Unlike most foreign language learners, I studied these languages in informal settings and in formal classrooms. For example, I studied Malay by watching TV with bilingual translations, and I studied Japanese briefly in an intensive Japanese program in Tokyo. All of these language-learning experiences paid off in my PhD courses because I could relate so well to the reading material. I also learned about statistics in depth, which finally gave me the ability to comprehend articles in *TESOL Quarterly* and *Applied Linguistics*. At last, I knew not only how to read these articles but also how to conduct appropriate research.

A teacher's life is all about perpetual learning. We learn about our subject, we learn about our students, and we learn about our teaching ability and style. In my plenary speech, I will talk about how we became the teachers that we are today. No, I don't mean *why* we became teachers, since I'm sure that most of us have an idea of why we chose to become teachers. Instead, I will be talking about how each of us has developed into the kind of teacher we are today. Some of us joke with our students, but others do not. Some of us give lots of quizzes, but others do not. Some of us mark all of our students' papers, but others do not. How did all of these different characteristics come about? In my talk, I will attempt to help all of us answer this important question by remembering and giving credit to the many important teachers who have taught us in our lifetime.

Keith Folse is professor of TESOL at the University of Central Florida, where he teaches in the MATESOL, PhD TESOL, and undergraduate TEFL Certificate programs. He has taught ESL/EFL for more than 35 years in the US, Saudi Arabia, Malaysia, Kuwait, and Japan (Niigata and Gunma Prefectures). His main research areas are best teaching practices in teaching composition, materials development, grammar methods, and vocabulary acquisition. He is the author of 60 ESL books, including the *Great Writing* series by National Geographic Learning, which is sponsoring his trip to JALT2013.

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The New General Service List: Celebrating 60 years of vocabulary learning

Charles Browne
Meiji Gakuin University

This article introduces a new list of important high frequency vocabulary words for second language learners of English. Using many of the same principles employed by Michael West in the development of the original General Service List (GSL) published in 1953, the New General Service List (NGSL) was created with full access to the 1.6 billion-word Cambridge English Corpus (CEC). Based on a more contemporary corpus of English, the NGSL was generated from a carefully selected 273 million-word subsection of the CEC (more that 100 times larger than the pre-computer era 2.5 million-word corpus used to generate the initial word lists for the GSL), the NGSL offers higher coverage than the original GSL (90% vs. 84%) with fewer words (about 2800 lemmas vs. 3600). This brief introduction to the NGSL outlines the basic steps in its creation as well as providing a link to a dedicated website where the public-domain list can be both downloaded and discussed.

本論では第2言語としての英語学習者のために、重要で使用頻度が高い語彙の新しいリストを紹介する。1953年に出版された初代General Service List (GSL)開発の際にMichael Westによって採用された同じ原理の多くを使用しながら、16億語にも及ぶCambridge English Corpus (CEC)を参考にNGSLが作られた。より現代向きの英語のコーパスに基づき、厳選された2億7千3百万のCECの単語リストからNGSLが作られた。(コンピュータ以前の時代に最初のGSL作成に用いられた2千5百万語のコーパスの100倍以上である。) 初代GSLと比べ、より少ない見出し語 (旧3,600語に対し2,800語) で、より高いカバー率 (旧84%に対し90%) を提供している。この簡単なNGSL入門では、NGSL作成における基本行程の概要を述べると共に、公有リストのダウンロードおよび議論が可能な専用ウェブサイトへのリンクを紹介する。

In 1953, Michael West published a remarkable list of about 2000 important vocabulary words known as the General Service List (GSL). Based on more than two decades of pre-computer corpus research, input from other renowned early 20th century researchers such as Harold Palmer, and several vocabulary conferences sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation in the early 1930s, the GSL was designed to be more than a simple list of high frequency words. Its primary purpose was to combine both objective and subjective criteria to come up with a list of words that would be of *general service* to learners of English as a foreign language. However, as useful and helpful as this list has been to us over the decades, it has also been criticized for being based on a corpus that is considered to be both dated as well as too small by modern standards (the initial work on the GSL was based on a 2.5 million-word corpus that was collected under a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation in 1938), and for not clearly defining what constitutes a *word*.

On the 60th anniversary of West's publication of the GSL, my colleagues Brent Culligan and Joseph Phillips of Aoyama Gakuin Women's Junior College and I would like to announce the creation of a New General Service List (NGSL) that is based on a carefully selected 273 million-word subsection of the 1.6 billion-word Cambridge English Corpus (CEC). Following many of the same steps that West and his colleagues did, as well as the suggestions of Paul Nation, the project advisor and one the leading figures in modern second language vocabulary acquisition, we have tried to combine the strong, objective, scientific principles of corpus and vocabulary list creation with useful pedagogic insights to create a list of approximately 2800 high-frequency words which meet the following goals:

1. to update and greatly expand the size of the corpus used (273 million words) compared to the limited corpus behind the original GSL (about 2.5 million words), with the hope of increasing the generalizability and validity of the list
2. to create a NGSL of the most important high-frequency words useful for second language learners of English which gives the highest possible coverage of English texts with the fewest words possible
3. to make a NGSL that is based on a clearer definition of what constitutes a word
4. to be a starting point for discussion among interested scholars and teachers around the world, with the goal of updating and revising the NGSL based on this input, in much the same way that West did with the original Interim version of the GSL

The NGSL: A word list based on a large, modern corpus

Utilizing a wide range of computer-based corpus creation and analysis tools not available to West and his colleagues, we began the development of the NGSL with an analysis of the CEC (formerly known as the Cambridge International Corpus). The CEC is a 1.6 billion-word corpus of the English language, which contains both written and spoken corpus data of British and American English. The CEC also contains the Cambridge Learner Corpus, a 40 million-word corpus made up from English exam responses written by English language learners.

The initial corpus used for the NGSL was created using a subset of the 1.6 billion-word CEC that was queried and analyzed using the SketchEngine Corpus query system <sketchengine.co.uk>. The size of each sub-corpus that was initially included is outlined in Table 1:

Table 1. CEC corpora used for preliminary analysis of NGSL

Corpus	Tokens
Newspaper	748,391,436
Academic	260,904,352
Learner	38,219,480
Fiction	37,792,168
Journals	37,478,577
Magazines	37,329,846
Non-Fiction	35,443,408
Radio	28,882,717
Spoken	27,934,806
Documents	19,017,236
TV	11,515,296
Total	1,282,909,322

However, because the overwhelming size of the newspaper sub-corpus (748,391,436 tokens) dominated the frequencies (and also showed a marked bias towards financial terms), and the academic sub-corpus (260,904,352 tokens) was

a specific genre not directly related to general English, both corpora were removed from the compilation. Table 2 shows the sub-corpora that were actually used to generate the final analysis of frequencies. While smaller than the corpus described in Table 1, the corpus is far more balanced as a result.

Table 2. CEC corpora included in final analysis for NGSL

Corpus	Tokens
Learner	38,219,480
Fiction	37,792,168
Journals	37,478,577
Magazines	37,329,846
Non-Fiction	35,443,408
Radio	28,882,717
Spoken	27,934,806
Documents	19,017,236
TV	11,515,296
Total	273,613,534

Once the 273 million word corpus was analyzed, a frequency list was generated as a starting point for a series of additional levels of analysis, including

- cleaning up of the list (removing proper nouns, abbreviations, slang and other noise, excluding certain word sets such as days of the week, months of the year and numbers),
- comparison of the list with other important lists such as the original GSL, the BNC and COCA to make sure important words were included/excluded as necessary, and
- having a series of meetings and discussions with Paul Nation about how to improve the list.

What constitutes a *word* in the NGSL?

There are many ways to define a word for the purpose of counting frequencies. The simplest is to look at *types*, where each form is counted as a different word regardless of the part of speech. For example, *lists* would include both the third person form of the verb *list* and the plural form of the noun *list*.

The second method is to count *lexemes* where homographs are counted separately, but all the inflected forms of a word are added together. For example, the nouns *list* and *lists* would be counted together but not with the verbs *list*, *lists*, *listed*, and *listing* which would be counted separately. Inflections for nouns include the plural and the possessive. Verb inflections include the third person, the past, and the participles. Inflections for short adjectives include the comparative and the superlative.

The third method of counting words is by *word families*, and was proposed by Bauer and Nation (1993). Word families include the inflected forms and certain derived forms laid out by the generalizability and productivity of the affixes.

The NGSL uses a modified lexeme approach, where we count the headword in all its various parts of speech and include all inflected forms. Unlike the traditional definition of a lexeme, it includes all the inflected forms from the different parts of speech. For example, *list* would include *lists*, *listed*, *listing*, and *listings*. It does not include any of the derived forms using non-inflection suffixes. Variations such as the difference between US and UK spelling are also grouped within the same lexeme.

The NGSL: More coverage for your money!

One of the important goals of this project was to develop a NGSL that would be more efficient and useful to language learners and teachers by providing more coverage with fewer words than the original GSL. One of the problems with making a comparison between the two lists—indeed between any well-known vocabulary lists—is that the way of counting the number of words in each list needs to be done according to the same criterion. As innovative as the GSL was at the time of its creation, West's definition of what constituted a word was, by his own admission, non-systematic and arbitrary: "No attempt has been made to be rigidly consistent in the method used for displaying the words: each word has been treated as a separate problem, and the sole aim has been clearness" (West, 1953, page viii).

This means that for a meaningful comparison between the GSL and NGSL to be done, the words on each list need to be counted in the same way. As was mentioned in the previous section, a comparison of the number of word families in the GSL and NGSL reveals that there are 1964 word families in the GSL and 2368 in the NGSL (using level 6 of Bauer and Nation's

1993 word family taxonomy). Coverage within the 273 million-word CEC is summarized in Table 3, showing that the 2368 word families in the NGSL provide 90.34% coverage while the 1964 word families in the original GSL provide only 84.24%. That the NGSL with approximately 400 more word families provides more coverage than the original GSL may not seem a surprising result, but when these lists are lemmatized, the usefulness of the NGSL more apparent,as, with more than 800 fewer lemmas, the NSGL provides 6.1% more coverage than is provided by West's original GSL.

Table 3. Coverage within the CEC

Vocabulary List	Number of Word Families	Number of Lemmas	Coverage in CEC Corpus
GSL	1964	3623	84.24%
NGSL	2368	2818	90.34%

Where to find the NGSL

The list of 2818 words is now available for download from a new website we've dedicated to the development of this list. Comment and debate are also welcome: <newgeneralservicelist.org>.

It is our hope that this list will be of use to you and your students. Please join the discussion on the NGSL as I begin to present on it at academic conferences throughout the year such as KOTESOL and the World Congress on Extensive Reading in Korea, JALT-CALL and JALT2013 in Japan, the Vocab@Voc Conference in New Zealand, and the AILA Conference in Australia in mid 2014.

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Charles Browne is professor of applied linguistics and head of EFL teacher-training at Meiji Gakuin University. He is a specialist in second language vocabulary acquisition and reading skills development and deeply active in the area of online-learning, helping to create research-based language learning software such as EnglishCentral, goFluent, WordEngine, the GSL and AWL Builder iPhone apps, as well as a wide suite of free extensive-reading tools and content at his <er-central.com> site. He is co-author of the New General Service List, which is based on a 273 million-word sample of the Cambridge English Corpus, the sponsor of his presentation.

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Ecology of effort: Contexts underlying motivation

Christine Pearson Casanave
CUE SIG

This workshop explores the notion of "ecology of effort" and its connection to more traditional concepts of motivation and attitude. By ecology of effort I mean the many interrelated environmental, physical-neurobiological, and emotional influences on a person's desire to invest effort, or not, in challenging long-term tasks, such as studying a second language or preparing academic papers. To start, I'll offer several anecdotes, then discuss the concept of ecology in educational linguistics (Kramsch, 2002; van Lier,2004), the brain-mind-body-emotion

connection (Damasio, 1999), and my extension of the concept of ecology to mind, body, and emotion. Next, workshop participants will discuss examples of ecological influences on their own and their students' efforts in language study (or other intellectual projects). Finally, we will look at some typical items from motivation and attitude questionnaires to ask what might be missing and how we might further study the ecology of effort in language research.

このワークショップでは、"ecology of effort" の概念と、 従来からの動機づけや態度の概念との関係を検討する。私が意味するecology of effortとは、第2言語学習や学術論文の準備のような長期的タスクに挑む努力をする（あるいは、しない）という各自の願望に対して多くの相互関係を持つ、環境的、身体的・神経生物学的、感情的影響のことである。まず、いくつかの逸話を示した後、教育言語学におけるecologyの概念について、また、脳・心・身体・感情の関連性について論じ、ecologyの概念を心・身体・感情へと拡張する。次に、ワークショップ参加者に、自分自身や学生たちの言語学習（あるいは他の知的プロジェクト）における努力への、ecology的な影響の例を話し合ってもらう。最後に、言語研究におけるecology of effortをこれから研究していく上で、 何が欠けているか、そして何を付け加えられるかを問うために、動機づけと態度に関するアンケートから、いくつかの代表的な項目について検討する。

Why is it that sometimes neither we nor our students can make ourselves study an L2 effectively or work consistently on other challenging long-term projects? In this workshop I explore the notion of "ecology of effort" (Casanave, 2012), and its connection to, and departure from, more traditional concepts of motivation and attitude. Ecology of effort describes the many interrelated contextual and emotional factors which relates to our desire to invest effort in any activity in life that is difficult and challenging, such as studying a language or working on high-stakes academic writing projects (e.g., theses, publications). I see desire or willingness to invest effort as different from motivation and attitude as traditionally discussed: Our motivation and attitude might be fairly positive, but we still might not be able to make ourselves devote effort to a challenging activity.

Understanding idiosyncrasies of desire to invest effort

My curiosity about this topic was triggered when, in investigating my own fluctuating desires to invest effort in self-study of Japanese while living in Japan, I realized that some of my fluctuations had little to do with how I felt about Japanese language and culture or with my overall desired goals of modest survival, conversational competence, and curiosity about how grammar and syntax worked. I was sometimes beset by shifting moods and emotions, environmental discomforts such as air and noise pollution, conflicts at work, and sleep problems, and could do little productive study or work at those times. At the time, it felt like I had lost motivation for Japanese study (Casanave, 2012). I wondered, too, about some of my troubled and moody university students in Japan—students who were often absent or who seemed depressed. Later, I (re)read some of the literature on attitude and motivation, only to find that there were no routine discussions of fatigue, health, and mood, and that I could not respond honestly to many of the language-culture-activity-related items on questionnaires with more than "it depends."

I am not the first to observe that idiosyncratic factors, including those connected to emotions, cannot be captured in questionnaires (Schumann, 1997). Ushioda (2009) pointed out that questionnaires provide abstractions and generalizations about groups of people which, although useful for certain purposes, cannot uncover how fluctuating contextual factors interact with more stable attitudes and motivations in the lives of individuals. Van Lier, who was a champion of an ecological perspective in educational linguistics, highlighted the importance of context, stating that context cannot be reduced, pushed aside, or put into the background: It is central (2002, p. 144). But he and others seem to conceptualize context as external to the individual. In contrast, my fluctuating desires to invest effort in language study and academic writing also seemed related to my emotions and state of well-being, as influenced by both internal and external forces. Context, I came to realize, includes one's internal mental and bodily "environments," which are inseparable from one's immediate surroundings.

Important concepts

The term "ecology" is a relational term, beginning with German biologist Ernst Haeckel's use of it "to refer to the totality of relationships of an organism with all other organisms with which it comes into contact" (van Lier, 2000, p. 251). The concept of ecology in this relational sense has been used in psychology (Heft, 2001), linguistics (van Dam & Leather, 2003), and applied fields like second language acquisition (SLA), language socialization, and language teaching (Kramsch, 2002, 2009; Tudor, 2003; van Lier, 2004). Views of SLA as situated and embodied (Atkinson, 2010) and deeply sociocultural (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) can likewise be considered ecological from this relational perspective, as can a dynamic complex systems and emergent approach to SLA (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron,

2008). Of special interest to me at the moment is the work in neurobiology by Antonio Damasio (1994, 1999, 2012), who has built his vision of mind and consciousness on a concept that might be called ecological as well. From his decades of work as a neurologist, Damasio makes a biological and neurological—not just philosophical—argument for the inseparability of mind and body, as Schumann (1997; Schumann & Wood, 2004) did in applied linguistics. He has demonstrated experimentally the complex and inseparable neural and chemical interrelationships that link the brain, the body, the mind, and emotion, with all of these relationships taking place reciprocally in a physical external and neural-chemical internal environment.

In all these disciplines, ecology refers to the reciprocal interactions and relationships between organisms and what is around them (e.g., other organisms, external environments, and layers of contexts). For Damasio, the relationships include the biological microcontexts of neural and hormonal systems, that is the microcontexts of the body's and brain's own processes, as they interact with both external environmental influences and images from consciousness.

These sources have spurred my curiosity about the many influences, external and internal, on a person's investment of effort in challenging tasks such as study of second languages or the construction of academic papers. Hence, I refer to the ecology of effort as those microcontextual interrelationships among bodily and mental functions and the immediate environment that influence a person's decision to invest effort in difficult tasks. Were this vision to be represented graphically, it would be a nested, 3-D spherical model, with the biological self in the center, but blendings and blurrings, not boundaries, between layers (cf. Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In my current view of ecology of effort, this vision of nested ecosystems includes not only the interrelated aspects of our surroundings, but our internal states as well at the very center: health, mood, fatigue, emotion, and energy.

Emotion, the embodied self, and the ecology of effort

We can all recognize the energizing or enervating influences in our lives of emotions. Emotion has come to be recognized as central to language learning and teaching and multilingual identity (Benesch, 2012; Dewaele, 2005; Kramsch, 2009; Pavlenko, 2005; Schumann, 1997). Kramsch (2009), drawing on work by Damasio, gave examples of various kinds of emotions experienced by adult and university language learners that affected their learning. They reflected learners' emotional reactions to foreign sounds, words, people, and settings. We can all think of comparable examples.

However, some emotions may not be linked with language-related issues but still influence the learning experience. If I or one of my students has not slept well, or is suffering from some illness or hormonal imbalance, it may be difficult to muster the desire and energy to do anything difficult at all. Likewise, if we are experiencing conflicts at work or in our personal lives, the resulting distress—felt quite physically—may hinder our concentration on language study or writing. Dreary weather or air pollution can trigger mood changes, and lack of sunlight in winter can cause seasonal affective disorder (SAD) in some people: The ensuing depression, a chemical phenomenon, makes it difficult to devote effort to any challenging activity. In short, the biological basis of emotions suggests that our occasional inability to exert effort in challenging tasks might not be just a matter of not trying hard enough, not having enough motivation, or disliking a foreign language. It could be a matter of body chemistry and neural activity triggered by interrelated internal and external factors that might not even be related to the tasks at hand.

Studying ecology of effort: Why we need something more than motivation and attitude surveys

As language educators, by examining how various forces in the microcontexts of our own lives influence our desire to invest effort in difficult tasks, we are better posed to understand both ourselves and students in ways not possible via surveys of motivation and attitude. Many typical survey items, as well as much interview data, are not able to uncover individual idiosyncracies that characterize the micro-ecological worlds of our daily lives. In my own case, I cannot accurately respond to the Likert-scale item "I enjoy meeting foreigners" unless I consider the conditions under which I might meet someone: my own state of energy, fatigue, or health; the "foreigner's" gender, age, or appearance; my preoccupations or not with work or personal conflicts, to name a few. But we can observe closely on a daily basis our own and our students' behaviors, body postures, face, and eyes for clues as to

emotional states, as Damasio's work in neurobiology has confirmed. We can reflect in writing or drawing possible influences on our desires to invest effort in difficult activities. We can write and read retrospective memoirs and journals of remembered influences on desires to invest effort in language study. Some of Schumann's (1997) most interesting examples of emotion in language learning, as well examples in more recent publications, are taken from diary and journal studies and autobiographies (Casanave, 2012; Kaplan, 1993; Kinginger, 2004; Ogulnick, 1998; Simon-Maeda, 2011). By engaging in these micro-ecological reflections along with our students, we stand to gain understanding and agency in our pursuit of challenging goals.

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Christine Pearson Casanave taught at Keio University Shonan Fujisawa Campus from 1990 to 2003, and at Teachers College Columbia University in Tokyo for many years. Since 2004 she has been affiliated with Temple University in Japan, mainly advising doctoral students on their qualitative dissertation projects. Her primary interests and publications concern advanced academic literacy practices, such as graduate level writing and writing for publication. Since 2012 she has been Visiting Scholar at her M.A. alma mater, the Monterey Institute of International Studies, where she helped design the MATESOL program in the early 1980s. She does most of her academic reading while walking.

Collocation and phraseology in the classroom

Crayton Walker

University of Birmingham

EFL/ESL teachers are often encouraged to regard collocations as arbitrary groupings of words. It is often argued that they exist in the language just like idioms and phrasal verbs exist. The only thing the teacher can do is to make his or her learners aware of collocations, encourage them to read more, and keep lists of the collocations they encounter together with their meanings. My research shows that there are a number of factors, such as the precise meaning of a particular word, or the way that we use a word figuratively, which influence our choice of collocates. There are often subtle differences which are reflected in their collocational behaviour. The research shows that, contrary to current EFL/ESL methodology, many aspects of collocation can be, and perhaps should be, explained.

EFL/ESLの教師は、コロケーションとは単語を恣意的にグループ化したものだとみなす傾向がある。イディオムや群動詞が存在するように、コロケーションも言語の中に存在するとよく主張されている。教える側が唯一出来ることは、コロケーションについて学習者に気づかせ、彼らがもっと読書をし、そこで出会うコロケーションのリストを、その意味と共に持ち続けるよう奨励することである。研究では、私たちのコロケーションの選択に影響を及ぼすものには、特定の語の正確な意味や、ある単語を比喩的に使用する方法など、多くの要因があることが分かった。学習者の態度には、しばしば微妙な違いが反映される。研究結果は、現在のEFL/ESLの教授法に反して、コロケーションの多くの側面は説明可能であり、また、説明されるべきであることを示している。

The subject of collocation has received considerable attention in the field of language teaching over recent years. A number of authors (Lewis, 1993, 1997, 2000; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002) have represented collocations as being either partially or fully arbitrary and several studies (Benson, 1989; Nesselhauf 2003, 2005; Smadja & McKeown, 1991) have even used arbitrariness as part of their definition of what constitutes a collocation. Lewis claims that "collocation is an arbitrary linguistic phenomenon" (Lewis, 1997, p. 32) and, as a consequence, teachers are urged not to attempt to explain collocations to their learners.

If collocations are simply arbitrary combinations of words, it means that the foreign language learner has little option but to memorise large numbers of collocations with very little in the way of explanation or any other help in memorising them. The learner is liable to be-

come very dependent on a dictionary, checking whether a particular combination is acceptable or not before using it in his or her work. If, on the other hand, there is some sort of explanation as to why a particular word is frequently found in the company of one or more others, it means that the language learner is able to understand how and why a particular combination is frequently used by native speakers. Instead of trying to remember large numbers of collocations, the learner would be able to produce some of these combinations by using his or her understanding of the linguistic features and processes which influenced the way they were formed.

More recently there have been a few publications (Crowther, Dignen, & Lea, 2002; McCarthy & O'Dell, 2005) which have taken this position and have presented collocations in such a way that students can begin to understand why one particular word should frequently be found in the company of another. Unfortunately, there is very little research so far to support this position. The purpose of my own research (Walker, 2008, 2011a, 2011b) is to establish whether collocation is, as Lewis (1997) claims, "an arbitrary linguistic phenomenon" or whether it is influenced by a range of different linguistic features and processes. In order to do this, I have used a corpus-based methodology to investigate the collocational behaviour of groups of semantically related nouns and verbs taken from the domain of business English.

Table 1. Business English nouns and verbs

Group One	*issue, aspect, factor*
Group Two	*aim, objective, target, goal*
Group Three	*RUN, HEAD, MANAGE, in charge of, responsible for, responsibility for*
Group Four	*system, process, procedure*

Note. Table 1 shows the groups of items which were selected for study. Capitals are used to indicate that reference is being made to all members of the lemma. For example, the verb *RUN* has been written in capitals in order to show that all forms of the lemma were studied (i.e., *run, ran, runs,* & *running*).

The results of this corpus-based study show that much of the collocational behaviour exhibited by these lexical items can be explained by examining some of the linguistic features and processes which influence the way collocations are formed. These include the semantics of the individual items themselves, the use of metaphor, semantic prosody, and the tendency for many of the selected items to be part of larger phraseological units.

For example, the data from the corpus show that *target* and *goal* are more frequently associated with verbs such as *SET*, *HIT*, *MISS*, *REACH* and *MEET*.

Table 2. SET, HIT, MISS, REACH, and MEET Collocations

	aim freq.	objective freq.	target freq.	goal freq.
SET	1	7	331	134
HIT	2	1	76	125
MEET	6	6	76	16
REACH	1	7	51	41
MISS	1	1	12	13

Note. Table 2 contains data taken from the Bank of English corpus (450 million words). The figures show how the verbs *SET*, *HIT*, *MISS*, *MEET,* and *REACH* occur far more frequently with *target* and *goal*. The freq. column shows raw frequency (e.g., the combination *SET + target* occurred 331 times in the corpus).

An arrow will hit or miss its target, the object of the game of football is to score a goal, and under normal circumstances it is clear whether a goal has been scored and whether the target has been hit. These are just some of the features which are carried over from the literal to the metaphoric senses of *target* and *goal*. Both items are perceived as being more precise and measurable than either *aim* or *objective*, which is why they are more frequently associated with verbs such as *SET*, *HIT, MISS,* and *REACH* as these examples taken from the corpus serve to illustrate.

1 unresolved about how to **reach** the stated **goal** of a $50 billion deficit

2 the public eye if its to **reach** its sales **target** of more than three-an

3 a wild card. He added: `I **set** myself a **goal** to leave this place feel

4 authors. John Rogers has **set** himself the **target** of writing A History o

```
5 se as they strive to meet the
  government target of doubling the
  number
6 he president is still meeting his
  stated goal of reducing the deficit
```

If some collocations can be explained, it will help to make the process of learning collocations more meaningful and therefore more memorable. In many cases learners can be given an explanation or, better still, by using carefully selected corpus data in the classroom they can be provided with an opportunity to discover the explanation for themselves. Contemporary ELT course books usually contain many grammatical exercises which are designed so that the learners are able to derive the rule from the results of the exercise, and current methodology encourages learners to deduce the rules for themselves. There is no reason why many of the exercises which present or practise collocations cannot be designed in the same way. Learners would be asked to complete the collocational exercise and speculate as to the reason why, for example, verbs such as *SET*, *REACH*, and *MEET* are more frequently associated with *target* and *goal* rather than with *aim* or *objective* (Table 2).

A corpus is basically a resource for researchers and is not really designed for classroom use. However, in my experience, corpus data can be used quite successfully with language learners as long as the data have been carefully selected and presented, and the learning activities and any accompanying material are well structured. It would be possible, for example, to design a lesson which had the aim of heightening the learners' awareness of how the collocational behaviour of some words can be influenced by the use of metaphor.

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Crayton Walker has been working as a lecturer in Applied Linguistics in the English Department at the University of Birmingham since 2006. He mainly works with postgraduate students who are following the MA Applied Linguistics or MA TEFL/TESL. Before joining the university he had a career in English language teaching. He taught ESP in London, Riyadh, and Stuttgart and was in charge of the English department of a large language school in Germany for over 10 years. His current research interests are associated with the study of collocation and other phraseological aspects of English.

Adult learners and a different way of teaching

Curtis Kelly
Nova Southeastern University

As predicted, Japanese adults are returning to school in ever increasing numbers. Since English is one of their favorite subjects, you might get a few of them in your university, conversation school, or community center classes. These adults might be ready to study, but are you ready to teach them? Research has found that traditional teaching methods do not work well with adults because their learning styles are so different. Adults are often characterized as being non-dependent learners, who prefer self-directed learning methods such as personalized projects, discussion activities, and reflective learning tasks. They are motivated more by personal payoff than external factors like grades. Because of these differences, Malcolm Knowles (1980) has developed a different pedagogy for them called Andragogy.

以前からの予想通り、大人になってから学び直す日本人が益々増えている。英語は人気科目の1つなので、大学や語学学校、カルチャーセンターにもそんな学生が来るだろう。これらの成人学生たちは勉強の準備ができている。しかし教える側の受け入れ準備はどうだろうか。研究によると、伝統的な語学教授法は、成人学生の学習スタイルとはあまりにも違っているので、成人学生にはあまり効果がない。成人学生は、個人向け学習課題、ディスカッション、内省的学習タスクなどの自律学習を好む特徴があり、成績などの外的要因よりも個人的な成果によって動機づけられる。このような違いから、Malcolm Knowles (1980)は、成人教育学と呼ばれる独特の教授法を開発した。

"Okay, class, open your books to page 67. There will be a test on Friday, so let's master these verbs today. Okay, ready? Repeat."

It's a typical English class. It could be in a junior high school, a college, or a company. It is what we do, and while maybe not reflecting the latest methodologies or grammars, this kind of approach is still the bread and butter of the EFL classroom. In fact, this is exactly the kind of class I taught at Matsushita Electric during my first five years in Japan. The students were men, and since we taught them in the evening after a long workday, the classes were drab. Monotone repetition, molasses drills, motivation to move the hands forward on the clock. Those poor tired businessmen, what an effort they made.

Since the classes were long, we took fifteen-minute breaks, during which they had to speak English. As soon as the break started, it was like we had just fed them pure oxygen. Everyone perked up and the drones started talking. It wasn't unusual for a break to go on 30 minutes or even an hour, but being young, we felt guilty when they did since we were "not doing our jobs." We even felt a little indignant when our peers spent too much time around the coffee machine. After all, real leaning meant drilling in our carefully worked out audiolingual syllabus, not "chatting."

How I laugh at the way I was in those days. How little I knew that it was probably during the breaks that real language learning was occurring. At least, that is what a massive body of research on adults tells us: adults learn best when the learning is connected to their lives, connected to their problems, and left in their control. In fact, a whole separate pedagogy exists for adults, and if it were used, the teacher talk might sound like this instead:

"Okay, hopefully, you have examples of English from your jobs to discuss, but before we break into groups, I would like each of you to make a progress report on the project you set up. Some of you wrote, 'Friday' as a deadline in your learning contracts." (taken from *Acting Adult in the English Classroom*, Kelly, 2004)

Adults, defined as people 25 or older, are coming back to school. The number of full-time adults in US colleges has reached 38% (NCES, 2011). While this is still 19 times the 2% in Japan (McNiell, 2010), the number is growing. The universities themselves, with help from the Ministry of Education, are accomodating the trend by offering special admissions procedures, extension classes, and part-time attendance, but tuition costs and employers are still the major barriers Japanese adults must negotiate. They must almost always pay the 4-5 million yen college tuition themselves, and few companies have policies that allow workers to take time off to go back to school. Worse, most job providers do not

even look at older graduates. Instead they prefer younger, less expensive, and more pliable ones.

In addition to those offered by colleges, we can see a rise in adult classes offered by prefectural culture centers, city offices, or even self-organized groups in community centers. Whatever the case, the number of Japanese adults studying something, such as English, is increasing, and by my estimates the number should greatly increase in the next twenty years (Kelly, 1998).

The queston is, are you as a teacher ready for them? Or are you like I was when I started teaching, trying to force them into a traditional pedagogy that barely works with younger students and research has shown fails miserably with adults (Cross, 1981; Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 1998)? In order to prepare for their arrival, knowing how adults learn differently is the way to start.

The main difference between adults and younger students is the way they learn. In simple terms, their brains are different, and so our means of delivering education must be different as well. The first of the two main differences has to do with less plasticity and more prior learning. Simply speaking, adult heads are more filled with prior learning from a broad array of life experiences. Whether prior learning or natural aging makes their brains less plastic is unclear, but the result is that their thinking tends to be more fixed than children and stuck in certain grooves. As a result, for an adult to learn something new takes far more energy, as explained below.

Learning can be characterized as taking place through three different processes: accretion, tuning, and restructuring (Knowles et al., 1998, p. 140). Accretion refers to the learning of information that has little effect on existing schema, in other words, new learning. It is more common with children. Tuning involves incremental change to existing schema, without really replacing them, and is more common with teen and adult learners. Restructuring, on the other hand, involves the implanting and integration of new schema, often by destroying the old. It is difficult for adults to discard mental models that they have been using comfortably for years, so this kind of learning requires more time and energy.

Mental models, similar to schema, are "deeply held internal images of how the world works, images that limit learners to familiar ways of thinking and acting" (Senge, 1990, cited in Knowles et al, 1998, p. 141). These mental models allow adults to complete routine tasks efficiently, but also cause them to resist new learning that requires restructuring. To facilitate such learning, adults need to challenge and evaluate their existing mental models, which is the basis for reflective learning. According to information processing theory, prior knowledge is also an attentional filter, since learners pay more attention to learning that fits what they already know. Indeed, the "unlearning process can be as important as the learning process" (p. 144).

Therefore, adults tend to learn best when they can discuss the topic and connect it to existing knowledge, especially for topics they have experience with. Task-based learning, group discussion, and reflective learning are the most useful techniques. Teacher-centered lectures can also work, but only when the information is new or must be learned in a preset format.

The second main difference with adults is psychological. Adults are self-directed in life, and so, prefer to be self-directed in their studies. Unlike children, they are non-dependent learners who seek knowledge for specific reasons to solve real life problems. As a result, they are motivated more by personal payoff than external motivators, such as grades. As such, they are more likely to sign up for a course titled "Writing Better Business Letters" than "Composition 1," and, since they study for specific goals, they prefer practical, hands-on training to study of theory.

Self-directing adults hate to be treated like children and they learn best when assignments are flexibly organized around basic criteria that allow personalization. Generally, instructors should manage the processes, not the content. Unfortunately, however, adults are not always aware of their need to be self-directing, and often expect to be treated like children, reverting back to the classroom norm of their childhood. An adult instructor, then, must be ready to facilitate their transition to self-directedness.

As explained at the start of this article, I used to be a teacher who controlled everything to the detriment of my students. I changed, as I hope some of you have. Malcolm Knowles also went through a transformation that led him to develop a pedagogy for adults called "Andragogy." He described his transformation as follows:

> "My self-concept had changed from teacher to facilitator of learning. I saw my role shifting from content transmitter to process manager and—only secondarily—content resource.

In the second place, I experienced myself as adopting a different system of psychic rewards. I had replaced getting my rewards from controlling students with getting my rewards from releasing students. And I found the latter rewards much more satisfying.

Finally, I found myself performing a different set of functions that required a different set of skills. Instead of performing the function of content planner and transmitter, which required primarily presentation skills, I was performing the function of process designer and manager, which required relationship building, needs assessment, involvement of students in planning, linking students to learning resources, and encouraging student initiative.

I have never been tempted since then to revert to the role of teacher." (Knowles, et al., 1998, p. 253).

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Nova Southeastern University is sponsoring one of the graduates from their doctoral program, **Curtis Kelly** (EDD). A long-time teacher in Japan, Curtis has published over 30 books including *Writing from Within* (Cambridge), *Significant Scribbles* (Longman), and *Active Skills for Communication* (Cengage). He is a frequent presenter at JALT, where he often talks about factors of learning, plasticity, why dopamine is the Holy Grail of teaching, and other topics from neuroscience. His life goal is to reduce the suffering of language study.

Interview with Daniela Papi

GILE SIG

Jennie Roloff Rothman

Jennie Roloff Rothman: Can you tell us a little bit about PEPY and the work you are part of in Cambodia?

Daniela Papi: Sure! PEPY is a hybrid organization: PEPY Cambodia is the education and youth leadership arm of our work, and PEPY Tours is a development education travel company. Both organizations are based in Siem Reap Province, in northwest Cambodia. We started PEPY in 2005, and I lived there for six years, having learned an

incredible amount along the way–about assumptions we had gotten wrong when we started, about Cambodian culture, and about starting something up! I'm now still involved with PEPY Tours and am a member of the board of PEPY Cambodia, where I am delighted that we have a fabulous Cambodian Executive Director and leadership team.

JRR: What does PEPY stand for?

DP: When we founded PEPY, our plan had been to teach about the relationship between the environment and our health, so PEPY was named for "Protect the Earth. Protect Yourself." Later we shifted more towards youth leadership and broader educational goals, but since the team in Cambodia voted to keep the name PEPY, we needed a new acronym that fit what we did! It is sort of a stretch, but PEPY now stands for "Promoting Education, emPowering Youth!"

JRR: You started PEPY while you were here in Japan right? Could you explain more about your and PEPY's connection with Japan?

DP: Indeed! I started PEPY while I was living in Hamamatsu-shi in Shizuoka-ken. Actually, my relationship with Cambodia started even before that, in my first of three years in Japan, when I lived in a small town called Haruno-cho. I taught in a very small high school, and in addition to normal English classes, I also taught a course each week called the "international class," and I was able to create the curriculum. We focused on community service in our own area, but also on learning about issues around the world. I traveled to Cambodia during my first winter break, and when I came back, I tried to bring that experience back into the classroom with me. My students watched The Killing Fields, and wrote letters to Dith Pran (the real person whose life was portrayed as the main character in the movie, who was still alive at the time). Dith Pran wrote us back, which was fantastic for my students. This whole experience got me very eager to go back to Cambodia and I planned a bike trip that summer across the region. No, I'm not a "biker." I didn't even own a bike at the time! But some friends had done a similar ride the year before and loved it, and I wanted to follow suit. Then I decided to stay in Japan another year, and then another year. In the meantime, I joined BEE Japan, an annual bike trip from Hokkaido down to the tip of Kyushu (though I was only about to join for ½ of the trip). That was the first time I traveled by bike, and really started to love the idea of traveling on two wheels!

By the time I really did put a stake in the ground and set a date for my Cambodia bike trip, a handful of other friends were keen to join as well, so 6 of us, mostly English teachers in Japan, set off to Cambodia with our bikes in 2005. We decided we wanted to fund more than just the educational bike trip, and spent nearly a year raising funds to build a school.

JRR: I remember attending PEPY fundraising events when I was a JET in 2005 and it seemed like there were monthly activities to support the school. What kind of links between ALTs/teachers in Japan and PEPY still exist today?

DP: You remember correctly! Even before that first bike ride, we did so many fundraising events in Japan, and the communities that supported us were fantastic! We did scavenger hunts to Tokyo, spoke at community centers, organized book sales, clothing sales, concerts—you name it! So many people helped us to raise funds for that first school, and many others! Actually, for the first few years, the vast majority of people who came along on our volunteer trips were ALTs in Japan, as well as some Japanese friends. There are still a number of residents of Japan who come out to Cambodia with us each year, either with PEPY Tours, or as interns in our office, sometimes working on the communications team or other times volunteering as an English teacher for the PEPY staff. For a number of years, there has also been a series of Japan-based bike rides, where groups of ALTs and their friends organize local biking events and raise funds to support PEPY's work. We've been so grateful and lucky to have the support of so many great people in Japan!

JRR: In your blog, Lessons I Learned <lessonsilearned.org> you say that you started an education NGO "by accident" and that you made some big shifts in the focus of the organization since starting them. Can you give us a look into what some of those changes were (without giving away too much of your presentation)?

DP: Indeed, we did make some big shifts—which were necessary, but we hadn't realized at first. When we raised funds to build that first school, we hadn't realized something we should have already known: Schools don't teach kids. People do. The same goes for giving away books, bikes, and school supplies—all of which we were focusing on at first. PEPY Cambodia had started out by focusing on "things" but we eventually shifted our model away from giving things away and started focusing on investing time in people.

We made a similarly big pivot at PEPY Tours as well. PEPY Tours started out as a voluntourism company where you could come to Cambodia for a week or two, volunteer, and go home feeling proud to have done your part. We all did feel proud about that work until we started to realize that we were promoting an example of moral imperialism—promoting an idea that foreigners could come in and teach before learning about the place, the people, and the culture. We shifted PEPY Tours out of volunteering and into a "learning service" model.

JRR: What do you mean by "learning service?"

DP: Well, in North America, when taking students on volunteer trips, many people, especially in the academic context, have shifted to calling these trips "service learning" trips. The idea was that you learn through service. One of the main lessons I realized during my time in Cambodia is that we have to learn before we can help. It's backwards to say, "we go abroad and serve and then we learn from that" as often our "serving" is wasteful, or as is happening in many cases, causing a lot more harm than good. If we are using developing countries as our testing ground for volunteer projects we're not qualified to do, or do not learn enough to make responsible choices with our time and money, then we're not serving anyone. We use the term "learning service" as a way to promote the idea that we have to learn before we can help.

So, rather than offering trips where you can "save the world in a week," like we were essentially offering before, we now say come travel with us, get angry, get interested, and LEARN, and then you can go on doing the world serving for the other 358 days of the year, and the rest of your life, by changing the way you give, travel, and live after you leave us. Our trips are development education focused—so learning about development issues, articles on your bed at night, debates about charity models, etc. That means people often leave with more questions than answers, but that is okay! We believe that global citizenship and giving back is a life-long pursuit, and can be a catalyst and accelerator, but is a means, not an end.

JRR: Is "learning service" a concept you hope others will use?

DP: Yes! I'm co-authoring a book with three others on the topic right now. (You can see it and some videos at <learningservice.info>.) Our hope is to get more and more students, universities, and parents speaking about the putting learning first. The other three key concepts of the book are thorough research before volunteering, a humble and mindful approach to your actions, and learning/serving as a life-long process.

JRR: How can language teachers (in Japan) get involved with PEPY or support these learning service activities?

DP: I assume many of the people who are reading this are teachers, and they probably already do a great job of adding development lessons into their teaching. If anyone is interested in more ideas for lessons or articles, they can visit the PEPY Tours website and our "PEPY Reader" where we post related articles or watch the <learningservice.info> video series that might be of interest to teachers who are taking students abroad. We have teaching materials about Cambodia which teachers can use in the classroom if they reach out to us!

We take a few volunteers each year for 6-month placements in Cambodia, generally working in our communications team, but for experienced English teachers, there are sometimes opportunities to work as an English teacher with the PEPY staff. And of course, there are opportunities for anyone of all ages to join a PEPY Tour or organize a trip with a group of students.

JRR: "Voluntourism" has seen a major increase in popularity over the last few years. What do you think is so appealing to travelers, especially younger travelers, which seem to be the majority of those involved with PEPY? What are the benefits of this for language teachers and learners?

DP: Some people identify the 2004 tsunami as a turning point for voluntourism, as so many people were compelled to volunteer, and so many celebrities were shown doing the same on TV. Other natural disasters over the subsequent years (in Louisiana, Indonesia, Haiti, etc.) have all contributed to the hero-fication of volunteers through the media. Additionally, many schools and educational programs are now requiring international service of their students, making volunteer travel more of an obligation for some, with many university students seeing it as a way to build their resumés.

The growth pattern is circular, as more and more people are requiring/requesting volunteer travel, then more money is going into this space, and as more money has gone in, more and more

enterprising companies have sprung up. Volunteering abroad is now very big business, with some of the bigger companies bringing in tens of millions of dollars of revenue, sparking thousands of other companies to move into the space all over the world. This demand means there are more options to choose from, and makes it even harder to figure out which volunteer programs are the most responsible.

In terms of English language teaching, it is one of the most popular forms of volunteer travel. Most of people going on these types of trips are not trained teachers, so the readers of this piece are in a really good position to support a shift towards more sustainable approaches to this work. Many schools and orphanages have a rotating door of visiting volunteers, with little or no curriculum, and students learning head-shoulders-knees-and-toes week after week by different visiting teachers. My recommendation for trained English teachers looking to volunteer is to use their time in capacity building and more sustainable support for this work, rather than contributing to the episodic education cycle of programs led by visiting volunteers. This could mean volunteering to help improve or design a continuous curriculum, training teachers, rather than students directly, so that you can improve the ongoing education being offered after you have gone, etc. The *most* important part though, is educating yourself before you go, so that you don't end up giving your time to an organization that is causing harm or putting children in danger.

JRR: It sounds like not everyone has a positive experience when traveling overseas on volunteer trips? Are there any tips you can give language teachers and learners to make the most of their opportunities?

DP: There are many negative impacts of this growth in volunteer travel, both for the travelers themselves and for the communities they are meant to be "serving." The area of negative impact I find more egregious is when it comes to harming children through our good intentions. Visit <www.orphanages.no> to learn more about the problem of orphanage tourism and the negative impacts that the growth in international volunteering at orphanages is causing.

I recommend that people look out and avoid:

- any organization selling "pity"—if they are showing pitiful pictures of children or describing "extreme poverty" and then selling people an experience to make a big difference, you might want to check the sincerity of their work, as the most respectful organizations would not exploit people for their marketing.
- any volunteer sending organization that offers trips in many, many countries all over the world. It is hard enough to follow up on and verify the impact of volunteer travel in one or two places, let alone twenty. Some of the biggest organizations put trips on their website that they haven't even visited and do very little due diligence on.
- any organization recruiting you to volunteer for a short period in an orphanage or children's home to work directly with children (unless you are a trained professional and they are recruiting for a specific position training local people).
- any organization that is recruiting people to work with children and does not require a thorough background check.
- any organization that is willing to put you, as a foreigner, in a place you have never been or with a language you do not speak, in a high position of authority rather than in a support or learning role.

The positions I recommend looking for are ones that either:

- directly match your skills, so ones where you are applying for a specific job, internship, or volunteer role that has a job description which matches your skills.
- allow you to use your skills to build local capacity in an area of expertise that you have, rather than creating a dependency. For example, if you are a trained English teacher, look for positions where you are supporting the training and learning of local English teachers if possible, as that will allow your skills to have a longer-term impact.
- put you in a position of support for local leadership and allows you to learn. Through that learning and support process, you might later find areas where you can add more value, just like you would in any job. Putting yourself in a position of absorbing information and building relationships first, will allow you to have more clarity around how you can add value in the future.

JRR: Well Daniela, been truly a pleasure catching up with you, thank you so much. I'm thrilled to hear about all the progress PEPY has made and

can't wait to hear about future successes! All of us in JALT are looking forward to your featured speaker presentation in October.

DP: Thanks so much! I am looking forward to it as well. It has been a few years since I have returned to Japan, and I miss it tremendously. I look forward to meeting with teachers, and hopefully helping some of them who are interested in bringing more development education into their classroom!

Daniela Papi worked as an English teacher in Shizuoka-ken, Japan, and while there, she organized a bike trip across Cambodia to build a school. That trip turned into the foundation of a youth leadership and education organization, PEPY, and a development education travel company PEPY Tours. Daniela spent the next six years living in Cambodia and is now a leading advocate in the shift from service to learning travel. Last year, she went on to Oxford to get her MBA through the Skoll Scholarship for Social Entrepreneurship is now co-authoring a book on "Learning Service."

Five elements of a learning conducive environment

David Harrington
Language Solutions Japan

When something approaching the sum total of all human knowledge and the answer to nearly every question imaginable is literally at our fingertips with the single click of a computer button why should students still physically attend classes? What does the classroom experience provide that cannot be obtained elsewhere with far greater convenience and at less expense? The answer lies in the human interaction that constitutes that classroom experience. The potential for successful learning is multiplied many times over when certain basic psychological needs such as belonging and connecting are satisfied within the safe confines of the classroom. The social nature of language and the primacy of spoken communication over reading and writing make that live interaction all the more important in our language classrooms. This workshop will focus on the changing role and importance of the classroom experience in learning and on very practical ways to improve the classroom experience for both student and teacher.

文字通りコンピュータのボタンをクリックする私たちの指先ひとつで、人類のほとんどの知識に接することができ、私たちが想像できるほとんどの質問の答えがわかるとき、なぜ学生たちはいまだに授業に出席しなければならないのだろうか。教室での経験は、はるかに便利であまり費用もかからない他の場所では入手できない、何を提供してくれるのだろうか。この答えは、教室での経験を形成している人間同士のインタラクションである。属したい、つながりたいという基本的な心理的欲求が教室の安全な空間で満たされるとき、学習の成功への可能性は何倍にもなる。言語は元来社会的性質を持つものであり、読み書きよりも口頭コミュニケーション主体なので、語学教室における生のインタラクションがとても大切なものとなっている。このワークショップでは、学習における教室経験の変わりつつある役割や重要性に注目し、学生と教師の両方の教室経験を向上させる実践的な方法に焦点を当てる。

On a winter's day in a deep and dark December, the alarm clock rings. Wednesday morning, 6:00 am, Makoto Ishiijima wakes and gazes from her window to the streets below at the freshly fallen silent shroud of snow. (My apologies to Simon and Garfunkel.) She must get up. She has English class at 9:00. Why should Makoto climb out from under the nice warm covers of her futon, get dressed and spend 90 minutes on a train packed with hundreds of eye avoiding strangers just to attend YOUR class . . . or any class for that matter? What unique value does being in your classroom provide that cannot be obtained elsewhere with far greater convenience and at less expense (Shpancer, 2004)?

It certainly is not the material, the content, the facts and figures, the dates and data. The classroom really hasn't been about delivering content since the invention of the printing press. Remem-

ber the line from the bar scene in the movie *Good Will Hunting* with Matt Damon. Matt's character, with a wicked good Boston accent, tells the Harvard grad student, " . . . . you dropped a hundred and fifty grand on a &#$%'n education you coulda got for a dollah fifty in late chahges at the public library." Information is readily available, we no longer need to attend school to gain access to it, and these days especially, the information is out there, . . . oh is it out there. It is estimated that Google has over 45 billion pages of information indexed. According to Bowker, the company in the U.S. who issues book ISBN numbers, there were approximately 3 million new books published in the United States alone in 2011. There is no shortage of information.

It is not that the typical classroom situation is the best delivery system for information. Some teachers may be great orators, but it is nearly impossible for mere mortal teachers giving a traditional lecture to compete with books, the Internet, or television for straight up delivery of factual information.

If the classroom is not about delivering content, there must be something else. Seventeen year old Jeff Bliss, the Duncanville, Texas high school student who became a YouTube viral sensation knew this when he schooled his history teacher saying, "If you would just get up and teach them instead of handing them a frickin' packet, yo."

So if teaching is no longer about delivering content then what is it about? What can teachers in a classroom still do best? They can create an environment that is uniquely and irreplaceably conducive to learning. Albert Einstein knew this when he said, "I never teach my pupils; I only attempt to provide the conditions in which they can learn."

What constitutes such an environment? How do we create such conditions? Let's look at five elements of a learning conducive environment; connection, interaction, inspiration, guidance, and confidence.

Connection

The first element of a learning conducive environment is connection, that sense of belonging, of being part of something bigger than oneself. Belonging is a fundamental psychological need that must be satisfied before learning can take place (Glasser, 1986). "Hungry students think of food, lonely students look for friends" (p. 20). Students are unable to access higher functions when they are seeking to satisfy more fundamental physiological or psychological needs. Goodenow (1993) found that students achieved more, were better motivated, had higher expectations of success, and believed in the value of their academic work when working in and for the group. We are not rocks and we are not islands. Connection is a necessary condition for learning.

Interaction

The second element is interaction. Knowledge is seldom used in isolation. The interaction between the students helps them learn to deal with knowledge within the context of dealing with people. In the right classroom environment there is the opportunity to bounce ideas off of one another and to share information with each other. There also arises the need to explain, to convince, to negotiate, to debate and to cajole others into seeing what we are seeing, a process that often forces us to clarify our own thoughts as we attempt to communicate them. If there is no need to come together to manipulate the information then there is no need for the classroom. Listening, reading, and copying down notes can all be done alone. The classroom is the place for interaction. There is inherently something in the sharing that adds to the experience. It is why we go to a concert when the CD version of the music is cleaner and clearer. We have a need to interact and share the experience with others. It is why students in distance learning programs create local study groups. It is why students taking large lecture courses break down into smaller more manageable study circles. Interaction requires students to be responsible to the group for learning. To some degree, and sometimes to a large degree, the students don't really care about what the teacher thinks, but they do care about what their peers think. The sheer joy of learning and discovery like all good things, a beautiful sunset or a delicious meal, are all so much better when shared.

Guidance

The Internet may have all the answers but where do you turn when you need help with the questions? Guidance is the third element of a great classroom experience. We all have access to the information but sometimes we just don't know where it is hiding. A guide shows you where to look but not what to see. Try reading this . . . check out this website… if you liked that, then you will really like… recommendations

and suggestions are the guide's tools. Having a guide with us combats that deep fear we have of getting stuck. That is why companies have help lines and technical support desks. When we are lost, really lost, we can be confident that the guide will come through and rescue us. That encourages us to take more risks to seek out deeper questions. The teacher may take the role of the guide in the classroom but other times it is students that are the best guides. Guidance is a key to converting the classroom from a content delivery system to an experience creator or as Alison King coined back in 1993, moving "From the sage on the stage to the guide on the side."

Inspiration

Inspiration is the fourth element of a great classroom experience. There is a famous quote from writer William A. Ward, "The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires." It is a great quote… a very inspirational quote but just what is this thing called inspiration? Inspiration is simply getting someone to believe that doing something is possible. It is getting someone to believe in their own ability to accomplish something. No book, no computer, no website has ever done that. It is what teachers in classrooms do everyday. Teachers believe in students enough that they are able to convince that student of their own ability to succeed. Sometimes we just need a cheering section to get us past our own self-doubt and get us to believe in our own ability. That is inspiration.

Confidence

Confidence is the fifth element of a learning conducive environment. Student confidence comes from being able to trial risky ideas in a safe environment, to test out recently acquired knowledge in an atmosphere of minimal consequence. Confidence comes when we drive out fear. It comes in creating an atmosphere that values the questions over the answers. Great comfort and confidence overcomes self-doubt, "Um… Is this right?", when we are able in the confines of the classroom to confirm that others have come to the same conclusion, "Yes, this is right." Confidence comes from confirming that we are not alone and that others are having the same struggles and difficulties that we are having. That confidence then gives us the courage to take on ever greater, ever more difficult academic challenges.

Conclusion

The teachers in the classroom are not going to disappear as long as they continue to create the conditions and environment most conducive to learning. Here we have discussed the elements that create a conducive learning environment. In the featured speaker workshop we will explore practical techniques for creating and enhancing connection, interaction, guidance, inspiration, and confidence that lead to a great classroom experience.

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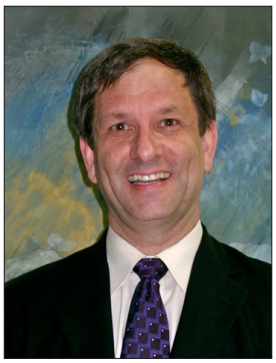

David Harrington has lived, studied, and taught in Japan most of his life. He has been involved in English language teaching for nearly 30 years, having taught students of almost every age and circumstance from preschoolers to graduate students. David taught at Ferris Women's University, Showa Women's University, Tokai University, and Tamagawa University. He was a founder of The English Resource, IPI, Abax, and Compass Japan and has co-authored several books including Discover Debate, Speaking of Speech, and Performance. David currently teaches at the International Academy of English in fabulous Las Vegas. He is sponsored by Language Solutions.

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Grammaring: a personal odyssey perspective

Elka Todeva
SIT Graduate Institute

In the spirit of experiential learning, workshop participants will ***go grammaring*** with several core features and structures in English: tenses, articles, the passive voice, and conditionals. Processing these experiences, participants will be able to identify key features of grammaring as a type of language teaching that artfully combines genuine communication with engaging and intellectually stimulating focus-on-form, thus expediting and facilitating learning. The workshop also offers an exploration of the history, scope, and evolution of the concept of grammaring which is full of untapped potential. The aim is for participants to see grammaring as a teaching philosophy where one puts a premium on learner agency and learner engagement. Grammar should not be perceived as a baffling system of structures and rules, but rather as a liberating force. This force frees the students from their dependence on context and moves them beyond the commonly witnessed learning plateauing that comes with insufficient attention to form.

このワークショップでは、経験学習の観点から、時制、冠詞、受動態、仮定法など英語の核となる表現を使ってgrammaringを経験する。この経験を通して、参加者は、grammaringの特徴をフォーカス・オン・フォームに注目を集め、知的に刺激し、本物のコミュニケーションと結びつけることで、学習を手助けし、促進する言語教育法の1つとして、認識できるようになるだろう。さらに、未開発で可能性に満ちたgrammaringの概念の歴史と領域、発展についても探る。ワークショップの目標は、grammaringとは学習者の活動と参加にプレミアムを与える教育原理であると、参加者に認識してもらうことである。また、文法は構造と規則の不可解なシステムではなく、学生を文脈への依存から解放する力であり、言語形式を軽視することで起こりがちな学習の停滞を超えさせるものであることを、参加者に認識してもらいたい。

odyssey - Noun, from the Greek Ὀδύσσεια, Odysseia

- a long and eventful or adventurous journey
- an intellectual or spiritual quest

Since time immemorial people have gone on journeys and voyages looking for wealth, adventures, and for their true selves. Seekers from Siddhārtha to Marco Polo and captain Ahab fascinate us and we all empathize with Odysseus, Sindbad the Sailor, and Frodo Baggins on their arduous travels. These journeys were long and challenging but they offered the traveler rewards that often resulted in much more than just personal fulfillment.

In many respects, a teacher's quest for better teaching and more effective learning is not unlike these heroes' journeys. Our paths are often uneven, with twists and turns, and many distractions along the way. Just like travelers, we teachers benefit from the wisdom of those we meet on our real and virtual journeys. We gather stores of knowledge received as gifts from learned men only to discard some of them as, with time, we realize that these gifts offer us and our students little comfort and are sources of more pain than gain.

As a language educator, a lover of languages, and a perennial language learner, all my professional life I have been on a quest for finding an easier, faster, and more enjoyable way of learning languages. This quest has taken me on journeys far from the familiar though extraordinarily varied terrain of Applied Linguistics and language pedagogy to the lands of cognitive and developmental psychology, the social sciences and neurosciences, to kyudo and taichi, which have all offered me helpful insights into the intricacies and complexities of human learning.

Like most language teachers, I explored various approaches to teaching that allowed me to practice constructive eclecticism in an informed, principled, and pedagogically sound way. I experimented with various lesson planning and curriculum design models gravitating towards the ones where the conditions of learning are in alignment with the conditions of language use. I came to look at errors as useful hypothesis testing rather than an indication of failure. With time, I developed a rich array of techniques for offering corrective feedback which facilitated noticing without inhibiting the learner; I engaged my students in a way that worked on developing both their accuracy and fluency right from the very beginning. I planned multimodal activities in order to accommodate all learning styles. I put a premium on learner discovery but also maintained enough teacher presence to reassure

students accustomed to more teacher centered experiences. I employed rich scaffolding mechanisms such as aesthetically pleasing wall visuals containing essential vocabulary and grammar snippets and I tried to exercise what some call *cognitive load management*, which allows students to be more adventurous in their language production. I engaged my students in contrastive intra- and interlinguistic explorations, knowing that the only way to fully understand something is to understand what it is not: e.g., no Japanese learner of English can fully understand the meaning of the word *clock* until it is juxtaposed with *watch* given that, like many other languages, Japanese has one word that covers both, *tokei*. I consistently tried to foster both cognitive and emotional engagement, as my students and I conducted lively focus-on-form, couched in genuine communicative exchanges. I paid close attention to what topics the students were interested in and artfully helped them to uncover powerful grammatical patterns that were naturally embedded in these topics. For example, by looking at the FIFA World Cup Final qualifying teams, one can start to see patterns in the way articles are used with geographical names in English. Brazil, England, Italy, Cameroon, and most other countries take the zero article, while countries whose names end in 's' or have composite names with a common noun in them take the: the Netherlands, the Philippines, the United Kingdom, the United Arab Emirates. Sharing information about holidays from each student's culture generates natural present simple tense form input; showing one's Facebook pictures to classmates invariably triggers multiple instances of the progressive.

On most days I was happy with my language teaching, first EFL and later ESL. More importantly, I was happy with my students' learning. It was not until Diane Larsen-Freeman (1995) introduced the term *grammaring* that I finally had a word that seemed to capture the essence of what I had been doing in class and the essence of my teaching philosophy. It conveyed a kind of dynamism and excitement one associates with activities like skiing, surfing, swimming or snowboarding. Like these *ing*-words, grammaring suggested something fun, while at the same time implying an experience requiring maximum mental alertness.

The more I reflected on my conceptualization and practice of grammaring, and shared my insights in graduate classes and teacher training workshops, the more I saw the importance of emphasizing that grammaring requires a complete re-thinking of grammar. Through various awareness-raising activities, both teachers and students need to start seeing grammar not just as a system of structures and rules but as a wonderfully economical, meaning-making device and an important identity-negotiation tool.

With this awareness one stops looking at grammar as a burden and starts investing in it as a critically important component of language. Practicing *grammar as choice*, one develops a better sense of how things fit together in a language and of the range of grammatical expressions one can choose from to best express one's thoughts and feelings in a nuanced and maximally appropriate way. A way that is appropriate not only with regard to meaning but also with regard to the type of personality we want to project in a particular context. Because of the choices and power that grammar gives us, Widdowson (1990) called grammar a liberating force. Grammar frees speakers from their dependence on context and moves them beyond the commonly witnessed learning plateauing that comes with insufficient attention to or poorly designed and executed form.

In the spirit of experiential learning, participants in my JALT workshop will go grammaring with several core features and structures in English: tenses, articles, the passive voice, and conditionals. Processing these experiences, participants will be able to identify key features of grammaring as a type of language teaching that artfully combines genuine communication and meaningful sharing with engaging focus-on-form which expedites and facilitates learning. The workshop will also offer an exploration of the history, scope, and evolution of the concept of grammaring which is full of untapped potential.

Space constraints do not allow a fuller description of grammaring here. Several last thoughts, however. Grammaring includes consistent focus-on-form but it is quite different from the more traditional presentation-practice-use (P-P-U) model. Typically it flips the P-P-U model on its head starting with use, which allows both the teacher and the students to notice the gap in their production abilities, which stimulates greater student investment and allows for more fine-tuned lessons to unfold. Language production comes early but it is well scaffolded. The students maintain ownership of language from the beginning. In the initial use stage, corrective feedback and an opportunity to hear

the correct form are offered, primarily through recasting, aimed at information expansion or clarification. Lesson units follow a *whole—part (focus-on-form)—whole* format. The teacher has a provisional syllabus in mind containing core grammatical elements that give learners of a particular proficiency level maximum communicative mileage. These syllabi, however, lack the rigidity of a traditional structural syllabus. They also have some distinctive organizational and content-related features that will be explored during my workshop.

I will close by mentioning Odysseus again, as a kind of proto-traveler, pointing out that the journey he embarked upon was not to some far-off lands. All the adventures and challenges he experienced were part of his journey going back home, where he sees his native Ithaca with new eyes, as if seeing it for the first time. In my own journey as a language educator, my goal has been to find a place in teaching and learning that feels like home. Grammaring is one type of learning and teaching practice that gives me a sense of being at home.

All teachers and students perhaps want a similar homely experience for the language classes they teach or take. Each class, with its community of learners, creates such a feeling of comfort and fulfillment to varying degrees of success. In the global world we all live in, we also have a shared home. To live in it comfortably and efficiently we, native and non-native speakers alike, need new linguistic and communication skills. Grammaring and plurilinguistic pedagogy, with its consistent tapping into the rich prior linguistic and cultural knowledge of the learners, offer much promise as two important paths that can take us there.

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Elka Todeva, a language educator with a doctorate in applied linguistics, teaches and does research on second language acquisition, language pedagogy, and ecological approaches to teaching. Her publications include the book *The Multiple Realities of Multilingualism: Personal Narratives and Researchers' Perspectives*, ESL textbooks and dictionaries, and articles on language acquisition, fossilization, brain-friendly teaching, and reflective practices. She has worked with educators on five continents. Her courses encourage teachers to become public intellectuals who initiate discussions around language planning, language and identity, language and power, and the role of English in the era of globalization.

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TOEIC® for lower levels: Challenges and solutions

Grant Trew
Oxford University Press

The TOEIC® can be extremely challenging for lower-level learners. Not only for the students, who struggle to get the scores they need, but also for teachers who aim to help them. This workshop will look at the specific challenges these learners face and highlight the major problems inherent in the majority of current preparation materials. Finally it will present practical

techniques for teachers to help lower-level students overcome these challenges and get the scores they need.

TOEIC®は初級レベルの学習者には非常に難しい。スコアを上げるのに学生だけが苦労しているのではなく、指導者も学生を助けるのに苦労している。このワークショップでは、学習者が直面する具体的な困難に目を向け、現行の対策用教材の主な問題点に注目する。最後に、初級レベルの学生がこれらの困難を克服し、スコアを上げるのに役立つ実践的な指導技術を紹介する。

Since its introduction more than thirty years ago, the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC®) has steadily increased in popularity, with more than 6 million students taking the test in 120 countries.

In 2010 interest in the TOEIC® peaked as Rakuten, a major Japanese internet retailer, announced that from 2012 all of their company's internal communication would be conducted in English and that they would use the TOEIC® as the primary means for assessing employee proficiency. It was announced that TOEIC® scores in the 600 to 750 range would be required for promotion (Matsutani, 2010). This equates to B1 on the Common European Framework of Reference, or CEFR (Tannenbaum & Wylie, 2010) or roughly low to mid-intermediate level.

Unfortunately, a significant percentage of Japanese workers are not capable of attaining these scores. ETS data (2010) suggests average scores in Japan in fields such as retail sales, vehicle and manufacturing are around TOEIC® 450 – 460, while fields such as finance, securities and real estate are around the 550 range. For learners looking to boost their scores by 100-150, test preparation courses that promise to help students raise their scores are a common option.

These lower-level students often find preparing for the TOEIC® to be a serious challenge, however. The reality is that for students not at a strong intermediate level the test material is just too difficult for them to handle comfortably. The reason for this is that the TOEIC® is designed to assess a broad range of ability from elementary to advance. Roughly a third of the items will be suitable for lower-level learners (<550 TOEIC®), another third targets intermediate ability (~550 – 780) and the final third aims to assess upper-intermediate to advanced-level students (~780+). This means that for a student who is currently in the 450-500 range, more than two thirds of the test are beyond their level of ability.

Lower-level students often find such courses to be difficult, frustrating and very demotivating. Similarly, teachers with lower-level classes often find these difficult to plan and manage effectively. The most obvious solution to this problem is to use course materials that match the level of the students, and this is exactly the approach taken by majority of publishers. These materials tailor the questions to match the level of the learner. They use shorter listening and reading passages and reduce the range of vocabulary to avoid overwhelming the learners. In addition, they often slow down the listening stimuli to give students of the target level a better chance of understanding. On the whole, these books are successful in their aim of making the lessons a more comfortable and less demotivating experience. Lessons flow smoothly, students get a feeling of success, and teachers can effectively plan and manage their classes. The steadily increasing scores on the tailored practices tests can also boost student confidence significantly.

On the surface this appears to be an ideal solution. There is, however, a serious problem with this approach, which only manifests itself when the students go to take the actual test. For many learners the difference in difficulty between the material they have studied with and the real test often comes as a profound shock. The longer and very natural listening stimuli of Parts 3 and 4 of the test can prove both overwhelming and largely incomprehensible. The very lengthy reading practices can prove impossible to handle in the available time by students who have never had to deal with passages of that length.

The end result does not show the type of score gains they registered on the simplified practice tests, and in many cases student scores can actually go down from previous test attempts. The reason for this is that the TOEIC® is only capable of registering significant gains in overall ability. In a large scale study conducted in Japan (Saegusa, 1985) it was estimated that a test taker hoping to raise his score from 550 to 650 would require about 250 hours of English study or roughly 2.5 hours per point gained. So, for example, a student taking a 30 hour prep course would therefore be looking at around a 10 point score gain (TOEIC® scores increase in 5 point increments).

Unfortunately, the TOEIC® is not capable of measuring fine gains. ETS (2007) reports that the Standard Error of Measurement for the TOEIC® is +/- 25 points. This means that for a student who improved their ability by 10 points, their reported TOEIC® score could actually go down. The effect this has on student confidence and morale is obvious.

In my years of teaching and administering TOEIC® programs I have seen a huge number of students who were very disappointed or even angry about their negligible (or possibly negative) progress after spending considerable time and money on lessons. After years of having to respond to this type of reaction, I came to the conclusion that using simplified materials doesn't provide sufficient benefit to students to warrant their use. In fact, I would hazard that using simplified resources actually does more harm than good, due to the effect on their confidence and the counterproductive time management habits they can develop when practicing with simplified materials.

For most low-level students, a far better option (for all concerned) is that they be encouraged to take general English classes to improve their general language ability and range of vocabulary before moving to a test-specific course. Unfortunately, there are always a considerable number of students who require a certain score by their company or institution in order to secure a job, promotion, or section transfer. It is very likely that the 2010 Rakuten announcement will result in an increase in the numbers of such students, especially if other companies follow Rakuten's example.

The question then is what can be done for the lower-level students who really need to improve their scores in the short term. Are they restricted to either taking expensive, time consuming, and not very effective courses using simplified materials, or struggling through a frustrating course of study using materials that are far too difficult?

I would like to propose a possible third option that can avoid the pitfalls of the former, without the pain of the latter. This approach is based on a number of basic principles, specifically:

1. *Students need to be exposed to and trained to deal with the level of questions found on the real TOEIC®*
   If students are going to be able to cope with the challenges of the actual test they must get used to handling the longer listening and reading passages and to dealing with the level and range of vocabulary. One way of doing this is to give students regular practice with short 'mini-tests' that reflect the actual *TOEIC®* test format, at the end of each unit of study.
2. *Strategy and language development activities can be close to the student's level*
   Although students definitely need regular exposure to the real test difficulty, the practice activities used to build up to these 'mini-tests' can be close to the students' actual level. Teachers can start a study unit with activities close to the students' level, and then systematically build up their abilities using a series of language skill developing activities. This will then gradually increase in difficulty and length until later in the unit or course where activities will approach levels close to that of the real test.
3. *An effective course of study needs to deal with phonological issues*
   The natural speed, rhythm, and intonation of the TOEIC® listening stimuli can pose significant problems for lower-level students. Helping students overcome these problems must be a major goal if scores on the listening section are to be improved.
4. *Test-taking strategies are essential to help students achieve their maximum score*
   Language is not the only challenge posed by the TOEIC®. The design of the test, the way the information on it is presented, and especially the timing elements can cause students to significantly underperform. In order to overcome these factors, students should be provided with effective strategies to help them deal with the tasks and information load more effectively.

In this featured speaker workshop I will demonstrate practical examples of these principals and provide participants with techniques that they can use to assist their lower-level learners to improve their scores.

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Grant Trew has been working in the field of EFL for nearly 20 years as a teacher, trainer, and materials developer in the UK, the Middle East, and Japan. He has a particular interest in the field of language assessment and ESP, and has authored several texts on these subjects. Among designing oral and written test instruments for institutions and large scale curriculum development, he is a trained item writer for the TOEIC® test and has been an oral examiner for Cambridge ESOL exams.

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Dogme: Hype, evolution, or intelligent design?

Scott Thornbury

Kobe JALT/The New School

Dogme ELT has been criticised on various grounds, including the claim that it was deliberately engineered as an exercise in self-promotion. While I would argue that the history of Dogme belies such a claim, the healthy debate that Dogme has generated has compelled its advocates to articulate its basic principles and, if it really is a method, to define its methodology retrospectively.

Dogme ELTは、自己宣伝の練習として意図的に考案されている等の様々な理由で批判されている。Dogmeの歴史を見ればそのような主張は矛盾しているというのが私の意見だが、一方で、Dogmeが生み出してきた健康的な論争は、その提唱者に基本原理を明確にすることを求めてきた。もしそれが本当にmethodと呼べるものであるなら、さかのぼってその方法論を定義することが求められている。

The Urban Dictionary (2013) defines *hype as:*

> A fad. A clever marketing strategy [in] which a product is advertized as the thing everyone must have, to the point where people begin to feel they need to consume it.

A teacher, academic, and writer re-posted an article I had written about Dogme ELT (Thornbury, 2000) on his blog, and added this by way of commentary:

> I congratulate Scott for this initiative, and maybe it's done a bit to change teaching practice. But I can't help thinking it's a bit of well-orchestrated hype. Scott makes a living, partly, from selling books used in classrooms, and partly from jetting round the world talking about Dogme; is there not a contradiction there? And anyway, the whole Dogme thing is, in my opinion, vastly overblown. The idea that we should all go back to "a room with a few chairs, a blackboard, a teacher, and some students, and where learning was jointly constructed out of the talk that evolved in that simplest, and most prototypical of situations" is both romantic and simplistic. As usual, Scott over-eggs the pud. If he weren't so happy doing what he's doing, I bet he'd easily get a job in politics as a Spin Supremo!

That Dogme is "well-orchestrated hype" is a criticism that has been made almost since its

inception. As is the claim that it represents an act of hypocrisy on the part of its originators. Since to attempt to refute the second claim is a waste of breath (a hypocrite would deny he was a hypocrite, wouldn't he!), I'll just address the first, i.e., that Dogme is "well-orchestrated hype."

Actually, the fairly rapid uptake of the term Dogme was neither well orchestrated, nor, arguably, due to hype. In the article that the blogger refers to, no attempt was made to apply the name Dogme to an approach—to *brand* it, in other words. All that the article did was use the analogy of the Dogme film movement (anti-Hollywood, low-tech, local film-making) and suggest that, in the interest of foregrounding real communication in the classroom, English language teaching needed to shed itself of an over-dependence on imported materials and aids. That was all. It was a fairly timid and, dare I say it, uncontroversial position to take. Nor was it startlingly original. A number of scholars, notably Dick Allwright (1981), had been arguing for the need for learning materials, as opposed to teaching materials, at least two decades before the advent of Dogme, while progressive education has a long history of rejecting the imposition of officially mandated textbooks (see Thornbury, in press).

Nevertheless, that article did strike a chord among a small, but growing, band of like-minded practitioners, and sowed the seeds for a discussion that quite quickly gravitated online, and became the Dogme ELT discussion group. For quite a while, this was the only forum where Dogme's principles, antecedents, and practices were aired, debated, rejected, and embraced. Inevitably, perhaps, the name became attached to a cluster of teaching practices that foregrounded learner-generated content, a process syllabus, and, by extension, the rejection of published materials. None of this discussion was intentionally orchestrated with a view to fabricating a method: in fact, from its outset the notion of method was regarded with deep suspicion, on the grounds that methods are top-down structures, while Dogme-style teaching is, in principle, driven from the bottom up, since both the syllabus and the lesson content is supposed to be generated out of local and immediate concerns.

The fact that, over the succeeding years, Dogme attracted so much attention must have owed as much to a fairly widespread frustration with current teaching materials and syllabi as it did to any *clever marketing strategy*. It was less an idea whose time had come than an idea that had been around for a good long while but which was perhaps in need of validation. Giving it a name conferred a measure of authentication. Teachers were able to say, *Well, that's what I have always done, but it's good to know that I'm not alone*.

At the same time, this act of naming also attracted a fair amount of (often heated) debate, some constructive, and some less so. The charge of hypocrisy was frequently levelled: the irony was not lost on some critics that recent technological innovations, such as social media, were put to good use by Dogme proponents to promote, among other things, low-tech classroom teaching. More often, though, criticisms of Dogme have revolved around its unsuitability in specific contexts (e.g., large classes of adolescents with non-native speaker teachers, or the teaching of academic writing at university level, or exam preparation classes).

More seriously, to my mind, has been the charge that a focus on emergent language (rather than on language items that have been preselected in the form of a syllabus) runs the risk of simply recycling what learners can already do, without *upping the ante*, as it were. That is to say, without the persistent *push* to complexify their mental grammar and to extend their mental lexicon, there is a danger that learners remain forever in a state of suspended animation. To mitigate this effect requires the considerable dexterity of teachers, arguably, since they not only have to work with the *raw material* of the learners' output, but they have to transmute this *base metal into pure gold*. The ability to do so assumes a degree of experience and language competence that might simply be beyond the reach of many teachers.

Criticisms like these have had the positive effect of encouraging proponents of Dogme to justify their beliefs, recount (and account for) their classroom practices, and—by a process of back formation—retrospectively articulate the *method* that Dogme was never intended to be. That is to say, rather than having been deliberately orchestrated or authored, Dogme has been very much an emergent and co-constructed phenomenon: a case, not of *intelligent design*, but of natural selection.

So, what might the elements of this *method* be? Using the framework provided by Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 330) this is how Dogme would seem to position itself with respect to the following attributes of a method:

1. *The nature of language:* Language is a resource for making meaning and is realised as discourse, either written or spoken, which is constructed from elements of varying degrees of conventionality (words, collocations, verb patterns etc).
2. *The nature of second language learning:* Learning occurs when these elements are enlisted in discourse for the purposes of making meaning, and shaped and refined in response to implicit or explicit feedback and instruction.
3. *Goals of teaching:* Teachers need to enable learners to become resourceful and self-directed language users, by providing the optimal conditions for discourse creation, and the linguistic means for doing this.
4. *The type of syllabus to use:* An emergent syllabus (of lexis, constructions, genres etc.) that evolves as a (negotiated) response to the learners' developing needs and abilities.
5. *The role of teachers, learners, and instructional materials*: The teacher motivates and scaffolds interactions between learners, providing instruction at the point of need, using materials contributed or accessed principally by the learners themselves.
6. *The activities, techniques, and procedures to be used:* These are not prescribed, but would need to be consistent with the above goals, contextually appropriate, and mutually agreed. They are likely to share features with the practices of task-based instruction or whole-language learning.

Having outlined the components of a Dogme *method*, I would also want to add a *health warning* to the effect that any attempt to define a method runs the risk of constraining its potential effectiveness by limiting its generalizability to a wide range of contexts. Moreover, methods are only as good as the *sense of plausibility* (to use Prabhu's [1990] phrase) that they evoke. If the Dogme *method* seems to you "both simplisitic and romantic" (as my blogging friend claims), and hence lacks plausibility, then you might be well advised to ignore it!

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Scott Thornbury is currently curriculum coordinator on the MA TESOL program at The New School in New York. His previous experience includes teaching and teacher training in Egypt, UK, Spain, and in his native New Zealand, and he is a frequent presenter at international conferences. His writing credits include several award-winning books for teachers on language and methodology, as well as a number of papers on such diverse subjects as voice-setting phonology, corpus linguistics, speaking instruction, and embodied learning. He is series editor for the Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers. He blogs at <scottthornbury.wordpress.com>.

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