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Achieving English competence in Korea through computer-assisted language learning and crosscultural understanding

Jue Yeun Nam

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ACCHIEVING ENGLISH COMPETENCE IN KOREA THROUGH
COMPUTER-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING AND
CROSSCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING

A Project
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts
in

Education:

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by

Jue Yeun Nam

September 2001
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Lynne Diaz-Rico, Ph.D., First Reader

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ABSTRACT

The majority of students in Korea study English as a foreign language (EFL). Instruction of English in Korea focuses on the teaching of grammar and reading. Teachers present the rules of English grammar and provide extensive translation of English into Korean for the students. Thus, reading comprehension is emphasized, but English conversation is not.

The teachers and the government should realize that grammatical learning is not sufficient to develop a learner's communicative competence. It is crucial that teachers become aware that learning a target language without learning about and understanding the target culture will not enable an individual to communicate effectively with speakers of that language.

The study of cultures is both a fascinating and a powerful teaching tool for the ESL/EFL classroom. Culture can be incorporated in a process by which aspects of one's own or another culture provide target structures in a second language (L2). Although there are many ways to introduce comparative culture into the curriculum, the teacher must insure that this type of presentation is appropriately designed for their students in order to maintain student interest. In doing this, teachers not
only sensitize the students to cultural implications of both the first language (L1) and the second language (L2), but also make the study of L2 more enjoyable and fulfilling.

The purpose of the project is to address the problems stated above and improve English as Foreign Language (EFL) learning for the students of Korea by contrasting cultural similarities and differences and at the same time utilizing computer-assisted instruction learning. This can be applied to any level of English as a Foreign Language instruction.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

Over the last two centuries, the English language has become a global resource. As a consequence of the rise of English as a world language, English plays an increasingly significant role in Korea. Traditionally, in the public schools in Korea, English was taught as a secondary school subject beginning in the 7th grade. However, by the time students have their first English lesson in school, their mother tongue is already firmly rooted in their minds. They then learn strictly grammar-based English focused on the college entrance examination; therefore, this method of learning English does not create a noticeable success in students' communicative ability.

In 1976, the Ministry of Education finally realized that there was a need for change in the EFL educational system in Korea. They proposed a different system of teaching English to Korean students in which English would be taught from fundamental basic skills (i.e. the alphabet) to reading and writing, starting in the third grade. In junior high school, English would be taught featuring the use of many types of communicative
activities, with students working mostly in pairs or small groups.

Despite this new approach, the teaching style gradually shifted from that of communicative learning to entrance exam-oriented learning, especially for the ninth graders, most of whom take the high school entrance exams later in that year. The classes are conducted mostly in Korean with an emphasis placed on teaching translation and grammar.

During the senior year in high school, the pressure to memorize gets worse. From the beginning, English is taught with much emphasis placed upon reading comprehension achieved by translation and grammar. Most teachers teach English while speaking Korean, and spend a lot of time explaining how to translate sentences and grammar. Teachers expect rote learning, which they feel is important and necessary in preparing students for the college entrance examination.

By the time the Korean students enter college, they usually have completed at least six years of English classes, yet most are unable to carry on a simple conversation with native speakers or to write sentences free of basic grammatical errors. Most of them often find themselves hiding in the corner and not saying a word.
Suddenly, they become deaf and dumb when encountering a
foreigner. This behavior results from a lack of competence
in developing their speech and knowledge, and also from
not having had enough oral communicative practice.

The goal of this project is to address the above
problems in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
in Korea, and to help students to learn English rapidly,
effectively, and enjoyably. I feel that by developing
"Effective Communication" with a focus on authentic
materials, learning English can be a more inviting and
rewarding endeavor for ESL/EFL students.

The Role of English in South Korea

Korea's Confucian-based tradition, with its sterile
emphasis on rote memorization of facts, has promoted an
educational system focused on students' passing
standardized, multiple-choice tests and qualifying exams.
This type of "facts only" education leaves little
opportunity for students to develop creative talents or
critical problem-solving skills, and has contributed to
the country's recent economic crisis (Christian Science,
April, 1998). As a result of the economic crisis of 1997,
learning English has become more of a life style in Korean
society. Moreover, English has become an essential tool of
social mobility and economic advancement. Those who have
good knowledge of English in Korea can find better jobs than those who do not have good English language skills, because all major business relations are conducted in English. Therefore, people in Korea invest considerable time and money to learn English. The English education policy in Korea reflects the social importance of the language. As a result, English is a compulsory course for students in Korea throughout universities.

English is not only important for students who have to take the university entrance exam, but it is more important for a full-fledged member of society who has the desire to work in a highly competitive organization. Every year a large proportion of governmental official examinations or private organization tests are conducted in English. Therefore, English is necessary for success in the Korean students' future careers.

Typical English Classes in Korea

Because learning English is very popular in Korea, there are many learning resources available. Primarily, English is learned in English classes in formal schools. In Korea, every English class is large, with about fifty students taught by one teacher. This limits the time and attention the teacher can give to each student. In addition, English has been taught in the traditional
grammar-translation method. The students who study hard and target highly competitive universities engage in extensive private tutoring or frequent private language centers. Although the teaching style in a private center is not very different from the school environment, students have the chance to learn conversational English with a native speaker.

Language is a form of communication that occurs in social interaction. It is used for a purpose, such as persuading, commanding, and establishing social relationships. No longer is the focus on specific knowledge of grammatical forms. Instead, the competent speaker is recognized as one who knows when, where, and how to use language appropriately (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

However, in a typical English class in Korea, there is not much lecture dedicated to language-culture, history, or literature. Many Korean middle and high school teachers still favor the grammar-translation method and prefer teacher-centered classrooms in which little English is spoken. Rote memorization is seen as the key to success in learning English, which; consequently, causes students to feel extremely bored and uninterested in the subject matter of English.
Target Teaching Level

There are two different target levels in which I would like to teach English in Korea. The first is at a private language center, and another is at a two-year junior college.

Four years ago, I was involved in a language school business which had various programs for elementary students as well as the adult levels. One of the benefits to teaching in a private language center is that I can design the program that I want to teach. There are no strict rules and regulations governed by the Ministry of Education.

Most Korean students studying English are likely to take extra classes at a language center, called “hakwon,” to improve their language skills. But many students show no improvement even after many months of studying. Such students are easily frustrated and may come to believe that they are incapable of learning English. What these students may not realize is that their failure to improve is not due to any genetic shortcomings, but rather due to inefficient English learning.

For years Korean policymakers have been trying to change this and other aspects of the education system in Korea. As a counteraction, I want to establish my own
private language center so that I can explore English teaching in communicative settings with students in Korea. I taught at the elementary level in Daejon, Korea. This was my first teaching experience, an unforgettable, wonderful experience. I approached the lessons in a conversational setting whereas other teachers approached with a grammar orientation setting. Naturally, I taught phonetic sounds of the alphabet to beginners, so they would be able to read and write correctly. My methods were recognized and greatly appreciated by their parents. The parents were both amazed and happy that their children were able to read and write in a short period of time. I was proud to have explored my own method of teaching to Korean youths, and this motivated me to come back to America to study English more intensively.

The second target level that I would like to teach is the two-year junior college level. Junior colleges in Korea are recognized as technical training schools, which have sharply increased in enrollment recently. The curriculum for junior colleges emphasizes on-the-job training; thus two-year junior colleges require lower examination scores for entrance. Although they must follow the national curriculum, it is not as strict as that of four-year colleges.
Students who graduate from two-year junior colleges have more job opportunities and less competition than those who are still going to four-year universities. Today, there are far more four year university graduates than the job market can accommodate (Christian Science, 1998).

The reason why these two-year junior colleges are gaining public recognition is because of their increasing role in supplying a skilled workforce plus the general academic college education required by the work place.

Why do I Want to Teach These Levels?

The rationale and curricular design of two-year junior colleges and private language centers coincide with my personal teaching philosophies and goals. First of all, teachers do not have to emphasize teaching toward the entrance examination nor focus on rote memorization. The teachers have more flexibility to explore different teaching materials and methods.

Secondly, two-year junior colleges and private language centers share a common goal, to teach the communicative competency required for international trade, tourism business, and interpreter courses, which are essential to globalize Korean society.
I am confident that I will have opportunities at these levels to add curriculum materials and to improve effective communication in Korea.

Proposed Solutions to Educational Challenges

Currently there are about fifty students in a class and with this many students, teachers cannot give appropriate time and attention to each student. It is impossible for every student to have a chance to participate in group activities. In order to deliver effective communication skills to students, teachers should incorporate activities into their curriculum that feature fewer students per group.

To foster effective communication, I recommend students to involve themselves in listening, thinking, speaking, reading and writing, and to participate in extensive group work including interactive, cooperative learning activities.

Because speaking ability is one of the weakest proficiency areas for ESL/EFL Korean students, I would recommend that students interact in small groups and to exchange conversation in English.

The group activities will use authentic materials such as newspaper articles, audio recordings of conversations or videos of recent TV programs, and
computer-assisted language learning (CALL) to improve English language rapidly, effectively, and enjoyably.

Therefore, students can increase their communication skills and obtain a deeper appreciation for the United States as a representative English-speaking target culture as well as for their own culture.

Purpose of the Project

This project is designed to address the problems stated above and improve English as a foreign language (EFL) learning in the students of Korea by promoting an understanding of crosscultural similarities and differences between Korea and the United States’ cultures and by enhancing students’ ESL/EFL experience with cultural awareness and computer technology. In this approach, the teacher’s role is that of facilitator in combining ESL/EFL pedagogy with cultural awareness and technology.

This project provides guidelines for dealing with issues of culture in the ESL/EFL classroom and an understanding of the crosscultural issues that are a part of language teaching for English teachers in Korea.

English teachers in Korea really need to be aware of the role of cultural issues in the teaching of English as
a foreign language. It is a teacher's responsibility to develop both conversational and formal speaking competence in English in order for communication across cultures to be a success. Therefore, my goal in this project is to design a curriculum, which will help students acquire communication competence, and to include a methodology that makes this possible.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters: Introduction (Chapter One), Review of the Literature (Chapter Two), Theoretical Framework (Chapter Three), Curriculum Design (Chapter Four), and Proposed Assessment (Chapter Five).

Chapter One describes the problems of ESL/EFL education in Korea and the purpose of the project. Chapter Two explains how six key concepts pertain to cultural issues: culture as content, intercultural communicative competence, cultural differences in the learning styles and strategies, communicative language teaching in ESL/EFL, a crosscultural approach to teaching EFL, and computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Chapter Three provides a theoretical framework based on the five key concepts of this project. Chapter Four explains the connection of the instructional lesson units to the
theoretical framework in Chapter Three. Finally, Chapter Five proposes the assessment that corresponds to the instructional unit introduced in Chapter Four.

Significance of the Project

The purpose of this project is to offer a plan by which EFL teachers can develop students’ understanding of crosscultural differences by incorporating a CALL (computer-assisted language learning) environment which focuses on the contrast between the United States and Korean cultures.

This project develops the concept that understanding crosscultural differences will greatly contribute to communicative competence language learning. The curriculum incorporates language learning strategies and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) environments as a means to this end.

Moreover, the most important issue is how to encourage ESL/EFL students to become enthusiastic about learning English by using a crosscultural teaching approach. This can only be done if the teacher takes on the role of a facilitator rather than being simply a transmitter of knowledge. Teachers should be facilitators
in any situation, even in a CALL environment, and motivate students to learn English enjoyably and effectively.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Many people are unable to understand and get along with groups of people different than their own. If the members of a group look, act, and think unlike their own, they are apt to experience difficulty relating to them. The result of that, often, is misunderstanding. Therefore, the teacher's role is very important to teach students about other cultures to educate beyond this enthnocentricity.

Language is an integral part of culture, and language is also the chief conveyor of culture. Whenever teachers take on an English as Foreign Language (EFL) curriculum, they are not only dealing with cultural phenomena, but somehow become engaged in teaching a second culture. This is not as simple as it sounds, especially when encountering a monocultural society like that of Korea. As Garrigues (1997) mentions, even though there has recently been a notable increase in the number of English teachers in Korea who are consciously attempting to introduce an intercultural perspective into their classes, this has been at best sporadic and uneven.
English teachers in Korea really need to be aware of the importance of including cultural issues in the teaching of English as a foreign language, as well as other methodologies that support this cultural content. Therefore, this chapter will review six key concepts pertaining to cultural issues: culture as content, intercultural communicative competence, cultural differences in learning styles and strategies, communicative language teaching in ESL/EFL, a crosscultural approach to teaching EFL, and computer-assisted language learning (CALL).

Culture as Content

In their book *Theory of Cultural Identity*, Collier and Thomas (1988) suggest that identities are defined through interactions with others, and that cultural identities involve identification with and acceptance into groups with shared significant symbols, meanings, and rules for conduct. Culture, therefore, exists only to the degree that it has been internalized and is shared by individuals in a particular group. According to Zohary (1997), culture can be viewed as "the sum of attitudes, customs, and beliefs that distinguishes one group of people from another" (p. 1).
What is Culture?

Klopf and Cambra's (1981) definition of culture is "the deposit of knowledge, experiences, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, timing, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a large group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving" (p. 13).

According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), teachers who have a deeper view of culture and cultural processes are able to use their understanding to move beyond the superficial and to recognize that people live in more complex ways. Also Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) mention that knowing a culture provides the lens through which people view the world. Because of this, teachers can look at the "what" of a culture--the artifacts, celebrations, traits, and facts--and ask "why."

Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) also suggest that an understanding of culture aids in understanding not only peoples' daily lives, but also the ways people bring meaning and joy, creativity and enrichment to their life. Learning a second language without learning about and understanding the culture in which it is used will not enable an individual or teacher to communicate effectively
with ESL or EFL speakers. Thus, the role of culture is central in improving communicative competence.

Further, Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) use the term "culture" in other ways, as involving both observable behaviors and intangibles ones such as beliefs and values, rhythms, rules and roles. As they conclude, "Culture is the filter through which people see the world" (p. 193).

Culture specifies and is bound by the nature of material things that play an essential role in common life. Klopf and Cambra (1981) explain that the concept of culture is considerable, covering a wide range of human endeavor, as it is persistent, enduring, and omnipresent, influencing the everyday modes of behavior including the communication practices of everyone. Of course, culture is not the sole determinant of behavior; there are other motivating factors involved. What one talks about and how one talks is, for the most part, determined by the person’s culture. Therefore, teachers have a primary responsibility to help pass on cultural knowledge to students.

**Cultural Perception**

How we behave toward persons of other cultures is dependent upon our perception of them. According to Porter (1972) perception, which is the process of interpreting
sensory information, is conditioned and structured by culture in such a way that we develop culturally determined behavior sets.

In addition, Diaz-Rico & Weed (1995) indicate that all cultures provide templates for the rituals of daily interaction: the way food is served, the way children are spoken to, the way people’s needs are met.

All cultures share some universal characteristics, the need may be different across cultures, and within a culture no two individuals view the world in the same way. Each may exhibit very different personalities and behaviors and may vary in their beliefs and values (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

The link between culture and communication is vital to understanding intercultural communication. It is through culture that people learn to communicate (Samoval & Porter, 1981). A Korean child learns to communicate like other Koreans and that child’s behavior can convey meaning because it is learned and shared. In other words, the child’s behavior is culturally derived. Because of this, the child sees the world through the concepts, categories, and labels that are the products of the Korean culture. So, the ways in which people communicate, including language patterns, style, and nonverbal behaviors, are
culturally determined. As cultures differ from one to another, the communication practices will differ as well.

In fact, people differ in many ways: in experiences, in culture, in needs, in social class and so on. The teacher’s understanding of the differences in values of different cultures will make teaching English to the students who are learning English as foreign language (EFL) more easily adaptable and inviting.

According to Foster (1962), there are four stages which most individuals experience while adapting to the new culture and its associated patterns. The first stage is often called euphoria, where everything is new and exciting. The second stage, typically referred to as home-sickness, occurs when the newness of the culture starts to wear off. Individuals begin to perceive the new culture as strange, bizarre and even distasteful. During this stage, many individuals seek out the company of others from one’s own country in order to find refuge from the cultural differences to which they have been exposed. In stage three, sometimes referred to as the acceptance stage, individuals have overcome much of the discomfort from stage two. They can begin to relate to the new culture and understand its characteristics. In the fourth and final stage, often referred to as one of
acculturation, individuals encounter virtually no feeling of disequilibrium, and can, if they wish, become a permanent member of the new culture.

Valdés, (1986) adds that this cultural adjustment process is, for most individuals, circular rather than linear. In other words, individuals may, throughout the duration of living in the foreign country, move freely between the stages and can even experience some or all to the phases numerous times.

It is important that prospective students understand that they will more likely than not experience these phases of cultural adjustment. Just how long each individual remains in each phase depends on numerous factors including prior experience in a foreign culture, knowledge of the target culture, similarity between the target culture and the individual’s native culture, and their tolerance of ambiguity (Kemp & Weiss, 1998).

According to Valdés (1986), it is the English teacher’s responsibility to assist students, bringing them to the point where an understanding of culture becomes an aid to language learning and not a hindrance. To do this well, the teachers need a perspective of how language and culture affect each other, a knowledge of and sensitivity to cultural differences, and an understanding of how to
use these insights effectively in the classroom and in student-teacher relationships.

High Context and Low Context Culture

Hall (1976) differentiates cultures based on predominant communication styles. A high context culture, according to Hall (1976), is one where the information found via communication or message is mostly contained in the physical context or internalized in the person. Little must be directly stated in such cultures, because people share an empathy and deep involvement with one another.

A low-context culture, according to Hall (1976), is a culture where the information in any given communication is coded explicitly in the message. The context in which the message is given and the relationships of the persons involved are less important. For example, individualistic cultures, like the United States, tend to be low context. Conversely, collectivist, group-oriented cultures, like Korea, tend to be high context. The Korean language contains a word "nunchi" that literally means being able to communicate through your eyes.

Samovar and Porter (1981) explain that in high-context cultures, so much information is available in the environment that it is unnecessary to state verbally that which is obvious. Oral statements of affection, for
instance, are very rare--when the context says "I love you," it is not necessary to state it orally.

On the other hand, Buckley (2000) states, "in high-context cultures, the message communicated is embedded in extra-linguistic considerations such as body language, gestures, relations of participants, and seating arrangements, as well as in the linguistic code" (p. 60). In low context cultures such as the United States, the message lies almost exclusively in the verbal code and so much more must be said (Buckley, 2000).

Being and Doing

As "action" in Figure 1, Buckley (2000) explains that the action orientation of a social group lies along a continuum from "being" at one extreme to "doing" at the other extreme. "Being" cultures tend toward living in the moment while societies at the "doing" extreme tend to value action and accomplishments. Decisiveness tends to be valued over reflection in "doing" societies (p. 58). Americans are good example of as "doing" oriented whereas Koreans are as "being" oriented people. According to Brake and Walker (1995), in task centered "doing" cultures, stress is placed on productive activity in goal accomplishment and achievement. However, in relationship-centered" "being" cultures, stress is placed
mostly on working for the moment, and experience rather than accomplishment.

Equality and Hierarchy

Power is defined along a continuum ranging from equality at one end to hierarchy at the other (Buckley, 2000). In United States, societies that value equality view inequalities of power as unacceptable. In contrast, societies that value hierarchy tend to accept inequalities in power and authoritarian behavior as a fact of life.

It is important for EFL students to understand the American/Korean perspective on power because it is embedded in many aspects of everyday life. For example, in Korea, a “hierarchical” society in general, value is placed on power differences between individuals and groups. Whereas in an “equality” society like America, value is placed on the minimization of levels of power (Brake & Walker, 1995).

Individualism and Collectivism

In all cultures, human beings exist both as individuals and as members of groups. However, according to Nelson (2000), the degree to which the individual or the group (i.e., the collective) is valued varies from one culture to another. Furthermore, Nelson (2000) explains that within the field of intercultural communication, this
variation is referred to as individualism and collectivism, terms that describe basic patterns of social ordering.

Triandis (1995) defines individualism as "a social pattern that consists of loosely linked individuals who view themselves as independent of the collective" (p. 2). Individualism is a cultural pattern found in most northern and western regions of Europe and in North America, whereas collectivism is common in Asia, Africa, South America, and the Pacific (Hofstede, 1986).

Also Triandis (1995) defines collectivism as "a social pattern consisting of closely linked individuals who see themselves as parts of one or more collectives (family, co-workers, tribe, nation)" [p. 2]. In general, collectivism is characterized by individuals' placing the needs of the group above their own personal needs. Their groups provide collectivists with a sense of self-identity (i.e., as members of particular groups), with roles and norms that determine their behavior, and with a sense of purpose (i.e., the welfare of the group).

According to Nelson (2000), cultures are not completely individualist or completely collectivist. Hofstede (1991) maintains that Taiwan, Peru, Korea and Mexico are more collectivist than Sweden, Canada, Great
Britain or the United States, and Canada and Great Britain are more collectivist than the United States. The United States appears to be the most individualistic country in the world.

Hofstede (1986) presents educational differences between individualist and collectivist cultures. As shown in Table 1, one common characteristic of classrooms in individualistic cultures is that students speak up in class in response to a general invitation by the teacher. A second characteristic of individualistic classrooms is a general acceptance of students' asking the teacher a question. Students are considered responsible for their own learning; therefore, if they do not understand something, they are expected to ask about it. A third characteristic is that the formation of groups for "groupwork" may vary from class to class. Because group membership continually varies in individualist cultures, there is no reason to keep group membership the same in the classroom. Finally, a fourth characteristic is that teachers are expected to be impartial, treating all students the same. Because equality and equity are valued, teachers in individualistic cultures are not expected to give preferential treatment to some students over others.
Table 1. Five Possible Cultural Differences Between Classroom in Individualist and Collectivist Cultures (Hofstede, 1986, p. 311)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>In Individualist Cultures</th>
<th>In Collectivist Cultures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Students often speak up in class without being specifically called on by the teacher.</td>
<td>1. Students speak up in class when specifically called on by the teacher; they seldom volunteer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students frequently ask the teacher questions if they do not understand a point or if they want additional information or clarification on a topic.</td>
<td>2. Students seldom ask the teacher questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Some teachers divide students into small groups to complete specific tasks. The membership in the groups often changes during the course of the class.</td>
<td>3. Teachers tend not to use small groups in class, but if they do, group membership may remain constant over a period of time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teachers are expected to be impartial and to treat all students equally, regardless of status.</td>
<td>4. Although teachers are expected to treat all students equally, preferential treatment is given to some students because of the students’ memberships in particular groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Maintaining face is not particularly important</td>
<td>5. Maintaining face is very important. Neither teacher nor student should ever lose face or cause someone else to lose face.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Intercultural Communicative Competence

Chen and Starosta (1996) explain that in order to live meaningfully and productively in this world, individuals must develop their intercultural communicative competence. Furthermore, Chen and Starosta (1996) define intercultural communicative competence as “the ability to
negotiate cultural meanings and to execute appropriately effective communication behaviors that recognize the interactants’ multiple identities in a specific environment” (p. 358). Central to this definition are the notions of appropriateness and effectiveness which are viewed as “outcomes” of intercultural encounters (Yep, 2000). In other words, different cultural communities have different perceptions of appropriateness and effectiveness.

Appropriateness refered to by Chen and Starosta (1996) is the ability of the communicator to meet the basic contextual requirements of the situation without severely violating norms and rules of interaction. For example, if a student in the class receives a low grade on a test, teacher might write on the exam “Please see me.” When the student comes by, the teacher should make sure that students conversation is private, express concern for the student’s performance, and offer assistance without embarrassing or threatening the student’s self esteem.

However, according to Chen & Starosta (1996), effectiveness refers to the accomplishment of the intended effects through communication. This outcome focuses on the attainment of the communicator’s goals while respecting the needs of the other person. For example, as mentioned
above, if a student came by to discuss an exam and the teacher developed a plan to improve performance on the next test, and in the process the student's self-esteem was maintained, then the teacher would be perceived as effective. On the other hand, if teachers developed a plan but in the process the student felt humiliated, then teacher might have accomplished his or her goal, but not effectively.

Hardt and Brennen (1993) elaborate on the idea of appropriateness and effectiveness as they explain, "The absence of history, linked to an absence of self-reflection, reinforces the status quo of theory and practice as ahistorical and uncritical" (p. 130). Also, Yep (2000) states that history is particularly crucial in intercultural interactions. Therefore, one must fully appreciate the history of Korean culture in order to identify for crosscultural understanding.

What is Intercultural Competence?

Although current study introduces various terms of definition for intercultural competence, Fantini (2001) indicates that "Developing intercultural communicative competence involves an on-going and lengthy process, sometimes with periods of regression or stagnation, but with no end point" (p. 1). Also, Fantini (1997) asserts
that the aspects of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) are the ability to establish relations, communicate with minimal loss or distortion, and the ability to achieve or attain a level of compliance among those involved. These abilities are desirable if not altogether necessary, for everyone, everywhere. Also, these aspects are part of "intercultural relations," as well as germane to "interpersonal relations."

Further, Fantini (2001) mentions that different individuals will have different goals and strive for differing levels of competence. A goal for some might be to attain native-like behavior; for others, it may be to gain acceptance; and for still others, just to survive.

However, Buckley's (2000) notion of cultural competence is an awareness of the deeply held values and beliefs of students and the impact of those values and beliefs have on classroom interaction and language learning.

Moreover, for ESL/EFL teachers this competence includes the ability to convey to the students the cultural knowledge needed to understand the contact culture and the sociolinguistic skills they must master in order to interact appropriately with their students. Also, Buckley (2000) demonstrates how a cultural orientation
framework, can be used by ESL/EFL teachers to achieve cultural competence (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. A Cultural Orientations Framework (Buckley, 2000, p. 55, adapted from Doing Business Internationally (p. 5), by T. Brake & D. Walker, 1995)

Each of ten variables in the framework includes a set of two or more behavioral opposites, creating a value continuum for each variable. Cultures do not tend to lie at one extreme or the other, but rather pull on some
relative point along a continuum. In other words, cultures tend to have proclivities that are reflected in group behavior. In addition, some of the variables are related and tend to overlap, while others appear to exist independent of the others. But each culture has its own profile, which may be more or less similar to the profile of another culture (Buckley, 2000).

**Improving Intercultural Communicative Competence**

In reviewing the many ways that cultures may differ, there are some potential problem areas in intercultural communication for both the teachers and the students in ESL/EFL. By understanding these areas, teachers can improve intercultural communication in EFL countries by teaching cultural awareness, so that the students can improve their intercultural communicative competence. The ultimate goal is to encourage students and to improve communication skills in dealing with people who are culturally different.

Language educators commonly express interest in culture as part of the language experience. According to Fantini (1997), language teachers are often unaware of developments in the intercultural field. There is a need then to reconceptualize both fields of language education and intercultural communication to grasp better the whole,
the components, and their interconnectedness, and to create training and education designs that include language and intercultural communication activities.

**Pedagogical Implications of Intercultural Competence**

Paige (1993) has identified three main factors that characterize the intercultural experience: intensity of emotion; knowledge areas that incorporate cross-cultural differences that sojourners find hard to understand; and cultural differences, especially regarding how people think and evaluate information.

Further, Paige (1993) points out that intercultural education is difficult for both teachers and students, for a variety of reasons. First, it requires serious reflection on matters with which learners may have little first-hand experience. As a result, a great deal of thought and effort needs to be applied to the development of curriculum so that a balance is achieved between concrete examples and abstract concepts. Second, unlike "more conventional education, which tends to emphasize more depersonalized forms of cognitive learning and knowledge acquisition, intercultural education includes highly personalized behavioral and affective learning, self-reflection, and direct experience with cultural
difference" (p. 3). Third, because of the complexity and individual variation that exist within any given culture, it is impossible to teach all there is to know about a specific culture. To attempt to do so does little more than reinforce stereotypes. Therefore, intercultural education stresses "learning how to learn," a process-oriented pedagogy (Hughes-Weiner, 1986), rather than a product-oriented pedagogy (learning facts) as a major goal. Fourth, because the intercultural perspective views human reality as socially constructed, intercultural education involves epistemological explorations regarding alternative ways of knowing and validating what we know (Paige, 1993).

Cultural Differences in Learning Styles and Strategies

Because of culture, people are fundamentally different from one other, in areas of ethnic origin, clothing, food, languages, and even learning styles. These differences stem from the societies, cultures, and families from which individuals come. Therefore, it is very important for language teachers to understand these differences and the way they influence students' learning.
Research has shown that effective instruction should be based on the different learning styles of learners. Research has identified cultural difference in the learning styles of various ethnic groups and group differences between high achievers and low achievers. For example, C. Park (1997) conducted a comparative study of Chinese, Filipino, Korean, Vietnamese, and Anglo students in secondary schools and concluded that Korean, Chinese, and Filipino students were more visual than Anglos. C. Park (1997) also found that among high, middle, and low achievers, high achievers were the most visual and low achievers were the least visual, but that there was no gender difference in preferences for visual learning. Korean, Chinese, and Anglo students showed negative preferences for group learning while Vietnamese showed a major positive preference and Filipino students showed a minor positive preference.

This study, thus, reveals significant ethnic group differences. C. Park (1997) also found that all students indicated either major or minor preferences for kinesthetic and tactile learning styles. For those students, they learn best through total physical involvement with the context using authentic materials (C. Park, 1997).
According to Keefe (1987), learning style is defined as "a fascinating interactive process, the product of student and teacher activity within a specific learning environment" (p. 3). Butler (1987) states that learning style is a generic term, an umbrella concept, and a name for recognizing individual learning differences. There are currently multiple systems for diagnosing learning styles. Among these, Grasha (1996) has presented to teachers many ways to enhance learning by understanding teaching and learning styles (see Table 2). Table 2 shows many qualities that are similar to the way Korean students are taught. For example, teacher-centered discussions and exams/grades are emphasized (cluster 1); students emulating the teacher (cluster 2); laboratory projects (cluster 3); and helping pairs, small group works, teams (cluster 4) are the methods that most Korean teachers apply to the practice of teaching English as a Foreign Language in Korea.

Learning style according to Reid (1987) refers to how students approach learning, not how well they learn. As Dunn (1996) mentions, "No single style is better or worse than any other. Everyone can learn; we just learn differently" (p. 2). Language teachers who can match their
Table 2. Cluster of Teaching and Learning Styles  
(Grasha, 1996, p. 234)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster 1</th>
<th>Cluster 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Teaching Styles</strong></td>
<td><strong>Primary Teaching Styles</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Director</strong></td>
<td><strong>Modeler</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Exams/Grades Emphasized</td>
<td>• Role Modeling by Illustration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Guest Speakers/Guest Interviews</td>
<td>• Discussing Alternate Approaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Lectures</td>
<td>• Sharing thought Processes Involved in Obtaining Answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Mini-Lectures Triggers</td>
<td>• Sharing Personal Experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher-Centered Questioning</td>
<td>• Role Modeling by Direct Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teacher-Centered Discussions</td>
<td>• Demonstrating Ways of thinking/doing Things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Term Papers</td>
<td>• Having Students Presentations Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tutorials</td>
<td>• Coaching/Guiding Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Technology-Based Emulate</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster 3</th>
<th>Cluster 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary Teaching Styles</strong></td>
<td><strong>Primary Teaching Styles</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Facilitator</strong></td>
<td><strong>Delegator</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case Studies</td>
<td>• Contract Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cognitive Map Discussion</td>
<td>• Class Symposium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Critical Thinking Discussion</td>
<td>• Debate Formats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Fishbowl Discussion</td>
<td>• Helping Trios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Guided readings</td>
<td>• Independent Study/Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Key statement Discussions</td>
<td>• Jigsaw Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Kineposium</td>
<td>• Laundry List Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Laboratory Projects</td>
<td>• Modular Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Problem Based Learning</td>
<td>• Panel Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Group Inquiry</td>
<td>• Learning Pairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Guided Design</td>
<td>• Position Papers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Problem Based Tutorials</td>
<td>• Practicum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Role Plays/Simulations</td>
<td>• Round Robing Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Roundtable Discussion</td>
<td>• Self Discovery Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Student Teacher of the Day</td>
<td>• Small Group Work Teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Student Journal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

students' learning experience to their learning styles or help them understand new ways of learning can ensure that
the students have an opportunity to learn better, even though they may learn differently.

Reid (1987) states that learning styles are heavily influenced by culture, and that culture often plays a significant role in the learning styles unconsciously adopted by many participants in that culture.

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) suggest that learners can be described as introverts, intuitives, feelers, and perceivers have been identified, and research indicates that individual learners can have 6-14 strongly preferred styles at the same time. Furthermore, these styles can be categorized into four broad domains: cognitive, affective, perceptual, and physiological.

**Cognitive dimension.** The cognitive dimension includes the dichotomies of field independent/field dependent, analytic/global, and impulsive/reflective (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). Early learning style research focuses on the field-independent versus field-dependent dichotomy. Learners were classified according to their abilities to pick out significant information from a confusing overall picture. In time, this research evolved into descriptions of analytic versus global learners.

The effectiveness of a learning style depends very much on the context. Some situations are better suited for
learners who tend to be analytical, whereas others are more suited for global learners (Chapelle, 1995). Analytical learners do relatively better if learning is individualized and rule based, such as in the audio-lingual tradition of language teaching, whereas the global learner might shine in the communicative classroom. Teachers should be able to teach both analytically and globally to cater to both types of learners.

**Affective dimension.** The affective dimension encompasses the aspects of personality such as attention, emotion, and valuing that influence what a learner will pay attention to in a learning situation (Keefe, 1987).

Keefe (1987) also describes “locus of control” as “an individual’s perceptions of causality may be internal or external” (p. 21). External or extroverted learners feel that responsibility is collective. They base their perceptions on events and on what other people say and do. These learners like interactive activities, such as group work and role-playing.

**Perceptual dimension.** The perceptual dimension refers to one or a combination of up to three possible perceptual channels, auditory, visual, and kinesthetic (tactile) through which learners extract information from the environment. According to Gardner (1993/1995), these
dimensions are most closely aligned with the behaviorist perspective on teaching and learning.

Learners who are mostly visual and kinesthetic tend to underachieve in school because predominant teaching styles do not match their perceptual strengths, and other ways of learning are not specifically addressed. In this case, tests usually include written and aural elements—characteristics that favor auditory and visual learners. Teachers can reduce this problem by designing learning activities that address a variety of learning styles (Gardner 1993/1995).

Physiological dimension. The physiological dimension refers to learning preferences predicated by biological differences, such as gender and reaction to one's physical environment. Learners have different tolerances for noise, temperature, and even light. An incompatible physical environment, such as a room with too much noise or a temperature that is too low or too high, will distract some learners, making it difficult for them to learn (Gardner, 1993/1995).

Self-discovery Through Multiple Intelligence Theory

Teaching students about multiple intelligence (MI) theory encourages them to develop a sense of self and
identity. Moreover, it enfranchises the full range of learners, including those who have been generally neglected by traditional education.

Thus, learning style has much to do with multiple intelligences. According to Gardner (1993/1995), multiple intelligences are the various abilities that children possess, which naturally direct them to learn in different ways. Also Gardner suggests that intelligence has to do with the capacity for "solving problems" and for "fashioning products in a context-rich and naturalistic setting." Gardner’s seven multiple intelligences’ are classified as follows: linguistic, logical-mathematical, intrapersonal, interpersonal, visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, and musical.

Linguistic intelligence. According to Gardner (1993/1995), linguistic intelligence involves the ability to use words skillfully in speaking and in writing, as well as having a sensitivity to the sounds, structure, meaning, and functions of words and languages. In regard to students who have exceptional linguistic skills, or show a heightened interest in areas of linguistics, the teacher should provide these students with opportunities to express themselves and expand their knowledge in this
way. This can be done if the teacher creates a more writing-centered curriculum.

**Logical-mathematical intelligence.** This involves the ability to use numbers skillfully and reasonably well, to solve puzzles easily, and to follow long chains of reasoning. Because students with logical-mathematical skills understand the qualities of numbers and the principle of cause and effect, as well as the ability to predict what will happen or explain what has happened, they tend to show more interest in professions such as that of an engineer, scientist, detective, accountant, economist, bookkeeper, mathematician, and anyone who likes to solve problems (Gardner, 1993/1995).

**Intrapersonal intelligence.** This is the means by which people understand themselves, and come to know their strengths and weaknesses; to discriminate among their moods, desires, feelings, emotions, and intentions; to understand how they are similar to or different from others; to remind themselves to do something, and know how to control their feelings (Gardner, 1993/1995). Students who use intrapersonal intelligence tend to show more interest in the field of psychology, therapy, counseling, priests and religious leaders, novelists, program
planners, entrepreneur, and anyone who keeps a journal or thinks often about the meaning of life.

**Interpersonal intelligence.** These individuals understand and skillfully respond to other peoples' moods, feelings, motivations, desires, and intentions. A person uses interpersonal intelligence in order to work effectively and get along well with people, and to persuade others to do what he or she asks of them (Gardner, 1993/1995). Students who utilize interpersonal intelligence include politicians, diplomats, administrators, parents, counselors, teachers, therapists, social scientists, business managers, salespersons, public relations persons, travel agents, social directors, courtroom lawyers, and religious leaders.

**Visual-spatial intelligence.** This involves sensitivity to form, space, color, line, shape, and depth; and the abilities needed to perceive the visual world accurately and to represent visual or spatial ideas, either graphically or mentally in three dimensions (Gardner 1993/1995). Students who use visual-spatial intelligence include architects, painters, sculptors, pilots, dentists and surgeons, inventors, engineers, photographers, interior decorators, and anyone who draws for pleasure.
Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. People who possess this type of intelligence have the ability to use their bodies to express ideas and feeling, as well as the capacity to handle objects skillfully (Gardner, 1993/1995). This intelligence involves physical coordination, flexibility, speed, and balance. Students who use bodily-kinesthetic intelligence are dancers, swimmers, ballplayers, instrumentalists, artists, and artisans, dentists and surgeons, and anyone who plays physical games and sports for recreation or enjoys working with their hands.

Musical intelligence. This type of intelligence is seen in those who have the abilities to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch, and melody; to appreciate the forms of musical expression, recognizing songs and longer musical works; to vary speed, tempo, and rhythm in melodies, and to compose music (Gardner, 1993/1995). Students who use musical intelligence tend to show more interest in music, poets, disc jockeys, songwriters, conductors, singers, and anyone who enjoys making or listening to music.

Multiple Intelligence (MI) theory is a useful tool for analyzing educational systems and for suggesting reforms. For example, the first three intelligences—
linguistic, logical-mathematical, and intrapersonal—, are the ones generally endorsed by schools, while the other four are those that are usually neglected (Dryden & Morrone, 1999).

Reid (1998) believes that MI theory has "great potential for helping to revolutionize our concept of student language-learning in the ESL classroom" (p. 7). In effect, Reid explains, MI theory enables teachers and students to understand their own learning preferences and to know which intelligences are engaged in particular learning activities. Such self-knowledge, is likely to result in more informed choices about what will optimize the learning of any subject, including language.

In Korea and other Asian countries, there is currently a good deal of urgent discussion regarding the need for widespread educational reform. As McMurray (1998) observes, the new buzzword among Asian ministries of education is "creativity," which is seen as the key to reviving Asian economies and making them competitive again in the global marketplace. In this regard, the enfranchising power of MI theory holds the potential to effect and guide significant changes in Asian educational systems and societies.
Language Learning Strategies

Chamot (1999) states that students need to develop an awareness of the learning processes and strategies that lead to success. Learning strategies are procedures or techniques that learners can use to facilitate a learning task.

Furthermore, Chamot indicates that part of the awareness includes one’s own thinking processes, which she refers to as “metacognitive awareness.” Students who reflect on their own thinking are more likely to engage in metacognitive processes such as planning how to proceed with a learning task, monitoring their own performance on an ongoing basis, finding solutions to problems encountered, and evaluating themselves upon task completion. These metacognitive activities may be difficult for students accustomed to having a teacher who solves all their learning problems and is the sole judge of their progress. In this case, teachers need to encourage students to rely more on themselves and less on the teachers.

G. Park (1997) explains that language is a form of communication that occurs in social interaction. However, in a typical English class in Korea, teachers do not use peer-to-peer social interaction method. Instead, many
Korean teachers still favor grammar-translation and rote memorization method that tend to be more linear and behaviorist. In fact, in his study, Grainger (1997) shows Japanese students as well as students from other Asian, English, and European backgrounds to prefer social learning strategies over rote learning and more affective teaching and learning methods.

In other words, teachers do not teach English learning strategies in the classroom, resulting in Korean students' being accustomed to only receiving knowledge from their teachers. Thus, they may not know "how to learn" outside the classroom where they spend much of their time learning English.

This study shows that most students prefer social learning strategies and tend to dislike using strategies associated with the affective side of learning. The most interesting category result to emerge is the rote learning aspect, which was the least popular category among the students of Asian backgrounds, contrary to expectations.

Furthermore, Cohen (1990) emphasizes that effective language learning strategies are considered to be more easily acquired than less effective language learning strategies. This leads second language (L2) learners to be motivated to learn the strategies being taught and to use
them later more willingly and frequently in second language (L2) acquisition tasks.

Pedagogical Implications for Learning Strategies

Yang (1993) gives pedagogical implications for learning strategies as follows: teachers should be advisors, facilitators, helpers, guides, and consultants to their students; to remove students' erroneous beliefs or misconceptions, teachers can try to provide students with useful information about the nature and process of second language learning; teachers need to have a communicative approach and strategy training; and, as recommended by several researchers (e.g., Rubin, 1987; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 1990), strategy training is best integrated into content language teaching by language teachers instead of researchers.

According to Stewner-Manzanares (1985), teachers need to motivate students to become actively involved in their own learning by applying the strategies wherever they see opportunities to do so. Throughout this effort, teachers may realize an important goal of instruction for learners is to be independent of the specific teaching approach used in the classroom.

Learning strategies play an important role in the process of second language acquisition. The use of
learning strategies affects students' achievement. Therefore, it is important for educators in Korea to understand their students' beliefs and default learning strategy use and provide the students with more effective learning strategies.

In conclusion, in order to provide a viable educational environment for all students, teachers should try to identify the learning styles of their students, match their teaching styles to students' learning styles for difficult tasks, and strengthen weaker students' learning styles through direct instruction about strategy use. This "learning how to learn" may accelerate language acquisition in ESL/EFL contexts.

Communicative Language Teaching

Most Korean students study English as a foreign language (EFL) in Korea. According to Schumann (1972), many studies in foreign language education have emphasized the need to teach students how to communicate in the target language. However, instruction of English in Korea focuses on the teaching of grammar and reading. Teachers present the rules of English grammar and provide extensive translation of English into Korean. In teaching EFL in
Korea, reading comprehension is emphasized, but English conversation is not.

According to Li (1998), despite the widespread adoption of communicative language teaching (CLT) in ESL countries, research suggests that curricular innovation prompted by the adoption of CLT in EFL countries has been difficult. The teachers understanding of curriculum innovation is central to its success of acquiring a proficiency of CLT.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) state that CLT starts with a theory of language as communication, and its goal is to develop learners’ communicative competence. As Savignon (1983) suggested earlier, a classroom model of communicative competence includes Canale and Swain’s (1980) four aspects: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

In CLT, Wilkins (1972) classified meaning into notional and functional categories and viewed learning a second language (L2) as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions. According to Larsen-Freeman (1986), the most obvious characteristic of CLT is that “almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent” (p. 132). Students use the language
a great deal through communicative activities; for instance, games, role-plays, and problem-solving tasks (Li, 1998).

Another characteristic of CLT is the introduction of authentic materials and interaction (Dublin, 1995; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Long & Crookes, 1992). CLT is considered desirable in order to give learners the opportunity to respond to genuine communicative needs in realistic second language (L2) situations so that they develop strategies for understanding language as actually used by native speakers (Canale & Swain, 1980). CLT favors interaction among small numbers of students in order to maximize the time each student has to learn to negotiate meaning. Larsen-Freemen (1986) states “activities in the communicative approach are often carried out by students in small group” (p. 132). Teachers therefore select learning activities according to how well they engage the students in meaningful and authentic language use rather than in the merely mechanical practice of language patterns.

Another dimension of CLT is “its learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching” (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 69). According to Savignon (1991), individual learners possess unique interests,
styles, needs, and goals that should be reflected in the design of instructional methods. Teachers are encouraged to develop materials based on the demonstrated needs of a particular class. Communicative language teaching (CLT) is best considered an approach rather than a method (Richard & Rodgers, 1986). Students must be made to feel secure, unthreatened, and non-defensive in a CLT classroom, so teachers using CLT should avoid adopting a teacher-centered, authoritarian posture (Taylor, 1983).

In summary, the characteristics of CLT include the following: 1) a focus on communicative functions; 2) a focus on meaningful tasks rather than on language of grammar or vocabulary study; 3) efforts to make tasks and language relevant to a target group of learners through an analysis of genuine, realistic situations; 4) the use of authentic, from-life materials; 5) the use of group activities; and 6) the attempt to create a secure, non-threatening atmosphere.

Communicative Competence

Hymes (1972) reacted to Chomsky’s (1965) characterization of the linguistic competence of the ideal native speaker and proposed the term communicative competence to represent the use of language in a social context or the observance of sociolinguistic norms of
appropriacy. His concern with speech communities and the integration of language, communication, and culture was not unlike that of British linguistic tradition. Hymes' communicative competence may be seen as the equivalent to language learning, but also language as social behavior (Savignon, 1991).

According to Brown (1987), communicative competence is an aspect of language user's competence that enables them to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meaning interpersonally within specific contexts. Language is used for purposes such as persuading, commanding, and establishing a social relation (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). In other words, competent speakers knows when, where, and how to use English appropriately and skillfully; thus, it differs from the focus of specific knowledge of grammatical forms.

Another researcher, Savignon (1972) used the term communicative competence to characterize the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers and to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge.

Canale and Swain (1980) proposed four aspects of communicative competence: grammatical competence,
sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

**Grammatical competence.** This involves knowing the rules of language: Vocabulary, word formation and meaning, sentence formation, pronunciation, and spelling. This type of competence focuses on the skills and knowledge necessary to speak and write accurately (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995).

**Discourse competence.** This involves the ability to combine and connect utterances (spoken) and sentences (written) into a meaningful whole ((Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). In other word, it ranges from a simple spoken conversation to long written texts whereas grammatical competence focuses on sentence formation.

**Sociolinguistic competence.** This requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction (Savingnon, 1983).

**Strategic competence.** This involves the manipulation of language in order to meet communicative goals, which involves both verbal and nonverbal behaviors (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Canale (1983) notes that speakers employ this competence for two reasons: to compensate for breakdowns
in communication, and to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

In terms of building on strategies for communicative competence, Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) found a natural order of strategies in students' development of a second language, which incorporate sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic factors.

Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) found evidence that teachers who are aware of above mentioned strategies can recognize and use them to build upon students' developing competence as follows:

- **Repetition**: Imitating a word or structure used by another
- **Memorization**: Recalling by rote songs, rhymes, or sequences
- **Formulaic expressions**: Using words or phrases that function as units, such as greetings (“Hi! How are you?”)
- **Verbal attention getters**: Using language to initiate interaction (“Hey!” “I think...”)
- **Answering in unison**: Responding with others
- **Talking to self**: Engaging in subvocal or internal monologue
- **Elaboration**: Providing information beyond that which is necessary
- **Anticipatory answers**: responding to an anticipated question, or completing another’s phrase or statement
- **Monitoring**: Correcting one’s own errors in vocabulary, style, or grammar
- **Appeal for assistance**: Asking another for help
• Request for clarification: Asking the speaker to explain or repeat
• Role-play: Interacting with another by taking on roles

(Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 15)

The Communicative Language Teaching Approach

Teacher-centered instruction dominates the experiences of all learners in Korea. According to Johnson and Roen (1989), teacher-centered instruction lecture, whole-class discussion, recitation, and individual seatwork prevail as the favored methods. Also, Crawford (1989) indicates that these classroom patterns work against students who are attempting to learn language. Theory and research indicate that students' involvement in meaningful, communicative use of language is crucial for language development (McLaughlin, 1987).

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), communicative-based refer to a teaching approach that is aligned with much of what is known about language development and provide four characteristics of this view of language: language is a system for the expression of meaning; the primary function of language is for interaction and communication; the structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses; and the primary units of language are not merely its grammatical
and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse (Richard & Rodgers, 1986).

Teaching the language involves using not only the linguistic processes of students but also their social and cognitive processes (Johnson & Roen, 1989). In other words, this view emphasizes that teachers need to provide students with a variety of contexts and task structures for learning language. Teachers need to foster the students’ interactions with their peers and other adults; encourage students to talk about their own experiences, which they connect with stories they have read or written; let students choose their own writing topics and literary forms in which they write; have students read and react to each other’s writing; and integrate language development with other subject areas.

Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) guides activities to support communication and conversation in Table 3.

Learning languages takes time and is best facilitated when instruction is uninterrupted (Collier, 1989). During communicative activities students are sharing information, negotiating meaning, and interacting. This active learning occurs while students are speaking, reading, and writing the language to accomplish meaningful tasks (Honig, 1992).
Although Korean students spend more than four years in various English courses, speaking fluency still remains a concern amongst Korean students. Koreans lack confidence when trying to communicate in English. It is because teachers do not teach conversational English. Teachers are

Table 3. Guided Activities to Support Communication and Conversation (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995, p. 95)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guided Practice</th>
<th>Communicative Practice</th>
<th>Free Conversations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formulaic exchanges:</td>
<td>Simulations</td>
<td>Discussion groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greetings</td>
<td>Guessing games</td>
<td>Debates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congratulations</td>
<td>Group puzzles</td>
<td>Panel discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apologies</td>
<td>Rank order</td>
<td>Group picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave-taking</td>
<td>Values continuum</td>
<td>story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogues</td>
<td>Categories of preference</td>
<td>Socializing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mini-conversations</td>
<td>opinion polls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role plays</td>
<td>survey taking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skits</td>
<td>interviews</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral descriptions</td>
<td>Brainstorming</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strip stories</td>
<td>News reports</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral games</td>
<td>Research reports</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
more comfortable with analyzing sentences than with encouraging practice in conversation and correcting pronunciation because their objective is to prepare students for college entrance examinations. These examinations emphasize grammar and reading comprehension.

Korean teachers and the government should realize that the grammatical learning does not help much to develop learners' communicative competence. English education in Korea needs to emphasize the teaching of spoken English, and English textbooks need to revise in order to promote this new direction. Teachers should pay more attention to aural/oral skills development, and English teachers should receive intensive training to increase their proficiency in spoken English. Moreover, it is crucial that teachers become aware that learning a second language without learning about and understanding the culture in which it is used will not enable an individual to communicate effectively with speakers of that language.

Principal Problems of Communicative Language Teaching in English as Foreign Language

A number of reports in the literature deal with CLT innovations in EFL contexts. Whereas some have emphasized the local need and the particular English teaching
conditions in the EFL countries and the importance and success of traditional language teaching methods (Bhargava, 1986), others have strongly advocated the adoption of CLT in EFL countries (Li, 1989). However, the several writers acknowledge the difficulties EFL countries face in adopting CLT (Li, 1989).

Burnaby and Sun (1989) report that teachers in China found it difficult to use CLT, because of the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class sizes and schedules, resources and equipment, the low status of teachers who teach communicative rather than analytical skills, and English teachers' deficiencies in oral English and sociolinguistic and strategic competence.

Surprisingly, difficulties with CLT outside Asia are not exceptions. Valdés and Jhones (1991) report difficulties in Cuba such as teachers' lack of proficiency in English, their traditional attitudes toward language teaching, the lack of authentic materials in a non-English-speaking environment, the need to redesign the evaluation system, and the need to adapt textbooks to meet the needs of communicative classes.

A study of CLT done in China reported such obstacles as a lack of properly trained teachers, a lack of appropriate texts and materials, students' not being
accustomed to CLT, and difficulties in attitudes of Hong Kong educators toward using CLT in the local context (Anderson, 1993). Chau and Chung (1987) report that teachers used CLT only sparingly because it required too much preparation time.

In Korea, one of the main reasons why teachers have fears about implicating CLT is because the teacher’s ability to answer all questions promptly is highly valued in Korea. The fear of losing face because of not being able to answer students’ questions all the time discourages teachers from using CLT.

**Implications of Communicative Language Teaching Use in English as Foreign Language**

Much of what the EFL teachers said about EFL teaching in their country and about their difficulties in using CLT is common in many other parts of the world. The following, although it particularly applies to EFL teaching in Korea, extends to other EFL countries as well.

A conflict exists between what CLT demands and what the EFL situation in many countries, such as South Korea, allows. This conflict must be resolved before EFL teaching in these countries can benefit from CLT. To resolve the conflict, attention should be given to the following areas.
Educational values and attitudes. The fundamental approach to education in Korea needs to change before CLT can be successful. The predominance of text-centered and grammar-centered practices in Korea does not provide a basis for the student-centered, fluency-focused, and problem-solving activities required by CLT. As Price (1988) points out, reform of education is not simply reform of the school system but reform of the behavior and thinking of the wider social teaching-learning process that guides moral-political ideas and behavior.

Far-reaching curriculum innovation involves fundamental shifts in the values and beliefs of the individuals concerned (Brindley & Hood, 1990). If CLT is to be implemented in a traditional classroom, teachers, students, parents, administrators and other stakeholders must shift their conceptions of what constitutes good English teaching (Enright & McCloskey, 1985).

Such fundamental changes take time. “Changes in the way people think usually lag behind changes in social structure” (Ting, 1987, p. 49). Therefore, Korea and other EFL countries with similar situations should adapt rather than adopt CLT into their English teaching and think about how CLT can best serve their needs and interests.
Reading. Because the main purpose of learning English for many people in Korea and other EFL countries is to be able to read and translate into their mother tongue documents written in English, Korean teachers should continue their emphasis on developing students’ reading abilities. However, instead of spending much time on intensive reading and grammatical analysis, teachers might introduce some ideas from CLT, such as extensive reading and reading for meaning.

Oral Skills. Because the demand for people who can communicate orally in English has increased as a result of international trade and globalization, English classes should include listening and speaking activities. Teachers must be aware of the shift in societal needs and make conscious and persistent efforts to introduce more CLT into English teaching. According to Tomlinson (1990), with globalization, smaller classes, a better economy, and more competent teachers, a better understanding and acceptance of the philosophical underpinnings of CLT are possible. EFL countries may then be able to use more CLT techniques or, better still, develop their own “locally appropriate version of the communicative approach” (p. 36).

Grammar. Contrary to a common misconception, CLT does not exclude the teaching of grammar (Tompson, 1996).
Savingnon (1991) mentions that teachers must also bear in mind that the purpose of teaching grammar is to help students learn the language, so teachers need to be wary of making grammar the first priority of their teaching. Teachers should also consider alternatives to traditional grammar instruction, such as grammar-consciousness-raising tasks (Fotos, 1994).

Students' attitudes. Students and teachers who are negotiating CLT in the traditional language classroom will need help in adjusting (Abbot, 1987). In introducing CLT to students who have previously studied foreign language in a traditional way, teachers are likely to encounter some initial reservations. Thus, teachers will need to consciously reorient students to “the basic function of the classroom, the role of the student and the nature of language” (Deckert, 1987, p. 20).

Teachers' attitudes. Likewise, some teachers may be reluctant to try CLT, as it goes much of the familiar and requires something different. Therefore teachers should also have assistance and encouragement in trying out new ideas and materials. Continuing support for teachers who may need further help with CLT along the way is also important. This can be achieved mainly by appointing highly qualified teaching consultants and conducting
in-service teacher education programs. In such programs, teachers should have opportunities to retrain and refresh themselves in CLT and, more importantly, teachers should receive help in revising, refining, or changing their educational theories and attitudes (Tilleman, 1994). A language improvement component should also be a part of such programs (Cullen, 1994). Although all the language skills should be covered, the program should emphasize the teacher's speaking and listening skills—a weakness of English teachers in Korea and many other EFL countries.

Pre-service teacher education. CLT should not be lectured about, but demonstrated. Novice teachers should have opportunities to get hands-on experience with and gain confidence in using CLT.

More importantly, considering the dynamic nature of the EFL teaching, pre-service teacher education should focus on developing student-teachers' autonomy and their decision-making and problem-solving abilities as well as their ability to be reflective practitioners (Schon, 1983).

In conclusion, in any attempt to improve education, teachers are central to long-lasting changes. According to Li (1998), how teachers as the end users of an innovation
perceive its feasibility is a crucial factor in the ultimate success or failure of that innovation.

**Crosscultural Approach to Teaching English as Foreign Language**

In the field of foreign language teaching, one aspect that occasionally emerges as a topic of discussion is the relationship between knowledge of a foreign language and knowledge of the culture from which that language "originated" (Tang, 1999).

According to Pica (1994), the question "how necessary to learning a language is the learner's cultural integration?" (p. 70) is something which troubles teachers, whether they work with students in classroom far removed from the culture of the language they are learning or with students who are physically immersed in the culture but experientially and psychologically distant from it.

Numerous other researchers have tried to address issues along similar lines, including Garner and Lambert (1972) who postulated that learners may have two basic kinds of motivation. The first is integrative motivation, which refers to the desire of language learners to acquire the language while immersing themselves into the whole
culture of the language in order to "identify themselves with and become part of that society" (Brown, 1994, p. 154).

Gardner and Lambert's second kind of motivation, instrumental motivation, refers to the functional need for learners to acquire the language in order to serve some utilitarian purpose, such as securing a job or a place at a university. The argument here is that such instrumentally motivated learners are neither concerned with the culture from which their target language emerged, nor interested in developing any feelings of affinity with the native speakers of that language (Tang, 1999).

According to Littlewood (1984), in order to speak a language well, one has to be able to think in that language, because thought is extremely powerful. A person's mind is, in a sense, the center of his/her identity, so if a person thinks in French in order to speak French, one might say that he/she has almost taken on a French identity.

In Korea, the role of English as a foreign language has greatly broadened in the normal cultural realm of the society. In practically all universities in Korea, all freshman undergraduate students are required to take at
least a year of English, regardless of their major or intended field of study.

This is due to the fact that in Korea, according to Martinelli (1998), English was introduced at the elementary level for the first time in Korea, beginning with the 1997 school year. This means that native Korean elementary school teachers, regardless of their ability in English as a foreign language, are responsible for teaching it to their elementary school students. Major teacher training programs have recently gotten underway to not only introduce communicative English language to these teachers, but to attempt to instill some level of ease and comfort to these often stressed and anxious English language learners. Many of these teachers have not had any real systematic exposure to the English language since failed grammar-translation attempts many years before.

Crosscultural Understanding

The study of cultures is both fascinating and a powerful teaching tool for the ESL/EFL classroom. Culture can be incorporated as a process, in which aspects of one’s own or another culture become mechanisms for target structures in L2. Although there are many ways to introduce comparative culture, the teacher must ensure the presentation is appropriately designed for the learners,
maintains student interest, and avoids common pitfalls (Lado, 1988).

To successfully incorporate comparative culture pedagogy into the classroom, it is important that a teacher has a clear understanding of the cultural and Confucian beliefs underlying Korean higher education: the role of the test, ideas regarding learning, and perceptions about what is expected of students. As this paper previously maintains, the purposes of and the governing assumptions regarding education are quite different from those in Western universities.

Unfortunately, many existing ESL textbooks, teaching methodologies, and tactics are predicated upon the belief that all Korean university students are well motivated, extremely industrious, and serious in their studying of English. The fact is that most students are only taking English classes because they are required to, and have no real interest in really learning it; and they are acutely aware that they will seldom use English outside of the classroom.

This is, of course, not to say that as a consequence, one must simply teach like a Korean instructor. Rather, the key is to develop one's teaching techniques and style, but within given cultural and institutional constraints.
It requires being able to accept limitations and to actually blend them with one's own methodology. Flexibility is fundamental.

One cannot divorce Western teaching methodologies from cultural constraints. The teachers' awareness of the legacy of Confucianism and practical notions regarding the purposes of higher education in the Korean culture is essential to a teacher's effectiveness.

According to Lado (1988), the teacher who assumes no superiority of either culture and seeks to achieve full communication can prevent misunderstanding. Such a teacher seeks to understand the contextual meaning of the words, actions, behavior, and beliefs of the members of the other culture so that full communication can take place. In other words, striving for communication across cultures so that individual intentions and aspirations may be understood, which is the most appropriate attitude of a second language teacher.

Understanding the History of Korea

Koreans have an impressive tradition of education, scientific invention, and artistic expression. These accomplishments were shaped by a history that did not include any significant contact with Western culture until 1800s. However, Korea played an important role in the
history of Asia and in the development of Asian culture through its interaction with China and Japan over the proceeding centuries. An essential element of Korea’s cultural heritage involves Korean experience with the highly centralized Confucian orientation, which is a tradition more deeply rooted in scholarship and cultural advancement than in economic development.

The Korean peninsula reaches out from the Northeast Asian mainland in a southerly direction of 621 miles (about 1,000 kilometers). The boundary to the north is largely formed by two rivers, the Yalu and the Tuman, which flow between Korea and China. Korea’s location between China and Japan has permitted cultural influences to be shared among the three countries. Throughout Korea’s long and fascinating history, and despite involvement with its Asian neighbors, the Korean people have maintained their ethnic homogeneity and pride in their special character (Honig, 1992).

Koreans look back to unrecorded history for the story of their origin. Honig (1992) states that “it is said that in the year 2333 B.C. Tan-gun, half-divine, half-human, founded the nation from which all Koreans have descended” (p. 3). The story of Tan-gun, whether real or mythical,
has given Koreans a sense of unity as a distinct people descended from a common ancestor.

Historical evidence indicates that Koreans, along with Turks and Mongols, originated in Inner Asia and that the Korean language shares many features with the Altaic language family that includes Turkish, Mongolian, and Japanese. This language family is not related to Chinese, although Korean does contain many Chinese-derived words and makes considerable use of Chinese characters (Honig, 1992).

During the 500 years of the Chosun Kingdom, efforts toward commerce and foreign trade were aimed at China, and contacts with other countries were largely discouraged. According to Confucian morality, money-making, especially through reinvestment, was frowned on. Koreans valued a life of letters over a life of enterprise. Although in theory China and Japan shared these values, in practice those societies encouraged commerce much more than Korea did (Robinson, 1986). Moreover, for centuries international trade was limited to exchanges of native products for luxury goods and to a restricted rice trade with Japan. When Japanese and Western traders arrived in the late nineteenth century, Koreans rulers could envisage little advantage to opening their country to trade with
other countries and so earned the country the nickname the Hermit Kingdom (Robinson, 1986). Korea did, however, permit Western missionaries to build churches, schools, and hospitals. The establishment of these earliest Western-initiated institutions in the late nineteenth century represented the first important contacts between Korea and the United States.

Today, the United States and South Korea are linked by political alliances, military treaties, commercial ties, cultural, and educational exchanges. Moreover, Koreans are eager to play an increasing role in world economics and politics. They want to be partners with other countries in Asia and throughout the world, yet they desire to refine and maintain the distinctiveness of their national and cultural identity.

The Relationship Among Korean, Chinese, and Japanese

Korean is not related to the Chinese language, which is a member of the Sino-Tibetan family (Honig, 1992). However, close geographic proximity to China has brought a heavy Chinese linguistic and cultural influence to Korea. Over 50 percent of the words in the Korean dictionary are of Chinese origin; and most legal, political, scientific, religious, and academic vocabularies as well as Korean
surnames are based on Chinese borrowings and may be written in Chinese characters. The meaning and pronunciation of these Sino-Korean words have often changed as they have been assimilated into the Korean language and culture.

The Japanese language, on the other hand, may be considered a distant relative. According to Lewin, (1976), some basic words for body parts, clothing, and agriculture are shared by both languages, which suggests some degree of linguistic-family relationship. Many other similarities between two languages exist; that is, both have the common features of the Altaic family, and the grammatical structures of both languages are so close that word-for-word translation of Korean into Japanese or vice versa is easily done. Whether the structural similarities and the sharing of some vocabulary items are signals of a genetic relationship of simply a manifestation of a relationship by adoption or borrowing between the two languages remains unanswered (Lewin, 1976).

The Cultural Background of Education in Korea

Confucianism has had a very important influence upon the development of education in Korea. According to Gray (1999), Confucianism, through the centuries, has performed a variety of roles and can best be understood as a system
of thought which is part ethical code, part social ritual, part political philosophy, and part religion.

Confucius’ system is thoroughly humanistic. People are viewed as the sum total of their social relations. Morality is not to be found outside of human beings, but within the person themselves. The philosophical theme of Confucius lies within the family, which is a microcosm for the world. It is believed that if a person fulfills their familial obligations, then order will be maintained and harmony will also flow out into the public sphere.

Gray (1999) presents five ethical relationships that form the basis of all social connections: 1) father-son (considered to be the most stable and lasting relationship, it is the symbol of filial piety); 2) husband-wife (the most basic relationship); 3) ruler-subject (symbolizes loyalty, which is an extension of the father-son relationship; in this case, the ruler, who is the father, has an obligation to care for his wards); 4) friend-friend (based on mutual trust, and of all the relationships, most closely approximates equality); and 5) older brother-younger brother (represents the inherent higher status of someone who is senior in age, experience, and wisdom). Every social relationship is an extension of these five.
Rationale for Examination-Oriented Education in Korea

Confucianism first entered Korea from China in the 9th century, and began to exert a strong influence (Lee, 1965). In the 10th century, the Confucian civil service examination system, "Kwago," was adopted. Instead of the process being theoretically open to all, as it was in China, only the elite "yangban" (the aristocratic class) class and their descendants had the right to sit for the examinations in Korea (Henderson, 1968).

Ironically, it was only because of acute foreign pressures that Korea adopted the idea of mass education and higher education at the end of the 19th century. There was no counterpart Western idea of a university at this time. According to Kim (1985), in Korea, reform is attributed to the presence of Western missionaries and Japanese colonization. Because of these changes, education became the main avenue for economic and social mobility for the first time.

From the start, because of population size and the small number of colleges, competition for obtaining entrance into these colleges was particularly fierce (Tipton, 1997). A strict hierarchy of schools quickly developed (Seoul National University in Korea being the
top). Ignas (1981) states that because of this intense competition, the college entrance examination assumed central importance, to the extent it has attained today; an end in itself, "dominating and distorting the purposes of all schools" (p. 236). This contrasts to Western cultures, in that at the high school level, teacher recommendations, unique skills, and extracurricular activities carry minor significance in the college selection process.

Every year, Korean government officials passionately discuss ways in which the educational system can be reformed; unfortunately, few significant changes are ever really attempted. Gray (1999) reports that the main reason why the test continues to be so heavily used is that it serves several social and political purposes, including a measure of how well individuals have become socialized.

Because the test is so difficult and involves much dedication, it has become a tool of socialization because it requires extreme discipline. It makes students accept the values prized by society, the group, and the system. There is a distinctly moral component to this in the sense that education becomes embedded in the value system, comprised of nationalism and the Confucian webs of obligation, duties, and social harmony. If students want
to advance and obtain a good job, they must successfully pass the college entrance examination. This process of socialization through discipline also serves to cement one's familial obligations and reinforces the importance of the five Confucian relationships particularly the bonds to mothers, because in Korea, mothers play a very important, supportive role in regard to their child's education, teachers and classmates.

Unlike in the West, where the college entrance test is viewed as an IQ test, in Korea and Japan it is seen as an index of how well the student is trained. As Eberts and Eberts (1995) have noted:

In some sense it appears that Japanese and Korean schools are training students instead of teaching them. The important point appears to be the long hours of studying as opposed to the knowledge gained during the study. Japanese and Korean students are tested to see if they will be obedient, hardworking, and loyal to the company. (p. 226)

In other words, what is valued is not the intellectual endeavor of acquiring information, of learning new things, and making connections between them. Rather, what is admired are the personal qualities on the part of the successful examinee, such as discipline,
obedience, spirit, a good memory, and the ability to postpone gratification. Fisher (1990) states that evidence of preferring more quantifiable characteristics can easily be found by casual perusal of the examination questions: "short answer and multiple choice prevail, few if any essay or interpretative questions appear...Nor any intelligence quotient kinds of questions to be found...Emphasis is on mastery of facts, control over detail" (p. 94). Therefore, performance is not assessed strictly from the viewpoint of ability, as in the West. If the student fails the test, he/she is simply told he/she did not study hard enough and that he/she needs to be more disciplined, and to show better spirit.

Korean Tradition Versus United States Tradition

The concept of the self is a major fundamental difference between the American and Korean cultures. According to Stewart (1972), Americans react with bewilderment when confronted with people who do not possess the same self-concept as they do. The idea of the self not being located in the individual is contrary to common sense in the American way of thinking. As a result, when Americans interact with Asians, for example, cultural gaps can rapidly develop over the differing perceptions of self.
The differences in self-perceptions between Asian cultures and Western cultures are characterized by Stewart (1972) and Park (1979) in a comparison of Korean and American mentality.

According to Park (1979), in the Korean culture every human relationship is always centered around the thoughts of someone else. One always feels the presence of another person and cannot stand on one's own feet without thinking of the other. In contrast, the Western culture, each person is respected as an individual; in Korea, all human relations are deeply affected by the consideration of others. Koreans seem to be more concerned about how others regard them than how they regard themselves.

The first and foremost consideration among those observing the Eastern philosophy tends to be something greater or larger than oneself. This is illustrated in the way Koreans write their addresses. The Koreans proceed from a larger unit to a smaller unit: from their country or province, to the name of the town, the local street name and number, their last or family name, and finally to their given or first name. In contrast, Americans begin with their first name, then write their last name, followed by street number and name, and they end with the city, state, and country (Park, 1979).
Koreans regard the nation as their community, and the family is the core, and the way they write their address shows this. On the other hand, Americans value themselves as being the center. Therefore, Americans attach priority to those things closest to the self. By placing their given names first they identify themselves as unique individuals different from other people including the other members of their family. On the other hand, when asked to identify themselves, Koreans disclose their last name or family name first. Americans refer to themselves with a proud "I" but Koreans either omit the "I," referring to themselves as humble beings. Korean society is a totality in which "I" is buried within "We" (Park, 1979).

It is important to understand a general foundation of American cultural values, beliefs and customs which Katz (1985) describes "typical" American culture, values, beliefs and customs, such as the use of I in Table 4. Because of the inextricable link of language and culture together, the more clearly people can understand that relationship and the view people have of themselves and others within various cultural contexts, the more grounded people can be in developing an intercultural communicative competence (ICC).
Table 4. Components of American Culture: Values and Beliefs
(Katz, 1985, p. 618)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rugged individualism:</th>
<th>Protestant work ethic:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Individual is primary unit and responsibility</td>
<td>• Working hard brings success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Independence and autonomy highly valued and rewarded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competition:</th>
<th>Progress and future orientation:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Winning is everything</td>
<td>• Plan for future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Win/lose dichotomy</td>
<td>• Delayed gratification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Value continual improvement and progress</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action orientation:</th>
<th>Emphasis on scientific method:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Must master and control nature</td>
<td>• Objective, rational, linear thinking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Must always do something about a situation</td>
<td>• Cause and effect relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pragmatic/utilitarian view of life</td>
<td>• Quantitative emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Dualistic thinking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision making:</th>
<th>Status and power:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Majority rule when American have power</td>
<td>• Measured by economic possessions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Hierarchical</td>
<td>• Credentials, titles, and positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Pyramid structure</td>
<td>• Believe &quot;own&quot; system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Believe better than other systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Owning goods, space, property</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4: Components of American Culture: Values and Beliefs (cont)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication:</th>
<th>Family structure:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Standard English</td>
<td>- Patriarchal structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Written tradition</td>
<td>- The nuclear family is the ideal social unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Direct eye contact</td>
<td>- The man is breadwinner and the head of the household</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Limited physical contact</td>
<td>- The woman is homemaker and subordinate to the husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Controlled emotions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time:</th>
<th>Aesthetics:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Adherence to rigid time schedules</td>
<td>- Music and art based on European cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Time is viewed as a commodity</td>
<td>- Women’s beauty based on a blonde, blue-eyed, thin, young model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Men’s attractiveness based on athletic ability, power, and economic status</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holidays:</th>
<th>Religion:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Based on the Christian religion</td>
<td>- Belief in Christianity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Based on a Eurocentric white history with male leaders</td>
<td>- No tolerance for deviation from the single “good” concept</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| History: | |
|----------||
| - Based on European immigrants’ experience in United States | |
| - Romanticize war | |
Crosscultural Differences in Classroom Behavior

By learning more about the cultural differences of Korean and Americans, teachers can interpret more accurately the behavioral differences between Korean and American students. The study of cultural differences should, however, be done with care and sensitivity.

According to linguist Wong-Fillmore, 1981:

...while I regard the question of cultural influences on learning, especially on language, as an important one for us to consider, it is one that I approach with a good deal of caution and trepidation. Such considerations all too easily become the basis for creating stereotypes, and for misjudging the complexity of learning problems. (p. 24)

Generalizations made about different culture illustrate patterns of behavior that may be considered characteristic of Koreans. These general descriptions do not necessarily apply to every Korean. Honig (1992) demonstrates the different values in the classroom behavior between students in Korea and the United States (see Table 5).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean Values</th>
<th>American Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Show respect by avoiding eye contact, bowing not initiating conversation with an elder.</td>
<td>1. Show proper behavior by maintaining eye contact, smiling, and making friendly conversation with an elder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Must choose differentiated vocabulary and verb forms in order to speak politely to a “superior.”</td>
<td>2. Do not differentiate their word choices radically when speaking to a teacher or a parent’s friend. Do not even perceive these adults to be “superior.” Will be oneself in all situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Will never use the name of an adult when speaking face-to-face. Will call the instructor “teacher” rather than by name.</td>
<td>3. Politely calls adults by name; for example, “Mrs. Jones” or “Mr. Smith.” It is rude to address an instructor merely as “teacher.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Avoid insulting the teacher’s efforts by saying, “I don’t understand.” Will nod politely even while not understanding and attribute the difficulty to their own lack of diligence.</td>
<td>4. Should speak up whenever they do not understand. Asking questions demonstrates one’s intelligence. Perceive their own learning to depend on good or bad teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean Values</td>
<td>American Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Will remain silent rather than show faulty understanding or command of a skill. To put forth a mistaken answer or an unperfected skill is a personal embarrassment and an insult to the teacher and the discipline.</td>
<td>5. Will give their best efforts to answer a question or do a particular task, because trying is more important than being absolute correct. Although just beginners, these students will not hesitate to demonstrate a skill or speak about a particular subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Will hesitate to express a personal opinion for fear that it may sound presumptuous or run contrary to the feelings of the teacher. However, students are encouraged to speak their minds when confronted with unfairness, dishonesty, or other immoral behavior.</td>
<td>6. Should be able to give their own views on a topic when called on by the teacher and to defend their statements with reasonable arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Must defer to the judgment of superiors and should avoid open disagreements. To be contentious is a sign of conceit.</td>
<td>7. Are encouraged to develop an independent viewpoint and to express it, although it may be in contrast with the view of the teacher or other students. Debating is a high-level oral skill.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Teaching the United States as Target Culture

Because language and culture do not evolve along separate paths but are interwined, each partly shapes the other (Nelson, 1999). The teachers must convey this notion to students and, when possible, provide illustrations to show these relationships. In doing so, teachers not only sensitize the students to cultural implications of both the first language (L1) and the second language (L2), but also make the study of L2 more enjoyable.

The rationale for studying culture in the L2 classroom reflects the rise of communicative teaching approaches and textbooks. According to Nelson (1999), the newer techniques and materials are more context-based than student predecessors, and also are more “student friendly” by acknowledging the different needs, backgrounds and expectations of students.

The students are sensitive to cultural differences, especially in those English-speaking nations that encourage immigration from a variety of countries. In many cases, teachers in ESL classrooms who adapt well to the diverse backgrounds of their students purposely select instructional materials emphasizing cultural variety (Nelson, 1999).
English as a world language is impacting other cultures. The term globalization is more than goods and services traded internationally, and includes aspects of telecommunications and media influence as well (Stempleski, 1993). Students are exposed to English through the Internet, movies, television, and so on. Therefore, ESL and EFL teachers should address these media based social changes and utilize them to increase levels of interest and motivation in the classroom. By utilizing media in teaching ESL/EFL, learning by studying other societies can be fun as well. What’s more, students may actively participate in conversations discussing the differences and similarities of their culture, in comparison to that of the one being presented via computer, television, or printed publications (Stempleski, 1993).

Whereas there are a number of reasons why different culture should be introduced to the classroom, the ways to do so may be limited only by the teacher’s or students’ imagination. The traditional method is to view culture as a societal institution. However, a newer approach according to Nelson (1999) is to view culture as an output, concentrating not on institutions but on social values and beliefs. The teacher may introduce aspects of
art, literature, music or religion, using carefully selected L2 expressions to compare societies. In this regard, photographs, print media, popular music and videos may all be employed to encourage students to compare their own culture to another. Studying culture in this manner is more likely to generate class interest than studying institutions, and consequently is better suited for communicative-based language instruction and elicitation.

Another approach is to view culture as behavior, or what people actually do. This method incorporates findings from studies in psychology, sociology and communication, and analyzes customs, greetings, body language, gestures and other behaviors. Students get to role-play and interact, often using their own initiative in different social situations. For example, a section entitled “What do you say when?” may challenge students to generate appropriate language forms for greetings, apologies, taking leave, embarrassment, anger and so on (Nelson, 1999).

Although it may be more difficult for the teacher to get sufficient material to discuss another foreign culture, the benefits from highly motivated students using language in real situations can easily outweigh drawbacks.
Limitations of Crosscultural Teaching

Although cultural comparisons may encourage learning, they may unintentionally create problems in the classroom. For example, time pressures in a low-level classroom may cause teachers to over-generalize about a target society, and in doing so greatly simplify the complexity of its institutions, values, and behaviors. Rather than explain the meaning of phrases, realia or pictures in context, the instructor may hurriedly discuss them in terms of cultural stereotypes and symbols (Nelson, 1999).

Another problem is the undue emphasis placed on Western culture in general, and on English-speaking countries in particular. The reasons for this restricted focus are obvious: most of the published materials come from North America and Europe; students want to learn about Western culture; and the target language is English. Nevertheless, the teachers should consider exposing students to the world, not just the West. Accordingly, the materials and lessons should consider non-Western countries where English is spoken as a first or important second language (e.g., India, Ghana), or even where it is studied as a foreign language (e.g., China, Japan) (Nelson, 1999).
Limiting the curriculum to studies of the West, inadvertently introduces other problems such as implied cultural superiority. According to Kemp and Weiss (1998), there is no culture which is superior to any other nor is any one culture more intricate and difficult to learn. This problem is extensive in an EFL setting, where native English speakers, invariably from North America, the UK, Australia, New Zealand or South Africa, deliberately or unconsciously glorify their own society when comparing it either to the host country or to another being studied by the class (Kemp & Weiss, 1998). While the comparative language forms may be unintended, the message conveyed is often subtle yet unmistakable: "country's way of life is superior" (Kemp & Weiss, 1998). A better approach is not to speak either of one's own or target culture in positive or negative terms, but whenever possible to speak neutrally of each.

In conclusion, crosscultural content is worthy as a product, in which the instructor has the class study one or more societies using English as the medium of communication. Crosscultural teaching methods are also valuable, however, as a process, whereby culture is a means to an end by providing a stimulating subject for students to converse about in English.
Teaching cultural awareness is also suitable for all ages, objectives and teaching styles. But it is the teachers' responsibility to ensure that they select materials appropriate to the level and learning capabilities of the class.

The way people perceive the world influences how they communicate. Unfortunately few people perceive their environment in exactly the same way because of biological and experiential differences. The consequence is that misunderstandings often occur as people talk together. When persons of dissimilar cultures interact, the possibilities of communication difficulties happening are greater. Knowing what causes the barriers to develop, the teachers should be better able to teach across cultures.

Teaching Crosscultural Study

The teachers' responsibility is to develop competence in English for communication across cultures. Then the course must be organized to bring the learner into contextual contact with the language in some rational way.

According to Lado (1988), language is more highly structured than its culture, and its rules and units are more precise than those of culture. To organize a beginning language course on the basis of culture would create havoc with the learning of the language, but to
teach a language as a mathematical machine without reference to its culture is false in human terms. Language for communication should be taught as language and, as such, must include its cultural dimension. Communication without regard to cultural contexts and meanings is at best incomplete; at worst, it is a sure ticket to miscommunication and misunderstanding.

Situations. Communication in English must be taught in context and exemplified in communicative situations. Setting the situation will require cultural clarification or roles, expectations, customs, beliefs, and so on. Long explanations that precede the situation can be ineffective for ESL/EFL learners. Brief comments interjected into or immediately following the observed performances are more necessary and useful (Lado, 1988).

Bulletin boards and displays. Timely displays of pictures, articles, and other cultural material and realia will increase learner motivation and demonstrate the ways that the second language and culture function among real people rather than within the pages of the textbook and the demands of the teacher (Lado, 1988).

Announcements of coming artistic performances, art exhibits, important movies, sports events, and other attractions that relate to the second culture can be made
in class and reinforced on bulletin boards. Students that attend them will be proud to report to the class and answer questions about their impressions. A wise teacher will help those students beforehand in order to make the presentation interesting and culturally valuable as well as being effectively contributive to the students’ competence (Lado, 1988).

Cultural themes. It is possible and pedagogically useful to discuss cultural themes or topics, such as humor, dating and marriage, holidays, and sports events, that have parallel themes in both cultures. Insight into customs related to such themes will explain expressions that are found in everyday language, thereby increasing crosscultural understanding (Lado, 1988).

Such cultural themes should be treated by using the target language. The themes must be selected on the basis of general interest and appeal to motivate the learners. If literary selections are used, they should be selected not to illustrate literary genres or the literary history of the language, but to promote language competence and facility in its cultural framework (Lado, 1988).

Contrastive analysis. Often a contrastive analysis of a cultural matter that repeatedly causes crosscultural misinformation will result in a more intellectual
understanding of what the event or matter means to the other culture. Emotional, affective realization of what contrastive analysis represents to the students may be difficult or impossible to achieve, because they are so invested in their own culture. Learners can dislike something yet understand that to other people it does not have the same meaning and feeling (Lado, 1988).

In conclusion, when the learner has had no experience with the structure of a particular target language culture, communication will often fail. The teacher has to explain and clarify cultural as well as linguistic meanings when they are relevant to the learning situation. Otherwise, the teachers have mistaught. Although a teacher cannot teach all the possible instances in which misunderstandings might occur, it is possible to sensitize the learner on the basis of the teacher's experience and analysis of some of the elements of misunderstanding. For example, Korean children are enculturated to look down and avoid eye contact as a sign of respect. The U.S. child, however, is enculturated to look others in the eye as a sign of honesty. Thus, the U.S. teacher may misinterpret their Korean students' behavior as evidence of guilt (Lee, 1977). However, if the teacher is aware of this cultural difference, he or she, can in an appropriate manner help
the child look at the teacher in a U.S. school context, so to speak, yet allow the child to continue behaving in a Korean way or in a Korean context.

Korean students need to make the transition from the traditions of their native culture to the values of their learning target language. Teachers need to teach the differences and support the process. Adopting a new culture, which new values are added rather than substituted, can provide a strong foundation for students to learn target language. Students who are taught to respect their traditional roots emerge as healthier individuals than those who do not.

Cultural teaching does not mean transforming an individual into a citizen of the target culture. Rather, it allows the students to understand the rules and expectations of the new culture. Teachers of ESL/EFL should and do teach the students the culture in the classes when goal of teaching L2 is communicative competence.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning

The Internet is fast becoming a valuable resource for students of English as a foreign language (EFL) and a second language (ESL). It is probably the most
wide-ranging and most quickly accessible collection of English language materials in the world. The use of computers in language education has become increasingly popular because studies show that it has the potential to advance English proficiency in ESL/EFL classrooms by involving students actively.

The demands of the global marketplace and village are forcing all nations to look outward with regard to the use of an international language, and Korea is no exception. To compete in the global economy, students in Korea must be able to use the recognized international language, English, at a level of proficiency to the international community.

In Asian countries such as Korea, rapid industrialization, globalization, and the need to access the Internet have created a need to learn English by using conventional small classes of 30 students or fewer. Korean universities may not be able to meet this need due to budgetary constraints as labor costs rise. However, the research shows that multimedia computer-assisted language learning (MCALL), if used effectively, can make language teaching learner-centered and cost-effective.

Soo and Ngeow's (1998) study indicates that the University of Malaysia set up the first multimedia
self-access English proficiency course in a Southeast Asian university. The objective was to ascertain how well University of Malaysia freshmen could learn proficient English with MCALL. The 111 students in the course had no scheduled classes, no planned access to human teachers, and no textbook. They depended almost entirely on themselves and on the multimedia computer to learn, practice, revise, and evaluate their progress. Externally, progress in the course was measured by the Institutional TOEFL. Compared to 76 students in conventional teacher-taught proficiency classes, the experimental group achieved 50 percent higher scores in 30 percent less time at 17 percent of the existing cost (calculated over 4 years). The results from two groups were significantly different statistically.

Soo and Ngeow (1998) propose a new MCALL program to overcome the bottlenecks of the conventional English proficiency programs in a cost-effective manner. They also argue that in using digital multimedia, it is possible to teach the English Language at a much reduced cost compared to conventional teacher-taught classes.

Based upon these recommendations, in order to realize the sufficient and effective use of computers in English class, it is important for the teachers, educators,
administrators, and parents, to recognize the importance of computer use in English education.

**Different Types of Computer Utilization in Education**

Cotton and Wikelund (1997) state that the "information age has clearly arrived and in the '90s the educational use of computer technology will surely continue to grow" (p. 1). There is no doubt that computers have great potential on education (Chapelle, 1995). Also, there are a variety of terms for computer-based instruction according to its characteristics and instructional functions. The following are definitions for each term.

**Computer-Based Instruction (CBI).** This is a general term, and refers to all kinds of educational computer use which includes individual learning activities and instructed computer activities, such as tutorials, simulations, drills and practice, word processors, database, instructional management, and other applications (Yu, 1997). Computer-Managed Instruction (CMI) and Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI) are two divisions of CBI.

**Computer-Managed Instruction (CMI).** This refers to using a computer system "to manage information about
learner performance and learning resource options in order to prescribe and control individualized lessons" (Bozeman & Baumbach, 1995). Teachers may use CMI when they guide students to appropriate learning resources; for example, by organizing students' data and making instructional activities, or evaluating students' performance and keeping track of their progress (Cotton & Wikelund, 1997; Lin, 1995; Buake, 1982).

Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI). CAI refers to the use of a computer as a teaching tool to help teachers and students to complete instructional goals (Bourne, 1990). According to Buake (1982), CAI can facilitate and certify learning; that is, "using the computer to make learning easier and more likely to occur (facilitation), as well as using the computer to create a record proving that learning has occurred (certification)" (p. 16).

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL). This is a more specific term, which "concerns the use of computers to assist in second or foreign language (L2) instructional activities" (Dunkel, 1991, p. 28). In other words, CALL is CAI applied to second language learning.

According to Wyatt (1984), the objective of CALL is to enhance teachers' ability to teach, not to replace them. Wyatt also argues that this misconception of CALL is
intrinsically behaviorist in nature because the actual function of CALL is not to replace teachers, but to enhance students' reading, writing, and communicative skills in English. In fact, there are various CALL activities that enable students to practice language skills that fall anywhere on the spectrum from mechanical to meaningful to communicative material. Wyatt (1984) also describes the potential roles of the teacher within CALL as being grouped into three main categories: the roles of instructor, collaborator, and facilitator.

There are two predominant types of activities associated with CALL: drill-and-practice exercises and tutorial programs (Frederick, 1980). Drill-and-practice programs are designed to provide students, who are assumed to have already received an introduction to the topic, with carefully structured opportunities to use, reinforce, and master the relevant points. On the other hand, tutorial CALL takes on the burden of introducing the topic to students, assuming little or no prior introduction. In tutorial CALL, there are often elaborate branching possibilities to provide extra instruction and practice for students who experience difficulty in grasping the material. Both drill-and-practice and tutorial programs generally have associated management systems that can
provide extensive score and progress reports to students
and their teachers.

In the instructional role, the computer program
presents material and conducts practice activities as an
authority figure. It teaches students in a highly
preplanned fashion, and they have only to follow the
directions and work at producing the anticipated language
forms and responses (Wyatt, 1984).

The second main role for the computer, collaborative
CALL, has received much less attention to date. The
distinguishing characteristic of this approach is that the
initiative is turned over to the student or group of
students. Sometimes the end result of the activity will be
predetermined, and sometimes it will be completely
unpredictable. More important, the path to the final goal
and the language used by students will vary quite widely
because they depend on the students' individual decisions.
This can be achieved in some cases in very simple ways.
For example, when working with question patterns, one type
of activity might involve the students' trying to discover
some items of information that the computer alone
possesses. The only way for students to obtain the
information is by questioning the computer, which acts as
an interlocutor, yielding information only when the appropriate questions are addressed to it (Wyatt, 1984).

The third main category consists of facilitative applications of the computer. Here, the computer simply serves as a tool (Coburn, Kelman, Roberts, Snyder, Watt, & Weiner, 1982). It should be emphasized that the other activities’ referred to are not necessarily computer-assisted activities at all. For example, a writing class can be taught in an entirely traditional manner except that some or all of the writing assignments are to be done using the computer as a word processor. Through its ability to store each editing technique, the computer can greatly facilitate the writing process. None of the actual teaching needs to be done on the computer (Wyatt, 1984). Similarly, a potential role for the computer in reading classes is that of electronic dictionary (Jamieson & Chapelle 1986).

Advantages of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Wyatt (1984) emphasizes some advantages of computer-assisted instruction in ESL/EFL. First of all, "interactivity" is an important advantage of computers in education in the sense that computer programs respond differently and appropriately to the "best" answer,
alternative correct answers, predicted wrong answers, and other wrong answers. Immediate and informative feedback can thus be provided, and students are generally kept continuously aware of the results of their use of language.

Second of all, Wyatt states, well-designed programs are highly student centered. One facet of this is self-pacing in which students are generally given complete control over the speed of presentation of material. The students can usually choose to work repeatedly on topics that are interesting or difficult for them. The computer will provide patient, tireless practice for as long as necessary. In this context, the emotionally neutral tone and absence of peer group audience permit students to take risks, make mistakes, and try again to a much greater extent than they might be willing to do in the public classroom.

The third advantage Wyatt refers to in his discussion of CAI is "individualization." As only one student is assumed to be using the material, it can be designed to adapt to individual strengths and weaknesses. Students experiencing problems may be given messages pinpointing their personal area of difficulty, followed by repeated opportunities to try again. In order to deal with serious
problems, individual students may be branched to more elementary tutorials and simpler exercises before rejoining the original activity. In the meantime, abler students are allowed to move more rapidly through the instructional sequence, thus being able to finish exercises early whenever they demonstrate a clear mastery of the topic.

Next advantage, Wyatt also addresses the issue of "extensive class administration and management options." Here, detailed records of student usage, scores, and performance can be maintained for the information of both teachers and students. Also, diagnostic and achievement tests can be administered by computer with automatic routing to the necessary CALL materials for future developmental work or remediation.

The final advantage which Wyatt advocates is the "pedagogical effectiveness of instructional CALL materials." Quantitative studies on learning gains in English as a second language are difficult to locate. However, qualitative studies have been reported that fit in with the intuitive evidence of ESL/EFL teachers who have used instructional CALL materials with very positive results in terms of student acceptance and satisfaction.
Actually, there is much evidence that computer technology can make teaching and learning easier, more effective, and more interesting. For example, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) provides interactive and interesting learning activities to build not only ESL/EFL students' linguistic skills but communicative proficiency as well. The use of computers offers solution to a variety of learning difficulties existing in current English as a second language and English as a foreign language.

Limitations of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

In spite of the many advantages of computer-assisted instruction in ESL/EFL, there are some problems, which limit the teachers' use of computer instruction as a tool. Soo and Ngeow (1998) indicate that one of the problems is inadequate teacher training. Teacher training is important, and is the most neglected element in the area of computer-assisted learning. Teachers need to be knowledgeable in using the computer application and highly involved in using software so that they can deal with the difficulties that students may encounter. Moreover, school administrations need to provide adequate teacher training
so that teachers may experience and share the power of technology.

In fact, some teachers have a negative image about the computer. According to Simonson and Thompson (1994), some teachers are afraid that the computer may replace the teacher; or teachers do not have the confidence to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills.

Another limitation is budgetary. For example, new technologies such as computer software, hardware, video or other multimedia equipment are too expensive to fit most school and district budgets. For that reason, school computer equipment usually consists of outdated hardware and software. As Simonson and Thompson (1994) state, “most school systems are not financially equipped to replace computer equipment every two or three years, as the rate of development of the industry would dictate” (p. 134).

Teachers are central to the process of creating opportunities for students to learn appropriately and effectively. Computers are not replacing teachers but rather are changing the nature of their work. So in this sense, when teachers understand both advantages and disadvantages of CAI and effectively incorporate CAI into ESL/EFL curriculum, teachers will make a lot of difference in students’ learning environment.
Crosscultural Awareness in Computer-Assisted Language Learning

The purpose of language is to communicate with one another. Thus, to learn a second language, the target culture must be provided in the classroom (Yu, 1997). The awareness of crosscultural differences can stimulate student interest and also increase their understanding of the target language. Chen (1996) states that a realistic learning environment can facilitate second language acquisition along with target language input. Another researcher, Underwood (1984) believes that using the combination of technology with authentic cultural content can enhance students' understanding and interests. In this sense, visual and aural aids should be offered as teaching/learning tools in the ESL/EFL classroom. The content of software and teaching material must be based upon the target language environment. For example, the contents of listening comprehension in TOEFL examinations describe American college life. If learners are familiar with American campus life, the test's content will be easier to understand (Yu, 1997).

Another example of how the material can direct ESL/EFL students towards learning the target language is the interaction that takes place in the chat room tutorial.
session. According to Diaz-Rico (2001b), provides the chat room tutorial a different experience for everyone. Not everyone is a good typist, and perfect spelling is nice, but not really necessary. Even complete sentences are not that necessary. Chat rooms in themselves are not writing seminars. Instead, the emphasis should be placed on authentic communication, not accuracy in syntax or usage.

In addition, Diaz-Rico elaborates on the interaction that occurs in chat rooms in that experiences with non-native speakers of English help one to be aware of cultural differences not only in face-to-face interactions but in chat rooms as well. Some people are more comfortable with computers and with computer-mediated communication in general. This is not a function of language but rather of experience, because the student participating in the chat room is more concerned with the conversational aspects rather than formal structural aspects of language such as grammar and pronunciation. Therefore, the ESL/EFL student may feel more at ease and converse with others more openly.

Singhal (1997) states that the Internet is also a good source to learn to a target language, because it provides fast-pace, interactive experiences to enhance
crosscultural understanding and tactics, and prepares individuals to enter the global village.

Diaz-Rico (2001a) indicates that teachers who are aware of students’ needs at various stages of their adjustment to the academic demands of language learning and the stresses of life will help students become more successful learners. Moreover, those who teach in multicultural and crosscultural classroom reap what they sow. As Diaz-Rico explains, “If the teachers offer cultural understanding, they receive it; if they offer language exchange, their foreign language skills grow; if they offer empathy, they grow as human beings. Teaching crossculturally is a challenge and an art” (p. 2). In the case of CAI, teachers can use this technological instruction method as a way to offer more opportunities for ESL/EFL students to enhance their language skills.

**Computer-Assisted Language Learning Software**

Technology as a teaching tool offers many venues for delivering educational resources. One of the resources is to choose the right teaching material, which should include educational software that is carefully chosen to meet ESL/EFL students’ needs in particular classroom.

The computer software is an educational goal of language teaching, which is meant to provide long-term
learning. The evaluations of computer software are expressed in the communicative approach (Campbell & Yong, 1993). This is an approach which rests upon a goal of long-term accomplishment in language learning and places an emphasis on the student’s participation rather than the teacher’s presentation. Long-term learning requires proficiency in all language skills with an understanding of grammatical structure.

According to Shaw (1992), the computer lends itself as an effective tool for learner assessment and drilling for the individual student, which is a service desperately needed in large classes. In contrast, survival skills in language, skills needed by those who are functionally illiterate, are easily acquired in a short time with a limited oral vocabulary. Knowledge of grammatical structures is not as necessary for this purpose as it would be in a more academic application.

There are many qualities to consider and expect when evaluating or considering the purchase of educational software. With considerable planning, educational software serve as an indispensable tool in the classroom. The success or failure of a multimedia application can be determined by how students learn in the context of the application as well as by the computer proficiency level.
of the students. The success or failure of a piece of software is determined by its design considerations.

Egbert and Hanson-Smith (1999) examine and analyze multimedia computer programs in order to evaluate their relative merits as a means to enhancing students’ knowledge and understanding of the target language. Multimedia on the computer allows students to control the number of repetitions and the amount of nonlanguage media support, a choice of other languages for bilingual glossing, and instant replay from any point in an audio or video presentation to help them better focus on personal areas of weakness.

Computers seem to have many advantages over the audio recorder: listening to voices in a visual context can create strong memory links than voices alone can; and instant, accurate playback enables students to hear specific parts of a segment without a tedious search through an audiotape, which is quite difficult even on an audiotape player with a counter (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999).

Thornton and Dudley (1996) find that students spent considerably less time on non-learning tasks, such as rewinding, when using the computer-based materials. Ease of use does not mean, however, that students actually take
advantage of a feature. This study also indicates that students in the computer-using group spent less time listening, although they scored just as well as the audiotape player-using group when tested. In other words, Thornton and Dudley’s (1996) study concluded that students can obtain input faster with computers than with older technology. Ease of reply and the student’s control over reply make the CALL environment a very rich source of listening input, particularly with the full contextual support of multimedia.

One of the earliest multimedia programs, The Rosetta Stone (1995), is popular both in schools and with tourists or causal language learners. The software starts by presenting individual words at the zero level (in any one of a dozen or so languages) in several display modes (photos, text, and sound), offering learners a recording option and a testing mode in which the students either type words or click the mouse on the appropriate photo or text. As the learner progresses through the skill levels, full sentences are eventually introduced. Students can test themselves by listening (with or without simultaneously seeing the text) and clicking onto a photo, or they can simply listen to the labels on the photos read
in sequence. Test scores in the full school version are kept in permanent student files for the teacher to review.

Thus, The Rosetta Stone (1995), may be useful as a self-access program for the students who are at too low of a level to benefit from classroom interaction or as a way of introducing handwriting or the written system of language.

Another type of software favored for language input is the point-and-click environment, as, found with the Community Exploration (1994). This is one of the pioneer programs in multimedia language software, one which has worn remarkably well. Instead of showing unrelated photos on a screen, it presents landscapes and rooms with people, actions, and objects in naturalistic association. From an overview of a city, users click on a building in order to enter it. Next, they click on figures on the screen to hear a word and one or more sentences related to the setting. Students zoom in from a city scene to specific neighborhoods and buildings that provide a context in which to explore words and sentences. Sound effects and short, sometimes humorous animations enhance the realism and motivate continued exploration. Students may record their voices, and scores on vocabulary tests are saved onto a file.
The presentation of objects and actions in a coherent setting in *Community Exploration* (1994) results in far greater comprehensibility of input than that found in *The Rosetta Stone* (1995), although *Community Exploration* is less comprehensive. Its humor makes it appropriate for beginning adolescent learners who may quickly become bored with the very dry presentation of words and structures in *The Rosetta Stone*.

Also, a number of dictionaries or encyclopedias on CD-ROM use point-and-click exploration to introduce reading vocabulary. One problem to watch for, however, is the overuse of special effects; that is, exaggerated sound effects or animation that, despite their entertainment value, may keep students from learning the words. This problem most often presents itself in software targeted towards children. The latent assumption seems to be that children can only be amused or entertained, not taught, an approach that devalues the learning process. An example of this problem is found in the charming but occasionally fluffy *Me and My World*, a picture dictionary (1995). For example, in one of the scenarios, an octopus turns into a woman's head with Medusa-like hair. The image is amusing, but it is confusing for language intake because the
animation has little to do with the ocean context (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 193).

In order to use the point-and-click environment successfully for student input, teachers should develop a careful set of lessons relating the software to course content. An example of what can be done is The New Oxford Picture Dictionary CD-ROM (1997), a fully contextualized multimedia dictionary. On the page titled “The Market,” students can click on an item to hear its name, which appears in a text box below the picture. Submenus lead to detailed pictures of food items and more vocabulary. A button control panel takes the students to practice games, tests, and readings (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999, p. 194).

Reagan (1999) introduces the Internet which provides a number of free, authentic listening resources that are particularly appropriate as input for intermediate to advanced learners. The sites below offer opportunities for ESL/EFL students to interact in readings, games, exercises, and other activities. The two selected below are among the most organized and easiest for

Dave’s ESL Café: http://www.eslcafe.com/ The premier ESL/EFL web site on the web, Dave’s ESL Café gives students a variety of easy ways to interact with each other (and with native speakers) and to learn English on
the web. It contains 24 different sections, with something of interest for almost any student. Each section is presented in a clear, easy-to-read fashion, employing large fonts and a variety of colors for both background and text. In addition, the material is accessible to most browsers; that is, no additional plug-ins (e.g. JavaScript, QuickTime, Shockwave) are required.

Grammar for English Language Learners:
http://www.tcom.ohiou.edu/OU_Language/english/grammar.html
This page lists approximately 40 links to many of the best English grammar sites on the Web. Included are On-line Grammar Exercises & Activities, Grammar Reference sites, Special Problems in Grammar, Grammar Help Services, and Other Grammar Resources.

Reading Resources for English Language Learners:
http://www.tcom.ohious.edu/OU_Language/english/reading.html
This set of links from Ohio University provides students with many opportunities to read texts written at varying levels of difficulty and in many different genres. In addition, some of the sites listed here contain student-produced stories and short essays. Categories of these particular sites include the flowing: Reading Resources for Everyone; Reading Resources for English
Language Learners; Activities and Quizzes; Stories; Songs; Poems; Interactive Fiction; and Et Cetera.

Learn2.com : http://learn2.com/ Learn2.com is a wonderful collection of information, which yahoo! Internet Life magazine has labeled "The #1 Most Incredibly Useful Site on the Web." The basic components of the site are brief, simply-written, illustrated tutorials on an array of daily life skills, ranging from Cooking to Communication to Childcare. The immediate outcome of learning a real-life skill provides the motivation to read, while the clearly organized writing and illustrations provide the support needed for ESL/EFL students to become more fluent in the target language.

Online Writing Lab: http://owl.English.purdue.edu/ The Online Writing Lab is one of the most comprehensive sites for both learning and teaching composition. Not strictly limited to ESL writing, it features a variety of resources such as proper grammar usage as well as writing process techniques useful to students at any language or grade level.

Writing Resources for English Language Learners: http://www.tcom.ohiou.edu/OU_Language/english/writing.html Another fine set of links can be found on Ohio University's Website, which includes several categories:
Online Writing Resources; Tips for Writers; Organization and Style; Mechanics; The writing Process; Topics for Writing; Research and Writing; and Writing for Special Purposes.

**Vocabulary Quizzes:**
http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes/vocabulary.html
This is perhaps the largest collection (220+ and growing) of self-study vocabulary quizzes on the web. It has been divided into general levels of difficulty; easy, easy to medium, medium, and difficult. Within each level, students may choose from a wide range of topics. The tests are done in a multiple choice format with answers obtained immediately by simply clicking on the “Answer” button.

**ESL Idiom Page:** http://www.eslcafe.com/idioms/ Part of Dave’s ESL Café, a clearly-organized site allows students to view the following components: a list of all idioms in the collection, an alphabetical list of idiom meanings and examples, and a random idiom from the list.

**BBC English: Radio Programms with Internet Pages (RealAudio):**
http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldwervice/BBC_English/progs.htm
This site provides links to a wide variety of Internet radio resources for ESL/EFL students, many of which require the real Audio Player. The links are rated
according to level of English ability; elementary, intermediate, and advanced. Themes include About the English Language, Magazine Series, Science, British Studies, Development, Business English, Sport, and For Teachers.

Pronunciation (.wav files):
http://sorak.kaist.ac.kr/aizen/pron.html
A clearly-designed site with a very simple opening page, this resource was created specifically for Korean EFL students. However, many of the lessons will be valuable to learners from other language backgrounds as well. It is divided into two main sections: “Segmentals” and “Suprasegmentals.” The Segmentals section includes lessons on consonants, vowels, clusters, -s endings, -ed endings, and the /siy/sound. The Suprasegmental lessons cover stress, intonation, blending, rhythm, thought groups, and the utilization of can and can’t.

The following entertainment Websites: The Internet Movie Database, All Movie-Guide, The International Lyrics Server Search Page, and Yahoo, reinforce for ESL/EFL students the parts of American culture that heavily influence the English language. As ESL/EFL students use these websites, they are being immersed in the English
language as well as a facet of American culture that ultimately enhances their sense of cultural awareness.

The Internet Movie Database: http://us.imdb.com/ This is the largest collection of movie/TV/video data available on the Internet, with information on over 175 titles including movies released in theaters, made for TV movies, and TV series. The site features are too numerous to list, but some of the more useful ones are a search function (by title or person's name), short plot summaries, biographical information, links to reviews, and links to related movie web sites.

All-Movie Guide: http://www.allmovie.com/index.html Another movie mega-site, the All-Movie Guide has a simpler interface than the site above. The opening screen index is divided into the following sections: movie news, film finder, people finder, plot finder, interviews, quick browse (by genre, country, or time period), movie maps, and a glossary. The search function allows for searches by movie, person, keyword, or plotline.

The International Lyrics Server Search Page: http://www.lyrics.ch/search.html If students want to know the exact words to a particular song, this is the place to send them. The site contains the lyrics of over 104,000 songs, all searchable by title, singer, or album name.
News: http://www.yahoo.com Yahoo! Is definitely the best-organized index of web sites. Every new site is checked carefully by a staff member before it is categorized and included in the index. The opening page is clearly divided into major topics with a list of subtopics. There is also a search engine and current news section. Yahoo! Is available in several languages, including Japanese and Korean.

The Roles of the Teacher in Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Computers have already altered both the techniques and concepts of school administration at the elementary, secondary, and higher levels of education. Potential applications of the computer range all the way from simple monitoring functions to tutorial interaction. Teachers have a continuing obligation to, and dependency on, today’s school system and education, in which CAI and other technology are but part of the system. They are only tools for educators, because ultimately the values, the directions, and the decisions must be human ones. Different people may prefer different values, directions, and decisions, but the purpose of the teaching remains to convey a favorable environment for learning (Margolin & Misch, 1970).
The role for the teacher to play in any classroom which uses self-teaching aids, whether these be computers, television, programmed texts, or other materials, is to facilitate the use and role of these educational tools in a way that benefits the ESL/EFL student's language learning experience.

According to Margolin and Misch (1970), "if large numbers of students are all proceeding, each at students own speed, it is obvious that the teacher cannot be the sole source of the study material, but that the teacher, rather, will have a role similar to a physician's" (p. xi). In other words, the teacher will be primarily concerned with the diagnosis and correction of the individual student's difficulties. Therefore, the teacher will have to be less discipline-oriented and more student-oriented if the teacher is to be successful in such a situation.

Soo and Ngeow (1998) redefine the roles of the teacher in that "the teacher is no longer a transmitter of knowledge; rather he or she has become a mentor and a manager of the learning environment to aid his or her students in constructing knowledge" (p. 2). Basically, the teacher is viewed more as a facilitator in this type of
learning environment, which includes CAI methodology and techniques.

The teacher's main task is creating a learning environment that will provide learners with opportunities to experience the content they are learning. This construction process is not always an easy task and supporting the learners can be a very demanding job. Although control of the learning process is returned to the learners, the teacher must still ensure that the learning is authentic and sufficiently challenging. On the other hand, the teacher must also ensure that the learners do not attempt learning material for which they are not yet ready (Soo & Ngeow, 1998).

Furthermore, Pennington (1996) explains that in some ways, computers can help in this complex role but in return, the teacher will need to acquire a measure of technical expertise to do basic maintenance on the hardware. In short, in this new learning environment, students need a "super" teacher who can act primarily as a "resource provider and mentor, with students as apprentices who gradually advance themselves...to gain an increasing measure of skill and independence over time" (p. 2).
The Internet and the rise of computer-mediated communication in particular have reshaped the uses of computers of language learning. In Korea, the global information-based economies make it so that students will need to learn how to deal with large amounts of information and have to be able to communicate across languages and cultures. At the same time, the role of the teacher has changed as well. Teachers are not the only source of information anymore, but act as facilitators so that students can actively interpret and organize the information they are given, fitting it into prior banks of knowledge. Lee (2000) states that students have become active participants in learning and are encouraged to be explorers and creators of language rather than passive recipients of it.

Additionally, the teacher’s role in Korea needs to allow and encourage learners of a language to communicate more frequently with other learners or native speakers. This discourse method enables students to combine information processing, communication, use of authentic language, and learner autonomy—all of which are of major importance in current language learning environments.

In conclusion, Chapter Two has provided an overview of each key concept pertaining to crosscultural issues. In
the section "Culture as Content," the general understanding of "what is culture?" is discussed in which it is viewed as the sum of attitudes, customs, and beliefs of other people. In the section "Intercultural Communicative Competence," the importance of understanding culture is emphasized for the purpose of learning the target language with conversational competence, and the pedagogical implications of intercultural training. The section "Cultural Differences in the Learning Styles and Strategies," identifies the different teaching and learning styles in which teachers can enhance ESL/EFL learning by understanding the different cultures. Also, this section emphasizes the important role learning strategies play in the process of second language acquisition. Meanwhile, the section "A Crosscultural Approach to Teaching EFL," introduces the importance of understanding one's own culture as well as the target language culture and how the two contrast. Moreover, this section offers the rationale for teaching culture to ESL/EFL students. Within the section "Communicative Language Teaching in ESL/EFL," the development of the communicative competence theory was presented, along with the definition and the implication of the CLT in ESL/EFL,
which was introduced as a way to enhance communicative competence.

Finally, the section "Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)," calls attention to the rapid technological changes currently taking place, globalization, and the need for students to be able to access the Internet, as well as the need for people to learn English. The benefits and limitations of CALL and the teachers' role in CALL are also considered.

The next chapter provides a theoretical framework that combines these key concepts by focusing on the understanding of a crosscultural pedagogical approach by utilizing a CALL environment for the purpose of nurturing ESL/EFL students' communicative competence.
CHAPTER THREE
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Crosscultural Approach for Teaching English as Foreign Language in Korea

This project is based on a rationale that advocates the importance of a crosscultural approach to teaching ESL/EFL students in Korea. It is vital for ESL/EFL students to approach the study of English with strong crosscultural experiences so that they can better understand the similarities and differences between the Korean and the target culture. In doing so, the students will have a greater knowledge of how to approach the study of the English language at any grade level.

In order for this learning approach to be effective, the role of the teacher needs to change from that of the teacher as a transmitter of knowledge to that of the teacher as a facilitator. As Valdés (1986) states, it is the teacher’s responsibility to assist students in understanding culture, which enables students to seek out different methods and approaches to learning English more effectively.

This project encourages the utilization of a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) environment as
a positive and effective way for ESL/EFL students to learn English. The Internet is a good source to learn the target language as it provides fast-paced, interactive experiences to enhance crosscultural understanding, and prepares individuals for the global village. In this case, the teacher must facilitate those CALL activities that make it possible for ESL/EFL students to increase their communicative skills and obtain a deeper appreciation for English-speaking cultures.

Most importantly, the ultimate goal of this project is to enable ESL/EFL students to obtain communicative competence. According to Savignon (1972), communicative competence means the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers and to make meaning, as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge.

However, English education in Korea currently seems to focus only on linguistic competence, which necessitates knowledge about grammatical structure, rather than communicative competence. English teachers in Korea really need to be aware of the position of cultural issues and the importance of communicative skills in the teaching of English as a foreign language. Therefore, it is a teacher’s responsibility to develop competence in English
conversationally as well as formally in order for communication across cultures to be a success.

Achieving Crosscultural Understanding and Intercultural Communicative Competence

As confirmed in Chapter Two, the definition of crosscultural understanding refers to the understanding of how different communities may have varying perceptions of appropriateness and effectiveness within their culture. It is essential for students to have a critical understanding of their own culture before they can effectively study another culture and language.

In this sense, the learning and acquisition of a second language must happen in the context of crosscultural study. Learners need to have a deep understanding of the target culture by having more cultural exposure and by exploring the target culture. In order to achieve a crosscultural understanding, students and teachers must understand the socio-cultural and emotional backgrounds of the target language.

However, in Korea, there is not enough content in the English textbooks related to cultural study. Because of this, it is hard to find teaching materials that contain crosscultural studies to help students think critically.
and explore the cultures of their native country as well as that of English-speaking countries.

Thus, this project incorporates crosscultural studies into a curriculum designed to solve this problem. The aim of this curriculum is to facilitate students' education in both native and target cultures by comparing them through collaborative group discussion, reading, writing, and with the use of computers. The main concern is that ESL/EFL students in Korea gain the tools and knowledge to become cultural explorers through the materials and activities provided in each lesson plan.

Importance of Learning Strategies

As previously mentioned in literature review, due to culture, people who speak different languages may be fundamentally different from one another. The areas of differences include ethnic origins, clothing, food, languages, and learning styles. These differences stem from the societies, cultures, and families that individuals come from. Therefore, it is very important for ESL/EFL teachers to understand these differences as they teach their students English using a crosscultural approach. Also, research has shown that effective instruction should be based on the different learning styles of learners, which can be accomplished by employing...
various teaching styles. Finally, the ultimate mission of educators is to have students acquire the abilities of thinking critically, solving problems, and expressing what they think logically and effectively, in order to succeed in the academic world. In this sense, to teach learning strategies to students is the most important task of all educators. Thus, it is necessary for classroom teachers to know how to teach learning strategies.

Teachers Role as a Facilitator

Teaching a language involves not only utilizing a traditional grammar-oriented approach but also exploring the social and cognitive processes that are involved in the structure of a language. In other words, this view emphasizes that teachers need to provide students with a variety of contexts and task structures for successful language learning.

Therefore, teaching English should not be done solely via traditional lecture-style. With the use of computer technology, a CALL environment can be created; thus, using CAI software, graphics, sounds, and spoken applications to create a more communicative ESL/EFL teaching and learning environment. It is important to note that using the World Wide Web (WWW) has become more
popular in language learning. It allows students to access or retrieve databases in the form of text files, audio, video, graphics, and animation and engage in the English language at many different levels culturally, linguistically, and interactively.

In the case of CALL, an extensive database is combined with online dictionaries to enable ESL/EFL students to easily access English texts. Even though CALL software is designed to feature distinct language skill domains, students are still required to have integrated language skills to complete the activities. Outside of school, students can find self-teaching/learning online lessons from the Internet or self-remediating software to address their personal areas of weakness in regards to their language skills.

Computer learning offers solutions to a variety of learning difficulties inherent in current ESL/EFL pedagogy. Principles derived from various learning theories can be incorporated into effective lesson plans that gear ESL/EFL students towards a communicative competence in English.
Importance of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Using computer-based materials to assist learners in understanding and acquiring information can be a vital source of language stimuli. When language learners acquire skills through the computer environment, there is evidence of more positive learning taking place as it involves critical thinking, problem solving, and cross-cultural knowledge (Yu, 1997).

The curriculum enhanced with current technology is more attractive than lecture-centered learning. Walker (1996) explains that the traditional, language teaching can be augmented by using the computer more in the ESL/EFL classroom. In regards to CAI, students are motivated because they can engage in self-controlled pacing, immediate feedback, colorful images, and controlled content with an emphasis on what they want to learn.

The Internet is fast becoming a valuable resource for students of English as a foreign language (EFL) and a second language (ESL). It is probably the most wide ranging and most quickly accessible collection of English language materials in the world. The use of computers in language education has become increasingly popular because studies show that it has the potential to advance English
proficiency in ESL/EFL classrooms by involving students actively.

The Internet can be used as a tool in manipulating, exploring, observing, using various sensory modalities, discussing, and experimenting; all of which may help to acquire knowledge. Data show that students' attitudes change from passive to active when learners can control educational events, which helps students to develop independent learning habits and logical analysis. Thus, Cowan (1995) states that the computer provides an ideal individual anxiety-free environment for language learning.

The Internet also offers a medium for social interaction, which is necessary for language learning, as it consists of mutual interaction between students and others. It is an important element in helping ESL/EFL learners to attain communicative competence. CAI software also assists learners to become more involved in purposeful interaction. Thus, Sivert and Egbert (1995) state that learner involvement in authentic social interaction in the target language with a knowledgeable source facilitates language acquisition (p.55). In fact e-mail and online chat room are seen as typical interactive activities for ESL/EFL students.
Current technology makes cultural content more relevant. Learners have more opportunities to interact with the target language culture by chatting with people, making pen pals, and participating in discussion groups via the Internet. CAI software, such as stimulation games, also provides real-world experiences for students learning the target language.

A Model to Achieve Crosscultural Understanding and Intercultural Communicative Competence

Figure 2 shows the process of teaching crosscultural understanding using the concepts that were presented in Chapter Two: culture as content as in crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence; language learning strategies; computer-assisted language learning; and the teacher as a facilitator, in order for ESL/EFL students to achieve crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence.

In the figure, crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence comprise the outcome built upon students' prior knowledge of the primary language (L1), own cultural background (C1), a second language (L2), and the target culture (TC); and
Figure 2. A Model for Effective Crosscultural Teaching Using Computer-Assisted Language Learning

OUTCOME:
Crosscultural Understanding and Intercultural Communicative Competence

CLASSEROOM LEARNING PROCESS

Teacher as Facilitator

Crosscultural Similarities and Differences

Intercultural Understanding

Language Learning Strategies

CALL

L1 C1 L2 TC

STUDENTS' PRIOR KNOWLEDGE
classroom learning. The classroom learning process is the second major area, in which teachers organize knowledge about language learning strategies, intercultural understanding, and crosscultural similarities and differences, and in which CALL helps students become successful and independent learners by facilitating teacher's role as a facilitator. The final outcome is to successfully achieve crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence.

Thus, Figure 2 is divided into three different steps: students' prior knowledge, classroom learning process, and outcome. Each step relates to the next.

Students' Prior Knowledge

Students' knowledge of their own language and culture as well as their prior knowledge of the target culture and language functions as background knowledge that antecedes students' being introduced to intercultural and crosscultural ESL/EFL language learning strategies.

Classroom Learning Process

This second component of the Model has five characteristics: learning strategies, intercultural understanding, crosscultural similarities and differences, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and teacher as a facilitator.
Learning strategies. In order for students to become successful and independent learners, learning strategies play an important role in a classroom. Learning strategies help students know how to organize and use information most effectively for acquiring new skills, and better understand and retrieve different concepts in the target language.

Intercultural understanding. A major language learning strategy includes intercultural understanding built upon a student's knowledge of their primary culture and then growing understanding of the target cultures. Moreover, the integral part of intercultural understanding includes students' learning more about their primary language as a way to build a solid base for adapting and embracing English.

Crosscultural similarities and differences. Once students gain a solid base in their primary language they are better prepared to engage in learning and experiencing the target culture, including its language. This way, ESL/EFL students will have a strong foundation upon which they can build their knowledge and understanding of the similarities and differences of their own culture and the English-language-based target culture.
Computer-assisted language learning (CALL). The incorporation of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) into ESL/EFL classroom is extremely useful, as CALL has the ability to constantly engage students in a more interactive and communicative language-based environment; thus helping ESL/EFL students achieve the ultimate goal of crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence in English.

Teacher as a facilitator. Here, the teacher's role as facilitator and negotiator is necessary, as they expose their students to this computerized method of learning English by guiding their students through CALL programs, making them a major part of the learning process.

Outcome

The ultimate goal for ESL/EFL students and teachers is crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence. Students not only learn the grammatical structure of English, but also they are able to apply their intercultural skills to their language skills to be able to interact in English at a deeper communicative level, increasing their sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. In order for students to reach this level of communicative competence in English, the incorporation of computer-assisted language
learning (CALL) and teacher's role as facilitator is extremely important.

The next chapter four provides curriculum design of instructional unit for ESL/EFL students in Korea. The lesson plans are based on the theoretical framework in Chapter Three, which aims to improve the students' crosscultural understanding and intercultural communicative competence.
CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

This curriculum project is designed to address existing problems in current English as a Foreign Language teaching in Korea by emphasizing crosscultural knowledge and understanding, while developing students' fluency in oral communication. Each lesson includes information on aspects of U.S. culture that directly influenced the communication style and expectation of American speakers of English.

Components and Principles of the Instructional Units

In the following section I will present as models two teaching units, Communicating Across Cultures and Crosscultural Similarities and Differences in Holidays (see Appendix A). These units incorporate the principles I have identified in the previous chapter. The target level of this curriculum project is for those students who have achieved English at a low-intermediate level of proficiency. However, advanced students can also gain important cultural information from this curriculum project as well.
Each of the two units consists of three lesson plans. The principles underlying these units are the understanding of crosscultural awareness and developing communicative competence by utilizing computer-assisted language learning.

The basic principle of this curriculum project is that through studying examples of crosscultural differences in communication, students will become more aware of how easy it is to misinterpret the words or behavior of someone from a different culture. This curriculum project gives students opportunities to recognize common sources of crosscultural miscommunication and conflict through authentic interactions, which enable students to become more aware of the knowledge and skills that are needed for successful communication.

Content of the Instructional Units

This curriculum project contains two units. Unit One presents skills that help students understand differences in communication styles across cultures. In the lessons, students are encouraged to demonstrate situations by acting them out using dialogues to understand differences in communication styles across cultures.
Unit Two is based upon the study of particular holidays. Students learn not only what are the important American holidays, but also they are able to compare and contrast similarities and differences with own culture. The materials of this unit are derived from the Internet, which are provided from educational and academic content found online. These materials are read by the students in order to better understand different cultural holidays.

Through learning about the United States as a target culture from these various perspectives, students will be able to show positive attitude toward the learning about other cultures as well.

Activities in the Units

Each lesson plan utilizes learning strategies as one of the objectives that will underlie each task, serving as a foundation for students to enhance their communicative competence skills in English. In other words, each of the lesson’s objectives are employed in each part of the lesson: the warm-up, task chain, and assessment.

Warm-up

This includes background information needed to perform task chain assignments, while getting students focused on the subject and objectives of the lesson.
Task Chain

Each lesson features tasks in three to four stages which enables students to engage in and practice the skills introduced in the lesson's background. In general, one task consists of a goal, an input and an activity. Each activity on the Focus Sheet has been provided to ensure maximum comprehensible input for all lessons. Examples of teacher stimuli and modeling are directly related to the students' level of language proficiency. Also, there is one other component included in task chain—Work Sheet activities. Work Sheets serve as a highly motivating tool in developing language, encouraging creativity, and eliciting differences of opinion among students. Though designed for individual work, the student work sheet is collected for evaluation by the teacher. In all case, the directions for completing the Work Sheets are modeled by the teacher before the students begin to work.

Assessment

The final assessment portion reiterates the skills learned in the lesson while at the same time offering students as well as teachers the opportunity to evaluate areas of strength and weakness and those requiring improvement and more practice. In other words, it is
designed to assess each student's understanding and learning of the subject so that teacher can get feedback and indication from the results of assessment to adjust the teaching.

Most importantly, the ultimate goal of these lesson plans is to improve ESL/EFL students' communicative competence with crosscultural understanding and obtain a deeper appreciation for English-speaking cultures.
CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT

Assessment of the Project

Assessment and evaluation of student achievement is an integral component of the teaching and learning process. Assessment is how teachers measure what a student has learned as well as the effectiveness of their own teaching. According to Panzeri-Alvarez (1998), assessment is "perhaps the most important aspect of teaching any unit. It is important to assess students in several different ways and for different purposes in order to get a clear description of how well students perform academically" (p. 114). The type of assessment used in Korean schools is more formal and usually takes the form of standardized tests in which short answers or multiple-choice formats are used. Textbook tests most often employ this approach, which cannot measure students' real achievements.

As explained by Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995), performance-based assessment is one of the modes of assessment which captures the excitement of students' learning, as they communicate their abilities in a positive way while keeping the focus on learning rather than on testing. Performance-based testing is testing that
corresponds directly to what is taught in the classroom. Performance-based testing procedures can easily be incorporated into classroom routines and learning activities.

Type of Assessment for the Curriculum Project

Students need to directly assess and/or to be assessed in regards to what they have learned in class in order for progress and improvement in ESL/EFL teaching and learning to be evident. In the curriculum units of this project, performance-based assessment is the most appropriate mode of assessing students' comprehension of the materials and objectives utilized in the lessons.

Various performance-based assessment strategies such as in-class testing portfolios are a way for the students as well as the teacher to become more aware of how the materials and objectives of the lessons are being understood and how well they are received by the class. Moreover, the teacher can use these assessment methods to gauge student's understanding of the material, individual student language levels, and specific areas of difficulty; at the same time, performance-based assessment can help the teacher discover what parts of a lesson could be
changed to better meet the needs of his or her ESL/EFL students.

The type of performance-based assessment that will be employed to evaluate student and teacher performance in the following lessons will consist of comprehensive testing, "real-life" situational assessment, a rubric for student essays, graphic organizers comprised of in-class assignments, and teacher observations.

Comprehensive assessment is one of the most difficult tasks to undertake with second language learners. It is important for them to learn to read, but if they do not yet possess the oral language or the knowledge of the sound system in English they will have a harder time reading. In comprehensive assessment, retellings can be used to test reading comprehension as well as answering questions. Students' comprehensive question assessment and 'real-life' situational oral language can be found in Lessons 1-1, 1-2, 1-3, and 2.1.

Writing is another area of assessment that is hard for second language learners; however, they need to be exposed to English writing. This requires the use of various graphic organizers as well as samples of written work, which can be assessed. The use of Venn Diagram assessment is shown in Lesson 1-1; and describing
activities in Spider Web organizers are demonstrated in Lesson 2-2 and 2-3. Also, rubric assessment used in Lesson 1-2, helps students get feedback on their writing, modeling or offers explicit instruction of errors.

There are other types of assessments used in the unit lesson, such as homework from online assignments. Also, it is important for teachers to observe students and keep track of how they are doing their work (see Figure 3). The end of each lesson has a self-assessment (see Figure 4), devised for student evaluation by the teacher. In addition, students' work sheets, assessment sheets, and homework are also collected for evaluation. The teachers are not only to evaluate their students using the results of the assessment but also by observing how and what students are working on during class.

The assessment attempts to make a balance between evaluating the students' performance. Therefore, assessment consists of the individual work sheets, assessment sheets, self-assessment sheets, homework, and the class participation, which consist of teacher's observation note of each student. Individual assessment will cover work sheets (30%), assessment sheets (30%), self-assessment sheets (10%), homework (10%), and participation and teacher's observation note (20%).
With good assessment, learners can not only discover their own personal strengths and weaknesses, but also improve language acquisitions at the same time. As was mentioned earlier, Korean schools still tend to grade the students only by test scores. However, what is important is a learning process itself. The most important issue is how to encourage students to become enthusiastic about learning English. This can only done if the teacher takes on the role of a facilitator rather than being simply a transmitter of knowledge.

Therefore, assessment is best viewed not only as a means of measuring, at a particular point in time, what students know or can do, but also as a process of allowing them to provide a portrait of their own learning through form of self-assessment.
Figure 3. Checklist for Self-Assessment of Student Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How did I do</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Bad</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I learned crosscultural skills.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident that I can speak with native speakers outside of school.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I stayed on task.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spoke in friendly manner to my group</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I asked questions in class</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had fun</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
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</table>

Remarks:
Figure 4. Table of Contents for Student’s Portfolio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tr>
<td>Administered by (signature)</td>
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**Unit One:**

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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self-Assessment Sheets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Assessment Sheets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Self-Assessment Sheets</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Homework</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Teacher's Notes</td>
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<table>
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<th>Comments</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Assessment Sheets</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Self-Assessment Sheets</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Homework</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Teacher's Notes</td>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Assessment Sheets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self-Assessment Sheets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Homework</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Teacher's Notes</td>
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Remarks:
APPENDIX A

LESSON PLANS
Unit One--Communicating Across Cultures
  Lesson Plan 1: Complimenting
  Lesson Plan 2: Showing Appreciation
  Lesson Plan 3: Greetings

Unit Two--Crosscultural Similarities and Differences in Holidays
  Lesson Plan 1: Halloween: Trick or Treat
  Lesson Plan 2: Thanksgiving
  Lesson Plan 3: New Year
Unit One: Lesson Plan One

Crosscultural Differences in Complimenting

Objectives:
1. To use acculturational strategy to reduce students' anxiety and increase participation
2. To define high and low context cultural behavior
3. To contrast a typical interpersonal interaction in high context and low context cultures.

Material:
Handout Dialogues (#1 and #2), Focus Sheets 1-1, 1-1A, 1-1B, Work Sheets 1-1A, 1-1B, Summary Dialogue 1-1, Comprehensive Assessment Sheet 1-1

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (Warm-up):
The teacher asks students to reflect on their experiences and asks: "During the conversation with an American, was there any difference in behavior compare to your own?" And then, about five minutes of class discussion takes place.

Task Chain 1. Introduce acculturational strategy
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1-1 and explains learning strategies in order for students to understand and reduce anxiety in participation.

Task Chain 2. Define high and low context cultural behavior
1. The teacher explains the concept of high and low context culture by showing charts on the overhead (Focus Sheet 1-1A).
2. Students work in pair. Each pair receives a copy of Work Sheet 1-1A and reads vocabulary terms, guesses the meaning of the terms, and answers "yes" or "no" as to whether they are high or low context cultural behaviors.
3. Students share their guesses with the class.
4. The teacher displays the answer transparency (Focus Sheet 1-1B).
5. The teacher asks students which terms need clarification.
Task Chain 3. **Contrast a typical interpersonal interaction in high and low context culture**

1. The teacher selects four volunteers to read the dialogues. The teacher gives volunteers a few minutes to practice the dialogues.
2. The teacher asks two volunteers to act out dialogue #1, then other two volunteers to act out dialogue #2 next.
3. The teacher leads class discussion on the differences between the two interpersonal interactions observed. Then, students complete Work Sheet (1-1B).
4. The teacher asks students to share the differences they listed on Work Sheet 1-1B with their partners.
5. Instructor displays and shares the summaries of dialogues (see Summary Dialogue 1-1).

**Final Assessment:**

1. Using Assessment Sheet 1-1, students will check their comprehension of high and low context cultural behavior.
2. The teacher collects students’ Assessment Sheet and Work Sheets for evaluation.
Focus Sheet 1-1

Acculturational Strategy

This acculturational strategy is to assist student to understand the United States as a target language culture. There are six do’s and five don’ts.

Do:

1. When the teacher addresses you in class, acknowledge receipt of the instruction or questions.

2. Respond to questions promptly. If you are unsure of the answer, say, “I’m sorry. I can’t answer because” or “I don’t know.” Dropping your head down or turning your eyes away does not answer anything.

3. Write down whatever is on the board.

4. Ask questions and make comments in class. In other words, be a positive participant.

5. Speak loud enough to be heard by all class members.

6. Look in the eyes of the person talking to you, including your teachers.

Don’t:

1. Offer any gift that could be misinterpreted as a bribe.

2. Talk to classmates while the teacher is talking.

3. Interrupt a classmate who is speaking. Wait for your classmate to finish and then say, “If I can,” “In my opinion,” “I think” or “Excuse me.”

4. Ignore questions even if you do not know the answer.

5. Ask about age, marriage, or salaries.
Focus Sheet 1-1A

Differences in High and Low Context Cultures

High-Context Cultures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean, Japanese, Taiwanese</th>
<th>Arab</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>French-Swiss</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low-Context Cultures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High Context Cultures:</th>
<th>Low Context Cultures:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More adapt at reading non-verbal behavior and reading the environmental; Korean people called <em>nunchi</em> means being able to communicate through your eyes.</td>
<td>Verbal messages are extremely important; they do not tend to receive information from the environment solely through perception.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have an expectation that others are also able to understand the unarticulated communication; hence they do not speak much as people from low-context cultures.</td>
<td>Rely primarily on verbal messages.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 1-1A
Terms and Meanings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Guess Its Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>complimenting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showing appreciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>making progress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make eye contact</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expects her to say</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modest and humble</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not used to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep up the good work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disrespectful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Put a check mark next to the sentences below to indicate whether each represents a high context culture behavior or a low context behavior and discuss with a partner, why you chose what you did?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High context culture</th>
<th>Low context culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When someone gives a compliment, the receiver immediately denies it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A woman begins with many conversations with compliments. For example, “you look nice today.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 1-1B
Terms and Meanings
(Answer Transparency)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Guess Its Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>complimenting</td>
<td>saying something to show another person that you like or approve of something; praising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>showing appreciation</td>
<td>showing people that you like them or like something they did for you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>making progress</td>
<td>improving; getting better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make eye contact</td>
<td>look at someone in the eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher status</td>
<td>higher position; not at the same level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expects her to say</td>
<td>thinks she will say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proper</td>
<td>correct, acceptable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modest and humble</td>
<td>shy with and respectful of people of a higher status; does not wish to appear proud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not used to</td>
<td>not accustomed to; not familiar with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>keep up the good work</td>
<td>keep doing good work; continue your good work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disrespectful</td>
<td>not respectful; not polite; rude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Put a check mark next to the sentences below to indicate whether each represents a high context culture behavior or a low context behavior and discuss with a partner, why you chose what you did.

1. When someone gives a compliment, the receiver immediately denies it.  
   High context culture: Yes  Low context culture: No

2. A woman begin with many conversations with compliments. For example, "you look nice today."  
   High context culture: No  Low context culture: Yes

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Handout #1

CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION
Cultural Differences

Dialogue # 1

Situation: Jonathan is a teacher in an adults school class in the United States. After class, he is speaking to Kim, one of his students.

Jonathan: "Kim, your English is improving. I am pleased with your work."

Kim: (looking down) "Oh, no. My English is not very good."

Jonathan: "Why do you say that, Kim? You're doing very well in class?"

Kim: "No, I am not a good student."

Jonathan: "Kim, you're making progress in this class. You should be proud of your English."

Kim: "No, it's not true. You are a good teacher, but I am not a good student."

Jonathan: (He is surprised by his response and wonders why he thinks his English is so bad. He doesn't know what to say and wonders if he should stop giving him compliments.)

Work Sheet 1-1B

Compare and Contrast

What did you see from the 1st and 2nd dialogues?

How are they same and how are they different?

1st Dialogue

2nd Dialogue

Same
The following interaction shows Kim responding in a way that is culturally familiar to Jonathan.

Jonathan: "Kim, your English is improving. I am pleased with your work."

Kim: (making eye contact) "Thank you. I have learned a lot in this course."

Jonathan: "You’re doing well and I can really see progress."

Kim: "I enjoy studying English. I do homework every night."

Jonathan: "I can see that. Keep up the good work."

Kim: "I’ll try. You are a good teacher. You have helped me a lot."

Assessment Sheet 1-1
Questions and Class Discussion

Comprehension

Write T (true) or F (false) in the space provided.

1. ___ Kim is not a good student.
2. ___ Kim thinks that Jonathan is not a very good teacher.
3. ___ Jonathan thinks that Kim should be proud of his English.
4. ___ Jonathan does not understand why Kim thinks he is not a good student.
5. ___ Kim complimented Jonathan.

Analysis: Can you Explain?

1. Why do you think Kim says his English is not good?
2. Why do you think that Kim looks down when he says, "Oh, no, my English is not very good"?
3. Why is Jonathan surprised when Kim says, "No, it's not true. I am not a good student"?
4. Jonathan doesn't know what to say when Kim disagrees with him. He wonders if he should stop giving him compliments. What do you think?
Jonathan is surprised when Kim says that his English is no good. He expects him to say “Thank you” (showing that he accepts the compliment). Instead he disagrees with (or denies) the compliment. This is his way of responding to compliments in his own culture. In Jonathan’s culture (in the U.S.), most people say “Thank you” in response to a compliment. With his teacher, Kim behaves in a way that is natural and proper in his own culture. He is modest and humble. He does not look at his teacher at all times because that, too, is another way to show modesty.

Jonathan should not stop giving compliments to Kim. Most people enjoy receiving compliments. He should understand that there are culturally different ways of responding to compliments. At the same time, it would be helpful for Kim to understand that many Americans are not used to people denying or disagreeing with compliments.

Summary of Dialogue #2

In this interaction, Kim accepts his teacher’s compliment with a direct “Thank you.” This makes Jonathan feel comfortable because this is what he expects to hear. Kim also gives some extra information, which adds to the conversation (“I have learned a lot in this course.”). In giving the extra information he is helping to keep the conversation going. This is something that Americans often do. That is, they turn compliments into conversations. Kim thanks Jonathan for his teaching. This seems natural to Jonathan, since Kim accepted his first compliment with a “Thank you.”

Levine & Baxter, 1987, p. 18
Lesson Plan Two

Cultural Differences in Showing Appreciation

Objectives:
1. To recognize the students' learning strategies
2. To understand behavior of target culture(s) in the area of showing appreciation
3. To contrast different rules and customs around gift giving and receiving

Materials:

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (Warm-up):
1. The teacher explains students that there are times when a gift is appropriate and times when it is not. In some countries, there are many rules about giving gifts.
2. The teacher asks students questions as follows: When do you give a gift? To whom do you give a gift? For what reasons do you give a gift?

Task Chain 1. To recognize student's own learning strategies
1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1-2 and has students find out more about learning strategies
2. The teacher collects Focus Sheet 1-2 and teaches "Affective Strategy" during the next class meeting.

Task Chain 2. To understand behavior of target culture(s) in the area of showing appreciation
1. The teacher explains rules and customs around student gift giving in the U.S., (Focus Sheet 1-2A).
2. The teacher explains phrases and expressions for showing appreciation (Focus Sheet 1-2B) and lets students repeat these after the teacher says them.
3. The teacher clarifies any unfamiliar phrases or vocabulary.
Task Chain 3. To contrast cultural differences in gift giving and receiving

1. The teacher displays “crosscultural note” (Focus Sheet 1-2C) and discusses whether it was appropriated to give money to teacher or supervisor to show appreciation.
3. The teacher give students enough time to compare ideas of their own culture and in the U.S.
4. The teacher displays Answer Focus Sheet 1-2D.

Final Assessment:
1. Using Assessment Sheet 1-2, students check cultural differences in the gift giving and receiving and showing appreciation.
2. The teacher collects students’ Assessment Sheet and Work Sheet for evaluation.
Focus Sheet 1-2

Students’ Learning Strategies Checklist

Read the following questionnaire and discuss it in a group.

1. If you’re talking to someone and they don’t understand you, do you try to say it a different way?
   - Yes  Sometimes  No

2. When you’re listening to a conversation in English and you don’t understand everything, do you try to guess the rest?
   - Yes  Sometimes  No

3. Do you listen to yourself speaking English so you can find your mistakes and try to correct them?
   - Yes  Sometimes  No

4. If you see or hear something in English that you don’t understand, do you ask someone to explain it to you?
   - Yes  Sometimes  No

5. If you really want to explain something, do you try even if you aren’t sure of the right English?
   - Yes  Sometimes  No
Focus Sheet 1-2A

List of Gifts

The list below includes occasions when many people give gifts and includes the types of things people give. Remember that rules and customs around gift giving in the U.S. are general: it is up to the individual to decide when to give a gift and what to give.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occasion</th>
<th>Typical Gifts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A meal at someone’s home</td>
<td>A bottle of wine, flowers, candy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An overnight stay at someone’s home</td>
<td>An object from your country (for example, a vase or dish), gifts for the children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends’ birthdays, particularly the clothing, “big” birthdays (21, 25, 30, 40, 50..75. 80, etc.)</td>
<td>Books, records, Decorations for the house, photo albums. (This depends on the person who is giving the gift.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showers (baby showers, wedding showers)</td>
<td>Baby showers: sheets, blankets, diaper bags, baby toys. Wedding showers: usually small things for the kitchen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth of a baby</td>
<td>Clothes, toys, stuffed animals, things for the baby’s room</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Focus Sheet 1-2B
Phrases and Expressions for Showing Appreciation

Repeat these after your teacher says them:

"Thank you very much for doing what you did. You really helped me a lot."

"I really appreciate your help. It meant a lot to me."

"Thanks for all you’ve done. It was a great help."

"I hope I can help you someday the way you helped me."

"I couldn’t have done it without you. Thank you very much."

Levine & Baxter, 1987, p. 26
Focus Sheet 1-2C

Crosscultural Note

In some countries, giving money to a teacher or supervisor to show appreciation is usual. A group of Vietnamese students gave a money tree (a tree made out of paper with dollar bills attached) to an American teacher. She appreciated the gift, but was also surprised. She had ever before received money from students as a gift. Her American students usually thanked her for her teaching at the end of a course, but they rarely gave her a gift and they never gave her money.

Levine & Baxter, 1987, p. 25
Work Sheet 1-2

Crosscultural Comparison: When To Give Gifts

There are times when a gift is appropriate and times when it is not. In the following exercise, decide in which Situation you would give a gift. Discuss what you would do in your own culture and in the U.S.

1. You have studied English with a tutor (private teacher) for about two months. Your tutor cannot continue because of a busy schedule. You will be meeting with your tutor for the last time.

Would you give a gift? (yes/no)

My culture: _____________________ U.S. _____________________

If yes, what would you give?

2. Your supervisor at work just gave you your six-month performance review (evaluation). He gave you an excellent review and an increase in salary.

Would you give a gift? (yes/no)

My culture: _____________________ U.S. _____________________

If yes, what would you give?

3. A teacher has helped you after class when you had difficulty in a subject. She stayed more than an hour after class on three different days to help you. You appreciate her extra help.

Would you give a gift? (yes/no)

My culture: _____________________ U.S. _____________________

If yes, what would you give?
Focus Sheet 1-2D

Answers: Crosscultural Comparison: When To Give Gifts

There are times when a gift is appropriate and times when it is not. In the following exercise, decide in which situations you would give a gift. Discuss what you would do in your own culture and in the U.S.

(All of the following answers apply to U.S.)

1. In this situation, it would not be necessary to give a gift, particularly if you have been paying for the private classes with the tutor. If not, you might want to bring something to the last class, such as candy or some food from your country.

2. In this situation, it is definitely not an American practice to bring a gift to the supervisor. It is the supervisor's job to supervise you; you are the one who worked hard to earn the excellent review. In this situation, the supervisor might not understand why you are bringing a gift.

3. In this situation, a teacher would not expect a gift, but would expect you to thank him or her sincerely for the extra time spent. Most likely, the teacher's reward would come from your understanding the difficult subject.
Assessment Sheet 1-2

What Would You Do?

Read the following situation and answer the question as best as you can.

Situation:
A non-US born employee gave his American supervisor a gift of $200 (two hundred dollars). The employee told the supervisor, "I appreciate you and my job so much that I want you to have this" (Levine & Baxter, 1987). The American supervisor told his employee that he couldn't accept the gift. The employee said, "You must accept the gift or I will quit." The supervisor told him, "You have to understand that I cannot accept this gift." The supervisor was confused and felt very bad about it when he heard that his employee quit the job.

What would you do if you gave your boss or teacher an expensive gift and he or she said, "I'm sorry. I really can't accept this gift."

A.) You could say, "If you don’t accept this gift, I’ll quit," or, "I won’t take this class anymore."

B.) You could try to find out the person's reasons for not accepting the gift.

C.) You can insist many times on giving the gift until the person accepts it.

Explain your answer.

Levine & Baxter, 1987, p. 26
Lesson Plan Three

Crosscultural Differences in Greeting

Objectives:
1. To use affective learning strategy
2. To understand cultural differences in greeting
3. To compare and contrast different culture greeting

Materials:
Overhead Projector, Focus Sheets 1-3, 1-3A, 1-3B,
Work Sheets 1-3, 1-3A, 1-3B, 1-3C, Assessment Sheet 1-3

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (Warm-up):
1. Instructor asks students “How do friends in the United States greet each other?”

Vocabulary:
Strict, embrace, romantically involved

Task Chain 1. To use affective learning strategy
1. Instructor distributes Strategy Focus Sheet 1-3 and explains what affective strategy is.

Task Chain 2: To understand cultural differences in greeting each other
1. The instructor will pass students “Hand Kissing” (Focus Sheet 1-3A), and read the story.
2. The instructor will display comprehension practice questions (Work Sheet 1-3) and ask students to answer true or false.
3. Students will form in the group of four. Each group will discuss questions (Work Sheet 1-3A). Then students will share their different opinion.
Task Chain 3: Compare the way people greet in their own country with the way Americans greet one another.

1. The instructor will display "Culture Capsule," (Focus Sheet 1-3B) then discuss cultural differences.
2. Pair students. Students will fill in the chart (Work Sheet 1-3B). Instructor will give examples like, pat on arm, slap on the back, bow, hug, kiss, nod, handshake, and then share students' answers with classmates.
3. Each student will receive Work Sheet 1-3C, then compare students' own culture and American culture.

Assessment:

1. The instructor collects students' Work Sheets for evaluation.
2. Homework: Students will receive rubric for written essay. Student will choose either essay question 1 or 2 (Assessment Sheet 1-3).
Affective Strategy

Affective strategy involves managing personal emotion to pay attention to tasks. It is useful especially when you know the words but still do not understand.

What to do when you just do not understand:

1. Don’t panic. Remember that you are not alone. Your classmates are probably having difficulty, too.
2. Continue to take notes even though they may not be perfect. Any nouns and verbs you manage to write down will be useful later when you start asking questions to determine exactly what you missed.
3. Don’t give up. Continue to concentrate on the topic. Try not to let you mind wander. Thinking about something you do understand about the topic usually helps.
4. When you feel lost, listen for key nouns and verbs in the next few sentences. These words carry most of the meaning.
5. Also jot down any negative terms such as “never” and “not.” Without these words, your notes may appear to say the opposite of what the speaker intended.
6. Try repeating to yourself the sentence or sentences you cannot seem to understand. If this does not help, try punctuating the sentence differently or changing the rhythm, stress, or intonation patterns as you repeat it to yourself. Sometimes this is all it takes to jump from the muddle of in-comprehension to the “Aha!” of understanding.
7. Familiarize yourself with the speaker’s topic ahead of time. If this is an academic class, complete the assigned readings before the lecture. If there are no assigned readings or if the readings are very difficult, try to find some general information on the topic from an encyclopedia, a magazine, or a textbook from a lower-level course.

Ferrer-Hanreddy & Whalley, 1996, p. 116
Hand Kissing

My name is Cristina. I was born in Mexico and came to the United States when I was three months old. Even though we lived in the United States, my parents raised my brother, my sisters, and me just as they had been raised in Mexico—with very strict rules. My parents taught us we should respect grandparents more than anyone in the world because grandparents had lived the longest. They had more knowledge about life, and no matter what they said, even if it didn't make sense, they were right. We were taught that to hug or kiss grandparents was disrespectful and that we should greet them by kissing their hand. When you are young, you think that everyone lives and thinks just like you do. Well, I soon found out this isn't true.

My best friend in third grade was the first close friend I had who was raised in the American way. This friend invited me to her birthday party. I was very excited because I had never been invited to a friend's birthday party before.

The day of the party came, and I was happy but at the same time very nervous. I thought of all the people who would be there. I wanted her family to like me. Slowly, I walked up to the house. Finally, I got to the door and rang the bell. My friend came running out with a big smile, telling me she was happy that I came. She let me in and introduced me to her parents. They smiled and said hello. Then she said, "Come here. I want you to meet my grandpa."

I followed her into the living room where her grandfather was sitting. She introduced us and he reached out his hand. He was going to shake hands, but I thought he was expecting me to kiss his hand, so I did.

I noticed that he looked at me in a strange way, as if he didn't like what I had done. Everyone else in the room looked at me, and my friend started laughing. I was
very confused. I didn’t know what I had done wrong. I sat down and tried to figure out what happened. Just then, a little boy ran to my friend’s grandfather and jumped on his lap. The little boy started to hug and kiss the grandfather. When I saw this, I got up and took the little boy by the hand and said, “No.” I guess I said it pretty loudly because the room became very silent and all eyes were on me. The next day at school my friend asked me why I acted so strange at her party. She asked me why I kissed her grandfather’s hand and why I told the little boy to get away from his grandfather. I explained my customs to her and she explained hers to me. Fortunately, we stayed very good friends.

Dresser, 1993, pp. 56-57
Tell whether these sentences are true or false by putting T or F on the line.

1. Cristina had very many American friends.  
2. Cristina’s parents let their children follow whatever customs they desired.  
3. In Cristina’s culture grandparents were highly respected because they had lived the longest and knew the most.  
4. Cristina loved to hug and kiss her grandparents.  
5. At the party the grandfather was surprised when Cristina kissed his hand.  
6. The little boy kissed the grandfather’s hand too.  
7. The party guests were very surprised by Cristina’s behavior.  
8. Cristina’s friend would not have anything to do with her after this incident.
Work Sheet 1-3A

Opinion

Give your opinion.

1. Why do you think Cristina’s parents continued to follow their Mexican traditions even though they lived in the United States?

2. Do you think Cristina’s parents made a good decision about keeping their Mexican traditions? Why or why not?

3. Do you think it was a good idea for Cristina’s girlfriend to ask her why she acted so strange at the party? Why or why not?
Focus Sheet 1-3B

Culture Capsule

In the United States the form of greeting depends on how well people know each other and on the situation. When people are first introduced, they usually shake hands. Handshakes are especially common in business or formal situations.

When two women friends meet, they might hug and kiss one another on the cheek. (Although in many cultures, people kiss on both cheeks, Americans usually just kiss on one cheek.) Male friends would not kiss but might embrace for a moment. A male friend and female friend might kiss on the cheek, even though they are not romantically involved. If people know each other but not well, they might just say hello. Friends often do this, too. A stranger might greet an older person with a handshake. A grandchild would probably greet his or her grandparents with hugs and kisses.

Dresser, 1993, p. 58
Work Sheet 1-3B
Cultural Exchange

Compare the way you greet people in your own country with the way Americans greet one another. Fill in the chart, for example, with pat on arm, slap on the back, bow, hug, kiss, nod, handshake, and then share your answers with your classmates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How Do People Greet...</th>
<th>Your Country</th>
<th>United States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parents?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brothers and sisters?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandparents?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A friend of the same sex?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A friend of the opposite sex?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Sheet 1-3C

Compare Cultural Differences

Write and discuss these questions with your classmates.

1. In your culture, how do you greet a stranger?

2. In your culture, what are the rules for handshaking? Must you use a firm grip? Do women shake hands with women? Do women shake hands with men?

3. In your culture, what is the meaning of a smile? Do you smile at strangers? at friends?

4. What do you find difficult to get used to about American greeting customs?

5. Do you prefer the greeting customs in your culture or in American culture? Or do you prefer some from other culture? Explain your answer.
Assessment Sheet 1-3

Essay

Give a brief written report. Choose number 1 or 2.

1. Tell about a time when you were greeted in a very unexpected way or were expected to greet someone in a way that was difficult for you.

2. Tell about a time when you observed a greeting custom that was different.

Outcome Assessment Rubric for Essay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component of Essay</th>
<th>Point Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• When did it happen?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How old were you?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Where were you living at the time?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What were the cultural backgrounds of the people involved?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What greeting behavior was expected?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Describe the greeting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What was different about it?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How did those individuals involved react to the situation?</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sentence Structure:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Use of complete sentence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Punctuation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Word choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spelling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unit Two: Lesson Plan One

Trick or Treat

Crosscultural Similarities and Differences in Holidays

Objectives:
1. To introduce before-speaking self-management strategy
2. To be able to describe activities of Halloween with KWL Chart
3. To become familiar with vocabulary about Halloween
4. To understand English language by learning about Halloween

Material:
Computer, Focus Sheets 2-1, 2-1A, 2-1B, 2-1C, 2-1D, Work Sheets 2-1A, 2-1B, Posters, Halloween vocabulary card, Assessment Sheet 2-1, Online WebPage: http://geocities.com/Area51/Corridor/9316/origins.html

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (Warm-up):
The teacher asks students the following questions:
1. Have you ever heard about Halloween?
2. Do you know the origin of Halloween?
3. What kinds of activities are held in Halloween?

Task Chain 1. To introduce before-speaking self-management strategy
1. The teacher distributes Strategy Focus Sheet 2-1 and explains self-management strategies.

Task Chain 2: Describe activities of Halloween with KWL Chart
1. The teacher explains what KWL stands for. "K" is what you already know, "W" is what you want to learn or find out, and "L" is what you have learned from the study (Focus Sheet 2-1A).
2. The teacher asks students to complete columns 1 and 2 before beginning the topic (Work Sheet 2-1A).
Task Chain 3: Becoming familiar with the vocabulary about Halloween

1. The teacher shows students vocabulary lists through overhead projector (Focus Sheet 2-1B) and help them understand the meaning of vocabulary. To practice the vocabulary, use Halloween vocabulary cards.
2. The teacher has students read definition of vocabulary (Focus Sheet 2-1C).
3. Distribute Work Sheet 2-1B and have students match correct definitions of vocabulary words. Have students fill in the blanks by using the proper words (Work Sheet 2-1B).

Task Chain 4: Understanding Halloween as a culture

1. Students are divided into groups of three.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage address on the board.
3. Students open the webpage (Focus Sheet 2-1D): http://geocities.com/Area51/Corridor/9316/origins.html
4. The teacher explains that students are going to read about Halloween story online.
5. Students click the part “Pumpkin Patch.”
6. Students can choose any topic that they want to know more about Halloween.
7. After students finished learning about Halloween, Students will finish the column 3 from KWL chart Work Sheet 2-1A.

Assessment:
Checking on how students understand Halloween as culture
1. The teacher collects students’ KWL chart notes and Work Sheets for evaluation.
2. The teacher hand out Assessment Sheet 2-1
3. Homework: Students complete the Work Sheet 2-1C and fill in blank by visiting web address: http://esl.about.com/homework/esl/library/weekly/aal01600b.htm
Before you speak:

- **Lower your anxiety.**
  - Take a few deep breaths.
  - Encourage yourself by using positive self-talk.
  - Visualize yourself succeeding.
  - Feel prepared.
  - Use relaxation techniques.
  - Find other ways to lower your anxiety.

- **Identify the goal and purpose of the task**
  - What are you going to learn or demonstrate in this exercise?

- **Ask for clarification of the task if you are unsure of its goal and purpose or how to do it.**
  - Do you understand the directions?

- **Activate your background knowledge.**
  - What do you already know about the task?
  - What do you know about the topic?
  - Relate the task to a similar situation; make associations.

- **Predict what is going to happen.**
  - Predict the difficulties you might encounter.
  - Think about the vocabulary and grammar forms you will need.

- **Plan what you will say.**
  - Organize your thoughts.
  - Prepare an “outline” (use notes, choose key vocabulary, draw pictures).
  - Predict what the other person is going to say.
  - Rehearse (practice silently, act out in front of a mirror, record yourself and listen).
  - Encourage yourself to speak out, even though you might make some mistakes.
  - Cooperate with your speaking partner.

(Compiled by Cheryl Alcaya, Karen Lybeck, Patricia Mougel and Susan Weaver, University of Minnesota, Fall 1995)
Focus Sheet 2-1A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>K</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>L</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Write what you <em>Know</em> about</td>
<td>Write what you <em>Want</em> to learn about</td>
<td>Write what you <em>Learned</em> about</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

189
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>K</th>
<th>W</th>
<th>L</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Write what you <em>Know</em> about</td>
<td>Write what you <em>Want</em> to learn about</td>
<td>Write what you <em>Learned</em> about</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 2-1B

Vocabulary List about Halloween

pumpkin  cemetary
Jack O’Lantern  graveyard
carve  haunted house
ghost  scarecrow
spook, spooky  straw
scary, horrified  costume
goblin  mask
ghoul  decorate
monster  candy corn
Dracula  bat
witch  boo
devil  trick or treat
black cat  treat bag
skull  door-to-door
skeleton  bobbing for apples
spider
**Focus Sheet 2-1C**

**Definition of Vocabulary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pumpkin</td>
<td>a large, round, orange vegetable in the squash family associated with Halloween</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jack O’Lantern</td>
<td>a carved pumpkin usually with a candle burning inside to illuminate the pumpkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carve</td>
<td>to cut with a knife, in the context of a pumpkin to cut a face into the pumpkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghost</td>
<td>a spirit of a dead person which appears again (ghosts at Halloween are usually dressed in white sheets)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spook</td>
<td>a specter; ghost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scary</td>
<td>easily frightened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goblin</td>
<td>an evil mischievous spirit, often represented in pictures as humanlike and ugly or misshapen in form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghoul</td>
<td>an evil spirit that robs graves and feeds on the flesh of the dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monster</td>
<td>a person so cruel, wicked, depraved, etc. as to horrify others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dracula</td>
<td>Bloodsucker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witch</td>
<td>a woman with magic powers usually evil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devil</td>
<td>the chief evil spirit, a supernatural being subordinate to, and the foe of, God and the temper of human beings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skull</td>
<td>the entire bony framework of the head of a vertebrate, enclosing and protecting the brain and sense organs, including the bones of the face and jaw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skeleton</td>
<td>the hard framework of an animal body, supporting the organs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spider</td>
<td>scary bug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>graveyard</td>
<td>a burial ground; cemetery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cemetery</td>
<td>a place for the burial of the dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haunted house</td>
<td>house supposedly frequented by evil spirits or ghosts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scarecrow</td>
<td>figure looking like a man set up in a field to frighten off birds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straw</td>
<td>hollow stalks or stems of grain after threshing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costume</td>
<td>the style of dress, including accessories, typical of a certain country, period, profession, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mask</td>
<td>A covering for the face or part of the face, to conceal or disguise the identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Candy corn</td>
<td>Halloween treat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decorate</td>
<td>to add something to so as to make more attractive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bat</td>
<td>small mammal which flies by night and hangs upside down to rest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boo</td>
<td>a prolonged sound made to express disapproval, scorn, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trick or treat</td>
<td>saying used by children when going from house to house asking for candy( the phrase also means that if you do not give me a treat, I will play a trick on you!)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>door-to-door</td>
<td>from one home to the next, calling on each in turn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bobbing for apples</td>
<td>traditional Halloween game (you put apples in a barrel of water and people try to take the floating apples out of the water using only their mouths)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Focus Sheet 2-1D
Webpage of Halloween Story

Originally, a pagan festival of the dead, which has survived to the present in popular culture as Halloween, a night of trick-or-treating by children and others dressed in costumes of fantasy and the supernatural. All Hallows Eve is observed the night of October 31, followed on November 1 by All Hallows Day, also called All Hallowmas, All Saints' Day and All Soul's Day. The ancient Celts called the festival Samhain (pronounced sow' an) and observed it to celebrate the onset of winter and the beginning of the Celtic New Year; "samhain" means "end of summer." In Ireland the festival was known as Samhein, or La Samon, the Feast of the Sun. In Scotland, the celebration was known as Hallowe'en. Samhain was a solar festival marked by sacred fire and fire rituals. During the height of the Druids, the priestly caste of the Celts, all fires except those of the Druids were extinguished on Samhain. Householders were levied a fee for the holy fire which burned at their altars.

In ancient Ireland, the Druids scarificed to the deities by burning victims in wickerwork cages. All other fires were to be extinguished and were relit from the sacrificial fire. Samhain marked the third and final harvest, and the storage of provisions for the winter. The veil between the worlds of the living and the dead was believed to be at its thinnest point in the year, making communication between the living and the dead much easier. On the eve of the holiday, the souls of the dead freely roamed the land of the living.

The Romans observed the holiday of Feralia, intended to give rest and peace to the departed. Participants made sacrifices in honor of the dead, offered up prayers for them, and made oblations to them. The festival was celebrated on February 21, the end of the Roman year. In the 7th century, Pope Boniface IV introduced All Saints' Day to replace the pagan festival of the dead. It was observed on May 13. Later, Gregory III changed the date to November 1. The Greek Orthodox Church observes it on the first Sunday after Pentecost.

Numerous folk customs connected with the pagan observances for the dead have survived to the present. In addition to the souls of the dead roaming about, the Devil, witches and numerous spirits are believed to be out and at the peak of their supernatural powers. In Ireland and Scotland, the custom of extinguishing one's home fire and relighting if from the festival bonfire has continued into modern times.
Samhain, as it is still called in some parts, is a time for getting rid of weakness, as pagans once slaughtered weak animals which were unlikely to survive the winter. A common ritual calls for writing down weaknesses on a piece of paper or parchment, and tossing it into the fire. Cakes are baked as offerings for the souls of the dead.

In some parts of modern Scotland, young people still celebrate by building bonfires on hilltops and high ground, and then dance around the flames. The fire is known as Hallowe'en breeze, and custom once included digging a circular trench around the fire to symbolize the sun.

The custom of trick or treating probably has several origins. An old Irish peasant practice called for going door to door to collect money, breadcake, cheese, eggs, butter, nuts, apples, etc., in preparation for the festival of St. Columb Kill. Another was the begging for soul cakes, or offerings for one's self-particularly in exchange for promises of prosperity or protection against bad luck.

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Discover the Origins of the Jack O'Lantern by Clicking the Pumpkin!

Scary Pumpkin Courtesy of "Paragon's Haunted web Page"
Http://www.cannet.com/~paragon/
Direction: Fill the blanks with the proper word from the list below, in using context clues.

- carve, haunted, scary, trick or treat, witch, monsters, Halloween, skeleton, Jack O’Lantern, bobbing for apples

1. The _______ made a horrible cackling laugh before she flew off on her broom.

2. Let’s go buy a pumpkin and ________ a funny face on it.

3. Don’t be afraid of that ________. After all, it’s just made of bones and can’t hurt you!

4. Tom won the award for the best carved ________ at the school Halloween fair.

5. If I hear one more child say ________ tonight, I think I’ll go crazy!

6. Take off that ________ mask. I can’t stand to look at you, it’s so repelling.

7. Not all ________ are evil. Some are just misunderstood by the local population — think of Frankenstein.

8. I was horrified by that horror film on TV last night. I know it was a ________ film, but there was just too much blood and violence for me.

9. I dare you to open the door and go into that ________ house up on the hill.

10. I have to go change my costume. I got all wet ________.
Assessment Sheet 2-1

Direction: Match the following words with the correct meaning.

____ 1. ghoul
   a. an evil spirit that robs graves and feeds on the flesh of the dead
   b. figure looking like a man set up in a field to frighten off birds
   c. hollow stalks or stems of grain after threshing

____ 2. skeleton
   a. a person so cruel, wicked, depraved, etc. as to horrify others
   b. the entire bony framework of the head of a vertebrate, enclosing and protecting the brain and sense organs, including the bones of the face and jaw
   c. the hard framework of an animal body, supporting the organs

____ 3. cemetery
   a. spirit of a dead person which appears again
   b. a woman with magic powers usually evil
   c. a place for the burial of the dead
Lesson Plan Two

American Thanksgiving

Objectives:
1. To introduce while-speaking self-management strategy
2. To become familiar with American Thanksgiving and Korean Chusok
3. To be able to describe activities of Thanksgiving and Chusok with graphic organizer
4. To be able to compare and contrast Thanksgiving and Chusok with graphic organizer

Materials:

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (Warm-up):
1. The teacher shows Thanksgiving cards and asks who know Thanksgivings of other countries. If there are some students who know, let them share story for a while.

Task Chain 1. To introduce while-speaking self-management strategy to get on tasks
1. The teacher distributes Strategy Focus Sheet 2-2 and explains self-management strategies.

Task Chain 2: Becoming familiar with Thanksgiving and Chusok
1. Students are divided into groups of four.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage addresses on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 2-2A and 2-2B): http://www.geocities.com/Heartland/Plains/7214/thanksgiving.htm
3. The teacher explains that students are going to read and learn about American Thanksgiving story online.
4. After students study about American Thanksgiving story online, students will open the webpage: http://aisanfamily.com/chusok.htm (Focus Sheet 2-2B)
5. Students study about Korean Thanksgiving call "Chusok."

Task Chain 3: Describing activities of Thanksgiving and Chusok with graphic organizer
1. The teacher explains task. Each group receives Work Sheet 2-2A and 2-2B.
2. Each group notes activities of Thanksgiving and Chusok.
3. Each group writes them down in spider relationship (Work Sheet 2-2A and 2-2B)

Task Chain 4: Comparing and contrasting Thanksgiving and Chusok with graphic organizer
1. The teacher explains task. Each group receives Work Sheet 2-2C.
2. Each group notes significant similarities and differences between two countries
3. Each group writes them down in graphic (Work Sheet 2-2C).

Assessment:
1. Using Assessment Sheet 2-2, students check their awareness of Thanksgiving and Chusok. The teacher collects students' graphic organizer, work Sheet, and online homework.
2. Homework: Students take online test (Homework sheet 2-2):
   http://www.geocities.com/Heartland/Plains/7214/thanksgiving.htm
Focus Sheet 2-2

Speaking Strategies

While you are speaking:

- **Feel in control.**
  - Take your emotional temperature. If you are tense, try to relax and take a deep breath, funnel your energy to your brain rather than your body.
  - Ask for clarification ("Is this what I'm supposed to do?"), help (ask someone else for a word, let others know when you need help), or verification (ask someone to correct your pronunciation).
  - Encourage yourself by using positive self-talk.

- **Concentrate on the task. Don’t let what is going on around you distract you.**
  - Use your prepared materials (when allowed).
  - Delay speaking. It is OK to take time to think out your response.
  - Don’t give up. Don’t let your mistakes stop you. If you talk yourself into a corner or become frustrated, back up, ask for time, and start over in another direction.

- **Be involved in the conversation.**
  - Direct your thoughts away from the situation (e.g., test!) and concentrate on the conversation.
  - Listen to your conversation partner. Often you will be able to use the grammar or vocabulary that they use in your own response.
  - Cooperate to negotiate meaning and to complete the task.
  - Anticipate what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.
  - Take reasonable risks. Don’t guess wildly, but use your good judgment to go ahead and speak when it’s appropriate, rather than keep silent for fear of making a mistake.

- **Monitor your speech by paying attention to vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.**
  - Activate new vocabulary. Try no to rely only on familiar words and phrases.
Focus Sheet 2-2
(Continued)

- Self-correct. If you hear yourself making a mistake, back up and fix it.
- Imitate the way native speakers talk.
- Compensate for any difficulties you have.
  - Use circumlocution, synonyms, cognates, gestures, ask for help, make up new words, guess which word to use.
  - Adjust or approximate your message. If you can’t communicate the complexity of your idea, communicate it simply. Through a succession of questions and answers, you are likely to get your point across instead of shutting down for a lack of ability to relate the first idea.
  - Switch (when possible) to a topic for which you know the words. (Don’t do this to avoid practicing new material, however!).

(Compiled by Cheryl Alcaya, Karen Lybeck, Patricia Mougel and Susan Weaver, University of Minnesota, Fall 1995)
Knowing Thanksgiving

The Pilgrims sailed from England in the Mayflower in order to escape religious persecution. Their ship arrived at Plymouth, Massachusetts on November 10, 1620, and it was too late to sow crops for that year.

For their first winter, they had to rely on the food that they had brought from England, and whatever animals and birds that they could capture. The local Indians were friendly and brought them food, which helped the Pilgrims. Without the Indian's help, probably none of the Pilgrims would have survived. As it was, nearly half of the settlers died.

In the Spring, they cleared land, cultivated it, and grew successful crops of corn. They would have enough to see them through the next winter, so the governor of the little colony announced that they would have a three-day festival of thanksgiving. One of the days would be a day of prayer, and it would be known as Thanksgiving Day. This was on July 30, 1621.

They spent days preparing for the feast, with the men hunting and fishing, the women and children gathering nuts, and the Indians brought deer and wild turkeys. Wild plums, grapes, and watercress were also found. The meat was cooked over open fires, and the food prepared, and they all sat outside at big tables, ate their feast, and thanked God for the harvest.
Early Thanksgiving Day

Later, as other settlers arrived on the New England coast, they heard of the Thanksgiving Day celebration at Plymouth, and thus the custom spread along the eastern coast of America.

In the 150 years after the Pilgrims celebrated the First Thanksgiving Day, the festival became generally observed all along the eastern coast of America.

At the time of the War of Independence, the Americans wanted to celebrate their victories, so they chose to do so on Thanksgiving Day. In 1789, George Washington decreed that Thanksgiving Day should be officially kept on the 26th of November of each year.

Thanksgiving was proclaimed a national holiday by President Abraham Lincoln in 1863.

Thanksgiving Day Today

The date for Thanksgiving Day has been changed several times, but it is now celebrated as a national holiday all over the United States on the fourth Thursday of November.

Thanksgiving Day is a happy occasion when members of a family like to get together and share a big meal. The theme is thankfulness for peace and plenty, and the happiness of family life during the past year.

The traditional Thanksgiving Day is filled with an abundance of food, including roast turkey with cranberry sauce and pumpkin pie. Some families prepare for the celebration days in advance, and others attend Thanksgiving services at church, and often sporting events are arranged.

Many people simply enjoy the occasion without thinking much about what it means or how it came to be, and they use it for a long holiday weekend, or begin their Christmas shopping.

Football games are either attended, or watched on television, and have become a major part of Thanksgiving in America. Our family has our main Thanksgiving Dinner on Canada's Thanksgiving Day in October, but as an American, I still prepare a small celebration with my husband and children.
I feel that it is important for my children to understand the history behind American Thanksgiving as well as Canadian Thanksgiving. Also, they enjoy having extra holidays to celebrate.

Roast Turkey with Gravy
 Stuffing
 Potatoes
 Corn
 Cranberry Sauce
 Candied Yams
 Relishes
 Salad
 Pumpkin Pie
1. If April showers bring May flowers, what do May flowers bring?
2. If the Pilgrims were alive today, what would they be most famous for?
3. Why can't you take a turkey to church?
4. What are the feathers on a turkey's wings called?
5. What's the best dance to do on Thanksgiving?
6. Can a turkey fly higher than the Empire State Building?
7. What do you get when you cross a turkey with an octopus?
8. How can you make a turkey float?
9. What kind of music did the Pilgrims like best?
10. Which side of a turkey has the most feathers?
11. Why did they let the turkey join the band?
12. Why did the police arrest the turkey?
13. What's the key to a great Thanksgiving dinner?
14. What did the turkey say before it was roasted?
Homework Answer Sheet 2-2

Answers:

1. The Pilgrims.
2. Their age.
3. Because it uses such fowl language.
4. Turkey feathers.
5. The Turkey Trot.
6. Yes. The Empire State Building can't fly at all.
7. Enough drumsticks for Thanksgiving.
8. You need two scoops of ice cream, some root beer, and a turkey.
10. The outside.
11. It had drumsticks.
12. They suspected it of fowl play.
13. The tur-key.
14. Wow, I'm stuffed!
15. table of contents ~Jausten ~Updates ~Fibromyalgia ~Hospice ~Vietnam Memorial ~Pow-Mia ~My Adopted Pow ~Holiday Pages ~Affiliations & Webrings

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Korean Thanksgiving Day

Chusok, also known as the Korean Thanksgiving or Mid-Autumn Festival, is one of the most celebrated Korean holidays. Held on the 15th day of the 8th lunar month, Chusok is often called a great day in the middle of August. It occurs during the harvest season. Thus, Korean families take this time to thank their ancestors for providing them with rice and fruits. Chusok will be held on September 12, 2000.

The celebration starts on the night before Chusok and ends on the day after the holiday. Thus, many Korean families take three days off from work to get together with family and friends.

The celebration starts with a family get-together at which rice cakes called "Songphyun" are served. These special rice cakes are made of rice, beans, sesame seeds, and chestnuts. Then the family pays respect to ancestors by visiting their tombs and offering them rice and fruits. In the evening, children wear their favorite hanbok (traditional Korean clothing) and dance under the bright moon in a large circle. They play games and sing songs. Like the American Thanksgiving, Chusok is the time to celebrate the family and give thanks for their blessings.

GAMES WHICH WE PLAY ON CH'USOK

The people did games to have fun, and I'll tell you what it is. The women and the girls did sew-saw, swinging, Kang-gangsulle (a country circle dance) and other dances, under the bright moon in a large circle. See-saw is a game where 2 people jumps up
and down. This is also found in a normal playground too but the Korean one is made out of wood (the traditional one.) so it's just a long thick sick, where girls step on and go up and down.

Kang-gangsulle is a thing which the girls do. They make a circle at night, and the full moon will shine up brightly down. They do this and say the word "Kanggangsulle" and there is a story about it. Once the Japanese attacked us, but our soldiers weren't enough to fight all the big amount of Japanese soldiers, so the captain thought an idea. He asked all the ladies in the town to get together and make a circle. Then he asked them to go up to the mountains under the bright full moon, and spin around. Then the Japanese saw us and thought we had so many soldiers so they ran away. The Koreans were so happy, so they named that 'Kanggangsulle' and did that every year.

The dance is normally a dance with masks on. They use them also for the plays. The men did sirum (Korean wrestling) which was a sport they played. Also they made a race saying that if they win, they will get an animal.

**FOOD EATEN DURING CH'USOK**

The Koreans ate Songpyon (full-moon rice cakes stuffed with sesame, beans, chestnuts, or Chinese dates) Khaegangjong, YakGwa and yultanja (rice flour, chestnuts and honey) as a special food in Ch'usok. They of course ate rice and other foods in their normal days but ON Ch'usok They made lots of things special for their ancestors. Song Pyun is made out of rice flour and newly harvested grains and fruits. Khaegangjong is made out of sesame seeds.
Work Sheet 2-2A

Describing Activities of Thanksgiving with Graphic Organizer

Thanksgiving
Work Sheet 2-2B

Describing Activities of Chusok with Graphic Organizer
Work Sheet 2-2C

Comparing and Contrasting Thanksgiving and Chusok

Thanksgiving and Chusok

Thanksgiving

Chusok

How alike

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 

How different

Games

Food
Assessment Sheet 2-2

Checking awareness of Thanksgiving and Chusok.

Score /45

Awareness of Thanksgiving and Chusok. Make a check in the box according to proper holiday. If it is in two holidays, make checks in two boxes. (3 point each) ___/30

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Thanksgiving</th>
<th>Chusok</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
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<tr>
<td>Songpyon</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pilgrim</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ancestor</td>
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<td>Family gathering</td>
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<td>Costume</td>
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<td>Long holidays</td>
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<td>Ganggangsulbe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Football</td>
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<tr>
<td>Full moon</td>
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</table>
Checking of the similarity and differences of two holidays. Write down at least 5 elements of the similarities and the differences between Thanksgiving and Chusok. (15 points)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
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Lesson Plan Three
Crosscultural Teaching with Graphic Organizer
Comparing and Contrasting American New Year Celebration and Korean New Year Celebration

Objectives:
1. To introduce after-speaking self-management strategy to get on tasks
2. To become familiar with American New Year celebration and Korean New Year
3. To be able to describe activities of American New Year and Korean New Year with graphic organizer
4. To be able to compare and contrast American and Korean New Year with graphic organizer

Materials:

Involving students' background, interests, and prior knowledge (Warm-up):
1. The teacher shows American New Year Celebration posters and asks who know new year celebration of other countries. If there are some students who know, let them share story for a while.

Task Chain 1. To introduce after-speaking self-management strategy to get on tasks
1. The teacher distributes Strategy Focus Sheet 2-3 and explains self-management strategies.

Task Chain 2: Becoming familiar with American and Korean New Year celebration
1. Students are divided into groups of four.
2. The teacher writes down the webpage addresses on the board. Students open the webpage (see Focus Sheet 2-3A and 2-3B):
   http://www.nyctourist.com/newyears1.htm
3. The teacher explains that students are going to study about American new year celebration story online.
4. After students study about American New Year Celebration story online, students will open the webpage:
http://www.clickasia.co.kr/about/h0101.htm
(Focus Sheet 2-3B)
5. Students study about Korean New Year Celebration

Task Chain 3: Describing activities of American and Korean New Year Celebration with graphic organizer
1. The teacher explains task. Each group receives
2. Work Sheet 2-3A and 2-3B.
3. Each group notes activities of American and Korean New Year Celebration
4. Each group writes them down in spider relationship (Work Sheet 2-3A and 2-3B)

Task Chain 4: Comparing and contrasting American and Korean New Year Celebration with graphic organizer
1. The teacher explains task. Each group receives Work Sheet 2-3C.
2. Each group notes significant similarities and differences between two countries
3. Each group writes them down in graphic (Work Sheet 2-3C).

Assessment:
1. Using Assessment Sheet 2-3, students check their awareness of American and Korean New Year Celebration.
2. The teacher collects students’ graphic organizer, and work Sheets.
Focus Sheet 2-3

Speaking Strategies

After you speak:

- Reward yourself with positive self-talk or something more tangible.
  - Give yourself a personally meaningful reward for a particularly good performance.
- Evaluate how well the activity was accomplished.
  - Did you complete the task, achieve the purpose, accomplish the goal?
  - What would you do differently next time?
  - What strategies worked or didn’t work this time?
  - Share your thoughts with peers and instructors.
    (Ask for and give feedback. Share your successful strategies with others.)
  - Be aware of others’ thoughts and feelings.
- Identify the problem areas.
  - Look up vocabulary and grammar forms you had difficulty remembering.
  - Think of new ways to relax and encourage yourself to speak.
- Plan for how you will improve the next time.
  - Try to think of new strategies you could use.
  -Experiment with your classmates’ strategies or those suggested by your instructor.
- Ask for help or correction.
  - Work with proficient users of the target language. Practice the task again if it helps.
  - Talk to the instructor or your classmates if you have any questions.
- Keep a learning log.
  - Write down your strategies, reactions to the task, and task outcomes.
  - Try to judge how well you are improving.
  - Reflect on what works (or doesn’t work) for you. Add new strategies to your list.

(Compiled by Cheryl Alcaya, Karen Lybeck, Patricia Mougel and Susan Weaver, University of Minnesota, Fall 1995)
Knowing about American New Year Celebration

The New Year

New Year's Eve falls on December 31st, the day before the first day of the calendar year. In the United States, Canada, England, and many other countries around the world, New Year's Eve is a festive occasion marked by boisterous celebrations to welcome the new year.

In the United States, many people go to New Year's Eve parties. Crowds gather in Times Square in New York City, on State Street in Chicago, and in other public places. At midnight, bells ring, sirens sound, firecrackers explode, and everyone shouts, "Happy New Year!" People also drink a toast to the new year.

As 2001 approaches, New York City gets ready for its annual Times Square celebration. The famous ball drop atop One Times Square has been a tradition dating back to 1906. Each year, hundreds of thousands of people descend upon Times Square to experience this free event. If you are planning to join the festivities, get there early and be prepared-you'll be corralled into barricaded areas where you'll have to stay for the duration. If you leave, you can't get back to where you were. While we're waiting out here being entertained by giant puppets like this Father Time, let's see what New Year's events are taking place around town this year...
Under a minute to go! That crazy New Year's Baby can't wait for that ball to drop!

In the early 1980's, they replaced the ball with an apple—it wasn't the same. The traditional ball prevailed and is here to stay. Last year's Millennium ball designed by Waterford crystal will return this year.

Hey, there's Dick Clark talking with Mayor Giuliani. The Rockin' New Year is almost here. Are you ready.

http://www.nyctourist.com/newyears1.htm
Focus Sheet 2-3B

Knowing about Korean New Year Celebration

Korean Festival:
SEOL-LUNAR NEW YEAR: the Most Important Korean Holidays
"New Year's eve was yesterday, New Year's day is today..."

Sebe:
which is the first greeting to the elders of the year

Koreans celebrate the Lunar New Year. This year it was on January 24. On this very
day the year of the Snake began. Seol is, along with "Chusok", one of the two most
important holidays in Korea.

The New Year's greeting is "say hay boke-mahn he pah du say oh".

Recently people have started to say "Make a lot of blessings this year". It is a more
active saying, isn't it? I think that perhaps it's because of the hardships Korea is going
through. If we observe the meaning of the greeting "say hay" means 'New Year',
"boke" means 'blessings', "mahn he" means 'a lot' and "pah du say oh", 'please receive'.
It literally means "Please receive many New year's blessings".
Many New Year's blessings to you!

Before going into the " New Year's day" ......
let's see what happens on New Year's eve.
"Sut dal kum mum" is New Year's eve in Korean and on that night nobody is supposed
to sleep. It's the so called "je yah". There was a belief that if someone slept on that
night, the eyebrows would turn white. That was the reason why the light was on at
every room, the "maru" and even in the kitchen. This was done to receive the brand
new year's day with awaken eyes and brightness. During the New Year's eve day
people perform an overall cleaning, brushing off old dust. At the evening they heat
water and take a bath. They also burn bamboo sticks to cast off every single house
demon. They thought that with the sound of the exploding bamboo's knots, the
demons would get scared and run away. At night, as a sign of appreciation, people
greet the family's elders and if there is a "sadang" at home they present an offering there. It's the ceremony of the last day of the year.

New year's day is called "seol" or "seol ral". It is a very important holiday. "Seol" means 'to be careful', and some says that it means sadness. Others say that "seol" derives from "nat seol da", which means to be unfamiliar. New Year's day can be called "Won Dan", "Won II", "Shin Won", which are words of Chinese origin. It's also called "jung wol cho harut nal". "Jung wol" means 'January'. "Cho", 'the first', "harut nal", 'first day'. These are solely Korean words.

2. What do they do in the Lunar New Year's day?

What are the common factors in Korean holidays?
"Chesa" or the offering to ancestors: These offerings in holidays are called "chare" because it is served with liquors and teas. New Year's day is not an exception. Women get busy preparing the food from the previous day. They make "ttok", "garettok", fried meats. They buy fruits, clean the fishes and so on. They spend almost the entire day in the preparations. Nowadays even the dumplings are made at home. The food prepared the day before is placed on the altar. The difference is that instead of rice, as in any other "chesa", on "seolnal", "ttokuk" is on the offering table.

Let's see what they do in the morning of "seolral" Very early in the morning they take a bath and put the "solbim" on. Solbim are new clothes, prepared to wear on seolnal. Usually it is the traditional custome, han bok.
Family members drink a glass of "gui balki sool", which is a liquor that is believed to clarify the hearing. They say these liquors enable one to hear clearly all year long. Then comes the rite of offering to ancestors. The room must be spotless cleaned first, then a screen and a table altar are placed in the room. On that table several foods are presented. The placement of the food has a certain order.
**Jwa po woo rye:** On the left jerked meat. On the right rice drink
**Doo dong mi seo** : East : head. West: tail
**Hong dong bek seo** : East: red color. West: white color.
"Chi bang" is the paper where the names of ancestors are. At the left men's name and at the right, women's names. Written vertically from left to right the order is: great great grand parents, great grand parents, grand parents, parents.
When offering to ancestors, transparent liquor is served and peaches are not included among the fruits offered. Fishes with the name ending in "chi" like kong chi, kal chi are no used. Vegetables may include ko sari, doraji, sookju namul. The broth is made of mussels, shrimp and pulp or squid fish. Jerky can be both of fish or beef.

The above-mentioned rules are commonly observed, but people tend to serve what the deceased liked most while they were alive. (neatly placed) The deceased ancestors must be well nourished so they have enough energy to give many blessings to their descendants.

**Method of Chesa(Chare)**

1. **Oel mo shim:** After placing the altar table, at the right time, as a sign to request the spirit to lie down upon them, the head of the ceremony lights the incense, and pours some liquor in the glass, then pours it in the bowl with sand. Later on he bows twice in front of it.
2. **Il dong be rye:** As a signal that the ceremony is commencing all the participants bow twice.
3. **Offering of the first drink:** The head of the family steps forward, kneels down on his left knee and awaits the reading of chuk mun.
4. **Chuk mun reading:** The person who reads the chuk mun kneels down on the left side of the head of the family. After he finishes reading, everybody bows twice.

5. **Offering of the next drink:** The next person who offers the liquor steps forward, empties it on the teoju bowl and pours liquor, offers it and bows twice.

6. **Offering of the final drink:** The person who offers the third drink steps forward, drops the second drink on the teoju bowl, serves the third drink and bows twice.

7. **More drink:** The head of the ceremony steps forward and pours in the last glass three times and beats slightly so the liquor overflows it.

8. **Putting a spoon in the rice:** The lord of the ceremony opens the cap of the rice bowl and places a spoon east bound. As a signal to request the dead ancestor to receive the offering, everybody prays lowering their heads a little bit.

9. **"Soong nyoong" offering:** The bowl of broth is lowered and "soong nyoong" is served and 3 spoonfuls are placed in the "soong nyoong" bowl.

10. **General bow:** As a sign of ending the ceremony everybody bows twice.

11. **Receiving of blessing:** The lord of the ceremony eats a piece of meat and drinks a liquor

12. **Removing the offering table:** At the end, food is shared and the list of names and chukmoon are burned.

After "chare" is over, "sebe" takes place, which is the first greeting to the elders of the year. Later the family has breakfast with the food from the offering table and visits elder relatives and neighbors. The people who receive these greetings prepare a table of foods. Food and liquors are served to adults and children are given candies or money and best wishes for everybody. The reason why they give money to the children is to teach them to save money. In the past it was to buy eggs and grow chickens, sell them and buy a calf. When the calf would grow to be a cow you would sell it later to buy lands to cultivate. After that people visit the tombs of their ancestors.

**What do people do in Seol-ral for fun?**

Kite flying, yut game, top-spinning, snow sliding, etc. are the usual entertainment. However, yut game is probably the most popular among them. Yut is one of the traditional Korean games that can be played anywhere. It's especially popular on New Year's Day. It is
customary to play this game from New Year's day until January 15, called Daeborum.

**Method to play YUT**: One can find the following names: do, gye, geol, yut and mo.

"Do" means 'pig'
"gye" means 'dog'
"geol" means 'sheep'
"yut" means 'cow'
"mo" 'horse'

The reason might be because they were a big part of their assets and in a very close relationship with them in their daily lives. That's how the weight and the pace of those animals are reflected in this yut game. Regarding the weight we can observe that a sheep is bigger than a dog, a cow bigger than a sheep and a horse bigger than a cow. One step of a horse is equivalent to five steps of a pig.

**Yut game has 4 sticks**

It looks like this.

Don't they look like quadruplets? When they are thrown in the air and the fall down turning up and down it's like a big wrestling game scene. The flat part is the rear one. The curbed part with the drawing is the front. Even when the sticks are on the surface because of this curbed front one never knows what will happen.

This thrill and the tensions are the fun of the game.

If one of the stick is upside down it is called Do (pig)
It two sticks are upside down : gye (dog)
Three sticks, geol (sheep)
If all of them are upside down : yut (cow).
If all four are upside it's called Mo (horse)
Do will advance 1 space , gye 2 spaces, geol 3 spaces, yut 4 spaces and mo 5 spaces.

The Mal will advance 4 spaces and it's called dong. The rival Mal can displace one's Mal. If one of the players get 2 Mals they can run together. The winner will be any playing party that ends 4 Mals first.

In this game, when the Mal is in any of the big circles-which are connected to the lines linked to the biggest circles. If one scores Yut or Mo, or if one catches the rival's Mal there is another chance to throw the sticks. It's important to place the mal in the best position on the Yut-pan for there are 4 Mals for each rival party and the victory depends on that. It's a battle of strategy and tactics, a sort of two brains fight. Yut can be more than a game to become a gamble some times.
What to eat on seolral?

There is a lot to eat on Korean holidays. If you are on a diet, it will be very difficult to avoid the temptation to all the delicious dishes. Ttok, meat fritters, dried persimmons, a variety of, walnut, dates, vegetables, traditional cookies, etc. Really exquisite foods. The most representative dish for New Year's day is ttokkuk.

Meaning of Ttokkuk and how to make.....
Work Sheet 2-3A

Describing Activities of American New Year with Graphic Organizer
Work Sheet 2-3B

Describing Korean New Year Celebration Activities with Graphic Organizer
Worksheet 2-3C

Compare and Contrast American and Korean New Year Celebration

American and Korean New Year

American

Korean

How alike

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 

How different

Events

Food
Assessment Sheet 2-3

Checking of the similarity and differences of two holidays. Write down at least 5 elements of the similarities and the differences between American and Korean New Year. (15 points) _____/15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Similarities</th>
<th>Differences</th>
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</thead>
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APPENDIX B

EDUCATIONAL WEBSITES
USEFUL EDUCATIONAL WEBSITES FOR ESL/EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS ON THE INTERNET

Crosscultural Resources

Multicultural Pavilion
http://curry.edschool.virginia.edu:80/go/multicultural/home.html
The University of Virginia's project to provide a resource for educators interested in multicultural issues.

NativeWeb
http://www.nativeweb.org/
A cyber-community for Earth's indigenous peoples.

The Web of Culture
http://www.worldculture.com/
Outstanding resources that seeks to educate and entertain you on the topic of crosscultural communications.

International and Crosscultural Communication Mail List
http://www.ncsa.uiuc.edu/EDU/MSTE/Oldfiles/iecc.html
Partnering list and other ESL related lists

English Listening
http://www/englishlistening.com/itemdtl.phtml?raid=008-06
Native-speaker talks about the diversity in California with its large Mexican and Asian Community

Exchange
http://www.ed.uiuc.edu/exchange/
A website for and by ESL/EFL teachers and students. Resources and activities.

E-Mail Key Pal Connection
http://www.comenius.com/keypal/index.html

Teacher Resources: ESL/EFL

ESL Teachers Home Pages
http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/Links/TeacherPages.html
A database of ESL/EFL teacher's home pages from around the world.
Teacher Contact Database
http://www.classroom.net/contact/
A database where you can find other teachers who are interested in doing key pal exchanges, projects, and more.

Dave’s ESL Café on the Web
http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/eslcafe.html.
Part of ESL program at California State University of Northridge

ESL Bulletin Board
http://www.mbb.cs.colorado.edu/~mcbryan/bb/409/summary.html
A site for ESL/EFL instructors to communicate with each other.

ESL Homepage
http://www.lang.uiuc.edu/r-li5/esl

ESL/EFL Newsgroup
News:misc.education.language.english
A newsgroup specifically for ESL/EFL instructors.

ESL Resource Links
http://www.otan.dni.us/webfarm/emailproject/ESOL.htm
ESL Links

WWW & Email Activities for the Classroom
http://darkwing.uoregon.edu/~leslieob/ylghunt.html
Activities students can do using email and the net

Net Tools/Search Engines

Alta Vista: Main Page
http://www.altavista.digital.com/
Search Engine

Internet White Pages

WWW Search Engines
http://jwflorencemm.com/~the/jwfsearch.html
Links to the most popular search sites with an explanation about how they can be used.

Yahoo
http://www.yahoo.com/
Sites Designed for ESL/EFL Students

Reading: Fluency Through Fables
http://www.comenius.com/fable/index.html
Students will find a short fable to read. After reading the fable, they can complete a variety of activities: vocabulary matching, a true or false comprehension exercise, vocabulary completion and written discussion. Students can then use the index to find other fables and accompanying activities.

U.S. Holidays Page
http://www.aec.ukans.edu/LEO/holidays/holidays.html
Students are very interested in holidays. At this site they can read about the following holidays: Halloween, Thanksgiving, Martin Luther Kind Day, Groundhog Day, Valentine’s Day, St. Patrick’s Day, Passover, Easter and Memorial Day.

Writing: Purdue’s Online Writing Lab
http://owl.English.purdue.edu
This site offers instructional handouts on subjects such as punctuation, spelling, writing research papers and citing sources. Originally created for native speakers, it has a special section for ESL students that includes explanations about the use of articles and the use of prepositions in English.

Vocabulary: Dave’s ESL Slang Page
http://www.eslcafe.com/slang
This slang page is very useful for students who want to be more “hip” when speaking English.

Weekly Idiom Page
http://www.comenius.com/idiom/index.html
This site features a new idiom every two weeks. Each new idiom is given with its definition and a sample dialogue.

Toon in to Idioms
http://www.elfs.com/2nInX-Title.html
Students will find an idiom along with an amusing illustration and a sample dialogue that they can listen to if their computer has speakers.

Self-Study Quizzes for EFL Students
http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/quizzes
This site is another project of The Internet TESL Journal. Students can take grammar quizzes in a variety of subject areas such as holidays, sports, and culture. The quizzes are graded on the spot.

Music

Digital Traditional Folk Song Database
http://www.deltablues.com/dbsearch.html
A searchable database of over 5,622 songs.

Grendel’s Lyric Archive
http://homepage.seas.upenn.edu/~avernon/lyrics.html
Song lyrics.

International Lyrics Server
http://www.lyrics.ch/search.htm
Search for album, artist, or song.

Music Links
http://www.orst.edu/~healeyd/music_links.html

Journals & Magazines

EFL WEB Home Page
http://www.u-net.com/eflweb/
Online magazine for those teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

TESL-EJ Electronic Journal
http://www.well.com/user/sokolik/index.html
A compendium of articles for ESL/EFL instructors.

TIME World Wide Home Page
http://www.pathfinder.com/@@qS9EwjELkw1AQM8/time/timehomepage.html
CNN
http://www.nmis.org/NewsInteractive/CNN/Newsroom
Authentic reading materials and the latest news stories, students will find interactive news quizzes.

Yahoo! Internet Life
http://www.yil.com

ZD Internet Magazine
http://zdimag.com
REFERENCES


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