sentences containing the phrasal verb *pick up.*

1. Go to www.americancorpus.org
2. You will see a search box on the left side that looks like this:



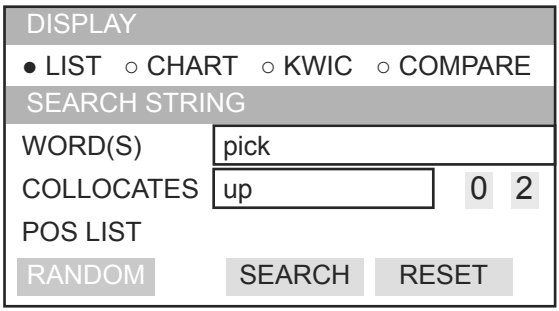
3. Type *pick up* in the WORD box, then click SEARCH.
4. When the results appear in the window, click on PICK UP.
5. You will see a list of sentences (called *concordance lines*) that include ***pick up.*** But these sentences only show *pick* and *up* right next to each other. There are no examples of *pick* + object + *up*. That's because when we typed pick up into the search box, we were asking the corpus to only show us a list of sentences that contain the exact words, *pick up.*

Search 2: LIST + COLLOCATES

We will need to do a new search that includes **pick up** and **pick** + **object** + **up**. We can ask the COCA to show us a list of sentences that contain the word **pick** (Step 2 below) and also contain **up** in the position that is immediately to the right of ***pick,*** or in the position that is two spaces to the right of pick (Steps 3-5).

1. Click RETURN TO SEARCH FORM (top left). Click RESET to start over.
2. Type *pick* in the WORD box.
3. Click on the word COLLOCATES. A box will appear to the right, with two numbers.
4. Type *up* in the COLLOCATES box.
5. Change the two numbers so that it says *0* on the left and *2* on the right. This tells the COCA that you want examples where the word *up* is in the position

to the right of *pick* (pick up) or in the position next to that (pick _____ up). It tells COCA that you don't want examples where *up* appears to the left of *pick* (~~up~~ ~~pick~~). The box will look like this:



6. Click SEARCH.
7. When the results appear in the window, click on UP. (You can also click on the number.)
8. Look at the sentences where ***pick*** and ***up*** are separated by the object (***pick*** + object + ***up***). Write some of the objects here:

_____

9. Which part-of-speech category do most of these objects belong to?
   nouns pronouns verbs adjectives adverbs prepositions
10. Hopefully you noticed that they are mostly pronouns, with some nouns also. Now look at the sentences where pick up is together and the object is to the right.
11. Look at these objects. Which part-of-speech category do most of them belong to?
    nouns pronouns verbs adjectives adverbs prepositions
12. Did you notice that these objects are only nouns? There are no pronouns.
13. So we learned that a noun or pronoun can be placed between *pick* and *up* but only a noun and not a pronoun can be placed to the right of *pick up*.

Search 3: KWIC + COLLOCATES

Sometimes it can take a lot of work to figure out rules about the patterns in language. There is actually a different type of search method we could have used which may have made it easier to find the pattern. We are going to examine *pick up* again, but we will use this other method. This method uses the Key Word in Context (KWIC) display option.

1. Click RETURN TO SEARCH FORM (top left). Do not click RESET.
2. In the DISPLAY options, select KWIC.

3. Click SEARCH.

Wow, we get very colorful results! Each colored word belongs to the same part-of-speech (POS) category. To find out which color represents which POS category, look at the top of the page for a box that says RE-SORT. There is a question mark (?) next to it. Click on the question mark. You can then see what the different colors mean. Today we want to remember that nouns are turquoise blue (bright blue), pronouns are medium blue, verbs are pink, and adverbs are orange. Now click the "back" button on your web browser to return to the results page.

Do you see that all the instances of *pick* are pink (verb) and all the instances of *up* are orange (adverb)? In a phrasal verb, *up* actually belongs to the part-of-speech category called "particles" but the COCA calls it an adverb. Now when we look at the list of examples, we can easily see that there are pronouns (medium blue) and nouns (turquoise) in between *pick* and *up*. We also see that when *pick up* is together, there are only nouns (turquoise) to the right and no pronouns (medium blue). This KWIC display made it much easier to look for patterns, right?

The reason it is easy to see the patterns is because the word to the right of *pick* is in alphabetical order, which is why the repeated words are grouped together. But there are some situations where it would be better if the word to the left of the search word was alphabetical.

Search 4: KWIC + WORD + SORT

Let's say you wanted to find a list of phrasal verbs that have the word *up* as the particle. It would make sense to search for *up* and then look at the verbs on the left, correct?

Question: What are some common phrasal verbs that include *up*?
Strategy: Generate example sentences that include *up*. Use the color coded KWIC format and then look to the left.

1. Click RETURN TO SEARCH FORM (top left). Click RESET to start over.
2. Type *up* in the WORD box.
3. Select KWIC.
4. Click SEARCH.
5. Look at the pink verbs on the left side.

It would be helpful if you could put the words on the left side into order, correct? This is called *sorting*. We want to sort the words to the left of *up*.

Revised strategy: Sort the results so that the word to the left of *up* is in alphabetical order.

To sort the results, you need to understand the sort controller at the top of the page.

It looks like this:

These boxes represent the places where words are located in a sentence. The space in the center represents the search word, also called the *node* word. It makes more sense if you look at the concordance lines in a different way:

Example concordance lines:

village , and then the long walk	up	a steep hill to her house if she didn't
my helmet. Every morning I wake	up	and make my big sister Amy her
tired of Catholic pilgrims showing	up	asking where they might find the
of the lamppost . Caroline looked	up	at the fairyland turret . Did Dr. Cruz
tie worn by a technician who puts	up	evidence displays in court . Two
honest . When Karr failed to show	up	for a court appearance on those
resorts would soon be waking	up	for the season. Much of Swedish

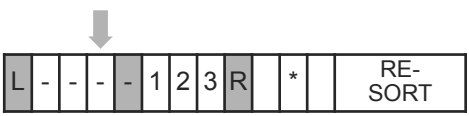
Example concordance lines shown by positions relative to node:

	N-4	N-3	N-2	N-1	Node	N+1	N+2	N+3	N+4
	L	-	-	-	-	1	2	3	R
1	head	and	shoulders	propped	up	a	little	next	to
2	Every	morning	I	wake	up	and	make	my	big
3	Mondrian	,	who	ended	up	asking	where	they	might
4	lamppost	.	Caroline	looked	up	at	the	fairyland	turret
5	Karr	failed	to	show	up	for	a	court	date
6	would	soon	be	waking	up	for	the	time	of
7	and	then	she	looked	up	from	her	book	,

Do you see how the diagram represents the words in the concordance lines (sentences)? Remember that the word in the middle, the search word, is called the *node* word. The numbers **1**, **2**, and **3** at the top show you which position will be sorted first. Right now, the words in the N+1 position are sorted alphabetically. If there is a repeated word in the N+1 position, then N+2 will be alphabetized. You can see an example in lines 5 and 6 above, as this happens when the word **for** is repeated.

Let's go back to the exercise. We want to sort the concordance lines by the word on the left, the N-1 position.

1. Go to the sort controller at the top of the page.
2. Click on the position to the left of the node word.



When you click on it, it will change to say **1**.

You are allowed to select three positions to sort. If you clicked two more spaces, they would change to say **2** and **3**. But for this exercise, we are only interested in sorting by N-1 position on the left.

3. Click RE-SORT.
4. Look at results. Now when you look to the left of *up* and look for pink verbs, it is much easier to quickly find verbs that are often grouped together with *up* and you will have discovered some common phrasal verbs which contain *up*.

Appendix B
Corpora and Collocations 2
Using the COCA to Correct Written Errors

Introduction: You can use the COCA to correct collocational errors in your writing. Your instructor might use the abbreviation **coll** to let you know when there is an error with a collocation in writing. If you don't know the right words that go together, it can be difficult to correct these errors. You can use the COCA to help you find the correct collocations. We'll look at three collocational errors from student essays and practice using the COCA to correct them.

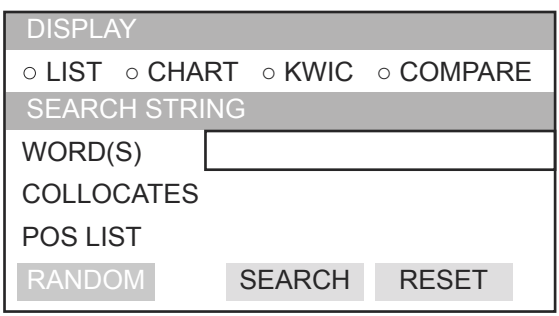
Sentence Error 1

coll

It is very comparable from the beginning of the story.

Question 1: Which word should go after *comparable*?
Strategy: Look for example sentences and look at what words often appear to the right of *comparable.*

1. What type of search would you use to find out this information? Complete the chart below to show which display option you would choose and which word(s) you would type into the search box.



2. Now, go to the COCA website (www.americancorpus.org) and try your search! [If you have it, revisit the Corpora and Collocations 1 worksheet for any steps you would like to review.]
3. After looking at the words which appear to the right of comparable, write down which one you think is appropriate to correct Sentence Error 1.
4. Write the correct sentence here: _____

_____

Sentence Error 2

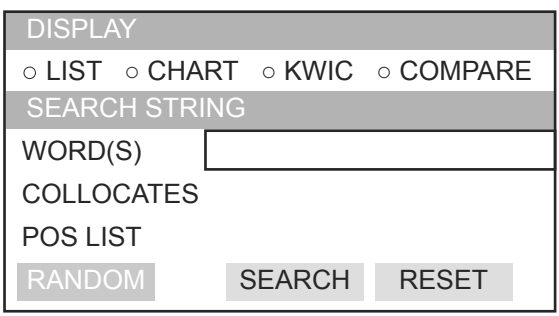
coll

Then he makes a compliment about his father's singing.

This time we aren't sure exactly which word or words are incorrect, but we know that there is a problem with the underlined portion as a collocation. We know that compliment is the key word, so we can start with that.

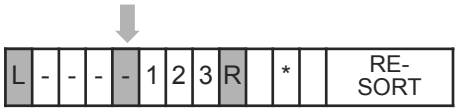
Question 2: How do you use *compliment*?
Strategy: Look for example sentences.

1. What type of search would you use to find out this information? Complete the chart below to show which display option you would choose and which word(s) you would type into the search box.



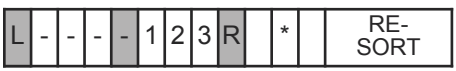
2. Now go to the COCA to try your search.
3. What did you discover? If your search used KWIC display and looked for the word *compliment*, you may have noticed that *compliment* appears as both pink (verb) and turquoise (noun). So we've discovered that *compliment* can be used as both a verb and a noun! What should we do next? If you said that we should use the sorting controller and sort the node position, you are right!

4. Go back to your results and click the node position (center), then click RE-SORT.



Now the nouns (blue) and the verbs (pink) are grouped together. This will make it easier for us to look for patterns.

5. Examine the concordance lines with *compliment* as a noun first. How is *compliment* used as a noun? It might be helpful to sort again. You might notice the collocation "pay a compliment" but you probably won't find anything that says "pay a compliment about _____ ."
6. Examine the concordance lines with *compliment* as a verb. It will be helpful to re-sort the lines again. Sort by the node word position first, then N+1 and N+2. Remember, you simply click on the three spots in the order you want to sort.



How is compliment used as a verb? Do you notice any patterns?

You may have noticed the following patterns:

compliment (someone/a person) on (something that is being admired)
or
compliment (someone/a person) for (something that is being admired)

7. Now correct Error Sentence 2 and write it here: _____

_____

Sentence Error 3

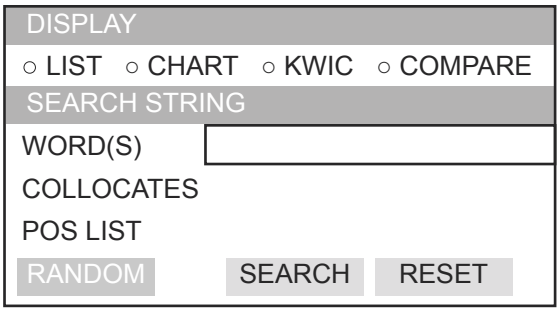
coll

Telling the truth can <u>make people hurt their emotions.</u>

This time we know that *make* and *emotions* are incorrect words in this collocation, but we know that *hurt* is correct.

Question 3A: What is the correct collocation for *hurt*?
Strategy: Look for words that go with the key word *hurt.*

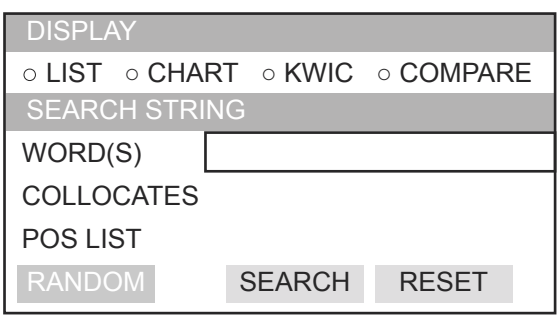
1. What type of search would you use to find out this information? Complete the chart below to show which display option you would choose and which word(s) you would type into the search box.



2. Now go to the COCA to try your search. Can you find a word that would have a meaning similar to *emotions*?
3. A basic LIST search of the word *hurt* would show the word *feelings* as the top search result. Now click on the word FEELINGS to see how to use it correctly.
4. Answer the following questions:
   Does it seem ok to say "hurt their feelings"? Y N
   Does it seem ok to say "make people hurt their feelings"? Y N

Question 3B: What are the correct collocations for hurt with feelings?
Strategy: Look for more examples of "hurt their feelings" to find out how to use it.

5. What type of search would you use to find out this information? Complete the chart below to show which display option you would choose and which word(s) you would type into the search box.



6. Now go to the COCA to try your search.
7. Can you find any patterns for how *hurt their feelings* is used? Write down any patterns you have discovered: _____

   _____
8. Now correct Sentence Error 3 and write it here: _____

   _____

The Use of Shall/Will with Pronouns: Collocations in L1 and L2 Writing

Bui Hiu Yuet Gavin, Hang Seng Management College, Hong Kong

Introduction

Shall and *will* are "double-faced" words in that they serve as modal verbs expressing personal will and determination, and at the same time as tense marking auxiliaries in contemporary English. Usage of these two words in contexts varies in the literature. The change of their meanings over time (ancient English to modern English, see Gotti, 2006; Lightfoot, 1974) and space (British English, American English and other varieties, see Szmrecsanyi, 2003) also arouses heated discussion. Most past research (e.g., Hoye, 1997; Salkie, Busuttil, & van der Auwera, 2009) has focused on the diachronic (e.g., Gotti, 2006; Nadjia, 2006) or morpho-syntactic (e.g., Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973) description of *shall* and *will* while L2 learners' acquisition of these words was much less touched upon in the literature, still less is an in-depth discussion on L2 learners' use of these two words in comparison to native English speakers in past research. This paper attempts to fill the gap by looking into the collocations of *shall* and *will* with pronouns among Hong Kong university students. A corpus-based approach was adopted to examine the similarities and differences between native and non-native student English writings and to explore potential pedagogical implications for L2 teaching.

Literature Review

The etymology of *shall* and *will* shows that these words can find their origin in Old English where they appeared as content verbs *sculan* and *willan* (Larreya, 2009; Lightfoot, 1974). The former means "owe /be in debt" while the latter denotes "wish", which were both transitive verbs followed by objects. Then they evolved into *sceal* and *will*, expressing the notion of "be obliged to/have to" and "wish to/be determined to" respectively. At that time *sceal* and *will* had already become auxiliary verbs that required a bare infinitive to go along with them (He, 2003). Different opinions exist as to when *shall* and *will* emerged as tense marking auxiliary verbs. Storms (1961, p. 304) maintained that before 14th century there was no such usage of *shall*

and *will* to purely express future time. Wekker (1976) believed that *shall* and *will* did not become future tense auxiliary verbs until the Middle English. From then on, shall and will can be used as not only modal auxiliary verbs (example 1 and 2 below) to indicate the speaker's attitude towards or his/her concern about the effects of what s/he is saying on the interlocutor (*Collins Cobuild English Grammar,* 1992) but also future tense marking auxiliary verbs (example 3 and 4 below) for time reference in English.

Examples:

1) You *will* not feel much love for him at the moment. (Expressing modality only but not marking future time reference)
2) After ten o'clock there *shall* be quietness on the upper corridor. (Expressing obligation only but not marking future time reference)
3) I *shall* grow old someday. (Expressing a future time reference point but not modality)
4) Betty *will* come back tomorrow. (Same as 3))

The historical evolution of *shall* and *will* has been examined more persuasively with the help of corpora of early English. For example, Gotti (2003) analyzed the use of *shall* and *will* for first person subject in future time reference based on a corpus of Early Modern English texts. The analysis focused on the uses of these modal auxiliaries both in interrogative and non-interrogative sentences, and compared their occurrences in different text types and for the performance of various pragmatic functions (e.g. prediction, intention, promise and proposal). The findings largely confirmed the above-mentioned evaluation paths along the history of English language.

In a similar vein, Nadjia (2006) studied *shall* and *will* from a diachronic perspective on the ARCHER (A Representative Corpus of Historical English Registers) corpus of 19th century British English as well as a "quick-and-dirty" corpus of contemporary English compiled from the Internet. In addition to the overall changes in the relative occurrences of the three forms (*will, shall, 'll*), the changes in three types of linguistic contexts (person, negation, and if-clause environments) were also investigated. One of the main differences found in the results based on these two (types of) corpora was the development of *'ll* : While the results from ARCHER pointed to a decrease in this expression in the 19th century (both in fiction texts and overall), the results from the fiction corpus showed an increase. A closer examination revealed considerable inter-textual variation in the use of this

form. The analysis demonstrated that, although not reliable as the only source for diachronic analysis, a quick-and-dirty corpus from the web could yield insights that supplemented those obtained from a traditional corpus.

While the temporal perspective of *shall* and *will* reveals considerable change in their use, geographical variation also seems quite evident in the literature. Yang (2006) conducted a corpus-based study which found, through the comparison between the British corpus FLOB (The Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English) and the American counterpart FROWN (the Freiburg-Brown corpus of American English), the traditional notion about these two words was outdated. First person pronouns "I" and "we" were followed by *will* 1.5 times more than *shall,* while for the second and third person, will outnumbered shall even more significantly. That is, will is on the way of replacing shall as a universal modal verb and tense marking auxiliary verb. This is confirmed by Sarmento's (2005) multi-corpus research where the use of *will* was overwhelmingly more than that of shall in all contexts by 10 to 20 times. At the same time, the belief that British people tend to use these two words more traditionally than American people was only weakly supported.

According to *The American Heritage Dictionary of English Language* (1996), when expressing the simple future tense, *shall* can only be applied to the first person pronouns "I" and "we", while *will* is restricted to the second and third persons; when expressing determination, promise or obligation, *will* can go with first person pronouns and *shall* can apply to second and third person. At the same time, the dictionary reminds us that usage as such is changing with these two words. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) mentioned that *will* was no longer confined by the second and the third person use; it is applicable to first person pronouns as well. In addition to their evolving usage with personal pronouns, in professional English, *shall* has been claimed to be one of the most misused words in legal writing (Kimble, 1992), which was surprisingly a pervasive phenomenon around the world as argued in American English (Adams, 2007), Australian English (Eagleson & Asprey, 1989; a contrasting view in Bennett, 1989), Hong Kong English (Watson-Brown, 1998), and European Union English writing (Foley, 2001). If the correct use of *shall* (and *will* to some extent) has imposed difficulty among native speakers, it is likely to be a bigger hurdle for L2 learners. We shall turn next to this point.

The importance of correct use of modal verbs was delineated and exemplified in Hita (2008). He discussed the complexity of the modality system (Halliday &

Matthiessen, 2004) in English and provided a sample lesson to teach students how to use *shall, will* and other modal verbs in appropriate contexts. In Jaroszek's (2011) longitudinal study of thirteen advanced English learners over a three-year period, the developmental path of three modality aspects (namely epistemic modality, specific modality and modality diversity), were examined on a weekly basis. It was found that though teacher contact hours had an effect on students' construction of modality knowledge construction, exposure to a large amount of authentic English exhibited a stronger impact on the development of natural deontic (obligatory) and specific modality use. A commendable point here is the use of native-speaking data reference to the learner data in this research. Jaroszek (2004) suggested that though students did not deviate much from native speakers' use of modality, they however had a poor repertoire of modality resources at their disposal as evidenced by their predominant use of deontic *should* and epistemic *maybe* instead of other more proper modal verbs in certain contexts. This finding pointed out that learners might adopt an avoidance strategy in actual use of modal verbs like *shall* and *will*, which warns us against simple observation of statistics from corpora. Some in-depth qualitative analysis on their distribution and the contextual clues should be in order in addition to corpus search.

More relevant to L2 classrooms, Vethamani, Manaf and Akbari (2008) investigated the use of modals in two written tasks by secondary school students in Malaysia from the EMAS Corpus (the English of Malaysian School Students Corpus). They discovered that *would* and *shall* were found in the narrative compositions though they were not stipulated in the syllabus, indicating that some extra-class exposure might help contribute to the acquisition of the modals. Secondary school students were aware of the auxiliary function of modal verbs and as a result they knew modals should be followed by a verb. In line with Jaroszek's (2011), students repetitively used only a few of the same modals for a wide range of functions. They also had confusion in the semantic choice of modals which lead to miscommunication.

Taken together, several issues in the literature warrant further scrutiny. First, the complexity of English modality in general received quite extensive attention but specific and in-depth exploration of words like *shall* and *will*, particularly when it comes to L2 learners, is rare, not to mention their collocational patterns with pronouns. Second, though corpora appear to be highly facilitative in both L1 and

L2 research, the practice of systematically comparing learner data to native speaking benchmark needs more advocating in research. Third, as suggested in Jaroszek (2011) and Vethamani, Manaf and Akbari (2008), there is a need to go beyond quantitative results and to look into the qualitative aspects of corpus entries. The linguistic environment within and outside of the collocational distance may also reveal important insights into the actual knowledge of second language learners in the use of *shall* and *will.*

Such motivations gave rise to the present research which employed two relevant corpora (one learner corpus and one comparable native corpus) in an attempt to unveil the use and usage patterns in *will* and *shall* and their collocation with pronouns among L1 and L2 English students. The two corpora are native English corpus LOCNESS (The Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) and its non-native counterpart LEC(HK) (Learner English Corpus of University Students in Hong Kong) through comparison and categorization (see the Methodology section below for the detailed description of the two corpora). The following sections will present the research questions and the hypotheses, then delineate the research methodology, followed by both quantitative and qualitative findings. Next the discussion section will explain and interpret the results based on which the pedagogical implications are offered.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Two general research questions guided the present research:

1) What are the usage patterns of *shall* and *will* in L2 writing?
2) Are there any differences between L1 and L2 students in the use of *shall* and *will*?

Drawing on the relevant literature, three hypotheses were formulated in this study:

Hypothesis 1: L2 students will use more shalls with first person pronouns than will the native-speaking students, because these L2 students' knowledge of English is the result of formal instruction and is thus more "grammar-book-like".

Hypothesis 2: Given the difficulty of *shall* being a modal verb other than a tense auxiliary verb, L2 students will employ fewer *shalls* with the second and the third person pronouns.

Hypothesis 3: The use of *will* in L2 students' writing is similar to that in native English students' given these L2 university students' higher proficiency as university English majors.

Methodology

Description of the corpora

As shown in the Table 1 below, the LEC(HK) is a developing learner corpus that consists of about 200 argumentative essays written on various topics. The authors were 2nd and 3rd year English majors at a university in Hong Kong with Cantonese as their mother tongue. The students, on average, had studied English for at least 15 years before attending the university. They should have also shown that they had a more than satisfactory command of English in public examinations before they were admitted into the English Department. The students then studied English literature and linguistics. The present study, therefore, considered this particular group of students advanced English language learners in Hong Kong. The corpus amounted to 177,000 words at the time of this study.

In comparison, the control corpus LOCNESS was comprised mainly British university student essays of approximately 600 words in length. It is obvious that the corpora in use are not totally comparable in size (approximately 1.8:1 in ratio for non-native to native). To standardize the count of search results, the findings from the native data are multiplied by 1.8 to level the ground. Based on random sampling assumption, we can then increase comparability between the two corpora after such standardization. This principle will be applied throughout the calculation of all research data in this study.

Table 1. Corpus Description

	LEC(HK)	LOCNESS
Full Title	Learner English Corpus of University Students in Hong Kong	Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays
Language Data Type	Written language produced by English majors at a university in Hong Kong	Written language produced by native British university students
Size	177,000 words	95,695 words

Software

Concordance Application (ConcApp) V4 (Greaves, 2005) was employed as the concordancing program for abstracting the frequency and actual samples of *shall* and *will* from the LEC(HK) and the LOCNESS Corpora. ConcApp allows for the search of a word, phrase (20 characters maximum), or any occurrence of a word with a given prefix/suffix (C.f. Rodriguez, 1999). SPSS 18.0 was used to process statistics obtained from the corpora.

Procedures

First, concerning the use of the two words in statements, <I shall> <I will> <we shall> <we will> <you shall> <you will> < he/she/it shall > <he/she/it will> <they shall> <they will> were searched in LEC(HK) and LOCNESS respectively. At the same time <I'll> <we'll> <you'll> <he'll> <she'll> <it'll> <they'll> were also found and added to the will frequency.

Secondly, as for the use of the two words in interrogative sentences, <shall I> <shall we> <will we> <shall you> <will you> <shall he> <shall she> <shall it> <will he> <will she> <will it> <shall they><will they> were researched in the two corpora respectively.

Thirdly, their frequency in the two corpora were tallied and compared with statistical procedures (Chi-square tests) to be reported in the next section (Results). Specific corpus entries were also analyzed from a qualitative perspective.

Finally, the possible patterns from the data were categorized to provide a basis for theoretical interpretation and discussion.

Results

Use of *Shall* and *Will* with Pronouns in Statements

Table 2 shows the overall frequency of *shall* and *will* in the two corpora. It seems that the L1 students had very parsimonious use of *shall* in their writing (3.6 weighted instances, 17% of all *shall* occurrences in both corpora). However, their L2 counterparts appeared to include more *shalls* (18 instances, 83% of all *shalls*). In spite of the seemingly significant contrast in *shall* ratio between the two corpora, the small number in each indicates that *shall* was under-used by university students nowadays, no matter whether English is their L1 or L2.

The case of *will* was markedly different from *shall*. First, as can be seen from Table 2, *will* was almost evenly distributed in both LEC(HK) and LOCNESS, which is indicative of a similar overall frequency of *will* among L1 and L2 students. Second, the large number of occurrences proved a high frequency of *will* in both L1 and L2 university writing.

Table 2. Overall Frequency of *Shall* and *Will*

	LEC(HK)	Ratio	LOCNESS	Ratio
shall	18	83%	3.6	17%
will	679	53%	608.4	47%

Note: the LOCNESS numbers were weighted figures being the original number multiplied by 1.8 as discussed in the methodology section. The same is applied below

More intriguing findings would emerge through a closer examination of the collocations of the two words with pronouns, as displayed in Table 3. For *shall*, identical instances (2 in each) were found in both corpora where only the first person plural "we" were followed by *shall*. Very unexpectedly there was no any other pronoun to go with *shall* in statements (that is, *shall* appears to the right of the pronouns), especially in the case of "I", in either of the corpora.

When it comes to *will*, two interesting points can be observed. First, except the case of "he", L2 learners generally had a significantly higher frequency of *will* ($x2 = 60.27$, $p = .000$ for *will*; $x2 = 64.35$, $p = .000$ for *will* + *'ll*), with "you" as the highest (five times more in L2 than in L1 use). Interestingly, native students use will four times more often with "he" than the L2 learners. Second, it seems that both cohorts of students were aware of formality in academic writing so that they only had a limited number of the contracted form of *will* (*'ll*). Though L2 students appeared to favour contraction more than L1 students (14 versus 6 instances), the Chi-square test proved that there was no significant difference ($x2 = 6.81$, $p = .15$). In sum, though L1 and L2 students had comparable overall frequency of *will*, the specific distribution of this word with pronouns showed distinctive patterns between the two groups of writers.

Table 3. Distribution of Shall and Will with Pronouns in Statements

	LEC(HK)		LOCNESS	LEC/LOC	
	shall	*Will + 'll*	*shall*	*Will + 'll*	
I	0	19 (17+2)	0	12.6 (12.6 + 0)	1.35
We	2	66 (57 + 9)	3.6	25.6 (21.6 + 4)	2.64
You	0	20 (18 + 2)	0	3.6 (3.6 + 0)	5
He	0	13 (13 + 0)	0	54.2 (52.2 + 2)	0.25
she	0	5 (4 + 1)	0	3.6 (3.6 + 0)	1.11
it	0	53 (53 + 0)	0	37.8 (37.8 + 0)	1.40
they	0	70 (70 + 0)	0	25.2 (25.2 + 0)	2.78

Note: the two numbers in the parentheses show the specific distribution of *will* and *'ll*.

Use of *shall* and *will* with Pronouns in Interrogative Sentences

There existed very few interrogative sentences with collocations of *shall/will* + pronoun (8 in LEC(HK) and 1 in LOCNESS). Specifically, there were only two *shall* instances in LEC(HK) and zero case in LOCNESS, along with six *wills* in LEC(HK) and 1 *will* in LOCNESS, when *shall/will* occurred in subject-modal inversion to form interrogative sentences.

Discussion

Hypothesis 1 predicted that L2 students would tend to use more *shalls* with "I" and "we" since this is what grammar books and dictionaries prescribe. However, this hypothesis is rejected as the learners demonstrated very similar patterns of shall to those of native speakers in which both groups avoided using *shall* with pronouns in statements except with "we" (but the two instances in each corpora were too low a frequency to be significant). This confirms Yang (2006)'s claim that in statements, both British and American students are gradually replacing *shall* with *will* as a general tense auxiliary verb. What could be added to this claim from the current study is that second language learners also demonstrate a very similar developmental trajectory. There appears to be a linguistic economy principle (Martinet, 1955) in operation in that the simpler the rule is, the easier it would be for learners to acquire. Zipf (1949) proposed the "principle of least effort" which argued that linguistic changes that cause excessive efforts and constitute an obstacle to comprehension will be automatically removed or avoided (cited in Vicentini, 2003). When both *shall* and *will* are able to serve the same function of marking future time reference, it is obvious that the more versatile *will* will be prioritized by learners and *shall* (re-

stricted to only first person pronouns) will be left out. Learners tend to pick up the simpler usage of future tense auxiliary verbs once they encounter such use, no matter whether it runs counter to the most traditional and presumably authoritative definitions in dictionaries or grammar books. What appears to be quite clear is that the "traditional wisdom" as reflected in hypothesis 1 that L2 students would take a more conservative stance in *shall* and *will* is not supported.

Shall can go with the second and the third person pronouns/nouns to express obligation and the speaker's objective judgment in addition to marking the future tense (*Collins Cobuild English Grammar*, 1992). It would denote a current relation between the speaker and the main verb in a present tense. For example, your wish *shall come true* expresses the belief on the part of the speaker, but not the subject of the sentence. Given its usage difficulty in comparison to that of tense auxiliary verb, the second hypothesis argues that L2 learners will tend to avoid using *shall* with the second and the third pronouns. This hypothesis is partially confirmed in that it correctly predicts the evasion of such a usage in LEC(HK). But unfortunately, it is not supported when it comes to the contrast with LOCNESS since native speaking students in their writing also shunned *shalls* with pronouns other than first person ones. This highlights the fact that the use of *shall* with the second and third person pronouns among this group of L2 learners is quite similar to that in their native counterparts. It appears as if *shall* has been gradually replaced by *will* across pronouns.

If the results for the two aforementioned hypotheses on *shall* are somewhat unexpected, the last hypothesis is met with no less surprise. The restrictions on will nowadays already seem so lenient that it can be applied everywhere with pronouns both in being a modal verb expressing willingness and a tense auxiliary verb. However, inferential statistics (Chi-square test) show that, despite their relatively high proficiency, these L2 learners' use patterns of will significantly deviate from their native speaking counterparts'. An in-depth analysis of each pronoun reveals that "you" and "he" are two pronouns where L2 and L1 students vary much more than other pronouns. Drawing on the qualitative data of all instances, it was found that such a discrepancy may result from Chinese students' inclination of using "you" as a universal reference pronoun while British students prefer "he" to sound more objective. For instance:

LEC(HK) (Line No. from original concordancing results):

3) If one day you become a slave of money, ***you will*** be totally controlled by money
5) when you start to learn another language, ***you will*** eventually fail someday.
6) ***You will*** find learning English is challenging but interesting…..
7) If you are graduated from one of those, probably ***you will*** have a greater chance to be hired.

LOCNESS

1) which comes from knowing that so long as he is free ***he will*** always have to decide alone, he can't count on an
11) that the knowledge that he is free will mean that ***he will*** have to take his decisions alone and in anguish an

The above examples suggest that Chinese students tend to be more personal in tone referring to other people while British students remain more impersonal and objective. This may be due to their cultural backgrounds, cliché as it may sound. The belief that the national culture in China and other Chinese-majority societies is "collectivism" or "low individualism" is well documented (Hofstede, 1984, 2001). This cultural imprinting is reflected in the collocation between modal verbs and the pronouns. At the same time, it should not be neglected that classroom instruction on stylistic issues in academic writing, such as formality and tone, would also have a role to play. If the choice of diction and an impartial third person perspective in formal writing are not properly emphasized in the L2 classroom, learners naturally have to reply on their intuition or prior L2 knowledge to write. This issue has gone beyond what these two corpora can offer, but further studies are needed in this area.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings, both the confirmation and rejection of the hypotheses would have relevance for L2 teaching as outlined below:

First of all, the rigid traditional usage of *shall* and *will* with first person pronouns seems outdated. There appear no differences between them as future tense markers. It follows that teaching such a strict distinction in class should be handled with caution.

Then, collocational patterns of *will* with pronouns in academic writing at the tertiary level should be emphasized. Though this may be less concerned with the

modal *will* per se, the use of personal pronouns in this context is an important area in L2 instruction.

Thirdly, it will be beneficial if teachers can look into the phenomenon that students avoid using *shall* with second or third person pronouns as shown in the data. If the avoidance strategy does prevail, the functions of *shall* as objective judgement and obligation should be reiterated in the class.

Last but not the least, in teaching English L2 writing, teachers may consider comparing "cultural stereotypes" across languages as well as related stylistic issues (formality and tone, for instance). This may foster awareness of cultural-linguistic schemata among L2 learners and help them employ appropriate styles when writing in the target language.

Conclusion

This study adopts a corpus-based approach to investigating the collocations between *shall / will* and pronouns. Based on the results obtained from a learner corpus (LEC(HK)) and a native British student corpus (LOCNESS), it was found that the traditional distinction of *shall* to go with the first person pronouns and *will* with second and third pronouns was outdated. In addition, L2 learners appeared to have very similar usage patterns of *shall* to L1 colleague student writings. However, these L2 learners deviated significantly from native students in terms of will use in the collocational patterns with personal pronouns. The results also yield several pedagogical implications for teaching English L2 writing, especially in the use of *shall/will*, personal pronouns and styles. It is hoped that a focused study like this could provide a platform for in-depth discussion in an intriguing area that would provoke further research in L2 teaching.

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Digital Technology in Three Middle School ESL Language Arts Classrooms

Elena Andrei, Coastal Carolina University, South Carolina, USA

Introduction

Evidence indicates that technology integration in the language learning classroom leads to increased participation, engagement, and collaboration among students (Huang & Lin, 2011); a positive classroom climate conducive to language learning (Wang & Vásquez, 2012); and improvements of English language learners' (ELLs) language learning (Felix, 2005). The mere presence of technology, however, does not lead to improved teaching and learning by itself; technology use needs to follow good instructional strategies. Use and implementation of technology in the classroom may range from mere "substitution" of old technology with new technology to "modification" and "redefinition" of instruction (Puentedura, 2012) as will be explained in this paper's theoretical framework section.

Use of email and instant messaging allows for interaction and can engage language learners in written and face-to-face video communication and interaction (Chapelle, 2003). Use of texts as a way to engage language learners can enhance learning of idioms (Hayati, Jalilifar, & Mashhadi, 2013). Blogging increases language learners' confidence (Wang & Vásquez, 2012); blogs, wikis, and social-media sites increase student interaction and collaboration as well as interest and motivation (Wang & Vásquez, 2012). Technology provides students access to a variety of authentic materials and resources in the second language, increasing their language receptive abilities and skills, such as listening or reading (Zhao, 2003).

Liu et al. (2002) reviewed both research-based and non-research-based articles on technology use in foreign- and second-language classes published between 1990 and 2000. The review suggests that "…the use of visual media supported vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension and helped increase achievement scores. The use of online communication tools has been shown to improve writing skills in a number of studies" (p. 262).

Technology integration helps with student achievement and content learning. Page (2002) found that students in classes with integrated technology scored better

on math achievement tests than students in classes with little or no technology available. Students from both the treatment and the control group were also tested with a self-esteem instrument (Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory) in the fall and then in the spring. Based on self-esteem inventory scores, students in technology-integrated instruction had higher levels of self-esteem after the treatment (Page, 2002).

Theoretical Framework

Throughout the following sections I use Puentedura's (2012) SAMR (Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition) model of technology integration. Puentedura (2012) talks about four levels of technology integration: substitution, augmentation, modification and redefinition, which represent the range of technology integration from the most basic, unsophisticated integration, ("substitution"), to a more advanced and sophisticated integration which leads to "redefinition" (of instruction). Table 1 below summarizes the SAMR model as explained by Puentedura (2012).

Table 1. SAMR (Substitution, augmentation, modification and redefinition) Model

Level	Definition
Substitution	Old technology is replaced by new technology; instruction and assignments remain the same.
Augmentation	New technology replaces old technology; instruction and assignments are enhanced by the affordances of the new technology.
Modification	New technology allows for modified assignments and instruction.
Redefinition	New technology allows for new assignments and instruction to be implemented.

Source: Puentedura, R. R. (2012). *The SAMR model: Background and exemplars*
Retrieved from http://www.hippasus.com/rrpweblog/archives/2012/08/23/SAMR_BackgroundExemplars.pdf

Purpose of the Study

Studies on technology and language learning have not typically focused on K-12 settings (Wang & Vásquez, 2012). Consequently, Liu et al. (2002) called for more research at the K-12 level. And Wang and Vásquez (2012) noted that "…future research should also explore how learners in primary and secondary educational settings as well as in more informal learning contexts, are using Web 2.0" (p. 424).

The purpose of the current study, which is part of a larger research project on technology in the classroom, was to examine ways in which three English as a Second Language (ESL) middle school teachers use available digital technology,

such as digital boards, computers, iPads, and iPods, with ELLs in the Language Arts classrooms to promote ELLs' language and Language Arts content learning. The question of this study stems from research that suggests technology helps with language and content learning. The question of the study is: How do three ESL middle school teachers use the digital technology they have in their ESL Language Arts classroom to teach ELLs?

Method

Context and Participants

The study was conducted in the fall of 2012 in a middle school in a mid-sized town in the United States. The participants in this study were three ESL teachers at West Middle School (all names used are pseudonyms), and the ELLs in their ESL Language Arts classes, out of which four were focal students. The three ESL teachers were all licensed to teach ESL and had previous teaching experience. At the time of the study, Ms. Jones and Ms. Miles had 5 years of teaching experience, while Ms. Wong had 4 years. Besides ESL certification, Ms. Miles was also Spanish certified and Ms. Wong was Language Arts (regular English language curriculum for native speakers) and History certified. All three teachers were White and relatively young professionals. The three teachers each taught one Language Arts class to ELLs daily. Each of the teachers was responsible for a different group of students in her ESL Language Arts classes as shown in Table 2. Note that the teachers changed the students in their ESL Language Arts classes three weeks into the study in an attempt to better serve students.

The four students were selected to represent different grade levels, various English proficiency levels, different nationalities, and native languages (see Table 3).

Table 2. Teachers and Language Arts classes

Teacher	ESL LA class before the change	ESL LA class after the change
Ms. Jones	6th grade	Intermediate[1]
Ms. Wong	7th grade	Newcomers
Ms. Miles	8th grade	Advanced

[1] The newcomers, intermediate, and advanced labels used by the teachers refer to their students and their English language proficiency levels based on WIDA scores and on classroom assessments.

Table 3. Student Participants

Student	Grade	Country of origin	Age	Date of U.S. arrival	WIDA1 scores: overall; reading (W-APT or ACCESS)	Languages spoken besides English	English classes in home country
Kiano	6	Kenya	11	May 2012	2.7; 2 (W-APT)	Swahili; Kikuya	Yes
Mei	6	China	11	April 2012	4.6; 4.5 (W-APT)	Chinese	Yes
Vihan	7	India	11	April 2012	2.1; 1.9 (W-APT)	Gujarati; Hindi	Yes
Ali	8	Jordan	14	June 2010	2.2; 1.9 (ACCESS)	Arabic	No

[1] WIDA refers to the language proficiency tests (either W-APT or ACCESS) used at West Middle School to assess English language proficiency. A score of 1 is the lowest level language proficiency, while a 6 is native-like language proficiency.

While research is also needed at the elementary and high school levels, this study focused on middle school classrooms for two reasons: (1) because middle grades are transitional years for ELLs, and (2) because ESL middle school classes, more specifically ESL Language Arts classes, in the school district studied, are generally self-contained classes taught by ESL teachers exclusively to ELLs. At West Middle School, ELLs have their Language Arts content-area class as an ESL Language Arts class taught by ESL teachers. In these classes, the ESL teachers are responsible for teaching the English language and the Language Arts curriculum and for reaching the language and content standards for the respective grade level.

Statistical Procedures

The study followed a qualitative-interpretative approach, specifically an analytic-induction methodology (Erickson, 1986). Data collection consisted of nine teacher interviews (three for each teacher), eight student interviews (two for each student), weekly observations of the three Language Arts classes for a period of 10 weeks, students' Language Arts class notebooks, and classroom documents including PowerPoints and handouts. Data collection, organization, and analysis were parallel and iterative processes. During data collection, I wrote up my observation notes, created weekly memos, and kept a methodological journal.

When all of the data was collected, I read the data corpus in its entirety (including write-ups, analytic memos, the methodological journal, and interview transcripts) and identified emergent themes and possible assertions (following Creswell, 2012). I checked these possible assertions against all the data to assure that any themes and assertions were based on the collected information. The multiple data sources allowed me to triangulate data and base assertions and findings across data sources (Erickson, 1986).

Results

Available Digital Technology

This section summarizes the digital technology available to the three ESL teachers and their students. Each teacher had digital technology readily available in her classroom that could be used exclusively in that class (see Table 4).

Table 4. Available Digital Technology in the ESL Classrooms

	Digital board	Overhead projector for the digital board	Teacher laptop	Document camera	Desktop	iPad	Internet connection (cable and wireless)
Ms. Jones	X	X	X	X	X		X
Ms. Wong	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ms. Miles	X	X	X		X		X

In addition, there was digital technology that was available only to the three ESL teachers that they shared as an ESL Department (see Table 5).

Table 5. Digital Technology Available at all Times through the ESL Department

Technology	Number of units available
Laptop	4
iPod (Touch) with headsets	15

The school also had two computer labs: one PC desktop lab on the same hallway as the three ESL classrooms, and a Mac desktop computer lab; an iPad cart; and several laptop carts. The library had four desktop computers. According to

Ms. Jones, the school also had photo and flip cameras, iPod touches, and small tablets on which users could write and project on digital boards (personal communication). School-wide available technology (iPod carts, computer labs, photo and flip cameras) was used less frequently than classroom or ESL Department technology; only one lab, the PC desktop lab, and the desktops from the library were used by ESL teachers during this study. The one observed instance when the PC lab was used was when all three teachers and all their students were having the same class and the same activity in the same class period. Instead of concentrating on this rarer usage, this study focuses and reports on the most frequently used technology teachers employed: digital boards used in conjunction with the projectors and teacher laptops, computers, iPads, and iPod touches.

If we think of technology integration in the classroom as a way to enhance the learning of content matter concepts, generalizations, and skills (Banister & Vannata Reinhart, 2011), then the digital technology available to the three ESL teachers was integrated and viewed by teachers and students as support and as a resource for second language and/or Language Arts content learning. Teachers were using available technology not in sophisticated ways, but in old ways so that the potential of the technologies for instructional purposes was not reached. The teachers were using the new technology most times as mere "substitution" of old technology and only rarely as "redefinition" of instruction (Puentedura, 2012). The collected data yielded some common instances of technology integration during the study.

Instructional Uses

Digital Boards.

The digital board each of the teachers had in her classroom was connected to the teacher's laptop or document camera and used to show daily dialogue journal writing prompts, to review Language Arts content, to give instructions, and/or to model and explain tasks to students.

Daily dialogue journal. The digital board was used almost daily by all three teachers. The most common use was for sharing the dialogue journal writing prompt of the day at the beginning of the ESL Language Arts block. The prompt was sometimes related to Language Arts content but not always. For example one

prompt read: “Describe our class using an example of figurative language (hyperbole, personification, simile, metaphor)”. This prompt was directly related to Language Arts content Ms. Miles was teaching that week. Another prompt from Ms. Jones’s class read: “How was ICA on Friday? Did you find your activity enjoyable? Did you meet new people? Who was your teacher?” This prompt, which asked students to free write about a school-wide Friday electives activity, was not directly connected to the Language Arts content. Both these prompts aimed at developing students’ communication writing skills.

The students considered the use of the digital board important for their learning, allowing them to see the dialogue journal prompt or draw from ideas displayed on it. For example,

Kiano mentioned that the digital board “...helps you that you see what’s there and you can put in your notebook.”

Vihan said the digital board allowed him to see the dialogue journal prompt, models or ideas students could use: “To show that – what’s the question, and we can use – what she did or what she always do is put some ideas beside it, and we can use them.”

All three teachers read dialogue journal prompts to students before asking them to write. Sometimes they also explained and/or rephrased for the students what they were being asked to write about. This way, the content of the dialogue journal prompt was delivered to the students in various modalities: visual, audio, and rephrasing to ensure comprehensible input.

However, for the prompt to be shared with students, the teachers did not necessarily need digital boards. They could have used the available white boards in their classrooms in the same manner; in other words, digital board integration happened at the basic level of “substitution” (Puentedura, 2012).

Content review. The digital board was also used to review Language Arts content. For example, in Ms. Miles’s class, when students were working on figurative language, she reviewed types of figurative language as a whole-class activity using PowerPoint. Individual students, when called on by Ms. Miles, had to decide if the sentence was a metaphor, simile, hyperbole, or personification. The PowerPoint had one sentence per slide and an accompanying visual in the form of a picture. The way the activity unfolded allowed Ms. Miles to provide immediate feedback

and possible scaffolding for students to identify the figurative language correctly. Ms. Miles encouraged peer interaction to help students respond correctly. The PowerPoint use allowed for multiple representations that could help with language learning. However, this activity could have been accomplished with an overhead projector. This suggests again that teachers used the digital board merely at the "substitution" level (Puentedura, 2012).

In another instance of using the digital board to review content, Ms. Miles led a review on Latin roots. She posted on the digital board a table with the roots to be reviewed. After students individually worked on the roots (students were given a worksheet with a table of Latin roots), they were asked, one by one, to come to the digital board to fill in the table with the meaning of the roots and examples. Figure 1 shows the table Ms. Miles posted on the digital board; the table resembled the worksheet the students had worked on individually. This activity used the interactivity of the digital board more as the students wrote on it, but it did not add benefit to instruction more than a white board or document camera would have.

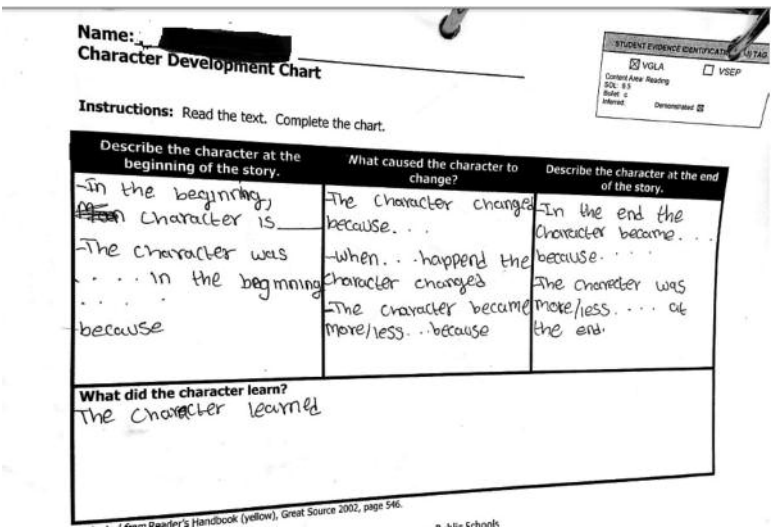
	Definition	Example
Audi		
Dict		
Port		
Rupt		
Scrib/script		
Spect		
Struct		
Tract		
Vis		

Figure 1. Digital Board Table to Review Language Arts Content

Model and provide instructions. The digital board was used to model how to take notes. Showing students how to accomplish a task is a way to support their learning and accomplishment of complex tasks which they would not be able to do without support (Walqui, 2006). For example, Ms. Wong conducted an experiment with the students and showed them how to fill in their experiment notes on a worksheet she had under the document camera. The students in her room were newcomers, and the fact that Ms. Wong wrote and showed them how to fill in the experiment worksheet provided a model for the students. Thus, the digital board and the document camera became a support for students. In this case again, the digital board and its capabilities were not used at full potential. The digital board

was used at the "substitution" level (Puentedura, 2012) as a mere replacement for the white board.

Also, in another instance, Ms. Jones used the document camera via the digital board to share sentence starters to help students complete an upcoming assignment. While Ms. Jones was filling in the worksheet, she was talking and prompting the students about what they would say and write as their sentence starters. This use of the digital board allowed Ms. Jones to model for students how to fill in the worksheet and ensured that all of them had the language resources, the sentence starters in this case, to finish the assignment. Modeling and language support help ELLs to be successful and perform instructional tasks that might otherwise be too complex for them, given their language proficiency levels. Figure 2 shows a completed worksheet from one of the students. In this example, as in previous ones, the digital board was used like a projector.


Name: [redacted]
Character Development Chart

Instructions: Read the text. Complete the chart.

Describe the character at the beginning of the story.	What caused the character to change?	Describe the character at the end of the story.
-In the beginning, ~~the~~ character is____ -The character was . . . in the beginning . . . . -because	-The character changed because. . . -when. . .happend the character changed -The character became more/less. . .because	-In the end the character became. . . because. . . -The character was more/less. . . . at the end.

What did the character learn?
The character learned

Reader's Handbook (yellow), Great Source 2002, page 546.

Figure 2. Notes Page Filled in by Student (Kiano, Ms. Jones class)

Summary of use. There are several reasons why digital boards in the three classrooms were not used and integrated at full capacity at the levels of "modification" or "redefinition" (Puentedura, 2012). A digital board can represent material in multimodal ways (visual and audio) and can allow for student engagement with the material (Mechling, Gast, & Krupa, 2007) by creating, modifying and/or

adding to it; and can access resources such as websites, videos, or simulations (Preston & Mowbray, 2008). In Ms. Wong's case, the digital board in her classroom did not work properly.

Ms. Wong was aware of the possibilities of the digital board software, but the repeated technical difficulties prevented her from using the digital board at full capacity. In addition, the time needed to invest in developing materials for the digital board seemed to be an obstacle in using all its capabilities. In the same vein, Ms. Jones mentioned the lack of time needed to use new technologies as obstacles in integrating new technology even more in the classroom. Ms. Wong also noticed the time invested in developing materials or content on the digital board would be worth it only if she could re-use the materials.

Computers and iPad.

This section illustrates how the available computers (both desktops and laptops) and the iPad were being used for student activities to learn and practice the language and facilitate meaning making.

English language learning. Students in Ms. Wong's class used several language learning websites they could access on computers or on the iPad for their English language learning. The following were websites Ms. Wong assigned her newcomers to use or allowed them to choose from: www.raz-kids.com, www.littlebridge.com or www.spellingcity.com. These websites were intended to help the students learn and practice spelling (www.spellingcity.com); learn and practice basic language words and expressions such as colors, objects and rooms in the house, or greeting people (www.littlebridge.com); or practice reading by following along the computer read aloud (www.raz-kids.com).

PowerPoint presentations. In only one observation students were observed creating PowerPoint slides on computers themselves. Ms. Miles asked her students to create a PowerPoint presentation to present types of texts such as lists, sequence of events, or similarities and differences. These allowed students to show what they know by employing both text and visuals. In this specific class, students were asked to show what they know related to a Language Arts content standard.

Google applications. Google Images and Google Translate were used to facilitate vocabulary learning or meaning making and were generally used in smaller groups or one-on-one activities. Both Ms. Jones and Ms. Miles used Google Im-

ages to show and/or remind students of the meaning of spelling words they were practicing. Since Ms. Wong had the iPad in her room, she used that for Google Images; Ms. Jones used her laptop. Other ways of conveying the meaning as an alternative or complement to Google Images were drawing on a small white board, looking the word up in a print-based bilingual dictionary, acting out words, or giving examples.

Ms. Wong used Google Images more often than other teachers, possibly because as teacher of the newcomer group, she taught students with lower English proficiency levels who were in the process of learning new words and expressions. Google Images afforded Ms. Wong and her students quick representations of various new vocabulary words whose meaning students did not know.

Students used Google Translate as a resource to help with reading. For example, in Ms. Wong's room, a student had Google Translate open in a tab next to the www.raz-kids.com site where he read a book with colored pictures. From time to time, while reading he would type and check meanings of words he found in the reading in his native language, using Google Translate.

In interviews, students mentioned they considered that use of computers in the classroom helped them learn and supported them with their language. The students mentioned the computers and the Internet allowed them to find and learn information they needed; listen to books; type faster and get mistakes corrected.

Computers and iPad level of integration. In comparison with the digital board, the computers and the iPad seemed to be used in more sophisticated ways that enhanced the tasks. Computer and iPad integration appears to be at the "augmentation" stage (Puentedura, 2012). Students seemed to be comfortable using and accessing different websites and applications on the computers. However, besides the language learning websites, creating PowerPoint presentations and the Google applications, no other use of computers and iPads was observed during this study (e.g., doing research on the web on a certain topic, blogging, creating wikis or podcasts, and use of various iPad applications for language and content learning).

iPods.

Reading fluency. For reading fluency, I observed Ms. Miles and Ms. Wong use the iPods with newcomer students: students practiced reading a text aloud, recorded it on iPods, and then listened to their recordings. After students listened

to the recordings, they decided to record again or shared their recordings with the teacher for feedback. Ms. Jones was not observed using the iPods for reading fluency, but in an interview she said she had been using them with her students, too.

Spelling tests. The teachers recorded spelling tests on iTunes. As a note, the teachers used the label "spelling tests" in a somewhat misleading way. The tests and the objective of the activity of practicing new words that have a common spelling forms or patterns was to study new words both in terms of their spelling but also in terms of meaning and usage.

Each student, depending on his/her diagnostic assignment and progress, was given a different list of words and subsequently tests that addressed his or her needs. According to Ms. Jones, the word lists and tests were from a book *Words their Way* (Helman et al., 2012) that targets spelling, decoding, and phonemes. The advantage of having these tests recorded on iPods was twofold: teachers could differentiate the tests to address students' needs and progress; and students could listen to the words as many times as needed. When asked about this, students acknowledged that it was helpful.

There is value in practicing the phonemes of English with ELLs, especially phonemes that are not common to their native language, as it helps develop ELLs' reading and writing (August & Shanahan, 2006). Different students who come from different countries and had different native languages need more support with some aspects of phonemes than others.

The iPods afforded the students the independence of listening to the tests as many times as they needed so they could be successful and allowed for differentiation of tests based on students' readiness and language proficiency levels.

iPod level of integration. In both cases of iPod use—fluency and spelling—the technology was used and integrated to support language learning at the "augmentation" level, allowing assignments to be enhanced by their affordances such as availability of a digital collection of recordings. In terms of other possible usages, Ms. Miles acknowledged: "We haven't been using them [the iPods] as much for the apps. We haven't had the time to invest in looking, creating, and downloading apps to say, 'Here, go ahead and try out these things.' That just hasn't been on the radar of priorities for this year." As with the use of the digital board and the creation of content using the digital board software, there seemed not to be "enough

time" to plan for more technology integration in the classroom. Lack of time seems to be an obstacle for more technology integration in the classroom and a more sophisticated way of using it, although one wonders if this is possibly the verbalization of a psychological barrier.

Implications and Conclusion

The previous sections provided examples of technology integration in three ESL classrooms that enhanced language and content learning. The use of the digital board for the daily dialogue journal prompt created opportunities for development of written communication skills. Modeling and language support using the digital board allowed students to perform academic tasks. The use of language learning websites that employ both visuals and audio allowed for multiple representations of content. The use of images and translations of unknown words in students' native language helped with language learning and meaning making. The use of iPods to practice fluency and phonemes allowed students to produce the language and provided opportunities for language learning and reading.

However, the integration of available technology in many ways was not sophisticated, and could be expanded so that further capabilities of technology are used in more interactive and hands-on ways, engaging students and enhancing instruction. Most times, technology level of integration in the three ESL classrooms was at the "substitution" level with some instances of "augmentation." The digital boards, although employed on a daily basis, were typically used in much the same way as old technology (projectors or white boards). Digital boards have the capacity of being immediately sensitive to classroom discussion topics and students' needs by having access to Internet and various digital board software applications. The iPods and the iPad could have been used more with language and content learning applications; likewise, no iPod applications were used for language or content learning. The three teachers themselves, central office staff, instructional coaches, peers, and outside experts could identify, test, and recommend to teachers available new technology applications targeted towards language and content learning for ESL students. In addition there are app review sites where teachers can go and find educational applications that are available.

The technology the students and teachers in this study had access to was varied and up to date. The digital boards, document cameras, computers, iPods and In-

ternet connection are all potentially great tools which can engage students and teachers in teaching and learning of both language and content. However, the mere presence of technology does not lead to a sophisticated use that takes advantage of all its capabilities and affordances. Technology in these three classes was used in old ways (at the "substitute" or "augmentation" levels) rather than sophisticated, interactive, hands-on ways, at the "modification" and "redefinition" levels (Puentedura, 2012).

In the context of technology use in everyday life, schools have been trying to gain new technological equipment such as computers, Internet connectivity and bandwidth, and software applications in order to prepare students for the 21st century (Cuban, 2001). If the available technology is not used at its maximum capacity and in more interactive and more sophisticated ways, there is a loss of resources and opportunities for students and their learning. In this era of globalization, multiculturalism, and ever-present and ever-changing technology, students need to have learning skills (be able to effective communicate and collaborate efficiently, be problem solvers and critical thinkers); life skills (be able to use knowledge and skills to adapt to current and future circumstances); and technology skills (use technology and identify credibility of information and sources), often labeled as 21st century skills (The Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2011).

Technology integration in schools should enhance instruction by allowing and empowering students to construct their own meaning and use their prior knowledge (Richards, 2005). Technology integration does not mean merely replacing the LCD with a digital board; in other words, technology use and integration must go beyond the simple superficial changes that replace one tool with another newer one (Jacobs, 2010). Technology integration should be used at the higher levels of integration as identified by Puentedura (2012), "modification" and "redefinition". Thus, there should be a "… focus on teaching with technology — rather than introducing technology as an available yet peripheral tool —emphasizing technology as an integral tool with diverse uses and inherent potential to enhance teaching and learning…" (Russell et al., 2003, p. 309).

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About the Author

Elena Andrei is an assistant professor of literacy with emphasis on English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Her previous work experiences include serving as an English as a foreign language teacher in her native Romania and as an ESOL teacher in North Carolina. Dr. Andrei teaches both literacy and ESOL certification classes. Her research interests are second language literacy, teacher education, and non-native English speaking teachers.

L2 Cultural Negotiation in English as a Lingua Franca

Alec Lapidus, University of Southern Maine, USA

Introduction

L2 cultural negotiation is becoming one of the increasingly important concepts in teaching English to speakers of other languages. In particular, recent thoughts on the emergence of English as a lingua franca (e.g., Ammon, 2007; Baker, 2009; Crystal, 1997; Jenkins, 2006; Park & Wee, 2012) and its role as a language that allows speakers of other languages negotiate meaning over artifacts illuminate the need for a new understanding of how this process works. While it has been traditionally assumed in our community that the native speaker is a target norm when it comes to interpretation of cultural phenomena (i.e., the student either understands or does not understand), this decidedly colonial model is no longer appropriate in a world where ethnic, national, and other socio-cultural boundaries are becoming increasingly blurred (Auge, 2000). In this open coded data study, this simplistic model in which only one norm is possible is questioned and interpretations which enhance our understanding of how meaning is constructed by non-native English speakers who orient themselves toward this world of English as a lingua franca are explored.

Of particular interest here is the idea that reading comprehension, as an important part of the process of meaning construction, can be approached from a different angle in ESL pedagogy. Specifically, if we are to accept that lingua francas are not simply a manifestation of the norm which gravitates toward the native speaker and instead exemplify something that allows non-native English speakers to communicate their thoughts, ideas, and feelings in a manner that is meaningful even if they do not match the target norm, then English language learners' expression of these is a manifestation of personal linguaculture (Risager, 2008) that is not unlike what we see in their interlanguage. However, it can also be argued that this personal linguaculture does not have as its objective and ultimate aim the development of the native speaker norm; instead, the way personal linguaculture expresses itself through literacy shows the degree to which every human being is unique. From this perspective, this qualitative study is an attempt to cognize a wider array of changes in ESL pedagogy which are yet to come. While the many

questions which arise out of this new orientation toward a different world of English speakers cannot be answered immediately, the author seeks to problematize the idea of the target norm, especially as it is interpreted in the ESL classroom today, and to offer the audience an opportunity to peek into the world of L2 cultural negotiation from the point of view of cross-cultural hermeneutics.

Review of the Literature

Teaching a second language means teaching cultural negotiation, whether directly or indirectly, and the ability to speak a second language also means at least being able to converse and work with people from cultures other than one's own – new cultural knowledge is translated into schema which is then used to interpret new cultural knowledge (Baddock, 1983; Hill, 1990; Guthrie & Guthrie, 1987; Kasper, 2000; Lapidus, 2008a, 2008b, 2010). Naturally, this can be interpreted as the idea that cultural schemata that are related to one's L1 cause what is not unlike L1 interference in the process of second language acquisition, i.e., the acquisition of the target norm is made harder by the fact that the learner is distracted by what he or she already knows based on his or her experience in his/her L1 culture. In turn, this makes it difficult for L2 learners to construct meaning that more closely resembles the target norm (McLaughlin, 1987; Trueba, 1987), which leads to misunderstanding and even damage to personal linguaculture – if the function of language is to help human beings understand each other, then the situation in which the meaning that is constructed in a dyad deviates significantly from the target norm results in a failure to communicate.

A brief look at today's most popular ESL textbooks reveals the presence in them of the idea that an English language learners' prior experience cannot be completely discarded; however, the question of cultural negotiation is approached from the old perspective which dictates that the target norm must be achieved by any means necessary. Therefore, the notion that English is, in fact, a lingua franca that carries with it not simply the ability to access a shared, common core of knowledge, but also the possibility of many target norms or even no norms in the traditional sense, does not necessarily find an application in the modern ESL textbook. Furthermore, the ESL texts that we use in the classroom tend to give our students an opportunity to look into the mysterious world of the native English speaker, and yet they do not always place the ESL learners' experience on the same level

as the importance of the acquisition of factual knowledge that pertains to the L2 culture. In turn, this essentialization of L2 culture, while it does make our job a little easier, does not answer the fundamental question as to what happens when non-native English speakers in the lingua franca paradigm encounter texts that are laden with what would traditionally be seen as cultural capital accessible only to those in the in-group.

Research questions

In the process of reading a US-produced comic strip, how is meaning constructed by three randomly chosen, culturally and linguistically diverse ESL speakers who are graduate students and ESL teachers, and how is the meaning that is constructed influenced by the subjects' knowledge base?

Method

Materials

Recently, the presence of visual literacy materials (and visual narratives, such as comics, in particular) in the classroom has become more acceptable than it used to be (e.g., Brunk, 2006; Cary, 2004; Krashen & Ujiie, 1996; Norton, 2001). While the study of the role visual narratives can play in the process of L2 cultural negotiation in the ESL classroom is an emergent field, the idea that they have potential as alternatives to verbal literacy, (e.g., as an empowerment tool, The New London Group, 1996) has been expressed in the literature since at least the early 1980s (Baddock, 1983; Hill, 1990; Norton, 2001). Though visual narratives have simultaneously been rejected and dismissed as texts that are not legitimate cultural literacy materials (e.g, Cary, 2004; Norton, 2001; Norton & Toohey, 2003; and others), ESL students express an intense affinity for visual narratives and embrace them as literacy materials (Cary, 2004; Hill, 1990; Kasper, 2000). It is posited that the humor and visuals can be understood as helping the learner interpret the meaning of the text in a new and exciting way despite, or perhaps due to, the culture which saturates much of what visual narratives tend to represent (Lapidus, 2010).

"Monty," a Sunday comic strip, was chosen because it used simple, easy to understand language while openly requiring American English cultural schemata

if used within the native-set "ideal" model. Interpretation, from the traditional point of view, would be complicated by humor, including mild sarcasm. In a strip that consists of six panels, Monty, the protagonist, is visited by an obese and balding entity identifying himself as a tooth fairy. The tooth fairy checks his records and sees that Monty has recently lost a filling. Monty, who has not lost a tooth since the age of eleven, is surprised to hear that he could have been rewarded for retaining the filling, which he has thrown away, and is then told that a filling is indeed worth 75 cents in mouthwash coupons. Visibly upset that the entity woke him up at 3:35am, he orders the tooth fairy to leave the room. On the way out, the tooth fairy informs Monty that wisdom teeth are worth ten thousand miles on a major US airline but fails to impress Monty and still must leave.

Participants and procedure

All three participants were full-time graduate students in their twenties. Two participants were female ("Abby" and "Cindy"), and one was male ("Bob," all names have been changed). The participants came from an island in the Pacific Ocean where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), an island in the Pacific Ocean where it is taught as a second language (ESL), and a country in Northern Africa where it is taught as a foreign language. Two of them were raised in environments where English was taught as a foreign language, and one of the participants grew up in a bilingual environment where English was used in daily life. All three were fluent speakers of English as a lingua franca and employed as teachers of English, thus representing the imagined community of persons who specialize in teaching ESL/EFL (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavlenko, 2003).

Once the interview questionnaire was drafted (see Appendix), the participants were given a copy of the comic strip and five minutes to read it. Each participant was then interviewed by the researcher ("Interviewer"), and the interviews were recorded. Each interview was then carefully transcribed, and each transcript was studied and examined for answers to the research questions. Thematic categories were defined during the process of data analysis, which ultimately allowed the researcher to draw conclusions based on the interviews.

Results

Three thematic categories were evident from the results of the interviews:

1) Interpretation of factual information (e.g., description of the characters);
2) Explanation (i.e., interpretation of the observed);
3) Stereotypes.

Two participants had no pre-existing knowledge of the Western concept "tooth fairy," while one participant was told about the existence of tooth fairies as a child. For example:

> ABBY: I never heard about a tooth fairy before I came here.
>
> BOB: A lady that comes to give you money to replace your tooth when you lose a tooth. A tooth fairy is a lady who comes in and takes your tooth or takes your tooth and exchanges it for... For money.

All three had pre-existing knowledge of flying and the frequent flyer concept, shopping, and saving money through coupons, as well as other common schemata, such as having to close annoying pop-up windows when using the Internet, losing teeth, and seeking privacy:

> ABBY: Normally offer money but here it's coupon and bonus, Sky Miles on Delta, which is not… (laughing)…
>
> BOB: But this is like a pop-up ad, out of a computer.
>
> ABBY: Actually, it's tooth fairy, they usually… In my country, we usually just throw the tooth and we hope for another and we hope for another beautiful one but here, they get money instead of it, which is mean that they are looking for money more than, you know, erm, what we call it, it's not something that's, you know, er, can be touched or (inaudible)… I, I forgot the word for it, but, er… It's not feeling and this, something that can be hold and touched, and you can pay for it, you know, things like that. I don't, I forgot the word for it.

All three were able to successfully describe the characters (e.g., the character's physical appearance), but the inferences made from the interaction between the characters varied. While interpretations of why Monty refused the tooth fairy's offer varied to a certain extent, all three participants cited economic reasons:

> ABBY: Because… the character is a man and has wings.
>
> INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm…

ABBY: His dress is like Roman.

CINDY: He was shouting to him…

INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm.

CINDY: He… He was pretty annoyed.

ABBY: (laughing) And bonus, which they usually don't get, and, you know, coupon that's just 75 cents, nothing, but they ran to it, and save (inaudible) nothing too.

BOB: You know, he may, he may be, you know, Monty might be suggesting that, that he does not give a damn, you know, about what the tooth fairy is offering. And especially, I think, eh… eh… Well, no, no, and I can't, I have to take that back because, because Monty is just dealing with the filling and not an actual tooth and, and, and I think it's also because the tooth fairy isn't someone who Monty might have expected.

BOB: Because of economic constraints and the lack of money, eh, like the tooth fairy here is offering coupons, eh, in replace of money, which may, you know, which may suggest, you know, just, just economic hardships.

Furthermore, according to the participants, Monty refused the offer because he was not an "arrogant," "naïve" Westerner (except Cindy), as he did not care about the perceived values of the target community; because the tooth fairy was annoying; because Monty was ashamed of losing his filling and then being confronted by an unexpected guest (a person of authority); and because Monty lost touch with his inner child upon reaching puberty and was deprived of his rights to imagination by his parents:

BOB: Erm, it can also be that he doesn't care, he does not care about this practice, and, and the filling the role of a… a… of… You know, parents may, some parents may not even be wanting, or, wanting to fill the lines, or allow children… Children to have some type of imagination, that a tooth fairy exists, and so, because, because this guy does not believe in the tooth…

Stereotypes resulting from the combination of the subjects' existing schemata and the new information acquired from the comic strip were then elicited. References to the perceived Western system of values, especially the view of the target L2 community as a commonwealth of business-minded independent individuals achieving puberty at a certain age, were made. Perceived materialism, tendency

to be self-centered and privacy-minded, and the importance of the concept of saving money, such as through the ten thousand bonus miles cited as an example, in the target community were also among the stereotypes mentioned:

> ABBY: This is the American life. It's coupon, never money in your hands (laughing).
>
> INTERVIEWER: OK, so what is Monty's response and why?
>
> ABBY: He was surprised that this man don't want his money. And… Er… Now, that's it, he was surprised that no one wanted his coupon.
>
> INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm…
>
> ABBY: Because this is not usual. They off… They all scram toward anything that's free, and, you know… (laughing).
>
> ABBY: Material! It's a material, materialistic society, this is what we can call American culture…
>
> BOB: Hm, the only thing, the only thing that keeps point out is, these 10,000 bonus SkyMiles. It seems like even for something as loosing a filling, you can earn something, that, that, that Americans may, erm, are tight with money, one; two, that, you know, I don't wanna use, eh… Cheapskate is a very bad term… Greedy, greedy would be a good term. Erm… always having something to do to get something free. That, in exchange for something I have, you have to give me something back. You know, that you can't just give me something because, you know… And it's a two-way street, too. If you want 10,000 SkyMiles, you know, then you have to do this for me. And if, and then, and then, you know, the other person can be like, you know, erm, I'll do this if you can give me this other thing. Yeah, so it's always this, this, this negotiation of, of, of… This negotiation of, you know, I'll do this for you if you do this for me under the codename, "Let's help each other."

Overall, the participants were able to construct meaning from the text. Despite the fact that the meaning they constructed varied from individual to individual and was not a perfect copy of the "ideal" native speaker-defined standard, the participants were not only able to demonstrate the meaning they constructed, but they actually managed to explain in detail why and how the meaning they constructed could be justified, effectively communicating their points of view to the interlocutor.

Discussion

Despite the lack of proper schemata for the term "tooth fairy," the participants were able to infer the meaning of the word from the context. The one subject who was previously told about the concept of a "tooth fairy" when he was a child, Bob, further built upon it to differentiate between the ideal and the given representation of a "tooth fairy." For instance, the meaning inferred by the two subjects without schemata for the concept was that a tooth fairy is a potentially annoying, pop-up-like, and preferably female character with supernatural powers, in Roman clothes and in possession of magical artifacts, such as a magic wand and a roll of ancient papyrus (i.e., from the anthropological point of view, artifacts):

ABBY: And read an old paper, ancient paper, roll. And then get out a coupon and have a stick, magic stick.

All three participants understood that a tooth fairy comes to take one's tooth, while that person is asleep, reaches underneath the pillow, extracts the tooth from its location, and replaces the tooth with money (indeed, a version very close to the native-set ideal) or some other item of a monetary value. Contrary to one of the participants' observation that a tooth fairy must be male, the participant with existing schemata for the concept, Bob, repeatedly pointed out that a man with "bolding hair" and unattractive facial features may not, in fact, be a "real" tooth fairy. Schemata then actively contributed to meaning construction based on the images of the characters, yet lack thereof caused neither significant distraction from the ideal norm nor led the participants in a direction that was impossible for them to explain and personally identify with:

INTERVIEWER: So what does a tooth fairy normally look like?

CINDY: For me… (laughing)… Er, the image would be… would be a lady (laughing).

All of the participants were able to realize not only that Monty was angry (based on contextual clues, such as Monty shouting at the "tooth fairy"), but that his anger was caused by the person identifying himself as a "tooth fairy." Furthermore, the negative attitude toward the visitor exhibited by Monty was detected by the participants; each of them was able to explain the reasons why he/she felt Monty was displeased with the appearance and utterances produced by the visitor. The interpretation of this anger varied from participant to participant, and that was

where differences based on schemata were further manifested. Consider the following example:

INTERVIEWER: OK… Alright, excellent! OK, so… So what is Monty's response? What's his response?

CINDY: Response to what?

INTERVIEWER: To the offer.

CINDY: To offer?

INTERVIEWER: Yeah. What does he do?

CINDY: He was shouting to him…

INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm.

CINDY: He… He was pretty annoyed.

INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm.

CINDY: Pretty upset. Erm. He… er… he didn't let any offer from him.

For instance, the age of eleven, which Monty mentions, is cited by Bob as the time of transition and a period of entering adulthood. The comic strip then becomes a metaphor for such a "crossover," an illustration of how in puberty a person can no longer reconnect with the norm set of pre-adolescence. This transition is forced by parents depriving their child of imagination, resulting in a development of a less caring, somewhat self-centered individual who (this varies from one participant to another) refuses to accept the truth or admit wrongdoing, goes against the materialistic social norm of seeking better deals, and without any hesitation defends his privacy by explicitly telling the guest to leave his property:

CINDY: (laughing) Anything he doesn't want… Like a, like a filling, the… Like a coupon… for a, what's that, a… For Total Control Listerine, anti-, antiseptic…

INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm.

CINDY: Things like that. Even, even when he was up, he was get out of the room.

In another example of how schemata influence perception, the economic aspect of the dialog taking place was mentioned by all three participants. However, one participant pitied the "tooth fairy" because the character appeared poor and reduced to handing out coupons while having lost the respect the "fairy" used to get from

the booming population, suggesting "economic hardship" (Bob). Monty in this situation is seen as a greedy person who refuses the old, traditional scheme of exchanging an item for an item and instead leaves the "tooth fairy" in his/her misery.

Another participant believes that, on the contrary, the "tooth fairy" tries to trick Monty into purchasing the goods he does not need. For example, the tooth fairy character is described by Abby as being "surprised that this man doesn't want his money" and "that no one wanted his coupon." Here, Monty becomes a victim and the "fairy" becomes a door-to-door, "not very attractive" salesman (Bob) shaming Monty into fulfilling his part of the socioeconomic obligation to provide a tooth in exchange for services. Bob details the temptation faced by Monty, who has to choose between maintaining his privacy and saving money. This inner conflict spills into an all-out confrontation when the deal is not what Monty has expected – and, therefore, there came a perceived revelation about the target culture where both parties in a dyad try to carefully maintain a balance between the private and the social.

Furthermore, a certain danger lies in stereotypes that can result from personal schemata combined with the content of the L2 text. For instance, when forced into making a sweeping generalization about the L2 culture based on this one artifact, all three participants constructed a stereotype (in a number of forms) in which America was seen as a culture devoid of non-materialistic camaraderie and facing economic hardship in an environment that does not support imagination. In fact, one of the participants added to this her own interpretation of the underlying mystery as to why Monty refused the offer:

> CINDY: Pretty upset. Erm. He… er… He didn't let any offer from him.
>
> INTERVIEWER: OK, and why?
>
> CINDY: Why? Erm… Because he refused to accept the fact…
>
> INTERVIEWER: Uh-hm…
>
> CINDY: He… that he, he has lost any tooth? Yeah. Hm… Erm… They are arrogant… er… That, er… They are afraid to admit that they are wrong or… er… Something faulting them… Erm… And also naïve…

L2 texts – indeed, all texts – can be polysemantic (Hanauer, 2001), and the polysemanticity of the text that was chosen for this study reflects the fact that culture does not exist independently of the human mind, i.e., it is based on interpretation

of the meaning of artifacts. Of course, it can also be argued that a given artifact never represents the whole and that even an artist's interpretation of cultural values is necessarily unique to him/her. Similarly, individuals interpreting the meaning of the story told in this comic strip based their interpretation of the phenomenon they saw not on culture in the abstract, but on their personal schemata both as members of imagined communities (Anderson, 2006; Kanno & Norton, 2003; Pavlenko, 2003) associated with their L1 and imagined communities associated, from their perspective, with the L2. In turn, a diverse linguistic community arises out of the idea that multiple points of view are possible and that the recognition of these schemata's existence does not automatically mean that one set of norms should be imposed on the language learners (Hanauer, 2003).

A very important assumption is that, despite lacking immediately apparent background knowledge of some of the concepts, the participants would be able to negotiate the meaning even further, had they been ESL students working in a structured cooperative environment, such as that attributed to teams in the collaborative learning philosophy of education. One may see the resulting final product as a branch of a tree, in which the stem is the more accepted native-set standard and the branches represent the individual, an alternative stemming from the same roots but, and this is also possible, not the same stem.

Practical Ramifications

While this short study can only be one piece of the puzzle, a few specific recommendations for the classroom can be derived. The motivation for this study emerged at the intersection of the researcher's interest in visual literacy in the ESL classroom and the extreme need to re-think how culture is taught in the same classroom. In particular, looking at L2 cultural negotiation through the lens of personal linguaculture, as described above (Risager, 2008), it can be said that visual literacy materials – or, in fact, multiliteracy materials of any kind (The New London Group, 1996) – can provide an alternative to only focusing on verbal literacy in the L2 classroom. From this perspective, this study affects classroom practice in the following ways.

First, multiliteracy materials in the L2 classroom can be conceptualized as more than mere illustrations that play a supplementary role in the teaching and learning process. Indeed, visual literacy materials, such as comics and other visual

narratives, are a great conversation starter for the Communicative Language Teaching classroom or Suggestopedia exercises. But even more importantly, the status of such materials could be elevated to that of what is traditionally seen as legitimate literacy materials (Cary, 2004; Norton, 2001; Norton & Toohey, 2003). Weaving such materials into the ESL curriculum could be a more systematic effort on our part as a community of practice.

Second, at the moment, literature on this subject is extremely scarce. For instance, for an ESL teacher who would like experiment with visual narratives in his/her classroom, Cary's book on comics in a multilingual classroom (2004) can serve as an excellent starting point, but very few other book-length writings on this topic or guides exist. While some may see this as a problem, the researcher believes that it is the opposite – it is an opportunity to experiment with this type of materials and create something new. A typical introduction to ESL teaching methodology for pre-service teachers consists of a review of methods (Direct, Audiolingual, CLT, and so forth), including some of the more recently developed ones, but it does not tend to integrate multiliteracy materials to the fullest extent possible. Thus, it can be argued, new ESL teachers are not necessarily experienced in using comics and other visual narratives in the classroom, which, essentially, allows for more creative chaos in the experimentation process. But if teacher-generated knowledge is of value, and if theory must arise out of actual practical, empirical work in the classroom, then the absence of a significant amount of literature on the subject can spur development of techniques and approaches that can then be shared with our entire community of practice.

Third, one of the main foci of this short study was the issue of stereotypes and how they are supported (or not supported) through the process of meaning construction while interacting with visual narratives. Of course, the intuitive thing for a teacher to do would be to correct students' errors of interpretation on the spot and to seek to replace them with a version more closely matching what has been referred to here as the "native" standard. Indeed, for instance, Cindy's interpretation of the situation as Monty refusing to "accept the fact" that he has lost a tooth is incorrect from this inner-circle (Kachru, 1985) point of view. The fact that she then uses this interpretation to support a stereotype is also noteworthy. But what to do next is an interesting question. Should the teacher simply correct this and move on? Or is there a lesson to be learned here, and is it only

limited to language itself? From the researcher's point of view, the logical next step would be to have the entire class talk about how each student has interpreted the meaning of the comic strip and then look at the underlying schemata (including prejudice) together.

Finally, in English as a lingua franca environments, including a typical ESL classroom in the US (which tends to be culturally and linguistically diverse), it may not be enough to only correct such errors or illuminate the fact that more than one interpretation is possible. A growing movement in our community of practice connects meaningful L2 pedagogy with critical thinking and cross-cultural communication. It can be argued that one of the most practical ramifications is the more evident need to foster cross-cultural communication skills by questioning existing methods and mainstream views on what constitutes successful L2 acquisition.

English is a global language (Crystal, 1997), and thus, asking students to first read and then write and talk metacognitively about culture also means implying or asking directly questions about existing power structures in the field of language learning and teaching. This can lead to a better awareness of World Englishes, English as an International Language, and other views on the changes in how we approach the subject of linguistic diversity in the 21st century. Thus, L2 cultural negotiation's objectives and goals can be expanded to include more than the world of the Inner Circle (Kachru, 1985).

Final Remarks

The assumption that people from different cultures will only be able to construct intelligible meaning if they learn to adhere to the native-set standard is incorrect. While the native-set standard is of much value to the language learner, limiting oneself to such a standard is neither beneficial nor appropriate in the context of English as a lingua franca. An approach that allows for multiple interpretations of discourses is quintessentially humanistic because it provides for a manifestation of the speaker's ever-changing cultural and personal schemata that contribute to the diversity in communication. Indeed, the issue should be not the multitude of possible interpretations in various contexts but the degree to which such interpretations are mutually intelligible and explainable. When such an explanation is possible, one may argue, the ability to go beyond the native-defined

cultural standard can be achieved. Naturally, to better understand the processes involved in L2 meaning construction and negotiation, further research is recommended; this short study, approaching the task from the vantage point of multiliteracies, is one of the forays into this largely uncharted territory.

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About the Author

Alec Lapidus, PhD, teaches at the University of Southern Maine. He has taught English in the United States and overseas. His professional areas of interest include teaching English to speakers of other languages, teacher training, multiliteracies, and cross-cultural communication.

Appendix: Interview questionnaire

1) Who is a tooth fairy?/Based on what you see here, what is a tooth fairy?
2) Which of the characters is a tooth fairy? How do you know? Could you describe the tooth fairy? Does the tooth fairy here look like a real tooth fairy?
3) What does a tooth fairy normally offer?
4) In your opinion, why is Monty offered coupons?
5) What is Monty's response, and why?
6) In your opinion, what can we learn about the American culture from this particular story/comic strip?

TIPS FOR TEACHERS

Using Student Artwork to Foster Communication

Yuka Saruwatari,
Inuyama-Minami Senior High School, Inuyama, Aichi, Japan

Introduction

In many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environments, the Ministry of Education has a stated goal of teaching English for communicative and enjoyable purposes, but textbooks, instructional practices, and assessments have been slow to change. Consequently, English teachers are often left to make the shift from traditional to communicative instruction on their own. In my high school, for example, there is now a course called English Communication, but textbooks are still heavily focused on reading and analyzing texts as they have been for many years. I have found that supplementing my textbook lessons with picture activities helps me integrate all the language skills and create activities with a communicative focus. Furthermore, involving my students in creating the pictures saves me time and increases their participation.

Making the picture stories

First, I need pictures to fit the readings in my course textbook. Fortunately, there are always students who are good at drawing. I ask them to draw a sequence of 6-9 pictures based on a story in the text that we will read in the near future. For example, one of our textbooks has a story about the Japanese astronaut Mori Mamoru. My student drew the sequence of pictures shown in Figure 1. I can use this set of pictures for a variety of pre-, while, and post-reading activities related to the textbook lesson.

Figure 1. Picture story

Using the Picture Stories

Pre-reading activities

Activity 1: Predicting the story

Show students the pictures in correct sequence. Ask them what information they can gather about the story from the pictures and encourage them to make predictions about the storyline. Afterward, students have a reason to read the story—they want to see if their prediction was correct.

Activity 2: Building background for the story

Show enlarged copies of the picture story, frame-by-frame while you tell the story using simpler syntax and vocabulary than in the textbook. This provides the students with both language and background information for what they

will later read. If a story has a surprise ending, do not show the last picture. Instead, have students predict it.

While reading activities

Activity 3: Putting events in order

Give each pair of students a scrambled set of the pictures. Read or tell the story. As they listen, students try to put the pictures in order. When you finish, ask them to check their comprehension by reading through the text to make sure they have the pictures in order.

Activity 4: Matching pictures and text

Give each pair of students a scrambled set of the pictures and several extracts from the text that correspond to the pictures. Have them try, first, to match pictures with the texts and then, to put them in the right sequence.

Activity 5: Questions and answers

Form a question to accompany each picture. Have students work in pairs to examine the pictures, read the questions, and study the text to locate or infer the answers to the questions as they read. Together, the pictures and the questions help break an intimidating text into manageable chunks.

Post-reading activities

Activity 6: Q&A variation

After they have read the story once, ask students to use the information in the pictures to help them write review questions that they will use to "quiz" their partner.

Activity 7: Retelling the story

Students work in pairs or small groups using the pictures to retell the story. This activity helps students develop the very important academic skill of summarizing information their own words.

Activity 8: Writing the story

After they have read the story, give each pair or small groups a set of the pictures in proper sequence, and ask them to work together to write a condensed version of the story, using the pictures as their guide.

Caveat

Some of the activities described above call for a large class set of pictures. Others call for small individual or group sized pictures, sometimes presented in order and sometimes cut apart to be mixed up. Teachers will need to plan ahead and prepare the appropriate size, number, and type of picture sets for a particular activity.

Conclusion

Once finished, the picture stories can be used for predicting, interactive storytelling, pair work conversations, oral and written summaries, and more. They can expand a dry reading lesson into a fully integrated language experience. The same pictures can be used again and again in different ways and different lessons. Best of all, busy teachers do not have to spend their time making pictures. Students will be happy to draw the pictures and proud to see their work used in English class. Who knows? Helping the teacher prepare materials for English class may motivate students for English study, too.

About the Author

Yuka Saruwatari has earned TESOL certificates in both Canada and the U.S. and is currently enrolled in the MA TESOL program at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies. She is the devoted mother of two sons and an avid practitioner of DIY—do it yourself—projects such as making bags, sewing clothes, and building shelves. As a high school English teacher, her primary goal is making English fun. She would like to thank her student Saya Arafuka for contributing the picture story about Mori Mamoru.

Longman Elementary Dictionary and Thesaurus

Review by Paul Morley
Dixie Sun Elementary School, St. George, Utah

In this resource book, *Longman Elementary Dictionary and Thesaurus – With color photographs and illustrations,* the target audience is elementary-age children, grades 3-5. This includes both the native English-speaking child still developing his/her own language and the second language learner.

The layout and format of the book is divided into three sections: the dictionary, thesaurus, and references. The first two sections contain a beautiful compilation of colored pictures that go along with certain words with easily understood definitions and examples. Each word in the dictionary is bolded in blue to give any child an easy time finding the word needed. The thesaurus section has bolded pink words using the same format for ease and accessibility. Using these colors is very pleasing to the eye helping any young learner navigate through its pages.

Additional attractive features are the sporadically located color coded inserts that aid in expanding knowledge of words, such as antonyms and synonyms, word origins, word choice, word families, word building, and grammar. This is found in the dictionary section only, where as the thesaurus has some antonyms and fewer colored pictures than the dictionary section.

The end of the book includes a reference section which features charts and diagrams of the solar system, the water cycle, the 50 states of the U.S., key events in American history, U.S. presidents, weights and measures, periodic table of elements, affixes and root words, academic word list, and irregular verbs. This is a nice section to supplement different curricula, with the exception of the periodic table that would benefit middle and high school students better. Also in this section, there is a picture dictionary that is categorized according to theme with simple context words found in a student's environment geared toward beginning learners.

With all the exciting additions that have been added to this children's dictionary, there are some areas of concern that have arisen when using this resource. As a 3rd grade teacher with several second language learners in my class, the use of higher academic language with some of the word help inserts were confusing and

had to be taught before they became beneficial. For example, the Word Families help box confused many students because of the term 'word families'. Within the grammar world, these are words with different endings to change its part of speech (ex. discuss/discussion); this is the meaning that is used in this dictionary. However, within the elementary world, 'word families' is a term used when teaching young readers words with the same endings but different beginnings (-op, mop/top/pop). As such, using this dictionary did serve a springboard for classroom discussions about metalanguage terms.

Overall, the look and format of the book is very appealing to young learners with its vibrant colors and ease of use. However, the level of vocabulary and grammar used in certain aid inserts is higher than 3rd grade level making those features more difficult for optimal use in low elementary classes.

About the Reviewer

After several years of teaching third grade elementary in Utah County, Paul Morley now teaches fifth grade in the Spanish-English Dual Immersion program at Dixie Sun Elementary School in St. George, Utah. In addition to his teaching license, he has received an associate's degree in Spanish, bachelor's degree in TESOL, and a graduate certificate in the same. His interest areas include Elementary Language Learning for both native and non-native speakers and Drama.

50 Steps to Improving Your Academic Writing

Review by Rachel Ishiguro
Grossmont College, San Diego, California

Mastering academic writing can be a daunting task for a novice. *50 Steps to Improving Your Academic Writing* breaks the process down into fifty manageable lessons, which can be used for self-study or integrated into an English for Academic Purposes course. The book is designed for students at the Upper-Intermediate level and above who are new to writing academic texts. Each lesson is designed to take about an hour of self-study, but this timing could vary considerably if adapted for classroom use.

The fifty lessons are very comprehensive. Grouped into ten units, they cover topics ranging from effective research and time management skills to text organization and grammar. They take students from the basics (starting with the difference between oral and written English) through the entire writing process. Included are many essential skills which students find particularly challenging, such as critical thinking and strengthening an argument. Students can work through the text in order or choose the material most relevant to their needs.

With just four pages of material per step, the lessons are accessible. The text is visually appealing, with a clear layout. In each lesson, students are encouraged to reflect on previous knowledge and analyze brief writing samples before reading the explanations and doing application, personalization, and extension activities. An answer key is included, and there is also a glossary with clear references to sections of the text. The appendices include materials for the activities, as well as further explanations for some lessons.

There are a few minor issues which students and teachers should be aware of when choosing to work with this text. Although there is some sample writing in the appendices, students who prefer learning through examples may find a shortage of such material in this book due to its pared down format. Teachers using it in class may want to supplement. In addition, although it is ostensibly for self-study, students who struggle with reflection and practical application of concepts may do better with a teacher's guidance. Finally, the book is published in the UK; the

book is broadly applicable across international contexts, but there are references to the British university system throughout.

Overall, this is an excellent supplemental text for a course in English for Academic Purposes and a useful self-study text for students who learn well from reflection. Its thorough examination of the steps to successful academic writing makes it a helpful resource for teachers and students alike.

About the Reviewer:

Rachel Ishiguro holds an MA in International Education from the SIT Graduate Institute. She currently teaches in the ESL Department at Grossmont College in San Diego, California. She has also taught in a variety of ESL and EFL environments in the US, Canada, and Japan. Her recent focus areas include academic writing, and the development and assessment of Cultural Student Learning Objectives.

Notes to Contributors

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