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ABSTRACT

Articles in this issue of the professional journal of California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL) include: "A High School/University E-mail Partnership Project" (Rita El-Wardi, Ann Johns); "Asian International Students' Preferences for Learning in American Universities" (Jose Galvan, Yoshifumi Fukada); "Mishearings of Content Words by ESL Learners" (Tetsuo Harada); "Vietnamese High School Graduates: What Are Their Needs and Expectations?" (Van Dees, Melissa McDonald); "Results of the 1997 CATESOL College/University Survey" (Janet Eyring); "A Fulbrighter's Experience with English Language Teaching in Tunisia: The Land of Mosaics" (John Battenburg); "Learning Environments for Adult Learners: Implications for Teacher Development" (Jim Scofield); "Teaching Grammar: What Do Employers at the Post-Secondary Level Expect?" Dorothy Messerschmitt); and "The Web of Classroom Exchanges" (Stephanie Vandrick, Dorothy Messerschmitt). Book reviews are also included. (MSE)

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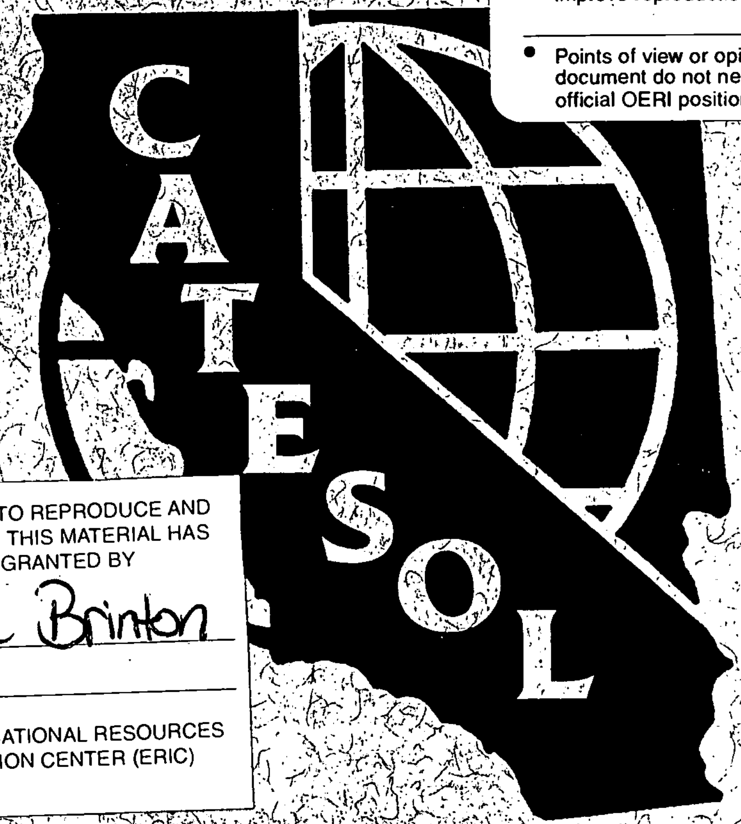
The CATESOL Journal



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The CATESOL Journal

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The CATESOL Journal

EDITORS' NOTE

This issue of The CATESOL Journal is the first to appear under the co-editorship of Donna Brinton and Robby Ching. Robby has joined Donna as co-editor to replace Peter Master, who served as *CATESOL Journal* editor from 1994-1997. She brings a great deal of expertise and a fresh perspective to the journal, and the editorial collaboration promises to be a very fruitful one.

Our feature articles in this issue report on an innovative high-school/university E-mail partnership program (El-Ward & Johns), Asian international students' learning preferences (Galvan & Fukada), ESL students' comprehension of content words in academic lectures (Harada), immigrant Vietnamese students' post high school needs and expectations (Dees & McDonald), and CATESOL members' responses to the 1997 College/University level survey (Eyring).

In the CATESOL Exchange section, we present a stimulating array of shorter articles or thought pieces. These pieces discuss a Fulbrighter's experiences teaching EFL in Tunisia (Battenburg), optimal learning environments for adult ESL learners (Scofield), ESL employers' expectations of teachers' grammatical training and skills (Messerschmitt), and the complex web of teacher-student interactions in the ESL classroom (Vandrick & Messerschmitt).

Our review editor, Susan Orlofsky, has also compiled an interesting selection of reviews to help inform our readership of newly published ESL and TESL resource materials. Three of the reviews (of recent beginning literacy, reading, and reading/writing publications) fall into the former category; the other three reviews fall in the second category, and provide updated information on the topics of extensive reading, cultural issues in academic writing, and use of the Internet for English language teaching.

We sincerely hope that this issue will have broad appeal to CATESOL members.

Beginning with the upcoming (11.1) issue of the journal, we are pleased to announce that we will be adding a new section to the journal to augment the articles, exchange, and review sections that it currently contains. This new section, which replaces the previous occasional theme issues of the journal, will contain 3-4 articles on a given theme solicited by a guest editor. We believe that the inclusion of a theme section to the journal will give it greater coherence and will increase its appeal to our readership. Susan Dunlap, a current member of our Editorial Advisory Board, will serve as the theme editor for its inaugural edition, and will be compiling an assortment of articles on the topic of English language education in California's K-12 contexts in the post Proposition 227 era.

Donna Brinton
Co-editor

Robby Ching
Co-editor

The CATESOL Journal

RITA EL-WARDI
Hoover High School
ANN M. JOHNS
San Diego State University

A High School/University E-mail Partnership Project

In this paper, two ESL teachers describe their attempts to encourage student mentoring, reading, and writing through a cross-institutional e-mail project. Their assignments and student interactions as well as the successes and problems related to the project are discussed. The e-mail correspondence between two pairs of students and comments on the impact of the project on these and other students in the class are presented.

Technology is an integral and important force in American society, so much so that many employers require those hired to have basic computer skills, and some college classes require computer acumen of enrolling students. Because it is central to individual success, "[computer use] needs to become as interwoven in educational delivery as it is in society in order to become an integral part of teaching and learning" (Berge & Collins, 1998, Vol. 1, p. 1).

This is a story of two ESL teachers, one at a secondary school and one at a university, who decided to embark on an e-mail, Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) project[1] in which our two groups of students were pen-pals and co-workers throughout a semester. (See appendix for more information on forming e-mail partnerships.)

In a useful volume, Warschauer (1995) encourages teachers to use CMC approaches but also warns them that:

> E-mail and other forms of electronic communication are a valuable tool for English teaching. Yet e-mail will not in itself solve problems. It will be up to you, the teacher, to develop the right

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> ways of using e-mail based upon your general goals, your teaching style and approach, an analysis of your students' needs, and the technological tools you have at hand. (p. 91)

Following this author's advice, we attempted to make our CMC goals appropriate to the goals of our institutions and classrooms and to create tasks that were both possible and meaningful to the students.

Contexts for This E-Mail Project

Secondary School

Hoover High School is an inner city institution located in the highest poverty area in San Diego, often referred to as "San Diego's Ellis Island." It has a student population of nearly 1800, more than 40% of whom are bilingual or ESL students, speaking 23 different languages. This 40% of the students ranges from newly arrived immigrants to "emerging English-dominant learners"[2] who have lived in the United States for most of their lives. The Grades 11-12 ESL class involved in this project consisted of approximately 30 advanced-level students[3] from Mexico, Honduras, Guatemala, Cuba, Vietnam, China, Ethiopia, Somalia, Haiti, and Nigeria. Most of the students had been in the United States from 3-6 years, and they scored between the 2nd- and 4th-grade reading levels on standard assessments such as the Stanford 9. The students had either passed through the beginning and intermediate levels of ESL, or they had been promoted after having repeated each level at least once. Most planned to find entry level jobs upon graduation from high school, though a few hoped to enter community colleges. Some Mexican-born students were returning to their home countries after graduation.

University

San Diego State University (SDSU) is a large, comprehensive university in the California State University system, with about 25,000 students enrolled, the majority of whom are balancing demanding work, school, and family responsibilities. One-half of the student population is ethnically or linguistically diverse. About 30% of the total population is bilingual, with a considerable number of different first languages spoken.[4]

The university classroom in which this project was launched consisted of 16 students,[5] the majority of whom were junior and senior transfers from community colleges who had failed the SDSU Writing Competency Test (WCT) that is administered to entering transfer students. Ten of the students were Vietnamese speaking, one spoke Tagalog (Filipino), and three, Japanese. There was one speaker of Mandarin Chinese and one

Spanish speaker, a relatively new immigrant from Mexico. The class in which they were enrolled, Rhetoric and Writing Studies 95 (RW 95), focused primarily on composition, though reading[6] and oral work supplemented the writing tasks.

The students in RW 95 were under a great deal of pressure, for until they met the requirement for writing competency, either through RW 95, which culminates in a 2-hour timed essay examination, or through retaking the university's WCT, they would not be able to enroll in the core classes in their majors. Fortunately for two students originally enrolled, the prompt for one of the WCTs administered during the semester was quite simple,[7] so they were able to meet competency and take a late drop before the semester was over. Fourteen students remained in the class to participate in the entire e-mail project.

Our Goals

Secondary School

All classes at Hoover High School have adopted the same set of general, institution-wide goals based upon the Hoover Learner Outcomes (HLOs). These goals provide the basic structure for the senior portfolio, required of all graduating students.[8] Listed below are the HLOs:

1. The student demonstrates habits of inquiry.
2. The student experiences technology .
3. The student collects, analyzes, and organizes resources and information.
4. The student communicates ideas and information.
5. The student works effectively with others.
6. The student organizes personal resources, plans for the future, and shows commitment to lifelong learning.

All of these HLOs seem to be relevant, to some extent, to the e-mail project.

University ESL Class (RW 95)

The goals for the university class were more flexible. Though Goal 1 (below) applied to all "remedial" students in the university composition classes, the others were devised by the teacher based upon student need.

1. To satisfy the writing competency requirement

The most pressing goal was for students to pass the final 2-hour competency examination. For although they might produce very good, revised papers for the class, the students could not be deemed competent unless they received a holistic score of 8 (4 + 4 by two scorers) on the final test.[9] The examination scoring is based upon a standard rubric, which includes, among other criteria, use of sources and careful editing.

2. To become adept at, and interested in, using e-mail

Of the 16 (later 14) students, only 5 had utilized e-mail before taking this class, though some were comfortable with using computers in other ways, such as word processing or producing spread sheets.

3. To gain self-confidence and prestige by developing a mentoring relationship with high school student partners

Since the university students in RW 95 were considered "remedial,"[10] and there is considerable discussion in the state university system about not allowing students to enroll until they demonstrate writing competency, it was important that they be able to show their considerable achievements to the younger students. We also hoped that the RW 95 students would encourage those at Hoover to enter postsecondary institutions.[11]

4. To develop abilities to summarize and discuss sources in their own words

This goal was essential for the final examination and important to the e-mail project.

5. To improve their understanding and use of English grammar

Since most of the students had been placed in the class because they continued to make grammatical and mechanical errors in their writing, improving their ability to edit was central to their success.

6. To expand student vocabulary

Many ESL students believe that language learning is, for the most part, the learning of vocabulary, and certainly, limitations in vocabulary knowledge inhibit students in their attempts to read certain texts and to express themselves.

7. To encourage writing to a variety of audiences[12]

The secondary school students provided an alternative, and interesting, audience for the RW 95 students, one with whom they could discuss their concerns and ideas more freely than with their teachers.

8. To increase fluency and enjoyment when writing in English

A number of the RW 95 students had had rather unpleasant experiences with writing English—and with writing classes. Those who had taken the WCT had experienced a sense of failure. We hoped that the e-mail project would counteract some of these negative feelings.

Constraints

At the Secondary School

Several problems had to be faced during the term by the high school instructor, difficulties that are undoubtedly common to a number of schools, particularly those in poverty areas:

1. Small labs and an insufficient number of networked computers

At Hoover High, ESL classes are usually scheduled into a computer lab for a total of 6 to 8 hours during a 6-week grading period; however, this lab is not networked. In order learn to use e-mail and to communicate with their university partners regularly, the class needed to use computers with network capabilities at least once a week. To accomplish this, the instructor made arrangements with other teachers to borrow or trade for unscheduled hours in one of the few networked labs. She also asked the lab technician to alert her when a class in a networked lab did not arrive for its assigned computer time; then, she would rush into the lab with her students to continue the e-mail project.

When the students did get into a wired lab, there were 15 computers for use, so only half the class could send messages to their partners at one time. These problems with access and a dearth of computers in the lab were daunting, to say the least.

2. Lack of teacher e-mail experience and ponderous methods for getting on line

Because the teacher was not an expert and there were only a few CMC experts in the Hoover class, most students had to learn individually how to access the Net and sign up for individual e-mail addresses through HotMail, a free network service. This was a long, time-consuming process. When all of the students had their addresses and were scheduled for a networked lab and the first e-mail correspondence, almost half had forgotten their passwords and had to begin the process again. After the students had written their messages, they sometimes forgot to send or save them correctly. Then, the experts in the class and the single technician in the lab had to work overtime.

3. Response failures

Because the high school class was twice the size of the university class, each of the university students was assigned two e-mail partners. This proved to be a good idea because some of the very low proficient students in the high school class were never able to use e-mail with success, and so they never responded to their university partners.

Because of the transience among the high school students and class attrition among the RW 95 students, partners had to be shuffled, which bothered the students who had just begun to form e-mail relationships. (See Warshauer, 1995, pp. 49-52 for suggestions on combatting response failure and partner loss.)

4. Requirements for the schoolwide portfolio

The e-mail project consumed more class time than did other writing tasks in this class. Some of the e-mail projects could be included in the required senior portfolio, particularly under "technology" and "works with others" (See the HLO list, above.) However, other mandated portfolio projects had to be produced as well, so some e-mail tasks were assigned as after school projects in one of the few wired labs. Unfortunately, many of the students could not stay after school because of work and family responsibilities, and those who could often devoted their time to completing other tasks for their portfolios.

The seniors were particularly concerned with writing more conventional papers and practicing for their oral portfolio defense. As one Hoover student noted in his evaluation of the project, "They had better do [the e-mail project] in the first semester because all the seniors work on portfolios in the second semester, so the seniors can't pay too much attention."

At the University

There was one major constraint under which the RW 95 class was functioning: the pressure to be judged as competent in writing. None of the e-mail assignments were directly connected to satisfying this requirement, though success in the project may have contributed to student confidence and increased fluency.

At the university, students had more access to a variety of computer labs, and several of the students had their own computers. Nonetheless, it was more than two weeks into the semester by the time all of the students had e-mail addresses and were online.[13]

Shared Assignments and Collection of Data

Before the beginning of the term, the two instructors created some of the ground rules for the project, and though a few of these had to be revised as the semester advanced, we were able to assign, and follow through on, most of the requirements. These were

1. Correspond with your e-mail partner(s) regularly.[14]

Sometimes the e-mail assignments were scripted, particularly at the beginning, when the high school students were asked to introduce themselves ("Tell about your background, interests, responsibilities, and goals") or when they were asked to pose questions to the RW 95 students before their visit to the university. The university students were also specifically required to discuss university life in order to encourage the high school students to consider higher education. However, about half of the assignments throughout the term were open (e.g., "Keep talking to your partner").

2. Teach and respond to your partner.

In keeping with the goals of the RW 95 class, university students were assigned to teach vocabulary from *Newsweek* (eight words during the semester, assigned during specific weeks) and grammar points (two) to their partners over e-mail. The secondary students were asked to respond to these lessons, perhaps by making their own sentences using the item(s) taught.

3. Cooperate, both on e-mail and in person, in peer reviewing each other's work.

The first of the two shared papers, based on the *Challenges* (Brown, Cohen, & O'Day, 1991) textbook required in RW 95, concerned family structure in various parts of the world. For this assignment, the papers were produced in draft form as hard copies on the computer, exchanged by the teachers, and discussed, more informally, via e-mail by the students. Most of the students' e-mail discussion centered around what the teacher wants in the paper, a common topic in many classes. In addition, the high school students asked their RW 95 partners to clarify misunderstandings about the readings or explain vocabulary.

A second shared writing project was based upon the following Jesse Jackson quote (as excerpted in Hakkim, 1993):

> America is not like a blanket—
> one piece of unbroken cloth,
> the same size, the same color, the same texture.
> America is more like a quilt—
> many pieces, many sizes, all woven and held
> together by a common thread.

The students discussed this quote by e-mail, and the RW 95 group, anxious to practice for their own final competency examination, wrote short papers on the topic. For the Hoover students, the quilt project was their culminating experience, resulting in a school exhibition.[15] Each student made a quilt patch representing his or her life and culture, and, after discussing the Jackson quote and the patch in writing, the students made oral presentations to an invited audience, including the RW 95 students, at the high school.

Throughout the semester, both groups of students were asked to send copies of their e-mail messages to their instructors[16] and to reflect in writing upon their experiences with the project. All of this data was collected by the students' instructors for the ongoing study of the project. In addition, two pairs of partners, presented below, were studied more thoroughly through interviews, e-mail messages, and assigned paper analysis.

Student Meetings

Because our institutions are geographically close, the students met twice, once at SDSU at midsemester and once at Hoover for the quilt exhibition at the end of the 15-week semester. These visits were the most gratifying elements of the project, for they brought together the two groups of students, introduced the Hoover students to the university campus, and in the second session, afforded opportunities for the Hoover students to present their quilt and share food from their home cultures.

The SDSU meeting provided the student partners with their first opportunities to meet each other after having communicated by e-mail for more than a month. Before coming, the Hoover students developed a "Twenty Questions" game for the RW 95 students, designed to determine who their partners were. By process of elimination, and after some misunderstandings,[17] the high school students identified their partners through the game. Once they became acquainted, the students were greeted by the university president and associate dean of the college. The remaining time was devoted to RW 95 students' peer reviews of the Hoover student draft papers on the Jesse Jackson quote. After the university students had departed for their next classes, the Hoover students toured the campus and were provided with lunch by the university.

The second meeting, at Hoover High School, was attended by the assistant to the SDSU president and the RW 95 students and their teacher. At that time, the secondary students told their stories as represented by their quilt patches, and they discussed and shared their food with the gathered audience.

Two Student Pairs

In order to measure the effects of e-mail upon the students' writing and their attitudes towards English, other cultures, and the class, we chose two pairs of e-mail partners to study throughout the semester, based upon their initial interest in the e-mail project. In addition to collecting the written data from the corpus for all students, we conducted informal interviews and requested additional written evaluations of the project from the two student pairs at the end of the semester.

The Student Pairs

Pair 1: Rachel and Suzy

Rachel was a 16-year-old junior at Hoover who emigrated from Ethiopia in 1996, two years before this project started. She came from a well-educated family and had been able to study some spoken English and other subjects at a boarding school before arriving in the United States to live with her father and complete her high school education. Her family recognized that she had talent and ambition, and they had set a number of goals for her, including completion of a BA degree with an architecture major. Though she found it difficult to be separated from her mother and other women relatives, she valued her parents' goals and was eager to continue her education.

When the project took place, Rachel still had limited English vocabulary, grammar, and control of mechanics. Nonetheless, she was determined to do well. She wrote more than was required for her assignments, using her dictionary and thesaurus as much as possible, and she showed keen interest during the grammar minilessons in her ESL class.

Suzy, Rachel's SDSU RW 95 partner, was a Vietnamese-speaking community college transfer. She had come to the U.S. in 1993, five years before the project began, when her father, a former South Vietnamese soldier, was brought here with his family under an amnesty program. She was a junior nursing major, but she could not enroll in her major courses until she had met the writing competency requirement, which she was finding very difficult. Suzy's essays for the class were very much like her e-mail messages (see below). Most were much longer than the other students' (8-10 pages), and they were, for the most part, unplanned and unedited. At every individual conference, her instructor asked her to make a plan and write shorter essays, but the advice had little effect until the last few weeks of the term.

From the very beginning, Suzy was open and conversational, and all of her messages were longer than required. Here, for example, is her first message to her partners:

> Hello ...!!!! Nice to meet you !!!! How are you doing today? My name is Suzy. I am Vietnamese, I came to the US about 5 years and a half. What about you? What is your nationality? My major is Nursing and Engineering. I am still waiting list of the Nursing. I am not get the major yet. I feel so bad and so disappoint myself a lot. How about you? How your school? [and several more questions] Oh, if you can. Could you give me your phone number or page number? Here is mine. [Her number] Whenever you want to talk to me or just do something, just call me. OK. See you again. Take care.

Rachel's response was equally warm, though not quite as long. Here is a representative section:

> Hi Suzy! How are you. My name is Rachel. I am a junior in Hoover High School. I feel happy and excited when I got your message because this is my first time using e-mail with a person. Let me tell you about my background. [About 60 words followed.] I dream every day to be a musician and architecture. I hope English language becoming improving by writing with you. Suzy, please write about your future hope and about your education too. Good bless you!

Despite a heavy schedule, Suzy wrote to her partners on an average of twice a week, doubling the number of messages required by the class. Here, for example, is part of a 192-word message which was not one of the assignments:

> Hello, How you today? So long we didn't talk, I missed you. How your school. My school so far so good and I am so busy. How about your Spring Break vacation? My vacation, I just go to work whole weeks.[18] I am really tired and so terrible. You have wonderful your vacation, isn't it? ...Anyway, how your parents? Do they take you go somewhere? Or you have to stay home do your homework? Just e-mail with me your break. OK. I love to share your information...Love,

As time passed, Suzy's other Hoover partner stopped responding. However, Rachel continued to send messages as often as she could get to the lab. In response, Suzy became more friendly and continued to send her frequent messages before, and after, meeting Rachel on campus. Here is one:

> Now it is morning but I still working my work and do all assignment, so email for you. It's late and I am so tired and I want to go to sleep now. I think that you are already sleep and get a good dream. Isn't it? Have a good night and good dream, and then let me know what you dream. OK? (278 words, including a summary of a shared reading) Love 4 ever,

One characteristic of this relationship was Suzy's personal mentoring, as this example shows:

> Now I am old, I can have a boyfriend but you are still young don't get a boyfriend yet. No good. That's my opinion...I just advice you, don't get mad at me. All right.

When Suzy was asked by her instructor to discuss college life with her partners, she created an even longer message devoted principally to the problems she was facing. Here is one section:

> I go to university right now, everything more boring than at [community] college because everybody doesn't care you anymore. Depend for yourself...I have some class, my professor doesn't care me about I understand the lecture or not. The professor just get in the class, take role, and go to lecture...Nobody help you or me when you go to college or university.

Throughout the semester, this relationship between Rachel and Suzy was warm and personal. When Suzy went to Hoover for the final quilt demonstration, she and Rachel sat together and ignored the rest of the group. They were sorry to leave each other, and they promised to continue their e-mail relationship.

Pair 2: Viet, Luc and Maria

Viet was a 26-year-old SDSU junior, majoring in international business, who decided to enroll in a writing class to meet the transfer requirement rather than take the WCT. He had come to the U.S. with his father, who had been in the South Vietnamese army (RVN) and then in a Vietnamese prison for 13 years. He had had no American high school education and had devoted 6 years to completing the necessary units in community college. During the period of the project, Viet was enrolled in nine semester units and worked at his uncle's convenience store 25 hours a week. His class attendance was excellent, and he was quite critical of those students in the class who didn't work hard and appreciate their American education.

In his interview and on his data sheet, he talked about how important it was for him to learn to "write as a native speaker does," in order to achieve success. Every week, he read all of *Newsweek* (not just what was assigned) as well as the local paper, and he was very interested in learning new vocabulary. His first essay for the class demonstrated that he was a very good academic writer;[19] however, when he was encouraged to take the WCT in order to clear competency and leave the class, he said, "No, I want of learn as much as I can, so I'll stay here."

In contrast to Suzy, Viet initially used e-mail as an extension of the class, a requirement that he had to fulfill.

He dutifully obtained an e-mail address, and throughout the semester, he acted as more of a mentor than a friend to his e-mail partners. As time went on, he began addressing not only his partners but the teachers in these messages. Here, for example, is an e-mail to his RW 95 teacher about an assignment:

> How're you, Dr. Johns. By the way, can I divide the body part of the upcoming essay into four paragraphs. The first two will discuss...the second two will...Or should I just have two body paragraphs only? Please let me know. And how's your study on me going? I'd love to hear about it. Any additional information you want to know about me, it's my pleasure to respond. Have a nice day!

When the Hoover teacher asked the SDSU students whether her students had met some of the requirements, Viet was one of the few to reply:

> Hi, Ms.[20] El-Wardi! I just want to let you know that my two partners have already finished the four assignments that you gave them. Included are the self-introduction, grammar, and vocabulary responses, and opinions on the reading. As a result, you can give them full credit! Thank you for your time. I'm looking forward to seeing you and my partners on the 24th.

Pair 2: Luc and Maria (and Viet's mentoring)

By chance, Viet's most consistent partner was also a Vietnamese speaker, a junior at Hoover. Luc's message in response to Viet's introduction was a bit more personal than Viet's:

> Hi! My name is Luc...I'm from Vietnam. Right now I am a junior student at Hoover High School. I'm very nervous to meet you because this is my first time to meet an SDSU student on e-mail. Beside nervous, I'm also excited, because I have a new partner from college student. ...I have a great new year, how about you? I look forward to hearing from you. Happy New Year![21]

Viet's second partner, Maria, was from Cuba. From the start, Viet was concerned about the quality of her writing, particularly her spelling. Here's what he wrote in one mentoring message to her:

> Have you played with the Internet lately? You can find out many subjects and stories which are very helpful in your research papers. By the way, you can get free e-mail from the Yahoo Web Page. What's special about this e-mail is that you can easily check your spellings...Keep in mind that proofreading is very important. It tells readers how careful and responsible you are.

By the end of the semester, Viet began to think of e-mail as more than just an assignment in his RW 95 class, and he appeared to be quite positive about the project. When asked about the advantages, he wrote:

> It was really great. I've never know anything about e-mail until facing the Hoover project. It takes a short period of time to get out e-mail, and it's a lot of fun and easy. Now, I can contact with my friends in Vietnam. Also, I can place my comments on policy

> WebPages, etc. Above all, my two Hoover partners become my new pen pals. Furthermore, I learn about their exotic cultures.

When asked about what we could improve, he made the following remarks:

> We can make it a lot more fun by adding outdoor activities such as beach barbecues or camping. There should be more chances for the two sides to meet each other rather than just two basic back-and-forth visits. It would also be great if the two sides exchange puzzles or academic questions with rewards. Above, all, Hoover students should have more access to computers, so we can all talk to each other more often.

Results and Conclusions

Development of a Technology/CMC Comfort Level

In their final reflections, all of the students commented on how important it was for them to learn to use e-mail and to employ it in real communication with an audience with whom they became comfortable. Rachel said,

> I feel great when I was exchanging information with my partner at the first time because I never do or use technology like this...I never think the value of exchanging information by e-mail. Now, I think it is important to me.

In terms of demonstrating the value of e-mail, and in making the students comfortable with this CMC, the project was a resounding success.

Enhancement of Student Voice and Sense of Audience

As the in-depth discussions of the two student pairs show, voice and audience were influenced by the students' own sense of themselves and of their relationships with their e-mail partners. As soon as Suzy and Rachel had an opportunity, they began talking quite intimately about their personal lives which, as Sternglass (1997) points out, cannot, and should not, be separated from their academic achievement. On the other hand, Viet set the tone with Luc and Maria, which, though quite cordial, established a mentor/mentee relationship.

These paired partners demonstrated differences in register within the e-mail messages, features that carried over to their academic papers, as well.

Though Viet's messages included openings and closings and exclamation points that appeared to be conversational, he still incorporated much of what is required in academic prose, such as complete sentences and formal conjunctions. On the other hand, Suzy was much more conversational, as her short phrases and creative punctuation, spelling, and grammar demonstrate. Santoro (1998) notes that "[CMC] incorporates aspects of written as well as spoken communication...it shows a form that is uniquely shaped by the medium, yet unquestionably human in nature" (p. 35). Variation among writers of e-mail messages may, in fact, be very human—dependent upon student personality, understanding of the genre of e-mail messages, relationships with their audience, and other factors.

Effects upon Writing

Attempts were made by the high school teacher to have the students edit their e-mail messages, and she modeled some of the initial discourses for the students. The university teacher, believing that fluency was the basic goal of the e-mail project, made no such effort. Despite different approaches, the student e-mail texts on both campuses were more error ridden than their hard copy texts (see also Kern, 1995). Thus, for those who believe that continuing to produce errors reinforces these errors, use of e-mail could be considered deleterious. In an important article about the problems of the perpetual LEP student in the California schools, Scarcella (1996) argues that most immigrant and English emergent students who enter universities continue to make major errors in their academic writing, and she attributes this problem to encouraging fluency and a lack of editing. E-mail could be another contributing factor to error persistence (see Kern, 1995).

Other experts, particularly those advocating whole language and fluency approaches (see especially, MacGowan-Gilhooly, 1996) would argue that students should be encouraged to be fluent and motivated writers, and that over time, they will learn to correct their errors when necessary.

Effects upon Reading

One of the unplanned, but important, advantages of the students' shared tasks was that they were all required to read, discuss, and analyze the same passages from the *Challenges* (Brown, Cohen, & O'Day, 1991) textbook. The Stanford 9 Examination, administered to students in the California schools during spring 1998, indicated that reading scores dropped in high school precipitously from scores in middle school (Smith, 1998). One cause for this complex phenomenon might be that many high school students read very little outside of class, and they are seldom tested on their reading within classes, as they were in elementary school. Because the e-mail project required the high school students to understand the texts and discuss them with their SDSU partners, they did read, summarize, and learn vocabulary.

The Influence of Scripted, Focused, Tasks

Some of the more scripted tasks were successfully completed, such as the student self-introductions and the questions and advising about university life. Vocabulary presentations were useful for both groups; their written reflections on the project indicated the importance of discussing new vocabulary within this informal milieu. The efforts to teach grammar points were not as successful. Students at Hoover complained that the points were not well explained, perhaps because they knew that the RW 95 students were not grammar experts.

Conclusion

This paper has been a discussion of two ESL teachers' attempts to create an effective e-mail partnership among students at two school sites, partnerships that were intended to serve a variety of affective and pedagogical purposes. For a number of reasons common to many schools and ESL classes, the problems in establishing and maintaining the project were major, the most significant of which were the demands upon the students at each site to be concentrating upon other tasks more relevant to their senior portfolios (at Hoover) or their final competency examinations (at SDSU). We do not know whether our project assisted the high school students in making passing portfolio presentations or whether it contributed to the passing scores achieved by both Viet (11/12, the highest of the department ESL final paper scores) or Suzy (7p—a borderline passing score). However, we do know that the students learned about each other and about each other's schools and cultures and became comfortable with CMC through this project. So, despite the effort involved and the inherent problems, we plan to attempt the project again next year.

Authors

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Endnotes

[1] In the literature, e-mail falls under the rubric *computer-mediated communication*, a term "given to a large set of functions in which computers are used to support human communication" (Santoro, 1998, p. 32). E-mail is considered to be the most common, and the simplest, of all the CMC possibilities, which also include group conferencing systems, such as listservs.

[2] See *California Pathways* (ESL Intersegmental Project, 1996) for a very useful discussion of the variety of second language learners in our schools.

[3] This is a transient population, so the class size varied from month to month.

[4] This is a guess. At the time the project took place, there were no statistics on the first languages of the immigrant and bilingual student population.

[5] Originally, there were 25 students enrolled. However, seven students dropped the class during the first weeks because "there was too much writing required."

[6] The students were required to purchase an advanced ESL textbook, *Challenges* (Brown, Cohen, & O'Day, 1991). In addition, they subscribed to *Newsweek*, which they found to be very useful for vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure analysis as well as for discussions of genres and values of the American media.

[7] The San Diego State Writing Competency Test (WCT), mentioned earlier, is a one-half hour essay test required of all students who transfer from a community college and have not met competency. The prompts vary considerably in difficulty from the almost impossible (Perfection has only one fault: It's boring. Discuss.) to easy ones taken from the TOEFL Test of Written English (Would you rather live in the city or the country? Why?). These RW 95 students had written about the second prompt listed here.

[8] This is a districtwide requirement. Students compile elaborate portfolios for each of their years in high school, and then present these documents in 20-45-minute individual interviews before a panel consisting of one teacher and two individuals from the community.

[9] Or, students could also retake the WCT, as mentioned earlier.

[10] Though CATESOL and other organizations have persuaded some CSU administrators of the differences between remedial and ESL students, those distinctions often go unrecognized on our campuses.

[11] We were particularly interested in having transfer students communicate with the high school seniors because most students at Hoover cannot afford to enter a CSU immediately. It is important that the younger students understand the process of transferring from a community college to a CSU.

[12] For a more complete discussion of negotiating with and writing to a variety of audiences, see Johns, 1997.

[13] One reason for the delay was that some of the students were having difficulty paying their fees, and they couldn't obtain an e-mail address until they had evidence of fee payment.

[14] We couldn't be more specific about how often, particularly for the secondary school students. See the discussion about constraints.

[15] The exhibition is another schoolwide requirement.

[16] Several of the students, especially Rachel and Suzy, who will be discussed later, became close friends through e-mail. When they decided to *really* discuss their lives and experiences, they didn't copy their instructors on their e-mail correspondence. After all, they had one primary, peer audience.

[17] Because the students were from different cultures, they often did not recognize the gender of their partners from their names. One Hoover student made this comment: "It was a great experience to meet the students...I was thinking that one of my partner was a male and turn out that both are female. Actually I like it better."

[18] She worked for 6-8 hours every night at a Japanese restaurant. When she returned home, she would complete her homework and come to her morning RW 95 class without having slept.

[19] He had a fairly broad writing repertoire which included memos, reports, and essays. However, he also wrote creatively when he had the chance. Here, for example, is the end of his "America Is a Quilt" essay, assigned to both groups of students:

> Despite all the differences of cultures, languages, and religions, we all come to America together. Freedom, equality, and opportunity hold and motivate us to build America as the greatest nation on the planet. The old Vietnamese saying is: "Birds settle in a peaceful land." America is really a peaceful land in the heart of every one of us.

[20] He was the only student to use *Ms.* when referring to this instructor, demonstrating his awareness of politically correct language.

[21] This was late January, and he was referring to Vietnamese New Year.

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Appendix

Suggestions for finding e-mail partners (taken from Meloni, 1998)

Kenji Kitao's Keypals
http://ilc.doshisha.ac.ip/users/kkitao/online/www/keypal.html

E-mail Classroom Exchange
http://www.iglou.com/xchange/ece/index.html

E-mail key pal connection
http://www.comenius.com/keypal/index.html

E-mail etiquette
http://www.fau.edu./rinalti/net/elec.html

See also Clemes (1998), Meloni (1998), Newman & Fischer (1998), and Sperling (1998).

The CATESOL Journal

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Asian International Students' Preferences for Learning in American Universities

■ This study investigated Asian international students' self-reported preferences for class performance and class participation and whether these preferences were related to their English ability and personality type. A sample of 121 students from three colleges and universities in Los Angeles was administered a three-part questionnaire that contained demographic, language-use, and English language proficiency items; questions about their preferences for studying; and a personality scale used to classify the students as outgoing or reserved. The researchers found the data consistent with that of earlier studies, in which Asian students were described as passive, respectful of their teachers, and bound by the need to maintain group harmony. As expected, language proficiency was found to affect many of the patterns described. The findings for personality type were not as clear-cut and will need to be investigated further.

Many international students travel to the U.S. each year to study in American colleges and universities. Usually, they begin by enrolling in intensive English as a second language (ESL) programs, where they struggle to improve their academic English skills until they can qualify to enter an academic degree program. As a group, such students are generally quite successful. For example, a study of the pass rates on a required graduation writing exam for both undergraduate and graduate international students who attended a state university in California revealed a success rate of more than 80% (Galvan & Edlund, 1995; Ruiz, 1996). Their success is not surprising, in part, because the high cost of studying abroad is likely to dissuade the less able students, but also

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because their motivation for doing well is thought to be high. Yet, when this population is controlled for language background, it is clear that, by far, the majority of those who fail the English writing exam in their first attempt are Asian (Galvan & Edlund, 1995).

In California universities, the percentage of international students who are Asian is very high, and their numbers appear to be increasing. Although university success rates by language background are difficult to obtain, a study of students' grade reports, by school, was conducted at the same California university noted above in an attempt to understand the higher fail rates for the Asian cohort. The students' achievement rates were compared across language-background variables that included ethnicity, citizenship status, and native language/language use information. This study concludes that Asian international students' lower achievement rates are strongly influenced by their lower proficiency in English (Ruiz, 1996).

When asked by the authors to explain these results, several of the Asian students who participated in this study explained that they are not able to participate well in their classes because the style of teaching in the U.S. is very different from that in their own countries. In the U.S., students are the center of a class, and they are expected to answer a teacher's questions spontaneously and to express their own opinions and ideas. In other words, students in the U.S. are expected to participate aggressively, especially when compared with what is found in comparable settings in Asia. In Chinese schools, for example, the main activity in a class is the lecture and observation. Students are expected to answer when called on, but they may not interrupt the teacher with questions or comments. In fact, a Chinese teacher's words are never challenged or questioned (California Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, 1984). The same is true in Japan, where students do not express their own opinions for fear that they may sound presumptuous or run contrary to the feelings of their teachers (California Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, 1987); in Vietnam, where students usually keep quiet in class until called on to answer specific questions by their teachers (California Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, 1982); and in Korea, where students feel embarrassed when asked to perform in class individually (California Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, 1992).

The usual explanation given for these cultural patterns in the Asian educational systems is that they are a natural outgrowth of Confucianism. The cardinal principle of Confucianism is humanism, which is understood as a warm human feeling between people and which emphasizes reciprocity. As a philosophy of humanism and social relations, Confucianism has had a strong impact on interpersonal relationships and on communication patterns throughout Asia (Yum, 1988). According to Yum, Asian students' passive attitudes in a class come from the Confucianist doctrine that mandates respect for elders. As a result, Asian students will show their respect for their teachers by deferring to them. In other words, it is assumed that students who voice their opinions in class may risk interfering with their teachers' lectures.

As noted earlier, international students usually begin their studies in the U.S. with an intensive English course, where contact with English speakers outside of class is encouraged for several reasons. First, the second language acquisition literature supports the assumption that students' interlanguage development is heightened when they use the language to communicate with others, especially in authentic settings (Richard-Amato, 1997). Related to this is the belief that contact with English speakers will promote more positive attitudes towards the English language and the American community.

Despite being encouraged to establish greater contact with English speakers outside of class, however, Asians studying in the U.S. tend to remain within their own cultural boundaries when they leave their ESL classes. Perhaps this is because their Confucianist cultural roots emphasize collectivism, and this is at odds with the American individualism (Fukada, 1997). In fact, although group study is a common strategy in both American and Asian schools, its uses serve different functions. Group work in the U.S. is thought to encourage communication and critical thinking skills. In Asia, group work is part of the cultural fabric. In Japan, for example, group harmony (called *wa*) is valued highly. Wierzbicka (1991) described this group harmony as it relates to the Japanese, though the concept of this value extends to other Asian groups as well. According to Wierzbicka, "emphasis on the group often causes a Japanese (individual) to refrain from standing up for himself and follow the group instead" (p. 354).

Previous Research on the Contact between Asian and American Cultures in the Schools

The best-known study of the educational consequences that result when Asian and American cultural patterns come into contact in the schools is known as the Kamehameha project in Hawaii (reported in numerous publications and summarized in Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). For example, Au and Mason (1983) describe what occurs when teachers' classroom discourse conventions conflict with those of their students' home and community environments. According to them, cultural congruence exists when the two sets of rules are compatible, but cultural incongruence is found when they are not. The project's success rested on the researchers' ability to address directly the cases of cultural incongruence they found. Cultural incongruence occurred when the teachers expected their students to participate in class actively and to express their opinions and ideas, but the students remained passive because they assumed they were obligated to balance their respect for their teachers with their need to maintain group harmony with their classmates, both while trying to divert attention away from themselves.

An early study by Sato (1982) contributed empirical research to the question of Asian ethnicity and classroom behaviors. Her study involved 19 Asian and 12 non-Asian students in two ESL classrooms at the University of California, Los Angeles. Her goal was to determine whether the two groups of students differed significantly in their self-initiated class participation, as exhibited by raising a hand or making eye contact with the teacher. Sato reported that the Asians engaged in self-initiated participation only 34% of the time, compared with 66% for non-Asian students. She also found that Asian students received fewer personal solicits (40%) from their teachers than non-Asians (60 %).

Watanabe (1993), using a larger sample size of 176 students in nine ESL classrooms, confirmed the first of Sato's findings (i.e., that Asian students' self-initiated class participation is lower than that of non-Asians), but she found the opposite pattern on the issue of personal solicits of Asian students by their teachers (68% of personal solicits for Asian students, compared with 32% for non-Asians). However, she found that even when asked questions directly by their teachers, Asian students' responses were "short, factual type answers" (p. 50), while the non-Asian students asked more questions and were more likely to negotiate their grades, initiate discourse, admit they did not understand a point in class, or share information regarding their home countries.

Clearly, if the patterns described above are correct, Asian international students are at a distinct disadvantage when it comes to pursuing degrees in subjects in which the seminar is the main educational delivery model. Furthermore, if as has been noted by Galvan & Edlund (1995) and Ruiz (1996), Asian students' writing ability as measured by essay examinations is slower to develop, then their disadvantage in American university classes will be even greater when the written assignment is used as the major performance measure. This study was undertaken to investigate the patterns of classroom participation of Asian students enrolled in three colleges and universities in the Los Angeles area and the patterns of their involvement in activities both in and out of the classroom that are widely thought to promote success in language development.

Research Questions

Two general research questions were posited in this study. The first was whether Asian students' participation in their university classes was consistent with patterns normally thought to promote greater success in American universities, including active participation in class discussions. The second general question dealt with the extent to which the students participated in activities that promote language development, such as regular interactions with English speakers outside of class. It was expected that students who stated that they preferred to participate actively in class and that they had greater contact with English speakers outside of class would also exhibit higher English proficiency ratings. Personality type was included in an attempt to understand better the possible effects of the Asian students' cultural background—if their cultural background tended to inhibit their active participation in class, then a reserved personality would be expected to exacerbate these tendencies whereas an outgoing personality would diminish them. The following, more specific, research questions were used to guide this investigation.

1. What is the pattern of Asian students' preference for studying (i.e., whether they prefer to study independently or with a group), in relation to their national origin (i.e., China, Korea, and Japan)?

2. What is the pattern of the students' self-reported preferences for class participation, according to their (a) English ability and (b) personality type?

3. Does the extent of the students' contact with English speakers outside of class change according to (a) their relative English ability or (b) their personality type?

Method

Subjects

Subjects for this study came from three postsecondary educational institutions in the greater Los Angeles area—a community college, a state university, and a research university, all with large intensive ESL programs. A convenience sample of 150 international visa students was used in this investigation. Of the 150 respondents, 70 were Japanese; 36 Chinese, from both Taiwan and mainland China; 15 Korean; 17 were other Asians and Pacific Islanders from six different countries; and 12 were non-Asians from 11 other countries. The study reported here deals only with the 121 Asian students from Japan, China/Taiwan, and Korea because these were the only groups that were large enough for meaningful statistical comparisons. All of the students were enrolled in intensive ESL classes at the time of their participation in this study. Table 1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the sample studied.

Table 1
Description of Asian Population Groups Studied, Displayed in Percentage of Group

	Chinese *n* = 36	Korean *n* = 15	Japanese *n*= 70	Total *n* = 121
Gender				
Females	66.7	66.7	61.4	63.6
Males	33.3	33.3	38.6	36.4
Age				
21 and under	20.0	7.1	22.9	20.2
22 to 25	31.4	21.4	50.0	41.2
26 to 29	34.3	42.9	22.9	28.6
30 and over	14.3	28.6	4.3	10.1
Student status				
Community college	6.1	0.0	25.0	16.4
Undergraduate student	24.2	33.3	48.5	39.7
Graduate student	69.7	66.7	26.5	44.0
TOEFL score				
Below 550	17.9	7.1	36.2	27.9
550 to 599	46.4	71.4	53.6	54.1
600 and over	35.7	21.4	10.1	18.0
Length of stay in U.S.				
Under 1 year	13.9	13.3	10.0	11.6
1 to 2 years	30.6	13.3	21.4	23.1
3 to 5 years	33.3	46.7	42.9	40.5
6 years or more	22.2	26.7	25.7	24.8

Instrument and Procedure

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of three sections (see appendix). The first section asked about the students' background, including their gender, age, nationality, length of stay in the U.S., and Test of

English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores. Several other questions dealt with their participation in class and with their use and ability in English. For instance, they were asked whether they preferred lecture classes or seminars and whether they considered themselves good at giving presentations in class. Also, they were asked to give the number of close friends with whom they spoke in English and to rate their English proficiency in the four skill areas. Finally, they were asked to respond to a series of questions about their use of English in academic contexts, such as the extent to which they asked questions of the teacher in class or answered the teacher's questions spontaneously. The students responded to these questions by using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*a lot*); the results for these questions were reported in means.

Part II of the questionnaire, adapted from Kinsella (1996), was used to determine whether the students preferred to study independently or in a group. This section consisted of 14 statements, and the students indicated whether they agreed or disagreed with each statement. The independent-oriented statements included "When I work on assignments by myself, I often feel frustrated or bored" and "I prefer not to do too much group work in a class." The group-oriented questions included "I enjoy having opportunities to share opinions and experiences, compare answers, and solve problems with a group of classmates" and "Usually, I find working in a group to be more interesting and productive than working alone in class." The results for this section were reported in mean scores.

Part III of the questionnaire, adapted from Armstrong (1994), consisted of 10 questions designed to determine whether students' personality types were more outgoing or reserved. Armstrong used the term *interpersonal* to describe someone who is outgoing and finds it easy to engage others in conversation. This personality type contrasted with the *intrapersonal* type, a term used to describe someone who is withdrawn and prefers to remain passive in social situations. The questions in this section included five that were oriented toward an outgoing personality, such as "I would rather spend my evenings at a party than stay at home alone," and five questions oriented toward a reserved personality, as in "I would prefer to spend a weekend alone in a cabin in the woods rather than at a fancy resort with lots of people around." The students were asked to check all of the items that applied to them; they were categorized as either interpersonal (i.e., outgoing) or intrapersonal (i.e., reserved) when seven or more of their responses matched one of the categories. Those who scored in the middle range were labeled *not determined*.

The questionnaires were distributed to students enrolled in a community college, a state university, and a research university in the Los Angeles area. Some, but not all, of the students surveyed were enrolled in ESL classes in addition to their degree courses. The students were asked to complete the questionnaires outside of class and to return them on the next class day. Their participation was voluntary.

Results

The results of the surveys are presented according to the three research questions.

Preference for Studying Independently or with a Group

The first research question concerned the students' preferences for studying either in a group or alone. Table 2, which displays a cross-tabulation of the students' cultural background and their ranking on a scale of study preferences (part II of the questionnaire), reveals a pattern of difference on this scale based on culture. The largest difference in this table is between the Chinese students, who preferred to study in groups, and the Japanese students, who preferred to study independently. This difference was confirmed as the only significant comparison using the Bonferroni post-hoc procedure ($F = 3.723$, $p < .05$).

Table 2
Preference for Studying Independently or with a Group
Displayed by National Origin, in Percent of Background Category

	Chinese *n* = 36	**Korean** *n* = 15	**Japanese** *n* = 70	**Total** *n* = 121
Prefer to study individually	19.4	33.3	45.7	36.4
No preference	19.4	26.7	25.7	24.0
Prefer to study in groups	61.1	40.0	28.6	39.7

Class Performance and Class Participation

The second research question concerned the students' self-reported preferences for class performance and class participation, according to their English ability and personality type. Tables 3 and 4 display the group means and standard deviations of four items on the questionnaire that pertained to class performance and class participation, computed according to the students' self-assessed language proficiency (Table 3) and their personality type (Table 4).

Table 3
Mean Responses (and Standard Deviations) on Class Participation Preference Items for All Asian Groups Combined, Displayed by Proficiency Levels

	Low proficiency *n* = 41	Mid proficiency *n*= 46	High proficiency *n* = 34	Total *n*= 121
Students talk with classmates in English	3.15 (0.82)	3.17 (0.80)	3.88 (0.77)	3.36 (0.86)
Students ask teacher questions in class	2.44 (0.87)	2.72 (1.00)	3.53 (0.83)	2.85 (1.01)
Students answer teacher's questions spontaneously	2.88 (1.00)	2.87 (1.05)	3.91 (0.75)	3.17 (1.06)
Students understand what teacher says in class	3.51 (0.87)	4.02 (0.80)	4.44 (0.66)	3.97 (0.87)

Note. Items on the response scale were:
1 = *not at all*, 2 = *very little*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *often*, and 5 = *a lot*.

Table 4
Mean Responses (and Standard Deviations) on Class Participation Preference Items for All Asian Groups Combined, Displayed by Personality Type

	Intrapersonal personality *n* = 54	Not determined *n*= 19	Interpersonal personality *n* = 47	Total *n*= 121
Students talk with classmates in English	3.15 (0.81)	3.21 (0.79)	3.68 (0.86)	3.36 (0.86)
Students ask teacher questions in class	2.74 (0.91)	2.32 (0.95)	3.19 (1.04)	2.85 (1.01)

Students answer teacher's questions spontaneously	3.07 (1.01)	2.68 (1.16)	3.47 (1.02)	3.17 (1.06)
Students understand what teacher says in class	3.94 (0.79)	3.89 (0.94)	4.06 (0.89)	3.97 (0.87)

Note. Items on the response scale were:
1 = *not at all*, 2 = *very little*, 3 = *sometimes*, 4 = *often*, and 5 = *a lot*.
One student did not respond on personality scale.

The results were largely as expected. In both comparisons, the lowest response means were on the items "students ask teacher questions in class" (the lowest) and "students answer teacher's questions spontaneously" (the next-lowest). Students with the highest self-assessed English proficiency ratings had higher response means than the other two groups (see Table 3). Also as expected, students who were classified as having an interpersonal personality had higher response means than those with an intrapersonal personality (see Table 4).

Tables 5 and 6 display the ANOVA results for these items. When language proficiency was used as the independent variable (Table 5), the results were uniformly significant ($p < .01$). The Bonferroni post-hoc procedure confirmed the strength of the differences between the high proficiency group and the other two proficiency levels ($p < .0001$) on all but the last item ("students understand what teacher says in class"). However, while the high/mid-proficiency comparison was not significant on this item, the mid/low-proficiency comparison was ($p < .01$). On all of the other items, the mid/low proficiency comparison was not significant.

Table 5
Analysis of Variance, with Language Proficiency as Independent Variable, and Class Participation Preference Items as Dependent Variables

Source	**Sum of squares**	***df***	***F***
Students talk with classmates in English			
Between groups	12.740	2	9.987*
Within groups	75.260	118	
Total	88.000	120	

Students ask teacher questions in class			
Between groups	23.428	2	14.120*
Within groups	97.894	118	
Total	121.322	120	
Students answer teacher's questions spontaneously			
Between groups	26.351	2	14.350*
Within groups	108.343	118	
Total	134.694	120	
Students understand what teacher says in class			
Between groups	16.263	2	13.036*
Within groups	73.605	118	
Total	89.868	120	

*$p < .01$

Table 6
Analysis of Variance, with Personality Type as Independent Variable, and Class Participation Preference Items as Dependent Variables

Source	**Sum of squares**	***df***	***F***
Students talk with classmates in English			
Between groups	7.681	2	5.604**
Within groups	80.185	117	
Total	87.867	119	
Students ask teacher questions in class			
Between groups	11.548	2	6.155**
Within groups	109.752	117	
Total	121.300	119	
Students answer teacher's questions spontaneously			
Between groups	9.156	2	4.267*
Within groups	125.511	117	
Total	134.667	119	

Students understand what teacher says in class			
Between groups	0.535	2	0.367
Within groups	85.431	117	
Total	85.967	119	

$^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$

When personality type was used as the independent variable, the results were not as consistent, as can be seen in Table 6. The variance was significant only for the first three items; however, these results are difficult to interpret because the only comparisons that yielded significant differences using the Bonferroni post-hoc procedure were the interpersonal/intrapersonal personality comparison on the first item ("students talk with classmates in English"; $p < .005$) and the interpersonal/not determined personality comparison on the third item ("students answer teacher's questions spontaneously"; $p < .05$). The lack of uniformity in these results suggests the need for further study of this relationship.

Contact with English Speakers Outside of Class

The third research question dealt with the extent of the surveyed students' contact with English speakers outside of class. Table 7 displays the group means and standard deviations for the two questionnaire items that dealt with out-of-class contact, computed according to the students' self-assessed language proficiency. Table 8 displays the group means for these same two items, computed according to the students' personalities.

Table 7
Means (and Standard Deviations) for Number of English-Speaking Friends and Extent of English Use Outside of Class, Displayed by Proficiency Levels

	Low proficiency *n* = 41	**Mid proficiency** *n* = 46	**High proficiency** *n* = 34
Number of English-speaking friends	2.93 (3.78)	3.98 (3.99)	6.15 (4.72)
Extent of English use outside of class	2.83 (1.09)	3.39 (0.88)	4.15 (0.86)

Note. English-speaking friends reported in mean numbers reported.
English use outside of class reported according to the response scale:
1 = *not at all,* 2 = *very little,* 3 = *sometimes,* 4 = *often,* and 5 = *a lot.*

Table 8
Means (and Standard Deviations) for Number of English-Speaking Friends and Extent of English Use Outside of Class, Displayed by Personality Type

	Intrapersonal personality *n* = 54	**Not determined** *n* = 19	**Interpersonal personality** *n* = 46
Number of English-speaking friends	3.80 (3.60)	4.47 (4.98)	3.98 (3.99)
Extent of English use outside of class	3.35 (1.03)	3.68 (1.00)	3.39 (0.88)

Note. English-speaking friends reported in mean numbers reported.
English use outside of class reported according to the response scale:
1 = *not at all,* 2 = *very little,* 3 = *sometimes,* 4 = *often,* and 5 = *a lot.*

The findings with respect to this research question also were mixed. On the one hand, Table 7 reveals that the students with the highest proficiency means reported having the highest number of English-speaking friends and claimed to use English outside of class to a greater extent than the rest. However, the high standard deviations on the items regarding the number of English-speaking friends also suggests a cautious interpretation because of the large amount of variation. On the other hand, Table 8 reveals that the interpersonal personality group had higher means than the intrapersonal group, but they were lower than the not determined group's means. The ANOVA results for these items, displayed in Tables 9 and 10, also yielded mixed results—significance was obtained when language proficiency was the independent variable but not with personality type. The only significant difference found, using the Bonferroni post-hoc procedure, was the low/high-proficiency comparison on both items ($p < .005$).

Table 9
Analysis of Variance, with Language Proficiency as Independent Variable, and Contact with English Speakers Outside of Class as the Dependent Variables

Source	Sum of squares	*df*	*F*
Extent of English use outside of class			
Between groups	32.313	2	17.813*
Within groups	107.026	118	
Total	139.339	120	
Number of English-speaking friends			
Between groups	197.444	2	5.758*
Within groups	2006.023	117	
Total	2203.467	119	

*$p < .01$

Table 10
Analysis of Variance, with Personality Type as Independent Variable, and Contact with English Speakers Outside of Class as the Dependent Variables

Source	Sum of squares	*df*	*F*
Extent of English use outside of class			
Between groups	1.721	2	0.733
Within groups	137.271	117	
Total	138.992	119	
Number of English-speaking friends			
Between groups	23.029	2	0.618
Within groups	2162.366	116	
Total	2185.395	118	

Discussion and Conclusions

This study sought to investigate Asian students' self-reported preferences for class performance and class participation and whether these preferences were related to their English ability and personality type.

First, as expected, the class participation of the students surveyed was generally consistent with patterns normally thought to promote success in U.S. universities. Although a difference was found between the Chinese and Japanese students' rankings on the scale of study preferences, the scale scores for the entire population favored studying in groups (39.7%) over studying individually (36.4%), as was seen in Table 2. The mean scale scores on most of the class participation items suggest that the students surveyed would perform well in their colleges and universities—the means for three of the four class participation items are above the 3.0 midpoint (Tables 3 & 4).

The most notable pattern in these data was their consistency with the portraits of Asian students given earlier in this paper, in which Asian students were described as passive, respectful of their teachers, and bound by the need to maintain group harmony. The mean scale scores across the four class participation items reflect this portrait: The lowest scores were on the two items that are the least consistent with these cultural patterns—"students ask teacher questions in class" and "students answer teacher's questions spontaneously." They are followed by the item "students talk with classmates in English." As expected, the highest score was for the most passive item, "students understand what teacher says in class." In other words, the students reported that they were least likely to initiate a question to their teacher in class and to volunteer to answer a teacher's question. This confirms Sato's (1982) and Watanabe's (1993) findings that Asian students are less likely to engage in self-initiated behaviors in class.

Another focus of this study was the extent of the Asian students' involvement with the English-speaking communities outside of class. Though the students' scores on both of these items were relatively high, the problem with the large standard deviations for "number of English-speaking friends" was noted earlier. The other item that measured out-of-class involvement, "extent of English use outside of class," yielded more normal standard deviations. These findings were not notable until the students' language proficiency and personality type were taken into account. Language proficiency was the most critical factor in this study, as was expected. The most proficient students in English were the most comfortable deviating from the passive patterns expected in Asian classrooms; they were also the most likely to speak English outside of class. The findings for personality type were not as clear-cut and will need to be investigated further, perhaps with a larger sample that includes more non-Asian students.

The present study needs to be extended to non-Asian students in order to understand the results presented here more fully. The number of non-Asian students sampled in this study is small; however, even the small

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amount of data for these students suggests that the differences between Asian and non-Asian students are real. In addition, more classroom-centered research is needed that seeks to identify specific techniques that are effective in training Asian students to participate in their classes in ways that serve to equalize their chances for success in the various U.S. educational contexts. Because of the strong pattern of lower performance on written tasks that was noted earlier for Asian students (Galvan & Edlund, 1995; Ruiz, 1996), it is important to focus on techniques that are especially effective with Asians.

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Appendix

Language Learning Strategy Preferences Questionnaire

Your participation in this survey is voluntary, and you will not be penalized in any way if you choose not to participate.

Results of this questionnaire will be used strictly for research purposes. The information you provide is confidential. No one will be identified by name, and the results will be reported as group scores only. It is important that you answer all of the questions.

Thank you for your assistance with this survey.

PART I

1. Gender: M F
2. Age: ______
3. What degree are you pursuing? AA BA MA or higher
4. Nationality: ________________________________
5. How long have you lived in the United States? ______________
6. Have you ever taken the TOEFL? Yes No
   If "Yes", what was your highest score? _______ (Year taken _______)
7. Which of the following style of class do you prefer?
   Lecture Seminar (Discussion)
8. Do you consider yourself good at giving presentations in class?
   Yes No
9. How many close friends do you have with whom you talk in English?
   ____

10. Please rate your English proficiency in the four skill areas by circling a number for each skill from 1 (lowest) to 5 (highest)

	Lowest	Low	Mid	High	Highest
Reading	1	2	3	4	5
Writing	1	2	3	4	5
Speaking	1	2	3	4	5
Listening	1	2	3	4	5

Please respond to the following questions by circling a number on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*a lot*)

	Not at all	Very little	Some-times	Often	A lot
11. How much do you talk with other classmates in your class?	1	2	3	4	5
12. How often do you ask questions of the teacher in class?	1	2	3	4	5
13. How often do you answer a teacher's questions spontaneously?	1	2	3	4	5
14. How much of the time do you understand what the teacher says?	1	2	3	4	5
15. How much do you use English outside of your classes?	1	2	3	4	5

PART II

Language Classroom Preferences Questionnaire

Directions: Please read each statement. Then, taking into consideration your past and present educational experiences, indicate by placing an *X* on the appropriate line whether you mostly agree or mostly disagree with each statement.

	Agree	Disagree
1. When I work on assignments by myself, I often feel frustrated or bored.	______	______
2. When I work by myself on assignments (instead of with a partner or a small group), I usually do a better job.	______	______

3. I enjoy having opportunities to share opinions and experiences, compare answers, and solve problems with a group of classmates. ______ ______
4. When I work by myself on assignments, I usually concentrate better and learn more. ______ ______
5. Most of the time, I prefer to work by myself in class rather than with a partner or small group. ______ ______
6. When I work with a partner or a small group in class (instead of by myself), I often feel frustrated or feel like I am wasting time. ______ ______
7. When I work with a small group in class, I usually learn more and do a better job on an assignment. ______ ______
8. Most of the time, I would prefer to work with a group rather than with a single partner or by myself. ______ ______
9. I prefer to have regular opportunities in a class to work in groups. ______ ______
10. I prefer not to do too much group work in a class. ______ ______
11. I mainly want my teacher to give us classroom assignments that we can work on by ourselves. ______ ______
12. Usually, I find working in a group to be more interesting and productive than working alone in class. ______ ______
13. Usually, I find working in a group to be a waste of time. ______ ______
14. I generally get more accomplished when I work with a group on a task in class. ______ ______

PART III

Personal Characteristics Questionnaire

Please check all of the sentences that are true for yourself or which fit your own personal characteristics.

_____ I am a person that people come to for advice and counseling at work or in my neighborhood.

_____ I prefer group sports, like badminton, volleyball, or softball, to solo sports, such as swimming and jogging.

_____ When I have a problem, I am more likely to look for another person to help me than to try to solve the problem myself.

_____ I like to teach others what I know how to do.

_____ I would rather spend my evenings at a party than stay at home alone.

_____ I usually spend time alone meditating, reflecting, or thinking about important life questions.

_____ I have a hobby or interest that I do by myself.

_____ I have some important goals for my life that I think about often.

_____ I would prefer to spend a weekend alone in a cabin in the woods rather than at a fancy resort with lots of people around.

_____ I consider myself to be independent minded.

Thank you very much for your assistance with this survey.

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Mishearings of Content Words by ESL Learners[1]

■ Since the introduction of communicative language teaching, many listening materials have focused on the development of top-down listening skills, even though many ESL learners still have difficulty with bottom-up processing. Many of the standard listening materials deal with bottom-up phenomena such as assimilation, deletion, and insertion only for function words; there are no listening materials designed exclusively to train students to listen to content words, though many have variable pronunciations (e.g., *restaurant* > *rest~~au~~rant, suppose* > *s~~u~~ppose*).

This paper discusses prototypical mishearings of content words by Chinese (Cantonese and Mandarin), Korean, and Vietnamese speakers of English (n=18), based on the students' written summaries of a university lecture and their subsequent performance on dictations of the segments that had given them difficulty in writing the summaries. All the mishearings were classified into four categories: (a) the phonological level, (b) the lexical level, (c) the syntactic level, and (d) the schematic level. Moreover, the hearing errors made at the phonological level were subdivided into substitutions, insertions, deletions, misperception of stress, and missegmentation. The paper also discusses what types of mishearings are most common in ESL learners' listening and whether or not the frequency of each category above varies according to different first language backgrounds.

Finally, this study addresses the pedagogical implications of the actual mishearing data from these ESL learners for listening instruction, arguing that ESL/EFL teachers should attend more systematically to bottom-up listening skills to help their learners more accurately process content words.

Although oral proficiency has received recent attention in second and foreign language teaching, not enough research has been done on aural proficiency due to the many complicated psychological processes which listening comprehension entails. But accurate listening comprehension is crucial for achieving effective oral communication. It is generally assumed that the longer learners stay in a country where the target language is spoken, the more their listening ability will automatically develop. In reality this is only a myth. The small scale survey that I conducted with students (*n*=18), enrolled in Advanced English as a Second Language (ESL 33C) at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) in spring quarter, 1995, shows that even if learners have lived in the United States for more than four years, they still feel that they have trouble listening to academic lectures. As Table 1 shows, despite the fact that their average number of years of studying English is 9.03 and the average of length of stay in the U.S. is 4.5 years, as many as 74% of the students sometimes or often encounter difficulty in listening to academic lectures, and only 33% of them report that they can understand more than 80% of all lecture content:

Table 1
ESL Students' Self-Evaluation of Academic Listening Ability

Do you have trouble listening to lectures?	*n* = 18
not at all	1 (5%)
a little	4 (21%)
sometimes	7 (42%)
often	6 (32%)

What amount do you understand?	*n* = 18
0-20%	1 (6%)
20-40%	0 (0%)
40-60%	3 (17%)
60-80%	8 (44%)
80-100%	6 (33%)

Due to the students' subjective judgment and the limited number of subjects, we cannot easily generalize the results; however, this survey makes clear how difficult the acquisition of nativelike listening comprehension ability is.

Background

Recent language teaching methods have motivated me to conduct this mishearing research. Since the introduction of communicative language teaching and Krashen and Terrell's natural approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), top-down listening skills have been the focus; as a result, many classroom activities in advanced academic ESL tend to consist of such holistic skills as note taking, outlining, and summarizing. I do not deny the importance of these activities, but I argue that in second and foreign language teaching, even advanced students may need training in bottom-up listening skills.

Bottom-up listening skills refer to learners' ability to process incoming acoustic signals or to use the phonological code effectively so that they can identify segments or words in a given context (Brown, 1990). Rost (1990) identifies these phonological cues as "phonemic sequencing, metrical distribution (loudness and tempo), tone boundary (pause), and prosodic weighting (stress and intonation)" (p. 35). This process utilizes both linguistic information such as phonetic/phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantic, pragmatic, and discourse information as well as nonlinguistic information. Since this process is complicated, even native speakers who have enough of this kind of information may sometimes experience a communication breakdown because they cannot process incoming sound signals appropriately. For example, in her study, Browman (1980) collected 222 misperceptions by native speakers of English. Garnes and Bond's (1980) data consist of about 900 examples of misperceptions by native speakers that have occurred in conversational speech, while Cutler and Butterfield (1992) examined rhythmic cues to speech segmentation. One of the most interesting misperception examples cited by Celce-Murcia (1980) is a case in which *Quality Inn* was misheard as *Holiday Inn*:

> Charley: Hi, I'm at the Quality Inn near L.A. airport.
> Marianne: The Holiday Inn?
> Charley: No, the Quality Inn. (p. 205)

This miscommunication can be explained in terms of Marianne's mishearing due to the same number of syllables and the same pattern of stress. It may also result from Marianne's greater familiarity with the Holiday Inn than the Quality Inn. In fact, there was also a dialect difference: Charley has the same stressed vowel /ɑ/ in *Holiday* and *Quality* whereas Marianne uses /ɑ/ and /ɔ/ respectively (Celce-Murcia, personal communication, June, 1998).

Given the difficulties that native speakers experience processing incoming speech signals, we can predict that those nonnative speakers who have only a limited number of acoustic signals to use for decoding information must have more serious mishearing problems. For example, nonnative speakers' difficulty in perceiving function words caused by reduced vowels has been discussed in many introductory textbooks on phonetics/phonology and the teaching of pronunciation (e.g., Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996; Kenworthy, 1987; Ladefoged, 1993). These texts clearly show how each function word is produced in connected speech. Also, this well-documented information is reflected in several ESL pronunciation textbooks dealing exclusively with phenomena related to these function words (e.g., Rost and Stratton's [1978] *Listening in the Real World* and Weinstein's [1982] *Whaddaya Say?*, both of which are designed to teach intermediate or advanced learners the sound changes that occur in normal speech).[2]

The ability to comprehend reduced speech is very helpful for acquiring basic listening skills; however, it does not directly improve overall listening proficiency because function words do not play as crucial a role in constructing the speaker's message as content words. Unfortunately, very little research has been done on the mishearing of content words by nonnative speakers of English. The reality is that we don't yet know to what extent ESL learners have difficulty hearing content words accurately. This paper aims to break new ground by examining how nonnative English speakers process incoming speech produced at a normal rate and by analyzing their mishearings of content words that occur in a university lecture.

Research Questions

Rost (1990) mentions that "most mishearings can be identified as occurring at a segmental level," and can be classified into "deletions, insertions and errors" (p. 52). In addition, although there are some previous studies on mishearings in L1 (Bond & Garnes, 1980; Browman, 1980; Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1986), no research presents a comprehensive analysis of mishearings by nonnative speakers. Therefore, this paper describes mishearings of content words based on the criteria presented in Rost, focusing on how nonnative speakers mishear content words, whether there are typical patterns of mishearing, and whether there is a difference in the patterns between speakers with different language backgrounds. The research questions addressed are as follows:

1. How do ESL learners mishear the content words occurring in an academic university lecture delivered at a normal rate of speech?
2. Into what types can the mishearings be categorized?
3. What types of mishearings are more likely or less likely to occur in ESL learners' listening?
4. Is there any difference in the frequency of each type of mishearing between speakers of different languages?

Method

Subjects

Chinese, Korean and Vietnamese speakers of English who were enrolled in one section of an advanced multiskills ESL course (ESL 33C, Advanced English as a Second Language) in the ESL Service Courses at UCLA participated in several research sessions. The total number of students was 18: Four each were native speakers of Cantonese Chinese, Mandarin Chinese, and Vietnamese, and 6 were native speakers of Korean. Most of the students had studied English for about 10 years and had been in the U.S. for more than 4 years.

All students enrolled in this course after being placed at this level by taking the UCLA English as a Second Language Placement Examination (ESLPE) or by passing the previous ESL course. All the students who participated in this study also were taking three to four regular university courses at the same time as ESL 33C. Thus, they all had exposure to university lectures in English outside the ESL course.

Data Collection

Data were collected from the students as follows:

1. Students discussed the content of a lecture beforehand so that the difficulty caused by lack of background knowledge could be reduced.
2. The students listened to a 10-minute segment of a videotaped university lecture and wrote a summary of it.
3. Based on the students' summary, a 1$^1/_2$-minute segment they found difficult to understand was selected. Each utterance in the segment was divided into intonation units and edited so that pauses were inserted before and after each intonation unit.
4. The subjects were told to transcribe the taped segment from the lecture. First they listened to the normal text. Then they listened to the edited tape with pauses and transcribed it. Finally, they made corrections while listening to the normal text again.

Materials

The authentic listening segment, a regular part of the curriculum of the ESL course in which the subjects were enrolled, was taken from a videotaped communication studies course offered at UCLA. The content of the lecture segment was the First Amendment and the media, focusing on the individual's right to hold peaceful meetings and a rally in Skokie, Illinois held by the American Nazi Party. The transcript of the lecture segment is found in Appendix A.

Results and Discussion

All the transcriptions obtained from the 18 students were carefully analyzed by identifying mishearings of the content words. The total number of content words misheard in the $1^1/2$-minute segment of the lecture amounted to 164 words. How all these data were analyzed and categorized into several types of mishearings is shown below.

Simple Mishearings and Multiple Mishearings

The analysis and categorization of misheard words can be very complicated, since any mishearing may involve more than one factor at the same time. For example, a given mishearing can result from substitution, deletion, and insertion—all at the same time. This caused much difficulty in classifying mishearings into distinct patterns. To simplify the coding procedure, all the mishearings were first divided into two categories: *simple mishearings*, which are caused by only one factor, and *multiple mishearings*, in which more than one factor is involved. For example, when *defending* was said, some subjects heard *depending* by substituting [p] for [f]. This type of mishearing was coded as a simple mishearing. On the other hand, *attitude* was misheard as *add to*, which was caused by the substitution of [d] for the first [t], the deletion of /i/, the deletion of the final [d] , and the missegmentation of one word into two. This example was coded as a multiple mishearing, that is, a mishearing in which more than one factor is involved.

Types of Errors

All the mishearings were subsequently categorized into 12 patterns, each of which is exemplified as follows:

Syllable substitution: *reversal* > *universal*, where one or more than one syllable was substituted for another at one time.

Syllable insertion: *went through* > *to run through*, in which an additional syllable *to* was inserted.

Syllable deletion: *reversal* > **versail*, where one or more than one syllable is deleted.

Segment substitution: *defending* > *depending*, in which [f] was replaced with [p].

Segment insertion: *publicity* > *public city*, where [k] was inserted.[3]

Segment deletion: *playing* > *paying*, in which [l] was deleted.

Same or similar stress: *explicitly* (● ◆ ● ●) > *specifically* (● ◆ ● ● ●) where a quite different word with a similar stress pattern was heard.

Wrong stress: *ultimately* (◆ ● ● ●) > *alternatively* (● ◆ ● ● ●), in which a stress pattern was misheard or the word *alternatively* may have been stored in the learner's mental lexicon with the same stress pattern as that of *ultimately*.[4]

Missegmentation: *wanted* > *want it*, where segments were misdivided into the wrong number of words; *wanted* was misheard as two words.

Lexical effect: *trying to stop* > *wanted to stop*, in which a lexically appropriate or familiar word was misheard for the original word.

Syntactic effect: *there was even a three hour TV movie* > *They made three hour[s TV] movie*, where the original words were replaced with syntactically appropriate words so that a sentence could make sense.

Schematic effect: *Liberties Union* > *Labo[u]rs Union*, where schematic knowledge familiar to a listener led to the selection of a wrong word.

Observed Mishearings

Appendix B contains a list of the mishearings and the categorization of mishearing, shown according to the language background groups. It is surprising that mishearings of more than 150 content words were obtained in a segment that was only $1^{1}/_{2}$-minutes long. If we included errors in hearing function words, the number would probably triple since more mishearings of the function words were observed. Although it has been generally said that unstressed function words are very difficult for nonnative speakers to identify, the findings of this research indicate that even stressed content words can easily be misidentified. This fact shows that nonnative speakers' listening can be very inaccurate, and the inability to hear content words can lead to wrong schemata and finally to communication breakdown. For example, given that *fear this* or *and peer this* was heard when *appealed this* was said, we can assume serious misunderstanding would occur. This research gives us insight into the fact that nonnative speakers' listening, even for advanced learners, is very much a guessing game based on unreliable incoming speech signals.

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Frequencies of Each Type

Though it is difficult to generalize results due to the limited amount of data and the limitation of the subject pool to 18 ESL learners, this research gives valuable insight into the types of mishearings that are likely to occur in advanced ESL learners' academic listening. Table 2 shows the patterns of mishearings of content words by this particular group of nonnative speakers.

Table 2
Patterns of Mishearings of Content Words

	Cantonese		Mandarin		Korean		Vietnamese		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Simple mishearing	24	65	22	59	29	54	22	61	97	59.1
Multiple mishearing	13	35	15	41	25	46	14	39	67	40.9
Total	37	100	37	100	54	100	36	100	164	100.0
Syllable substitution	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0.4
Syllable insertion	4	7	2	4	1	1	3	6	10	4.0
Syllable deletion	3	5	6	11	7	8	6	11	22	8.9
Segment substitution	22	40	18	33	25	29	20	37	85	34.3
Segment insertion	5	9	2	4	8	9	2	4	17	6.9
Segment deletion	6	11	3	6	11	13	7	13	27	10.9
Same stress	0	0	5	9	5	6	3	6	13	5.2
Wrong stress	0	0	2	4	2	2	1	2	5	2.0
Missegmentation	8	15	6	11	15	18	6	11	35	14.1
Lexical effect	6	11	7	13	6	7	6	11	25	10.1
Syntactic effect	1	2	0	0	2	2	0	0	3	1.2
Schematic effect	0	0	2	4	3	4	0	0	5	2.0
Total	55	100	54	100	85	100	54	100	248	100.0

First, I will focus on the two main categories of mishearing: simple and multiple mishearing. As Table 2 shows, about 60% of the total mishearings are identified as simple mishearings ($\chi2 = 5.13$, $df=1$, $p < .025$): 24 simple mishearings for Cantonese speakers (65% of the total mishearings in this language group); 22 simple mishearings for Mandarin speakers (59% of the total); 29 for Korean speakers (54% of the total); and 22 for Vietnamese speakers (61% of the total). We can therefore conclude that about half of the mishearings can be explained by only one factor.

As for the subcategorization of mishearings, errors at the syllable level are not common, but the results show that of these mishearings, there are more syllable deletions than syllable substitutions or insertions.

In terms of mishearing at the segment level, the frequencies of substitution for each language group are 22 (40%) for Cantonese speakers, 18 (33%) for Mandarin speakers, 25 (29%) for Korean speakers, and 20 (37%) for Vietnamese speakers. As Rost (1990) suggests, segment substitition errors tend to be greater than those involving insertion and deletion, though not significantly different.[5] The large number of mishearings caused by segment substitutions suggests that nonnative speakers' perception of segments is often inaccurate. In contrast, the small number of mishearings which resulted from segment deletion and insertion shows that the learners may be sensitive to the existence of segments.

Another serious problem with mishearing by nonnative speakers is missegmentation: The frequencies of mishearings resulting from missegmentation are 8 (15%), 6 (11%), 15 (18%) and 6 (11%) for Cantonese, Mandarin, Korean and Vietnamese speakers, respectively. This suggests that nonnative speakers have difficulty perceiving slight differences in juncture or word boundaries.

Differences Between Language Backgrounds

Table 2 indicates that there is not a significant difference in the types of mishearings between these four language groups (($\chi 2$ = 30.05, df = 33, p = .615). For those errors made at the syllable level, deletion is likely to occur in all the languages. This phenomenon can be related to the characteristics of English rhythmic patterns. The deleted syllables (e.g., *appealed this* →*feed it*, *developed* →*valid*) are not perceptually salient because they are all unstressed. From my own long experience of teaching English to Japanese speakers, it can be observed that ESL learners with syllable-timed language backgrounds tend to mishear unstressed syllables.

As for the frequency of mishearings at the segmental level, substitution is most common in all four language groups, and mishearings of this type total 85 (34%) out of 248. A closer look at some of the segments misheard may reveal first language interference. For example, Koreans, who have no /f/ phoneme, heard /f/ as /p/ (i.e., *defend* as *depend*).

Deletion is the second most common mishearing (27 =11%). Korean speakers have more deletions (11 = 41% out of all the deletions) than any other language group, which may relate to their production of syllable structures in English. Tarone (1987) mentions that Korean speakers depend more on consonant deletion for syllable simplification than Cantonese speakers. Tarone's finding might allow us to explain mishearings in terms of learners' perception and production of syllables.

Pedagogical Implications

Bottom-Up Processing

The findings of this study suggest that nonnative speakers' listening is exactly like a guessing game, based on unreliable incoming speech signals. Some might argue that top-down processing should be given priority over bottom-up processing so that listeners will play this guessing game in an effective way. In a sense, this view is feasible, as Brown (1990) claims:

> Since it is often the case that *there is enough contextual information to allow listeners to guess which word is being used, as long as they are able to identify some parts of the word adequately* [italics added], discrimination between segments is probably no more important than the ability to recognize a word even if it is much reduced in form in the stream of speech. (p. 150)

However, we should note that the amount of contextual information varies from topic to topic. Cummins (1981) proposes that language proficiency can be interpreted in terms of two distinct continua: one continuum, with one extreme characterized as context embedded and the other as context reduced and a second continuum with one extreme characterized as cognitively demanding and the other extreme as cognitively undemanding. Cummins claims that context-reduced language lacks contextual support such that incoming messages must be processed in a purely linguistic way. Moreover, he points out that cognitively demanding language, such as academic lectures, requires intellectual and cognitive involvement on the part of the interlocutors. His theory assures us that since there is not always enough contextual information to allow listeners to process messages in academic lectures, even advanced learners should be trained to pay more attention to bottom-up processing, that is, to phonological cues; otherwise, these learners may be unable to identify information-bearing words adequately.

Some Suggestions

How should we raise students' consciousness of phonological characteristics in fluent speech?

Focus on sound. I suggest that teachers have students listen to one or two short sentences in context, focusing only on sound. We should note that any sentence in connected speech has a lot of fluent speech characteristics such as reduction and elision. This focus on sound will also help students realize how content words sound in fluent speech (Janet Goodwin, personal communication, February, 1996). For example, the first sentence in the video segment used in this study includes several pronunciation variations of /t/ in content words:

> *So the problem was that the Jewish community in Skokie, although we understand their sentiment, was moving counter to the Constitution.*

	citation form	**fluent speech**	**characteristics**
community	[kəmjunəti]	[kəmjunəɾi]	flapping of [t]
sentiment	[sentɪmənt]	[senɾɪmənt]	flapping of [t] or
		[senɪmənt]	deletion of [t]
		[sẽnɪmənt]	nasalization of preceding vowel
counter	[kaʊntɚ]	[kaʊnɾɚ]	flapping of [t] or
		[kaʊnɚ]	deletion of [t]
		[kaʊ̃nɚ]	nasalization of preceding vowel

Getting students to pay attention to the actual pronunciation of each content word will surely raise students' awareness of various phonetic forms of a given word. One of the activities which will work is what I call "dictation in context." The procedure is as follows:

1. Using a tape, have students listen to a sentence in its surrounding context so that those phonological features which appear in it are maintained.
2. Have students write the sentence, including the target phonological feature.
3. Give them a transcript to check whether their dictation is correct, discussing why they made mistakes and explaining the target phonological features (e.g., flapping of [t], deletion of [t]).
4. Have them listen to another sentence and find words with the same phonological features.

Also, teachers can integrate a similar type of exercise into the production phase of the lesson for a pronunciation activity. After going over the four steps above, students can practice producing the target phonological features in controlled, guided, and communicative practice (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996).

Focus on neighboring sounds. For accurate perception of a sound, we can have students pay attention to its neighboring sounds as well. Browman (1980) suggests that preceding vowels provide a variety of specific cues for final consonants (e.g., vowel lengthening or nasalization). For example, the length of the preceding vowel helps discriminate between *got* and *God* . If the vowel is longer, the following consonant is perceived as a voiced consonant. The nasalization of a vowel is also found in *sentiment* and *counter* in the above-cited sentence from the video segment.

Integrate of bottom-up processing into top-down processing. Dictation exercises have been used mainly to train students in bottom-up skills, but since students tend to attend only to the word or sentence level, they do not utilize enough contextual information while working on dictation. To help students develop top-down processing skills through dictation, teachers should not give students single sentences for dictation, but instead should:

1. ask students to select an appropriate target sentence or phrase (e.g., topic sentences, supporting sentences, or discourse markers),
2. have them write it down while listening to the larger context of the entire paragraph provided using a tape recorder or VCR so that phonological features in fluent speech can be maintained, and
3. check and discuss the phonetic variations as well as the content of the entire listening passage.

Here is an example of an exercise in which students are asked to select the topic sentence from an audio-taped lecture segment.

> Directions:
>
> Listen to the audiotaped introductory segment of the lecture we have seen and select one or more sentences expressing the main idea(s). Write down the sentence exactly as read.
>
> Transcription of the segment students hear:
>
> All right, today we'd like to look at a topic extraordinarily controversial in 1990, maybe it's the start of the 1990s, or maybe it began in late 1989 with the discussion over flag-burning. It's been brought to the forefront with the continuing discussion over pornography. And even today it's still relevant with the discussion of the Robert Robert Maplethorpe pictures, which we've talked

about a little bit and we'll talk about a little bit more, which will be coming to Los Angeles soon, and the entire discussion over the labeling of record albums. This issue of the media and the First Amendment. How much freedom we have. (Cole, 1990, May 29)

(Answer Key): This issue of the media and the First Amendment. How much freedom we have.

The underlined word *Amendment* includes some phonetic variations of vowels and consonants (e.g., the reduction of the first and third vowel, the deletion of [d]), which teachers can have students pay attention to for the discussion on listening. This exercise enables students to improve their selective listening skills (top-down processing) and to focus on the phonological features for dictation (bottom-up skills) at the same time.

Conclusion

This study shows that the 18 nonnative English speakers tend to mishear a large number of content words that are crucial in interpreting incoming messages. These mishearings may lead to more serious communication breakdown than we can imagine. The various mishearings in this study were categorized into several prototypes, mainly in terms of phonetic and phonological characteristics (e.g., segment, syllable, stress and segmentation). The results show that 60% of the mishearings resulted from a single factor rather than from multiple factors. The most frequent cause of mishearing at the segmental level was segment substitution, and the next most frequent was missegmentation; at the syllable level, deletion was frequently observed. Also, findings indicate that there is not a statistically significant difference in the type of mishearings between the students' native languages. Despite a limited amount of data, this may suggest that there may be universal patterns of mishearings, just as universal principles can explain many production errors made by nonnative speakers of English.[6]

There are several inevitable limitations to this research methodology. First, as discussed, most mishearings involve several factors at the same time. Therefore, the mishearings can be analyzed in different ways, and the categories of mishearings presented here are tentative. The example *appealed this >fear this* shows how complicated it is to categorize this mishearing into prototypes. The deletion of *a* could be the deletion of a segment or a syllable since one vowel can constitute a syllable. The replacement of [p] with [f] and [l] with [r] and the deletion of [d] are also involved.

Another more complex example concerns the mishearing of *preliminary* as *legitimately*. This error can be considered to be induced by the words having the same stress pattern. But it is impossible to explain why two words with quite different segments are confused. Such a mishearing involves five substitutions: [pr] > [l], [l] > [dʒ], [m] > [t], [n] > [m], and [r] > [tl]. The problem is whether or not we should categorize these various substitutions only into substitutions and why these various substitutions occur simultaneously. If we categorized this mishearing the way I have analyzed it in this research, it would be very difficult to make a systematic categorization for mishearings, and we would end up just describing examples of mishearings. Such examples explain why we cannot easily establish prototypes for mishearings. Clearly, an alternative way of analyzing such errors needs to be developed.

Second, John Field (personal e-mail communication, March 11, 1998) identifies another limitation of mishearing analysis, namely the ways in which mishearing data were collected in previous studies. Specifically, he notes that: (a) there is no record of the utterance that caused mishearing (some of the mishearings may result from variations in production, not perception), (b) there is no record of the relative volume and noise where the mishearing occurred, (c) there is no contextual information that may have caused the listeners' mishearing, and (d) the examples of mishearing were collected from a different range of listeners. The use of a mishearing corpus will not allow us to easily control for these various hidden factors.

Despite its shortcomings and its exploratory nature, this study provides some insight into the teaching of listening comprehension. Until recently, bottom-up listening skills have been overlooked in ESL, but the present study on the mishearing of content words by advanced ESL learners who have been in the U.S. for a long time shows that length of residence cannot guarantee listening competence. It appears that a large number of mishearings occur in content words as well as function words. This result implies that we should spend more time teaching bottom-up listening skills. Students must get used to listening to variations of each content word commonly heard in authentic communication so that they can correctly process as many actual tokens produced by different people in as many different situations as possible.

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Endnotes

[1] This paper was presented at the March 1998 meeting of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in Seattle.

[2] Though they do not focus exclusively on the sound change in connected speech, Dauer's (1993) *Accurate English* and Grant's (1993) *Well Said* also discuss several phonetic variations in terms of blending and linking (e.g., unreleased stops, resyllabification, palatalization).

[3] This is an example in which missegmentation is also involved.

[4] This example also involves a wrong syllable structure: *ultimately* is a four-syllable word but *alternatively* is a five-syllable word.

[5] With the four language groups collapsed into one, the data show that the frequencies of mishearings significantly differ according to each type ($\chi 2 = 279.71$, $df = 11$, $p < .001$). Also, segment substitution made the largest contribution to the Chi-square value.

[6] Tarone (1987) claims that "the preference for the CV syllable seems...to be a process which operates independently of language transfer" (p. 241).

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Appendix A
Transcript of the Lecture Segment

So the problem was that the Jewish community in Skokie, although we understand their sentiment, was moving counter to the Constitution. And they went to court and they got preliminary restraining orders, or temporary restraining orders stopping the Nazis from marching in Skokie. The Nazis went to higher court and appealed this, and in a strange reversal of positions, the American Civil Liberties Union, much of whose membership is Jewish and counted on the Jewish community for support, went to court defending the right of the Nazis to march in Skokie. And many, many many of their Jewish members, and non-Jewish members quit the ACLU.

Their attitude was: we believe in these freedoms, but to a point. The problem is that point is not explicitly developed in the Constitution. And if you rea—ultimately the Nazis won the right to march in Skokie. It took them about four and a half years. They went through lots of courts. They got more publicity than they ever could have hoped for. There was even a three hour TV movie made out of this called "Skokie," which I think you can rent with Danny Kaye playing one of the leaders of the Jewish community, trying to stop the Nazis from marching. And when they finally got their permission, they didn't even bother marching. By the time they finally had the right, they just canceled the whole rally. They didn't care at that point, they got more than they ever wanted.

Appendix B
Observed Mishearings

Cantonese Speakers

Original Words	Misheard Words	Simple/Multiple	Types of Mishearings
bother marching	border the marching	multiple	substitution insertion
counted on the Jewish	counter the Jewish	multiple	substitution deletion
Danny Kaye	any case	multiple	deletion substitution insertion
march	match	simple	substitution
of positions	opposition	simple	missegmentation
one of the leaders	want the leaders	multiple	missegmentation substitution syllable deletion
positions	position is	simple	missegmentation
rally	reality	multiple	substitution syllable insertion
rent with	ran with	multiple	substitution deletion
sentiment	ceremony of	simple	substitution
went through	run through	simple	substitution
went to court	when to the court	multiple	syllable insertion lexical effect

Mandarin Speakers

Original Words	Misheard Words	Simple/Multiple	Types of Mishearings
and counted	encounter	multiple	substitution missegmentation
called	cold	simple	substitution
defending	to fending	multiple	substitution missegmentation
defending the right	to fight to right	multiple	substitution syllable deletion
Kaye	decay	simple	syllable deletion
marching	march in	multiple	substitution missegmentation
of their	of other	multiple	deletion insertion missegmentation
quit	quick	simple	substitution
reversal	universal	multiple	substitution syllable insertion
sentiment	several men	multiple	substitution deletion wrong stress
wanted	want it	multiple	missegmentation substitution

Korean Speakers

Original Words	Misheard Words	Simple/Multiple	Types of Mishearings
a point	appoint	simple	missegmentation
although	all the we	simple	substitution missegmentation
although we	all we	simple	deletion
appealed this	fear this	multiple	deletion substitution
appealed this	and peer this	multiple	insertion substitution missegmentation
attitude was	add to was	multiple	missegmentation substitution deletion
called "Skokie"	court Skokie	multiple	substitution lexical effect

Korean Speakers (continued)

Original Words	Misheard Words	Simple/Multiple	Types of Mishearings
defending	depending	simple	substitution
explicitly s	pecifically	simple	stress pattern
got	God	simple	substitution
hoped for	hopeful	multiple	insertion deletion missegmentation
publicity	possibilities	multiple	syllable insertion schematic effect
publicity	public city	simple	insertion
quit	cut	multiple	deletion substitution
sentiment	settlement	simple	substitution
settlement	segment	simple	syllable deletion
ultimately	automatically	multiple	substitution insertion wrong stress

Vietnamese Speakers

Original Words	Misheard Words	Simple/Multiple	Types of Mishearings
ACLU	suit you	multiple	syllable deletion substitution
ACLU	sell you	simple	syllable deletion
appealed this	feed it	multiple	syllable deletion substitution deletion
developed	valid	multiple	syllable deletion substitution deletion
marching	margin	simple	substitution
playing	explain	multiple	syllable insertion syllable deletion
preliminary	legitimately	multiple	same stress pattern substitution
rea—ultimately	read it ultimately	simple	syllable insertion
went through	to go to	multiple	lexical effect substitution syllable insertion

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The CATESOL Journal

VÂN DEES
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Vietnamese High School Graduates: What Are Their Needs and Expectations?

■ **The California State University and University of California campuses have recently experienced an increasing number of nonnative speakers who enter their schools underprepared in English. This problem appears also to be common at community colleges. This study examines the personal backgrounds (e.g., age at time of arrival in the United States, number of years in American high schools, number of ESL classes taken in high school) of 54 Vietnamese graduates of American high schools and their perception of how prepared they are in English. The study also looks at what these students expect from ESL teachers and what classroom activities they find beneficial in ESL courses. While offering explanations for this particular group's underpreparedness in English, the authors conclude that (a) these students value well-organized, prepared teachers and (b) they would greatly benefit from additional focused study in grammar and writing skills.**

At the end of the Vietnam War in 1975, a significant number of Vietnamese refugees settled in California. The majority of them started building new lives and going to school in the San Jose, Los Angeles, Orange County and San Diego areas. Many of the refugees who came to Golden West College[1] were professional and well-educated people with higher education diplomas. Over the last 25 years, however, the Vietnamese student population at our school has changed significantly so that today the Vietnamese student population comprises three major groups: older (age 50 +) and usually retired military officers; recent immigrants who have been here for four years or less; and younger, acculturated

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students who have attended American high schools and may not be proficient in their native language. This last group of students is small, but given their exposure to American culture and education, we were perplexed by their lack of success in their college ESL classes. Why were some of them placing into our beginning and low-level classes and not passing them? Why were they weak in grammar when speaking and writing English? Why were they having difficulty with reading? In an effort to better understand these students and eventually help them be successful in their ESL classes, we undertook a survey of their backgrounds and needs.

Overview of Students Surveyed

Vietnamese ESL students at Golden West College who had attended American high schools were surveyed over three semesters and a summer session (starting spring of 1996 and concluding in spring of 1997; see appendix for the survey instrument.) The 54 respondents included students from the lowest to the highest level ESL classes. From the first part of the survey, which covered their high school attendance history and ESL classes taken in high school, the researchers learned that out of approximately 725 students in 33 classes, 54 Vietnamese students had attended high school in the United States, and 88% had graduated. Those who did not graduate (12%) had attended between 1 to 4 years of high school in the U.S.

Results of the Survey

The results of the first part of the survey indicate that the students' backgrounds vary tremendously. These students moved to the U.S. between the ages of 5 and 18. They started high school in this country between the ages of 13 and 18 and attended between one to four different high schools over an average of 1 to 6 years, graduating between 1991 and 1996. Some had no previous schooling in Vietnam while others had completed various grade levels (up to 12th grade) in their country. The number of ESL classes these students took during high school in the United States varied from 1 to 16; the number of hours of mandatory and elective ESL classes they took varied from 1 to 10 hours per week.[2] Table 1 summarizes the range of personal responses given by the respondents.

Table 1
Range of Personal Responses Given by Respondents

Age of entry to U.S.	5-18
Age at beginning of high school in U.S.	13-18

Number of high schools attended	1-4
Years of U.S. high school attendance	1-6
Year graduated from U.S. high school	1991-1996
Last grade level completed in Vietnam	0-12th grade
Number of ESL classes taken in high school	1-16
Hours of ESL per week	1-10 hours

Note. This extreme range of responses yields insight into why Vietnamese students who have attended high school in the U.S. might be placed in community colleges anywhere between the lowest level ESL class and the most advanced.

Student Preparedness in ESL

The second part of the survey focused on the students' perceptions of their preparedness in ESL and perceptions of their high school and college ESL classes and teachers. They were asked in which activities they regularly participated in their high school and college ESL classes (Questions 10 & 13). At both levels they reported spending the most time listening to the teacher lecture, writing, doing grammar exercises, and working in groups. These experiences indicate that Vietnamese students who have attended American high schools are somewhat familiar with the activities in college ESL classes. However, one of the questions that we were most interested in was how effectively the students thought their high school ESL classes had prepared them for college ESL classes (Question 11). Table 2 displays the responses received on this section of the survey:

Table 2
Responses to Question 11

Question: How effectively do you think your high school ESL classes helped to prepare you for college ESL classes?

	very well	well	not very well	not at all
In speaking skills	12 (22%)	23 (42%)	16 (29%)	2 (3%)
In writing skills	2 (3%)	19 (35%)	29 (53%)	3 (5%)
In listening skills	14 (25%)	20 (37%)	17 (31%)	2 (3%)
In reading skills	8 (14%)	26 (48%)	15 (27%)	3 (5%)

Note: n = 53.

The results showed that most respondents thought their ESL classes had prepared them well or very well in speaking skills (64%) and listening-comprehension skills (62%). This is not surprising since they are high school graduates and would have spent 1 to 4 years communicating and interacting in English with native and nonnative speakers. It is important to stress that the respondents perceive that they are well prepared in speaking and listening-comprehension skills and can make themselves understood. Although we have noticed that this assumption is valid, the grammar in their speech is not always correct. As Scarcella (1996) indicates, although high school students study in classrooms in which the language of instruction is English, they communicate in a nonstandard variety of English with their peers. Similarly, a majority of the students (62%) felt that they were well or very well prepared in reading skills, but we have noticed that their comprehension of reading material and their vocabulary skills are weak. In contrast, 58% thought they were not very well or not at all prepared in writing skills. This would imply that, even though they can produce oral language, they do not feel competent to produce written language, which is what we have been observing in our classes. Why can these students converse reasonably comfortably in English but not write as well? We would suggest that they are limited both by their poor grammar and lack of vocabulary, which is supported by Scarcella's findings that "students were not exposed to academic English in their high schools; this might partly explain their difficulty using academic English appropriately in their writing" (p. 136).

When the students were asked in what areas they felt they needed additional help to be able to succeed in college (Question 12), a large majority (81%) replied that they needed additional help in writing skills. See Table 3 for responses to this question.

Table 3
Responses to Question 12

Question: In what areas do you feel you need additional help to be able to succeed in college? (Circle all that apply.)

In speaking	28	(51%)
In writing	44	(81%)
In grammar	42	(77%)
In listening	22	(40%)
In reading	25	(44%)

These responses suggest a need to focus on writing in our ESL classes. Many instructors have large classes, and it is time consuming for them to correct and grade their students' writing; nonetheless, based on this study, correction and feedback seem essential for providing students with the skills they need to improve their writing. Focusing on writing requires focusing on grammar, which was also an area that the students wanted additional help in (77%). Students expressed a desire for clear and effective instruction in English grammar. This indicates a need for grammar instruction, which in turn might help students reach their goal of writing well and succeeding in mainstream classes and in college in general.

Teacher Characteristics

Question 14 dealt with the characteristics of the high school ESL teacher that these students liked. The responses to this question are summarized in Table 4:

Table 4
Responses to Question14

Question: What characteristics about your high school ESL teacher did you like? She/he...(Circle all that apply.)

was patient.	25	(46%)
was flexible.	10	(18%)
was organized and prepared for class.	31	(57%)
was fair.	31	(57%)
was able to maintain class order.	18	(33%)
was not demanding (very easy).	10	(18%)
encouraged me to work hard.	32	(59%)
helped me outside of class.	17	(31%)
returned my written assignments to me within two weeks.	14	(25%)
let me hand in my homework late or whenever I wanted.	8	(8%)
let me come to class more than 10 minutes late.	4	(4%)
let me leave before class ended.	2	(3%)

The characteristic respondents liked most was that the teacher encouraged them to work hard (59%). The next most favored characteristics were the teacher's being organized and prepared for class, as well as being fair (57%). The fourth most important characteristic was being patient (46%). This is a reminder of a teacher's basic responsibility. It is necessary to prod students to be diligent in their studies. Perhaps we, as teachers, are among the few people who can motivate them in their studies. An effective way of motivating them is to help them outside of class, which was the fifth most important characteristic (31%).

Interestingly, characteristics that we thought the students would have liked about their high school ESL teacher, such as not being demanding, letting them hand in their homework whenever they wanted, and letting them come late or leave early actually ranked low. If we look at the answers to Question 15, (i.e., the characteristics they would like to see in their college ESL teacher), they reflect the same opinions as in Question 14. In other words, being fair (64%), patient (57%), and organized and prepared for class (57%) ranked highest. Encouraging them to work is next, still ranking among the four most important characteristics (55%). Helping them outside of class (46%) came fifth, which is consistent with Question 14 . Not being demanding, letting them hand in their homework whenever they wanted, and letting them leave late or early were also the characteristics that ranked lowest as in Question 14. Table 5 summarizes responses to this question:

Table 5
Responses to Question15

Question: What characteristics would you like to see in your college ESL teacher? She/he should...(Circle all that apply.)

be patient.	31	(57%)
be flexible.	18	(33%)
be organized and prepared for class.	31	(57%)
be fair.	35	(64%)
be able to maintain class order.	20	(37%)
not be demanding (very easy).	9	(16%)
encourage me to work hard.	30	(55%)
help me outside of class.	25	(46%)
return my written assignments to me within two weeks.	20	(37%)
let me hand in my homework late or whenever I want.	9	(16%)
let me come to class more than 10 minutes late.	10	(18%)
let me leave before class ends.	11	(20%)

We can deduce from the answers to Questions 14 & 15 that these students value professional teachers who are well organized and prepared for class and believe that having teachers who are patient and who encourage them to study hard is vital to their success.

The heart of the survey lies in Question 16, as summarized in Table 6. This question addresses the kinds of activities students from U.S. high schools find beneficial in college ESL classes.

Table 6
Responses to Question 16

Question: What activities in your college ESL class do you find beneficial? (Circle all that apply.)

Group work (discussions, problem solving, etc.)	31	(57%)
Pair work (dialogues, interviews, etc.)	25	(46%)
Class discussion	28	(51%)
Oral reading	27	(50%)
Silent reading	11	(20%)
Writing	41	(75%)
Watching videos	12	(22%)
Listening to audio tapes	11	(20%)

The activity that stood out as most beneficial to the students is writing (75%), with group work (57%) coming in second. Students also want class discussion, pair work, and oral reading (50%). Oral reading is an activity which can be easily integrated into a class, is not time consuming, and does not require additional preparation or grading. Oral reading ranked much higher than silent reading (20%), which ranked about the same as watching videos and listening to audio tapes. This finding may suggest the need to rethink the use of videotapes and audio tapes in class as well as silent reading.

Conclusion

This survey confirmed that the particular Vietnamese students in this study who graduated from American high schools feel strongly that they require additional focused study in grammar and writing once they enter college. This is consistent with studies that suggest that Asian American students value the study of grammar and writing (Scarcella, 1996). Therefore, if teachers want these students to succeed in ESL classes, it is their responsibility to focus on the teaching of grammar and writing in their classes and to give them as much help as possible in these areas. Scarcella advocates "form-focused ESL instruction" (p. 140), which includes specific grammatical structures such as verb tenses, adjective clauses, and modal auxiliaries. She further argues that besides providing form-focused ESL instruction, community college teachers need to expose ESL students who are graduates of American high schools to academic English and show them how to write using this kind of English. Also, as we had mentioned previously, teacher correction and feedback are crucial to these students' success in ESL classes. Moreover, even though they may be somewhat proficient in speaking and listening skills, in addition to finding writing activities important, students also find oral reading very beneficial. Many of our students have expressed the desire to have their pronunciation corrected. As Scarcella (personal communication, 1998) suggests, pronunciation seems to be critical to the students. Hence, oral reading is an important area for further investigation.

This study also reveals that these Vietnamese students want and appreciate an organized, well-prepared, and patient teacher who encourages them to study hard. Vietnamese students who have attended high school in this country are articulate about the type of instruction that is effective in developing their English, and their voices must be attended to carefully.

Authors

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Endnotes

[1] Golden West college is in Huntington Beach, Orange County. It is located within a few miles of Little Saigon, where one of the largest concentrations of Vietnamese immigrants live. Approximately 86% of Golden West College's ESL students are Vietnamese.

[2] For most (45) of the respondents, ESL classes at the high school level were mandatory. Only 9 respondents indicated that they had taken elective classes.

References

Scarcella, R. (1996). Secondary education in California and second language research: Instructing ESL students in the 1990s. *The CATESOL Journal, 9*(1), 129-152.

Appendix

Vietnamese High School Graduates Survey

We are conducting a survey of Vietnamese high school graduates. We would appreciate your help in answering the following questions. All answers will be held in confidence. Please, do not put your name on the survey.

1. How old were you when you moved to the United States?
2. At what age did you start attending high school in the United States?
3. How many different high schools did you attend?
4. How many years of high school did you attend in the United States?
5. Did you graduate from high school in the United States?
   Yes, *(include month, year, and age)*
   No, ______________________________
6. What was the last grade level you completed in your native country?
7. Did you take ESL classes in high school? If so, how many?
   Yes, *(put how many classes you took)*
   No, ______________________________
8. How many hours per week were you in ESL classes?
9. Were the ESL classes mandatory?
   Yes, ______________________________
   No, ______________________________
10. In what activities did you regularly get involved in your high school ESL classes? (*Circle all that apply.*)
    A. group work (discussion, problem solving, etc.)
    B. pair work (dialogue, interviews, etc.)
    C. class discussion
    D. oral reading
    E. silent reading
    F. writing (journals, essays, paragraphs, etc.)

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G. grammar exercises
H. watching videos
J. listening to audio tapes
K. listening to the teacher lecture

11. How effectively do you think your high school ESL classes helped prepare you for college ESL classes?

	very well	**well**	**not very well**	**not at all**
In speaking skills	________	________	________	________
In writing skills	________	________	________	________
In listening skills	________	________	________	________
In reading skills	________	________	________	________

12. In what areas do you feel you need additional help to be able to succeed in college? (*Circle all that apply.*)
A. in speaking skills
B. in writing skills
C. in grammar
D. in listening comprehension
E. in reading skills

13. In what areas do you feel you need additional help to be able to succeed in college ESL classes? (*Circle all that apply.*)
A group work (discussion, problem solving, etc.)
B. pair work (dialogue, interviews. etc.)
C. class discussion
D. oral reading
E. silent reading
F. writing (journals, essays, paragraphs. etc.)
G. grammar exercises
H. watching videos
1. listening to audio tapes
J. listening to the teacher lecture

14. What characteristics about your high school ESL teacher did you like? She/ He... (*Circle all that apply.*)
A. was patient.
B. was flexible.
C. was organized and prepared for class.
D. was fair.
E. was able to maintain class order.
F. was not demanding (very easy).
G. encouraged me to work hard.

H. helped me outside of class.
I. returned my written assignments to me within two weeks.
J. let me hand in my homework late or whenever I wanted.
K. let me come to class more than 10 minutes late.
L. let me leave before class ended.

15. What characteristics would you like to see in your college ESL teacher? She/He should...(*Circle all that apply.*)
A. be patient.
B. be flexible.
C. be organized and prepared for class.
D. be fair.
E. be able to maintain class order.
F. not be demanding (very easy).
G. encourage me to work hard.
H. help me outside of class.
I. return my written assignments to me within two weeks.
J. let me hand in my homework late or whenever I wanted.
K. let me come to class more than 10 minutes late.
L. let me leave before class ends.

16. What activities in your college ESL classes do you find beneficial? (*Circle all that apply.*)
A. group work (discussions. problem solving, etc.)
B. pair work (dialogues, interviews, etc.)
C. class discussion
D. oral reading
E. silent reading
F. writing
G. watching videos
H. listening to audio tapes

17. Outside of class, I learn English from...(*Circle all that apply.*)
A. my friends at school
B. my friends outside of school
C. my relatives (brothers, sisters, children, etc.)
D. my neighbors
E. my community activities (church, youth groups, volunteer work, etc.)
F. listening to the radio
G. watching television
H. reading newspapers or magazines
I. listening to audio tapes
J. watching video tapes

The CATESOL Journal

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Results of the 1997 CATESOL College/University Survey

This article provides a reasonably accurate picture of the opinions, needs, and interests of CATESOL college/university level members based upon the results of a 1997 survey. As a whole, members work as part-time and full-time professors or instructors in one of the California college systems. Even though they perceive themselves as well trained to deal with L2 issues and have a great deal of contact with ESL students, members are dissatisfied with the lack of articulation with the other programs that deal with L2 learners on their campuses. As a whole, members actively participate in professional conferences, keep up-to-date in their reading of CATESOL publications, and are hopeful about the role of technology in the future. While able to identify a wide range of positive decisions, activities and programs on their campuses within the past five years, most respondents expressed the need for greater professional respect in their work settings as well as more support in providing curricular options and staffing.

This article will summarize the results of a survey of the college/university (c/u) membership conducted during spring 1997. The purpose of the survey was to gain a general idea of the level's opinions, needs, and interests in various areas including: publications, conferences, workload and salary, technology and language teaching, innovative programs, and future goals. With this information, the level will be better able to address the needs of its members and make plans for future projects, presentations, and publications that would relate to and possibly improve members' professional experiences. Although the focus is on c/u members,

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the results have implications for the intensive English program (IEP) and community college (cc) levels as well.

Method

In constructing the survey, the level chair (Jan Eyring) and assistant level chair (Janet Lane) brainstormed various areas for investigation. While they knew that there were more than 700 members at the level, they did not know exactly what percentage were teaching at which institution, what setting they worked in, what their major roles were, what their perceived status was, and whether they were full-time or part-time or not working at all. Further, they wanted to assess members' opinions of the CATESOL publications and of the CATESOL regional and state conferences as well as to know about how materials were selected in the various campus programs and whether these materials were satisfactory or could be improved. Because the membership consisted of administrators, professors, teachers, and others who could often play a role in serving as advocates for second language (L2) learners, several questions related to the actual time members spent with these students, their familiarity with and opinion of matriculation procedures on their campuses, their own preparedness to serve c/u students, their familiarity with standards designed for this student population, and their willingness or their institution's willingness to engage in conversations about the needs of these students on their campuses. The authors also wished to determine how satisfied members were with their positions and salaries. They also sought information about the membership's experience with and opinion of the use of technology in teaching ESL on their campuses. Finally, they desired specific information about significant second-language-related activities that had occurred on c/u campuses in the past five years as well as specific suggestions about improvements the membership would like to see implemented on their various campuses.

Once the areas for investigation were identified, a four-page survey was designed (see Appendix A) which included 31 forced-choice items and 8 open-ended items. Three of the forced-choice items related to the percentage of time spent at various work locations, in various campus settings, and in various professional roles. Another item requested the names and telephone numbers of various experts who could be called upon to provide more in-depth information about various c/u issues in the future. Finally one item asked respondents to rate the effectiveness of the survey in allowing them to express their present Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) concerns. Open-ended items required respondents to provide suggestions about some ESL-related area—for example, suggestions for improving the *CATESOL News* and *The*

CATESOL Journal or the regional and state conferences. They also elicited respondents' comments on the needs of matriculated L2 students, the new Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates' (ICAS) Second Language Proficiency Descriptors (ESL Intersegmental Project, 1996), and the use of technology in ESL instruction. One item allowed several lines for the membership to write in other comments and concerns that may not have been addressed by the survey.

A pilot version of the survey was checked by a consultant in the Social Science Research Center at California State University, Fullerton (CSUF) for format as well as content concerns. It was then distributed to 10 respondents in Northern and Southern California for feedback and suggestions. Once revised, the survey was edited, copied, and mailed to the entire U.S.-based CATESOL membership based on the currently available mailing list maintained by the organization. This included 653 members from California, 17 members from Nevada, and 15 members from outside of California and Nevada but from the United States. Ten additional California members requested a copy of the survey at the 1997 CATESOL State conference level rap session in Fresno. Altogether, 695 surveys were disseminated to the membership.

Of the 695 surveys mailed, 17 surveys were returned with an incorrect address or a note indicating that the member could not or would not fill out the form. After the deadline of May 12, 1997, e-mail reminder notices were sent to 162 members who had not yet returned their surveys and for which e-mail addresses were available. Of the 678 surveys mailed to correct addresses, 272 surveys were returned, constituting a return rate of 40%. The information in these surveys was coded into computer-assisted telephone interviewing (CATI) software. This system produced a data file and supported the analysis of the open-ended items on the questionnaire. Using consultants from the CSUF Social Science Research Center and funding from the CSUF School of Humanities, the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures at CSUF, and CATESOL, the survey was input and analyzed. The return rate of 40% is fairly high and does permit a moderately reasonable assessment of a cross section of the membership. However, in all surveys of this sort, it should be noted that a systematic bias remains due to the nonresponse of some members.

Results

Almost 80% (79.9%) of the respondents indicated that the survey was good or excellent in allowing them to express their concerns. The results below are grouped under the following categories: affiliation, status and salaries of members; value of professional conferences and publications;

familiarity with curriculum, materials, and assessment; contact with L2 students; meeting L2 learner needs; significant decisions, activities, or programs; and future goals. Within each section, frequency, cross tabs, and chi-square calculations were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 1997 program.

Affiliation, Status, and Salaries of Members

In order to obtain a composite picture of the membership, descriptive statistics were run on members' institutions, settings, and roles at their various campuses. As shown in Table 1, 226 out of 272 (or 83.1% of the membership) are employed at one location 60% of the time (or more than half time). This leaves 46 out of 272 (or 17%) who split their responsibilities between two or more institutions or organizations. The majority of the respondents (37.6%) are working in the California State University (CSU) system, which is more than twice the number of respondents working at the other institutions, including the University of California (UC) (17.7%), private colleges (14.2%), community colleges (15%), and other locations (15.5%). Although not shown in this table, 8.5% of the respondents admitted working 100% of the time at a community college, which might indicate an erroneous level choice at the time of joining the organization. Some indicated they do not work in a college system at all but work at home, church, universities outside of California (Arizona and Nevada), junior high and high schools, companies or businesses, private intensive English programs (IEPs), adult education/vocational education programs, consultation services, extension programs, or are retired.

Table 1
Members with Major Commitments to One Institution

Institution	Total number of persons	Percentage
California State University	85	37.6%
University of California	40	17.7%
Other (e.g., universities outside of California, private companies, public schools, private IEPs, extension programs, etc.)	35	15.5%
Community College	34	15.0%
Private College/University	32	14.2%
TOTAL	226	100%

The work settings of respondents are shown in Table 2. Of the respondents, 230 out of 272 (or 84.5%) work in one particular work setting at least 60% of the time. Of these respondents, about half (48.3%) work in college departments, 37.4% work in IEP settings, and 11.3% work in other settings such as at home, at elementary or secondary schools, at the workplace, at adult schools, in extended education, for a publisher, at a testing office, or doing teacher training workshops. About 1.7% work at academic skills centers and 1.3% work in writing tutoring centers with more than a part-time commitment.

Table 2
Members with Major Commitment to One Setting

Setting	Total number of persons	Percentage
College Department	111	48.3%
Intensive English Program	86	37.4%
Other (e.g., home, adult schools, publisher, testing office, etc.)	26	11.3%
Academic Skills Center	4	1.7%
Writing Tutoring Center	3	1.3%
TOTAL	230	100%

As far as professional roles, 211 out of 272 indicated that they had the same role 60% of the time (See Table 3). The majority (or 51.2%) indicated that they taught ESL, 23.2% indicated that they were professors in a university TESOL, applied linguistics, linguistics, English, education, or communications department, 12.8% were program administrators, 2.4% were graduate students, and 10% indicated a wide range of other roles such as publisher's representative, textbook author, cross-cultural, language, and academic development (CLAD) teacher trainer, editor, grant administrator, contract programs coordinator, assessor, business communications professor, junior high/high school teacher, program designer, tutorial center coordinator, elder and child care worker, computer lab supervisor, dean, or project director for researchers.

Table 3
Members with One Major Role

Role	Total number of persons	Percentage
ESL Instructor	108	51.1%
Professor	49	23.2%
Program Administrator	27	12.8%
Other (e.g., publisher's representative, textbook author, teacher trainer (CLAD), computer lab supervisor, etc.	21	10.0%
Graduate Student	5	2.4%
Tutor	1	.5%
TOTAL	211	100%

In order to derive a clearer picture of where the majority of the membership works, a cross tabs program was run between the following variables: institution by setting, institution by role, and setting by role. The largest number of respondents were accounted for in the institution by setting run (215 out of 272, or 79%). With an item response cut off point of 15 people per cell, by far the largest settings by institution clusters are: IEP employees at the CSU, college department employees at the CSU, and college department employees at the community college. Other clusterings include: IEP members at the UC and college department members at the UC. The actual number of persons in these places appears in Table 4.

Table 4
Institutions/Settings Where the Majority of Members Work

Institution/Setting	Total number of persons	Percentage
California State University/Intensive English Program	40	18.6%
California State University/College Department	36	16.7%
Community College/College Department	27	12.6%

University of California/Intensive English Program	19	8.8%
Private College/Intensive English Program	16	7.4%
University of California/College Department	15	7.0%
Other Combination of Institution/Setting	62	28.9%
TOTAL	215	100%

Regarding the various campuses, 64% indicated that they perceived their status somewhat lower or much lower than other professionals on campus. About 26.2% perceived their status about the same. Only 9.6% perceived their status as somewhat higher or much higher than others on campus at the same job classification or grade. In order to determine whether affiliations within the level might affect these responses, a chi-square analysis was run dividing the c/u respondents into three groups: those who indicated a 100% time commitment to the IEP (and would most likely choose the new IEP level as an affiliation in the future), those who indicated a 100% time commitment to the community college (and perhaps were misplaced at the c/u level), and all others (most of whom fit more closely the definition of a "c/u member." Table 5 shows these results. The directionality is the same for all three groups; that is, the largest percentage perceive themselves as lower than other professionals on campus, with a midrange percentage perceiving themselves as about the same on campus, and with the smallest percentage perceiving themselves as higher status than others at an equivalent job classification or grade. The chi-square analysis indicated significant differences among all three groups: Community college teachers perceive their status as higher than c/u or intensive English programs. IEPs perceive their status as lower overall.

Table 5
Perceived Status of ESL/TESL Professionals on Campuses

		Higher	About the Same	Lower
Within community colleges	Count	3	7	9
	Percent	15.8%	36.8%	47.3%
Within Intensive English Programs	Count	2	9	43
	Percent	3.7%	16.7%	79.6%

All other college/university	Count	17	44	95
	Percent	10.9%	28.2%	60.9%

$\chi 2 = 20.096$, $df = 8$, ${}^{*}p < .01$, two tailed.

When asked about current level of paid employment, a large percentage of respondents (18.5%) stated that they receive no compensation for their TESL or L2-related activities. Members working full-time comprise 52.7%, while 6.2% indicate three-fourths time, 13.6% indicate half-time, and 9.1% indicate quarter-time. Forty-six point three percent are somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their salaries while 53.8% are somewhat or very satisfied with their salaries.

Value of Publications and Professional Conferences

When comparing percentages for respondents who read the *CATESOL News* and *The CATESOL Journal*, 94.9% versus 78.9% indicate they read the journal sometimes or regularly. These results show that the newsletter is read more frequently than the journal. As far as satisfaction with the publications, the respondents seem satisfied or very satisfied with both—91.3% with the newsletter and 88.1% with the journal.

Specific suggestions for improvement of the *CATESOL News* were provided by the membership. They requested more articles on curriculum, more articles on literature, business English, specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE), combining methods for native and nonnative speakers, more on methodology (lesson plans, teaching approaches, teaching resources), and more on web teaching and program administration. Several comments related to providing more information about graduate student activities, TA (teaching assistant) training, regional news, and research. Some respondents mentioned including special sections with student narratives, teaching bloopers, and interviews as well as a column on grammar and linguistics. Others noted the lack of coverage about resources for teaching adult Hispanics at the college level and for working in extended education programs within the UC and CSU.

As for *The CATESOL Journal*, respondents requested more special issues on specific topics. They also requested more research, either in the form of research projects/theses summaries from institutions offering master's and doctoral degrees or California K-12 and discourse analysis research. Other information requested was on CLAD, English for specific purposes(ESP), methodology, and professional development.

As far as professional conference attendance, a large percentage of respondents (44.4%) have attended 2 to 5 regional conferences (or 5 or more regional conferences (35.1%), for a total of 79.5% attending two or more regional conferences. Eighty-four point seven percent of the respondents indicated being satisfied or very satisfied with these local conferences. Fewer, yet still a large percentage (67.8%), have attended 2 or more state conferences. As with the regional conferences, satisfaction (as indicated by satisfied or very satisfied responses) runs at 86.2%.

Many respondents indicated that the regional conferences were very practical and informative and generally well organized. However, some comments suggested that proposals were not screened thoroughly enough and that there were too many novice teacher talks and ordinary how-to sessions. Respondents indicated the need to actively recruit more higher powered, talented speakers on college-related topics. Presentations given by well-known authorities dealing with more theory and research were especially encouraged. Frequently mentioned topics which seem to be underrepresented at the regionals were: IEP programs, administration, CLAD programs, elementary and secondary presentations, and joint sessions with the cc level.

Various suggestions for improved logistics at the conferences were also given: more compact meeting sites, larger rooms for popular sessions, adequate numbers of handouts (copy machine accessible if possible), and better lunchtime organization. As far as scheduling, some mentioned posting the schedule on the Internet or sending out the program ahead of time, limiting late afternoon presentations, and scheduling a regional conference once every two years instead of every year.

Some of the same suggestions given for the state conference were given for the regionals (to print the program ahead of time to have more university-level sessions or theme-based presentations, etc.); however, a few other comments pertained particularly to the state conference. As far as scheduling, several respondents suggested that the regional conferences be moved to spring and the state conferences be moved to the fall or in late January, so as to not compete with the international TESOL conference each year. They also suggested holding the conference only in large metropolitan areas. Others encouraged better job search opportunities and more information on grants, partnerships, and coordinating/administering special projects.

Familiarity with and Need for Curriculum, Materials, and Assessment

Respondents were asked to indicate their familiarity with and willingness to apply the intersegmental Second Language Proficiency Descriptors contained in *California Pathways* (ESL Intersegmental Project, 1996). Only 24.9% of the respondents were very familiar or somewhat familiar with these descriptors. Seventy-five point one percent were not familiar. For those who were familiar with these descriptors, 71.7% indicated a willingness to apply the descriptors to their settings.

As far as materials, the majority (52.8%) indicated that materials are chosen by individual teachers (rather than by committee, administrators, or in some other fashion). Eighty-three point eight percent were satisfied or very satisfied with materials published in their area; 16.2% were dissatisfied or very dissatisfied. Respondents had a great number of suggestions for needed ESL publications. The eight most frequently mentioned categories included writing (25 responses), technology (23 responses), listening/speaking/pronunciation (22 responses), content-based education (18 responses), teacher education (12 responses), grammar and editing (12 responses), assessment (9 responses), reading (6 responses), and program administration (5 responses).

As far as writing is concerned, members wanted to see more writing texts at all levels but especially at the beginning/low-intermediate and advanced levels. Some requested that more theme-based units, creative writing, portfolio writing, and grammar review components be incorporated into texts. Technology-related requests called for more software for all of the skills. Respondents also wanted to see more video production and distance learning materials produced as well as more materials on computer labs and the internet.

As for listening, speaking, and pronunciation materials, it appears that more materials are needed at all levels, but especially at the high beginning/low intermediate and advanced levels. Respondents focused especially on more content-related materials appropriate for college-level students and materials that include audio and video components. Content-based materials seem to be in short supply, and members requested more college level English for Academic Purposes (EAP) materials and ESP materials in science and business. Teacher education materials were also requested, especially those that emphasized methods for undergraduate courses or novice teachers who needed to learn about classroom research, L2 acquisition, and skills-based teaching using a more simplified approach.

Grammar and editing textbooks that are handy and communicative also seem to be in demand. Respondents noted the lack of practical testing materials, especially K-12 assessment instruments, reading tests, and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) project evaluation materials. Authentic reading materials that include critical thinking and interactive activities, as well as longer reading selections also seem to be in short supply. Finally, some respondents mentioned the need for more program administration materials.

When asked about technology and language teaching, 87.8% were positive or very positive about the use of technology in teaching while 12.2% were less than positive or not at all positive. In the area of computer labs and distance learning, enthusiasm was not matched by experience. While 43.5% had had some or a great deal of experience in a computer lab on campus, 56.5% had had little or no experience. A majority (77.9%) had had little or no experience with distance learning programs; 22.1% had had some or a great deal of experience as a learner, instructor, or an administrator in this type of program.

Elaborating on their responses, respondents appeared suspicious (i.e., they said that less expensive means are underused, benefits are exaggerated, technology cannot replace human teachers, technology is outdated rapidly, poor materials are on the market) and hopeful (i.e., they said that technology was a way to meet increasing demand, there was lots of room for development, this was essential training for students in the modern world, this was a great motivator for students, this could supplement teachers' efforts). Some noted that technology is best used in limited ways (e.g., for writing and pronunciation, to build community, for distance learning). Others noted that they felt underprepared because of few computers at their sites and insufficient training.

A majority of respondents (77%) indicated great or moderate familiarity with the means by which L2 matriculated students are served at the university from placement into classes to passing the writing requirements of a program, but 22.9% indicated no familiarity with this process. As far as whether these procedures assigned students to correct levels, 47.8% indicated that they assigned students very well or somewhat well; however, 19.1% felt that they were somewhat or very poor. When a chi-square test was conducted to distinguish those affiliated 100% with the community colleges, those affiliated 100% with intensive English programs, and all other c/u members, significant differences were obtained (see Table 6). If these results are any indicator, those working for the community college are most familiar with the procedures and also the most satisfied with them. Other c/u members perceived the procedures as working very or somewhat well most of the time, although 10.4% were not even familiar with the procedures and 18.5% felt that they performed somewhat or very poorly. Finally, IEP respondents showed the least familiarity with placement procedures and expressed the least satisfaction with the effectiveness of the procedures.

Table 6.
Perception that Placement Procedures Assigned Students to Correct Levels

		Not familiar with procedures	Performed very or somewhat well	Performed somewhat or very poorly
Within community colleges	Count	0	14	4
	Percent	0%	77.8%	22.2%
Within Intensive English Programs	Count	9	20	7
	Percent	25%	55.6%	19.4%
All other college/university	Count	14	96	25
	Percent	10.4%	71.1%	18.5%

$\chi2 = 16.395$, $df = 8$, $^*p < .037$, two tailed.

Contact with L2 Students

A rather large percentage of respondents (28%) indicated that they have contact with from 0 to only 10 L2 students per week—somewhat surprising for individuals involved in the instruction and administration of L2 students. A small number (8.3%) have contact with 81 students or more (possibly indicating that they teach four or more classes to ESL students) while 63.7% indicate contact with 11 to 80 ESL students per week. Actual time with L2 students corresponds to the previous statistic—31.8% indicated that they spend only 0 to 5 hours per week. Eighteen point six percent indicated that they spend 6 to 10 hours with students, 31.8% spend 11 to 20 hours, 13.3 % spend 21 to 30 hours, and 4.5% spend 31 or more hours per week.

When a chi-square statistic was run distinguishing the three groups previously mentioned (those who were affiliated 100% with the community colleges, those who were affiliated 100% with the IEPs, and all other c/u members), significant differences were found in the area of contact with L2 learners per week. See Table 7.

Table 7
Teacher Contact with L2 Students Per Week

		Number of Students			
		0-10	11-40	41-80	81 or more
Within community colleges	Count	4	9	2	6
	Percent	19.0%	42.9%	9.5%	28.6%
Within Intensive English Programs	Count	10	32	16	5
	Percent	15.9%	50.8%	25.4%	7.9
All other college/university	Count	60	73	36	11
	Percent	33.3%	40.6%	20.0%	6.1%

$\chi 2 = 20.263$, $df = 6$, $^{*}p < .002$, two tailed.

About half or a little less than half of the members in all three groups have contact with 11 to 40 L2 students each week. Compared across levels, a larger percent of c/u members have contact with fewer students (0-10) per week, followed by community college members, and finally by IEP members. Of cc members, 28.6% see more than 81 students per week, more than three times the percentage of the other two groups (7.9% of IEP instructors and 6.1% of other c/u members).

Meeting L2 Learner Needs

When asked whether or not respondents felt that L2 matriculated college student needs were being met at their institutions, 24.0% indicated that these needs were met very well, 45.6% indicated that they were met somewhat well, 22.8% indicated that they were met poorly, and 6.7% indicated they were met very poorly.

As far as preparedness of respondents to meet the needs of advanced level students, 92.1% of the respondents judged themselves very or somewhat prepared to address these needs while 7.9% judged themselves as somewhat or very unprepared to address the language needs of L2 learners.

Communication through meetings and in one-to-one conversation about L2 needs on a campus constitutes one step in meeting the needs of L2 learners. Eighteen point two percent of respondents indicated that there are 4 or more meetings a year to bring together ESL professionals on a campus while 34.5% indicated that there were 1 to 3 meetings per year. However, 18.7% indicated that there were no meetings of this type per year.

24.2% indicated that they initiate conversations about L2 issues on campus frequently; 39.3% indicated that they initiate conversations sometimes. However, 36.5% indicate that they rarely or never initiate conversations about these issues on campus.

Significant Decisions, Activities, or Programs

Although some individuals bemoaned the fact that there had been few or no L2-related decisions, activities, or programs that had a positive impact on their campuses in the past 5 years, others were able to identify several areas of improvement. Examples from UC campuses included: the movement of TESOL from the English department to the linguistics department where they were much better served (Davis), the formation of an ESL writing program advisory board with members from various departments (Santa Barbara), the permanent full-time appointment of most daytime program faculty (Berkeley, Extension), and the development of an accelerated certificate program (for advanced students) in TESL (Irvine, Extension).

Examples from CSU campuses included: the addition of a TESL concentration in the MA program (Pomona), the formation of the Department of Linguistics and Language Development (San Jose), the development of English 101 classes for ESL students only (Fullerton), the creation of a TESOL master's program (Hayward), a lottery grant to develop an EAP curriculum and placement test for matriculated ESL students (Los Angeles), the establishment of off-campus classes to help working elementary and secondary teachers obtain the CLAD certificate (San Diego), the development of a learning assistance center that provides professional tutoring of ESL and other students (San Francisco), the development of an upper division ESL reading/writing course to satisfy the Graduation Writing Assessment Requirement (GWAR) (Sacramento), and the development of CLAD and bilingual cross-cultural, language, and academic development (BCLAD) programs (Northridge).

Developments at private colleges included: infusion of ESL/bilingual/multicultural considerations into all K-12 teacher preparation programs (Lewis and Clark College), the opening of the Fletcher Jones Language Center that incorporates new technology (Pitzer College), conversation partner exchanges between intercultural studies and ESL students at English Language Services (ELS) Centers (Chapman University), and the opening of a state-of-the-art computer-assisted language learning lab (Monterey Institute). The University of Nevada at Las Vegas developed a TESL interactive televised instruction (ITV) series focusing on L2 theory, materials, methods, and assessment for 1,000 teachers.

Positive developments in IEPs included restructuring curriculum of day and night ESL programs (English Institute, Cañada College), creating an ESL component to the university banking and investment program (American Language Center, UCLA), introduction of an outstanding student award which boosts morale and competition (Language Academy, University of Southern California), moving from hiring teachers through Foundation accounts to hiring them through state means in order to offer them benefits and quasi-full-time status (American Language Institute, CSU Long Beach).

Future Goals

When asked what two things members would like to improve related to TESL/ESL activities on their campus(es) or at their job(s), the largest group by far (80 respondents) agreed that the most important goal was the need to obtain greater recognition by schools for the significant contributions of TESL-trained individuals within them. Individuals wanted to be treated with more respect, be consulted more regularly, and have better job opportunities (e.g., more benefits for part-timers, more full-time jobs, more positions, higher pay, job security, longer term contacts, opportunities for advancement, pay for coordination and extra duties, lighter teaching loads, etc. They also wanted more in-service (paid and unpaid) opportunities.

Mentioned less frequently were two areas which seemed to be of about equal concern: more ESL support in staffing/curriculum (52 responses) and increased articulation between segments (51 responses). Respondents wanted to see a larger quantity of and more varied credit-bearing ESL sections as well as smaller classes (especially for writing). They also wanted to see better advisement of these students. EAP as well as writing-across-the-curriculum curricula were recommended to better orient students to university culture and expectations. Others also encouraged increased tutoring and TA training help.

As far as increased articulation, respondents wanted to consolidate language resources and people on college campuses in order to better coordinate amongst ESL experts and increase communication between levels and segments (e.g., intensive language programs and regular university programs, English departments and learning resource centers, ESL faculty and non-ESL faculty, faculty and administrators, university foreign student advisors and IEP students, and foreign students and American students). A strong need was noted to better inform non-ESL faculty about the common cultural and language challenges of nonnative speakers (including long-term bilinguals, foreign students, and new immigrants). Others noted the importance of serving the needs of students moving between levels (community college to university [transfer students], high school to university, intensive language program to university, etc).

About half as many respondents (20) identified the need to have better access to technology through more and better computer and language labs. Others noted the need for training in distance learning and in materials and techniques for using technology in ESL instruction. Still others (15) identified the important goals of improving placement and assessment procedures and having better admissions screening of students. They also identified the need to better track students as they complete their schooling.

Other areas of general concern related to the improvement of facilities and better TESL and CLAD/BCLAD teacher training programs and opportunities.

Discussion

The preceding results suggest several interesting findings. First, if the criteria for measuring commitment to an institution is raised to 100%, 23.5% of the total number of respondents work in IEP settings 100% of the time. This is a staggering number, especially when combined with the 7.7% of cc respondents who claimed 100% commitment at the cc level above. Both of these groups could deplete the number of the c/u-level members by about one third (31%) in the future, either because they will move to the newly established IEP level or change their level affiliation because they had mistakenly checked the wrong level at the time of joining.

If the level is depleted, it will be important to address the needs and interests of those remaining and to recruit individuals previously unaccounted for or weakly acknowledged. Tables 1 to 4 paint a picture of a membership largely consisting of instructors and professors affiliated with the CSU system (most likely because the stated mission of this system is to train teachers) but also with UC and private c/u programs. A varied group that has lower visibility but nevertheless should be served and recruited by CATESOL consists of regular c/u level members who might also be working concurrently in the public schools, adults schools or community colleges and extended education as well as CLAD teacher trainers, publishers, writers, administrators, testers, and retirees working outside traditional school boundaries.

Second, more attention needs to be paid to the perceived status of ESL/TESL professionals on campuses. Table 5 clearly shows that only about 11% of respondents view themselves as having higher status than other professionals on their campuses at the same job classification or grade. About 29% view themselves as having about equal status, but about 61% view themselves as having lower status than other professionals. More needs to be known about the root of these feelings of inferiority. The survey showed that 92.1% of the respondents viewed themselves as very or somewhat prepared to address L2 learner needs. Therefore, lack of preparation must not be a reason for the negative feelings. Other reasons need to be suggested.

The survey showed that few interdepartmental meetings take place on campuses, limited articulation occurs across segments, and little discussion is initiated about L2 concerns amongst faculty, even though members feel that this is an important need. This lack of assertiveness could also play a part in an ESL/TESL professional's sense of weak status. Respondents revealed that they are poorly informed about the means by which L2 matriculated students are served at the university from placement into classes to passing the writing requirements of a program. This lack of information, either because respondents do not pursue explanations or are excluded from them by other faculty or employees at their institution may contribute to their sense that they lack status. Blame could also lie with other campus units, which may view ESL/TESL professionals housed in departments of English, education, and linguistics as threats to the funding of longer established programs that mainly serve majority students. Even worse, lower salaries and/or fewer benefits for equal work could also be a factor.

Third, the c/u membership generally expresses satisfaction with CATESOL conferences and publications, but future level chairs should continue to work to include varied topics that will satisfy the varied membership at this level. Methodological and politically related articles should form a backbone of the *CATESOL News. The CATESOL Journal* should continue its policy of publishing issues on special topics and include more K-12 research and topics relevant to teacher trainers preparing instructors for the public schools.

Fourth, the survey outlined several gaps in knowledge of the general c/u membership that should be remedied in the near future. With more than three fourths of the membership not being familiar with the *California Pathways* (ESL Intersegmental Project, 1996) Second Language Proficiency Descriptors, more effort at disseminating information about the descriptors and training in how to apply them must take place—either through CATESOL publications, conferences, or training workshops. More than half of the membership has had no or not much experience with computer labs or distance learning programs. This too should be an important training priority in the years to come.

Conclusion

The 1997 College/University Level CATESOL Survey provided a good opportunity for the level to analyze the needs, interests, and accomplishments of its constituents. Much of the information obtained through the survey will be used to guide decisions and directions for the level in the future. Conference presentations and publications will focus on issues of current interest. Greater attention will be paid to the important role that ESL/TESL professionals must play on c/u campuses that have increasing nonnative English speaking enrollments. The c/u level must also keep up with technological developments in order to maintain a perspective on the effective use of such technologies with nonnative English speaking learners.

Author

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Appendix

1997 COLLEGE/UNIVERSITY LEVEL CATESOL SURVEY

Directions: Circle items and fill in the following blanks according to your *present* ESL/TESL/L2 related position(s). (L2 indicates second language.) In cases where you would like to qualify your answer, please comment next to the item or at the end of the survey.

1. What percentage of your time is spent doing (T)ESL or L2- related work at which location? Indicate the percentage of time to the right of each location option below. Use "other" to indicate a location we have not listed. Please make sure that totals add up to 100%.

(T)ESL or L2-related location	**% of Time**
a. California State University	________%
b. University of California	________%
c. Private College or University in California	________%
d. Community College	________%
e. Other____________________	________%
	TOTAL 100%

2. Now, we'd like to know in which settings within your institution you do your (T)ESL or L2-related work. Indicate to the right of each setting option below the percentage of time spent at each setting in an average work week. Use "other" to indicate settings we have not listed. Please make sure that totals add up to 100%.

(T)ESL or L2-related location	**% of Time**
a. Intensive English Program (IEP)	________%
b. Writing Tutoring Center	________%
c. Academic Skills Center	________%
d. Foreign Student Center	________%
e. College/University Department	________%
f. Other______________________	________%
	TOTAL 100%

3. Indicate your major role(s) related to (T)ESL or L2-related activities and the percentage of time spent in performing each role. Please make sure that totals add up to 100%.

Roles	**% of Time**
a. TESL, Applied Linguistics, Linguistics, English, Education, or Communications Professor	________%
b. Program Administrator	________%
c. Graduate Student	________%
d. ESL Instructor	________%
e. Advisor	________%
f. Tutor	________%
g. Other____________________	________%
	TOTAL 100%

4. How often do you read the CATESOL newsletter?

   a. regularly
   b. sometimes
   c. rarely
   d. never

5. Rate your overall satisfaction with the content of the CATESOL newsletter as it relates to your work activities:

   a. I do not read the CATESOL newsletter.
   b. very satisfied
   c. satisfied
   d. dissatisfied
   e. very dissatisfied

6. If you have suggestions for improving the CATESOL newsletter, please list them below.

____

____

____

7. How often do you read the *CATESOL Journal*?

   a. regularly
   b. sometimes
   c. rarely
   d. never

8. Rate your overall satisfaction with the content of the *CATESOL Journal* as it relates to your work activities:

   a. I do not read the *CATESOL Journal.*
   b. very satisfied
   c. satisfied
   d. dissatisfied
   e. very dissatisfied

9. If you have suggestions for improving the *CATESOL Journal*, please list them below.

   ____
   ____
   ____

10. How many times have you attended a CATESOL *regional* conference (e.g., Los Angeles Regional, Northern Regional, San Diego Regional, Northern Nevada Regional, etc.)?

    a. never
    b. once
    c. two to five times
    d. five or more times

11. Rate your overall satisfaction with the content of the CATESOL regional conference(s) as related to your work activities:

    a. I have never attended a regional conference.
    b. very satisfied
    c. satisfied
    d. dissatisfied
    e. very dissatisfied

12. If you have suggestions for improving the CATESOL regional conferences, please list them below.

____

____

____

13. How many times have you attended a CATESOL *state* conference?

a. never
b. once
c. two to five times
d. five or more times

14. Rate your overall satisfaction with the content of the CATESOL state conference(s) as related to your work activities:

a. I have never attended a state conference.
b. very satisfied
c. satisfied
d. somewhat dissatisfied
e. dissatisfied

15. If you have suggestions for improving the CATESOL state conference(s), please list them below:

____

____

____

16. How many different L2 students do you have telephone or in-person contact with during an average work week?

a. 0-10 different L2 students per week
b. 11-40 different L2 students per week
c. 41-80 different L2 students per week
d. 81 or more different L2 students per week

17. How many hours do you spend with L2 students either on the telephone or in-person during an average work week?

a. 0-5 hours
b. 6-10 hours
c. 11-20 hours
d. 21-30 hours
e. 31 or more hours

18. Most universities have a means by which L2 matriculated students are placed into English classes, are provided necessary language/writing assistance throughout a program, and are able to fulfill requirements to graduate from a program. What is your overall familiarity with this process at your institution(s)? (Remember: This question refers to *regular* matriculated students versus intensive language program, adjunct, or other students on a campus.)

a. very familiar
b. somewhat familiar
c. unfamiliar

19. (If you answered "a" or "b" on question 18), how well do you think these placement procedures assign students to correct levels? (Remember: This question refers to *regular* matriculated students versus intensive language program, adjunct, or other students on a campus.)

a. I am not familiar enough with these procedures to comment.
b. very well
c. somewhat well
d. somewhat poorly
e. very poorly

20. How well do you think the needs of L2 matriculated college students are met at your institution(s)?

a. I am not familiar enough with the needs of L2 matriculated college students to comment.
b. very well
c. somewhat well
d. somewhat poorly
e. very poorly

Comments:______________________________

21. How well prepared do *you* personally feel to address the language needs of advanced proficiency L2 learners on your campus(es)?

a. very prepared
b. somewhat prepared
c. somewhat unprepared
d. very unprepared

22. How familiar are you with the Second Language Proficiency Descriptors designed by the intersegmental California Pathways project?

a. very familiar
b. somewhat familiar
c. unfamiliar

23. (If you answered "a" or "b" on question 22), how willing are you to apply the Second Language Proficiency Descriptors in your ESL/TESL/L2-related position(s)?

a. I am not familiar enough with these descriptors to comment.
b. very willing
c. somewhat willing
d. somewhat unwilling
e. very unwilling

Comments:____

____

____

24. In your opinion, what is the general status of ESL/TESL professionals on college/university campuses as compared to others hired at a similar level (e.g., same job classification and step or grade)? Would you say that the status of ESL/TESL professionals is...

a. much higher than others at a similar step and grade
b. somewhat higher
c. about the same
d. somewhat lower
e. much lower

25. On average, how frequent are meetings at your institution(s) which bring together personnel from various areas (i.e., other departments, offices, centers, etc.) on campus who have expertise and/or interest in serving L2 learners?

    a. 9 or more times a year
    b. 4-8 times a year
    c. 1-3 times a year
    d. 0 times a year
    e. I don't know.

26. How frequently do you personally initiate conversations with people who are at your institution(s) but who are outside of your department/section about L2 issues?

    a. frequently
    b. sometimes
    c. rarely
    d. never

27. Indicate the percentage of time which you receive paid compensation for (T)ESL or L2 related activities:

    a. Full-time (100%)
    b. Three-quarters time (75%)
    c. Half-time (50%)
    d. Quarter-time (25%)
    e. I am not presently compensated for (T)ESL/L2 related activities.

28. How satisfied are you with your current salary based on your current duties?

    a. very satisfied
    b. somewhat satisfied
    c. somewhat dissatisfied
    d. very dissatisfied

29. What is your general attitude towards the use of technology in ESL instruction?

a. very positive
b. positive
c. less than positive
d. not at all positive

Comments:____

____

____

30. How much experience have you personally had as an instructor or an administrator in a computer lab on your campus?

a. a great deal
b. some
c. not much
d. none

31. How much experience have you personally had as a learner, an instructor, or an administrator in any kind of a distance learning program ((T)ESL or non-(T)ESL related)?

a. a great deal
b. some
c. not much
d. none

32. If you teach, indicate how materials are *usually* chosen for use in your area(s) of expertise:

a. Not applicable. I do not teach.
b. by committee
c. by administrators
d. by individual teachers
e. other______________________________

33. Rate your general satisfaction with published materials in your area of expertise:

a. very satisfied
b. satisfied
c. dissatisfied
d. very dissatisfied

34. What types of new materials would you like to see published to assist you in your area of expertise?

a.____
b.____
c.____

35. List the 2 most significant L2-related decisions, activities, or programs that have had a positive impact on your campus(es) in the past 5 years. (Be specific. Name campus(es) if possible.)

a.____

b.____

36. What are 2 things you would like to improve related to (T)ESL/ESL activities on your campus(es) or at your job(s)?

a.____

b.____

37. We are seeking more in-depth information about several other areas. If you are knowledgeable about these areas and would be willing to be contacted by phone for an additional interview, please indicate below:

Area	**May we contact you by phone? (yes/no)**
a. Identification of and service to ESL transfer students from community colleges.	________
b. Articulation between high schools, community colleges, and universities about L2 issues.	________
c. Ways of addressing CSU mandate for cutbacks in remediation programs.	________
d. Management of computer labs (hardware and/or software) which serve ESL students.	________
e. Management of effective learning centers which serve L2 students.	________
f. Management of effective distance learning programs on campus.	________
g. Other________________________________ ____	________

Name ____

Phone Number (_______ **)**

____

Day and time to call ______________________________

38. Other Comments or Concerns: ______________________________

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

39. Please rate this survey as far as allowing you to express your present (T)ESL/L2 concerns?

a. excellent
b. good
c. fair
d. poor

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this survey. We appreciate your comments and feedback!

The CATESOL Journal CATESOL EXCHANGE

A Fulbrighter's Experience with English Language Teaching in Tunisia: The Land of Mosaics

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Mosaics—slivers of tile in shades of red, blue, brown, black, and white jigsawed together—are on display throughout Tunisia. Some form geometric designs; others reveal gods and goddesses, warriors, lovers, ships, and, of course, all types of fish. The mosaics are sometimes multilayered. They tell of the waves of civilizations which have come to Tunisia. Punic mosaics with pink stone surfaces flecked with fragments of glass or marble give way to Roman creations with intricate patterns of triangles and diamonds. Native North African mosaics with circular compositions and frequent portrayals of rural and marine scenes are replaced by Christian representations with colored blocklike shapes and later motifs concerning martyrdom and resurrection. Finally, Byzantine mosaics with cut glass and figurative representations appeared.

These mosaics are delightful yet haunting because of their ambiguity. They suggest that beneath the dusty surface lie ornately textured and colorful layers which are often hidden from the hurried traveler. They also warn that it is impossible to entirely reconstruct or reconcile all of the experiences of Tunisia.

From 1995–1997, I served as a Fulbright senior lecturer in TEFL and applied linguistics at the University of Tunis.[1] I applied for a grant to Tunisia because I was interested in discovering how an emerging North African country has successfully encouraged multilingualism. I hoped to apply what I would learn to the language situation in California.

Preparation

My initiation into the Fulbright experience was a bit unsettling. After applying for a sabbatical from California Polytechnic State University and being notified early in 1995 that I had been selected for a Fulbright award in Tunisia, my family and I waited for a contract and, more importantly, a check for travel and living expenses. Despite frequent telephone calls (on our part) and assurances (on their part), nothing arrived from Washington, DC. Subsequently I have learned that my experience is not uncommon. In my case the contract and then the check arrived two weeks before our departure. I was informed that I was one of 800 American grantees who would travel abroad under the Fulbright program. With our possessions compressed into eight bulging pieces of luggage, my wife and I with two toddlers embarked on our journey to Tunisia with another child to join us after completing his academic school year.

"A modest program with immodest aims" was how Senator Fulbright described the 52-year-old program which bears his name. To date, over 200,000 individuals from around the world have participated as lecturers, researchers, and students. Richard Arndt (1993) explains the success of this program in *The Fulbright Difference* : "No other nation in the world's history ever set out to carry on exchanges with virtually every other country in the world...No formal government-sponsored exchange program ever succeeded in persuading dozens of participating nations to share in its costs" (p. 1).

Senator Fulbright had been inspired to create the program based on his experience as a Rhodes scholar. Originally it was conceived of as a post-graduate experience for students and researchers. Later, of course, lecturers were invited to join. I doubt whether the good senator ever envisioned baby bottles, toys, and a collapsible crib being squeezed into a Fulbrighter's luggage next to books and computer equipment. In fact, at a conference several years before his death, the senator exclaimed that the Fulbright program had been conceived of for graduate students and not "faculty with their 'whole damn families'" (quoted in Robins & Robins, 1993, p. 114). Despite Senator Fulbright's reservations, my experience in Tunisia was greatly enriched due to my family's presence.

Teaching

The Fulbright Commission in consultation with the Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education placed me as a professor in the English Department at the University of Tunis I. Following the French university system, faculties in Tunisia are categorized accordingly: the University of Tunis I designates the faculties of letters, arts, and human sciences; the University of Tunis II deals with the faculties of sciences and medicine; and the

University of Tunis III concerns the faculties of law, economics, and business. I have seen it written that the University of Tunis is one of the oldest higher education institutions in the world. This claim is only partially accurate. Zitouna University, the Islamic studies institution founded in 732, was incorporated into the University of Tunis in 1961; however, the other faculties were only created after independence in 1956.

My students' English language proficiency level was impressive. English, of course, is their fourth language—after Tunisian Arabic, Classical Arabic, and French. In spite of the fact that Tunisia has a level of linguistic homogeneity not found elsewhere in the world (an estimated 99% speak Tunisian Arabic), Tunisians have a remarkable ability to learn other languages. Certainly this predisposition for language acquisition has been aided by two related factors: First, Tunisians have had a history of invasions and contact with neighboring countries due to their geographic position; second, as a small country with limited natural resources, Tunisians are obligated to communicate with speakers of other languages particularly for purposes of trade and tourism. In addition to the four languages previously mentioned, it is not uncommon for certain Tunisians to speak German and/or Italian.

Multilingual faculty meetings in the English department also intrigued me. The code switching that occurs between languages is a fascinating linguistic phenomenon. During meetings, many of my colleagues would offer a contribution in English, only to switch to French upon becoming more earnest and then adopt Arabic when reaching a certain level of enthusiasm or anger.

The Tunisian university system is very elitist, with only a small percentage of students gaining admittance and an even smaller percentage graduating. The students were sometimes confused by my American pedagogical practices. Required attendance, quizzes, group work, and oral presentations were new experiences for many of them. Little incentive exists for these activities or even for research paper writing because 80% of the final grade for undergraduates and 100% of the final grade for graduates is determined by year-end exams. This requirement as well as many others is passed down by the Ministry of Higher Education.

Teaching at the University of Tunis required a flexibility to which I had to become accustomed. Administrators, faculty, and students are never certain when academic terms begin or end and when exams are scheduled. I quickly discarded my syllabi which listed reading assignments corresponding to specific dates and decided to adapt to the environment. For the most part my students were receptive to their courses and my presence as a professor. A few, of course, were skeptical about the entire arrangement.

Textbooks as well as other instructional materials and equipment are in short supply in Tunisia. Universities have copy centers on campus where entire books are photocopied and then sold to students. Without hard currency to purchase texts from the West, universities are practically obligated to violate copyright laws. Students who have only known this type of system are deprived of the pride of book ownership. Moreover, they are less apt to understand and respect practices concerning intellectual property. As for other equipment used in teaching, I was amused when one colleague declared in all seriousness in a faculty meeting, "It is time we embraced new technology in this department. We must acquire overhead projectors for the classroom." Needless to say, access to the Worldwide Web and use of computer CD-ROM is not on the horizon.

English departments in Tunisia are composed of three programs: linguistics, literature, and civilization. Although I had anticipated teaching in the first two areas, I was a bit surprised to be involved in teaching what is broadly know as civilization. I taught graduate-level courses in TEFL theories/methods and American multiculturalism as well as undergraduate courses in psycholinguistics, the American novel, and American civilization. The challenge in Tunisian English departments is to offer university degrees in English within an Arab country using a French educational system. I am certain I learned as much as my students throughout this experience.

Research Activities

I was privileged to conduct research in language policy and planning. Social, economic, and religious forces are altering the language situation in North Africa. Immediately after independence in Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria, the linguistic situation was described by Gallagher (1964) as follows: "Language serves as this kind of symbol—of affinities and aspirations, as direction and identification—and as a tool for reordering, re-creating, and seeking propitious ground in which to put down renewed roots" (p. 83).

Today, Arabic is the official language. In Tunisia, for example, the status of Arabic is clearly stated in Article 1 of the constitution: "Islam is its religion, Arabic is its language." French linguistic and cultural influence have continued on in North Africa after the withdrawal of the French, yet they are slowly losing their position in society due to Arabization and Islamization. A gradual decline in the use and status of French is apparent. Berber is yet another language of North Africa. Berberphones account for about 40% of the Moroccan population, 25% of the Algerian population, but less than 1% of the Tunisian population.

Although Arabic, French, and Berber are the principal languages of

North Africa, English is gradually being adopted into various sectors of society. I was particularly interested in examining the issue of second languages in competition—or the continued use of French versus the spread of English. My research activities focused on the increasing use of English in education, government, the professions, and mass media (Battenburg, 1996, 1997).

Fishman (1983) has observed concerning language choice and loyalty, "English is less loved but more used; French is more loved and less used" (p. 20). In North Africa, however, researchers have found the opposite: French is more used, yet English is more loved. A gap exists, of course, between language preference and language use. However, it is significant that while English is increasingly used in former francophone territories, French is not being adopted in anglophone territories.

The competition between English and French in certain Arab and African countries will continue. Since founding their colonies and protectorates, the French have used their language and culture as political and economic tools. While French prestige has declined considerably by the end of the twentieth century, its role on the world stage is enhanced by its ability to influence formerly held territories.

Foreign aid to Tunisia reveals the priority which certain governments place on influencing language policy and planning activities. In 1996 the American government allocated approximately $600,000 and the British government contributed about $400,000 for language, cultural, and educational activities. The French government, in contrast, spent an estimated $20 million for these programs in Tunisia. The British cultural attaché jokingly commented to me on this disparity: "The French spend more in a morning than we do in a year."

Still, other forces in North Africa argue in favor of the spread of English. In Morocco, I visited the first anglophone university—Al Alkawayne (the two brothers). This institution, created in 1995 with financial support from King Fahd of Saudi Arabia and King Hassan II of Morocco, is already viewed as one of the finest universities in North Africa. In Algeria, parties such as the Islamic Salvation Front have pushed for the adoption of Arabic internally and the use of English as a lingua franca externally. If French provides a window to the outside world, they argue that English offers an even larger window.

Conducting research in Tunisia is a frustrating, exhilarating, and memorable experience. On the one hand, access to libraries is not always easily obtained, and one can wait weeks if not months for a requested publication. On the other hand, Tunisian government officials and academics are typically happy to be of assistance. I have fond memories of sitting in underheated libraries with my laptop computer surrounded by stacks of books and journals. Sometimes after working most of the day, I would wander off into the markets in the medina to lose myself among the stalls and sellers of spices, fabrics, jewelry, and household wares.

Conclusion

My Fulbright experience in Tunisia has provided me with various insights concerning multilingualism which are partially applicable to California. First, Tunisians view mastery of English as well as various other languages to be essential for internal economic development and privatization. Second, Tunisian governmental officials and educators are prepared to devote resources for continued language instruction throughout the elementary, secondary, and university levels. Finally, Tunisians realize that understanding different languages and cultures will assist them in forging links with the international community.

California can learn much from Tunisia as it also continues to grapple with challenges concerning multilingualism. California is inextricably linked to various regions of the world, and knowledge of English along with the languages and cultures of Pacific Rim and Latin American countries, in particular, are essential. Although this state possesses a wealth of resources represented in its diverse population, it often fails to recognize the potential benefits of multilingualism and the important role of education.

The aim of the Fulbright program is to increase mutual understanding between the people of the U.S. and other countries. My experience once again has confirmed to me that Americans have much to share and, just as importantly, much to learn from countries such as Tunisia.

Endnote

[1] The Fulbright program, which sponsors post baccalaureate and postdoctoral fellowships for teaching and study abroad, is administered through the U.S. Information Agency. Information is available online at <http://www.iie.org/fulbright/ or by writing: Institute of International Education, 809 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017-3580.

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Learning Environments for Adult Learners: Implications for Teacher Development

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Deming (1986) insists that successful organizations must institute training and encourage education and self-improvement for everyone. Difficulties in providing quality teacher workshops in ESL programs come from a variety of factors. Conflicting work and out-of-work schedules, scheduling workshop time in a busy teaching day, and little or no pay for workshop attendance all contribute to the problem of how to provide teacher workshops. Participation, content, and organization of staff development programs are frequently discussed at presentations at ESL conferences, but few of these presentations deal with the needs of the teachers themselves as adult learners. One such need is a climate conducive to learning (Knowles, 1973). If institutions are to provide quality training for their faculty, what can one learn from studies of the learning environment for adults? How important is environment? What makes a positive learning environment? Knowles says that setting the appropriate climate is a crucial element in educating adult learners. What role does environment play in teacher in-service programs?

There have been numerous discussions of the role of climate and environment in the education of adult learners (Hiemstra, 1991; Merriam & Caffarella, 1991). Various dimensions of the learning environment have been described and discussed (Langenbach & Aagaard, 1989; Ennis et al, 1989; and Sisco, 1991). There is little agreement on terminology or on categories. Operational definitions overlap in their categories or dimensions. However, Knowles' (1973) division of climate into three categories—the physical, interpersonal, and organizational environments—allows the inclusion of results from many researchers.

Physical Environment

Fulton (1991) says that adults are more influenced than children by the physical environment. It can motivate adult learners, or create barriers. In many educational programs, teacher workshops are held either in a student classroom or in the staff lounge.

The classroom creates a formal learning environment that is less productive for adults. Andragogy (cited in Knowles, 1973) suggests informal structures are more useful offering the ability to set chairs in a circle, engage in group discussion, and create a collegial atmosphere. When student desks are lined in rows, teachers may expect to be taught, rather than to be active participants in learning. In addition, the room may "belong" to another teacher, making other teachers feel less comfortable.

Faculty often prefer the lounge because it is more friendly and convenient for lunch meetings. However, the lounge contains many distractions. The setting may be too informal with food, dirty dishes, magazines, and clutter. The temptation to get up and get some coffee or water is great. Blackboards may be absent; crowded conditions with little room to take notes or rearrange seating for group work restrict the types of activities that can be undertaken.

Vosko (1991) says that many people are often blind to their surroundings, but that the surroundings influence learning nonetheless. If a suitable on-site setting is not available, off-site facilities should be considered if they are available and more appropriate. The choice of room should not be made lightly. (Vosko suggests that an assessment and analysis of space attributes might be conducted to find out what the needs are for workshops.) Considerations as to the type of activity, whether refreshments will be served, what distractions are present, and whose room it is should be made to select the most suitable setting for learning. If choice of the room is entirely left up to the participants, some will choose the most comfortable setting not for learning, but for relaxing and socializing. For some, socializing may create rapport among staff; for others their primary goal may be to "get it over with," not to learn from the workshop. While lowering the affective filter for adults is important, much more than creating a comfortable climate is necessary for effective learning to take place.

Interpersonal Environment

Although the physical environment is important, James (1985) reports that instructor (teacher trainer) behavior and attitudes are more important contributors to the total environment. The workshop leader makes many demands on the participants. These demands may consist of demands to participate, to pay attention, or to attend. The history (often referred to as *loads* in the literature) of relationships also places demands on the participants. The load on an individual can be equated to the demands made on that individual not only by the workshop leader or instructor but also by the self or by society.

Nearly 80% of the load instructors place on students comes from instructor behavior (Imel, 1991). After handling this load, the power available to the individual determines whether there is sufficient margin left for success in the undertaking. Instructors were found to be generating many types of load on the student (Imel, 1991; Jacobs & James, 1985; James, 1985). Load placed on workshop participants is reflected in their comments such as "Treated as an inferior," "Scratching his back on the wall while he lectured," and "Over explaining" (James, p. 12). Disrespectful and demeaning behavior by the instructor diminishes the effectiveness of any presentation.

In an ESL program, if a supervisor or administrator is conducting the workshop, many other types of load are brought to the session as well. The whole history of the relationship between the supervisor and teachers can be a load that creates barriers and obstacles to learning. At odds with the need for a positive learning environment (Sisco, 1991) are any conflicts or negative relationships that arose in the past. These conflicts can preclude any learning taking place.

Supervisory styles may also contribute to the burdens placed on the learner. Does the supervisor's style interfere with teachers' learning styles? Does the supervisor make efforts to "drive out fear" as Deming (1986) suggests, or does he or she rule by fear? This style is a factor whether the supervisor is conducting the workshop or not. Required attendance or other expectations can place obstacles in the way of learning. The dual roles of supervisor as evaluator and coach also interferes in staff development. Teachers are unwilling to acknowledge weaknesses, indeed, are fools to do so, if the supervisor also performs an annual performance appraisal that determines salary increases or continued employment.

Effective workshops, then, demand much more than a well-organized workshop. Staff development encompasses everyday relations, supervisory practices, and interpersonal behaviors of all the staff in the school.

Organizational Environment

The organizational environment includes not only the organizational structure of the workshop but also the organizational structure of the institution. Ennis et al. (1989) state the need for shared decision making. Vosko (1991) encourages varied communication patterns between teacher and student, and among students. Lecture, whole group, cooperative group, and individualized instruction can all be used. Johnson & Johnson (1994) and

Jacobs & Joyce (1994) stress the need for collaboration and cooperative structures in successful learning environments. Deming (1986) urges organizations to break down barriers between staff areas. In ESL programs barriers often exist between faculty and administration. Efforts to remove barriers can be effective in improving rapport. What is common to all these is the desire not only to create more involvement by everyone, but also to learn from everyone. Every member of the organization has valid viewpoints that should be recognized. Active participation by all allows an individual's experience and knowledge to contribute to the progress of others.

Jacobs & Joyce (1994), in comparing workplace groups with groups in education, list group skills that must be developed in either setting for effective collaboration to take place. These include reducing competition and increasing cooperation, planning on a long-term rather than a short-term basis, and reducing time pressures to allow collaborative efforts to succeed. Johnson & Johnson (1994) develop specific and detailed structures and exercises to create a "cooperative school" where teachers participate in many aspects of the program, especially in staff development and decision making. Shared decision making, collaborative learning, and cooperative groups are three key elements that can increase adult learning.

Recommendations

Deming (1986) says that everyone is already doing the best he or she knows how. What individuals lack is profound knowledge that will change what and how they do their jobs and live their lives. Organizations should remove barriers that rob people of "pride of workmanship" (p. 77). For ESL teachers, this includes not only pride in one's job, but opportunities to grow professionally. Knowledge of learning environments leads to four recommendations that can improve the effectiveness of teacher workshops in ESL programs.

First, care should be given in choosing the physical location of the workshop. An informal setting that will allow cooperative groups should be selected. Distractions should be minimized. A clean, attractive location that suggests an atmosphere of learning is preferred. A conference room with blackboard, comfortable chairs, and a seating arrangement that allows all participants to see each other is ideal. Off-site locations should be considered if feasible.

Second, interpersonal relationships will affect the desire to participate in the workshops. Management, that is, administrators and supervisors, should adopt methods of Deming's total quality management or similar approaches that respect the individual, drive out fear, and encourage teamwork. Performance appraisals might be assigned to someone other than the ones responsible for organizing workshops, or perhaps even abolished (Deming, 1986).

Third, shared decision making regarding the content and structure of the workshops should be implemented. One example of shared decision making used at the ELS Language Centers/San Diego is a questionnaire on which teachers marked the strengths and weaknesses of the program. From the information gathered, staff assisted in the organization and presentation of workshops for the coming year. These workshops addressed long-standing issues that were of concern to them.

Fourth, cooperative groups and collegial teams (Johnson & Johnson 1994) should be used. Use of groups and teams encourages greater participation by all staff. While some teachers are eager, or at least willing, to lead workshops, almost all teachers can participate in small groups and pairs and lend their expertise to the discussion. Cooperative groups, properly structured, require mastery of the material by everyone. It is not possible to sit in the corner passively. Cooperative groups also build positive interdependence (Jacobs & James, 1994) among staff and lead to greater teamwork and job satisfaction in other areas of the job.

Conclusions

The learning environment may have a more profound effect on the success of teacher workshops and teacher development than many realize. Efforts to improve workshops through better content, guest presenters, faculty presenters, and paid in-service workshops are all worthy efforts. However, if efforts are not made to improve the environments of learning—physical, interpersonal, and organizational—success may not come. Knowles (1973, p. 108-109) cautions that if a staff developer sees himself essentially as a teacher and administrator, managing the logistics of learning experiences for collections of individuals, he will have little influence on the quality of the climate of his organization. Only if he defines his client as the total organization, and his mission as the improvement of its quality as an environment for the growth and development of people, will he be able to affect its climate.

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Teaching Grammar: What Do Employers at the Postsecondary Level Expect?

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As the only advisor in a small MATESL degree program, I was pleased to write a strong letter of recommendation for one of my recent graduates for a teaching position in a summer intensive program. To her credit she obtained the job. At the end of the summer she called to tell me how much she enjoyed teaching but confessed that she had "really goofed up" on the first day of class when a student asked her to explain the difference between *lie* and *lay*, and she was not able to do so because she had forgotten that lie is intransitive and lay is transitive. She recovered her credibility with the student the next day by checking her grammar book and returning to class with the answer well in hand. Since I was not only her advisor but also her instructor in the required course "Structure of American English," I began to wonder if I had somehow failed my student. I was fairly certain I had taught that point. I always do, but it seems to be so minor that I never spend much time on it. In retrospect, I wish she had been able to respond to her student's question immediately. But I also feel I did the right thing by giving her the tools she needed to obtain the answer in a timely fashion.

This incident has caused me to think about what we, the instructors in MA programs in TESL, ought to include in the grammar component of the curriculum. While I would never argue for across-the-board standardization, it seems that there could be some common features one might expect to find in such a course.

Over the years the profession has embraced several different points of view with regard to instruction in grammar, beginning with the very structured approach of audiolingual methodology and the explicit teaching of grammatical patterns. Later Krashen and Terrell (1983) promoted the natural approach, in which formal instruction in the explicit details of grammar was discouraged. They argued that such instruction might be detrimental since students monitor themselves with regard to the minutiae of grammatical rules and forms, becoming overly concerned with linguistic detail and thus less able to express themselves in a communicatively effective manner.

More recently the field has seen a move away from Krashen and Terrell's acquisition model, particularly at the postsecondary level, to more explicit grammatical instruction. This change might be viewed as parallel to the trend in L1 reading instruction, where emphasis has moved away from the exclusive use of whole language instruction back to whole language plus phonics instruction. In ESL, the shift is supported by research in form-focused instruction which examines the efficacy of approaches such as the structured input option, explicit instruction, production practice, and negative feedback. A brief discussion of this research can be found in Ellis (1998).

The focus of this paper is to determine how employers at the postsecondary level regard the teaching of grammar. In view of the wide range of theoretical approaches, what do they expect a new teacher to know and be able to do with respect to the teaching of grammar?

To that end I contacted six individuals in postsecondary institutions who are in a position to either hire new teachers or make recommendations about hiring and retention of faculty. Five agreed to participate in my research which consisted of responding to the following e-mail question: "As an individual who hires or recommends ESL instructors for appointment, how do you attempt to ascertain an applicant's knowledge of and ability to teach grammar? Feel free to add any comments you feel are related to this topic." Each responded by e-mail and then read and approved this manuscript. All agreed to be identified. They are:

- Johnnie Johnson Hafernik, Department of English as a Second Language, University of San Francisco.
- Martha Lynch, Center for International Women, Mills College.
- Sedique Popal, Department of English as a Second Language, College of Alameda.
- Jane Rice, English Language Program, University of California, San Francisco Extension.
- Steve Thewlis, American Language Program, California State University, Hayward.

From their messages, several common themes emerged. The first and most basic was the need for a pedagogically based grammar course. Other themes included the need for teacher educators:

- to deal with the grammar phobia of MA TESL students.
- to emphasize specific grammatical points, especially verbs.
- to help future teachers adjust their instruction to the level of the students and the type of curriculum the program endorses.

All of the informants stressed the need for a pedagogically based grammar course, maintaining that many MATESL-trained teachers seem to have never had such a course. Lynch writes, "...if an applicant is a recent graduate of an MATEFL program and an inexperienced teacher...I can assume the applicant has little knowledge of grammar for the ESL classroom." Four informants ask specific grammar questions at the time they interview applicants. From the answers that applicants give, they conclude that many new teachers have had very little instruction in English grammar. Rice writes, "You would be surprised to know how many interviewees cannot tell you what the present perfect is and how it works." She states that when applicants are asked the difference between *will* and *be going to*, it is surprising "how many candidates fake an answer and go on and on."

Not providing our future teachers with a grammar course is no service to them. Knowledge of the kinds of grammatical patterns English language learners need to know is one of the factors separating a qualified ESL/EFL instructor from one who simply happens to be a native speaker of English in the right place at the right time. Students themselves, while perhaps not eager to study grammar, seem to recognize its importance for their future work. In a survey of student needs, Wenzell, Hedgpeth, and Rightmire (1994) found that a course in the structure of English ranked second in importance after a course in second language acquisition. One informant, Thewlis, writes,

> MA programs are failing in preparing teachers to handle grammatical questions from learners. Here is a parallel: While it is possible for someone to be a natural musician and to play by ear without being able to read music...if one wishes to teach in a conservatory, one must have the basic concepts and meta-language to talk about and communicate how music is structured to students.

Another informant, Popal, observes that some theoreticians "belittle the role of grammar in language acquisition. Teachers like what they hear...because a great majority of them...do not have the explicit knowledge to teach English grammar." It is thus clear that my informants expect their teachers to have a thorough grounding in the direct elements of English grammar and are dismayed if they do not.

The operative term here is *English grammar*. We must be careful not to interpret this term as synonymous with theoretical linguistics. Modern linguistics asks questions about the nature of human language. When theoretical linguist Noam Chomsky (1965) brought these questions into the mainstream of linguistic thought, it was quite revolutionary. Many of the constructs of linguistic theory should ground our work in grammar, but we cannot lose sight of a student's need to know how English, in particular, functions. Thus, in conceptualizing a grammar course for future ESL instructors, we must remember to focus more on English and perhaps less on theoretical linguistics. Lynch writes, "The graduate schools tend to offer students courses in theoretical grammar, linguistics, etc., but not the practical grammar required of the ESL teacher."

However, this is not to suggest that all theoretical linguistic concepts be discarded. While much of theoretical linguistics may not be necessary for future ESL instructors, several constructs probably ought to inform instruction.

For example, one construct from linguistics that I find extremely useful is linguistic universals. When I suggest to students that all languages might, in some sense, be the same, they look at me in disbelief. I ask the question, "How is it possible for a baby to acquire whatever language it is exposed to?" Students then inevitably ask for examples of linguistic universals. "Well," I begin, "as far as we know every language has a way to make utterances negative." Negation is an abstraction. When asked to draw a picture of the sentence, *An apple is on the table*, one can do it very easily. When asked to draw a picture of the sentence, *An apple isn't on the table*, one finds the task impossible. But when we teach English negation to nonnative speakers, we simply assume that this abstraction is already in place in their native languages and all we have to do is show them how to accomplish the same thing in English. When future teachers contrast this task with the task of teaching the definite and indefinite article system in English to students whose native language does not utilize such a system, the task is much more difficult. They are now faced with teaching the abstract concept behind the pattern as well as the pattern itself.

Once we suggest that there are linguistic universals, the constructs of deep structure and surface structure fall into place naturally, since it is quite evident that English and Chinese do not look at all alike, yet both undoubtedly share common underlying characteristics. Do we then need phrase structure trees to illustrate these concepts? Probably not. Yet parts of current linguistic theory can be very helpful for future ESL/EFL teachers.

Teacher educators need to determine just how much theoretical linguistics should support a pedagogical grammar class. Rice writes, "I find interviewees who have studied other languages and have a linguistics background to be better on grammar questions generally."

Having established that a pedagogically based grammar course including selected constructs from theoretical linguistics is essential in the education of ESL instructors, we can now ask what features might characterize an ideal grammar class for future ESL instructors?

A pedagogically based grammar course must first help future teachers deal with grammar phobia. Math phobia is a well known phenomenon in education. It seems that we must also recognize grammar phobia. As mentioned previously, future ESL instructors know they need a good foundation in grammar, but even after completing their degree program, employers find that many applicants still are afraid of grammar. Rice states, " Some people are forthcoming about their dislike for grammar." Hafernik writes,

> If a candidate tells me that s/he does not like teaching grammar (it is surprising how many say this), then I say "Why don't you like teaching grammar?"...some individuals seem to fear grammar and these people make me nervous.

Of course, fear of grammar relates directly back to a lack of training, discussed earlier. But, as teacher educators, we must apply what we know about good teaching to our grammar classes just as we would any other class. We need to make grammar interesting and even fun. Hafernik, for example, notes the subtle and interesting difference in the sentences:

(a) *Because I was late, I couldn't find a parking space.*
(b) *I was late because I couldn't find a parking space.*

In English, word order can completely change meaning.

People who enjoy grammar enjoy such examples, and these are the types of puzzles teacher educators could use to pique the interest of the students. However, we will simply instill more fear of grammar if we then spend three class periods and six phrase structure trees analyzing these utterances. Just as we want our teachers to be able to distill the important points of a lesson to present to their students, we must model the same skills. In addition we must be supportive and encouraging. This is not the arena to demonstrate how smart we are. We want our students to develop their own confidence and competence. We know that these strategies work on the K–12 level. It is important to remember that they also work for graduate students.

A pedagogically based grammar course must also include a great deal of instruction in the specific points of English grammar. This relates to the trend toward more form-focused instruction. Employers may ask job applicants specific points of English grammar at the job interview. From the data, it is apparent that verbs are especially important. This probably legitimately reflects the importance of the verb system in the English language. The present perfect seems to be a favorite, perhaps because it is one where students first have to deal with more subtle features of the language.

Hafernik suggests the following sample question for job applicants: How would you introduce the present perfect in relationship to the past to a low-intermediate class? Rice provides the following example of an interview question:

> Assume you have an intermediate level class...ready to have its first presentation of the present perfect. How do you present this, what examples do you show and how do you tie your presentation into a follow-up set of activities that reinforce your specific presentation?

The informants each provided several more sample questions: Although there were a few about nouns and relative clauses, the majority focused on verbs. Any TESL job applicant approching an interview would be wise to review the English verb tense system.

What employers do not ask is also important. They do not ask about linguistic theory or the underlying nature of syntax. Clearly they are concerned about specific, practical grammar issues in English, and our teacher education practices should reflect their concerns.

Yet another issue for employers is how well applicants can adjust their teaching to the level of the students. In terms of gauging what students can handle, Hafernik notes,

> I'm not sure how to get at this—how to find out if a potential teacher is good at this—but a good ESL teacher must have a radar for how much explanation and specificity students can handle. For example, low level students don't need to know the subtle difference between "I will go tomorrow" and "I am going to go tomorrow."...The teacher should know the differences, however...The teacher always needs to ask, "What do

> the students have to know to use this structure appropriately most of the time?"

Teacher educators can easily remember to indicate to students the level at which a particular grammatical point is usually taught. When students present in-class teaching demonstrations in the area of grammar, a discussion of the intended level should always be included.

Coupled with the concern for the ability to adjust instruction to the level of the students, employers are concerned with the extent to which applicants realize the importance of grammar in a communicative curriculum. Rice writes, "In our program we emphasize the communicative approach to using grammar...so I look closely at the range of activities the interviewee has at his or her command which would allow students to practice grammar points orally." Hafernik states, "I generally ask a question or two about how the candidate would handle grammatical questions in classes other than grammar." Thewlis also emphasizes these views when he states that during the employment interview, he would ask a candidate about the role of grammar in a grammar class, in a writing class, and in a speaking class. He is interested in how these different contexts would cause them to modify their approach.

Teacher educators need to be explicit about the central role of grammar in all second language teaching. Hafernik states, "Every ESL...teacher is a grammar teacher." Applicants cannot accept an assignment in a speaking class thinking that they have somehow avoided grammar.

In conclusion, there was remarkable agreement among the informants about the importance of grammatical knowledge and teaching skill for new ESL teachers. All seemed to agree that grammar instruction has been neglected in our teacher education programs. This conclusion is based on their encounters with job applicants who cannot answer basic grammatical questions or who readily admit fear and dislike of the subject.

Although the small number of informants may not be representative of all employers, they seem to reflect much of the current thinking in the field. They clearly want teachers who know the fine points of English grammar: its forms, terminology and meaning. At the same time they do not endorse a return to the rigid approaches of audio-lingualism, but rather, they expect a good deal more. They expect teachers to have explicit knowledge of English grammar and an ability to integrate that knowledge into communicative approaches to instruction.

The implications for teacher education are clear. MA candidates need at least one course in pedagogical grammar that does not overemphasize theoretical linguistics but instead highlights the specifics of English grammar for ESL students. Such a course should include some work in pedagogy because the ability to name and give examples of each English verb tense, for example, is no guarantee of an ability to teach these tenses and how they are used to someone else. Thus, the pedagogical grammar class and the methodology class might, from time to time, overlap. Certainly they should supplement each other, and the instructors should be in constant dialogue with each other.

Here I return to the story of my student who could not explain the difference between *lie* and *lay* on the first day of class. If she had been asked such a question on her job interview and had she been unable to answer it then, would she have been denied the job? Obviously, my informants do not determine employment on the basis of one question. Sometimes it may be more important to look at how a candidate handles a question s/he does not know the answer to, as this will certainly happen in class at some point. ESL students expect their teachers to know everything. Future teachers expect their teacher educators to know everything. Obviously this is impossible. But what we learned from this research project is that grammar cannot be neglected. We must pay careful attention to (a) the practical details of English grammar, (b) the level at which it is appropriate to teach them, and (c) their integration throughout the curriculum. If we cannot give future ESL teachers all the answers, we can give them the tools to find the answer for themselves and the interest to pursue learning more about grammatical issues on behalf of their language learners.

Acknowledgment

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

The Web of Classroom Exchanges

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Much of the give and take in a classroom rests on a tangled web of assumptions, understandings, and exchanges that are rarely openly discussed or consciously examined. Goffman (cited in Finders, 1997) writes that in any social institution, "underlives develop" (p. 24). Vandrick (1997) writes about hidden *identities* in the ESL classroom, and the ways in which such identities (e.g. religion, sexual orientation, disability) may affect classroom dynamics. Here we discuss the closely related issue of hidden *exchanges* in the postsecondary ESL classroom: exchanges of behaviors, favors, support, and other items, mostly intangible. By exchanges, we mean that each party knows that she/he is expected to give certain things, and that she/he can expect to get certain things, and that the two—giving and getting—are at least somewhat reciprocal. Even when the behaviors given or received are visible, we propose that both teachers and students keep a hidden, unacknowledged, and generally unconscious mental tally and that each attempts to make sure that there is a sort of rough balance of giving and receiving.

Since our experience is with international and immigrant students in U.S. universities, we are particularly interested in how the cultural differences that exist in ESL classrooms impact this web of unconscious assumptions. Speaking of these matters may be uncomfortable, and acknowledging such mental tallies may challenge instructors' sense of themselves as professional, mature, and above such considerations. However, we believe that only by bringing such possibilities out into the open can we honestly assess and deal with the consequences of the complex web of teacher-student interactions in our classrooms.

Both teachers and students have a certain, often idealized, image of what the classroom is like. We teachers believe that we are professional, competent, and dedicated. We also assume that students will generally follow certain rules, spoken or unspoken, and that they will give us attention, respect, effort, and even appreciation. In turn, students generally assume that instructors will be prepared; give them information, skills, and attention; and be fair. In addition, teachers and students are supposed to give each other certain subtle indications that they understand this unspoken agreement. It is a delicate network of assumptions that we must constantly monitor and maintain.

What happens when either an instructor or a student does not follow the rules? What happens when, for example, a student is (or is perceived as) rude, inattentive, disruptive, or overtly or covertly challenges the instructor's authority? What if a student shows insufficient appreciation? Does the teacher resent this and perhaps unconsciously punish the student? What happens when an instructor is (or is perceived as) unprepared, uncaring, or unfair? Do students feel cheated and perhaps show their resentment, in effect punishing the teacher? In either case, does the wronged party feel that the bargain between them has not been kept, not been honored? Does she/he respond in turn with anger and resentment? For example, do teachers who feel that the contract has been broken, that something seems out of balance, then feel that something may have to be done to restore that balance? If that something is reducing a student's grade, giving the student less attention, or allowing a note of sarcasm in the voice, teachers usually don't want to examine their motivation for these actions too closely. But they may be keeping a tally and, in effect, balancing the equation, maintaining the equilibrium.

It should be noted that the unconscious tally is actually well understood in some cultures. For example, according to Ruth Benedict, in Japan there is a "principle of reciprocal exchange...many interactions between individuals in Japan were controlled by requirements to keep emotional 'accounts' in balance" (paraphrased in Schneiderman, 1995, p. 41). For example, if one person gives a gift, the receiver should give something in return, of approximately the same or higher value. If one person gives a compliment, or offers support in a difficult situation, the other should reciprocate. Thus some students in ESL classrooms may be much more aware of the concept of unspoken exchanges than their teachers are.

What are the interactions or events which enter into this tallying of exchanges? First let us look at the instructor's expected contributions to the system of exchanges that make up this complex web.

Instructor's Contributions

What do instructors give their students? First, of course, they give them instruction. Second, they give validation and certification, whether in the form of grades, certificates, or letters of recommendation. They give academic advice and sometimes personal counseling. Sometimes they do favors for students, such as allowing them to hand papers in late. They may give certain students extra time, extra attention, or extra encouragement. They compliment students' efforts and achievements. They sometimes organize social events.

Many of these contributions may seem to be obvious, merely a regular, integral part of teaching. But that is the point: These kinds of actions happen all the time, yet we rarely stop to think about what they mean, when and why they occur or do not occur, and how they fit in with all the other interactions going on simultaneously in the ESL class. However, there are choices involved. We know that some teachers do the bare minimum for their students, and/or seem to resent doing more. And even the majority of teachers, those who give much to their students, may occasionally feel put upon if their students are not giving them something in return—attention, appreciation, effort, for example.

Student's Contributions

Some of the same issues regarding exchanges exist for students as well. They have choices about whether they give the bare minimum in class, or more. For example, students can decide whether to participate actively in class discussions, thereby rescuing the teacher when the discussion is lagging. Even when a student may not feel comfortable speaking much in class, her/his paying careful attention in class, when others are not, can be a much-appreciated favor that may be remembered in future interactions. In addition, students may give positive or negative formal or informal evaluations of the class and teacher. These evaluations may make an enormous difference to a teacher in an institution where such evaluations are used for retention or promotion decisions.

One thing that ESL students seem to do more often than other students is to give instructors gifts or invitations to dinner or to visit them abroad. When these behaviors do not involve a great deal of money, they are often appreciated. When they do involve a great deal of money or are ill timed (e.g., just before an examination), problems arise (Messerschmitt, Hafernik, & Vandrick, 1997). Teachers must demonstrate tact in explaining to students just what the problems are.

Power and Culture

This web of exchanges in the classroom is related to power. Generally the instructor has quite a bit of power over students, and must be aware of that power and careful about its use (Lakoff, 1997). Yet students have some counterbalancing power through, among other things, their ability to evaluate and to disrupt, or refrain from disrupting, the classroom.

Although students and teachers generally know their roles, and understand each other's roles, cultural variables can undermine this understanding. Expectations of evidences of power in certain roles can be upset by seemingly contradictory signals. For example, a teacher with an informal style may unwittingly lead students to expect a kind of anything-goes, lenient grading system. Or a certain type of teacher, often found in ESL classrooms, who projects a very caring, nurturing persona, may also lead students to feel that she/he is on their side and will not judge them negatively. If these teachers' students have to be reprimanded or disciplined for plagiarism or some other form of cheating (as defined in the country where the class is, but which may or may not be defined as cheating in the students' cultures), the students may be shocked by what they perceive as an unexpected and unfair about-turn in the teacher-student relationship. Similarly, if these teachers' students receive low grades on their examinations, they may be equally shocked, and even feel that they have been somehow misled or betrayed by the teacher.

Other Variables

Regarding the web of exchanges, other variables that might affect classroom dynamics include the question of whether an instructor's comments to students are general or specific. From the student's point of view, when faculty comments are general, in other words, to a whole class, they may have less impact than when the comment—positive or negative—is directed to an individual. The more intense impact of a comment aimed at an individual can be beneficial but also harmful, particularly if it is an oral comment given in front of other students. Language proficiency is, naturally, another relevant variable. Students who are well intentioned may blunder or appear rude because they just don't have the vocabulary or grasp of the language to deal with nuances or to be diplomatic. In addition, for both students and teachers there are human variables, such as age, gender, experience, naiveté, and personality. For example, in some cultures it is expected that older people will be deferred to; in some cultures it is expected that males will be deferred to, or that females will be treated with extra care, as if they are fragile. In addition, students who have less experience in the academic world, in any culture, are more likely to misunderstand the formality level required or the appropriateness or inappropriateness of certain remarks to certain people in academic settings. Different understandings or expectations regarding any of these factors may lead to the perception that there is an imbalance of exchanges.

Attitude

Much of the feeling participants have about exchanges in the classroom comes down to attitude. This is something intangible but usually very clearly understood by both parties: Are we on the same side or not? Are you for me or against me? Are we helping each other or obstructing each other? If we are on the same side, we help each other. We make the whole system work. If we are not on the same side, both participants generally suffer.

The display of attitude can be subtle; it can be shown by where someone sits (in the front of the classroom or at the back, alone or next to friends one talks with constantly), posture, hesitancy or lack thereof, and volunteering or lack thereof. Of course one must, again, take into account cultural factors, such as the tendency of some students from certain areas of the world to speak less in class because their educational system does not promote such discussion. Instructors should monitor themselves to make sure they are not unconsciously getting angry at, or penalizing, such students for not participating. In fact, it is important that instructors value the mix of discourses and styles brought to the classroom by their students (Gutierrez, Rymes, & Larson, 1995). Other factors too, such as simple misunderstandings, or differences in personal styles, can lead to misinterpretations of attitudes, with possible negative responses resulting.

Another important psychological factor in the classroom, related to attitude, is the image people want to maintain of themselves, both to themselves and in front of others. Classroom participants' (both teachers and students) helping each other to maintain their images is an essential part of the web of exchanges, and such mutual maintenance or lack thereof may well be included in the mental tally being kept by participants. First, everyone needs to preserve self-regard. People need to feel good about themselves, their motives and their behavior; they need to be able to justify their behavior to themselves. Second, people need to preserve their images in front of others; they need to "save face." Goffman (1959) asserts that most people need to maintain idealized images of themselves and their own motives.

Cross-cultural research indicates that people from certain cultures particularly value face. For example, regarding doing business in Hong Kong, Morrison, Conaway, and Borden (1994) state that "The word 'yes' does not necessarily mean 'I agree with you.' A closer meaning would be 'I heard you.' 'It would be difficult' may be the closest a traditional Chinese businessperson ever gets to saying 'no'" (p. 157). Conversely, according to the same source, the way to lose face in Russia would be to compromise too readily. "Russians regard compromise as a sign of weakness" (p. 317). Although these may be generalizations, they indicate the range of ways in which different cultures attempt to allow people to save face; knowledge of such differences on the part of teachers is very important, and may well increase understanding and acceptance of various classroom behaviors.

Conclusion

Teachers may want to think explicitly about the kinds of exchanges that take place in the classroom, and they may want to use their own understanding of that concept to inform their teaching. They may want to teach students about cultural variables in matters of the web of exchanges and about possible misunderstandings and negative consequences for those who apply the expectations and practices of one culture to situations in another culture. They can also discuss specific aspects of communication in the new culture, such as different ways to save face. Such learning on the part of teachers could take place through reading about cultural differences and communication styles as well as through faculty development workshops on these topics. Teaching students about these topics could take place in orientation sessions at the beginning of new semesters, or could be built into class lesson plans. In addition, teachers should be as clear and explicit as possible in explaining their expectations in their own classrooms as well as the expectations students are likely to encounter in other classrooms. This explicit explanation should be delivered orally and in writing, perhaps in class syllabi, and probably should be repeated several times in different ways, using different examples for illustration and clarification. In addition to learning about and teaching these concepts, teachers may want to examine the interchanges that go on in their own classrooms, perhaps by videotaping some class periods, and/or by keeping notes on their observations, perhaps in a teaching journal.

Although this kind of conscious examination of the below-the-surface dynamics in learning and teaching is unsettling, we instructors in ESL need to acknowledge the impact of power, self-interest, culture, and attitude on the complex web of exchanges involved in daily classroom interaction. Honest self-scrutiny and analysis may make ESL instructors better educators and may make the classroom a better place for all participants.

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The CATESOL Journal REVIEW

Write to Be Read: Reading, Reflection, and Writing

William R. Smalzer.
New York: Cambridge University Press. 1996.

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All too often, academic writing is merely a restatement of what has been written before, condensing or expanding a previous author's voice, insight, and style. William Smalzer's *Write to Be Read* challenges this thinking by guiding high-intermediate to advanced ESL/EFL students through critical thinking processes that assist them in learning to express their own voices as writers of academic essays.

Smalzer has created a valuable tool for any teacher who requires written work from students. This carefully designed book provides a wealth of varied activities to help students identify the components of different genres of writing and engages them in the process of producing quality academic compositions.

Write to Be Read incorporates both product and process approaches to writing that assist students in fulfilling academic criteria expected of native speakers of English. Smalzer has designed extensive collaborative activities to assist writers in clarifying their thinking and focusing on meaning through discussion of readings and peer review processes. Students are led through an increasingly complex series of writing activities beginning with paragraphs and advancing to essays and essay exam answers.

Smalzer's book is divided into eight chapters, each anchored by a main reading of three to four pages on a topic sure to catch the attention of students. Readings such as "Birth Order: Your Place in the Family, Your Place in Life," or "A Better Quality of Life: Through Modernization or Tradition?" are thought-provoking and engaging; authors range from the not-so-famous to the famous, like Somerset Maugham and Norman

Vincent Peale. Additional shorter readings on closely related themes are also included to further spur student thought; these run the gamut from a student's personal essay to an excerpt from an academic paper.

Each of the eight chapters prepares writers for a core writing assignment by breaking down the writing process into five main parts. Part 1, called "Getting a Grip on the Topic," helps students develop a schema for the main reading. Exercises include a brief, independent written reflection on a prereading question, a discussion of informational notes or vocabulary related to the reading, a guide question to help students pinpoint the main idea of the reading selection, an exercise to identify supporting details, and, finally, a small group or class discussion on one of the prewriting activities.

Part 2, "Responding to the Main Reading," encourages students to develop a sense of audience and includes personal journal writing, shared writing with feedback from classmates, and an individual follow-up evaluation of reader response. Part 3, "Going More Deeply into the Topic," develops critical thinking skills by presenting students with a reading selection from a different genre that contains an opposing viewpoint yet is related to the main reading. Brief notes set the stage for this reading selection, and a guide question helps direct the reading. The reading selection itself is accompanied by notes for rereading, a section on negotiating the meaning of the passage, a group follow-up activity, and a guide for a small group or class discussion to encourage development of comparison, analysis, inference, and evaluation skills. Part 4, "Improving Writing Skills," assists students in paraphrasing without plagiarizing, and deals with phrases, clauses, fragments, and composing topic sentences.

The "Core Writing Assignment" begins in Part 5. Students are first asked to choose an appropriate writing style such as comparison/contrast, description/example, narrative, or cause/effect. A free-writing exercise follows, and then students are guided through individual and group methods of assessment, review, and revision of their first draft. Students may then write a second draft and repeat the review process or write an explanation to the teacher of their reasons for not revising. At the close of each chapter the teacher is provided with a convenient evaluation checklist to assess the students' writing.

The only drawback to Smalzer's work might be in its fine attention to detail. Students may find the amount of time spent producing each core writing objective to be excessive and become bored long before they complete their final drafts. However, Smalzer does seem aware of this possibility and states in his "Recommendations for Teaching and Assessment" that students and teachers alike may find it more productive to move on to new topics rather than repeatedly rework a paper.

Write to Be Read is a comprehensive guide to producing writing within an academic setting and is a valuable tool for any teacher who stresses writing in the classroom. Through much prereading and prewriting, assessment, and revision, students are clearly guided through a step-by-step process. Progressively more complex activities assist teachers and students alike in identifying the necessary components of a particular genre of writing. Using this text, students can complete a piece of academic writing equivalent to that of native English speakers.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

The Internet Guide For English Language Teachers.

Dave Sperling.
Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents. 1997

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A growing number of savvy ESL professionals around the world are roaming the Internet making contacts, responding to the latest information, and accessing a cornucopia of teaching resources. Some level of Internet proficiency is increasingly being demanded, but what fraction of our community is really connected? At entry level, for example, an informal poll of TESOL trainees revealed that out of a class of 20, one was adept and one other had successfully managed several forays into cyberspace. Of the rest, five had no access, while the others lacked both the confidence and the time necessary to persevere through the frustrations of self-instruction. I believe this group is representative of the community at large. The difficulty, for the novice as well as the too-busy teacher, is that getting started and finding one's way around the on-line maze once connected can be intimidating and prohibitively time consuming.

Until I myself got hold of Dave Sperling's *An Internet Guide For English Language Teachers*, my access to the Internet's wealth of resources for research and teaching depended heavily on my more Web-proficient family and friends; without them at my elbow the Internet was a bewildering and enormously frustrating place. This handy, 150-page paperback, a colleague's reliable, highly pertinent guide to the treasures of cyberspace, changed all that: It got me cruising around the Internet on my own and loving every minute. Gone is the dependency and the irritation of not knowing how to access information I know is out there. I was even able to plan a Web-based summer writing class.

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Each of the book's seven sections introduces the user to a different Internet domain— vocabulary and culture (10 pages), access tools (11 pages), communication strategies (18 pages), Web page construction (8 pages), references and resources (44 pages!), job search assistance (10 pages), and a useful Internet "dictionary"— a comprehensive subject/keyword index and bibliography (24 pages). The user is launched on the Web by page 3 and thereafter led systematically to visit address after address, one site after another, picking up the lingo and expertise en route. Every reference is accompanied by a brief descriptive comment. Interspersed throughout are quotes from Internet users, students and colleagues, *with* their e-mail addresses, and "Tips" for related or helpful sources (Universal Resource Locators [URLs] provided).

Sections 1 through 3 clearly explain the components of the Internet with their capabilities and introduce the basic tools for continuing exploration. Address links to directories, libraries, publishers, and institutions abound. ESL/EFL links invite users to join the community of language learners, teachers, and researchers according to their own personal needs and preferences. E-mailing instructions, mailing lists, news groups, discussion groups, chat groups, and other communication tools are illustrated with plentiful and immediately useful examples.

Sections 4 and 5 launch the user on a solo flight with a minimum of fuss. Navigational assistance is provided with an annotated selection of what the author considers the best available sites for the ESL/EFL professional. But first there are clear, precise instructions on how to create your own Web page to help you and/or your class off the sidelines and into interactive participation in this virtual world.

Next is the "Best of the Web," an enticing smorgasbord of 49 alphabetically arranged subject areas. This is the most exciting section of the guide. Here are the addresses of major libraries, bookstores, professional directories, and publishers. Here are ESL teacher pages and student projects, lesson material, special interest groups, and TESOL journals and associations from around the world, as well as sites for grammar, vocabulary and idioms, for writing, listening and speaking, literacy, and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). For the applied linguist and classroom researcher there are databases and reference resources, including some for literature, on-line newspapers, and popular magazines. Each Web site on these 44 pages has links to a multiplicity of other sites, so that by traveling from one to another you can span a community that is truly global. And best of all there is access to plenty of on-line help beginning with Sperling's own Web site where you can ask questions or make comments and get a personal response.

Sections 6 and 7 deal with issues of more general interest, for example, legal issues, troubleshooting, an Internet glossary, Internet slang and conventions, a bibliography of books about the Internet, as well as 10 pages of job information. And lastly there is a comprehensive index.

A close look at some of these Web sites reveals some peculiarities of Web culture that might have been made more explicit in this guide. First, the diversity of sites is somewhat misleading, as quite a few sites may be from the same creator. Secondly, not all sites are created equal; some sites are the home-grown creations of one individual, some are school and university based (including on-line courses), and others are commercially developed or even international government sites.

One of my few criticisms of this book is that sometimes the commentary accompanying the Web citations sounds distractingly like real estate advertising; however, for the most part the text is usefully descriptive. Another is the omission of an extremely useful on-line bookstore that includes book reviews <http://www.amazon.com>. As the World Wide Web is expanding so rapidly, a couple of blank end-pages for notes and additions would also be welcome.

With these minor caveats, I heartily recommend *The Internet Guide* to teachers, students, and teachers-in-training. It is easy and quick to read, and its instructions are to the point and often amusing. It is impressively comprehensive, yet leads the reader by easy stages from the threshold level of proficiency to mastery. It is infinitely useful because of the sweeping panorama of Web destinations it reveals and by virtue of the ever-expanding nature of the Web itself. With this friendly guide, the user is empowered to explore the Internet's potential for building community, sharing ideas, and creating new avenues for language learning.

The Second Edition of Dave Sperling's *The Internet Guide* was published in 1998 by Prentice Hall Regents. It includes a free CD-ROM.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

On the Write Track: Beginning Literacy for Secondary Students

Deborah Becker Cotto.
San Francisco: Alta Book Center. 1997.

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“Which book is the best for my students?” Every ESL instructor has asked this question. If the students are beginners, it is especially difficult to break down their fear of English. I have seen beginning ESL students intimidated simply by a glimpse of a book’s cover. What I have looked for in my own classes are books that dispel students’ fears by offering interesting themes and motivating activities that attract them to learning English. *On the Write Track (OWT)* by Deborah Becker Cotto meets these criteria; this is a very intriguing and encouraging book for secondary students at the beginning literacy level.

OWT is composed of nine chapters and two prechapters, “Get Ready” and “Get Set.” The prechapters accustom beginning students to recognizing and writing English letters by starting with the very basic and easy activity of tracing. This activity encourages ESL students to believe in their abilities in English, thereby reducing possible anxieties and engaging them in a process that is not simply verbal. Students are thus encouraged to believe that learning English can be fun and that English skills are something that they can acquire.

The nine main chapters include interactive English language skills. All of the chapters are comprehensive, developing the four principal skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Every chapter has a theme; the focus moves from oneself, through school, to calendar and weather, and then to families and communities. A final summary chapter gathers together simple categorized building blocks of English (units of measurement, everyday words for colors, punctuation marks, days of the week, months of the year, shapes, multiplication tables, graphs, numbers, letters, units of

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money, and so forth) that have been treated in the previous chapters, providing a ready reference for the student.

The most outstanding strength of the book is its diversity of approach—there is no one fixed format or order. A variety of activities is presented (encompassing, for example, graphs, problem solving, writing, and reading), all of which are adapted to the theme of each chapter. This diversity challenges students to concentrate on the content of the book and become curious about what will follow next because they cannot readily guess what activity is to come.

A second strength is that all chapter themes are closely related to daily life. Students can apply information and activities encountered in this book to aspects of their own lives. Personal information about oneself such as "Who Are You?" (chapter 1) and "Where Are You From?" (chapter 2) are of interest to virtually everybody, and "Classroom," "School," Families," and "Communities" (chapters 3, 4, 7, and 8) are familiar and not intimidating. The survival themes of "Calendar" and "Weather" (chapters 5 and 6) are basic and necessary as well.

Visuals are another strong feature of this book. The colorful cover plays a role in decreasing students' concern that English is a difficult language, making them think of the book as entertaining. Every chapter is visually organized, which helps students, especially the visual learners, understand the contents more quickly. Although the method of teaching is varied across chapters, providing variety for both student and teacher, each chapter begins with an announcement of what the student will learn in the chapter. This announcement prevents the student from feeling caught off guard and makes clear the usefulness of what is to follow.

There are two shortcomings, however, in the way *OWT* teaches numbers: One is that many numbers are presented at the same time. The second is that the book does not deal with the spelling of numbers, probably to avoid confusion. Unfortunately students do not learn to read and write English numbers but instead learn just the Arabic symbols for numbers. As a matter of fact, it is not rare that students must confront numbers written in English rather than in Arabic symbols. Further, the author ignores the pronunciation of numbers. In fact, students are very likely to be confused by the pronunciation of some numbers, such as *fourteen* and *forty*, *fifteen* and *fifty*, and so on.

These minor limitations do not diminish the many virtues of this beginning book. *OWT* is varied without being disjointed, systematic without being intimidating. ESL beginners' predominant fears are dispelled while they become engaged in the process of acquiring English. Students will come away from *OWT* with vital tools for using and understanding everyday English. Certainly, students will be "on the right track" all the time with *On the Write Track.*

Acknowledgment

The author wishes to thank Ann Johns for reading and commenting on this review.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

For Your Information: Intermediate Reading Skills

Karen Blanchard and Christine Root.
White Plains, NY: Addison-Wesley. 1996.

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How can I get my students to read for general meaning instead of trying to understand every word? As a teacher in an intensive ESL program, I have asked myself this question many times. Even advanced students get stuck on individual words, so we can assume that many intermediate students also encounter this problem. *For Your Information: Intermediate Reading Skills (FYI)* provides the kind of help that ESL readers need. It is a combination of interesting texts and reading strategy development exercises.

Karen Blanchard and Christine Root have designed this book for intermediate secondary and adult ESL students. Of course, *intermediate* encompasses a wide range of learner abilities from just above beginning to just below advanced. This text has been designed to meet the needs of everyone in this range of abilities by presenting progressively more complex and demanding readings and tasks. Readers are asked to read various texts for different purposes while employing various reading strategies. The authors' ultimate goal is to develop independent readers by engaging students in the "process of reading thoroughly."

Having used this text for the high-intermediate level, I have found that the readings are stimulating and provoke lively classroom discussions. For example, unit 1 opens by asking students to think about when and why people kiss in their cultures. A short article (from *Cricket* magazine) addresses kissing and culture and leads into a related text about gestures and cultures (from the *International Gesture Dictionary)*. Unit 3 begins by asking students to consider reasons why people are fascinated by mysteries

ERIC

from the past; readings discuss Easter Island, the Peruvian Nazca Lines, and NASA and extraterrestrial life. Although students and teachers may be familiar with some of these topics, the reading selections not only engage students but also provide multiple cultural perspectives that lead to interesting cross-cultural comparisons

Within the framework of high-interest topics, the authors have designed activities that require the use of various reading strategies. Unit 1 asks students to identify the main idea and specific information; students must then apply details from the text to oral interviews and proverbs. In unit 2, the authors ask students to scan in two ways: first, by locating specific details; second, by identifying paragraphs that contain certain topics. Unit 3 continues to build on scanning skills and clearly introduces inferences. Unit 5 formally addresses skimming and making predictions. Unit 6 has more skimming exercises but does not identify them with this term; one of the exercises is simply entitled "First Reading." In contrast, unit 7 specifically reinforces skimming and scanning by asking readers to complete a chart with specific details from an article about superstition. Unit 8 concludes the book with a focus on scanning for main ideas.

Although *FYI* effectively helps students develop different reading strategies, the authors are not always consistent in their labeling of these strategies. Students are asked to read quickly or for specific details, but they are not always reminded that these are strategies that they learned in previous units. Although learning the terms *skimming* and *scanning* is not the most important task, students must be aware that they are being asked to employ previously introduced reading skills. Clearly, the instructor can reiterate these terms, yet the book should have been more clear.

Despite this drawback, *FYI* is a very useful text. Students can start with any unit because reading strategies are recycled and reinforced throughout the text. There is a wide variety of discussion activities to choose from. Finally, each chapter includes a reading journal that asks students to reflect on the topics that have been addressed. Despite the limited use of writing as a tool for reading in this text, journal writing is a nice way to integrate reading experiences with writing on the discourse level, in addition to concluding a topic.

FYI is a well organized and interesting text. The integration of high-interest topics with worthwhile reading tasks is something that experienced teachers need and want to use. Ultimately, students can certainly apply these strategies to English proficiency exams and their real lives.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom

Richard R. Day and Julian Bamford.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1998.

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Once in a great while a reference textbook is published that makes old ESL hands wish they had had a copy to study and learn from during their teaching careers. Day and Bamford's *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom* is just such a book.

Extensive reading (hereafter ER) has been around a *long* time. Day and Bamford report that Louis Kelly, in *Twenty-five Centuries of Language Teaching*, credits Harold Palmer with first using the term *extensive reading* in foreign language pedagogy in his 1917 book *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages* (p. 5). Today, reading looms large as perhaps the most important linguistic skill for much of the L2 (second language) population, with listening comprehension a close second. (That screaming you hear comes from writing teachers, but according to Krashen [1984], the most significant element in the learning of writing is reading.)

A model of how a teacher's text should be written, *Extensive Reading* is a beautiful blend that introduces the ER literature, presents well-crafted arguments for implementing and using ER, and provides an extensive list of resources. It discusses ways for timid or reluctant teachers (who recognize ER's value but are hesitant to recommend including it in their school system) to introduce and implement ER in their classes and make it a permanent part of their curriculum. Not only does this book synthesize ER pedagogy, but it also provides sufficiently fresh material to appeal to experienced teachers already using ER.

This 238-page book contains 173 pages of text divided into three parts: "The Dimensions of Extensive Reading," "Materials for Extensive Reading: Issues in Development," and "The Practice of Extensive

Reading." The remainder of the book contains a bibliography on reading (pages 219-231), an index, and an extremely useful bibliography of some 600 titles (selected from the Edinburgh Project on Extensive Reading bibliography of language learner literature in English). Charted information in this bibliography provides a wealth of information about each title in ready-reference form, listing the age group suitability, English language level, locale where the book is set, theme (family, adventure, environment, school, humor, fable, and so on), and publisher.

Part I analyzes current knowledge about ER. In five chapters it teaches what teachers should know in order to implement successful ER programs. Chapter 1 ("An Approach Less Taken: Extensive Reading Introduced") presents an overview of ER and its importance in L2 classrooms. Chapter 2 ("A Cognitive View of Reading") explores reading from a cognitive perspective. Chapter 3 ("Affect: The Secret Garden of Reading") is arguably the most important chapter; it examines the affective aspects of attitude and motivation as they pertain to L2 reading. Chapter 4 ("The Power of Extensive Reading: Insights from the Research") discusses the results of a number of ER programs. Chapter 5 ("Extensive Reading and the Second Language Curriculum") provides suggestions for integrating extensive reading into second language reading programs.

Part II addresses the variety of materials that can be employed to implement ER programs. For teachers constantly seeking new materials, this section is rich with resources and ideas on what can be used (including resources teachers may have overlooked). Part II also contains a reasoned discussion on the debate surrounding the use of authentic materials versus simplified materials.

In Part III, chapter 1 ("Setting Up a Program: Curricular Decisions") discusses the amount students should read, evaluation, in-class versus homework reading, levels of difficulty, and dictionary use. Chapter 2 ("Materials: The Lure and the Ladder") presents information on children's books, learner's own stories, newspapers, magazines, children's magazines, popular and simple literature, young adult literature, comics, and translation. Chapter 3 ("The Extensive Reading Library") covers program size, budgetary considerations, reading level determination, student interests, purchase of materials, organization and cataloging of materials, establishing a check out system, and display of materials. Chapter 4 ("Student Orientation") focuses on program goals and procedures, reading requirements, and reading materials. Chapter 5 ("Building a Community of Readers") deals with ongoing class guidance, individual counseling, in-class activities, the teacher as role model, and help for weak readers. Chapter 6 ("The Reading Community in Action") discusses writing (e.g., answers to comprehension questions, summaries, and reaction reports) and speaking (e.g., making oral reports). In addition, this chapter suggests ways to organize rave review sessions, reading fairs, and wall displays. Chapter 7 ("Program Evaluation") addresses purpose, audience, method, as well as determining if a program has achieved its goals, looking at what other results a program might have had, identifying program aspects needing improvement, and results. Chapter 8 ("Taking the Approach Less Traveled") offers a review of the conditions necessary for extensive reading to flourish and a summary of the book's major themes.

Under the heading "At What Level of Difficulty Should Students Read?" chapter 8 also considers a reader's "comfort" zone: Some students try to read above their comfort level, "not for enjoyment but because they think they ought to be reading more difficult material, or because they think it is the best way to make progress..." (p. 92). Day and Bamford challenge this notion, saying, "This is a symptom of what might be called the macho maxim of second language reading instruction—no reading pain, no reading gain" (p. 92); they provide arguments teachers can use to dispel the idea that struggle is a necessary component of eventual proficiency in L2 reading.

If I were an ESL graduate heading overseas to my first teaching assignment, this book would be in my carry-on baggage for study during the flight. Moreover, the book is just as relevant for use in English-speaking countries. Neophytes as well as experienced teachers will find in this book a rich collection of ideas, methods, and techniques that will enable them to hit the ground running in teaching reading, no matter the circumstances. The book is powerful ammunition of an extremely practical nature, based on sound theoretical and time-tested practices that teachers can use in helping their students achieve proficiency in L2 reading. Finally, I strongly recommend that teachers of other languages read this book because everything Day and Bamford serve up in this book applies equally to the teaching of ER in all languages.

Now for the bad news. This book has an ugly cover. I know, I know. One is not supposed to judge a book by its cover, but why the publisher of such an important book, one that I believe will become a classic, couldn't come up with a more attractive cover is beyond my ken. So ignore the cover, buy the book, and treat yourself to a text that will help you help your students become better and very likely lifelong readers in their second language.

Reference

Krashen, S. (1984). *Writing: Research, theory, and application.* New York: Pergamon Press.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Listening to the World: Cultural Issues in Academic Writing

Helen Fox.
Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. 1994.

STEPHANIE VANDRICK
University of San Francisco

In *Listening to the World*, Helen Fox gives the best portrayal I have seen of the massive and often wrenching changes U.S. universities ask international students to make when they become writers of academic English. In effect, U.S. universities ask them to become, at least temporarily, different people with ways of thinking different from those that they have employed their whole lives.

Fox interviewed a variety of international (mostly graduate) students over a period of several years, at two institutions, in a variety of contexts (from office tutoring sessions to informal chats in homes and at parties) as well as several faculty members with international students in their classes. The book is directed at *all* university faculty rather than ESL instructors in particular, but certainly ESL instructors will find it of great interest.

Fox reports on these interviews in detail, giving her narrative a forward movement and vividness that are quite engaging. She allows revelations regarding the various cultures and writing styles to unfold gradually, sometimes dramatically. It is apparent that she worked to build rapport with the students and did not force them to confront issues or to reveal themselves before they were ready. Her observations and conclusions are interwoven with her descriptions of the interviews. However, she tends not to state her conclusions directly, so the reader must be patient and let the argument flow at its own pace.

Fox's main point is that the cultures from which international students come to the U.S. profoundly affect their view of what academic writing is and should be: Their views are often very different from, even diametrically opposed to, our western view. To complicate matters, the differences are so basic and so ingrained that neither side is even able to imagine that there could be another legitimate way of seeing. Each is thus confounded and frustrated by the expectations of the other. U.S. professors cannot understand why intelligent and accomplished students cannot seem to express themselves "clearly" and "directly." International students cannot understand why U.S. professors want them to write in a way that is so straightforward that it seems to them childish and even disrespectful. There is usually a series of crossed signals that leaves everyone increasingly bewildered and even angry.

A graduate student from Chile tells Fox "how it feels to try to do something in writing that is contrary to what everything inside you is telling you to do . . . 'It felt as though I was being aggressive to myself. I was really mad sometimes, because I felt as if something was going against me'" (p. 18). Another graduate student, who was a journalist in his home country, Nepal, speaks of being torn between the two cultural modes of writing. He speaks of hearing two voices inside his head, one telling him that he is stupid and can't write, and the other reminding him of his own competence and assuring him that if he keeps trying, he will be successful (p. 70).

Some students fear that if they transform themselves and their writing into the American mode, they will lose their own cultures and by extension their true selves. Christine, for example, thinks about and writes about everyday matters in English but reserves important thoughts for her native Cantonese. She half-consciously resists improving her English, even though she knows she will need to write well in English to achieve her goal of attending medical school in the U.S. (p. 81). Fox points out that such resistance is common and takes many forms, but

> whether it is angry, or polite, or depressed, or panicked, or blithe and uncaring, or devious, or continually confused, resistance to academic writing has one primary function for a writer with different cultural assumptions—to avoid the inevitable changes in personality, outlook and world view that go hand in hand with the new writing style. (p. 82)

Fox 's descriptions show how very rooted humans are in our cultural assumptions and practices, and how traumatic it is to be forced to question and try to change those assumptions and practices. Such a process has profound implications. For instance, what happens when students return to their own countries? How much difficulty will they have in returning to their former mode of thinking and writing? Will they ever be able to return to it fully?

The students Fox speaks to are justifiably concerned about these questions. And we who teach them should be concerned too. Teaching students to write the way that fits the expectations of U.S. institutions of higher education is clearly a pragmatic decision, but is it right to teach students to give up their own voices and cultures, even temporarily? In doing so, are we giving students the message that our way is better? Thoughtful instructors need to consider these questions when they teach international students, particularly every time they evaluate the writing of these students.

Fox uncovers and discusses some specific differences in writing processes and styles. For example, students from many parts of the world are taught to express themselves indirectly, complimenting their audiences by assuming they can fill in the contexts—this is clearly very different from the direct, explicit Western style of academic writing. One of many characteristics of this indirection is often a long introduction, easing into the actual body of the work. A second difference is that in many cultures unity and harmony are valued over confrontation and aggressive argument and assertions. Thirdly, in many cultures, the wisdom of society is valued over the knowledge of the individual; it is seen as almost presumptuous for an individual to assert original thoughts or knowledge. In fact, memorization of the work of great thinkers is common. And professors and other academic experts are supposed to be authorities, dispensers of knowledge who are not to be questioned by students. This difference may lead to much more quotation and paraphrasing in international students' papers than U.S. professors find acceptable. This approach is clearly in opposition to the western academic emphasis on individuals' developing, stating, and supporting their own theses and ideas; indeed, originality is a high priority in U.S. universities, particularly at the graduate level. For women students, the situation is complicated by additional gender-related cultural issues. For example, women from many countries are expected to be silent and to be modest. "Women graduate students from Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Chile, and Korea all told me similar stories of being silenced, in their own cultures, by the expectation that it was proper for a woman to keep her ideas to herself" (p. 57).

Because Fox's research is based on fairly unstructured interviews, in various formats and with various students, and because it is unclear how many students were involved in the study, the results are quite subjective, almost impressionistic. This approach is not necessarily a limitation and perhaps allows readers a more in-depth understanding than a more objective study would. The recent movement, especially among feminist researchers, to be less bound by the god of objectivity seems to have influenced Fox's approach: she has produced a more connected participatory ethnography.

However, it would have been helpful to include more specific information about the number of participants and other data, and to clarify, for example, if "a Japanese graduate student" mentioned on one page is the same "Japanese student" referred to in a different chapter. Also, "international students" are generally treated as one category, although the author cautions that her conclusions do not represent *all* international students.

A reader looking to this book for a clear list of problems or differences will not find them. And one looking for a list of solutions will not be satisfied; Fox does not give any, and perhaps there are none to give, beyond advocating understanding and communication. But understanding and communication can make an enormous difference. This book will be illuminating not only for ESL and writing instructors but also for instructors who encounter international students in their economics or biology or business classes. I recommend it to anyone who teaches at universities with students from around the world.

The CATESOL Journal

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