



THE ENGLISH TEACHER'S GUIDE TO KOREA

Living, Working, and Thriving in Korea Sparkling

By
Tony Hellmann, M.Ed.
Tom Rainey-Smith
Jason Thomas, M.App.Ling.
Matt Henderson

Chapter 4

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CHAPTER 4: AT WORK

INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION IN SOUTH KOREA

English has been formally taught in Korea for 125 years, but demand for the language was restricted to a relatively small group of specialists until the mid-1990s, when “globalization” became a mantra in major media and the administration of Kim Young-sam and English was promoted as an essential element of globalization. Koreans now spend 3 trillion won annually on private English lessons, far more than any other nation.

Education culture is testing-oriented and has been for centuries (though many teachers are attempting to change this). For men in the *yangban* or elite class, social status was largely determined by your position in the king’s bureaucracy, and you were not admitted to this service unless you scored well on the *gwageo*, the civil service examination, which was administered in Chinese. When Japan colonized the peninsula early in the twentieth century, knowledge of Japanese came to determine your position in the civil service.

This may help to explain the hostility toward English expressed by some nationalists. Until 1945, an independent Korean intellectual tradition had, in many respects, been stifled by the dominance of foreign languages. Now, a foreign language once again acts as a gatekeeper to academic and professional success in Korea, and it is the language we are here to teach.

The government now requires universities to deliver some content in English, and Korean professors are lecturing their Korean students in English. City governments interview Korean applicants in English. If you want to study Chinese literature or Korean history at a top school, you need a good score on the English section of the *suneung*, the college entrance test. English is seen everywhere. It is no surprise that some feel that Korean, finally allowed to thrive, is again under threat. Keep this in mind.

COMMUNICATING WITH STUDENTS, COWORKERS, AND OTHERS

TEACHING AND CO-TEACHING

Collaborating with other teachers to deliver language lessons can be a rewarding experience, but it isn't always easy. This section explores some of the problems and frustrations that foreign instructors in primary and secondary schools report, and provides suggestions.

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Many teachers report a more "relaxed" classroom culture than they are accustomed to, and some are shocked when students continue or even begin conversations with other students while a teacher is addressing the class. There is a simple explanation for this: conventional classrooms are text- and lecture-based, not activity-oriented. Tasks based on a text are usually quite simple: listen and repeat, listen and select item a) or b) and so on. Lectures focus on some grammar point or vocabulary item that students might need for the test but will not need to use. Simply stated, learners rarely need to listen to the teacher in order to participate in a lesson. You may well have other ideas about what you want to happen during class.

There is no single strategy that works for every teacher in every classroom, so you'll have to develop your own ways to get students' attention. Frequent use of activities that require students to actually use target language will encourage students to pay attention when target language is presented. This brings us to...

ACTIVITY PROCEDURES

Some teachers become frustrated when their co-teacher translates activity directions. Why should learners listen to you, if your co-teacher will immediately translate everything you say into Korean? Here are your options:

- 1) Let your co-teacher translate the procedure. This certainly is more efficient, especially for more complex and engaging learning activities. After all, most learning happens during the activity itself (if it is well-designed), not while learners are waiting for it to begin.

2) Let your co-teacher translate, but make sure they do not tell students to begin the activity. Rather, repeat the directions yourself. You may find that many students, once they have an idea of what you're telling them, will want to listen again! This can develop learner confidence as well as comprehension skills.

3) Ask your co-teacher not to translate, but rather to ask "comprehension check" questions. This can tell you what steps must be repeated or modeled again. "Do you understand?" is the worst possible comprehension check question. Teachers know this, but may sometimes need to be prompted with an appropriate information question, e.g. "What should student A do after filling in the gaps?"

Do not be discouraged if you find that learners often fail to understand your directions. Delivering activity procedures effectively in L2—especially to beginners—is probably the most difficult skill for a language teacher to acquire.

LESSON PLANNING

Of course, activities work best when your co-teacher has a clear understanding of what the activities are designed to accomplish, and the goals of the lesson. Unfortunately, some teachers will take little interest in your lesson plans and are content to be themselves directed in the classroom, especially if they cannot see how your lesson is related to the syllabus, i.e. the textbook.

If you can, try to insist on regular meetings with your co-teachers. At these meetings, negotiate what it is that you and they should actually do during class. Ideally, you will share the role of directing lessons, rather than limit your co-teacher's role to e.g. monitoring to assist learners or to keep them on-task. If all they're doing is observing "your" lessons, they'll naturally lose interest.

Finally, feedback is an integral part of professional development. I know of one teacher who brings to weekly meetings "two things I appreciated, one thing I have concerns about." She asks her co-teachers to do the same. This could be very effective, if done with care.

UNDERSTANDING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

If you don't know what "SLA" is, get thee to a bookstore! If you're a monolingual (or "natural" bilingual), then your knowledge of how

second languages are acquired will necessarily be abstract and incomplete, and your co-teacher with their “poor English” way ahead of you. This doesn’t necessarily mean that their way is the “best” way, because there is no agreement on what the “best” way to learn a language is. If you haven’t already, do some research, start learning an additional language, or both. Then you’ll be in a better position to engage your co-teachers in informed discussion of approaches that might work for your learners. I suggest that you read the aims of the current curriculum carefully (see appendix) and base most of your own goals on it.

ENGLISH-AS-SUBJECT vs. ENGLISH-AS-LANGUAGE

There is a tension, some might say a contradiction, present in nearly every EFL classroom on the planet, and in South Korea it is impossible to avoid. If you teach in a school, then English is a subject, like mathematics or chemistry. And in any subject, students are to acquire a body of knowledge particular to that subject area: vocabulary, relations, formulas and patterns, and the like. Teachers are aware of course that “knowledge” has an interesting yet annoying habit of changing, as understandings and perceptions change. But in order to plan and deliver a syllabus, and above all to assess students on uptake of syllabus content, it becomes necessary to “freeze” knowledge.

Freezing knowledge of elementary algebra or inorganic chemistry perhaps does not cause too many problems, but freezing a living language does. Compare the following texts. Which text is authentic, and which from a textbook? Which would you present to a class of beginners?¹

Text A

A: Excuse me, please. Do you know where the nearest bank is?

B: Well, the City Bank isn’t far from here. Do you know where the main post office is?

A: No, not really. I’m just passing through.

B: Well, first go down this street to the traffic light.

A: OK.

B: Then turn left and go west on Sunset Boulevard for about two blocks. The bank is on your right, just past the post office.

1 Nunan, D., *Teaching grammar in context*, **ELT Journal**, 52 (1998), p. 105.

A: All right. Thanks!

B: You're welcome.

Text B

A: How do I get to Kensington Road?

B: Well you go down Fullarton Road--

A: --what, down Old Belair, and around...?

B: Yeah. And then you go straight--

A: --past the hospital?

B: Yeah, keep going straight, past the racecourse to the roundabout.
You know the big roundabout?

A: Yeah.

B: And Kensington Road's off to the right.

A: What, off the roundabout?

B: Yeah.

A: Right.

Many teachers will present text A to beginners, for the simple reason that they can then teach the indirect question form, and then assess its uptake. That the form is not always used by people when asking for directions is, sadly, irrelevant. That the form is far too complex for a beginner to use accurately is also irrelevant. It is a pattern. It is easy to test. If you wanted to write test items for text B, you'd need a map of London.

Ironically, the fact that English is a living language and, more importantly, an international language beyond the control of any one group of language users, suggests that you need not be overly concerned by "mistakes" in textbooks. Languages change as they travel. For example, uncountable nouns commonly become countable. A Korean might say the following:

- Although it is a *hard work*, I enjoy it.
- An old man showed a *great patience*.

This same process also causes differences in the norms of so-called standard varieties of English.

- ...iceberg *lettuces* are down in price
- Some small initial fall-off in *attendances* is unavoidable.

“Lettuce” and “attendance,” as seen in these examples taken from British newspapers, can be countable in Standard British English, but are uncountable in Standard U.S. English.²

You might not want to hear a student say something like the following:

- My teacher like it when I use a subordinate clause correctly.

In fact, you might want to call attention to that absent morpheme '-s': “She *like* it?” But if a speaker at an international conference in Karachi, for example, used a similar construction, only a pedant would much care about that absent morpheme. After all, you probably do not want to hear that morpheme in these constructions:

- Does she like it? Did she like it?
- Would, could, should she like it?
- We suggest that she like it.

Do not imagine that the particular variety of English that you are most comfortable with is the “best” or “most correct” or “the standard.” There has never been “one English to rule them all,” no matter what the Prince of Wales might believe, and there never can be. Natural language users are too creative, and too practical, for this ever to happen.

WORKSPACE

Some schools like to “show off” their foreign instructor or give them office space that is easily accessible to students. Some instructors are fine with this, others are not. A considerate school will ask you where you would prefer to work when you’re not in the classroom.

YOUR CO-TEACHER

There may be times when you don't understand your co-teacher's motivations for his/her actions, or the motivations seem territorial, defensive, or resistant to change (even though you think your suggestions are self-evident truths: doesn't EVERYONE know that students will learn food words better if we make sandwiches in class?). A brief look at what your co-teacher may be going through and how Korean work culture affects their decision-making might help.

2 Lowenberg, P., *Assessing English proficiency in the expanding circle*, *World Englishes*, (???) p. 21.

Before beginning a discussion about culture, it is important to note that culture has no laws, only tendencies, and some people adopt their culture's tendencies more than others. Of the ones who don't march to the beat of the cultural drum, failures are often shunned as deviant or stupid, and successes are often lauded as visionary or brilliant. What are presented in this section are guidelines about Korean tendencies toward thought and action, not hard-and-fast rules for how all Koreans behave or how the Korean mind always operates. Bear in mind that there are few absolutes in cultural analysis.

First of all, one significant difference between Korean and Western work culture is that in the West, informing your boss of a problem you had and how you solved it, demonstrates that you are competent. In Korean culture, this is not necessarily so. If you report to a Korean boss that you've been having trouble with one of your students, and you described an intervention that has reduced the trouble, a Korean boss may think "Why does this worker have these problems? I don't hear about problems from the other workers." This kind of work culture means that you manage problems yourself and do not report them upwards. Reporting a problem to your superior is admitting you have a problem, which implies that you are not competent. In a casual conversation about Korean work culture with a director of a government center in Seoul, I was told "The worst time of day for a Korean manager is right before it is time to go home. This is the time when workers who have been trying all day to contain problems that are beyond their abilities will report them to their bosses, admitting that they couldn't solve the problems themselves."

Add to this concept the idea that one is held responsible for changes and new ideas that go poorly. I don't mean that a Korean teacher may be formally disciplined when parents complain about a new activity that she is conducting, but that the boss (and coworkers) may think badly of her. This is something that all Koreans are aware of. Making a change, or doing something new, is "sticking your neck out," because your professional reputation is affected by the outcome. For this reason, Koreans often will agree in private that a suggestion is a good idea, but will only publicly throw their support behind a sure thing: an idea that they think can't possibly go wrong.

Keeping in mind these cultural considerations, imagine that you are a Korean teacher. This is not a two-year gig for you. This is

your career. You were born in this town, were a student in this town, and expect to work your entire career in this town's school system. You have been assigned a Western co-teacher. You are explicitly charged with the following responsibilities: (1) make sure he understands his duties; (2) help him understand our students and our culture; (3) assist him with lessons in the classroom; and (4) be a liaison between him and school management. You are also implicitly expected to do the following: (5) ensure that he does his job properly; (6) ensure that he has no problems or issues; (7) ensure he doesn't do anything that will harm the school's reputation or upset the parents. What are the consequences of failure to meet any of these duties? You'll look bad. If you look bad often enough, that may harm your chances for promotion, advancement, or cause special opportunities to be offered to others, instead of you. It isn't realistic that you can control all of these things, yet that's the way things stand.

Now Garrett, the new foreign teacher, has a master's degree in TESL, and he seems to know a better way to do just about everything in the classroom. If you follow even half of his suggestions, you'll be teaching in a very different style than all the other teachers. Management won't like it. Parents won't like it ("What do you mean you're only teaching my son 30 new words per week? All the other teachers teach 50 per week!") You tell Garrett that you don't think his suggestions will work. "But why?" he asks. "The Communicative Language Approach is exactly what the advanced seniors need. All the TESL literature for the past 40 years says that grammar-translation is the least efficient technique. I can show the principal hard research." You say that it doesn't matter, but you have a hard time explaining why, because all the cultural factors that come into play are things you know intuitively, so they are difficult to define.

Of course, not every problem is because of cultural differences. Some really are about personality or temperament, however, try to give your co-teacher the benefit of the doubt, at least in the beginning. The reason she gets testy about something may come from the confluence of her culture and her work environment; it may just be because she doesn't like you, because you make her life stressful due to the pressures exerted upon her (by the school) as your co-teacher; it may be because you unwittingly approach professional or interpersonal conflict in a way that Koreans have a hard time with;

or it may simply be because either you or your co-teacher is inflexible, unwilling to see the other side, or hard to get along with. You'll be happier in the long run if you can gain some understanding of your co-teacher. Have him or her read this article and tell you what he or she thinks: maybe he or she thinks some parts are exactly right, and/or other parts are utter nonsense. Either way, you'll have a better understanding of what makes your co-teacher tick.

TEN RULES FOR CO-TEACHING

1. Do NOT correct a teacher in front of students. Ever. If you believe that a particular language item is wrong or is being taught incorrectly, discuss it with the teacher after class. They can always revisit and revise the item in a future lesson.
2. Do NOT trash the textbook in front of students. It is no secret that the national curriculum is inadequate, misguided, and wretchedly dull. Teachers must deliver it.
3. Unless you are a radical egalitarian, DO use a title, either Ms./Mr. or *seonsaengnim*.
4. DO listen carefully to suggestions from other teachers. Chances are very good that they know the students better than you do.
5. DO allow students to “code-switch” or use some Korean, as long as they remain on task. Research shows that “externalizing” mental processes—working through a problem out loud—in collaboration with others spurs cognitive/linguistic development.
6. DO involve your co-teachers in lessons. DO encourage them to involve you as well. You should be more than a live supplement to the CD-ROM.
7. Do NOT feel you must place your hand over your heart when the Korean national anthem is sung at assemblies. Simply standing silently is polite.
8. Do NOT participate in the physical or verbal abuse of a student. Record names, times and places for particularly violent abuse, in case police or parents later become involved. Do your documentation as soon as possible after the incident.
9. At dinner-meetings, do NOT feel obliged to accept soju from the vice-principal or anyone else, unless you want soju. A polite refusal should offend no one.

10. DO have fun. If you're not enjoying a lesson, it is safe to assume that students aren't enjoying it either.

WHY WE HAVE TROUBLE COMMUNICATING WITH KOREANS: HIGH CONTEXT AND LOW CONTEXT SOCIOLINGUISTIC DIFFERENCES

In Korean, much unspoken information is derived from context. When a Korean says "Where are you going?" to another Korean, the literal translation is "Where going?" and the subject is assumed to be "you" from the context: there is only one person speaking to another, so whom else could it be? If there were three people together, and one person abruptly walked away, the same question "Where going?" would mean "Where is he going?" and everyone would understand it to mean that, from the context: there is only one person whose destination is in question, therefore he must be the subject of the question.

This is a simple example of what Hall calls a "high context" language.³ In a high context language, the actual words may not contain the entire message, *yet the expectation is that the entire message has been understood*. Because of this, Koreans won't commonly correct you nor explain things to you, because you are assumed to know what everyone else knows. Park notes:

Since Koreans think that they are close to each other in terms of what they have experienced or can share, they are reluctant to jot down what does or does not have to be done. On the other hand, the English discourse using a low context culture tends to be expressive because less information is assumed to be shared across ethnocultural boundaries. Thus, speakers of English at large need to provide detailed information as a common underlying bond for communication to be effective."⁴

A problem between a Korean school and one of their English instructors is an excellent illustration of this difference. When the

3 Hall, E.T., *Beyond Culture*, New York: Anchor Books, 1997

4 Park, M.S., *Communication Styles in Two Different Cultures: Korean and American*, Seoul: Han Shin Publishing, 1997, p. 24.

author of this article was employed at a private English academy (hakwon) the branch manager hired a new native English instructor from the United States. He sent his paperwork over and the manager sent it to immigration. Eventually immigration sent his visa issuance number, and our manager informed him of it through email. However, the manager neglected to tell him that he now had to take that number back to the Korean consulate where they will issue his visa. He flew to Korea and started work. When the hakwon took him to immigration to get his Certificate of Alien Registration, he was asked for his visa, and he pulled out the visa issuance number he was given. Upon inspection of his passport, it was learned that he entered Korea on a three month tourist visa!

Hakwon management blamed him for the mistake; he should have known that one must get their visa issued before coming to Korea. His defense was "How was I supposed to know if you didn't tell me?" The American, low-context language expectation was that the person or entity who had all the knowledge would impart all of it to the person whose knowledge was incomplete. After all, the hakwon had hired other foreign teachers and understood the process. From a Western perspective, it was clearly the hakwon's responsibility to make sure a new teacher had all the necessary information to process their visa.

When the American said "How was I supposed to know if you didn't tell me?" the response from management was "How are we supposed to know what you do and don't know? We can't tell you everything. Did we need to tell you to get to the airport a couple hours before your flight? No. Did we need to tell you that you have to go to the ticketing counter before going to your gate? No. You already knew these things and we didn't have to inform you. So how should we know that you didn't know what to do with your visa number?"

As he had been technically teaching illegally, he had to immediately take a trip to Japan to get a teaching visa, and the hakwon made him pay for the trip, because it was "his fault." When he requested a meeting with the owner, branch manager, and foreign manager to explain his position and protest having to pay for the trip (which they were deducting from his pay), he was nearly fired. The owner said "I think someone who doesn't know how to secure a teaching visa is not qualified to do this job."

According to Kim, in Korea, "it is indeed perceived by the listener as an insult, violation, or intrusion into his personal space for the speaker/writer to provide detailed information beyond what is actually required."⁵ Clearly, the entire problem revolved around the interaction between a high-context culture (Korean) and a low-context culture (American). The low context culture assumed that all necessary information would be transmitted in the message. The high context culture assumed that the other person already knew what needed to be done, or would ask the right questions or do the research to find out what needed to be done. The take-home message here: be careful.

The high-context/low-context difference can also be seen when trying to convey information through an interpreter. Often, a foreigner from a low-context culture will say "Okay, please translate exactly what I'm saying." Immediately the Korean who is translating is in a difficult situation, because in order to be clear (what would be considered "clear" in a low-context culture) the foreigner starts at the beginning, which may cover information that the receiver already knows. So an exchange like the following may take place:

Foreigner (to apartment maintenance man, through a translator):

Two days ago, my hot water stopped working, so I showed you and asked you to fix it. You said that the hot water would be on in a couple hours, but it wasn't, and then I couldn't find you again to show you. Then yesterday I finally found you and told you that the hot water was still not working, and you told me that it would be on by four o'clock. Then it wasn't on by four o'clock. It still isn't on. What's going on?

Translator (in Korean, to maintenance man):

Literally: Water still not working. *Meaning:*
Her hot water still isn't working.

Foreigner (to translator):

I asked you to translate exactly. That was

pretty short.

Translator, nodding to foreigner:

Yes, yes, he understands everything.

The foreigner is now exasperated because she is not able to communicate in the way she is accustomed. Her manner of communicating (going through the entire situation from the beginning to the present) shows the listener that she has been inconvenienced and that she is not happy about it. However, in a high-context culture, this is assumed: the maintenance man knows that she first complained two days ago and now that he has been informed that her hot water is still not working, he knows that she's been inconvenienced without having to be told. In his culture, to tell him what he obviously already knows is somewhat rude. The translator, being Korean, knows this, and is trying to balance the foreigner's needs with the maintenance man's cultural needs.

The take-home message here is: be careful. The fundamental assumptions which underpin how you communicate are different from the people living all around you. Know that all human behavior is purposeful (i.e., everyone has a reason for everything they do). If you see something you don't understand or doesn't appear to make sense, it in fact makes sense to the person performing the action, but their fundamental assumptions are different from yours. When I see a Korean do or say something that would appear irrational, ill-advised, or even stupid if done in America, I don't think "That's stupid." Instead, I usually think "There is obviously something I don't understand about what's happening here," because I recognize that my fundamental assumptions are likely different. Conversely, I recognize that my communications may not always be received the way I intend them, so if I have something important to say, or want to say something about a subject that may be delicate, I usually seek guidance from a close Korean friend about the best way to approach saying it. A new teacher to Korea may not yet have a "sounding board" for such situations, however, so exercise caution if that is the case for you.

THE KOREAN LEARNER OF ENGLISH:

ENGLISH-KOREAN CROSS-LINGUISTIC

CHALLENGES

This section seeks to present some of the communication difficulties faced by Koreans learning English, through exploration of some of the differences between the Korean and English languages.

PHONOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES

Phonology is the study of sound as the human vocal apparatus produces it. The sound system of English is so different from the sound system of Korean that native Koreans learning English encounter a multitude of phonological snares. English has a number of sounds that do not exist in Korean, including:

Sound	Common Substitution
f	Korean learners of English tend to start with a "p" and force air between their lips (as an interlabial fricative, for those of you who have studied phonology). If you close your eyes, and listen to the sound produced, it sounds almost identical to an f. However, problems arise when they pair the substitute sound with other consonants, as in "free," which sounds markedly different when pronounced using the common "f" substitution discussed here. Other times they may pronounce an "f" as an unmodified "p," so that the word "coffee" comes out as "coppee."
v	Korean learner of English often substitute a "b" sound so that Vancouver comes out as "Bancouber."
θ (<i>th</i> as in "third")	"S" is often substituted so that "think" comes out as "sink."
ð (<i>th</i> as in "the")	"D" is often substituted so that "this" comes out as "dis."

3 (zh as in vision) and z	"Z" and "3" are both often pronounced as a vague "j" (dʒ) sound, so that "zip" comes out sounding like "jip" and "pizza" like "pija."
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The branch of phonology that deals with the restrictions on possible phonetic combinations is called phonotactics. Korean phonotactical rules allow for words to end only in vowels or a select few consonants. As a result, when speaking English, Korean learners of English have a tendency to add a vowel to an English word that ends in a consonant that could not occur at the end of a Korean word; for example, the plural "s" occurs frequently in English. but no words end with the "s" sound in Korean. This is why you may hear Korean learners of English say "Englishee," and "shirtsuh," instead of "English" and "shirts." According to Park Myung-seok of Dankook University, "Such superfluous vowels can be removed by practicing letting the final consonant just fade away, rather than making it end abruptly."⁶

Many of these substitutions are reinforced by standard Korean pronunciation of foreign names; for example, the Hangul spelling of Vancouver is 밴쿠버 (Baenkubeo). Also, Korean-English interlanguage, commonly called "Konglish," routinely makes substitutions like the ones described in the above table. As a result, many of the substitutions have been fossilized (deeply ingrained over time) and must be "unlearned," so that new pronunciation habits can be developed.⁷

HOMOLOGOUS PAIRS

Teaching students homologous pairs may greatly help their understanding of English pronunciation. Two sounds are said to be homologous when the mouth organs are moved exactly the same way to make both sounds, the only difference being that the voice is used

<i>Homologous Pairs in English and Korean</i>	
Unvoiced	Voiced
K	G
P	B
CH	J
6 Park, M.S., p. 4.	7 Park, M.S., pp. 3-7.
F	V
S	Z
SH	ZH

for one, and the other is made without use of the voice. A voiced sound cannot be properly reproduced without using one's voice, and an unvoiced sound cannot be properly reproduced if one's voice is used. One pair that occurs in

both English and Korean is p/b and ㅍ/ㅂ. P is voiceless, while b is voiced.

Both English and Korean have a number of homologous pairs, so the concept can be taught first with native Korean sounds, before being applied to English sounds. In the table to the left, you can see the homologous pairs identified in both Korean and English. You should observe that the first four pairs occur in both English and Korean, while the next pair occurs exclusively in English (f/v). The last two pairs are special: the unvoiced sounds occur in both Korean and English, but the voiced sounds occur exclusively in English. This means the students already know how to properly place their vocal organs to accurately reproduce the "z" and "zh" sounds; the teacher merely needs to train them to make an "s" or an "sh" sound while engaging their voice, and good "z" and "zh" sounds will emerge. Similarly, if a teacher can train students to make a proper "f" sound, teaching "v" is just "f while using one's voice."

After learning these concepts and proper pronunciation of these sounds, you may find your Korean students use the correct pair, but still the wrong sound. "In Korean, voiced consonants are only positional variants of corresponding voiceless ones: a consonant is voiced when it comes between other voiced sounds...a Korean speaker tends to use a voiced consonant instead of a correct voiceless one between between voiced sounds; for example, 'Pick up' is often pronounced like 'pig up.'" The source of this error is the Korean habit of using voiced consonants in some positions and unvoiced ones in others.⁸

There are other consonant situations that learners of English often have trouble with, such as p, t, and k when they occur at the end of a word (referred to as unvoiced stops). The "p" in stop phonetically different from the "p" in "park," for example. This is confusing to Korean learners of English. One of the most difficult is "t," which sounds different in the words "ten" and "city." If you listen to many American English speakers say "writing," it sounds like "riding." Thus, it is common to see Korean learners of English substituting a "d" for the "t" in words like "water."

Consonant clusters (like glimpsed, as the "e" is silent, or three-twelfths) are also problematic, as Korean phonotactic rules don't allow for sounds that begin to approach the pronunciation complexity of *f* followed by *θ* followed by *s* without intermediary vowels as occurs in the aforementioned *twelfths*. To mitigate consonant clusters, Korean learners of English are likely to insert superfluous vowels, for example pronouncing the "e" in "published" (Park, 1997). Professor Park notes that it is extremely difficult for Korean speakers to read the following stanza at normal speed:

Amidst the mists and coldest frosts
With stoutest wrists and loudest boasts
He thrusts his fists against the posts
And still insists he sees the ghosts.

English vowels also present difficulty to Korean learners of English. Koreans have trouble with English diphthongs. A diphthong (also known as a gliding vowel) is a vowel that experiences a change in quality during its pronunciation, such as the word *eye*. *Eye* begins with [a] (as in "father") and ends with [i] (as in "be") with the tongue gliding smoothly from the [a] to the [i]. These kind of sounds do not exist in Korean, so Korean learners of English commonly either leave out the glide or pronounce the diphthong as two distinct vowels. In fact, when a foreign word containing the [ai] diphthong is written in Hangul, it is written as *아ㅣ이*: two distinct vowels. Korean learners of English "cannot hear this glide and so cannot tell the difference between the vowel [i] as in *sit* and the diphthong [iy] as in *"seat"* and in reproducing both [i] and [iy] he tends to use the Korean [i] (*ㅣ*) which gives an in-between effect. A native speaker of English cannot tell whether the Korean speaker has said "it," or "eat." This is just one example of several difficulties Korean learners of English have with English vowels.

COMMUNICATIVE DIFFERENCES: AN EXAMPLE

Korean students have a very different classroom culture than their Western counterparts. In Korean culture, when a teacher asks a student a question, the student is expected to give the answer, and if the student cannot give the answer, feels somewhat ashamed that they failed to live up to the teacher's expectations. After all, the teacher chose them to relay a piece of information to the whole class. Other

students who know the answer to the question may feel superior in that moment, and the student who can't answer the question knows this, hence contributing to that feeling of shame. Therefore, when the teacher asks a question and the student doesn't know the answer, the student will avoid eye contact and be silent. The teacher, recognizing that the student doesn't know the answer, will ask another student, thereby taking the focus off of the first student.

However, in Western culture, not having the answer to a question doesn't carry so much stigma. A student asked a question to which he or she doesn't know the answer, will simply say "I don't know" and the teacher will likely ask someone else. Problems can arise when you put a Western teacher in front of Korean students. The teacher will ask a student a question, such as "What is this?" The student, not knowing the answer, will study their book (or their desk) intently and not respond. The Western teacher often thinks the student either didn't hear or didn't understand the question, and so they ask again "What is this?" The student again fails to respond, now highly embarrassed. The teacher may ask a third time, because in Western culture, the student may be perceived as ignoring the teacher, which is disrespectful. This teacher and student are locked into a vicious spiral, with the teacher demanding an answer so that he/she can be respected, and the student declining to answer so that he/she is not humiliated. The Korean student may be thinking "Everyone in the room knows I don't know, so why force me to acknowledge my ignorance out loud?"

DIFFERENTIAL USE OF VOCABULARY BY LANGUAGE

Does "see" mean the same thing in English as it does in Korean? You would think so, but the correct answer is "sometimes." Used as "to view," the meaning of the Korean word *boda* (보다) and its English equivalent "to see," are the same. However, in Korean, one can not literally say "I'd like to see the manager," as "see" in Korean only means "view." In English, the context tells the listener that in fact you want to speak with the manager, but in Korean "see" is not used in this manner. You need to say "I want to talk to the manager." These kinds of language-transfer issues work both ways, so be mindful of this when you speak.

In addition to using words in ways Koreans would not use them in their own language, native speakers of English use *a ton* of idioms and metaphors when they speak, often more than they realize. An idiom is any expression where two words, when used together, have a different meaning than they have when used separately. For example, a Korean learner of English learns the word “up,” which is a direction toward an elevated position. But “shut up” doesn't mean to close something above you; “beat up” doesn't mean to hit something above you, and “mess up” doesn't mean to make something untidy above you. These are just a few; we have break up, crack up, trip up, jack up, etc. Idioms are extremely confusing to someone trying to learn to speak English. If one understands Latin roots, prefixes and suffixes, and is faced with a word never before seen, one may be able to decipher the meaning. However, there is no intuitive mechanism to decipher the meaning of an idiom, no guide you can give your students which will be of general use when learning them; idioms must be memorized.

Native speakers of English, called upon to teach English as a Second or Foreign Language, must pay close attention to their choice of words, as idiomatic expressions occur so naturally and automatically in their speech that they may not realize their students have no idea what they are saying. For example, take this sentence:

Marcy had cold feet, so she called off the wedding.

Most native speakers would recognize right away that “cold feet” is an idiom. However, did you notice that “called off” is an idiom as well? When teaching beginning and intermediate students, take care to speak plainly, and use idioms deliberately, not unconsciously.

PLANNING LANGUAGE LESSONS

Apparently, there are teachers who are able to walk into any classroom and improvise learning activities that are interesting, meaningful and memorable for their students. Such an ability (if it really exists) would clearly require years or even decades of classroom experience. As for us lesser beings, we will need to think about what we want our students to accomplish in the time they spend with us.

If you're new to teaching English, and you find yourself 'winging it' on a regular basis, then you're doing a serious disservice

to your students. At bare minimum, when you walk into the classroom, you need to at least have a goal in mind for that lesson, meaning that you have a particular learning objective that you want the students to achieve. Are you planning on improving pronunciation of a particular English sound? Do you want students to work on intonation when asking questions? Decide on a goal. Why? Because while exposing students to a native English speaker who doesn't have a clear idea of what he's teaching or how he's teaching it is better than sitting them in front of an English-language TV show and expecting them to learn speaking skills, it is just barely better.

Better than just having a learning objective in mind is having an idea as to what methods we want to use to achieve the objective. If it's writing, which genre will they write? Have they encountered enough examples of the genre? How will they share their work, and how will you provide feedback? If it's speaking, what roles will they play, or what topics will they discuss? How will you make sure that everyone is participating? If you want to include a language focus, at what stage will you introduce (or revise) it?

Your students will expect you to have a plan that is carefully grounded in their needs and interests. They're counting on you! You don't have to be a slave to the plan, of course. You should take advantage of learning opportunities as they arise--and if you've established a good rapport with your students, you may find that such opportunities appear frequently.

Writing a lesson plan, even if it is a brief sketch, allows you to imagine the lesson before it happens. By taking the time to plan beforehand, you are better able to:

- think critically about your material and ways of using it effectively;
- organize learning activities and think ahead about grouping;
- anticipate potential problems and consider strategies for working with them; and
- make the most of the limited time that your students are exposed to live, interactive English.

There are many lesson plan models. Here is one possible format:

Description

- Number and level of students:
- Length of class:
- Textbook:
- Work done in previous class:

Pre-planning

- Skills:
- Grouping:
- Supplementing the textbook:

Learning

By the end of the lesson, students should be able to ...

Objectives:

Materials and Equipment:

Activities, Timing and Directions:

Name of Activity	Time	Directions

Assigned Work:

Comments:

Evaluation:

Let's look at some of the features of a typical lesson plan.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

While objectives sometimes take “detours” as a lesson progresses, you should have a clear idea of what your objectives are: what, specifically, learners should be able to do better, understand, and care about as a consequence of their participation in that particular lesson. Here are some examples:

- By the end of the lesson, students should be able to ask for directions to a post office.
- By the end of the lesson, students should be able to identify the features of a procedural recount.
- By the end of the lesson, students should be able to explain some of the purposes of The War on Terror.

ACTIVITIES

WARM UP

Every good lesson begins with a brief warm up. You do not need to lead the warm up activity yourself—in fact, it's best to use an activity that allows everyone to contribute, such as a class survey done in pairs. The warm up should be related to the lesson content and objectives in some way.

Here are some common warm up activities:

Brainstorm - This can be done in groups or whole class. You can sneak a bit of vocabulary that students will need later into this activity.

Describe the picture - Show a picture and have learners take turns saying something about it. Beginners can make simple observations like "three people" while advanced students might invent a story that goes with the picture. If they aren't allowed to repeat what someone else has said, they will pay attention when each person speaks.

Class survey - Here students collect information from as many students as possible. They should note responses and report their findings to a group or the class.

Question of the day - Ask one or two simple questions. Have students write a response then share it with a group or the class.

Sing a song - You may not have much of a singing voice, but singing along with others is good fun in any language.

Twenty questions - One player is chosen to be the *answerer*. That person chooses a person, place or thing but does not reveal this to the others. All the other players are *questioners*. They each take turns asking a question which can be answered with a simple "Yes" or "No." This can be an engaging way to introduce a character or topic.

So your students have warmed up to the lesson; what comes next? If you want to do an extended listening activity, then you'll probably need a **pre-listening** activity. If you want to do an extended reading activity, then you'll want—you guessed it—a **pre-reading activity**. The activities outlined below will help your students get the most out of the texts they hear and read.

PRE-LISTENING

Why do a pre-listening activity? Outside the classroom, it isn't often that we listen to something without having some idea of what we are going to hear. When we're listening to an interview with a famous person, for example, we usually know something about that person already. A waiter knows the menu from which a guest is choosing their food.

In a second language, listening is not an easy skill to develop – we're dealing with unfamiliar sounds, identifying these sounds as words, and linking these words together into thought structures, all at once. This is even more difficult if we do not know the topic under discussion, or who is speaking to whom. So, simply asking the students to listen to something and answer some questions is a little unfair, and makes developing listening skills much harder.

Many students are anxious about listening, and can be discouraged when they listen to something but feel that they understand very little. It is also harder to concentrate on listening if you have little interest in a topic or situation. Pre-listening activities can handle all of these issues: they can *generate interest*, *build confidence* and *facilitate comprehension*.

AIMS AND EXAMPLES OF *PRE-LISTENING* ACTIVITIES

Establishing the context - This is the most important thing to do—even formal proficiency tests give an idea about who is speaking, where and why. In everyday life we normally have some idea of the context of something we are listening to.

Generating interest - Motivating students is obviously a key task. If they are going to do a listening about sports, looking at some dramatic pictures of sports players or events will raise their interest or remind them of why they (hopefully) enjoy sports. *Personalization activities* are very important here. A pair-work discussion about the sports they play or watch, and why, will bring them into the topic, and make them more willing to listen.

Activating schemata or current knowledge - “We are going to listen to a news report on China’s recent space flight.” This will set the context, but if you then go straight into the listening, students will have had no time to *transfer* or *activate* existing knowledge (schemata) which may have been learned in Korean. What do they know about China’s space program? What were the astronauts doing? What problems did they face? Why is the flight important? What other countries have active space programs and why?

Acquiring knowledge - Students may have limited knowledge of a topic, so providing this will build their confidence for dealing with a listening. This could be done by giving a related text to read, or, a little more fun, a quiz.

Activating language items - Activating schemata is important, but so is activating the language that may be used in the listening. Knowledge-based activities can serve this purpose, but there are other things that can be done. For example, if students are going to listen to a dialog between a parent and a teenager who wants to stay overnight at a friend’s, why not have your students role play the situation before listening. They can brainstorm language beforehand, and then perform the scene. When students have time to think about the language needs of a situation, they are better prepared for a listening activity.

Predicting - Once we know the context for something, we are able to predict possible content. Try giving students a choice of things that

they might (or might not) expect to hear, and ask them to choose items they think will be mentioned.

Pre-learning vocabulary - Large numbers of unknown words can make a listening impossible, even if students are listening for “gist.” Their confidence is certainly affected. Select some vocabulary items for students to learn before the listening, perhaps by matching spoken words to definitions, followed by a simple practice activity such as a cloze (see page 37).

Your choice of pre-listening activity allows you to rank the main listening activity for different ability levels. If you have a class who are generally struggling with listening work, then they will benefit from more extensive pre-listening work. If you wish to make the listening demanding, you could simply do work on establishing context. Thus, the same listening text can provide work for different groups of learners.

Encouraging your students to bring their own knowledge and skills to their listening work can only help them. These skills are as much a part of listening as understanding pronunciation or listening for details.

PRE-READING

The principles that apply to effective pre-listening activities also apply to pre-reading activities. Pre-reading activities are sometimes called *enabling activities*, because they provide a students with background that organizes the activity and helps them comprehend the material. These experiences involve understanding the purpose (or purposes) for reading and building a knowledge base necessary to deal with the content and structure of the text. Good pre-reading activities elicit prior knowledge, develop schemata, and focus attention.

AIMS AND EXAMPLES OF PRE-READING ACTIVITIES

Accessing current knowledge. Also referred to as *activating schemata*, these activities should prompt students to “re-assemble” what they already know about the subject of the text they’re going to read. “Alex the monkey is going to tell us about the rainforest that he lives in. Ready? Let’s read!” won’t be very helpful. What do students know about rainforests? How did they learn this? What are some things that make rainforests interesting, special and unique? Most rainforests are

under threat. Why? Who works to protect rainforests? What do these people do?

Writing your way into reading - With this activity, students write about their experiences related to the topic. When planned carefully, this is an effective way to personalize the material that they will read. It can bring them closer to the text: if students are imagining participating in some way with the text, it becomes more real (and much more interesting) for them.

Asking questions based on the title or headline - This is self-explanatory and involves asking questions that “follow up” student responses. If an image accompanies the title, you could cover the title and ask students to guess it based on the image.

Semantic mapping - Semantics refers, basically, to the structuring of meaning. Semantic mapping is a strategy used to represent concepts graphically. The majority of learners are “visual” learners, and mapping assists these learners in particular. Semantic maps show the relations or ideas that make up a concept. There are a number of relationships between a concept and the knowledge that students associate with the concept.

For any concept there are at least these three types of associations:

- associations of class—the order of things the concept falls into;
- associations of property—the attributes that define the concept; and
- associations of example—exemplars of the concept.

A semantic map is created by students, with your guidance. Here is a straightforward example:

You: Tell me some things that you think of when you hear the word “transportation.”

Students: Cars. Bicycle. Bus. Running?

You: (listing words on board) Okay you've got some good examples here. Where do people use bicycles and buses?

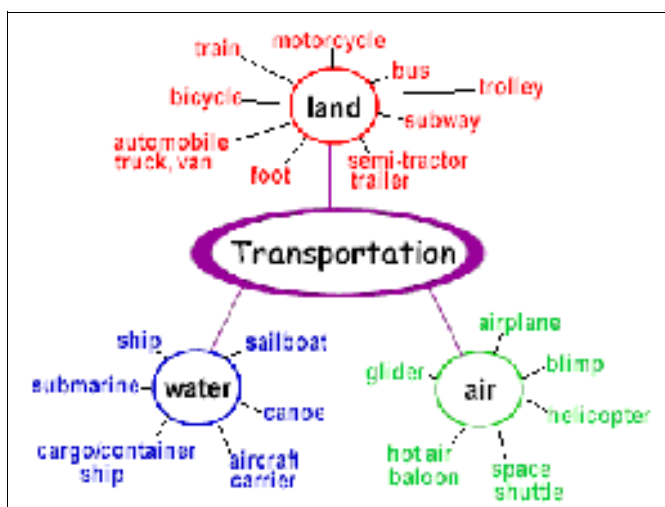
Students: The street! School! River! (laughter)

You: Well it might be difficult to ride a bicycle in a river. What's an easier way to travel in water?

Students: Boats. Canoes.

You: Right so we have water and “the street,” no streets in water, streets are on land. We move in water, on land, where else?

In a conversation like this, it is almost inevitable that class, properties and examples will emerge. Transportation means the movement of people and objects. Transportation is exemplified by means of transport such as ships and trains. One property of transportation is the idea of medium, moving *through* or *over* something—land, water or air. As the conversation proceeds, other ideas of these sorts of relations might emerge and can then be rearranged on the board into a proper semantic map:



Source: www.kidbibs.com

Making predictions based on previewing - Predicting is inherently motivating. Again, try giving students a choice of things that they might (or might not) expect to read, and ask them to choose language items they think will be mentioned. If the text is a type of narrative, ask students to predict the problem(s) that the protagonist(s) will encounter.

Identifying the text type or genre - If your students are familiar with the framework and features of common text types, then this will assist them in reading comprehension (as well as in their own writing). It is never too early to teach text type. The most common text types are:

- recounts (e.g. journal entries, news articles)

- information reports (e.g. encyclopedia articles)
- expositions (e.g. opinion essays, advertisements)
- explanations (e.g. science articles)
- narratives (e.g. short fiction)
- procedure (e.g. recipes, game instructions)

Skimming for general idea - Once a student successfully identifies the “main idea” of a text, this can guide her as she reads. Skimming entails: (1) reading the title, subtitles and headings; (2) looking at illustrations; (3) reading the first and last sentence of each paragraph; (4) letting your eyes skim over the text, taking in key words; and (5) continuing to think about the meaning of the text.

Reading the introduction and conclusion - This activity isn’t much fun if it is used with a narrative, but it can be a very useful strategy when reading an exposition.

Writing a summary of the article based on previewing - This activity combines prediction with identification of main idea and key words.

WHILE LISTENING/READING

Now that your students have completed their *pre-* activity, it’s time to deliver the goods. So do you simply click “play?” Language teachers disagree on the usefulness of assigning specific tasks for students to complete as they listen or read. I believe that at least for the initial listen, students don’t want too many distractions. Reading is of course another matter, as students can pause and attend to reading tasks.

This brings us to an important question: should reading be done aloud or silently? Some language teachers argue that “silence kills a classroom.” While this is obviously the case for speaking- and listening-oriented activities, silent reading is the best way to involve all your students. It allows them to read for comprehension, at their own pace. When a student reads out loud, she focuses on pronunciation, stress and rhythm rather than on what she is reading really means to her. And while one student reads, the rest do nothing.

POST-LISTENING AND POST-READING ACTIVITIES

Now that your students’ are hopped up with new and exciting information, what should they do with it? Employ it, or it will not be retained: speak it, write it, or lose it!

In a classic “communicative” lesson, two activities follow the main reading or listening activity: the first activity provides guided practice in the use of new language items and ideas, while the second allows an opportunity for independent use of these items. Great! In a 90 or 120 minute lesson with adult learners, there is ample time for a warm up, a pre-reading or listening activity, the main reading or listening activity, two post-reading or listening activities, and a wrap up. For those of us working with large groups of younger learners for 45 or 50 minutes, however, this is unrealistic, no matter how effective your classroom management skills. You have time for one good activity following the main reading or listening activity. How do you make the most of it?

LEARNING AS PARTICIPATION

Time for a bit of theory. For tool-using social beings like us, learning happens through participation in the world around us. Language is of course the ultimate tool—in fact, language itself largely constructs the world around us. More accurately, language constructs the world within us. I don’t mean to be metaphysical here. All I want to say is that the brain uses language to organize increasingly sophisticated schemata or thought structures to explain the world of objects and events that we encounter, that these objects and events are often people and social situations, and that learning cannot happen without them. This makes sense, and yet a great deal of language teaching practice—what teachers do—fails to appreciate what this means for language learning.

There are at least two competing (but not incommensurable) metaphors for the goal of language education: that of acquisition, and that of participation. We’re all familiar with the first metaphor, where language is seen as an evolving set of words and social practices (these are usually called “pragmatics”). But the more powerful metaphor for language learning is the one of participation: a proficient language user is someone who participates in language situations effectively.

This means much more than the tired functionalism of some textbooks. A proficient language user does more than “invite,” “offer advice” and so forth. A proficient language user participates meaningfully in communities—people and social situations—where

language is used. More, students learn through this participation. Learning could not happen without it. Participation is both the goal and the process of language learning.

What your students need, then, are activities or classroom experiences that focus not on the transfer of knowledge from teacher to student as if through an Ethernet cable, but on opportunities to participate with and through language. These opportunities will necessarily promote learner autonomy, responsibility, and contribution (ARC).

Autonomy: you can and must provide the scaffolding, but learning happens when students themselves do the constructing. Autonomy means more than “learning how to learn,” though this is an important element. Autonomy is promoted when student experiences, cultures and language are considered necessary aspects of classroom participation.

Participation is more tangible, “really real,” when students accept *responsibility* both for their own learning as well as the learning of others. Students must be responsible to both their peers and to themselves in responding to the needs of their community. Responsibility requires developing an understanding of what these needs are (purpose) as well as how best to meet them (action).

Contribution shapes classroom practice in ways that include students’ “lived experiences.” Contributions should not be made only to you, the teacher, but to the community, i.e. their peers. Student contributions must be valued by others, which requires the social evaluation of contributions. It is extremely important, then, that you work to build an environment of trust, care and support in the classroom.

ARC IN PRACTICE

I. COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remember, no activity is right for every classroom situation. Developing ARC requires creativity in lesson design. However, you may find cooperative learning activities conducive to promoting ARC. Here are some of the team-learning activities developed by Spencer Kagan, with examples, where the teacher’s role is “guide on the side” rather than “sage on the stage.”

Think–Pair–Share

During the first step, individuals think silently about a question posed by the instructor. The question itself might emerge from a theme that has arisen during a class discussion. Individuals pair up during the second step and exchange thoughts. In the third step, the pairs share their responses with other pairs, other teams, or the entire class.

Example: “Our perfect school day”

Form focus: first person plural, simple present

The instructor poses one of the following questions: “What do you do in a perfect day at school?” or “What do you learn in a perfect day at school?” Students gather ideas silently for 30 seconds. In pairs, students then compare, negotiate, and co-construct ideas. Pairs could then share their ideas with the class, or with another pair (this latter is a *Think–Pair–Square*).

Autonomy: The teacher need not “approve” of content. Students could create posters that illustrate their “perfect school day” and the class could choose their favorites.

Responsibility: If students use “we,” they are responsible for compromising with their peers and achieving consensus.

Contribution: Students ideas could be delivered to the director or principal, or even to the Ministry of Education.

Jigsaw

Groups with 4-6 students are set up. Each group member is assigned some unique material to learn and then to teach to his group members. To help in the learning, students across the class working on the same sub-section get together to decide what is important and how to teach it. After practice in these “expert” groups, the original groups reform and students teach each other.

Example: “We can make English interesting”

Form focus: modal auxiliary “can” or “could”

The instructor assigns one of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) to every student. Students are tasked with developing ways to make that particular skill interesting to use. Students across the class working on the same skill get together to decide how their skill can be used or developed in interesting ways. Students then return to their original groups and share their ideas.

Autonomy: Ideas need not be submitted to the teacher for approval, though you could provide input as you monitor.

Responsibility: Students are responsible to both their original and their expert groups.

Contribution: Student ideas can be used in future lessons

Circle the Sage

First the teacher polls the class to see which students have a special knowledge to share. Those students (the sages) stand and spread out in the room. The teacher then has the rest of the classmates each surround a sage, with no two members of the same team going to the same sage. The sage explains what they know while the classmates listen, ask questions, and take notes. All students then return to their teams. Each in turn, explains what they learned. Because each one has gone to a different sage, they compare notes. If there is disagreement, they stand up as a team. Finally, the disagreements are aired and resolved.

Example: “Life with an older sister”

Form focus: Third-person

Here, the sages are those who live with an older sister. Questions could be asked in Korean but responses should be recorded in English (Korean-English dictionaries should be available). Sage accounts are compared in the original groups.

Autonomy: The teacher is not the source of knowledge.

Responsibility: Students are responsible to their sage and to other group members for accurate sharing of information.

Contribution: Students who might otherwise have few opportunities to contribute to English lessons can share their knowledge and experience with peers.

Team–Pair–Solo

Students do problems first as a team, then with a partner, and finally on their own. It is designed to motivate students to tackle and succeed at problems which initially are beyond their ability. It is based on a simple notion of mediated learning. Students can do more things with help (mediation) than they can do alone. By allowing them to work on problems they could not do alone, first as a team and then with a

The principal is a bulldozer. He likes his church. I hope he prays.

A 'mad lib' is a cloze activity where words are chosen before the text is read, usually with humorous effect:

1. noun: knee
2. noun: rig
3. intransitive verb: extrude

The principal is a (1). He likes his (2). I hope he (3).

Dictation

Students can contribute the topic or text, or even write the text to be dictated. *Dictoglosses*, where students write as much as they are able to recall from a text instead of writing as they listen, are also effective.

Surveys and Information Gaps

Students can be given opportunities to design and conduct their own surveys. Information gap activities provide students an incomplete set of information, where each student has some information other students do not have. Students must communicate with each other to fill in their missing information. For example, students working in pairs might be provided a bus schedule, with some destinations and times missing (but not missing from their partner's schedule). Students need to ask each other questions to fill in the blanks on their schedule, like "At 3:31, where will the bus stop?" and "What time does the bus stop at the supermarket?"

Simulations and Role Plays

Simulations simulate 'real life' situations, while in role playing students represent and experience/interpret some 'character type' known in everyday life. Students can take control of the process, product and assessment of these activities which, when facilitated carefully, will present very effective language learning opportunities.

WRAP-UPS

If you're like me, you might not allow enough time for a wrap up at the end of every lesson, but it's an important habit to develop. It gives you an opportunity to briefly review the language items that were introduced in the lesson. It also allows students to comment on the

lesson as a whole—what they appreciated as well as what they did not find very effective or interesting. Above all, a good wrap up encourages your students to feel as though they have been participating in an event worth remembering. A simple “We did this, this and this. What did you think of this? What did you learn from this?” will suffice to begin a wrap up. If the lesson was effective, your students will likely use the opportunity to express their appreciation—and if you did deliver a good lesson, then you will deserve it!

SAMPLE LESSON PLANS

Below are lesson plans that incorporate some of the activities described in this chapter. It’s always a good idea to plan activity directions carefully—any language teacher will tell you that it is not always easy to give simple, clear directions, especially when you are delivering them in English.

SAMPLE LESSON 1—WHAT’S IT LIKE?

Description:

- Number and level of students: 35 students, middle school year 2, beginner-intermediate
- Length of class: 50 minutes
- Textbook: none
- Work done in previous class: unknown

Pre-planning:

- Skills: integrated (speaking, listening, reading, writing)
- Grouping: 4-6, mixed-ability; pairs
- Supplementing the textbook: n/a

Learning Objectives:

By the end of the lesson, students should be able to better understand the experience of travel to another country, and to imagine seeing through the eyes of a traveler.

Materials and Equipment: board, chalk/marker, paper

Activities, Timing and Directions

Name of Activity	Time	Directions
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Warm Up	10	Circle the Sage: Identify students who know someone who has lived abroad. These students are the sages. Other students circle them, and ask questions either about the person who lived abroad, or their experiences.
Pre-listening	10	Think-Pair-Share: Prediction: What did the teacher experience on her first day in Korea? What did she think?
Listening	10	"Teacher's first day in Korea." A recount of your first day in the country. Tell the recount twice. After telling it once, have students compare their understanding of the recount with a partner. During the second telling, allow students to take notes while you write 6-8 language items on the board, e.g. "an endless traffic light."
Post-listening	15	With a partner, students write the teacher's recount (in the first person, if this is feasible). In each pair, one student is responsible for accurate content, while the other student is responsible for accurate form (simple past tense). This should encourage collaboration.
Wrap up	5	Add a drawing to the written recount and tape it to a wall. Students circulate in order to recognize each other's efforts. The texts can be added to student portfolios or to a class journal.

Assigned work: n/a

Comments:

- This lesson centers on a "dictogloss" activity.
- Encourage collaboration with peers throughout this lesson. Research shows very clearly that all learners, whether advanced or beginner, accomplish more when working with sympathetic peers than they do when they work alone.

Evaluation:

SAMPLE LESSON 2—WHAT DO YOU DO ON SATURDAYS?

Description

Number and level of students: 30-35, mixed-ability (low-beginner to advanced) but most high-beginner

Length of class: 40 minutes

Textbook: n/a

Work done in previous class: unknown

Pre-planning

Skills: social: collaborating, surveying; linguistic: speaking, listening, writing

Grouping: mixed-ability dyads (pairs)

Supplementing the textbook: n/a

Learning Objectives:

By the end of the lesson, students should be able to:

1. use habitual present to share (orally) their daily routines and habits
2. participate and contribute, regardless of ability level

Materials and Equipment: handout below

Activities, Timing and Directions:

Name of Activity	Time	Directions
Warm-up: What does the teacher do on Sundays?	5	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Ask “What does the teacher do on Sundays?”2. Write three Sunday routines on the board, only one of which is accurate. E.g.<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. I play golf.2. I run 10km.3. I read a book.3. Think-Pair-Share: Which routine is accurate? What does the teacher really do on Sundays?

Name of Activity	Time	Directions
<p>Pre-listening: I do this. What do you do?</p>	<p>15</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Revise days of the week. 2. Distribute handout. 3. Mime an activity for each day of the week. Students guess the activities and, in mixed-ability pairs, fill in the first row of the handout as you mime. Model the first activity, with the handout. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> On Mondays, "I watch TV." (Mime channel surfing with a remote-con.) On Tuesdays, "I play tennis." (Mime etc.) On Wednesdays, "I talk with friends." On Thursdays, "I go to a fitness center." On Fridays, "I eat in a restaurant." On Saturdays, "I see a movie." On Sundays, "I read a book." 5. Pairs report-back to confirm guesses. Write correct guesses on the board for Tuesday through Sunday. 6. Drill the verb phrases, or call-response, e.g: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> You: On Mondays, I— Students: watch TV! 7. Brainstorm other activities. Put these on the board. 8. Students now complete the second row of the handout with activities they engage in habitually. Explain that they should write seven different activities. Check comprehension then monitor to ensure that students are on-task. Scaffold where appropriate.

Name of Activity	Time	Directions
Listening: How to play	5	<p>1. Explain that the next activity is a game. The goal is to find other students who do the same activities on the same days. The winner is the student with the most “matches” (one point per name).</p> <p>2. Model the “game” with an advanced-level student. E.g.</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">You: I watch TV on Mondays. And you?</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">Student: I go to a hakwon (on Mondays). On Tuesdays, I play tennis. What about you?</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">You: On Tuesdays, I play computer games ...</p> <p>It may be necessary to ask two advanced-level students to model the “game” as well. Try to ensure that there will be a “match,” i.e., a day when both speakers do the same activity, and so can write each other’s names on the handout in the third row, in the appropriate column. You may wish to provide the models with “fixed” or fake handouts, in order to guarantee a “match.”</p> <p>Drill the language that the models use. You may wish to use flash cards if you have a number of struggling learners.</p>

Name of Activity	Time	Directions
Post-listening: And you?	10	Students play the matching game (i.e., conduct a class survey). The survey should be conducted in English. Find a fun way to penalize students who show others their handout—this is an interview (speaking/listening) activity, not a reading activity! Monitor closely. If you find an interview being conducted in L1, strike out one of the boxes on the student's handout, so that they have one less routine to find a match for.
Wrap-up: Who wins?	5	1. Report-back. Identify and verify a "winner." 2. Place the winner(s) handout(s) in the Class Journal, if one is kept.

Assigned work: None

Comments:

- This is a PPP (Present, Practice, Produce) lesson.
- Be sure to ask lots of comprehension questions—nominate for these if you know your students' names or have a reliable class list.
- The post-listening activity is somewhat complex, so be careful with your modeling and directions. Go slow.

Future lessons. The habitual (or timeless) present is also used for schedules. In the next lesson, students could do an information gap simulation, where they are given a time and must talk to various agents (plane, train, taxi, boat) in order to find the fastest route to a particular destination.

Or students could conduct another survey, this time with a more complex question form: "What do you do on Saturdays?" The lesson could have an explicit research focus, with formal predictions made before the survey is conducted, e.g. "I think that 5 students

play computer games on Friday." Or, a survey activity could require use of the third person singular, e.g. students could compile lists of students who enjoy the same activity: Seok-jo plays soccer/likes to play soccer. Seong-in eats mandu/likes to eat mandu. And so on.

A handout follows, entitled *What We Do*. Due to the size limitations imposed by this book, it cannot be reproduced here. You may find it online at http://atek.or.kr/documents/pdfs/I_watch_TV.pdf

SAMPLE LESSON 3—WOMYN IN KOREA

For a more elaborate lesson plan, suitable for a lesson with university or adult learners, see *Appendix Three: Sample Lesson Plan, with All Required Materials* on page Error: Reference source not found.

ADDITIONAL SOURCES

Ajideh, P., "Schema Theory-based Pre-reading Tasks: A Neglected Essential in the ESL Reading Class," *The Reading Matrix* 3(1), 3 Apr 2003, retrieved 19 Feb 2009,
<<http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/ajideh/article.pdf>>

British Council, www.teachingenglish.org.uk.

ReadingQuest, www.readingquest.org.

For links to language teaching resources, visit: <http://atek.or.kr/index.php/efl-links>