2002

English language institute in Greece: A business proposal

Roumpini Alkaterini Papadomichelaki

Lash Keith Vance

ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN GREECE:

A BUSINESS PROPOSAL

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

Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki

Lash Keith Vance

September 2002

ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN GREECE:

A BUSINESS PROPOSAL

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

---

by

Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki

Lash Keith Vance

September 2002

Approved by:

[redacted]

Thom Gehring, Ph.D., First Reader

8-20-02

Date

[redacted]

Lynne Diaz-Rico, Ed.D., Second Reader

ABSTRACT

The aim of this project is to propose a model for a private English language school in Greece with an emphasis on English for Business Purposes (EBP). To attain this objective, this project introduces a framework based on Ken Wilber's "Full Spectrum Approach." This framework constitutes a response to the demands of the Greek educational market for specialized English, whereas at the same time it addresses the hazards that critical theory attributes to the colonialist spread of English as a foreign language.

To achieve this dual purpose, the project analyzes the main issues involved in the integration of EBP courses in the curriculum of a private language school in Greece. This analysis includes the selection of an administrative model for the school, as well as the determination of its theoretical orientation. The analysis also comprises the design and key components of an EBP course, with an emphasis on intercultural training. Lastly, this analysis examines the potential contribution of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) environments and of Writing Centers (WC) in the successful organization of EBP courses in a private language school.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to express our gratitude to Dr. Gehring, our first reader. He guided us through difficult waters and bolstered our flagging energy when we most needed it. Dr. Gehring was more than a mentor for this particular project, for he helped us with his keen insights and supportive words throughout the program. In large part, Dr. Gehring kept us sane when it mattered most. Thank you.

We would also like to thank Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, our second reader and coordinator of the TESOL Program. The TESOL Program proved to be challenging with the vast array of material that was covered. Thanks to her, this program broadened our horizons in the field of education and enriched our educational philosophy.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

An Introduction to the Project

The Purpose of the Project

This project concerns the foundation of a private language school in Greece for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) with a specialization in English for Business Purposes (EBP). The project provides a background for the current organization of EFL education in Greece as well as the typical aspirations of Greek EFL students. However, the prevailing educational paradigm fails to address new demands that are emerging in the field of EFL. Indeed, because of Greece's membership in the European Union and its increasingly active role in the international business forum, the focus of EFL education cannot remain centered on grammar and certificate oriented instruction. Adjustment must be made to the new demands of the marketplace. English for Business Purposes has become a real need that the current EFL paradigm in Greece fails to accommodate. This project presents a theoretical rationale designed to support EBP education in Greece.

Identified Needs/Background

The Status of English in Greece. Foreign languages are considered one of the most precious and handy tools in a Greek's repertoire. People are considered to be poorly equipped in their professional and social life if they do not manage to attain proficiency in at least one foreign language. Despite the survival of the Greek language for more than 2,500 years, English is beginning to exert a strong influence that sometimes threatens the status of Greek. Indeed, tourists often find restaurant menus, street signs, or museum labels in English—not in Greek. What is more problematic is that present EFL instruction, grounded in the traditions of the British Council, fails to recognize that English instruction is not only the carrier of lexis and syntax, but also carries with it a whole culture and worldview.

Despite the potential dangers to Greek culture and language on account of the pervasiveness of English, the English language has played an increasingly dominant role in Greek reality, education, and markets in the last 30 years. After the acceptance of Greece as a member of the European Community in 1981, this role has become even more important. Even by that date, many Greek policy makers had already acknowledged that despite the vast contribution of the Greek language to the fields of both science and literature, Greek could be only a limited users' language, a limitation that is attributed to its difficulty, together with the small number of the Greek population (11,000,000 speakers worldwide).

Although the European Union (E. U.) has always been in favor of a policy of multilingualism, English has been one of the three languages which are primarily used for the purpose of inter-community relations in all fields. Therefore, the Greek government has determined that English should be taught as a second language in the majority of public schools in Greece. This government mandate has actually caused an English language boom in addition to the already existing popularity of the English language. Positively correlated to this expansion of the English language is the flow of Greek students to English speaking universities in or out of the E. U. as well as to the United States for academic studies.

Despite the fact that English is one of the primary languages used in the E. U., English plays a major role in Greece's tourism industry. Every year Greece is visited by millions of tourists from all around the world, mainly from other European countries. This has created a demand for EFL speakers to work in tourist professions, as well as a social competition in the field of foreign language acquisition. It is rather common for the reader of local newspapers in tourist popular places to come across advertisements such as the following: "Young person to work as salesman in jewelry shop. Must speak at least English and German."

English in the Greek Public

Education System. As a manifestation of the social and economic mandate for English fluency, English is now taught in elementary and secondary, university departments of English literature and those of English translation and interpretation, and in other divisions of high education such as business administration and tourist business courses. It is taught, moreover, in all institutions that are entirely funded and supported by the Greek government. Besides these options, people have at their disposal a vast domain of private schools and institutions, as well as the possibility of having private tutorials if they can afford them.

The public and private parallel educational systems may seem redundant to the American or foreign reader in general, but they can nevertheless be explained within the Greek social and cultural context. EFL private schools started with the mission to fill quality and quantity gaps in public education. They existed to satisfy that particular social need on the part of parents who wished their children to gain proficiency in as many foreign languages as possible, so that they could become competent citizens of the European Union. At the time that private schools were founded, however, the Greek public school system did not include English classes in the curriculum of elementary school.

The Role of Private English Schools. Private education undertook the responsibility to provide the Greek society's English solution. Most children began learning English as early as possible, so they could proceed with the acquisition of a second and perhaps a third language, usually French and German.

Indeed, private education in EFL has flourished. To some extent, this prosperity was an outgrowth of the need for certification identified by both Greek students and their parents. Private schools that teach EFL to Greek learners have always targeted, and still target, certificate acquisition as proof of learners' proficiency in English. These certificates are awarded for learners' success in specific examinations which are offered by the British Council in association with the Universities of Cambridge or Michigan, the Educational Testing Service, and the Palso Association of Private Greek Schools of English.

The role of these certificates goes further than being just "wall-decorations." In a competitive and demanding job market, certificates in EFL become standard job qualifications because, according to the Greek legislation, the Cambridge Proficiency in English Certificate can qualify a person to teach EFL in private schools. Furthermore, the need for certified EFL speakers has vastly increased since study abroad became accessible to a majority of academic studies consumers. This accessibility is translated into two parameters: financial and language adequacy.

<u>The Validity of Certification.</u> The question that still remains is whether the acquisition of certificates is synonymous to fluency or adequacy in the English language. Certificate-oriented education prepares students to achieve in a given and very specific area of the English language. Most of the examinations consist of reading comprehension, grammar exercises, essay writing, listening comprehension, and an oral examination. However, the latter two are usually minimally demanding and evaluated leniently. This means that the instruction of EFL is invested mainly in developing the reading and

writing ability of the students, while neglecting oral proficiency and intercultural background of the target culture. Therefore, instruction in private EFL education is incomplete, and cannot guarantee any either oral or cultural fluency, even for its most successful graduates.

Another deficiency of the Greek EFL educational paradigm is the lack of courses in specific fields of science or business. However, advances in specialization and computerization of professions means that general competence in a foreign language is not adequate in and of itself; rather, the specific requirements for the profession mandate specialized EFL. Indeed, there is an increasing number of learners that have acquired general Cambridge certification, but who lack both the cultural training in a particular course of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as well as content knowledge.

This description of the Greek EFL system as well as the diagnosis of its potentials, its deficiencies, and its needs is the first step in planning for a proprietary language school. In a market where competition is already intense, a private school for teaching EFL has to be innovative and meet more needs than has traditional EFL teaching.

The Significance of the Project

This project investigates the potential contribution of an EBP program to the current Greek EFL paradigm from the perspectives of the administrator, teacher, and student. This potential contribution is examined through a critical lens to reveal the essential elements of a successful EBP program, one that is not only profitable, but also provides a quality educational experience for both students and teachers.

Using a theoretical framework proposed by Ken Wilber allows for a coordination of these three perspectives, which may at times appear mutually exclusive. At the administrative level, school administrators must organize the program to be competitive and financially profitable. This can be achieved through organizational innovations such as Computer-Assisted Language Learning and the implementation of a Writing Center. However, the desire for profit should not delimit the training of critical thinkers, nor should it sacrifice the host culture of the community by use of English-only policies. Many critics have used the metaphor of the "Trojan Horse" to illustrate the sometimes deleterious effects that the spread of English has in foreign countries. Therefore, whereas the profit motive is tempting for private English schools, administrators, teachers, and students should be critical of the role that English might play in the Greek community and culture.

This project proposes an organizational model for an EBP program in an English language Institute that negotiates these hazards by means of critical discourse analysis and intercultural communication. Wilber's framework provides the basis for differentiating the perspectives of administrator, teacher, and student. Furthermore, this theoretical framework forms a model that balances these perspectives with the theoretical and practical parameters of the proposed EBP program.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Rationale and Limitations for the Review of the Literature

Overview

The selection of the topics of this literature review reveals the main theoretical and pragmatic issues involved in constructing a private language school. Proceeding from a general and theoretical perspective for the first three topics, this literature review gradually focuses on more pragmatic issues in the implementation of a private language school.

Theoretical Topics. The first topic, "Critical Theory and the Spread of English," examines the role English has played internationally as a colonial vehicle that should not be adopted without reservations, especially by English language teachers and administrators of English language schools. The second topic, "Program Administration," reveals the various theoretical approaches to the organization and administration of schools. Because the organizational framework impacts instruction so profoundly, it is necessary to strategically choose the proper framework, acknowledging that it will vary depending on the needs of students, teachers, and administrators. The third section, "English for Business Purposes," further investigates the specific field of English language teaching as a subset of English for Specific Purposes. This section provides analysis of key issues involved in implementing an English for Business Purposes course considering the many formulations of EBP training available in the critical literature.

Practical Topics. "Intercultural Training in English for Business Purposes,"(EBP) the fourth topic, is a primary tool for EBP instruction. Grounded firmly in the theories of intercultural communication and EBP, this section surveys the available practical models of intercultural training with the perspective of their integration in an EBP course. The fifth topic, "Computer-Assisted Language Learning," (CALL) provides a backbone for the various approaches to computerized language instruction. Indeed, CALL instruction is emerging as a crucial component of EBP programs, especially on account of the Internet, email, and the possibilities for cross-cultural communication using computers.

The last topic, "Writing Centers," provides historical background of the writing center movement along with the development of process-centered writing instruction. Writing centers can enhance critical thinking and writing through a collaborative, process-centered approach. This is becoming more important in the business world that is based on communication relationships and team efforts.

Critical Theory and the Spread of English

The purpose of this review of critical theory and colonialism is to investigate the historical as well as present day status of English as a Second and Foreign language. Beginning with a broad overview of the historical spread of English, it critically examines the advantages and drawbacks of the proliferation of both non-native and native English speakers. Some scholars have even argued that English threatens other native languages with extinction on a scale unheard of historically (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

The review further focuses on the impact of the spread of English on English instruction apparent in the official acronyms of the field, classroom practices, and enforced standardized English. Scholars have found all of these facets of English instruction to be linked with the policies of Western post-colonialism and the concomitant exercise of power (Pennycook, 1994; Auerbach, 1995; Nayar, 1997). Power inequities in policy, the classroom, and in enforcement of standardized English disempowers non-native speakers in numerous subtle ways.

The last section discusses possible approaches to minimize the deleterious effects of the hegemony of English through the method of critical discourse analysis. Through this analysis, instructors, students, and administrators can become aware of differences in power in discourse and of their own status within the discourse community (Fairclough, 1989).

English as an International Language

English is a vast language. It has by far the richest vocabulary of any language with over 500,000 words listed in the compendious Oxford English Dictionary and fully 500,000 more technical and scientific terms that have yet to be catalogued (McCrum, Cran, & Macneil, 1986, p. 19). This compares to other well-known languages such as German with 185,000 words and French with fewer than 100,000 (McCrum, Cran, & Macneil, 1986, p. 19). But what is more striking is that over 80 percent of the world's information is stored in English, half of the business deals in Europe are conducted in English, the International Olympic Committee has designated it as the official language, and more and more students in foreign countries grow up speaking it as a second language

(McCrum, Cran, & Macneil, 1986, p. 20). Indeed, a conservative estimate for the number of speakers of English in 1986 showed that 350 million were native speakers and an additional 350 million spoke English as a second language.

As of 2000, one estimate shows that English speakers, native and non-native, now number over one billion and can be found in numbers on every continent (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, p. 39). It seems that the spread of English will not or cannot be stopped because of its predominance in business communication and on the Internet. Yet not all scholars have applauded the spread of English as the panacea to the Babel of languages that existed before. One notable scholar, Skutnabb-Kangas, has even argued recently that languages represent linguistic resources that are being made extinct on a daily basis.

Skutnabb-Kangas, using data collected by UNESCO in 1998, has determined that there are still 6,700 languages in existence, most of which have not been transcribed and only exist orally (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, pp. 33-34). But because of the spread of English on a global scale, many of these languages are threatened with extinction. Over 6,000 of the 6,700 languages that exist today have fewer than 1,000 speakers (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, p. 45).

Skutnabb-Kangas argued that loss of linguistic diversity is just as damaging as the loss of ecological diversity in the rain forest and that the spread of English to the furthest corners of the globe is part of the process. Although languages, just like species, may naturally go extinct based on numerous environmental and genetic factors, the spread of English as part of the world's ten most spoken languages has significantly accelerated this process (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, p. 219).

Colonialism and English

The danger to linguistic diversity presented by the spread of English is just one of the concerns that scholars have argued, but this broad view of history has been, for the most part, subordinated to other criticisms that view English as an imperialistic and racist engine of so-called progress. In this view, progress as represented by the spread of English and the "betterment" of non-English speaking peoples by their contact with Western principles is only progress for some who will profit from it and is continued economic oppression for those who will be further enslaved by it. As long ago as 1927 Gandhi "protested that English distorted education because the time spent learning English led to decreased standards in other subjects" (Master, 1998, p. 717).

However, it was Fanon, whose theories and critical statements were popularized by Foucault, who alerted the French public and later the English public to the dangers of the spread of both French and English into parts of Africa. For Fanon, these languages were the most visceral representations of the effort to colonize and their spread within African communities disrupts the fabric of society far more than it strengthens it. Indeed, Fanon argued that the "arrival of the white man in Madagascar shattered not only its horizons but its psychological mechanisms" (Fanon, 1967, p. 97). What is more, Fanon argued, the introduction of a colonizer's language destroys cultural originality and forces the native to adopt not only the language of the colonizer, but the culture as well (Fanon, 1967, p. 18).

Inevitably, the native who learns English changes and becomes "different from that of the group into which he was born," which initiates a "dislocation, a separation" (Fanon, 1967, p. 25). Fanon's book, Black Skin White Masks, originally published in 1952, evidently participated in the anti-colonial rhetoric of the time, but the lessons he taught still relate closely to the possible effects of the spread of English, even if this now takes place more benignly than before.

Though English is no longer spread by the end of gun, Pennycook (1994) argued, neither should it be deemed natural, neutral, or overtly beneficial. Pennycook disagreed with the positivists who argued that "languages can be free of cultural and political influences" and in particular he disagreed with the belief "that by its international status English is even more neutral than other languages" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 12). Instead, English should be viewed, following Cooke's description, as a Trojan horse because it is "a language of imperialism and of particular class interests" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 13).

These interests can clearly be seen in the enrollment statistics for those who learn English in foreign countries, as evidenced by the case of India. There, one scholar observed,

> English serves as the distinguishing factor for those in executive authority, no matter how low the level is, and acts as a convenient shield against the effective participation of the mass of people in the governmental process. (Pattanayak, 1981, p. 43)

Pennycook certainly viewed the proliferation of English in foreign countries as "clearly a result both of the historical legacy of colonialism and of the varying success of countries since independence to ward off the threats of neocolonialism" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 16).

But the effect of the "neocolonization" of English can be felt in countries that have not been directly colonized by the British or America. Simple requirements for proficiency in English, as articulated by the Educational Testing Service with its Test of English as a Foreign Language or the British Council's well-known Cambridge Certificates, also contribute to the hegemony of English in the world market. English, then, functions as a "gatekeeper," and one's superior knowledge of English allows access to knowledge as well as entry to professional circles. This type of elite knowledge limits a vast majority of the population in many countries throughout the world because English becomes totally a class-based language employed by the elite to gain power and privilege over the under class.

English Instruction and Colonialism

Acronyms of English Instruction. The status of English as a global language and the underpinnings of colonial power are also reflected on the choice of acronyms for the instruction of English. The instruction of English had been termed English as a Foreign Language (EFL) before the publication of Morris' textbook on English pedagogy, which introduced the new term English as a Second Language (ESL) back in 1948. According to Pennycook (1994), it was implicitly assumed by Morris that residents of the former or soon to be ex British colonies necessarily had English as a Second language; English was not a foreign language but was a language that would help bring together peoples of varying dialects and would aid in the forging of a new country whose connective fiber would be the English language. The use of English as a Second Language, despite the official end of colonial occupation forces, would still allow for cultural and language hegemony in many former colonies because much of the work done by government as well as international relations would be conducted in English.

One scholar found this dynamic entirely problematic because

> recognition of control over English means control of power through control of interaction. In the inherently unequal power dynamic of the native-nonnative interaction, in the classroom and

> outside, the power is thus further tilted away from the learner. (Nayar, 1997, p. 20)

Thus, even though former colonies threw off the colonial chains of oppression, they were still weighted down with the burden of teaching English in order to survive in the international market place.

Classroom Practice and Power. The spread of English is accompanied not just with the grammatical structure of the language itself, but a host of cultural and ideological implications, as well. These implications have direct bearing on pedagogical practices, argued Auerbach, in that "the day-to-day decisions that practitioners make inside the classroom both shape and are shaped by the social order outside the classroom" (Auerbach, 1995, p. 9). This means that those native English speakers who journey to foreign countries to teach English also carry with them the "everyday, taken-for-granted practices [that] permeate all the institutions that make up the fabric of society, not only those that are overtly political" (Auerbach, 1995, p. 10).

These instructors serve as microcosms of the dominant culture from which they come, and they inadvertently or advertently privilege the dominant culture by "elevating it to universal status" (Auerbach, 1995, p. 11). Auerbach was particularly concerned with the "natural" choices that instructors make when constructing an ESL/EFL course, not because instructors seek to dominate and subjugate their students, but because they do this without even knowing it. Through choices of curriculum, instructional content, and materials, instructors exercise power that subtly molds students into perfect or sometimes imperfect copies of the dominant culture. The curriculum too often revolves around what "we do" in America or Britain or focuses on civic responsibility, the virtues of democracy, or the benefits of paying taxes. This curriculum, in short, creates British and American citizens. It does not, Auerbach pointed out, teach students to write letters of complaint, organize a union, or defend themselves.

The exercise of power through materials, curriculum, and content instruction is particularly problematic for ESL and EFL students who must not only study English grammar to master the language, but also become aware of the culture of the curriculum. Auerbach profoundly disagreed with this because it so thoroughly disempowers the students. It privileges the authority of the teacher, allows for a teacher-driven curriculum, and forces students to rehearse pre-digested knowledge instead of creating a web of knowledge for themselves in a critical way.

In this system, differences of native culture with the culture of the teacher negatively affect students because if students do not respond to traditional instruction, they are labeled as deficient. This method does not consider that the student may have modes of learning or educational experiences that differ from those of the traditional paradigm. Students who understand the methodology of instruction or have the cultural capital to work within the system will likely have a successful educational experience. However, if their cultural capital differs from the "prerequisite knowledge legitimized in school, school failure, academic difficulty, or problems with literacy are the result" (Walsh, 1991, p. 10).

Standardized English. Auerbach (1995) certainly showed how choices an instructor makes in terms of curriculum and materials have profound effects on students and their forced integration into cultural norms. But perhaps an even more telling form of that which is assumed to be the most natural of all is the instruction of students in "pure" or standardized English. American and British English instruction reign supreme as the two real choices available to would-be students because "nonstandard varieties are stigmatized as corrupted forms of the standard and kept out of the classroom" (Siegel, 1999, p. 701).

Standardized English has profound implications for the power dynamic within and outside the classroom. First, it shows which social group has the most cultural capital or value within society because that group's version of English will be privileged. This can be seen in the ascendancy of the "Midlands" dialect in English long ago, which became the English of Chaucer, Shakespeare, and modern English. It, in effect, beat out the competition. Second, by banning other varieties or articulations of English, it makes the classroom instructor the final arbiter of the "right" version of English that is to be taught.

An additional layer that informs employment choices for English instructors in foreign countries is that of native speaker status and ethnicity. Norton found that too often employers look for a "native English speaker" regardless of the background or skills of the candidate. The right form of English is to be taught by white native speakers, thereby excluding ethnic and linguistic minorities. And this stereotype is not only furthered by the elite in power who benefit from it, but also from ESL students themselves who believe that "only White people can be native speakers of English and that only native speakers know 'real' English" (Norton, 1997, p. 423).

Language and Power in Discourse

Scholars such as Auerbach (1995), Norton (1997), and Pennycook (1994) have pointed out the pitfalls inherent in the spread of English as a global language; indeed, perhaps the strongest metaphor is that proffered by Pennycook when he terms English the Trojan horse whose presence eventually facilitates the fall of the city. While these scholars should be heard, their arguments appear one-sided. It is unlikely that the English language carries all the power that is attributed to it or that people who learn English will immediately lose their own cultural heritage and adopt Western thought processes. This argument implies implicit subject positions: the English speaker plays the role of the colonizer and the student is the colonized subject. Students become willing Calibans as featured in Shakespeare's The Tempest. It neglects, moreover, the agency of the student, for we do not know how the knowledge of English will be used or whether the student will "receive" it passively or critically.

Some critics have argued that the spread of English carries with it greater benefits than defects. For them, English can foster universal access as the language of the air and sea, or offer linguistic emancipation. Master, for instance, argued that there are both negative and positive effects of the spread of English. He advocated that linguistic imperialism can be seen around the world. Its effects range from who has access to English (elite formation), to the change of cognitive and cultural patterns. However, while dangers lurk on the fringe, Master argued that English for Specific Purposes, which focuses on genre and discourse, may allow students to more thoroughly research "occupational subculture...in order to better their chances of acceptance and success in those subcultures" (Master, 1998, p. 722). Unlike traditional English instruction, ESP already has a "head start in that arguments for critical pedagogy, critical discourse analysis, and critical needs analysis have already been articulated" (Master, 1998, p. 719).

The critical discourse to which Master referred really involves simply training students to be aware of a particular system, so they can exploit their knowledge of its organization. This skill would certainly be valuable to native and nonnative speakers alike, but it seems a far cry from critical pedagogy and the critical consumers of language and culture that would allow students to recognize the Trojan horse. It seems what Master should be calling for is the specific training for critical thinking that can be applied universally. An answer to this dilemma can be found in Fairclough (1989), whose discussion of discourse and power provided a helpful model that can first be employed by ESP instructors and later by traditional instructors.

Fairclough (1989) examined the many aspects of the power/language relationship, focusing mainly on power in discourse and power behind discourse. Within the frame of power in discourse, he noted three primary constraints are placed on participants: content, relational, and subject constraints. At all levels of discourse the rules for subjects, those with power and those without, are specifically prescribed. Fairclough analyzed the role of hidden power in encounters by arguing that the social order is held together through a web of discourses predicated on the exercise of power. Through a number of well-chosen examples, Fairclough illustrated how power is exercised and enacted through discourse patterns (Fairclough, 1989).

Fairclough's work on language and power can easily be applied to ESL or specifically ESP programs. By training students to be critical consumers of texts, any text, they become analytical of the different discourse patterns they are being taught in English. An analytical student will not be passive or accept the "mental structures" of English as natural and good. Critical consumers learn the discourse patterns of English, but are not colonized by them.

Therefore, English instruction has the potential to address the imminent danger to indigenous languages and cultures from the uncritical acceptance of English. This requires consideration and diagnosis on the part of students, instructors, and administrators involved with English teaching and learning both abroad and domestically. Both Fairclough (1989) and Master (1998) hinted at ways to address the linguistic and cultural dominance of English. Another way to adjudicate these problems, discussed in the next section of the literature review, is to organize the school administration to minimize differences in power among students, instructors, and administrators. By choosing an organizational plan that emphasizes student learning and not monetary profit, the students' best interest is always out first.

School Program Administration

Schools are complex organizations that to some observers almost seem organic with a life of their own. Just as most schools will have different physical plant designs, so will they employ a vast variety of different organizational structures. The purpose of this review is to examine and evaluate various organizational structures in search of an integrative model that takes into consideration the perspectives of students, instructors, and administrators.

The review begins with an overview of the traditional approaches to organizational design based on structural, humanistic, political, and symbolic elements. Expanding on these approaches, Dimmock (2000) proposed a method to develop schools predicated on the premise of "backward planning." This method requires that all members of the institution have the same vision, and at the same time it discusses the primary concern inherent with this approach, the issue of centralized or decentralized authority. Authority is further complicated by traditional and current theories for the role of supervisors and administrators.

Traditional Theories of Organizations

One critic observed that school organizations "are like the landscape: complex and varied. Moreover, they change with the seasons, with the weather, and with our observational perspective" (Dalin, 1998, p. 29). Indeed, this landscape can be quite varied and sometimes disorienting, but Gareth Morgan in his book Organizational Images (1986) encapsulated eight of the main possibilities for organizational structures that schools may employ. For Morgan, one typical metaphor is that of the organization as a machine, which was primarily developed in the nineteenth century during the industrial age.

This metaphor views human beings as parts that can be replaced when needed. This theory of organizational behavior gradually changed to that of the "organization as an organism." As managers and scholars began to see that businesses were dependant on their environment, the view of organizations as strictly mechanical also changed. Instead, they became organic, mutable, and alive. They even underwent various stages of development in the evolutionary chain. Morgan's other broad categories illuminated the variegated metaphors used by scholars to describe organizations: the organization as brain, as culture, as political system, as inner prison, as instruments for supremacy, as entities in a state of flux. Morgan was the first to observe that no one theory reigns supreme, but that there might be more than one paradigm at work within an organization at one time (Morgan, 1986).

Dalin echoed this sentiment when he observed that "no one theory has been developed that can be said to encompass all aspects of all kinds of organizations and that would thus tell us why organizations act the way they do" (1998, p. 31). Dalin expanded on Morgan's reductive eight "images" by creating four broad categories that subsume Morgan's images and also altered traditional perspectives on organizational theory. Dalin doubted whether "general theories are useful for understanding organizational renewal" (1998, p. 32), and, therefore, recast them into four perspectives on organizations: structural, humanist, political, and symbolic. Within the framework of these four broad categories, Dalin found that most organizational behavior can be explained and predicted. Moreover, it also becomes possible for organizations to pick and choose operational paradigms that will best fit and allow for the greatest productivity and happiness.

<u>The Structural Perspective.</u> In the structural perspective Dalin located theories that involve viewing

organizations as rational systems "concerned with realizing set goals by means of the most effective structure and procedures" (1998, p. 32). In this system, organizations are hierarchical, rely on specialization, have clear-cut rules, produce impersonal relationships, promote career possibilities based on seniority, and have set goals. Additionally, the environment in which the business is placed has significant effects on all parts of the organization because "the environment is always in a state of flux, there will always be give and take between organization and its environment" (Dalin, 1998, p. 34). Changes in organizational structure may sometimes need to take place because of environmental factors. Indeed, the greater the environmental volatility, the more responsive organizations need to be and typically the less complex organizations ought to be.

The Humanistic Perspective. The second broad category offered by Dalin revolves around the "individual's contribution in organizations, and with the interaction between all the organization's members" (1998, p. 37). As the name implies, the humanistic approach centers on employees as major participants in the organization. Organizations should satisfy human needs, allow employees chances to use their energy and talents, and foster an environment that meets the needs of employees. Collectivist and clan approaches, both of which involve informal agreements on what constitutes acceptable behavior, legitimize authority and the norms of the organization. In effect, this becomes an organization run by employees who are vested in common goals.

The Political Perspective. The third category views organizations "as scenes for battles and conflicts of interest, illustrated through a fight for resources exemplified and highlighted through the dissimilar values and interests of individuals and groups" (Dalin, 1998, p. 40). This perspective relies heavily on conflict and the role of the marketplace. The organizations' goals remain in the forefront and employees battle, jockey, and negotiate for positions that will both serve individual employees as well as the organization. Employees wage war in this environment because of the numerous incentives provided by the organization.

The Symbolic Perspective. In this fourth perspective, contrary to the structural approach, it is not particularly what happens, but the meaning behind it. This approach helps to explain apparently illogical, meaningless, or irrational processes within organizations. It is not, therefore, the structure of the process that is the issue, but the symbolic value behind it. This perspective is best used to analyze structures to see how they might be improved, for with ambiguous preferences, ambiguous technology, and variable participation in the structural framework, organizations tend to fall into chaos. However, analysis of the symbolic value behind these processes allows for restructuring and renewal.

A Current Theory of Organizations: The Backward Method

Dalin's four perspectives outline the major approaches that have been applied to organizational planning. One new approach by Clive Dimmock (2000) utilized these categories, but relied heavily on what he terms backward mapping, which he argued "seeks alignment and consistency at each phase" of the development process (p. 28). Backward mapping is a design process that first expresses the intended outcomes and only afterwards investigates the processes by which these goals can be accomplished. According to Dimmock (2000), most other planning techniques oversimplify an "invariably complex phenomena" (p. 22).

School-level planning often begins with a set of "best practices" that teachers have observed, but this entails certain problems because teachers "have traditionally failed to recognize and agree upon a set of practices to underpin their profession" (Dimmock, 2000, p. 22). This leads to chaos even before the organizational model is developed. However, by using backward mapping, organizations first start with the objective in mind: to improve student learning outcomes and experiences. This reorientation has a ripple down effect that can be found at every level of the organization because there is a "connectedness" of the organizational constituents based on goals as well as function to achieve these goals. Dimmock's primary contribution, though, is to provide a framework for school organizations to follow in designing or redesigning their structures.

Dimmock alluded to four major levels in his discussion: the system level, school level functions, leadership and management, and classroom level functions. Within this model, Dimmock argued, there should be a conscious effort to both centralize and decentralize organizational functions. For instance, schools should "make their own responses to the frameworks…depending on school context, school goals, and the school's perceived strengths and weaknesses" (Dimmock, 2000, p. 36).

But for all the advantages that backward mapping offers over choosing an organizational pattern before deciding on common goals, his approach needs bolstering. It is unclear from Dimmock's framework which organizational entity would be responsible for what task. It remains unclear as well how centralized or decentralized his organizational system will be. The concept of backward planning, although certainly helpful in defining the goals of the school organization, remains entirely too superficial to be of practical use.

Centralization or Decentralization at the School Level

One of the key issues in organizational planning is the delegation of authority to particular parts of the organization. Morgan's organizational images, though helpful, remain on the theoretical level and do not provide much pragmatic assistance in the real world. Likewise, Dimmock' s framework, though helpful as a starting point, does not address particular practical aspects of organizing. Perhaps the problem is that practical solutions to organizational issues tend to be prescriptive and unhelpful once abstracted from their particular contexts. However, there have been certain efforts to place these organizational facets under a more pragmatic perspective.

Indeed, Lawton and Scane (1990) tried to formulate practical solutions to the question of centralized or decentralized power through a series of interviews with nine CEOs of school systems across the globe. The study asked these administrators to rank the amount of responsibility that should be delegated to a centralized authority or to the individual school site in terms of five key aspects: teacher staffing, school cleaning, selection of texts, psychological testing of students, and transportation issues. The study found that most administrators agreed that the selection of texts and teacher staffing decisions should be mostly made by individual schools. However, transportation, psychological testing, and school cleaning should all be administered by a central authority.

A follow up questionnaire, however, showed that most CEOs for school districts desired participation from all levels of the school organization, but that the principal, superintendent, and CEO had the authority to change or make decisions. Indeed, two of the nine polled CEOs argued that

> there was a philosophical vacuum at the provincial level. Without a picture of where the provincial system of education is headed and without a rationale

for its direction, each school board was forced to develop its own picture of itself. (Lawton & Scane, 1990, p. 284)

Strategic decentralization, the study shows, does not work effectively when there is not a coherent vision that all constituents of the organization adhere to.

This is perhaps where a combination of Dimmock's approach using his broad rubric might be combined with the results of Lawton and Scane's study. Seeing what services and processes CEOs think could be delegated to local authorities is certainly valuable. These particular processes can be discussed at all levels of the organization, including at the local level where decisions about teacher staffing and textbook selections should be made anyway. Using Dimmock's structural framework would allow for an ordered decentralization that pursues a common goal while also allowing all levels of the organization to effectively communicate.

Supervisory Roles

The tension between centralized and decentralized authority has become a common theme in the literature of program administration, yet few articles or books have much to offer in terms of negotiating this dilemma. One study conducted by Holmes showed that CEOs desire to include the public as well as other parts of the educational system in the process of making decisions, but that "the public interest...is systematically overlooked, not so much rejected as not considered" (Holmes, 1990, p. 260). In this qualitative study that includes in depth interviews of six CEOs from various large school districts, they were sincere and hard working and saw themselves "as both educational leaders and public servants. But they are also part of a system…a community with its own shared beliefs, values and myths" (Holmes, 1990, p. 260). Essentially, while the literature of program administration reflects a shift in the discussion from centralized authority to the inclusion of other communities in the decision making process, program administrators feel more like stewards of their communities who must guide the wayward flock.

Supervisor Strategies. To a large degree the literature of program administration still revolves around strategies that the individual administrator must learn to become an effective leader. While the rhetoric of these texts argues that administrators should facilitate the disparate, nearly independent elements of the school system, the texts themselves focus on the strategies administrators need to know in order to lead. One popular textbook in the field exemplifies this trend. The introduction argues that supervision should be like glue by which

> some person or group of people is responsible for providing a link between individual teacher needs and organizational goals so that individuals within the school can work in harmony toward their vision of what the school should be. (Glickman, Gordan, & Ross-Gordon, 1995, p. 5-6)

In this picture it would seem that, similar to the CEOs in Holmes' study, administrators should facilitate independent units within the organization toward the fulfillment of a common goal.

Yet the rest of the book concentrates on the strategies administrators should employ to supervise teachers and staff. Effective administrators should be aware of their own personal biases in order to overcome them when confronting staff or teachers (Glickman, Gordan, & Ross-Gordon, 1995, p. 116); they should also understand the motivations of people in order to effectively change the behavior that is not conducive to organizational goals. Administrators should have at their disposal both directive control behaviors (p. 135) and non-directive ones (p. 171), which will depend on the situation.

While the opening rhetoric argues for inclusion of many diverse populations in the decision making process concomitant with decentralized authority, the main body of the text articulates the standard position of administrator as pilot of a ship whose ultimate task is to guide it through stormy waters. To effectively pilot the ship, however, administrators must learn how to mold behavior within the organization.

Many school administration texts are quick to note that "school business decisions must be made in the larger context of the mission of the school, that is, improving instruction and enhancing learning" (Drake & Rowe, 1994, p. 3). In fact, the authors argued that proper management cannot be effective without an understanding of what it means to successfully educate children from so many different backgrounds with so many different needs. The role of administrators, like that articulated in other texts, is not to "dominate those positions associated primarily with instruction...but be focused on the purpose of the school—student learning" (Drake & Rowe, 1994, p. xv).

Ironically, the ensuing text is clearly intent on training the school business manager in planning (chapter 4), budgeting (chapter 5), accounting and reporting (chapter 6) from the point of view of the professional whose job it is to manage others. The text provides in depth models and helpful advice on how to maneuver within school bureaucracy and how to plan effectively for the short and long term. But the rhetoric of cooperation between the different departments and constituencies of the school falls away quickly as the practical advice instructs future administrators in the art of leadership-without sharing much of that burden with anyone else.

The New Supervisor: Coordination and Strategic Planning. Traditional administration texts focus on developing personal management skills that will allow administrators to effectively persuade others to follow their lead. In this model it is necessary administrators develop a repertoire of interpersonal skills that begins with a thorough analysis of their own biases and predispositions. While these skills remain important, not every scholar concurs with the near hegemonic role administrators have played in the literature.

A new trend in the literature reflects a change from this personal skills model to a broader planning and coordination approach. The emphasis on personal relationships in this approach has been subsumed by the need to respond to the "many pressures impinging on the educational system" because of the turn from "sporadic and infrequent change to one of continuous change" (Hack, Candoli, & Ray, 1995, p. 15). In this view, administrators attempt to "steer a horse and buggy suddenly moving at the speed of sound" (Hack, Candoli, & Ray, 1995, p. 15), a task that even the most superbly trained supervisor cannot accomplish without assistance.

In this disorienting new world, planning and coordination of disparate elements within the organization, which had received only cursory brushing over in earlier approaches, becomes here the principal job of the administrator. Indeed, the coordination of key participants in decision-making "is more apparent today than it ever has been in the past. With all the pressures being exerted on the schools, the need for involvement is becoming more urgent" (Hack, Candoli, & Ray, 1995, p. 261). Administrators should involve facility planners, faculty and staff, community members, governing boards, students, and other agency personnel whenever possible in the decision making process because support from all of these entities will be necessary if planning will effectively address the needs of the students.

Coordination or Subjugation? Coordination rather than control allows for long-term success and fuller compliance of all facets of the administrative schema with organizational goals. Yet how is this coordination to be accomplished? B. Witziers provided a framework that articulates different coordination methodologies. One way to achieve coordination is through organizational structure, which includes the creation of departments and other subunits that do the work and then report to superiors within the organization. Procedural coordination includes harmonization by mutual adjustment, informal communication between equals to accomplish a task without the intervention of the hierarchy, and direct supervision, a manager who directly supervises the work of others (Witziers, 1999, p. 99). A third and important method of coordination is that of ideology. In this method, workers are indoctrinated through internships or training periods into the ideology of the organization because "if workers think alike, they will act alike, thus ensuring that all activities are directed at the same goals" (Witziers, 1999, p. 100).

What is important here, though, is that one mechanism for coordination should not be imposed at all times. Different mechanisms should be employed based on the situation because there is "no best way of organizing; those organizations will perform well that have a structure adapted to the prerequisites stemming from situational characteristics such as organizational size and age, environmental conditions and the technology employed" (Witziers, 1999, p. 100).

This change in methodology has affected both leadership styles and organizational outlook. Centralized authority functioned within a hierarchical system that required administrators with a vast repertoire of skills. Yet this has changed, according to Vilsteren in that

> there is an overall shift over time from centralized to decentralized governing and policy-making in education and schooling. This change has been accompanied by a development from the above mentioned bureaucratic (hierarchical) leader behavior up to educational (functional) and organizational (operational) school leadership and management. (Vilsteren, 1999, p. 170)

This functional organization requires "operational" leadership in order to respond to the challenges of a quickly changing environment. The older models based on hierarchical leadership cannot provide the type of flexibility necessary in today's changing environments.

Instead, functional organizations can mine the skills of all the employees and can more readily respond to changes in the internal environment as well as external influences.

Strategic Organization Choices: Some Conclusions

The most important lesson learned from all these different authors is that there is no one specific structure that should be followed at all times. The literature suggests a trend away from centralized administration because organizations must be fluid if they are to respond to changing environmental and personnel factors. However, there is a time and place for more rigid controls that depend on the nature of the task as well as the material and human resources that are available. Importantly, administrators now must have the requisite skills to make strategic organizational choices, to understand when to apply stricter, centralized rule or when to diffuse authority throughout the organization.

A field in which the merits of decentralized administration are obvious is that of English for Business Purposes (EBP). Indeed, the organization of an EBP course requires certain fluidity in the relationships of administrators, instructors, and students. Hence, despite the fundamental decision of the administrators in implementing EBP courses in the school curriculum, this integration cannot flourish unless instructors actively participate in the design of this curriculum and students' needs designate its orientation.

English for Business Purposes

The present analysis focuses on providing the current instructor or designer of a course in English for Business Purposes (EBP) with a compass to reveal the key points of the teaching or designing itinerary accordingly. This aspiration becomes the rationale for organizing the present study. More specifically, the analysis initiates from the pervasive significance of English as the language of the international business forum, a pervasiveness that justifies the further attempt to identify categories of candidate learners of English for Business Purposes (EBP). The intention to effectively address the needs of these learners mandates the exploration of the current key issues in the design or teaching of an EBP course, with an emphasis on those of needs analysis, discourse and genre analysis, as well as intercultural training. However, because the latter constitutes an area of particular interest for this project, it will be further investigated as a separate unit.

Basic Terminology

English for Business Purposes (EBP) constitutes a major category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Both EBP and ESP are umbrella terms that subsume various subcategories of English. Because many issues are shared between these two categories of English teaching and learning in the present study, the term of EBP is partly explored through that of ESP. It should also be noted that in the present analysis the term EBP refers only to Business English as a branch of English for Occupational Purposes, clearly distinct from Business English for Academic Purposes. Therefore, the present analysis does not address the needs of learners in academic courses on disciplines such as business, finance, accounting and banking, but rather the needs of professionals in their occupational fields.

The Importance of English for Business Purposes

English seems to pervade the world of business, especially after the transition of many businesses to the international and corporate level. Indeed, unlike the mandatory courses of English for residents of countries as part of colonial enterprises, English has become the language of international commerce without a major revolution or prescribed mandate from world governments.

English has been willingly and officially recognized as the global "corporate" language since the 1980s. Companies from many countries have adopted English as their corporate language because of the ease of interactions between citizens who speak disparate languages. The rise and dominance of English has also been facilitated by the fact that nearly 80 percent of all data in computers is stored in English (Daggatt & Griffin, 1990).

Furthermore, despite the ongoing debate on whether the predominance of English in the international business forum and other fields is "natural" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 18), the predominance itself is indisputable. Indeed, specific examples abound to show that English has become the corporate language *par excellence*. In one study that constituted part of an international project among five different universities in four countries, Louhiala-Salminen (2002) investigated the language of contemporary international business by "shadowing" a middle manager of a middle international corporation in Finland for two days.

The researcher exposed the empowerment of English as the predominant business code, but more shockingly, revealed that English was used not only between native and nonnative speakers, but also among nonnative speakers that shared the same first language. Indeed, according to the findings of the research, "in addition to the use of English as the native-corporate language, it was also extensively used in written Finns-only situations" (Louhiala-Salminen, 2002).

This pervasiveness of English in the international business forum has compelled EBP to become a necessary qualification in the repertoire of business employees. This requirement is becoming increasingly common for employees in corporations of all sizes to use English in a vast range of communicative events, as noted, sometimes even in the presence of other speakers of their primary language. It is, therefore, important that the designer or instructor of an EBP course become aware in advance of the different categories of potential EBP learners. Their differentiation can affect the organization and the focus of the curriculum.

One of the proposed systems for placement of learners relies on the criterion of their experience. Ellis and Johnson (1994, p. 5-6) have proposed a system to distinguish learners in three main categories: pre-experience, low-experience and job-experienced learners. The first category consists mainly of students attending various business programs, through which they have attained a primarily theoretical perspective in the world of business. Business English for these students will have to be "tightly linked to the academic syllabus and course content," (Ellis & Johnson, 1994, p. 7) while it lacks the pragmatic aspect of real business.

The second category of low-experience learners is further classified into the "junior company members" and the learners who are transferred to a different country. The idiosyncrasy of the former is their need to acquire compatibility between their knowledge of Business English and skills required in the specific job. The latter category of learners, on the other hand, usually involves business employees who may be transferred to another country, or to a department that has international contacts and may experience difficulties not only with the language, but also with the systems and procedures followed in the new working environment.

Lastly, the authors describe the category of job-experienced learners, for whom the reasons for learning Business English derive primarily from their aspiration for business expansion. It is mainly these learners who are the most determined and highly motivated in achieving the specific learning goals (Ellis & Johnson, 1994).

Key Issues in English for Business Purposes Course Design

There are multiple issues that are considered to be of pragmatic significance in the design or teaching of an EBP course. Indeed, the rationale of the various definitions for ESP and EBP, and the various models for their classification, could suggest a subtle or more robust curve of the organizational spine of an EBP course. Furthermore, needs and genre analysis have proved to be of diachronic value in the design and teaching of an EBP course, while the intercultural aspects of business communication have been gaining ground at a steady pace.

Selection of Instructional Approach. Because English for Business Purposes (EBP) is a major branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), these two categories should be analyzed along the same lines. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) constitutes a term that is used mainly in contrast to that of English for General Purposes (EGP), as well as an umbrella term for other categories of English. What is most characteristic about the various categories of English is their classification on tree-diagrams. This arrangement strictly discerns the various categories from one another, a distinction that implies that English for Specific Purposes cannot be delivered in a course that is designed for English for General Purposes. The "Tree of English Language Teaching" as well as Robinson's diagram are representative examples of this classification (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 17, See Appendix A: Figure 1; Robinson, 1991, p. 3, See Appendix A: Figure 2).

However, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) proposed the classification of ELT on a continuum to advocate the possibility of fused courses of English for General Purposes and English for Specific Purposes (1998, p.9, See Appendix A: Figure 3). This continuum evolves in five sequential "positions" and proceeds from General to Specific English. On this continuum, courses of English for General Purposes and English for Specific Purposes are not mutually exclusive. On the contrary, an "overlap between General English and common-core ESP" is always possible and can permit, for instance, a general English course to include the instruction of a skill such as reportorial writing, appropriate for students of various professional backgrounds (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 9). This potential fusion between EGP and ESP that the tree-diagrams fail to "capture" offers an alternative scheme that draws EBP course-design from the monolithic isolation of the traditional venue and aligns it with the current trends in ESP (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

This non-traditional scheme of English Language Teaching is indicative of the shift in the trends that have influenced the conceptualization of ESP since its appearance in the 1960s. ESP has since been approached in different ways that share common characteristics, but also carry conflicting nuances.

In their approach of ESP, for instance, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) considered the key element to be the needs of the individual learner. However, in the 1990s, Robinson further required the immediate connection of any ESP course with a distinct discipline, occupation or activity; this connection was considered so significant that it mandated the professional "homogeneity" of the student population in an ESP course (1991).

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), on the other hand, merged but also alternated the previous definitions into an interesting hybrid. In their approach to ESP, they required neither an absolute content-connection with a certain discipline, nor the professional homogeneity of the population of ESP classes. Their argument was based on the fact that an absolute connection may prove misleading or limiting in the organization of an ESP course. Instead, they support that ESP teaching as not so much content-dependent as skills- and discourse-dependent. By this token, "English for Business Purposes teaching should reflect the business context, in which business meetings or negotiations take place" (p. 4). Hence, these authors trace the core of ESP in the specific skills and the discourse of a certain discipline, rather than in its content.

Consequently, Dudley-Evans and St Johns's approach proves consistent with their classification of ESP on a continuum on which the boundaries between EGP and ESP are not strict but fluid. On such a continuum, it is mainly skills that determine the unfolding of the continuum in the sequential "positions," rather than the content of each discipline. To further support this, the authors argue that an EBP lesson on report writing, for instance, can be equally useful to doctors and engineers, despite the heterogeneity of their fields. A course that is, therefore, skills-oriented has the flexibility to address the needs of heterogeneous as well as homogeneous groups of professionals.

Needs Analysis. Most analysts of ESP and EBP course-design, as well as most writers of relevant textbooks, prioritize the process of "needs analysis". The argument for this placement is that, especially for English for Business Purposes, this stage becomes the cornerstone of any course "as learners' needs can be much more varied and the spectrum of language and skills less predictable" (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 62).

To illustrate as well as facilitate this process, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) distinguished between "target" and "learning" needs of learners in an EBP course. The "target" needs of learners are further categorized into their "wants," their "lacks," and their "necessities" that mark their learning itinerary. Initiating from the wants, as the learners define them, instructors have to further detect learners' lacks. This diagnosis should determine learners' necessities in order to accomplish their goals.

The assessment of the learning needs, on the other hand, can serve as a pedagogical compass. These learning needs of students differ from the target ones in temporal terms. While the target needs refer to the future and mirror learners' aspirations, the learning needs reflect students' learning physiognomies. Sketching these physiognomies accurately can assist the instructor in optimizing the delivery methods on the basis of the styles and preferences of specific learners.

By the same token, in the book Teach business English, Donna (2000) approached the issue of learners' needs analysis as an indispensable step in the process of "setting things up for success"(p. 8). However, her assessment guideline is arranged in a three-level pattern that takes into account that current EBP courses often occur upon the request of companies to serve employee needs. Donna, therefore, recommended the use of interviews at the three sequential levels of "in-company course coordinators," "students' managers" and finally "individual students" (p. 12-13) to assess the needs and goals of an EBP course design.

Genre Analysis in Discourse Communities. The placement of students in the three levels proposed by Ellis and Johnson (1994), and the assessment of their needs through the patterns proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) or Donna (2000) can certainly help organize the curriculum of an EBP course. Yet it does not fully indicate its orientation.

Since the appearance of EBP, the focus of EBP courses has gradually moved away from linguistic competence to the inclusion of communicative competence for the learner. On this transitional continuum, the method of genre analysis has become and has remained highly influential. This enduring significance can be attributed to the fact that genre analysis has proved its potential in promoting learners' communicative competence and in enabling learners to critically decode any text not only at a linguistic, but also at a sociological level. Overall, this method of critical text processing enhances the learner's effective and critical participation in the discourse community of international business.

It would seem logical that this participation should constitute a primary aspiration for businesspeople who are enrolled in EBP courses, which should primarily aim at enabling students to gain access to the international business discourse community. However, being entrusted with the "password" for this community is synonymous to achieving expertise in its idiosyncratic patterns and mechanisms.

According to Swales' s conceptualization (1990), a discourse community is mainly characterized by specific "mechanisms of intercommunication among its members" through which the latter exchange "information and feedback" to pursue "a broadly agreed upon set of common public goals" in the most effective way (Swales, 1990, p. 23). In addition to these mechanisms, any particular discourse community also uses language in distinct "genres," expertise in which constitutes a *conditio sine qua non* for one's membership (Swales, 1990, pp. 23-37).

Therefore, one’s belonging in the business community is premised on expertise in this community goals, mechanisms, language, and most importantly, in its genres.

However, one could assume that today’s rapid advancements in the field of communication, and proliferation of communicative events, could impede this aspired expertise. It is exactly in this demanding era that the method of genre analysis seems even more indispensable, for the newly developed genres, such as emails and faxes, retain the main characteristics of Swales diachronic definition of genre.

Indeed, according to Swales, a genre is interpreted as “a class of communicative events” that serves a specific communicative purpose. This purpose constitutes the “rationale for the genre” and demands that the participants in a communicative event conform to its specific structure and conventions (Swales, 1990, p. 58). In this definition, Swales provided a non-structuralist lens through which the linguistic conventions of a genre are interdependent with the social context that shapes but is also shaped through the genre. Therefore, the analysis and cognition of a genre cannot rely exclusively on its linguistic aspects, but should expand to the sociological ones as well.

Toward the same direction of proving that "the text by itself is not a complete object possessing meaning of its own," but is rather a product of specific sociological and cultural parameters, Bhatia suggested the analysis of genre in terms of its lexis, its sociocultural and psycholinguistic context (Bhatia, 1993, p. 18). He further illustrated this priority of the communicative purpose in the formation of a genre by analyzing and categorizing the sales promotion letter and the job application letter under the same genre of promotion writing (Bhatia, 1993, p. 45-55).

This illustration shows why genre analysis remains highly influential in the field of EBP instruction as well as research. An excellent example of the use of genre analysis is offered through a recent study in the field of EBP. In his study of business letters of negotiation, Pintos dos Pintos (2000) used 117 commercial letters exchanged between two European and one Brazilian company. Borrowing Bhatia' s genre analysis of "steps" and "moves" in the negotiation process, the researcher identified the idiosyncrasies of the genre of business letters of negotiation. In his conclusion, Pintos dos Santos drew significant implications for the use of genre analysis in today's EBP pedagogy.

More specifically, Pintos dos Santos (2000) advocated that genre analysis still constitutes a very "useful tool" especially for "a holistic EBP teaching methodology" in that it can evoke student awareness of the linguistic and sociocultural differences between the various business genres and, consequently, enhance communicative competence within the business discourse community. Nevertheless, Pintos dos Santos cautioned for the critical instrumentalization of genre analysis on behalf of the designers and instructors of EBP (Pintos dos Santos, 2000, p. 187)

Indeed, designers or teachers of EBP course should use this processing pattern as a clarification tool rather than a recipe. Language and discourse are not static but highly dynamic, which makes genre analysis beneficial only as a mode of "pattern seeking" rather than "pattern imposing" (Bhatia, 1990, p. 40). Through a constructive instead of prescriptive use of genre analysis, students in EBP courses can develop their critical skills in identifying and adopting the communicative patterns of business discourse in a skeptical manner.

English for Business Purposes: Some Conclusions

As the language for conducting business in the international forum, English has become the lingua franca for global business communication. Moreover, because of the varying pedagogical approaches for teaching EBP, it is imperative for business professionals to choose the proper EBP training course. These courses can vary in their focus from attention to lexis, grammar, discourse analysis, genre analysis, to that of intercultural communication competence. What has become most apparent, however, is that the approach should match the needs of the business and of the professionals enrolled in the course. That is why the stage of needs-analysis is integral in all of these approaches and should be complemented with a specific methodology that integrates both theory and praxis.

Intercultural Training in English for Business Purposes

Intercultural Training is an essential component of an English for Business Purposes (EBP) course. Its increasing significance in this field of English Language Teaching (ELT) has mandated its analysis separately from the other parameters of EBP design.

The need for intercultural training is not recent. It hearkens back to the post World War II era that was characterized by an unprecedented mobility across countries, especially in the fields of trade and business.

It was this mobility that triggered the need to train "international sojourners" to work with unfamiliar cultures. Although this training was initially grounded in the individual trial and error experiences of these sojourners and was detached from any theoretical background, it gradually evolved into a distinct domain with an array of models at its disposal (Smith, Paige, & Steglitz, 1998, p. 54).

This review examines the increasing significance of intercultural training in the specific field of business as a core characteristic of any course of English for Business Purposes (EBP) that aspires to qualify learners with an array of expertise. The specific design of intercultural training in an EBP course relies heavily on both theoretical and pragmatic issues. Therefore, this review investigates the theoretical concepts of culture, communication, and their interdependence that inform the literature of intercultural training. The pragmatic section includes a classification of the different approaches and methods in use as well as their illustrations in the field of EBP. The last part of the review offers a critical lens for the adoption of a specific approach to intercultural training on behalf of the instructor of an EBP course.

The Significance of Intercultural Training in English for Business Purposes

If the game of chess constitutes a successful metaphor for the world of business, then the current internationalization of business could be viewed as a global chessboard. On such a multinational board, it is inevitable that negotiating battles will often take place between "chess pieces" from different countries and cultures. These "battles" will be won by the most competent ones. And competence in this international business forum is measured by criteria that expand the limits of the grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse levels of Canale' s communicative competence theory (Canale, 1983) to include a further competence in the field of intercultural communication. It is this requirement that makes Intercultural Communication Training a major parameter of any course in English for Business Purposes that aspires to qualify business people with the ability to participate in this international business forum.

Intercultural Training has, therefore, become an official parameter of EBP courses and the majority of handbooks for business devote a significant section to the intercultural aspects of business. Although corporate culture pervades the world of business and seems to overshadow any individual culture on the negotiation table (Louhiala-Salminen, 2002, p. 229), research firmly traces the influence of the communicants' diverse cultural backgrounds to the negotiation styles employed (Gimenez, 2001).

A representative example in support of this argument is provided by a study of authentic business interactions between nonnative Speaking English negotiators (NNSENs) from different countries (Gimenez, 2001). The study explored certain negotiation dialogues that took place in English between sellers and buyers from Italy, Pakistan, Brazil, Germany, and Iran. The analysis of the data used the lens of previous cross-cultural studies to seek the variables that affect these negotiations and eventually diagnosed that the negotiators' individual comportments were shaped not only through their business status as sellers or buyers, but also through the peculiarities of their cultural backgrounds (Gimenez, 2001).

The corporate culture of business, therefore, has not eliminated or even diminished the importance of culture in business communication. On the contrary, it has become imperative for EBP courses to include aspects of intercultural training. This training, however, relies extensively on a certain theoretical framework supported by the key concepts of culture, communication and Intercultural Communication. These concepts offer a critical perspective into the organization and implementation of a model for intercultural training that is compatible with the current needs of an international business sojourner who has to communicate with people from different countries and cultures.

The Theory Behind Intercultural Training

The selection of any approach to the concepts of culture, communication and intercultural communication only indicates the significance of a theoretical framework for the development of intercultural training. Indeed, an effort to thoroughly and substantially analyze these concepts is beyond the scope of this review, for there were more than 200 definitions of culture by 1952 and 126 of communication by 1972 (Smith, Paige, & Steglitz, 1998, p. 62). Even within this abundance, however, it is important to indicate that a combination of any of these multiple definitions could be eligible to provide the theoretical orientation for developing a model of intercultural training. At the same time, this pluralism suggests that the selection of any given definition inevitably "informs educational practice and should be based on the requirements of the situation as well as the trainer/educator's personal preference and creativity." (Smith, Paige, & Steglitz, 1998, p. 57).

This pluralism is, therefore, the reason for the analysis of the key concept of intercultural communication, which constitutes a broad and independent field of study, through the specific lens of its potential contribution to the specifics of intercultural training. The present analysis as far as the more specific concepts of culture and communication are concerned, focuses on their interdependence in the context of intercultural training rather than on expansive analysis.

Intercultural Communication. Intercultural communication constitutes a field of study that has sprung from the social phenomenon of contact among people from different countries and cultures, which is, of course, as ancient as the human race. Nevertheless, both the term as well as the study of "intercultural communication" were officially introduced by Edward T. Hall in his work The silent language in 1959. Ever since, there has been a proliferation of definitions and approaches to intercultural communication that do not coincide. This incongruence can be attributed to the equal abundance of definitions for culture and communication, the two basic parameters of intercultural communication (Smith, Paige, & Steglitz, 1998, 1998, p. 56). However, the simple description of intercultural communication as the situation that "occurs whenever a message that must be understood is produced by a member of one culture for consumption by a member of another culture" provides a solid compass for the following analysis (Porter & Samovar, 1997, p. 21).

<u>The Interdependence of Culture and Communication.</u> In his book, Hall (1959) indicated that at that time "culture had become a very muddied concept" (p. 43). In the years that followed, the conceptualization of culture has become even more complex and negotiated through many different perspectives. Combining the common factors shared among nine of these different perspectives on culture, Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) defined culture in a way that successfully reflects the complexity of the concept. According to their definition, culture is viewed as a broad and dynamic framework that has the potential to influence people's "total way of life" in "explicit" as well as "implicit" ways. This power over people's lives is not self-acclaimed, but it derives from an underlying consensus between the people who abide by this framework and who continually negotiate its aspects "in the process

of constructing a personal identity" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, p. 197).

Through this perspective, the individual appears as an active participant in shaping culture while at the same moment the individual is molded by culture. Therefore, if culture partly provides the dynamic schemata for people's total way of life, then communication, as an indisputable aspect of people's life is bound to evolve within these same schemata and constitute a "response to, and a function of" people's culture (Porter & Samovar, 1988, p. 19).

Indeed, communication can be viewed as the transactional process of encoding and decoding messages through the use of symbols and within particular structures that the communicants impose on their interactions in an effort to create meaning (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992, p. 6-11). This process does not occur in a vacuum, because the communicants select the specific symbols and structures based on their individual cultural, sociocultural and psychocultural backgrounds. Culture constitutes a major source of influence that serves as a "conceptual filter," a "mechanism that delimits the number of alternatives from which we choose when we encode and decode messages" (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992, p. 32).

It is, therefore, reasonable to assume that when the communicants are from different cultures, this process can be aggravated by the fact that communicants often do not share the same conceptual filters for the processing of messages, a realistic situation that is effectively illustrated by Gudykunst and Kim (1992, p. 33). Intercultural communication is not synonymous with successful communication, for the inherent parameter of culture can often cause slippage in the process of communication. It is exactly this potential failure of intercultural communication that leads to the construction of bridges between cultures through the possibility of intercultural training.

The Practical Issues of Intercultural Training

Although the field of intercultural training emerged as an applied answer to the needs of international sojourners, it gradually evolved to address the needs of any participant in the context of intercultural communication. This expansion of potential audiences for intercultural training requires that the latter is organized and planned around specific goals and content areas.

After determining goals and content areas based on learner needs, intercultural trainers must select the appropriate approach and techniques to be used in the course. Instructors can choose from generalized approaches to culture that provide students with a broad background to understanding culture or they may choose from specific culture approaches that address distinct cultures. Additionally, the delivery of instruction can be undertaken with a heavy theoretical emphasis or with an experiential orientation (Gudykunst, Guzley, & Hammer, 1996).

The Goals of Intercultural Training. Brislin and Yoshida (1994) identified the goals for intercultural training in a way that addresses the needs of the trainees not only at the pragmatic level of tangible tasks, but also at the higher level of their emotional self-actualization and with respect to both sides of an intercultural event. More analytically, the authors arranged the goals of intercultural training under four broad categories: (1) the assistance of trainees to overcome those adversities of an intercultural experience that can decrease or even eliminate their inner fulfillment; (2) the achievement of mutual and reciprocal respect and appreciation in relationships between foreigners as well as hosts; (3) the accomplishment of work-related tasks, such as the acquisition of a degree or

This balance of theory and practice is considered decisive in most of the approaches to intercultural training. Characteristically, Bhawuk and Triandis (1998) proposed a practice-through-theory model of intercultural training in which the trainees are tiered based on the criterion of their theory-grounded knowledge. It is this knowledge that distinguishes the "novices" from the "experts" of intercultural communication. The "experts" are enabled to organize their cognitions about cultural differences around culture-theories that they acquire through their training. In that way, they can apply these knowledge-patterns to an indefinite number of intercultural situations, while novices, who only have practical knowledge of specific cultures, are bound to be culturally fluent in interactions within those cultures only (Bhawuk & Triandis, 1998, p. 18). All of the approaches to intercultural training are not equally theory-oriented, but the existing debate between an emphasis on theory or practice influences the focus and the techniques of each of these abundant approaches.

<u>The Approaches and Techniques of Intercultural Training.</u> In their effort to draw a comprehensible and versatile map of the training techniques that can feed an intercultural training program, Gudykunst, Guzley, and

Hammer (1996) systematized the multiple approaches to intercultural training on the basis of two fundamental dimensions of intercultural training: didactic versus experiential learning, and culture-general versus culture-specific content of training.

The didactic approach is more theory-oriented since it is grounded on the assumption that people can proceed into interacting with people of another culture if they are equipped with a prior cognition of the culture and its dimensions. On the other hand, the experiential approach emphasizes the importance of the experience in the learning process that dictates the trainees' immersion into simulated intercultural situations. Finally, within the culture-specific dimension, a specific culture is the gravity point of the training's content, while there is no consensus about the point of gravity of a culture-general approach. These dimensions that polarize the major training techniques are further combined under a four-tiered typology of training approaches, each accompanied with the compatible specific techniques (Gudykunst, Guzley, & Hammer, 1996, p. 67-72).

<u>Didactic Culture General vs. Didactic Culture Specific.</u> The first approach of Didactic Culture General to intercultural communication training is designed to

provide the trainees with the theory behind the practice in the format of lectures/discussions, videotapes, and culture-general assimilators. According to the authors, lectures and discussions constitute the traditional medium of presenting and processing information, and they are highly recommended as an introduction to further media of training. This introduction can be further complemented with videotapes or assimilators, which are collections of intercultural episodes presenting the trainees with a choice in resolving an intercultural problematic situation (Gudykunst, Guzley, & Hammer, 1996, pp. 66-67).

The Didactic Culture Specific approach of training, on the other hand, utilizes culture specific assimilators and readings, as well as area orientation briefings to assist trainees in building a concrete knowledge basis about the specific culture of their interest. This knowledge basis is not limited only to factual information about the country and culture of interest, but expands to information about the people's mentalities and attitudes as well as the possible problems to be encountered by foreigners within the specific culture (pp. 67-69).

<u>Experiential Culture General vs. Experiential Culture Specific.</u> The Experiential Culture General approach aids trainees in gaining an awareness of their own cultural

stances, stereotypes, and predispositions through the specific techniques of intercultural communication workshops, culture general assimilators, language training and self-assessments. While most of these techniques require the implementation of specific materials and instruments in the training program, the technique of intercultural communication workshops additionally presupposes a culturally diverse trainee population. These workshops, which take place among small groups of trainees from different cultures and with the subtle presence of a facilitator, assist the trainees in gradually and interactively constructing their cultural awareness (Gudykunst, Guzley, & Hammer, 1996, pp. 69-71).

On the other hand, the Experiential Culture Specific approach concentrates on providing trainees with opportunities to experience aspects of a specific culture through culture-specific simulations and role-plays, as well as bicultural communication workshops. These workshops differ from other intercultural communication programs in that the participants in the groups are representatives of only two cultures, the trainee's and the target one. What is interesting about this specific approach is the possibility to implement role-plays not only between trainees of different cultures, but also of the same culture in order to experiment with the trainees' perceptions of another culture (pp.71-72).

Illustrations in English for Business Purposes

The typology of intercultural training techniques systematized by Gudykunst, Guzley, and Hammer (1996) does not restrict the different approaches. Quite the contrary, it is possible to hybridize new approaches in combining characteristics from the four main ones. This is the case with many of the approaches to intercultural communication in the business setting. The following examples are indicative of the existing orientations in current intercultural training for business purposes.

In World-class negotiating, the authors adopted a fused model of training, influenced mainly by the Didactic as well as the Experiential Culture General approaches, but at the same time included elements from the other approaches too (Hendon & Hendon, 1990). The authors initiated the chapter on "Dealing with other cultures" with certain of the basic stumbling blocks that hinder one's effectiveness in intercultural communication settings, such as one's preconceptions and stereotypes about other cultures, and one's tendencies to ethnocentrism.

The authors further supplement this theoretical introduction with a set of "Exercises," which consist of twenty-one different assimilator-intercultural situations and an appendix with the suggested best answers. At the same time the trainees were invited to draw their personal cultural profile through a specific instrument of cultural self-awareness (p.76-79) and then to utilize the results of this profile in comparison with a "grid of cultural assumptions" about specific countries such as Japan, USA and Canada, Saudi Arabia etc.

Another interesting hybridization of the Didactic and Experiential approach in the business context of intercultural training is presented in the book Cross-cultural business behavior (Gesteland, 1996). The book serves as a practical guide for business people in the global business community. It includes information that is primarily experience-grounded to construct theoretical patterns and rules for the business intercultural communicant. These patterns are organized in a binary way that distinguishes "formal" from "informal, "expressive" from "reserved," or "rigid-time" from "fluid-time" cultures. In the second part of the book, the author reorganized and enriched the information around the construct of "international negotiator profiles," through which he informs on the mentalities and attitudes to be expected in the encounters with business people from specific cultures.

The same binary pattern of culture classification is adopted also by Richard Brett in the book Negotiating globally (Brett, 2001). In chapter 1, "Negotiation and culture: A framework," the author explored the possible ways in which culture can affect the strategies of a business negotiator (pp. 1-23). In this approach, the author used Hofstede's value analysis of cultures (1980) to describe the traits of negotiators from cultures that are antithetical in their value-orientations, such as the individualistic versus the collectivist ones. The author illustrated these classification patterns through examples where the "negotiator from an individualist culture might say" that "I am tall; I am intelligent; I have a sense of humor" as opposed to the negotiator from a collectivist culture who "might say that "I am a wife, mother, and daughter; I am a Kellogg faculty member" (p. 15).

Last but not least, Ayman (1994) offered a pattern for intercultural training in the world of business that evolves in a series of activities backed up by theory. In this pattern, the trainees commence their training with self-assessment exercises that explore their personal assumptions and stereotypes about gender and color, while their training proceeds to a field exercise and concludes with reflective exercises on certain case studies. This specific pattern is compiled along the lines of Brislin and Yoshida's (1994) content model and, therefore, attempts to address all the parameters of awareness, knowledge, emotional challenges and skills that are required for effectiveness in intercultural communication (Ayman, 1994, pp. 74-87).

What is characteristic about all of the above examples is the cohesion of more than one of the four distinct approaches in intercultural training. Indeed, all of them employ a certain theoretical framework to which the specific practical illustrations allude. This equilibrium between theory and practice constitutes, therefore, a main concern and target in the design of intercultural training in the specific field of business intercultural communication.

Concerns and Conclusions about Intercultural Training

Whereas designers of intercultural training are concerned with determining the integration of theory and practice into the models they suggest, scholars are concerned with these models of intercultural training as nests that foster new-Western colonialism. In their article "Toward a new cartography or intercultural communication: mapping bias, business, and diversity," Munshi and McKie (2001) questioned the knowledge-patterns that support programs in intercultural communication and training.

More specifically, Munshi and McKie (2001) argued that the binary cultural divisions that these approaches employ, between individualist and collectivist cultures, for instance, handle cultural issues in an oversimplified manner. This oversimplification, however, contributes to the codification of the non-Western cultures under the broad category of the "Other" and eventually to the construction of an easy to handle cultural database at the disposal of Western business audiences. Hence, this uncritical dichotomization of cultures distorts the purpose of intercultural communication and only intensifies "the gap between us and them," the West and the non-West. It helps disguise the "colonialist desire to master the native" under the mask of intercultural exchange (Munshi & McKie, 2001, pp.9-22).

Nevertheless, this criticism is not sterile. The authors proposed an alternative to the approaches that promote the West's new-colonialism practices. According to this alternative, programs of intercultural communication and training should be enriched with less conventional readings of post-colonialists and critical theorists that will alternate the prism through which intercultural communication is diffused. In combination with the critical analysis of students' personal experiences, Munshi and McKie (2001) advocated a critical pedagogy based on an experiential, self-reflective, "and politically informed framework" to promote intercultural communication without "ignoring historical and contemporary imbalances of power" (Munshi & McKie, 2001, p. 20).

This approach situates intercultural training within the paradigm of business and the concerns of critical theory on the spread of English as a second or foreign language. Along with the analysis of the various models of intercultural training, it becomes evident that despite its merits and its increasing significance, intercultural training does not constitute a panacea in the context of intercultural communication. It is rather the specific conceptualization of broader issues such as culture and communication that underlie the organization and delivery of intercultural training that will eventually decide on the role of this training in ameliorating or aggravating the process of communication in intercultural contexts.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning

There has been a major impetus in educational circles to implement computer-assisted classrooms into the curriculum. Indeed, language instruction has been one of the principal fields for experimentation and the results have been overall encouraging and inspiring. However, the new technological advancements and the hegemony of the Internet put Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) into a totally new perspective. CALL is now more than ever a challenge for ESL/EFL instructors, especially in courses of English for Business Purposes (EBP), for business communication does not occur only in English but also through electronic networks. In consideration of these parameters, this review examines the potential of CALL to language instruction in the broader fields of EFL/ESL, and EBP.

This review examines the use of computers in the language classroom through a historical and functional perspective. The analysis is, therefore, deployed around the phases of CALL development in concomitance with the technological advancements and the shifts in educational theory and pedagogy. Detached from their initial role as a mere tool for grammar drills, computers can now claim the central role in the paradigm of ESL/EFL instruction. Indeed, scholars argue that language instruction is forced to respond to the challenges of the new era of informationalism in which literacy develops new dimensions and is tightly connected to technology (Warschauer, 2000). After examining the demands placed upon ESL/EFL learners by this new era, this review investigates the potential of CALL environments in this era. In the last section, the review is complemented by certain important considerations in the actual implementation of computers in the language classroom to show that it is primarily the mode of implementation that determines the physiognomy of the computer and not its "nature."

Definition and History

The term "Computer-Assisted Language Learning" (CALL) describes the use of computers in the process of teaching and learning a second or a foreign language (Dunkel, 1991, p.15). At the same time, CALL constitutes a subcategory of the broader field of Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), which investigates the role and potential contribution of computers in the attaining of educational goals. The specific acronym "CALL" was selected at the 1983 TESOL

(Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) convention in Toronto, Canada, but the first seeds of CALL and CAI can be traced back to the 1950s and 1960s (Chapelle, 2001, p. 3).

During those years, technology captured the interest of educators who tried to adjust it to improve pedagogy. This effort was initiated in the fifties, but the increased cost of computers at that time made them accessible only to major educational institutions, such as universities (Higgins & Johns, 1984, p. 17). Ever since, the possibilities of CALL have fascinated educators, both at an individual and institutional level, and many of these educators became invested in optimizing the role of the computer in language teaching. This investment resulted not only in a proliferation of pioneering CALL projects, but also in the first official commitment of the United States Government to support computer-assisted instruction across the curriculum in the early 1970s (Chapelle, 2001, p. 5).

Inevitably, this commitment triggered further research for the advancement of CALL, which kept evolving through different stages, paralleling not only the innovations in the field of technology, but also the theoretical shifts in the field of second language acquisition. In this evolutionary process, Warschauer (1996) distinguished three phases that coincided with the major shifts of the technological and pedagogical pendulums: the behavioristic, the communicative, and the integrative.

The Behavioristic Phase. During this phase, the computer was used simply as a tool within the paradigm of the "theory of transfer" and the "law of effect," which constituted the fundamentals of the behaviorist approach to learning (Skinner, 1957). According to this approach, language learning is a cumulative process toward the formulation of good language habits; in this process, actions followed by an immediate positive effect tend to be repeated, while actions followed by an immediate negative effect tend to be avoided.

From the translation of these theories in the field of CALL emerged both the drill and practice model, as well as the programmed instruction one (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985, p. 35-39). The drill and practice model idealized repetition as the key to the formulation of good language habits, while programmed instruction segmented the learning process into small and sequential increments to be followed with precision. Because computers could sustain an indefinite number of repetitions in a strictly compartmentalized process and also provide immediate and non-judgmental feedback to learners, their integration in the behaviorist language-teaching paradigm was more than welcome.

The Communicative Phase. In the 1970s and 1980s educators started debating that computers should constitute not only a more expensive resource compared to traditional language books. Computers should rather be employed to advance and not just substitute grammar books with kill and drill exercises (Underwood, 1984, p.52). This argument was further reinforced by the reactions to behaviorism through the theory of communicative competence paradigm, which placed language learning and pedagogy in the service of communication (Hymes, 1972; Canale, 1983). It was within this paradigm that computers became detached from their merely mechanistic role to serve communication in a more creative way. Therefore, the behaviorist models of drill and practice or programmed instruction gradually gave their place to activities that were more flexible, creative and interactive (Warschauer, 1996).

The Integrative Phase. CALL is constantly evolving, but it has been the two major technological innovations of multimedia and the Internet that sparked off the integrative approach. In the language classroom, multimedia offered students access to enriched and advanced forms of text, graphics, sound, animation and video primarily through the technology of CD-ROMs. The integration of these elements created more complete learning environments that enhanced the development of learners'reading, writing and speaking skills in a holistic rather than fragmented way (Warshauer, 1996). Indeed, most of the CDROM simulations aimed at offering a learning experience in which neither technology nor language skills would be used or practiced "for their own sake," but as part of a "communicative goal" (Healey, 1999, p.116). Students become involved in creative tasks, such as simulations, in which language is the medium toward the completion of these tasks and not the goal itself. In the simulation of SimCity, for instance, learners embark on an effort to "create a city that survives and prospers," and it is through this effort that they can develop reading, scanning, and information processing skills (p.117).

Besides the invention of multimedia, it was the Internet that revealed a whole new perspective for CALL, especially through the possibilities and patterns of computer-mediated communication (CMC). Although this term initially referred only to computer-conferencing, it gradually evolved to include any "communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers" (Herring, 1996, p.1). This indefinite description of CMC is compatible with the equally indefinite ways in which computers can serve communication.

Nevertheless, there is a consensus in that CMC includes communication via email, email discussion lists, bulletin boards, Internet Relay Chat (IRC), chat rooms and the World Wide Web (Murray, 2000, p. 398). These various forms of CMC can be further categorized into "synchronous" and "asynchronous" based on the criterion of "real-time" occurrence. More explicitly, synchronous CMC includes those modes that allow for simultaneous communication, while the asynchronous modes of CMC, such as email, do not require communicants to be on-line at the same time (Murray, 2000, p. 399).

Computer-Assisted Language Learning in the Era of "Informationalism"

CMC can offer CALL totally new dimensions. However, the implementation of computers in the language classroom relies on the individual instructor because a medium does not constitute an approach or a method. Hence, the fact that the behavioristic approach to CALL flourished during the 1960s and the 70s does not necessarily imply that it has ceased being a choice for language educators. Despite advances in CMC and other technologies that open up a vast array of resources for instructors, many computers in the classroom are still used for drill and kill.

Warschauer (2000) debated that English Language Teaching (ELT) will sooner or later have to respond to the emerging era of global capitalism called "informationalism," which is hallmarked by the dominance of international networks that function via the Internet. In these networks and particularly the more popular ones of business, tourism, science and media, English is undoubtedly the lingua franca that serves communication. Hence, if English Language Teaching aspires to be current, it has to change its focus to English as the communication medium within international networks, rather than keep chasing the ghost of "native-like perfection" of standardized English (Warschauer, 2000, p. 12).

The Skills Required in the Era of Informationalism

Since informationalism is grounded in the progress of information and communications technology (ICT), one of the major ways in which it challenges the ELT professional is exactly through technology. And what this technology promises English learners is a ticket for competent participation in global communication networks. However, this membership requires the attainment of new language and literacy skills that are integrally connected to technology. ELT has entered a new era in which the use of computers for language teaching is not just an option, but an imperative for the acquisition of these new skills. CALL should, therefore, dominate the field of ELT, and computers should not be viewed simply as a tool but as a factor to this current major revolution in human communication (Warschauer, 2000, p. 520).

<u>Text Processing/Producing and Research Skills.</u> Warschauer (2000) examined the impact of information technology on the skills required from learners of English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL). Through the description of these new skills, the author advocated the potential of CALL through CMC in altering the traditional classroom methodology, which is no longer adequate or effective.

In the present era of informationalism, text is transferred from the page to the screen. Therefore, reading and research acquire new psycholinguistic dimensions. They now involve the: 1) ability to search, discover, and evaluate the innumerous Internet sources for credibility and updateness, 2) critical skills to rapidly decide to retrieve or reject the information discovered, and 3) capability to effectively store and organize this information. Of course, the skills of accurate, critical reading are also significant in print literacy; however, Warshcauer debated that the new language learners are expected to sharpen and use these skills as a compass to navigate through the bulk of information on the Internet (Warschauer, 2000, pp. 521-522).

Linguistic Skills. Competent membership in networked communication requires writing skills that are not limited to the accumulation of correct sentences into a text addressed to the instructor only. Moreover, the new English learners need to know how to incorporate available elements of text, graphics, and sound into effective presentation materials, while at the same time they are required to write effectively and for the particular World Wide Web audiences and various computer-mediated communication modes (Warschauer, 2000, pp. 523-524).

Indeed, this compatibility with specific CMC modes requires that communicants be familiar with the linguistic conventions and norms of CMC speech communities (Murray, 2000, p. 399). One basic characteristic of these communities is the users' intention to save time and space in typing through the adoption of specific strategies.

Hence, they employ abbreviations and simplified syntax, while they are also willing to overlook typographical and spelling errors for the sake of rapidity (Murray, 2000, p.402). The linguistic idiosyncrasies of CMC communities affect the structure of conversations in which other strategies are employed. In bulletin board discussions or email exchanges, for instance, communicants append all previously exchanged messages in every new entry in the discussion or new email to overcome the deficit of asynchrony in their communication (Murray, 2000, p. 404).

Murray (2000) also indicated that the specificity of linguistic norms and conventions derives not only from the mode of CMC selected, but also from the particular status of the communicants, as in the case of business communication. By situating the discourse patterns within specific social contexts, therefore, that author hypothesized a model of CMC for business email interlocutions. In this model, the email exchanges between business people were limited to initial requests or "bid actions" immediately followed by a responding action, while the overall importance of greetings, openings and closings was diminished.

Complementing Murray's hypothesis, Mulholland (1999) also investigated the genre of email in business communication to conclude that both the particular CMC mode of email and the social context of business are responsible for the lack of interpersonal elements in the texts, such as elaborate closings or openings of communications. Some of these elements are retained as indicators of politeness, but they usually do not disrupt the text (as in the case of letters or other printed documents); they are instead a placement at the end of the email that indicates their lesser importance in this specific context (Mulholland, 1999, p. 57-83). Hence, through the example of business email, both Murray and Mulholland illustrated how proficiency in the sociolinguistic parameters of the CMC modes can distinguish savvy from amateur participants in this communication.

The Potential of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

If, however, CALL aspires to respond to the global changes and challenges of "informationalism," instructors need to combine technology with a pedagogical approach that will enhance required skills. To accomplish this goal, CALL should strive "toward multiliteracies," meaning that English language instruction should not occur in a vacuum. On the contrary, it should start accounting for the nature of communication in today's networks through "not only a variety of media, but also a variety of forms, dialects, genres, and, in some case, languages" (Warschauer, 1999, p.157). The question that still remains unanswered is whether CALL has the potential to respond to these challenges.

Authenticity of Audience and Task. One of the major contributions of CALL environments is the creation of alternative paths toward authentic interaction, a fundamental factor in the process of language learning. If language is a means for communication, then interaction and negotiation between humans is the vehicle for the mutual construction of meaning (Vygotsky, 1978). An important variable for both the quality and quantity of this interaction is its authenticity, which is the focus on the meaning and not the form of the interlocutors' messages (Widdowson, 1990).

It is this valuable characteristic that is often absent in the traditional classroom paradigm, where language learners compose writing assignments haunted by the vague idea of an audience that is most of the time embodied by the instructor alone; learners create and accommodate the meaning of their products to conform to the wishes of a one-person audience. However, computers have the capability to grant interaction with authenticity, which otherwise shrinks in the traditional classroom.

This gratification is feasible mainly through the World Wide Web in many ways that are more or less student-centered, depending on specific teaching and learning objectives. One of the most common ways is "key palling" or in other words, making friends through the keyboard, where students from different classrooms of the same or different schools engage in a common project for the completion of which they communicate electronically. Especially if the interlocutor school is in a different country, then the project can enhance intercultural communication between native and nonnative speakers and promote the latter's communicative competence (Gaer, 1999, pp.65-78).

Furthermore, electronic discussion lists provide learners with the opportunity to participate in discourse communities of their own interest and retrieve or share information with people of various backgrounds to complete and authenticate their assignments. In addition, instructors can use on-line projects, where students produce their own web page and gain an utterly personal passport to this worldwide community, an activity that often piques genuine interest and investment on behalf of the students (Gaer, 1999, pp. 65-78).

Assessment of Students' Learning Styles. CALL can also provide an environment for the effective assessment and promotion of students' learning styles. Indeed, an imperative of modern pedagogy is the evaluation of students' learning preferences and the modification of instructional delivery in accordance with these preferences. Enhancing students' metacognition of their learning styles and preferences, as well as their experimentation with different ones, can be fundamental for their overall performance in language learning (Yeok-Hwa Ngeow, 1999, pp. 302-325).

Hence, this assessment should be a precondition of instruction, while the learning profiling of the students can be facilitated through the use of specific software or the Internet. In this venue, instructors can utilize theme-based projects in which groups of students participate in multi-mode activities, or they can implement software that is appropriate for data organization. Both of these approaches can provide instructors with a diagnostic tool for the students' learning styles, but they can also guide students toward alternative and more effective learning strategies (Yeok-Hwa Ngeow, 1999, pp. 302-325).

Student Collaboration. CALL can also obviate the learning environment from the traditional teacher-centeredness by integrating CMC to assist learners in distancing themselves from teacher dominance. Seeking evidence for this potential, Kahmi-Stein (2000) conducted a comparative study of the participation of a mixed class of native and nonnative students in "whole-class," "face-to-face," and World Wide Web-based bulletin board (WWW BB) interactions. The results indicated that in comparison to the in-class discussions, the WWW BB ones were not woven around the instructor's initiations, rather they revealed learners' needs and interests far more. Thus, the instructor's participation was limited, while the students had the primary role in determining the focus and in molding the content of the discussions (Kahmi-Stein, 2000).

Learner Self-Investment. Along the same lines of transferring the center of gravity from the instructor to the learner, CALL environments can also allow learners to participate in discourse communities of their individual preferences. This liberty to determine not only the pace of learning, but also the learning environment can optimize learning through self-expression.

Through the case study of the correspondence of a Chinese adolescent immigrant with a transnational group of peers on the Internet, Lam (2000) advocated that the Internet constitutes a "vehicle" by which language learners break through the conformities and the limitations of the traditional classroom; while in the classroom, their identities and roles are pre- and extra-determined, but in the WWW communities they can assume responsibility for their personal choices and self-definition. Although the participation in these communities also requires the use of English, this global English serves as a facilitator of their self-expression in contrast to the classroom English that often promotes their marginalization.

The Traditional Advantages. In the evaluation of CALL one should not underestimate the qualities that have been attributed to the use of computers through the more traditional venues of CALL. In the majority of CALL evaluations, scholars agree on the potential of the individualization of the learning process; the learner has the full attention of the computer as well as the liberty to determine the pace, quantity and quality of activities toward the achievement of specific learning goals. Furthermore, this individualization expands to the computer's provision of immediate feedback to the learner, economizing the time for the instructor, and assisting the learner in making instant cause and effect connections in the language activities (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985; Hertz, 1987; Hall, 1998).

Concerns and Conclusions about Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Implementing computers into the language classroom cannot be undertaken according to a recipe; every school or program has its own idiosyncrasies. However, there are certain steps that need to be taken for the establishment of a CALL course in any case.

The Lab or the Classroom. Integration of computers in schools can occur under the form of either computer labs or computer-assisted classrooms. While the lab is more traditional and limited in its purposes, the classroom can be part of a student-centered, multi-purpose teaching approach. Either way, "there is no such thing as a perfect" lab or a "shopping list" for such a lab (Hertz, 1987, p.147). However, the specification of CALL objectives, as well as its flexibility for further expansion, should precede any other decision or actual purchase (Hertz, 1987). If computers are to be used mainly as a tool for grammar exercises, then perhaps an Internet connection would be redundant.

Further planning and implementation should involve both faculty and administration in decisions regarding the major parameters of space arrangement and furniture, hardware and software. It is recommended that especially in consideration of the needs of ESL instruction and the rapid development of technology, authorable and content-free software would be preferably previewed and tested, an ability that is usually provided by the software providers (Sivert & Egbert, 1999, pp.41-64).

Student-Variables. Before adopting CALL activities, language instructors should assess specific variables such as age, gender, familiarity with technology, and socioeconomic status of the student population. Beller-Kenner (1999) indicated that in classes with age diversity, it is probable that computer non-literate adults do not feel comfortable being amateurs. Therefore, she suggested that instructors should begin with simple tasks that enhance their self-esteem. CALL instructors should aim at diminishing any discrepancies in the students' performance that derives from an unequal distribution of in-class roles between genders, or the possible increased technology-familiarity on behalf of the wealthier students. Last but not least, CALL instructors should provide students with the opportunity to express their personal feelings and dispositions toward the use of computers in class through methods that secure anonymity such as questionnaires, email, journals, and evaluation sheets (Beller-Kenner, 1999, pp. 362-385).

The consideration of these parameters in the microcosm of an ESL/EFL classroom can enhance learners' competent participation in the worldliness of the Internet and the networked discourse communities. The pragmatics and the idiosyncrasies of each educational community should not be ignored in the creation of CALL environments.

Overall, one could hypothesize that CALL has superceded the phase of computer-instrumentalization in the educational paradigm of behaviorism. However, there is no inherent guarantee for computers to serve the increased and altered needs of English learners. The requirements of English proficiency have changed vastly and the dominance of networked communities on the Internet dictates new orientations for ESL/EFL instruction. In this paradigm, it appears that computers in the classroom should not be an option but a mandate.

Nevertheless, the various possibilities of technology will always be subservient to the educational philosophy adopted at the institutional or individual level. The adaptation of this philosophy to the augmented needs of learners emerges as more important than the actual computerization of the language classroom. CALL relies entirely on the mentality of course-designers, instructors and administrators who decide and designate the role of computers in the classroom.

Writing Centers in English for Business Purposes

Writing centers have been at the forefront of many innovations in writing pedagogy since the 1960s, especially the implementation of a process-centered approach (Carino, 1995). This review examines the theory behind writing centers with a principal focus on the administrative issues within school organizations. Because of the sometimes problematic positioning of writing centers within academia, the real benefits that they offer—collaborative learning and Writing Across the Curriculum programs (WAC)—may be lost. The review concludes with a discussion of WAC programs as a possible model for EBP that will allow for increased discourse and genre analysis at the student level.

Fundamental Components of Writing Centers

Writing center pedagogy has numerous theoretical formulations that address the "place" of the writing center in academia, the role tutors should play, and the techniques tutors ought to use, but most critics agree on a few fundamental principles. First, writing centers should promote general writing competence. This means these centers produce better writers, not simply better papers following North's formulation (North, 1995). Tutors, North suggested, should provide general writing advice that will assist students in becoming better writers. Along the way, the specific paper may become better as well. This notion represents a dramatic shift from product-centered work to process-centered writing.

Second, tutoring should be offered by peers who may, themselves, not be experts on writing. This peer-to-peer relationship allows the writer to experience and explore another viewpoint that is not directly connected to the power structure of the class. Third, tutorials become collaborative work times in which peer tutors assist students in "discovering" knowledge through discussion and writing. This collaboration, according to Bruffee, "makes students—both tutors and tutees—aware that writing is a social artifact, like the thought that produces it"

(Bruffee, 1995, p. 91). Fourth, writing centers should offer both ideological and physical spaces that are different from classrooms. Writing centers should be comfortable areas where students meet in a non-competitive or threatening environment.

Writing "Center" History

Writing centers developed in the American educational system as a result of a massive influx of students following World War II. The presence of so many thousands of returning soldiers who had money for college on account of the G. I. Bill significantly bolstered the ranks of college freshmen. Teaching strategies necessarily had to change because instructors and universities could not handle the influx of students by using traditional approaches (Murphy, 1995).

Writing pedagogy had to respond to a shift in "pedagogical emphasis in writing instruction from product to process; increased enrollments in writing classes and the emergence of radical challenges to the value of the educational process as traditionally structured" (Murphy, 1995, p. 119). Writing centers and writing center theory have been on the forefront of composition discourse and have informed composition programs across the country. Indeed, one scholar estimates that 90% of the "institutions of higher education in the United States have developed writing centers or learning centers where writing is taught" (Wallace & Simpson, 1991, p. ix).

Three Writing Center Metaphors: Clinic, Lab, and Center

Given the number of writing centers that have sprung up, it is logical that there should be different viewpoints about the purpose and theoretical underpinnings of such centers. Carino (1995) convincingly argued that there have been three primary metaphors used to describe the role writing centers have played on university campuses over the last fifty years: clinic, lab, and center. These three metaphors correspond to the evolution of writing centers from the 1950s to the present and indicate their theoretical underpinnings.

The Writing Clinic. The clinic metaphor aptly summarizes what occurs when students ask for help on writing issues. Moore (2001) was one of the first scholars back in 1950 to praise this new pedagogy: "The clinic is primarily concerned with the diagnosis of the individual student's writing difficulties and the suggestion of remedial measures that might profitably be pursued" (Moore, 2001, p. 4). For Moore and others, the clinic was designed to aid students in diagnosing their weaknesses, provide helpful suggestions, and facilitate them in finding the proper resources in order to follow those suggestions. The clinic was not a place where mature writers would be sent; it was, above all else, a place students went to as "a result of failure in proficiency examinations or of faculty referral, the latter being frequently accompanied by the withholding of course credit pending the removal of deficiencies" (Moore, 2001, p. 7).

The Writing Lab. The metaphor of the writing lab replaced that of the clinic just as product centered writing gave way to process centered pedagogy. As ideas about writing changed, the metaphor of the clinic as a repository of skilled students teaching remedial writing techniques to those in need of remediation changed as well. The clinic turned into the lab by the 1970s because those working and constructing writing labs "perceived their efforts in the connotation of lab as a place to experiment, to pose questions, and seek solutions to problems" (Carino, 1995, p. 41).

The metaphor of lab as an experimental zone where questions about writing process could be asked allowed for a paradigm shift "by coordinating lab and classroom instruction and by using the lab for research" (Carino, 1995, p. 41). This research still revolved around fixing mechanical problems (i.e. remediation), but it also allowed space for exploring theoretical models of writing.

The Writing Center. The change in terminology from writing lab to writing center that occurred in the late 1980s and early 1990s is "more than a change in nomenclature" (Addison & Wilson, 1991, p. 56). The idea of the lab as experimental zone and place for "sick" writing to be fixed also changed as the writing center began functioning as "a lighting rod into which the various scattered writing tasks and activities from all across campus can radiate inward" (Addison & Wilson, 1991, p. 56). The writing center became not just a clinic and not just a lab, but a center where tutoring efforts "can in effect transcend the limits imposed by a single text" (56). The writing center was no longer only a place for remediation for a particular assignment. It became a center to improve writing in general.

Perhaps no one has been more influential in formulating a theoretical basis for how writing centers should function within the academic community than North (1995). In a landmark essay North argued that writing centers are not editing services, grammar workshops, or places to send "problem" students. Instead, writing centers work with students at every stage of writing, from preplanning to drafting to revising "to make better writers, not necessarily—or immediately—better texts" (North, 1995, p. 80). This vast departure from earlier views of writing relied extensively on the suppositions that writing should be process centered, not ends oriented, and on a curricula that was student centered.

Writing Center and Writing Process: A Cultural Critique

The myth of the writer as a lone genius--who produces finished, polished work in a darkened cave through sheer exercise of genius--dies hard, yet this is exactly the myth that critics like North who were interested in process centered writing were fighting against. Indeed, Lunsford (1995) briefly contextualized how writing centers directly contradict much of what we find in American culture today, especially in terms of the fierce individualism the culture fosters.

This individualism can be traced back to the Romantic period when the individual artist's genius was celebrated. Yet because of critics like North and Lunsford, writing centers have been undergoing a "broad-based epistemological shift," from product or individual-centered to process and collaborative-centered. For Lunsford, knowledge is made in the social context; it is continuously constructed and reconstructed through collaboration and "speaks directly to these needs, for its theory of knowledge is based not on positivistic principles...not on Platonic or absolutist ideas, but on the notion of knowledge as always contextually bound, as always socially constructed" (Lunsford, 1995, p. 113). Lunsford is the first to caution that this collaboration must be controlled in the proper way, otherwise it degenerates into simple help sessions whereby one group member performs far more of the work and knowledge is not produced, but simply reproduced.

Writing Center Administration

But in some ways the idea of the writing center proposed by Lunsford as a place where informal relationships can aid in the process of true collaboration through knowledge generation is one that is not shared by many composition programs. Writing centers and their personnel ought to have the same mission as the writing program with which they must work: to improve student writing. Most writing center advocates argue that the composition program and writing center should enjoy a complementary relationship that is linked "philosophically, grounded in a similar theoretical perspective from which their pedagogy stems" (Waldo, 2001,

p. 168). Yet this idealized version of a symbiotic relationship rarely sees the light of day, for the in the "real" world writing centers become "subsets of the writing program, a clinic to which freshmen English instructors can send their least able writers; or more particularly, the center serves the basic writing component of the writing program" (Waldo, 2001, p. 170).

In the role of basic writing program, writing centers do not offer the kind of environment where students and faculty can improve their writing through collaborative activity. As a "service appendage of the writing program" (Waldo, 2001, p. 171), the writing center becomes nothing more than a place to send poor writers for editing work, defeating the very notion of the writing center and thrusting writing pedagogy back into the era of the clinics in the 1950s.

Writing Centers on the Fringe. Not everyone believes in the idealized version of the symbiotic relationship between English department and writing center. One critic has even argued that collaboration in writing should exist outside the discourse of academia and the classroom, outside the process of authority characterized by the paternal and parental relationship most teachers and students seem to share. According to Healy (1995), the writing center "affords students the vantage point to stand apart from the arena, to get out of the game for a time, to develop the necessary critical distance before re-entering as active, intentional participants" (Healy, 1995, p. 181). Writing centers, according to Healy, offer brief moments in sanctuaries where students can learn the necessary discourse patterns of academia before they reenter the fast flow of class work, albeit with greater knowledge and ability to survive.

Communication between Writing Center and English Department. On the other hand, Rodis (2001) argued that one way to mend the faulty relationship between writing center administration and composition program administration is by "talking with the boss." This entails that

> the philosophies of teaching writing held by the department should mirror or equal those of the writing center; second, it is essential that the staff of the writing center be perceived by the department and by the college or university at large as equal partners in the teaching of composition. (Rodis, 2001, p. 176)

By talking with the bosses of both the center and the English department, expectations can be made clear as to the function of the writing center and its relationship to the department. Writing center perceptions might also be altered through the formulation of a statement on short term and long-term goals and objectives that will legitimize "curricular positioning in the academy" (Barnett & Rosen, 2001, p. 195). Writing centers can improve their position within the university through retaining students, collaborating with faculty, and clearly defining writing objectives (Barnett & Rosen, 2001).

Writing Centers and Writing Across The Curriculum. Writing Across the Curriculum programs (WAC), however, offer a solution to the raging turf wars between English departments and writing centers as well as a method to integrate diverse discourse communities within one program. While the initial establishment of such programs may be difficult because it requires that writing center directors relinquish some of their hard fought power, they ultimately foster "a different mode of investigating content and forming concepts in many disciplines" (Smith, 2001, p. 409).

In this view, the responsibility and authority for WAC programs do not reside with one department, but are shared among many departments with the writing center operating as a facilitator that provides the physical space along with other resources. This mode of organization allows for a multi-centered structure that "preserves the independence of each of its components—the Office of Academic Support and Advising, the English Department faculty, the ESL Program, the Core Curriculum" (Smith, 2001, p. 411).

Writing centers are the best place for WAC programs, argued Waldo (2001), because

> centers provide a definable space for expertise, with identifiable goals and services, which the campus will need to initiate and sustain WAC. Second, through their varying services for faculty, they encourage the dialogue between diverse rhetorical communities. Finally, they offer a rhetorically neutral ground on which to carry out the program. (Waldo, 2001, p. 416)

This neutral ground can offer a refuge from the ideological wars that sometimes rage within departments.

Writing centers have a broad enough theoretical framework to facilitate the divergent discourses that a WAC program would have, allowing for a theoretical frame independent of discipline for its practice, "a frame that gives tutoring, workshop, and consulting activities research legitimacy" (Waldo, 2001, p. 424).

Waldo (2001) was not alone when he proposed that writing centers are the ideal locations both physically and theoretically to handle WAC programs because they exist outside of traditional disciplines. Indeed, writing centers should work *in tandem* (Barnett & Rosen, 1999, p. 11) or as ambassadors (Johnson & Speck, 1999, p. 16) with other departments to combat neurotic pride (Waldo & Madruga, 1999).

Not all WAC programs are met with significant resistance. Kuriloff (1999) showed how converting a traditional writing center into a WAC oriented center opened up new discourses for tutors, and it now operates as a resource center, an outreach center, and a model for teaching and learning for her entire university. Far from further marginalizing the writing center, the WAC writing center pushed it to the center of writing at her campus (Kuriloff, 1999).

Wallace (1995) had a similar positive experience with the implementation of a WAC program at his campus. Wallace claimed that the program was deemed effective by all parties because of proper communication between all disciplines involved. The administration supported the implementation of the program, faculty participated in gathering good writing samples for a campus wide writing rubric which could be applied to each department, and tutors were trained in an eleven week program to respond to specific student questions and to work within the guidelines prescribed by faculty members (Wallace, 1995).

Writing Across the Curriculum Programs and Development. WAC programs should have a place in any language or composition program because "learning is an action concept" (Murphy & Law, 2001, p. 468). The traditional teaching techniques, like the traditional organizational patterns that were seen in program administration, are no longer the most productive paradigm to follow. Writing centers should not be editing shops that participate in the "standardized mass instruction created by traditional corporate structures" (Murphy & Law, 2001, p. 469). Instead, WAC programs allow writing centers to pool expertise and combine disparate skills in new and innovate ways while still working on writing issues.

Concerns and Conclusions about the Writing Center

Integrating a writing center into a private language school curriculum requires that the organization be invested in a process-centered writing approach. A school whose curriculum focuses on grammar or drill and kill exercises will not fully utilize a writing center as a location where collaboration fabricates knowledge. Indeed, as an extension of a curriculum for an English for Business Purposes (EBP) program, the writing center can further train students in discourse and genre analysis through the process of collaboration.

Conclusion for the Review of the Literature

The review of the literature encapsulated major concerns for founding of an English language school in a foreign country. It began with a discussion of the critical reception of English in foreign countries as a form of "Trojan Horse" that might subjugate the host culture and language. Many critics have warned that English operates as an extension of the colonialist enterprises of earlier generations. A second issue was the proposed organizational model for the school. This section of the review investigated the different theories of organizations that have been employed and discussed updated forms of strategic organizational planning proposed for schools today. One of the main issues here is the question of centralized or decentralized authority, which informs all aspects of the organizational model.

The third key term, English for Business Purposes, represents the focal curriculum that will unify the school's content and theoretical background. The last three terms of "Intercultural Training in EBP," "Writing Centers," and "Computer-Assisted Language Learning" represent plausible ways to develop this specific EBP program.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Formulating a cohesive theoretical framework is particularly difficult with this project because of the mixture of theoretical and practical concerns. Indeed, the review of the literature encapsulated major issues in the foundation of a language school and would challenge nearly every theoretical framework to integrate all of these disparate elements. A model that successfully incorporates these elements under a coherent and functional schema is Wilber's "Full Spectrum Approach" (2000). The analysis of this approach constitutes the first part of this chapter and the cornerstone of this project's theoretical framework that follows. Wilber's quadrant schema proves compatible with the multi-level issues concerning coordinators, instructors, and students in a private English language school.

Wilber's Theoretical Framework

Wilber's "Full Spectrum Approach" (2000) provides a theoretical backbone that allows for a full integration of all of these elements into one framework. Wilber's approach hinges on two main points that he analyzes in depth in his book The Theory of Everything: holons and quadrants (Wilber, 2000).

Holons and Worldviews. Wilber began his discussion of holons in terms of a "Holistic Indexing System," which is a way to "account for all quadrants, waves, streams, states, and realms" that can be "seamlessly included in a larger vision" (Wilber, 2000, p. 108). This larger vision is a key to understanding because it does not sacrifice the importance of individual ideas in favor of major concepts, but reveals "their relation to each other and the irreplaceable importance of each" (Wilber, 2000, p. 108). A holon, then, is "a whole that is a part of other wholes" (Wilber, 2000, p. 40). This entails that ideas can exist independently of other ideas, but they are also part of other movements or theories.

By using the metaphor of the Kosmos, Wilber showed how the Kosmos "is a series of nests within nests within nests indefinitely, expressing greater and greater holistic embrace--holarchies of holons everywhere" (Wilber, 2000, p. 40). For example, individuals exist as whole beings, but they also participate in families and groups at the same time. Indeed, this nested system can lead to confusion because of the interrelatedness of everything within the system, but it also provides an operational framework to discuss disparate elements from multiple perspectives.

Quadrants. Wilber displayed these holons/parts in the form of graphic quadrants whereby each section of the quadrant can operate holistically on its own as well as part of a larger concept or thing. The quadrants are broken down into four main sections.

Upper Left Interior-Individual Subjective I (Intentional) Ex: Piaget	Upper Right Exterior-Individual Objective It (Behavioral) Ex: John Locke
Lower Left Interior-Collective Intersubjective We (Cultural) Ex: Robert Bellah	Lower Right Exterior-Collective Interobjective Its (Social) Ex: Karl Marx

Source: Adapted from Wilber (2000)

Figure 1. Wilber's Quadrants

Upper Left Quadrant

The upper left subjective section reflects individual concerns. It is in this part that Wilber placed a person's individual development in terms of issues of faith, doubt, or enlightenment; Wilber argued that every person's spiritual development can be charted on a spectrum within this quadrant (Wilber, 2000, p. 43). Evidently, Wilber did not attempt to solve complex issues such as individual development in a simplistic way, for even within this seemingly monodimensional section of the quadrant, there are different (hierarchical) degrees of spirituality and enlightenment (i.e. holons within holons). Thus, according to this differentiation of degrees (hierarchy or holarchy), Buddha and the newborn child across the street would be placed in the upper left quadrant, but at different stages of development. Wilber considered Piaget to be one principle representative of this theory of individual developmental, for his work indicated that children develop in stages.

Lower Left Quadrant

The interior-collective, lower left, section is aptly named because it is both interior as well as collective. People develop on their individual paths (upper left), but their development is informed by the specific culture in which they grow up. Their acculturation, thus, affects all aspects of their existence: what they eat, when they sleep, how they work, how they talk, how they think, and eventually how they live. Wilber defined "these shared values, perceptions, meanings, semantic habitats, cultural practices, ethics, and so on" (Wilber, 2000, p. 50) as intersubjective because they require a common frame of reference that is simultaneously interior and collective, but expressed within the individual. Firmly rooted in this cultural section of the quadrant is Bellah's work on culture and the human condition which represents a primary example of this mode of inquiry.

Upper Right Quadrant

The empirical or behavioral, upper right section displays what can be objectively and empirically detected as "physical structures and institutions...architectural styles, geopolitical structures, modes of information transfer [vocal signs, ideograms, movable type printing, telecommunications, microchip] (Wilber, 2000, p. 50). This is the quadrant of Aristotle, Sir Francis Bacon or John Locke, all of whom relied extensively on the empirical method. Their primary interest did not so much account for feelings of the individual on a specific subject; rather, they sought knowledge of this subject through empirical and scientific observations.

Lower Right Quadrant

The lower right section is also empirical and behavioral; instead of observing individual cases, this section focuses on objective-collective issues. Theorists like Karl Marx are placed in the lower right because their theories discuss collective groups in an "objective" manner. While objectivity may be debated, these theorists did not respond from personal opinion, collective (cultural) opinion, nor did they address individual objective cases. Instead, they attempted to formulate objective theories of objective systems that function for groups of people.

The Full Spectrum Approach

Using quadrants to understand the general relationships between ideas greatly increases one's ability to analyze these ideas using a "cross level analysis" (Wilber, 2000, p. 132). One of the inherent problems most critics have is that they employ a traditional and rather monodimensional approach to analysis where they "focus on one section of the quadrant and its major stages and/or types" (Wilber, 2000, p. 113).

This means that even most important world theories such as Capitalism or Communism really partake of only one section of the quadrant. However, the full spectrum approach allows critics to

> distinguish the level from which a worldview originates, and the level to which it is aimed...In other words, this allows us to trace both the level of consciousness that the subject is coming from, and the level of reality (or objects) that the subject believes to be most real. (Wilber, 2000, p. 180)

Thus, Wilber's cross level framework offers a deeper as well as more complete method toward the evaluation of different approaches to problems. This is achieved by strategically placing these approaches in the quadrants while also providing a methodology to discuss "an integral overview of available worldviews" (Wilber, 200, p. 181). In that respect, therefore, one could imply that while most theories provide only a lens for analysis, Wilber's theory constitutes a prism that diffuses the whole into its discrete components without, however, injuring its integrity.

Theoretical Framework of the Project

This project uses Wilber's concept of quadrants as the primary theoretical framework to organize disparate issues represented in the review of literature. Additionally, using three separate quadrants focused on the coordinator, teacher, and student allows for a full discussion of the concerns brought up in the review of literature from all three perspectives. Coordinators, teachers, and students will all have different points of view on the role of English as a second/foreign language, program administration, EBP, intercultural training, writing centers, or CALL. By placing these issues in their respective quadrants using three different views, this project employs a bi-directional, cross-level analysis. Moreover, each perspective has a different center of gravity in which its major concerns concentrate. Lastly, following Wilber's explanation of holons, each section of the quadrant exists independently as well as being part of the whole. This allows for an analysis of every idea at both an individual as well as a cross level in conjunction with other sections of the quadrant.

The Coordinator Quadrant

Coordinators' concerns are primarily located in the lower right quadrant section, the exterior collective.

Their main role is to facilitate and promote education through a functional school organization and adequate resources at the disposal of teachers and students alike. However, focus on only this section would limit the development of the coordinators since their concerns expand to other levels as well. The following figure will help explain:

Coordinator Quadrant (Focus Lower Right)	
Upper Left Interior-Individual Subjective EBP through Needs Analysis	Upper Right Exterior-Individual Objective Teacher Support
Lower Left Interior-Collective Intersubjective Critical theory of EFL/ESL EBP through Intercultural Training	Lower Right Exterior-Collective Interobjective Program Administration Resources for EBP: CALL/Writing Center

Figure 2. The Coordinator Quadrant

Coordinators naturally assume many fundamental responsibilities in an emergent school, seeking to balance the needs of the students with the needs of teachers, and ultimately align them with the need of the administration to turn a profit. This complex task requires numerous skills to be invested primarily in the organization and administration of the program and in faculty support. Although coordinators have a vast array of organizational frameworks to choose from, they are required to make strategic choices that will first and foremost contribute to student learning (Dalin, 1998; Dimmock, 2000; Morgan, 1986).

Using this goal as an organizational principle is key to developing an effective school administration that will not be bogged down in red tape. Recent management theory opts for a fluid vision of organizational frameworks that opens a space for "operational" leadership that can quickly respond to any changes in the social environment (Vilsteren, 1999). While many texts offer an array of skills that program administrators ought to master before entering the business world to manage human resources, it becomes important that administrators today facilitate programs instead of managing them. This is a marked philosophical difference from the past.

This new philosophy can be clearly expressed through an emphasis on addressing faculty needs. Following

Dimmock's backward planning method in which all parts of the organization are subjugated to the primary goal of educating students in the best possible way, coordinators can adjust their decisions based on staff recommendations (Dimmock, 2000). This allows further involvement and collaboration at all levels of the organization, whereby instructors make decisions about what is necessary for the curriculum and coordinators find ways of implementing it in a cost effective way.

Satiating teachers' needs in a private language school requires provisions at the level of resources. Specifically in the context of an EBP course, instructors should have access to the resources of Computer-Assisted Language Learning environments and writing centers, for the availability of these resources is decisive for the structure and the pedagogical potential of any EBP course.

The use of technology in support of the EBP learning environment does not seem optional, but rather imperative. Computers are no more a mere educational tool that enhances students' learning by the merits of individualized pacing, immediate feedback, and exclusiveness of attention (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985; Hertz, 1987; Hall, 1998). Far more, computer literacy now holds the key to one's competent participation in business discourse, for the latter does not occur within national or classroom borders, but rather within networked communities in the Internet and via the various vehicles of synchronous and asynchronous Computer-mediated Communication [CMC] (Murray, 2000). In response to this need, it becomes imperative that coordinators allot sufficient funding for organizing CALL environments adequately equipped to enable students' access to these networked communities and the information available on the Internet.

Coordinators also face the problem of providing a location for a writing center within the physical and metaphorical space of the school. Physically, a writing center, which by definition is run primarily by students for students, requires a portion of the physical plant, including access to computers as well as the Internet for possible Online Writing Center tutorials.

More importantly, coordinators need to balance the intent to offer students the best education available with the goal to turn a profit. If students tutor each other in writing, will this subtract profit from the school? At first it may seem so, but if coordinators build in the writing center as part of the framework of the school and as part of the resources that the school has at the disposal of its students, then the writing center becomes an additional marketable feature. In the long run, students will gradually become invested in process and collaborative writing and recognize its potential, and coordinators are bound to benefit from a further word of mouth advertising that will be virtually free.

Coordinators place the parameters of critical theory about ESL/EFL and intercultural training in the lower left quadrant (collective, subjective). Indeed, any decision concerning the foundation and administration of an English language school is generated and primarily shaped within the culture of investment and profit. Through this lens, the organization of an EBP course constitutes a strategic decision that targets the market's need for specialized English. EBP is a product for consumption and in that respect, this profit making culture of the administrator can be seen as compatible with the use of English as an imperialistic vehicle in the service of Western capitalism. For, as critical theory suggests, English can sometimes operate as a "Trojan Horse" in some cultures by spreading throughout the populace like a cancer (Pennycook, 1994). According to that perspective, therefore, English program coordinators could be held accountable for this carcinogenic spread.

However, coordinators have also the power to moderate the side effects of this profit making culture by using EBP courses to beat the Trojan horse. This can be achieved through the inclusion of intercultural training as an integral part of any EBP course that strives for excellence. Indeed, the implementation of this parameter within EBP courses can lead not only to the acquisition of intercultural communication proficiency as an indisputable qualification in the repertoire of business people of today, but also to the acknowledgement and appreciation of the indigenous and foreign cultures.

Despite the possible colonialist impact on the indigenous culture, the profit making culture of the coordinator can also benefit the organization of the language program in a very basic yet significant way anchored in the coordinator's upper left quadrant (individual subjective). The coordinators' hierarchy of developmental stages is grounded in their capacity to constantly respond to students' needs. If profit is the rationale for the foundation of a language school, then the satisfaction of students' needs is definitely the guarantee for its prosperity. In that respect it is imperative, that coordinators identify the student audience and their prescribed needs at an early stage and a specific level.

As already assumed, the student populace of this school will consist of Greek students who will want to further their skills and knowledge in EBP and possibly acquire some type of certification. Beyond this basic assumption, however, coordinators should conduct an instrumentalized needs analysis to determine the target and learning needs of individual students (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Collecting statistical data will further outline the student target population and provide the spine for the coordinators' program administration responsibilities. What is more important, however, is that these results are shared with instructional staff. In that way, the program can be organized according to the core issue of students' needs whether they are viewed as learners from the instructor's perspective or as customers from the coordinator's point of view.

The Teacher Quadrant

Teachers necessarily have different concerns than administration. Following Wilber, the weight of teacher interest falls in the upper right quadrant (exterior-individual, objective), which refers to objective measurements on the individual level. The following figure illustrates how the same issues move into different sections of the quadrant based on different perspectives.

Teacher Quadrant (Focus Upper Right)	
Upper Left Interior-Individual Subjective EBP through Needs Analysis	Upper Right Exterior-Individual Objective CALL through New Skills EBP through Discourse Analysis Writing Center Methodology
Lower Left Interior-Collective Intersubjective Critical Theory ESL/EFL EBP through Intercultural Training	Lower Right Exterior-Collective Interobjective Program Administration through Resources

Figure 3. The Teacher Quadrant

Interestingly, the teacher model coincides with that of the coordinator in the two individual quadrants. However, there are different nuances in the perception of the seemingly identical dimensions of each section. The needs assessment as well as the choice of a particular mode for this analysis (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Donna, 2000) primarily constitutes the responsibility of the coordinator. However, this data should be made available to instructors as well, for the goal of addressing students' needs should be the core of any teaching philosophy. Based on objective and realistic data, teachers can then assume the responsibility to devise the most appropriate instructional delivery and use the outcomes of this analysis as a compass for the mapping of their pedagogy and instructional approach.

Instructors will place the gravity of their interest in the upper right quadrant. This section, the exterior-individual/objective, refers to the instructors' general methodological toolkit, the choices of the specific tools in an EBP course. It is essential that this toolkit is equipped with a banquet of teaching strategies and knowledge to optimize the resources of CALL and the writing center toward the new business literacy and communication skills.

As Warschauer (2000) indicated ESL/EFL instructors are challenged by the new era of informationalism to employ technology in activities that supercede the traditional venue of computers as "tools." In the context of EBP, instructors need to organize CALL activities in accordance with students' needs for new literacy and communication skills. Indeed, CALL, especially in the advanced form of Computer-mediated Communication (CMC) goes hand in hand with business, since business interactions have long ago been transferred to a corporate and super-national level.

Within this international forum, it is not only English that has definitely become the lingua franca for business communication even among nonnative speakers of the same first language (Louhiala-Salminen, 2002); CMC also has pervaded the patterns of this communication among networked business communities. Hence, students' aspiration for competent participation in these communities demands the mastery of new skills not only at a linguistic, but also at the sociolinguistic and strategic levels of reading, researching, writing and communicating on the screen via the Internet and within discourse communities through distinct modes and genres of communication (Warschauer 2000; Murray, 2000, Mulholland, 1999).

This instructional pattern reveals the interconnectedness between CALL and genre analysis in EBP.

The investigation of the norms and conventions of the various communicative events and media (Bhatia, 1993) in EBP should now expand to include the electronic genres of business communication, such as e-mail. Indeed, CALL activities directly relate to EBP courses through the methods of genre analysis as well as to writing center methodologies of process-based and collaborative writing that can be held online.

In the lower right exterior-collective/interobjective, section of the quadrant, teachers place program administration because they are concerned with the organizational apparatus that will enable them to accomplish their personal and pedagogical goals. If the teaching staff is involved in the decision making process, they are much more likely to work with the organization than against it (Hack, Candoli, & Ray, 1995). It is also imperative that the program provide the necessary tools of text books, computers, and support resources that feed teachers' basic aspiration to address students' needs.

As in the case of coordinators, the lower left, interior-collective/cultural, section of the quadrant encapsulates the philosophical concerns of the modern ESL/EFL teacher. Although primarily conceiving themselves as benefactors in contributing to a worldwide communication, ESL/EFL instructors should not naively ignore the implications of critical theory for their role as missionaries of Western post colonialism.

This self-awareness can result in their conscious effort to shield students against the Trojan horse of English through the skills of critical thinking. Discourse analysis and intercultural training can contribute to this cause. The choice of one specific model of intercultural training over another will determine the solidity of this shield, for scholars caution that certain models of intercultural training do nothing but contribute to the disguise of Western colonialism (Munshi & McKie, 2001).

EBP programs that are delivered through a critical approach to intercultural training, not only train students to be effective business representatives and foster a critical distance between the target instructional material and the Greek host culture.

Students could develop, if teachers adopt an effective model of intercultural training and genre analysis, would be the critical ability to analyze different cultural forms, as well as the ability to discern how English enforces particular subject positions within discourse patterns that too often privilege native speakers (Nayar, 1997). Students would also be able to diagnose how hierarchies work within business communities and are reflected in both oral and written speech (Master, 1998). Last but not least, students would learn that politeness often masquerades power inequalities (Fairclough, 1989). In effect, teaching EBP through the lens of intercultural training and genre analysis fosters critical consumption of the English language and the concomitant culture that typically accompanies English language instruction in foreign countries (Auerbach, 1995).

The Student Quadrant

Students who enroll in an EBP course are often motivated by specific aspirations: to acquire competence in EBP that will enable them to develop still in their career paths. Therefore, the hierarchy of developmental stages in the upper right, individual-exterior quadrant evolves in their profession and climaxes with their EBP proficiency. Although students are primarily concerned about the delivery of instruction and the final outcome of their studies, they are also affected by the resources available to them and the organizational structure of the school. The following quadrant figure illustrates the different focus for students:

Student Quadrant (Focus Upper Right)	
Upper Left Interior-Individual Subjective Business Competence through EBP Courses	Upper Right Exterior-Individual Objective New Skills through CALL Intercultural Communication through Intercultural Training
Lower Left Interior-Collective Intersubjective Critical Thinking through Critical Theory Implications Cultural Self-awareness through Intercultural Training	Lower Right Exterior-Collective Interobjective Resources through Program Administration: CALL/Writing Center

Figure 4. The Student Quadrant

For many students, the path to promotion is paved with certificates, many hours of work, and an intimate knowledge of international business practices. In this respect, the student population of this school will primarily focus on developing discrete skills in the shortest amount of time with the most effective teachers, within an organization that will optimize their learning process.

In the teacher quadrant, instructors are concerned about the proper delivery of CALL, Intercultural Training, and writing center revision strategies. In the student quadrant, students are concerned with attaining related skills in a structured and coherent manner. CALL activities, for instance, are crucial for students in an EBP program because of the omnipresent use of the computer internationally, and the material available through the Internet and the need to access the networked business discourse communities.

Students should expect instructors to strategically guide them through the quagmire of sources to material that is genuinely helpful, as well as train them in the new literacy and technological skills that are indispensable to effective business communicants. These skills are further promoted through intercultural training in the EBP course, for imminent international business people should be aware of different cultural predilections and modes of interaction.

Such goal-oriented students, however, may be suspicious of the concept and practice of the writing center, because it may seem to them that such peer tutoring releases the instructors from their responsibility. In that the key rests in initiating students into the methodologies of collaborative and process-centered writing. In addition to the appropriate training in these practices, which will reveal their full potential, students can be convinced about this potential through the appropriate promotion of this concept on the part of the administration.

This is an additional reason why program administration, placed in the lower right section, exterior-collective/interobjective, should be all but invisible to students. Indeed, from the students' perspective, program administration involves the provision of resources that will allow them to efficiently mold the skills that will guarantee competence in the international business forum. Simply translated, school administration should not impede students on account of red tape or bureaucracy. Last but not least, students should expect that their personal investment is respected through administrative investments in technology and curriculum materials, supporting resources such as the writing center, and in effective faculty.

Placed in the lower left section, the influence of critical theory in ESL/is twofold. Students in EBP courses who aspire to proficiently conduct business in the international forum may be more vulnerable to Western imperialism when encroached through English. Their professional ambitions could make them willing to uncritically embrace the language and the culture that is impregnated in the language.

At the same time, business professionals are often unaware of their own role as carriers of distinct cultures that influence their "total way of life" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). Their international communication efforts are often fragmented through misunderstandings grounded in cultural differences. As students in an EBP course, therefore, these potential professionals should be enabled to establish a critical distance between the language that is taught and the culture that comes with it. EBP administered through the lens of intercultural training can aid students in developing this critical distance from English promoted culture, but also from their own individual cultural shells.

Conclusions for the Theoretical Framework

Wilber's quadrant theory provides a basis to integrate diverse and complicated elements into one schema. This is appropriate for the complex task of founding an English language school in a foreign country. In this task, multiple perspectives need to be considered to ensure that coordinators, instructors, and students collaborate toward a common goal without sacrificing individual needs and aspirations.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

The Elements of the Design

Rationale

The following design translates the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Three into a pragmatic unit of lessons for a course on English for Business Purposes (EBP). Although this unit has been constructed with the aspiration of constituting a product that can be promoted through the administration of a private language school, its creation has also been filtered through the critical lens of implications innate in the spread of English as the international language of business. Hence, the key concepts of the theoretical framework are incorporated in this unit: EBP, Intercultural Training and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

Purpose

This unit provides a basis of knowledge and skills for students in English for Business Purposes (EBP) courses. Students will be involved in various written and oral assignments reinforced by oral presentations and mock-interviews in a computer-assisted class environment. The overall purpose of this design is to provide students with an actual and realistic field to practice any theoretical basis that they construct during the course, and assist them in building a certain level of competence in the international business forum. The specific lessons, therefore, are designed to quickly integrate students into the principles of reading and writing, use of computer skills, and knowledge of intercultural communication problems that influence business discourse.

Student Audience

The target audience of this unit is adult learners whose age probably ranges from 25 to 35 years. Students in this course aim at attaining a basis in English for Business Purposes as well as strategies to find working positions within the European Community or further abroad. Some students are required by their employers to participate in this course to update their credentials and serve as liaisons between Greek and foreign companies. However, in order to be eligible to participate in this course, learners should be familiar with conventional English at an intermediate level as well as the rudimentary functions of Word for Windows.

Structure

Each instructional plan constitutes an integral component of this unit that could be delivered through individualized or grouped instruction. For the sake of coherence and applicability, all the instructional plans follow the same rules and structure, which is deployed in a pattern of sequential stages. More specifically, each instructional plan begins with the description of its specific objectives in terms of content, language and social or technological skills. These objectives are further supported by teaching strategies borrowed from Diaz-Rico's forthcoming TESOL strategies (2003) and which are presented cumulatively in Appendix A. In addition, a second table includes the materials necessary for the execution of each particular lesson. Certain of these materials are found under the standardized labels of "Focus Sheet," "Task Sheet," and "Assessment Sheet" which accordingly introduce the instructional plan, application and practice of the instruction, and the evaluation rubric employed by the instructor (Appendix B). Last but not least, each "Task Sheet" is compatible with a specific "Task Chain" that describes the instructional procedure followed for the achievement of each lesson's objective. Therefore, every component of this unit should be envisioned in the dual role of a coherent chain of activities targeting predetermined instructional goals and guided by instructional strategies, as well as a link in the longer chain of the unit.

The Content of the Curriculum

This curriculum consists of a unit under the title "Job Readiness." The eight instructional plans that constitute the unit address the needs of nonnative English speakers and business people who aim at gaining competence in the multiple facets of an EBP course.

Instructional Plan #1: Paraphrasing and Summarizing

This lesson focuses on the primary skills of reading and writing through the process of paraphrasing and summarizing. It can be difficult to accurately describe the main point of a business article, but this lesson requires that students be familiar with specific economics vocabulary, pick out the main idea, and summarize that idea succinctly—all skills required in the business world. In addition, it requires that these skills are practiced through an electronic text. Furthermore, this lesson engages students in a process-centered and collaborative writing approach, as addressed by the writing centers section in the theoretical framework.

Instructional Plan #2: Job Search Strategies

Building on the paraphrasing and summarizing skills accentuated in Instructional Plan #1, the second plan requires students to practice linguistic genre analysis by learning the vocabulary of the job search, complete with abbreviations. Students are asked to use the Internet and newspaper as part of their search strategy. Lastly, instructors will engage students in an intercultural conversation about culture specific ways of advertising and responding to job advertisements.

Instructional Plan #3: Cover Letter

Once students discover a job of interest (Instructional Plan #2), the lesson proceeds with a discussion of the conventions of a job application with a cover letter. Instructors will engage students in a cross-cultural discussion on the country-specific norms for cover letters, along with a discussion of normal corporate business practice. Students will learn about the genre norms of cover letters.

Instructional Plan #4: Resume Workshop

In this lesson, students compose a resume to add to their professional file. Students are asked to consider the audience of the resume, the cultural context, and the type of job for which they are applying. In that way, students will expand their understanding of cultural variation, and employ strategies of self-promotion.

Instructional Plan #5: Job Interview

Once students have prepared cover letters and resumes, they will proceed to a mock job interview. Students will discuss essential elements of a job interview in the context of corporate culture and in indigenous culture. This cross-cultural approach allows for a comparison and contrast of social norms for job interviews based on a set of sample criteria provided with the lesson. The lesson concludes with a mock interview conducted within a peer group, whereby peers evaluate each other's work and provide sample feedback.

Instructional Plan #6: Meeting Presentation

Students will be asked to discuss what makes an effective presentation/speech using Martin Luther King's "I Have A Dream" speech as a starting point. By analyzing components of effective rhetoric through a cultural lens, students can determine what will make a good presentation in a business community of their choice. The lesson ends with student presentations to a specified, business audience about a topic of their choice.

Instructional Plan #7: Negotiation Tips

This instructional plan requires that students distinguish between successful and unsuccessful negotiation techniques, take into consideration cultural parameters of negotiation, and use Word Drawing Tools to arrange a graphic organizer. Students are asked to place successful and unsuccessful negotiation tips into a graphic organizer that they create.

Instructional Plan #8: Negotiation Breakdowns

Using Word Drawing and Clipart, students will construct a cross-cultural dialogue between two business representatives from different countries. This dialogue, designed to simulate real-life business interactions, requires that students utilize computer resources, work collaboratively, recognize successful business negotiation tips from Instructional Plan #7, and develop cultural self-awareness.

Display of Curriculum on Student Quadrant

The following figure illustrates the placement of the individual instructional plans to address students' needs as explained in the theoretical framework.

Student Quadrant (Focus Upper Right)	
Upper Left Business Competence through EBP Courses Instruction Plan #1: Paraphrasing and Summarizing Instructional Plan #2: Job Search Strategies Instructional Plan #3: Cover Letter Instructional Plan #4: Resume Workshop Instructional Plan #6: Meeting Presentation	Upper Right New Skills through CALL Instruction Plan #1: Paraphrasing and Summarizing Instructional Plan #2: Job Search Strategies Intercultural Communication through Intercultural Training Instructional Plan #3: Cover Letter Instructional Plan #4: Resume Workshop Instructional Plan #5: Job Interview Instructional Plan #8: Negotiation Breakdowns
Student Quadrant (Focus Upper Right)	
Lower Left Critical Thinking through Critical Theory Implications Instructional Plan #6: Meeting Presentation Instructional Plan #7: Negotiation Tips Cultural Self-awareness through Intercultural Training Instructional Plan #7: Negotiation Tips Instructional Plan #8: Negotiation Breakdowns	Lower Right Resources through Program Administration: CALL/Writing Center Instruction Plan #1: Paraphrasing and Summarizing Instructional Plan #5: Job Interview Instructional Plan #7: Negotiation Tips Instructional Plan #8: Negotiation Breakdowns

Figure 5. Curriculum Display on Student Quadrant

Each instructional plan fulfills multiple objectives and student needs. However, their arrangement in the different quadrants has been undertaken on the criterion of their principal focal points.

APPENDIX A

DIAGRAMS

Figure 1: The Tree of ELT

(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.17)

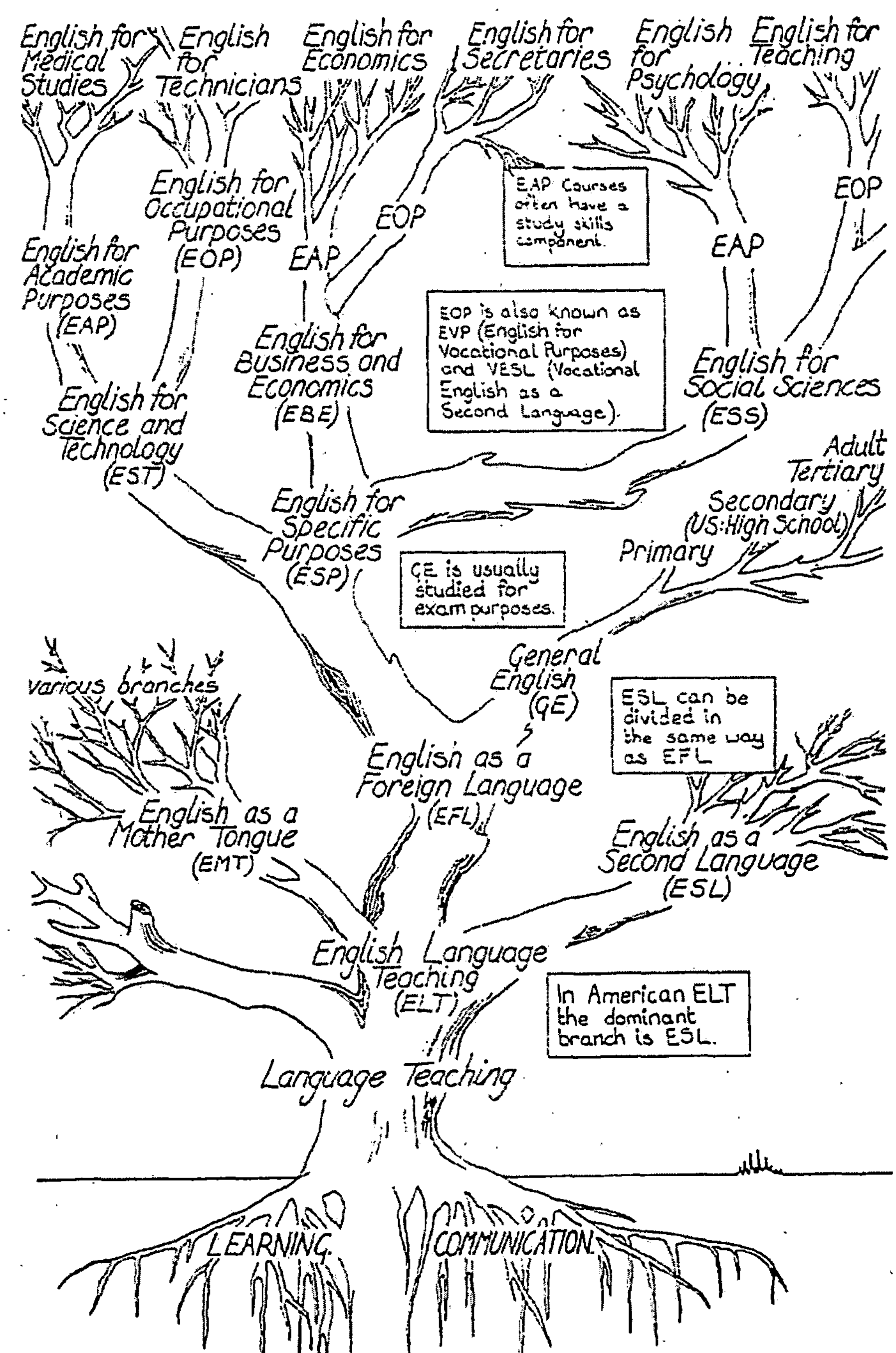


Figure 2: Robinson's Diagram of English for Specific Purposes

(Robinson, 1991, p.3)

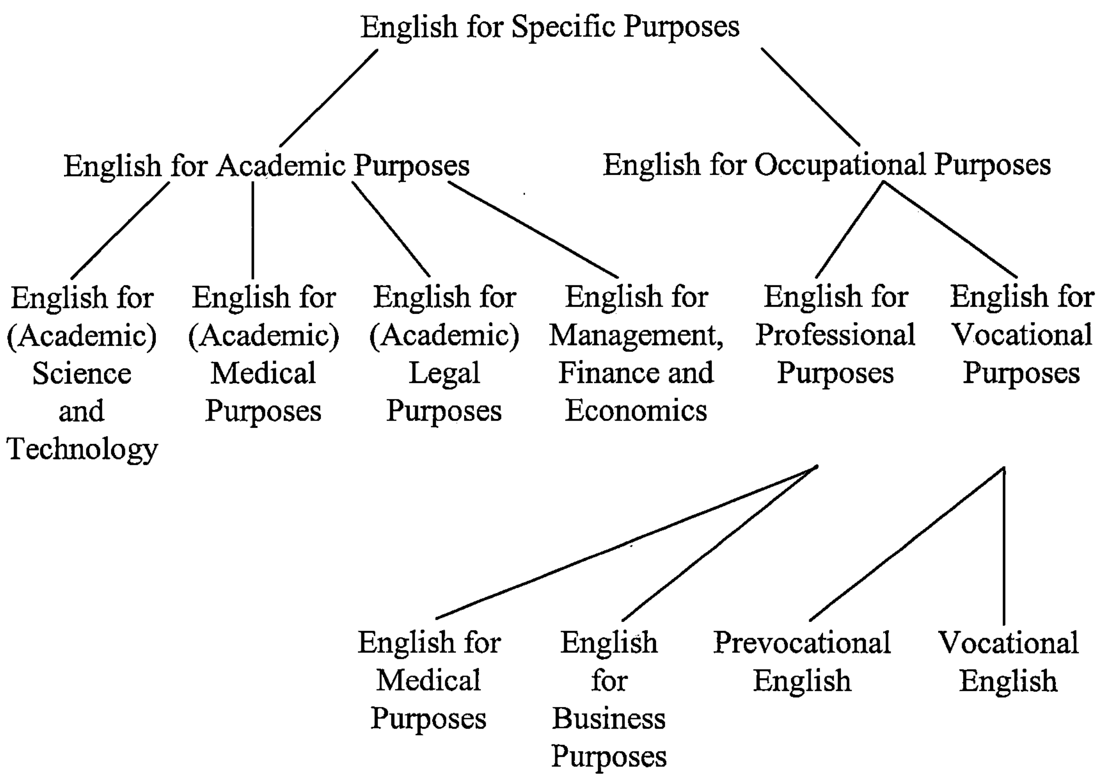
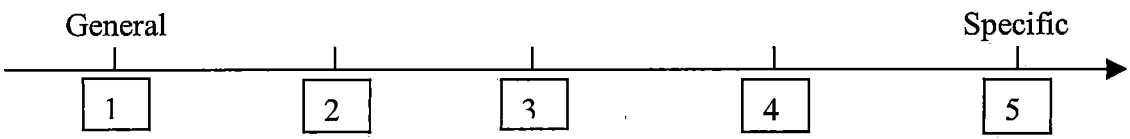


Figure 3: Dudley-Evans and St John's Continuum

(Dudley-Evans & St John, 1987, p.9)



Position 1	Position 2	Position 3	Position 4	Position 5
English for Beginners	Intermediate to advanced EGP courses with a focus on particular skills	EGAP/EGBP courses based on common-core language and skills not related to specific disciplines or professions	Courses for broad disciplinary or professional areas for example Report Writing for Scientists and Engineers, Medical English, Legal English, Negotiation/Meeting Skills for Business Purposes	1) An "academic support" course related to a particular academic course 2) One-to-one work with business people

APPENDIX B

TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS

OF OTHER LANGUAGES STRATEGIES

TESOL Strategies

Mega –Strategy 1: Professionalize TESOL education.	
Strategy 1.1:	Know who your learners are and why they want to learn English.
Strategy 1.2:	Use power and policy issues to support your teaching.
Strategy 1.3:	Join with other professionals to facilitate your teaching.
Strategy 1.4:	Set professional goals with the learner's best interests in mind, as the learner defines them.
Mega –Strategy 2: Teach the whole person – beliefs, body, brain, emotions, and culture, within a positive social environment.	
Strategy 2.1:	Synthesize your philosophy/beliefs with the philosophical beliefs of the learner.
Strategy 2.2:	Use behavioral training for social control, accurate pronunciation, and rote memory of information such as object and motor vocabulary.
Strategy 2.3:	Align learning with the brain and its natural way of knowledge acquisition.
Strategy 2.4:	Reduce tension and support a positive emotional state in the learner.
Strategy 2.5:	Ensure that learning is compatible with the cultural values and practices of the community.
Strategy 2.6:	Critique of the social conditions of the learner.
Strategy 2.7:	Place learning in the context of contemporary social change.
Mega –Strategy 3: Increase the learner's control, self-management, and self-motivation.	
Strategy 3.1:	Honor learner's language use strategies.
Strategy 3.2:	Adapt instruction to learner's varying styles.
Strategy 3.3:	Teach cognitive strategies.
Strategy 3.4:	Teach metacognitive strategies.
Strategy 3.5:	Teach social-affective strategies.
Strategy 3.6:	Teach academic/survival skills.
Strategy 3.7:	Combine English and content teaching.
Strategy 3.8:	Use computers to assist language learning.

Mega –Strategy 4: Maximize learning by basing performance on measurable outcomes.	
Strategy 4.1:	Expect the highest performance possible in the time available.
Strategy 4.2:	Align instruction with local, state, and national standards.
Strategy 4.3:	Plan logically and flexibly for maximum student achievement.
Strategy 4.4:	Set criteria for effective performance and assess attainment of those criteria.
Strategy 4.5:	Adjust instruction to attain performance criteria.
Mega –Strategy 5: Involve the learner in projects that offer long-term, meaningful learning.	
Strategy 5.1:	Negotiate the project topic with the learner
Strategy 5.2:	Delimit and focus project goals.
Strategy 5.3:	Document the progress of the project.
Strategy 5.4:	Assess the outcome of the project.
Mega –Strategy 6: Teach skills systematically, building on primary language skills.	
Strategy 6.1:	Teach skills in a way that enhances information acquisition and recall.
Strategy 6.2:	Teach reading in a way that builds interest, information acquisition, and life-long literacy.
Strategy 6.3:	Teach listening in a way that builds interest, information acquisition, and life-long self-expression.
Strategy 6.4:	Teach writing in a way that sustains interest, information acquisition, and life-long self-expression.
Strategy 6.5:	Teach speaking in a way that sustains self-esteem and life-long self-expression.
Strategy 6.6:	Stimulate the imagination with poetry, drama, and music.
Mega –Strategy 7: Teach language in a way that arouses a genuine interest in the beauty and history of English.	
Strategy 7.1:	Teach language in whole and integrate skills.
Strategy 7.2:	Arouse interest in the history of English.
Strategy 7.3:	Arouse interest in English as a language.
Strategy 7.4:	Teach the structure of English explicitly but contextually.
Strategy 7.5:	Teach respect for correct usage of English.

Mega –Strategy 8: Understand cultural patterns of instruction.	
Strategy 8.1:	Understand the role of language and culture in instruction.
Strategy 8.2:	Understand U.S. classroom instructional patterns.
Strategy 8.3:	Promote the learner's use of academic language.
Strategy 8.4:	Help the learner to construct meaning.
Mega –Strategy 9: Use culture to teach language.	
Strategy 9.1:	Learn about the learner's culture.
Strategy 9.2:	Compare the learner's culture to the English target culture.
Strategy 9.3:	Align the culture of schooling and the learner's culture.
Strategy 9.4:	Become an intercultural educator.
Strategy 9.5:	Motivate the learner to achieve a bicultural identity.
Strategy 9.6:	Teach English using the learner's culture.
Mega –Strategy 10: Develop cognitive academic skills.	
Strategy 10.1:	Support enriched education in dual-language programs.
Strategy 10.2:	Teach literacy in two languages.
Strategy 10.3:	Teach for transfer between primary language and English.
Strategy 10.4:	Provide cultural support for dual language learning.
Mega –Strategy 11: Bring the community into the classroom-parents, families, neighborhoods, and culture.	
Strategy 11.1:	Make the classroom a community.
Strategy 11.2:	Involve parents and partners in learning.
Strategy 11.3:	Affirm and build on what the community values as knowledge.
Strategy 11.4:	Form partnerships with the community to involve students in community activities and social action.
Mega –Strategy 12: We learn as we serve.	
Strategy 12.1:	Identify community agencies that need ESL/EFL.
Strategy 12.2:	Design a service learning project.
Strategy 12.3:	Perform and evaluate service.

From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). *TESOL strategies*. Manuscript submitted for publication

APPENDIX C

UNIT PLAN

Unit Plan for English for Business Purposes: Job Readiness

Instructional Plan #1: Paraphrasing and Summarizing

Objectives

Content: To distinguish between paraphrasing and summarizing.

Language: To use the dictionary and thesaurus to find synonyms or alternative ways of phrasing.

Social: To work cooperatively in groups, take responsibility for their contribution in group assignments, and expand their perspective to events of worldwide significance.

	TESOL Strategies
	Mega –Strategy 2: Teach the whole person – beliefs, body, brain, emotions, and culture, within a positive social environment.
Strategy 2.3:	Align learning with the brain and its natural way of knowledge acquisition.
Strategy 2.7:	Place learning in the context of contemporary social change.
	Mega –Strategy 3: Increase the learner's control, self-management, and self-motivation.
Strategy 3.6:	Teach academic/survival skills.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials

Focus Sheet: Summary Drawing
Task Sheet #1: Euro Article
Task Sheet #2: Unknown Words
Task Sheet #3: Summary Application
Assessment Sheet #1: Percentage Rubric
Assessment Sheet #2: Summary Rubric
Chalk and blackboard
Various Denominations of Euros

Warm-Up: Instructor uses Focus Sheet (Summary Drawing) to illustrate the distinct elements of a summary. After the completion of the activity, instructor draws students' attention to the element of paraphrasing.

Task Chain 1: Learning how to paraphrase.

1. Instructor elicits students' current interest and knowledge of events of worldwide economic significance by circulating various Euro-coins and bills. Instructor asks students if they recognize them and if they have information on the European Union (E.U.) and the recent monetary unification of its member-states.
2. Instructor asks students to hyperlink to the website www. euronews.com, and find the Euro Article as Task Sheet #1. Instructor asks students to infer the content of the article by reading only the title.
3. Instructor asks students to read through the article and then conduct a short discussion on its content.
4. Instructor asks students to paraphrase the title of the article depending on the in-class discussion.
5. Instructor models the paraphrasing of the title on the board and then puts students into four groups of three and assigns the paraphrasing of the first paragraph.
6. Each group can use their dictionaries or electronic translators.
7. Instructor divides the board into four equal spaces and asks each group to write their paraphrase on the board.
8. Instructor models the paraphrase by processing the four versions of paraphrase on a sentence-by-sentence basis and constructs the model by selecting one or more paraphrase versions of each sentence so that parts of all groups' work are included in the model.

Task Chain 2: Using dictionaries and thesaurus.

1. Instructor selects the word "participates" from the article and asks students to come up with alternative ways of phrasing from the more to the least wordy version by using their resources.
2. Instructor and students check their dictionaries and thesaurus to confirm their versions of paraphrasing the word "participates."
3. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #2 (Unknown Words) as homework.

Task Chain 3: Distinguishing between paraphrasing and summarizing.

1. Instructor writes on the board the following two options and asks them to vote for the correct one: a. Summary=Paraphrase b. Summary Paraphrase c. Paraphrase Euro Summary.
2. Students and instructor discuss the role of the paraphrase in the summary.
3. Instructor asks students to summarize the first paragraph of the article in their groups.
4. Student groups write their summaries on the board underneath their paraphrase.

5. Students vote for the best summary.
6. Instructor assigns Task Sheet #3 (Summary Application) for homework together with the Assessment Sheet #2 (Summary Rubric).

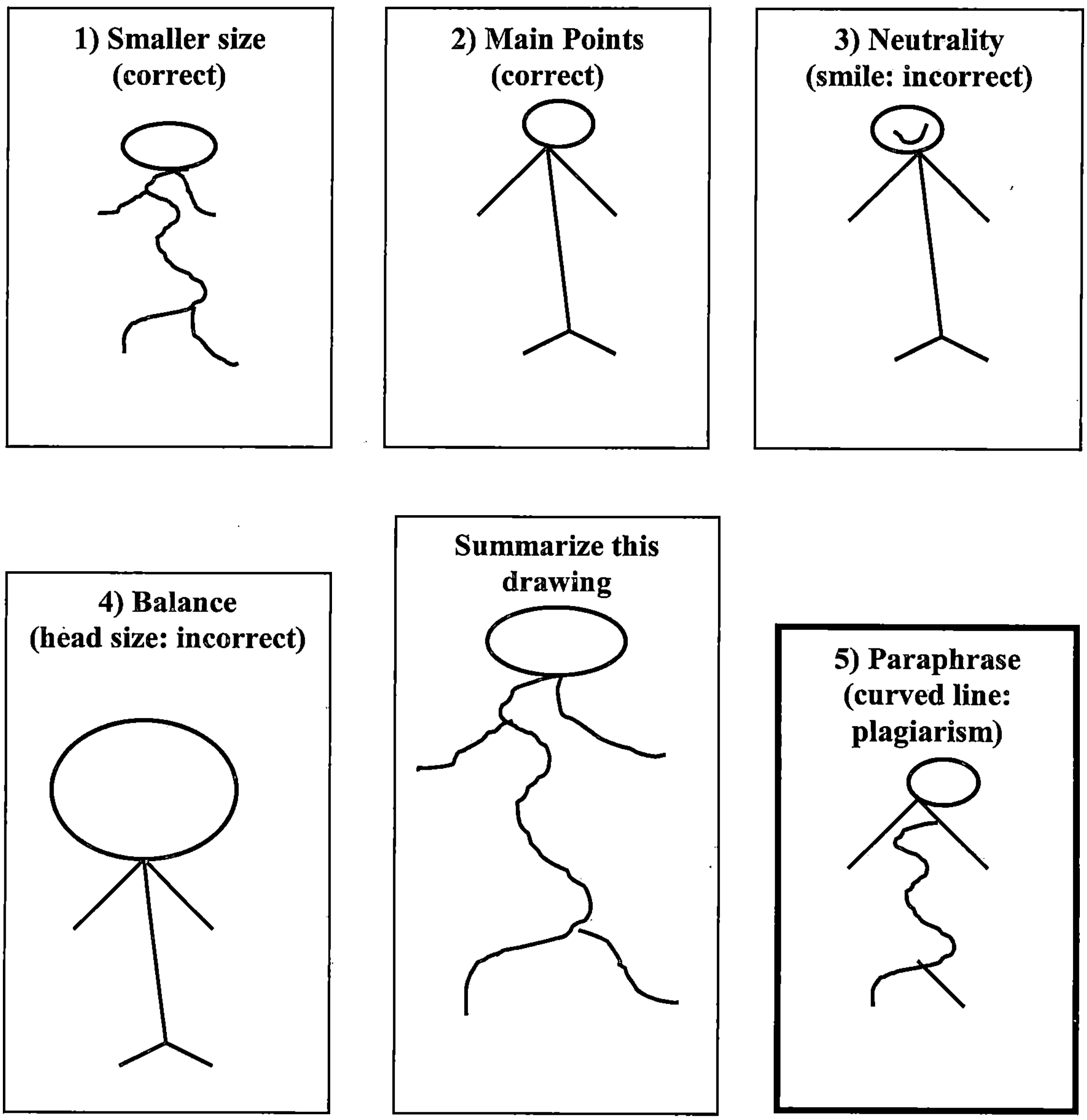
<u>Assessment:</u>

Formative--
1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the group work during class based on informed judgment.
3. Instructor evaluates group work displayed on board based on informed judgment.

Summative--
1. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 (Unknown Words) with Assessment Sheet #1 (Percentage Rubric)
2. Instructor grades Task Sheet #3 (Summary Application) with Assessment Sheet #2 (Summary Rubric)

Focus Sheet: Summary Drawing

This Sheet illustrates the five key-elements of a summary: smaller size, main points, neutrality, balance and paraphrase. The instructor draws the central picture on the table and asks students to "summarize" the drawing. Afterwards, the instructor illustrates the above elements in the separate drawings that surround the central one. Hence, a correct and accurate summary: 1) should develop in a text of smaller size than the original one, 2) should include all the main points of the original text, 3) should not express any opinion regarding the summarized text, 4) should keep the same balance of the elements in the original text, 5) should reproduce the meaning of the original text in different words.



Task Sheet #1: Euro Article

The Euro: Europe takes changeover in its stride

Brussels, 2 January 2002

The Euro: Europe takes changeover in its stride

Euro notes began to be distributed in all participating states on 1 January at 00.00. The level of enthusiasm among the public was demonstrated once again as large numbers of people visited cash machines --often in the early hours of the morning-- and banks, in those countries where the banks had opened. The people of Europe are easing themselves into their new currency. So far the changeover is proving to be a smooth and good-humored operation.

According to the data exchanged via the European Changeover Information Network, the average proportion of automated teller machines converted to the euro on 1 January was over 80%, representing about 160 000 machines. The process of converting ATMs was almost complete in four countries, namely Austria, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Elsewhere the conversion of ATMs was generally proceeding according to plan, and was running ahead of schedule in some countries, such as Greece, Finland, France and Portugal. The number of withdrawals was far higher than normal for a first of January. In the Netherlands, for example, there were almost three million withdrawals in the course of the day; in Germany there were more than four million, and in France more than three million. The value of withdrawals often tended to be higher than usual, too. In Italy withdrawals totaled €184 million, in France €180 million, and in Austria 40 million. The length of queues at bank counters varied: queues were normal in most of the countries where banks were open, but long at some banks in Germany. No serious logistical incidents were reported. Electronic payments at point-of-sale terminals were operating satisfactorily. No counterfeit euros were detected on 1 January.

In virtually all the participating countries the few businesses that were open managed to give change in euros, and consumers had no problem accepting their euro change. Queues in shops were about the same as normal. It remains to be seen whether this good news continues to hold as the majority of businesses get back to work on 2 January. The few shops that were open on 1 January took a lot of payments in euros in cash, with consumers using the coins they had received in starter kits and notes they had withdrawn from ATMs; this made for fewer problems with giving change.

This article has been excerpted from www.euronews.com and has been modified in its format to fit the purposes of this lesson.

Task Sheet #2: Unknown Words

A. Paraphrase the following words from the Euro-article using a one-word synonym as well as a longer phrase. Each correct item is worth five points.

Word	One-word synonym	Synonym phrase
1. enthusiasm		
2. easing themselves		
3. continues		
4. representing		
5. converting		
6. complete		
7. incidents		
8. satisfactorily		
9. counterfeit		
10. consumers		

B. Paraphrase the following sentences from the Euro article. Each correct item is worth ten points.

Sentences
1. The number of withdrawals was far higher than normal for a first of January.
2. No serious logistical incidents were reported.
3. Consumers had no problem accepting their euro change.
4. Queues in shops were about the same as normal.
5. In virtually all the participating countries the few businesses that were open managed to give change in euros.

Task Sheet #3: Summary Application

Directions--Find an article from the Internet in the area of your professional interest and summarize it.

Assessment Sheet #1: Percentage Rubric for Task Sheet #2 (Unknown Words)

	Excellent	140-150 points
B	Good	130-139 points
C	Satisfactory	120-129 points
D	Needs Work	110-119 points
F	Unsatisfactory Work	100-109 points

Assessment Sheet #2: Rubric for Task Sheet #3 (Summary Application)

Component	Point Value/Critique
Size of the summary: The summary constitutes a minimized version of the summarized text	/20
Main Points: The summary includes all the main points of the summarized text	/20
Balance: The summary provides a balanced version of the summarized text	/20
Paraphrase: The summary presents the text in the student's own words	/20
Neutrality: The summary does not include the student's personal opinion	/20
Mechanics/Format: The summary is generally free of errors in grammar and use	/25
Format: The paper looks professional, word processed, follows proper citation, uses one or more appropriate sources	/25
Total Point Value	/180

Instructional Plan #2: Job Search

Objectives

Content:	To use job search resources on the Internet and in the newspaper.
Language:	To identify specific English job search language.
Social:	To employ networking skills via email exchange for students with similar job interests.

	TESOL Strategies
Mega –Strategy 1: Professionalize TESOL education.	
Strategy 1.4:	Set professional goals with the learner's best interests in mind, as the learner defines them.
Mega –Strategy 3: Increase the learner's control, self-management, and self-motivation.	
Strategy 3.8:	Use computers to assist language learning.
Mega –Strategy 6: Teach skills systematically, building on primary language skills.	
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials

Task Sheet #1:	Monster.com Printout
Task Sheet #2:	Newspaper Classified Ads
Task Sheet #3:	Abbreviation Guide
Task Sheet #4:	Practice Job Description
Assessment Sheet:	Grading Rubric for Job Ads

Warm-Up: Instructor elicits students' current interest and knowledge of different jobs through pantomime activity of different professions, whereby students guess what job the instructor is performing.

Task Chain 1: To use job search resources on the Internet and in the newspaper.

1. Instructor elicits student commentary on what resources list possible jobs abroad and writes this material on the chalkboard.
2. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #1 (Monster.com Printout) and Task Sheet #2 (Newspaper Classified Ads) and asks students to locate ads in their areas of interest.

3. Using Task Sheets #1 and #2, students and instructor discuss the typical format of ads in the various professions.

Task Chain 2: To identify specific job search language.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #3 (Abbreviation Guide) and asks students to locate and underline all the abbreviations and write these on their Task Sheet.
2. Instructor and students define the meaning of these abbreviations together and construct their own abbreviation guide.
3. Instructor groups them according to professional interest.
4. Using Task Sheet #4 (Practice Job Description), each group selects one job description and develops this in full without any abbreviations.

Task Chain 3: To employ networking skills via email exchange for students with similar job interests.

1. Instructor asks students in each group to exchange email addresses and to find at least three other similar job descriptions and email these to fellow group members.
2. Group members should also make a printed version for the instructor.

Homework:

1. Students create their own job ad for a profession of their interest.
2. Students print out three job descriptions from the Internet address Monster.com for their profession.

Assessment:

Formative--

1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the group work during class based on informed judgment.

Summative--

1. Instructor reviews Task Sheet #3 (Abbreviation Guide) to ensure students accurately record abbreviation definitions.
2. Instructor grades group job ad on a satisfactory/non-satisfactory scale.
3. Instructor grades job ad created individually using generic grading rubric.

Task Sheet #1: Monster.com Printout

This Task Sheet is comprised of an excerpted page from a major website on jobs available in areas of every professional interest.

monster Search Jobs

Date	Location	Position	Company
Feb 21	US-CA-Lancaster & Simi Valley	401(k) Consultant-LLYJob Title	Countrywide Home Loans
Feb 21	US-CA-City of Industry	Recruiter	PHI/Tulip Corporation
Feb 21	US-CA-El Segundo	Human Resource Supervisor	Boeing
Feb 21	US-CA-Los Angeles	HUMAN RESOURCES GEN, HUMAN RESOURCE GENERALIST	Hay Group
Feb 21	US-CA-Los Angeles	Compensation Analyst	Management Recruiters Intntl
Feb 21	US-CA-El Segundo	Documentation Compliance Specialist-LLY	Boeing
Feb 20	US-CA-Los Angeles	HUMAN RESOURCES GEN, HUMAN RESOURCE GENERALIST	VPA, Inc.
Feb 19	US-CA-Encino	Human Resources Assistant	Management Recruiters Intntl
Feb 19	US-CA-Los Angeles	401(k) Senior Administrator-LLY	Management Recruiters Intntl
Feb 19	US-CA-Chatsworth	Director of Relationship Management-LLY	Washington Mutual
Date	US-CA-Encino	Performance Technologist II	Management Recruiters Intntl

Task Sheet #2: Newspaper Ads

This Task Sheet is comprised of a page of a daily newspaper taken from a newspaper of the instructor's choice. Using a section from a recent paper, instructors can easily reformulate an updated version of this task sheet. Students will also be required to bring in copies of a local newspaper with a career section.

SUNDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 2002 / LOS ANGELES TIMES

CLASSIFICATIONS

Los Angeles Times careerbuilder expo

Tuesday

LOS ANGELES

ACCOUNTING

GREAT JOBS

accountemps

Syncor

L.A. Care

Task Sheet #3: Abbreviation Guide

Directions--In the following table, please provide an abbreviation, definition, and example for ten different job descriptions.

Abbreviation	Definition	Example
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		

Task Sheet #4: Practice Job Description

Directions--In the space provided group members should develop A) a job ad using the appropriate abbreviations from the newspaper; B) a second "full length" version of the job ad just developed without using any specialized abbreviations.

A) Job Ad (with abbreviations)	B) Job Ad (full length version)

Assessment Sheet #1: Grading Rubric for Task Sheet #4 (Practice Job Description)

Grading Rubric for Job Ads			
Grade	Percentage	General Score	Criteria
A	90-100%	Excellent	Includes a detailed description of job using well-chosen language and abbreviations. Includes relevant details such as pay scale, contact information, title, placement, and requirements.
B	80-89%	Very Good	Includes a good description of job using appropriate language and abbreviations. Includes almost all relevant details such as pay scale, contact information, title, placement, and requirements.
C	70-79%	Satisfactory	Includes a satisfactory description of job using adequate language and abbreviations. Includes necessary details such as pay scale, contact information, title, placement, and requirements.
D	60-69%	Unsatisfactory	Includes an inadequate detailed description of job using confusing language and abbreviations. Lacks important details such as pay scale, contact information, title, placement, and requirements, and may provide a disorganized ad.
F	<59%	To be revised	

Instructional Plan #3: Cover Letter

Objectives:

Content:	To practice the conventions of job applications through the construction of a cover letter.
Language:	To examine the specific language and formatting required for the professional appearance of a cover letter.
Social:	To address a potential employer in the European Union or in the United States of America.

	TESOL Strategies
Mega –Strategy 1: Professionalize TESOL education.	
Strategy 1.4:	Set professional goals with the learner's best interests in mind, as the learner defines them.
Mega –Strategy 2: Teach the whole person – beliefs, body, brain, emotions, and culture, within a positive social environment.	
Strategy 2.5:	Ensure that learning is compatible with the cultural values and practices of the community.
Mega –Strategy 6: Teach skills systematically, building on primary language skills.	
Strategy 6.4:	Teach writing in a way that sustains interest, information acquisition, and life-long self-expression.
Mega –Strategy 8: Understand cultural patterns of instruction.	
Strategy 8.1:	Understand the role of language and culture in instruction.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials:

Focus Sheet:	Cover Letter #1
Task Sheet #1:	Cover Letter #2
Task Sheet #2:	Venn Diagram
Task Sheet #3:	Cover Letter Language
Task Sheet #4:	Directions and Cover Letter Rubric
Assessment Sheet:	Cover Letter Rubric (included in Task Sheet #4)

Chalk and Blackboard

Warm-Up: Instructor elicits students' prior knowledge by showing a transparency of Focus Sheet (Cover Letter #1). Instructor asks students to put themselves in the shoes of the employer addressed and discuss the reasons for accepting/rejecting the specific application.

Task Chain 1: To practice the conventions of job applications through the construction of a cover letter.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #1 (Cover Letter #2), a well-developed cover letter on the same job as the one on the Focus Sheet.
2. Students compare and contrast the two letters on Task Sheet #2 (Venn Diagram).
3. Students proceed to arrange information on the chalkboard's Venn Diagram.
4. Instructor elicits students' understanding of the essential characteristics of a cover letter and arranges information on the board.

Task Chain 2: To examine the specific language and formatting required for the professional appearance of a cover letter.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #3 (Cover Letter Language) after the discussion of the Venn Diagram concerning major characteristics of the two cover letters.
2. Students work individually to fill out Task Sheet #3 (Cover Letter Language).

Task Chain 3: To address a potential employer in the European Union or in the United States of America.

1. Instructor hands out Task Sheet #4 (Directions and Cover Letter Rubric) as homework.
2. Instructor begins homework sheet with students with the remaining class time.

Assessment:

Formative--
1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates group work displayed on board based on informed judgment.

Summative--
1. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 (Venn Diagram) on a satisfactory/non satisfactory basis.

2. Instructor grades Task Sheet #3 (Cover Letter Language) on a percentage scale.
3. Instructor grades Task Sheet #4 (Directions and Cover Letter Rubric) according to the Cover Letter Rubric.

Focus Sheet: Cover Letter #1

West Lakeland Park, AZ 12345
123-555-1234
klee@bamboo.com

May 13, 2001

Dear Mr. Randall,

There's a reason why:
• Friends hand me the dinner bill to divvy up,
• My checkbook always balances at the end of each month,
• My three kids are never late for events, and
• Community groups look to me to organize events.

I'm a "detail person" — the kind of person you need as your administrative assistant.

For the last five years, I've handled all the scheduling, finances, and logistics for my family of five. It's time for me to get back into the corporate work force and put my organizational talents to use there.

I'll contact you in the next few days to see if you or one of your associates needs an assistant.

Thank you!

Kimberly Lee

Enclosure: resume

From http://www.naz.edu/dept/career_services/coverletters.html

Task Sheet #1: Cover Letter #2

BRENDA J. WILSON
1703 Walnut Grove Avenue
Philadelphia, PE 19107
Office/Voicemail:
(215) 555-7983, ext. 2856
Residence/Message:
(215) 555-0911

August 12, 2001

Metropolitan Children's Hospital
P. O. Box 411067
Philadelphia, PE 19002

Attn: Robin Randall, Human Resources
Re: Director for Patient Financial Services

Dear Mr. Randall:

I was very interested to see your advertisement for a Director of Patient Financial Services in the *Philadelphia Inquirer* (8-11-01). I have been seeking just such an opportunity as this, and I think my background and your requirements may be a good match. My resume is enclosed for your review.

Of particular note for you and the members of your team as you consider this management placement are my strong accomplishments in reorganizing accounting and collections functions to achieve improved operating efficiency internally and improved cash flow for the institution as a whole.

Consider the following:

- Reduced A/R days from 110 to 60.4.
- Reduced staff by 6.5 FTEs with concurrent increase in total departmental performance.
- Reduced patients' complaints with simultaneous increase in A/R collected.
- Improved cash flow by $1.6 million per month.

Additionally, my contributions have been mainly achieved by improving information flow within the patient financial services function, improving patient financial services utilization of already available MIS services, and improving cooperation between patient services and admissions, UR, contracting, and medical records functions.

After fifteen years in patient accounting, I have a thorough understanding of every aspect of this function in a modern hospital/medical center setting. My current employer is very happy with my performance, but I view myself as somewhat of a troubleshooter, and most of the reorganizations initiated here have already come to fruition, so I am eager to consider new challenges.

If you are seeking a manager who stays abreast of her field, who understands technology, who earns 100% staff support, and who is as career-committed as it takes to achieve total success, then please consider what I have to offer. I would be happy to have a preliminary discussion with you or members of your committee to see if we can establish a mutual interest. I will call you within the week to answer any initial questions you may have, and to hear about your hiring process.

Thank you for your attention to these materials. I certainly look forward to exploring this further.

Yours truly,

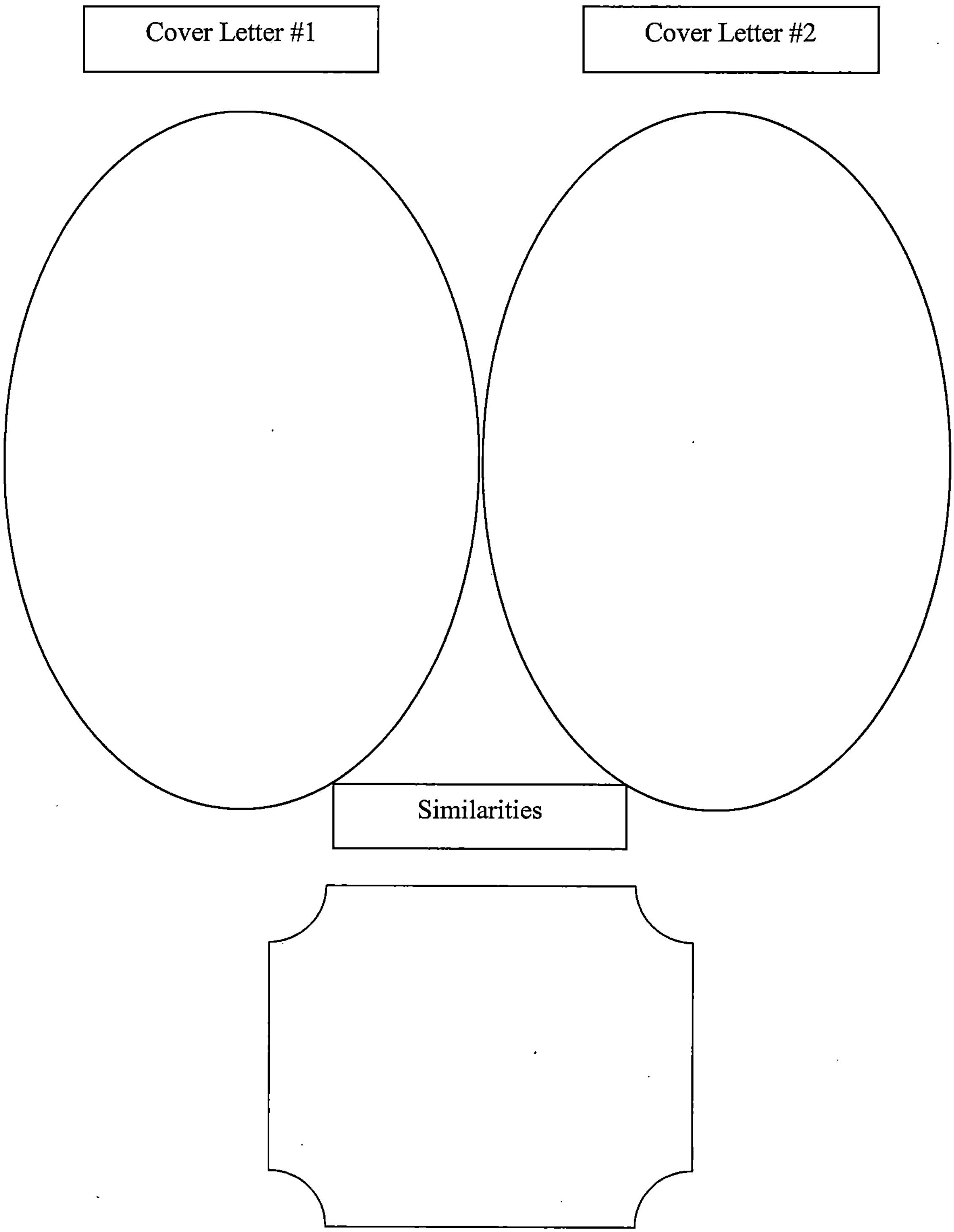
Brenda J. Wilson

Enclosure

The cover letters have been copied from
http://www.naz.edu/dept/career_services/coverletters.html

Task Sheet #2: Venn Diagram

Directions--In the following diagram please provide the essential properties for each cover letter. In the center provide the similarities.



Task Sheet #3: Cover Letter Language

Directions--(A) In the spaces provided below, insert the appropriate information from your Task Sheet #1 (Cover Letter #2).

Cover Letter Language		
Personal Quality Adjectives/Nouns	Expressions for Quality Tasks	Education or Experience Proof
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

(B) In the spaces provided below insert the appropriate personal information.

Personal Cover Letter Language		
Personal Quality Adjectives/Nouns	Expressions for Quality Tasks	Education or Experience Proof
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

Task Sheet #4: Directions and Cover Letter Rubric

Directions--Construct your own personalized cover letter responding to a job advertisement of your interest in a country of your interest (within the E.U. or the U.S.A.) Include the job advertisement when you turn this in for homework.

Your personalized cover letter will be assessed on each one of the criteria of the following rubric.

Name of Student/Applicant ________________________________

Component	Point Value/Critique
Content The cover letter contains: Application for the specific job Skills and qualifications of the applicant relevant to the specific job Action plan	/45
Structure The cover letter contains: Addresses (Return and Inside) Date Greeting/Salutation Body of letter Complimentary close Signature/Typed name Enclosure	/35
Language The cover letter contains: Quality adjectives and nouns (at least 3) Expressions for quality tasks (at least 2) Substantial proof of the applicant's skills and qualifications Takes into consideration the social and cultural conventions of the country of the employer	/60
Mechanics/ Format: Paper contains few grammatical errors Transitions between paragraphs and sentences are smooth Professional layout Word processed	/40
Total Point Value:	/180

Instructional Plan #4: Resume Workshop

Objectives

Content: To examine the layout of resume writing and to compose a resume

Language: To express personal qualities through the use of action verb sentences

	TESOL Strategies
Mega –Strategy 1: Professionalize TESOL education.	
Strategy 1.1:	Know who your learners are and why they want to learn English.
Mega –Strategy 4: Maximize learning by basing performance on measurable outcomes.	
Strategy 4.4:	Set criteria for effective performance and assess attainment of those criteria.
Strategy 4.5:	Adjust instruction to attain performance criteria.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials

Focus Sheet:	Instructor Role Play
Task Sheet #1:	Sample Resumes
Task Sheet #2:	Resume Construction
Task Sheet #3:	Action Verb List
Task Sheet #4:	Directions and Resume Rubric
Assesement Sheet:	Resume Rubric

Warm-Up: Instructor elicits students' current interest and knowledge by entering the classroom with a folder full of papers. Instructor begins perusing these papers, throwing some in the trash, and then selecting a few. Then the instructor summons a student who is in on the role-play to the front of the class, and they begin a short dialogue of a job interview using a fake resume. Instructor gets students to guess what has just transpired.

Task Chain 1: To examine the layout of resume writing to compose a resume.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #1 (Sample Resumes) to students.
2. Using Task Sheet #1, students compare and contrast the two resumes to determine the qualities of each and which would be more appropriate for the stated job position.

3. Instructor asks students to write salient components of resumes in a table format on the chalkboard.

Task Chain 2: To express personal qualities through sentences with action verbs.

1. Instructor discusses the importance of good resume writing and how it should express personal characteristics.
2. Instructor hands out Task Sheet #2 (Resume Construction and Assessment Sheet) and asks students to begin constructing their own resume.
3. After students have a rough draft, instructor hands out Task Sheet #3 (Action Verb List) and asks students to review their writing and use additional action verbs where appropriate.
4. Instructor assigns the completion of the resume as homework.

Assessment:

Formative--

1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion.
2. Instructor evaluates group work displayed on board.

Summative--

1. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 according to the Assessment Sheet.

Task Sheet #1: Sample Resumes

Directions--Using the following two resumes, prepare a list on your own paper of the salient qualities of a resume. Be prepared to discuss your observations with the rest of the class.

Karenne: Bank-Trainer

944 Dowling Street, PO Box 401 • **Pleasant Hill CA 94523** • **(925) 555-5555**

OBJECTIVE: Director of Training, First Nationwide Bank

SUMMARY OF QUALIFICATIONS

- Top-notch administrator with more than 15 years experience in finance.
- M.B.A. and extensive training in seminars for working professionals.
- Outstanding productivity both as a loan officer and as a supervisor.
- Unique combination of expertise in mortgage banking, training, sales, and finance.
- Dynamic leader and team builder, consistently motivating others toward success.

RELEVANT ACCOMPLISHMENTS

1994-present MORTGAGE MADNESS, Pleasant Hill CA
Director of Sales and Training
Managed eight loan officers, with responsibility for $288 million in production, plus full responsibility for all training.

- Designed and led seven monthly training sessions, including broker education and product knowledge seminars, sales strategy and training.
- Reported directly to the president of the company.

1990-94 MAUDLIN MORTGAGE, Rustic City CA
Loan Officer
Developed expertise in all areas of residential financing, including builder business, portfolio loans, Fannie Mae, and Freddie Mac investor loans.

- Top producing loan officer for Maudlin in 1992.
- Built a large client base by successfully implementing relationship selling.

1992-present DALE CARNEGIE INC., San Rafael CA
Dale Carnegie Instructor

- Trained top-level managers of Fortune 500 companies.
- Named "Bay Area Instructor of the Year" in 1993. Consistently reached 93 percent figure for students graduating.

1987-90 COUNTY OF LEWIS, Alameda, CA
Director, Administrative and Fiscal Services

1985-87 DREYDEN BEVERAGES, Hayward, CA
Senior Internal Auditor

1980-85 BLOUCHER MELON & CO., San Francisco, CA
Senior Accountant

- For this "Big Eight" accounting firm, consulted with CEOs and CFOs of diverse industries (computer services, construction, legal services, high tech) concerning auditing, tax accounting, and management.

1979-80 MEGATECH MANUFACTURING, Foster City, CA
Controller

EDUCATION

Wilkes College, Wilkes-Barre PA
M.B.A., 1979

This resume has been copied from
http://www.naz.edu/dept/career_services/resume.html#stresumeguide

Leroy Kevin Ville, Ph.D.

Campus:
University of California, Riverside
Department of English
Riverside, CA 92507-0323

Permanent:
223 East Campus View
Riverside, CA 92507
(909) 328-9927

Objective: Assistant Professor Position

Summary:
- Six years of teaching experience as an ESL and Composition instructor at the University level.
- Years of academic committee and curriculum development experience.
- Conducted a study of the effectiveness of Computer Assisted Instruction and implemented solutions commissioned by the Director of Basic Writing.
- Excellent research, presentation, and writing skills.

Education: Ph.D. in English, June 2000, University of California, Riverside

Bachelors of German and English Literature, University California Riverside, 1994

Gorge August Universitat, Göttingen, Germany 1992-1993

Teaching Experience:
- Taught a wide array of courses since 1995 ranging from remedial ESL classes with a focus on initial language acquisition to advanced composition courses with a focus on argumentation skills. (English 1A, 1B, 1C, 4, 5, Basic Writing 3, Workshops, Discussions, Computer Labs).
- Helped pioneer the implementation of the Computer Aided Instruction Program at UCR designed specifically for ESL students.
- Worked as a University representative to grade and present the results of the Subject A entrance writing proficiency test to high school students in schools affiliated with UCR.

Work Experience:
- Selected as an official Educational Testing Service grader from 1998 to present
- Committee member responsible for working as a liaison between graduate students and faculty. The committee was responsible for disbursing Teaching Assistantship funds and fellowships based on an extensive ranking process of all graduate students.
- Worked as a research assistant, a German translator, and copy editor.
- Chaired both the Fourth and Fifth Annual Graduate Student Conference at UC Riverside. The conference required extensive organization for the nearly forty panelists who participated each year. Responsibilities included publicizing the event, organizing panels thematically, securing funding from the university and the English Department, and inviting guest lecturers.

References	Dr. Brett Sallivan Associate Director Basic Writing (909) 703-4325x1213 Bsallivan@ucr.edu	Dr. Alexa Smith Director of ESL (909) 332-456X2341 Asmith@ucr.edu
	Prof. James Bines Director Basic Writing (909) 787-5301x1930 JamesBines@ucr.edu	Prof. Jonathan Ging Chair, Department of English (909) 345-3411x9847 JonGing@ucr.edu

Task Sheet #2: Directions and Resume Rubric

Directions--Construct your own resume for a job of your interest in a country of your interest (within the E.U or the U.S.A.).

Your personalized resume will be assessed on each one of the criteria of the following rubric.

Name of Student/Applicant ____

Component	**Point Value/Critique**
Content The cover letter contains at least three categories: Education Experience Relevant accomplishments	/45
Organization The information is organized: In a strategic way (the most relevant comes first) In a dynamic way (climactic to highlight the most important accomplishment) In a coherent way (arrangement allows the flow of information)	/45
Language The cover letter contains: Action verb sentences (five minimum) Substantial proof of the applicant's skills and qualifications (certification: title, institution of issue, date of issue, former employer: name, contact information, letters of recommendation: person who wrote them) Takes into consideration the social and cultural conventions of the country of the employer	/45
Mechanics/ Format Resume is characterized by: Few grammatical errors Professional layout Word processing	/45
Total Point Value	/180

Task Sheet #3: Action Verb List

Directions--Enhance the quality of your resume by using appropriate action verbs from the following list.

accumulated
achieved
adapted
addressed
administered
advised
analyzed
answered
anticipated
appraised
approved
arbitrated
arranged
ascertained
assembled
assessed
assigned
assisted
attained
audited
began
bought
brought
built
budgeted
calculated
cared for
catalogued
categorized
charted
checked
classified
coached
coded
collected
communicated
compiled
completed
composed
computed
conceived
conceptualized
conducted
confronted
consolidated
conserved
constructed

explained
expressed
extracted
facilitated
filed
financed
fixed
focused
formulated
found
gathered
generated
governed
grouped
guided
handled
harmonized
headed
heightened
helped
hurried
hypothesized
identified
illustrated
imagined
implemented
improved
improvised
increased
indexed
influenced
informed
initiated
innovated
inspected
inspired
installed
instituted
instructed
integrated
interacted
interpreted
interviewed
introduced
intuited
invented
inventoried

processed
produced
programmed
projected
promoted
proof-read
proposed
protected
proved
provided
publicized
purchased
questioned
raised
read
realized
reasoned
reassured
received
recommended
recorded
recruited
rectified
reduced
referred
regulated
rehabilitated
related
rendered
reorganized
repaired
repeated
reported
represented
researched
reshaped
resolved
responded
restored
retrieved
reviewed
revised
risked
scheduled
searched
selected
sensed

contracted
contributed
controlled
coordinated
copied
corresponded
counseled
created
dealt with
decided
defined
delegated
delivered
demonstrated
derived
designed
detailed
detected
determined
developed
devised
diagnosed
directed
disapproved
discovered
dispensed
displayed
disproved
dissected
distributed
diverted
dramatized
edited
effected
empathized
encouraged
endured
enhanced
enlarged
entertained
equipped
established
estimated
evaluated
examined
exhibited
expanded
experimented

investigated
kept
lectured
learned
led
listened
located
logged
made
maintained
managed
mapped
measured
mediated
memorized
mentored
met
moderated
modified
monitored
motivated
moved
navigated
negotiated
observed
obtained
offered
operated
ordered
oriented
organized
outlined
oversaw
participated
perceived
performed
persuaded
photographed
piloted
placed
planned
predicted
prepared
prescribed
presented
presided
printed
problem-solved

separated
served
set-up
shaped
showed
simplified
sketched
sold
solved
sorted
sought
spoke
straightened
streamlined
strengthened
studied
succeeded
summarized
supervised
supplied
supported
symbolized
systematized
synthesized
talked
taught
tested
timed
took
trained
transcribed
translated
treated
trouble-shot
tutored
typed
undertook
unified
united
updated
upgraded
used
utilized
verbalized
verified
volunteer
worked
wrote

This list has been excerpted from http://www.naz.edu/dept/career_services/resume.html#stresumeguide and has been modified to suit the purposes of the specific lesson.

Instructional Plan #5: Job Interview

Objectives

Content:	To prepare and practice for job interviews.
Language:	To learn the linguistic norms of job interviews.
Social:	To compare and contrast the social norms of job interviews in different countries.

	TESOL Strategies
Mega –Strategy 2: Teach the whole person – beliefs, body, brain, emotions, and culture, within a positive social environment.	
Strategy 2.5:	Ensure that learning is compatible with the cultural values and practices of the community.
Mega –Strategy 4: Maximize learning by basing performance on measurable outcomes.	
Strategy 4.5:	Adjust instruction to attain performance criteria.
Mega –Strategy 6: Teach skills systematically, building on primary language skills.	
Strategy 6.5:	Teach speaking in a way that sustains self-esteem and life-long self-expression.
Mega –Strategy 9: Use culture to teach language.	
Strategy 9.5:	Motivate the learner to achieve a bicultural identity.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials

Task Sheet #1:	Interview tips
Task Sheet #2:	Interview script
Task Sheet #3:	Interviews in different cultures
Task Sheet #4:	Peer Evaluation
Assessment Sheet:	Grading Rubric for Task Sheet #2
Chalk and blackboard	

Warm-Up: Instructor asks a student to volunteer and role-play a potential employer in an interview for a job for which the instructor intends to apply. After the instructor's intentionally poor performance, the instructor asks students to vote for or against the applicant.

Task Chain 1: To prepare and practice for possible job interviews.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #1 (Interview Tips) and conducts a discussion on its content, using the previous mock interview as a frame of reference.
2. Instructor groups students according to their professional interests and asks them to come up with a script for a possible interview in their area of professional interest on Task Sheet #2 (Interview Script). The answers to the questions invented are based on the interviewee.
3. Instructor has the students rehearse their scripts within their groups.
4. Instructor mixes the groups at the end of the session and has the students role-play their scripts. The person who interviews gives the interviewee two separate grades on language and interview behavior, based on Task Sheet #4 (Peer Evaluation).

Task Chain 2: To learn the linguistic norms of job interviews.

1. Instructor invites students to share their questions and responses from their Task Sheet #2 (Interview Tips).
2. Instructor completes and models students' scripts on the board.

Task Chain 3: To compare and contrast the social norms of job interviews in different countries.

1. Instructor conducts a short discussion on differences and similarities between the norms and the conventions of interviews in different countries.
2. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #3 (Interviews in Different Cultures) for homework.

Assessment

Formative:

1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the group work during class based on informed judgment.
3. Instructor evaluates each student's performance in the role-play of the mock interviews based on informed judgment.

Summative:

1. Instructor grades Task Sheets #2 (Interview Script) on a satisfactory/non-satisfactory basis for the questions and with the Assessment Sheet for the personal answers to the interview.
2. Instructor grades Task Sheet #3 (Venn Diagram) on a satisfactory /non-satisfactory basis.
3. Instructor grades Task Sheet #4 (Peer Evaluation) on a satisfactory/non-satisfactory basis.

Task Sheet #1: Interview Tips

Attitude	Present and promote yourself with the attitude of a winner who strives for excellence through words, but also through actions. Avoid becoming arrogant.
Dressing	Dress appropriately and neatly and follow the fashion of the field.
Practice	Test yourself in a mock interview before the real one.
Insider Information	Find updated and important information about the company's operations and future plans.
Interview Language	Become familiar with the buzzwords and the jargon used within the employer-company as well as within your professional field.
Evidence of Accomplishments	Provide tangible proof of your abilities. Convince through actual samples of your best work and be prepared to present them effectively.
Nonverbal Behavior	Keep eye contact, do not forget to smile, "stand tall, walk tall, sit tall," avoid artificial and theatrical gestures, and respect the personal space of the interviewer.

Task Sheet #2: Interview Script

Directions--(A) Based on a group discussion, please write in the space provided below five possible interview questions for a job in the professional field of your interest. (B) In the space provided below provide your personal answers to the list of questions. Each answer will be graded on a basis of grammatical correctness and appropriateness depending on the interview tips list and is worth 15 points.

Name of candidate:	
Professional field:	
Specific Job:	
Group Question:	
1. Personal Answer:	
Group Question:	
2. Personal Answer:	
Group Question:	
3. Personal Answer:	
Group Question:	
4. Personal Answer:	
Group Question:	
5. Personal Answer:	

Task Sheet #4: Interviews in Different Cultures

Directions for homework--(A) List the requirements for the above job interview in your home country and in a country of your choice from the European Union or the United States of America using the Interview Tips (Task Sheet #1) and your personal estimates. (B) Arrange the information above in a Venn Diagram.

Interview Aspects	**Home Country**	**Country from the European Union or the United States of America**
1. Attitude		
2. Dressing		
3. Nonverbal Behavior		
4. Evidence of Accomplishments		
5. Interview Language		

Task Sheet #4: Peer Evaluation

Name:	
Peer's Name:	
Work Evaluated:	Interview Performance
Specific job:	

Components	Well-done!	Needs some more work	Peer Tips
1. Interview Language:			
2. Interview Attitude:			
3. Interview techniques:			

After you complete this sheet, you are requested to give it to your peer (the interviewee) as a form of valuable feedback.

Assessment Sheet: Grading Rubric for Task Sheet #2 (Interview Script)

A	Excellent	140-150 points
B	Good	130-139 points
C	Satisfactory	120-129 points
D	Needs Work	110-119 points
F	Unsatisfactory Work	100-109 points

Instructional Plan #6: Meeting Presentation

Objectives

Content:	To employ oral and written presentation skills.
Social:	To demonstrate communication skills.

	TESOL Strategies
Mega –Strategy 3: Increase the learner's control, self-management, and self-motivation.	
Strategy 3.4:	Teach metacognitive strategies.
Strategy 3.6:	Teach academic/survival skills.
Mega –Strategy 6: Teach skills systematically, building on primary language skills.	
Strategy 6.1:	Teach skills in a way that enhances information acquisition and recall.
Strategy 6.5:	Teach speaking in a way that sustains self-esteem and life-long self-expression.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials

Focus Sheet:	Video Clip
Task Sheet #1:	Tips for Effective Presentations
Task Sheet #2:	Personal Presentation
Task Sheet #3:	Self Evaluation
Assessment Sheet #1:	General Scoring Rubric
Assessment Sheet #2:	Oral Presentation Rubric
Chalk and blackboard	
T.V. and V.C.R.	

Warm-Up: Instructor shows the first 10 minutes of a video-clip on Martin Luther King's famous speech "I have a dream." Through this Focus Sheet the instructor elicits students' prior knowledge and interest in relevance to public speaking and asks them to think of communicators that they consider exemplary and why.

Task Chain 1: To employ oral and written presentation skills.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #1 (**Tips for Effective Presentations**) and goes through it with students to outline the major characteristics required for the construction of the content of a presentation.

2. Instructor assigns Task Sheet #2 (Personal Presentation) together with the Assessment Sheet (Oral Presentation Rubric).

Task Chain 2: To demonstrate communication skills.

1. Students do an introductory presentation of the topic that they selected to the class.
2. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #3 (Self Evaluation).

Assessment:

Formative--

1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the shared activities based on informed judgment.

Summative--

1. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 (Personal Presentation, Written Part) with Assessment Sheet #1 (General Scoring Guide).
2. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 (Personal Presentation, Oral Part) with Assessment Sheet #2 (Oral Presentation Rubric).

Task Sheet #1: Tips for Effective Presentations

Preparation	Organization. Select the remarks and arguments for your presentation and ascertain your expertise in this material. Structure your presentation coherently around a beginning, middle and an end. Rehearsal. Arrange for an authentic rehearsal in front of other people. Dressing. Dress appropriately and in respect of your audience.
Basic Preparation Style	Opening. Evoke your audience's interest by an opening that directly alludes to the main issue of your presentation. Verbal Behavior. Facilitate your audience's understanding with a clear enunciation and a comprehensible pace that is relieved of unnecessary and confusing pauses. Nonverbal Behavior. Try to appear relaxed, natural and confident. Avoid reading from your notes, and keep eye contact with your audience. Capture your audience. Convince your audience of your sincere investment in your content, avoiding, however, "fanatic intensity."
Content	Quantity. Do not overload your presentation. Quality. Select and organize your material in a way that will deliver your message to the audience in a beneficial way.
Materials	Handouts. Facilitate your audience with a presentable, well organized and well written handout. Plan in advance for its distribution. Visual Aids. Make sure they are relevant and readable. Always bring a second copy.

Task Sheet #2: Oral Presentation

Directions--(A) You have been selected by your department to present a problem of your professional community in front of a committee of administrators and propose a solution. Specify your topic and make an outline of your intended presentation according to the tips provided in Task Sheet #1 (Tips for Effective Presentations).

(B) For homework, you are required to--1. Develop the outline of part (A) into full text, and 2. Prepare to conduct an oral presentation on this paper and also remember that this presentation seeks to argue for/against a particular point. Therefore, you need to convince your audience of something. You need to determine which arguments should be placed where and which will be the most effective.

Task Sheet #3: Self Evaluation

Directions--By reflecting on the mini oral presentation that you conducted in the classroom, try to find your strong and weak points as a communicator. The instructor will not evaluate this Sheet.

1. What was the best part of my oral report?	
2. Did I provide the audience with a clear statement about my topic?	
3. What are the things I need to improve?	
4. Did I achieve my presentation objectives?	
5. What will I use in my final presentation to facilitate my audience?	

Assessment Sheet # 1

General Scoring Rubric			
Grade	Percentage	General Score	Paper Description
A	90-100%	Excellent	A Paper: This paper fulfills all the requirements for the assignment and may do so in an interesting and creative way. The paper will be clearly organized, demonstrate the ability to use transitions, and will usually include additional research. Examples used in the paper will clearly relate to the predominant theme and flow smoothly with other sections of the essay. An A paper will often use examples in an innovative and interesting manner, which not only help support the thesis/theme but become part of it. A papers employ excellent word choice, and use sophisticated sentences effectively. An A paper looks professional and contains few if any mechanical errors.
B	80-89%	Very Good	B Paper: This paper is clearly competent and follows the requirements of the assignment. It presents a thoughtful response, and employs appropriate examples and sensible reasoning. Examples used will be strong, but may not be fully integrated into the text or explained. A B paper is usually less fluent and complex in style than an A paper and will often have some organizational problems. A strong theme/thesis will be apparent in a B paper, but it may lack the transitions necessary to get from point to point. B papers usually have some mechanical errors which do not impede with understanding the text, but could have been avoided.

General Scoring Rubric			
Grade	Percentage	General Score	Paper Description
C	70-79%	Satisfactory	C Paper: This paper may lose focus and usually suffers from organizational problems. A theme/thesis may be present, but it will have serious problems in relation to the rest of the paper. Examples may not function in the context of the paper or may be left unexplained. C Papers will usually not employ outside research, nor will much care be put into organizing the material. Transitions in C papers are often rough and very discernible. Mechanical errors will be problematic for the reader, but will not solely determine the grade. The prose of this paper is usually characterized by one of the following: imprecise word choice, little sentence variety, occasional major errors in grammar and usage, or frequent minor errors.
D	60-69%	Unsatisfactory	D Paper: This paper will have serious problems with its theme/thesis (the thesis may not clearly relate to the assignment, may be confusing or incomplete). D papers have serious structural problems and usually drift from the topic. Mechanical errors will be abundant, and transitions will be sporadic and marginally effective. Examples will not fit logically into the paper and will not be clearly explained. D papers employ simplistic or inaccurate word choice, monotonous or fragmented sentence structure, repeated errors in grammar and usage. Additionally, a D paper often looks unprofessional and may seem as if no care went into its' production.
F	<59%	To be revised	

Assessment Sheet: Oral Presentation Rubric

Your oral presentation will be assessed on each one of the criteria of the following rubric.

Name of Student/Applicant ___________________________________

Component	**Point Value/Critique**
Content The presentation refers to: Main points of the paper Effective opening Effective ending	/45
Structure The information is organized: In a strategic way In a dynamic way In a coherent way	/45
Presentation Skills The presenter: Keeps eye-contact with the audience Modifies voice, pace, tone appropriately Has professional appearance	/45
Supporting Materials The oral presentation has at least one of the following: Handouts Visuals PowerPoint	/45
Total Point Value	**/180**

Instructional Plan #7: Negotiation Tips

Objectives

Content:	To distinguish between successful and unsuccessful negotiation techniques.
Language:	To utilize Business English vocabulary of negotiation in a short presentation.
Social:	1. To work cooperatively in groups. 2. To take responsibility for one's contribution in-group assignments.
CALL:	To use Word Drawing Tools to arrange information into a graphic organizer.

	TESOL Strategies
Mega -Strategy 3: Increase the learner's control, self-management, and self-motivation.	
Strategy 3.2:	Adapt instruction to learner's varying styles.
Strategy 3.3:	Teach cognitive strategies.
Strategy 3.4:	Teach metacognitive strategies.
Strategy 3.5:	Teach social-affective strategies.
Strategy 3.8:	Use computers to assist language learning.
Mega -Strategy 8: Understand cultural patterns of instruction.	
Strategy 8.1:	Understand the role of language and culture in instruction.
Strategy 8.4:	Help the learner to construct meaning.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials:

Task Sheet #1:	Negotiation Tips List
Task Sheet #2:	Negotiation Tips Graphic Organizer
Assessment Sheets:	Graphic Organizer Rubric Self-Evaluation
Technological Equipment (for 15 students):	Hardware--Six Pentium IV computers Software-- Windows 98, Word for Windows, Microsoft Power Point Microsoft Publisher Internet access Scanner Laser color printer LCD projector Class web site

Warm-Up: Instructor elicits students' knowledge on the meaning and importance of negotiation, as well as their personal interpretation of "effective negotiation" through a discussion. Instructor asks students for possible definitions of negotiation as well as what traditionally can be negotiated.

Task Chain 1: To distinguish between successful and unsuccessful negotiation techniques.

1. Instructor puts students in groups of three and distributes Task Sheet #1 (Negotiation Tips List).
2. Instructor asks students questions to make sure that they comprehend the instructions and she allots fifteen minutes for them to complete the assignment.
3. Instructor circulates from group to group to facilitate the discussion and to monitor students' individual contribution to group work for formative assessment.

Task Chain 2: To use Word Drawing Tools to arrange information into a graphic organizer.

1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #2 (Negotiation Tips Graphic Organizer) and guides students through the assignment instructions by demonstrating the instructions on the computers in the sequence of the following steps.
2. Instructor asks students to visit the class website and copy the list of Task Sheet #1 (Negotiation Tips List) into a Word document and save that document on the desktop and their Floppy Disks.
3. Instructor locates the Word Drawing toolbar on the computer and demonstrates the various capabilities of the Word Drawing Tools.
4. Instructor asks students to cut and paste the negotiation tips into their graphic organizers.
5. Students present their graphic organizers to the rest of the class and explain their organizational methodology and their reasoning for particular tip placement.
6. Instructor distributes Assessment Sheet #2 for self-evaluation.

Assessment:

Formative-

1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the group work during class based on informed judgment.
3. Instructor evaluates group work graphic organizer printouts based on informed judgment.

4. Instructor evaluates the individual contribution to the in class presentation of their graphic organizer based on informed judgment.

Summative--

1. Instructor grades Task Sheet #1 (Negotiation Tips List) on a satisfactory/non-satisfactory basis.
2. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 (Negotiation Tips Graphic Organizer) using the Assessment Sheet.

Task Sheet #1: Negotiation Tips?

Directions—A) The following table lists 19 negotiation strategies that can be either successful or unsuccessful. Read through the list and label each negotiation tip with an S (successful) or a U (unsuccessful) in the appropriate space. B) Write a short comment in the appropriate space whether this tip would be particularly useful in your culture or in another culture.

Successful or Unsuccessful	Comment	Negotiation Tip
		Aim high. Ask for more than you expect to receive, and offer less than you are actually willing to pay. Be an optimist, but know when to stop. Establish your limit, and go no further.
		Be patient. This is very difficult for Americans who want to get everything over with quickly. Whoever has more time and is more flexible has the advantage.
		Be prepared. Knowledge is power in negotiating. When you know a lot about the deal, and understand the other side's position well, you will probably get exactly what you want. Ask "What do they need?" "What pressures are they under?" "What are their options?"
		Be willing to walk away. When you know your limit and are willing to walk away with no deal, you are in a strong position. Occasionally you might lose a deal, but in the long run you are the winner. Frequently, the other side will be more willing to give concessions if they see you are serious about walking away or saying no to a bad deal.
		Concentrate on disagreements. It is tempting to go straight to the problem in the deal. This creates a deadlock. Start with and emphasize the points of agreement, no matter how small. This gives the other side hope that compromise is possible on the big issues.

Successful or Unsuccessful	Comment	Negotiation Tip
		Delay. Time is the enemy of every deal. We all have second thoughts about committing ourselves. As time goes by, we are more likely to think that we might be making a mistake.
		Do not accept the first offer. If you do, the other negotiators will think they could have done better. Believe it or not, they will feel more satisfied if you turn down the first offer. Then when you do say "yes," they will feel that they have gotten the best deal possible. Be willing to ask "Is this the best deal you can offer me?"
		Do not listen. Most of us assume the other side wants to take away that which is most important to us. Listening carefully to the other side's position often allows you to solve their problem at a very low cost to you.
		Do not make the first move. Whenever possible, get the other party to make the first move. They may ask for less than you think. If you make the first move, you may give away more than is necessary.
		Do not put things in writing. This is the most common negotiating mistake. All deals must be put in black and white. Misunderstandings occur easily. Never let a deal fall through because something was not put in writing.
		Everything is negotiable. You can ask, offer, counter offer and suggest alternatives.
		Focus on satisfaction. It is important that both sides feel satisfied. Do not confuse needs with wants. Remember that their position is what they say they want; their basic interests are what they really need to get.

Successful or Unsuccessful	Comment	Negotiation Tip
		Ignore the marketplace. Everyone wants to buy low and sell high. If you insist on paying less than market value, you will either never be able to buy anything or you will end up buying something that was not of value in the first place.
		Make continuous counteroffers. Some people cannot quit when they are ahead. Dragging out the negotiations with multiple counteroffers decreases the chance of ever reaching a friendly agreement.
		Negotiate against yourself. Good negotiators will ask you to do better before they respond to your last position. Do not fall for it!
		Show the value of your offer. If you make a win-win offer, make sure the other side recognizes the benefits and advantages of your offer. Do not assume that the other side understands the benefits to them.
		Smile even when you are saying "No." Speaking angrily will weaken your position. Learn to say no firmly while still being polite.
		Take unreasonable positions. Unreasonable positions create distrust and distrust ruins deals. When something is overpriced, for example, the buyer wonders what is wrong with the business. On the other hand, if a buyer offers a lowball offer, the seller may feel insulted and angry.
		Treat the other party as an enemy. People want to do business with people they like. Listening to the other side will often help you get a better and an easier deal. Making enemies will get you a lack of cooperation.

Based on Sudlow, M (1998). Business English. U.S.A. Monmouth, OR: Excellence in Education Publications

Task Sheet #2: Negotiation Tips Graphic Organizer

For this assignment you will use Word Drawing in Word for Windows to construct a graphic organizer with at least five different shapes and lines. Please cut and paste each tip to its corresponding location in the graphic organizer. Use additional draw features such as fill or font color to spice up your presentation.

1. Boot up the computer.
2. Open Word for Windows.
3. Open Internet Explorer, proceed to the class website.
4. Cut and paste the tips for negotiation into a new word document that you create and save on your Desktop and Floppy disk under the name "Negotiation Tips."
5. To make the Drawing Toolbar appear on your screen, click on Tools, Customize and tick Drawing.
6. To choose a shape, left click the cursor on the box with the shape of your preference and draw it on the page by continuously left-clicking to drag your cursor. This is the basic way to use Word Drawing shapes. By using AutoShapes you have the opportunity to insert many other graphics, including arrows, caption boxes, stars etc. Practice with numerous forms to see what functions best.
7. To position a shape on the page, left click on the shape and drag it wherever you want by keeping the mouse left-clicked.
8. To adjust the size of a shape, right-click on it and move the cursor onto the little squares that appear around the shape. When the cursor becomes a double point arrow, left click continuously to adjust the size according to your preference.
9. To construct your graphic organizer, you have to use at least five different shapes.
10. To interconnect the shapes you insert, you can use the icons of arrow or line or the AutoShapes Lines: click on the appropriate box and then draw by left clicking continuously and by using the mouse and the cursor as if the latter were a pencil.

11. To color your shapes, left-click the paint bucket icon and fill your shapes with an appropriate positive (for Successful) or negative (for Unsuccessful) color.

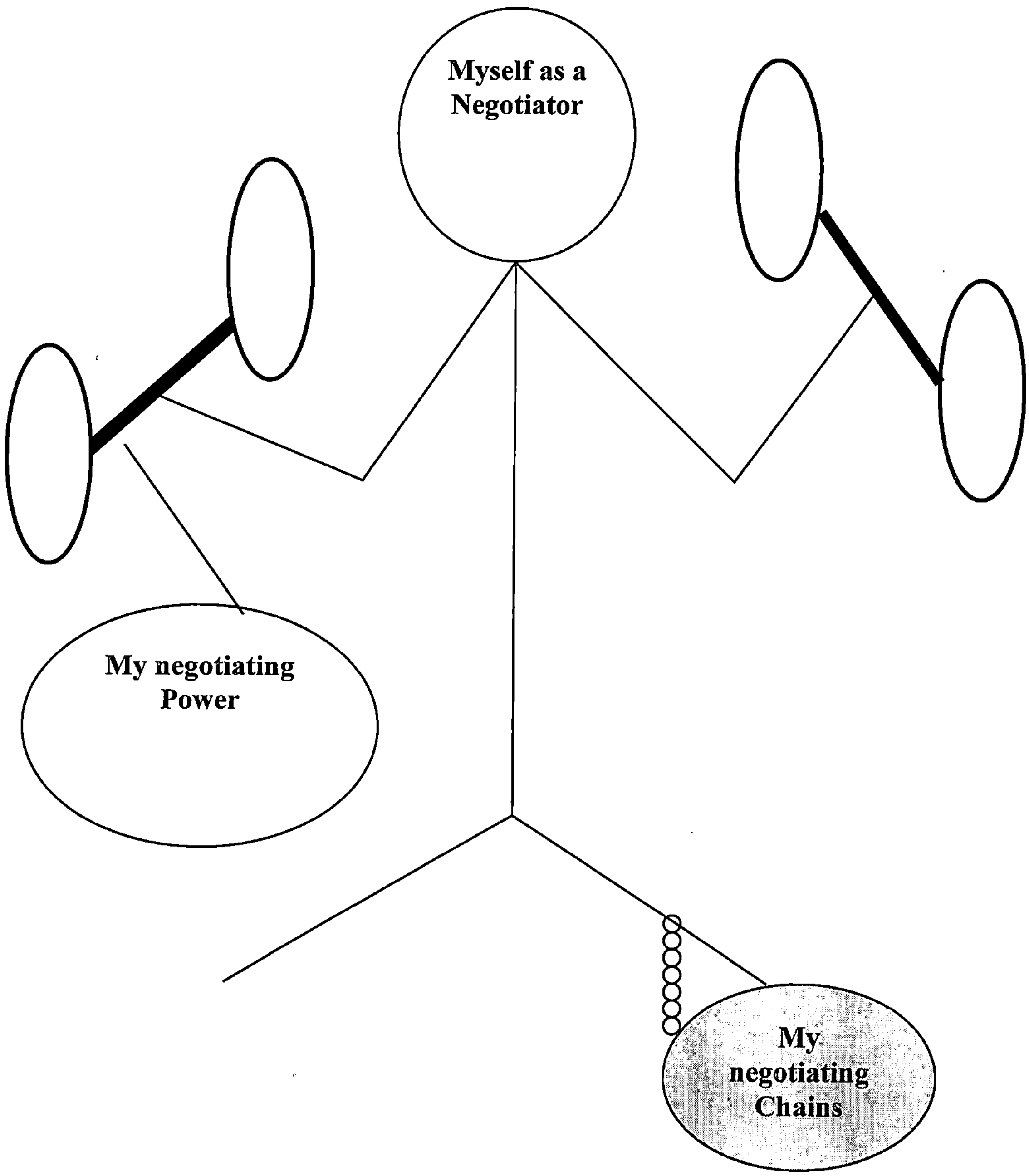
12. To insert the tips into the shapes: a) Insert a Text Box within the shape. Cut and Paste appropriate tip into the box from the "Negotiation Tips" document. Or b) right click on the shape and Add Text and then cut and paste or type.
13. To complete the task, you have to provide the instructor with a printout of your graphic organizer.
14. Each member of your group should contribute to an in-class short presentation of your "Negotiation Tips Graphic Organizer."

Assessment Sheet #1: Graphic Organizer Rubric

Assessment Criteria for Task Sheet #1	**Comments**	**Points**
Graphic organizer contains nineteen tips for successful/unsuccessful negotiation		/10
Graphic organizer contains at least five different shapes		/10
Graphic organizer contains at least five different connecting lines		/10
Text is appropriately adjusted into each dialogue-graphic		/10
Graphic organizer is presentable, readable, and clearly displays content		/10
Total Point Value		**/180**

Assessment Sheet #2: Self Evaluation

Fill out the chart to recognize your personal negotiation skills. This sheet is not to be assessed by the instructor.



Instructional Plan #8: Negotiation Breakdowns

Objectives

Content:	To construct a cross-cultural dialogue using negotiation techniques.
Language:	To utilize Business English vocabulary to deal with simulated business interactions.
Social:	To work cooperatively in groups.
	To discuss different cultural values in connection to negotiation.
CALL:	To use Word Drawing and Clipart from Word and the Web to construct a dialogue between two representatives of companies from two different countries that might too easily misunderstand each other.

	TESOL Strategies
Strategy 2.5:	Ensure that learning is compatible with the cultural values and practices of the community.
Strategy 2.7:	Place learning in the context of contemporary social change.
Mega –Strategy 3: Increase the learner's control, self-management, and self-motivation.	
Strategy 3.7:	Combine English and content teaching.
Strategy 3.8:	Use computers to assist language learning.
Mega –Strategy 8: Understand cultural patterns of instruction.	
Strategy 8.1:	Understand the role of language and culture in instruction.
Strategy 8.4:	Help the learner to construct meaning.
From Diaz-Rico, L. T. (2003). TESOL Strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.	

Materials

Focus Sheet:	Cultural Stereotypes
Task Sheet #1:	Clipart and Dialogue-Graphics
Task Sheet #2:	Cross-Cultural Dialogue
Assessment Sheet #1:	Rubric for Task Sheet #1
Assessment Sheet #2:	Rubric for Task Sheet #2

Warm-Up: Instructor shows Focus Sheet and elicits students' knowledge on the meaning of stereotypes. Students and instructor hold a short discussion by answering the questions on the Focus Sheet.

Task Chain 1: To construct a cross-cultural dialogue using negotiation techniques.

1. Instructor puts students in groups of three and distributes Task Sheet #1 (Cultural Stereotypes).
2. Instructor guides students through the instructions by illustration and demonstration of the different tasks. Students have twenty minutes to complete this assignment.
3. Instructor circulates from group to group to facilitate the members' interaction and distribution of tasks so that every member has an equal participation.
4. Instructor conducts a discussion with the students on their stereotypes as illustrated on their completed Task Sheet #1 (Cultural Stereotypes).

Task Chain 2: To use Word Drawing and ClipArt from Word and the Web to construct a Cross-cultural Dialogue.

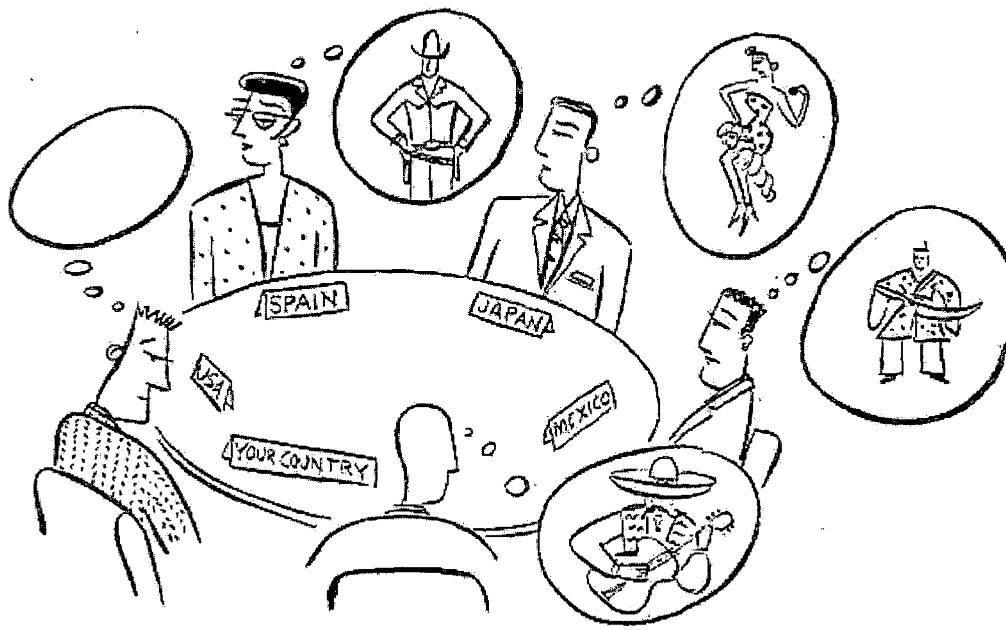
1. Instructor distributes Task Sheet #2 (Clipart and Dialogue Graphics) and makes sure that students understand the instructions for the assignment.
2. Students begin constructing their dialogue graphics that they have to complete as homework.

Assessment:

Formative--
1. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the class discussion based on informed judgment.
2. Instructor evaluates each student's contribution to the group work during class based on informed judgment.
3. Instructor evaluates group work graphic organizer printouts based on informed judgment.

Summative-
1. Instructor grades Task Sheet #1 (Cultural Stereotypes) on a satisfactory/non-satisfactory basis.
2. Instructor grades Task Sheet #2 (Clipart and Dialogue Graphics) using Assessment Sheet.

Focus Sheet: Cultural Stereotypes



1. What stereotypes do these people have about each other?
2. What stereotypes are there of people from your country?
3. How do we get stereotypes? Where do they come from?

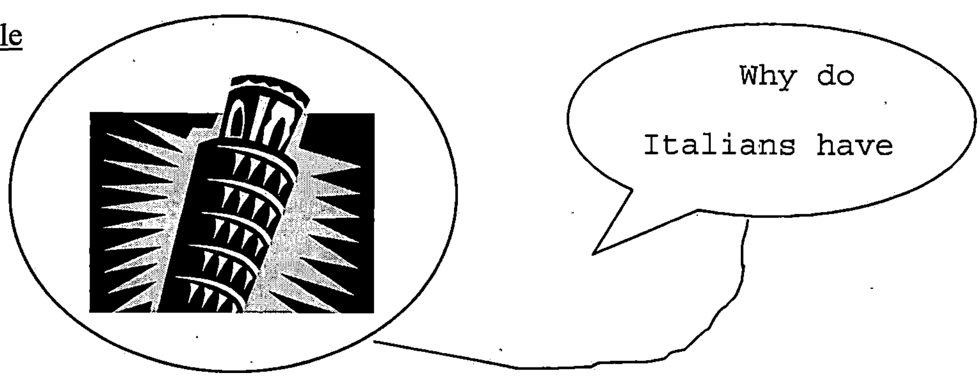
Excerpted from English, L. M. & Lynn, S. (1995). *Business across cultures*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Task Sheet #1: Clipart and Dialogue-Graphics

For this assignment, you will use Word Drawing in Word for Windows to construct a combination of clipart and dialogue-graphics. A) You will select five Clipart images that correspond to five countries of your choice. B) You will construct five appropriate dialogue-graphics that illustrate your stereotypes about the people from these countries. C) You may use additional draw features such as fill or font color to spice up your presentation.

1. Boot up the computer.
2. Open Word for Windows.
3. Create a new Word document.
4. Locate the drawing toolbar and insert on your page five different shapes of your choice.
5. To find a variety of Clipart, a) left click on the shape you want to insert the clipart in, b) left-click on the shape and Add Text and c) left click the cursor on the Insert Clipart icon.
6. To select a specific clipart, a) use the Microsoft clipart suggestions, or b) go to Clips Online.
7. To insert the clipart in the shape you have chosen, right click on the clipart and then left click on Insert.
8. To adjust or generally intervene in your clipart, right-click on the clipart so that the Picture Toolbar appears. Make your adjustments according to the icons-commands that appear.
9. To insert a dialogue graphic, use the Word Drawing Toolbar Callouts and use the dialogue graphic or your choice. Insert and adjust it on your page as a shape.
10. To insert text in the dialogue graphic, left click on it and then type a phrase that represents some stereotypical notion that you have about the people of the country you chose.
11. To link the clipart with the dialogue graphic, use AutoShapes Lines.
12. To complete the task, you have to provide the instructor with a printout of your assignment.

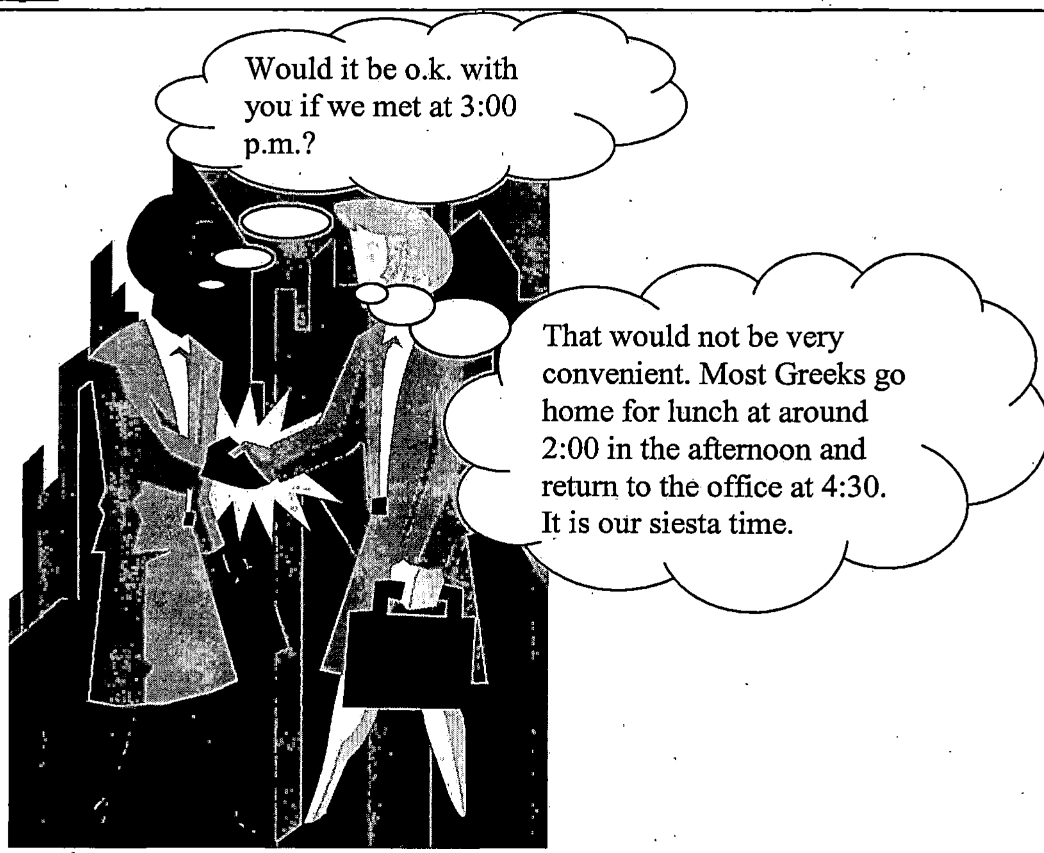
Example



Task Sheet #2: Cross-Cultural Dialogue

Directions--A) Select one of the five countries you chose for Task Sheet #1 as the country and culture within which you will be sent as a business representative of your company. B) You have been asked by your company to contact the representative from this other country to secure a scheduled meeting time, place, and agenda topics to discuss business expansion. C) Construct a dialogue that includes: five Cliparts, five dialogue graphics, ten appropriate captions (two for each Clipart), cultural implications for each interaction and a negotiation suggestion according to the "Negotiation Tips" list for each interaction.

Example



Cultural Implication: The African American woman is used to working from 9:00-5:00, many times without lunch. The Greek woman, however, is not used to that type of working environment. Although Greeks work often as many hours, their days are segmented differently.
Negotiation Suggestion: Smile even when you are saying "No." You would probably have to explain to the African American representative that the meeting could not be held at 3:00 p.m. for this is a siesta time for the Greeks.

Assessment Sheet #1: Rubric for Task Sheet #1

Assessment Criteria for Task Sheet #1	**Comments**	**Points**
Five appropriate Cliparts		/15
Five different shapes		/15
Five dialogue graphics		/15
Appropriate use of space		/15
Five meaningful captions		/20
Mechanics: correct use of grammar and syntax		/20

Assessment Sheet #2: Rubric for Task Sheet #2

Assessment Criteria for Task Sheet #2	**Comments**	**Points**
Five appropriate Cliparts		/20
Ten dialogue graphics (captions) and appropriate text for each graphic		/20
Five cultural discussion points		/20
Five negotiation suggestions		/20
Mechanics: Correct use of grammar and syntax		/20

REFERENCES

Addison, J., & Wilson, H. (1991). From writing lab to writing center: Reinventing, advancing, and expanding. In R. Wallace, & J. Simpson (Eds.), The writing center: New directions (pp. 56-71). New York & London: Garland Publishing, Inc.

Ahmad, K., Corbett, G., Rogers, M., & Sussex, R. (1985). Computers, language learning and language teaching. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Auerbach, E. (1995). The politics of the ESL classroom: Issues of power in pedagogical choices. In J. W. Tollefson (Ed.), Power and inequality in language education (pp. 9-33). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ayman, R. (1994). Leadership and the glass ceiling. In K. Cushner, & R. W.Brislin (Eds.), Multicultural aspects of counseling series: Vol. 2. Improving Intercultural Interactions: Modules for cross-cultural training programs (pp. 74-87). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Barnett, R., & Rosen, L. (1999). The WAC/Writing center partnership: Creating a campus-wide writing environment. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), Writing centers and writing across the curriculum programs: Building interdisciplinary partnerships (pp. 1-12). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Beller-Kenner, S. (1999). CALL issues: Introducing students to computers. In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical issues (pp. 362-385). Alexandria, VI: TESOL.

Bhatia, V. K. (1993). Analyzing genre: Language use in professional settings. New York: Longman Publishing.

Bhawuk, D. P. S., & Triandis, H. C. (1998). The role of culture theory in the study of culture and intercultural training. In D. Landis, & R. S. Bhagat (Eds.), Handbook of intercultural training (2nd ed.) (pp. 17-34). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Brett, J. M. (2001). Negotiating globally: How to negotiate deals, resolve disputes, and make decisions across cultural boundaries. San Francisco: Jossey Bass A Wiley Company.

Brislin, R., & Yoshida, T. (1994). Intercultural communication training: An introduction. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bruffee, K. (1995). Peer tutoring and the "conversation of mankind". In C. Murphy, & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 87-98). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published 1984).

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards, & R.Schmidt (Eds.), Language and communication (pp. 551-573). New York: Longman Publishing.

Carino, P. (1995). What do we talk about when we talk about our metaphors: A cultural critique of clinic, lab and center. In C. Murphy, & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 37-46). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published in 1992).

Chapelle, C. A. (2001). Computer applications in second language acquisition: Foundations for teaching, testing and research. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Daggatt, G., & Griffin, T. (1990). The global negotiator: Building strong business relationships anywhere in the world. United States: Harper Business.

Dalin, P. (1998). School development: Theories and strategies. London: Cassell.

Diaz-Rico, L., & Weed, K. (2002). The cross-cultural, language, and academic development handbook. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Diaz-Rico, L. T. (in Press). TESOL strategies. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Dimmock, C. (2000). Designing the learning-centred school: A cross-cultural perspective. London and New York: Falmer Press.

Donna, S. (2000). Teach business English. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Drake, T., & Roe, W. (1994). School business management: Supporting instructional effectiveness. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. (1998). Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Dunkel, P. (1991). The effectiveness research on computer-assisted instruction and computer-assisted language learning. In P. Dunkel (Ed.), Computer-assisted language learning and testing: Research issues and practice (pp. 5-30). New York: Newbury House.

Ellis, M., & Johnson, C. (1994). Teaching business English. New York: Oxford University Press.

Fairclough, N. (1989). Language and power. New York: Longman Publishing.

Fanon, F. (1967). Black skin white masks. New York: Grove Press.

Gaer, S. (1999). Classroom Practice: An introduction to e-mail and World Wide Web projects. In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical issues (pp. 65-78). Alexandria, VT: TESOL.

Gesteland, R. R. (1996). Cross-cultural business behavior: Marketing, negotiating and managing across cultures. Copenhagen, Denmark: Copenhagen Business School Press.

Gimenez, J. C. (2001). Ethnographic observations in cross-cultural business negotiations between non-native speakers of English: An exploratory study. English for Specific Purposes, 20, 169-193.

Glickman, C., Gordon, S., & Ross-Gordon, J. (1995). Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gudykunst, W. B., & Kim, Y. Y. (1992). Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gudykunst, W. B., Guzley, R. M., & Hammer, M. R. (1996). Designing intercultural training. In D. Landis, & R. S. Bhagat (Eds.), Handbook of intercultural training (2nd ed.), (pp. 61-80). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Hack, W., Candoli, I., & Ray, J. (1995). School business administration: A planning approach (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Hall, C. (1998). Overcoming the grammar deficit: The role of information technology in teaching German grammar to undergraduates. Canadian Modern Language Review, 55(1), 41-60.

Hall, E. T. (1959). The silent language. Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc.

Healy, D. (1995). A defense of dualism: The writing center and the classroom. In C. Murphy, & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 179-190). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published in 1993).

Healy, D. (1999). Classroom practice: Communicative skill-building tasks in CALL environments. In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith, CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical issues (pp.116-136). Alexandria, VT: TESOL.

Hendon, D., & Hendon, R. (1990). World-class negotiating. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Herring, S. C. (Ed.). (1996). Computer-mediated communication: Linguistic, social and cross-cultural perspectives. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Hertz, R. M. (1987). Computers in the language classroom. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.

Higgins J., & Johns, T. (1984). Computers in language learning. Aylesbury, UK: Collins ELT & Addison-Wesley.

Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture's consequences. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Holmes, M. (1990). A delicate balance: Leadership or stewardship. In K. Leithwood, & D. Musell (Eds.), Understanding school system administration: Studies of the contemporary chief education officer (pp. 241-272). Bristol, PA: The Falmer Press.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). English for specific purposes. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.), Sociolinguistics. Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.

Job research results. (2002). Retrieved April 19, 2002, from http://www.monster.com

Johnston, S., & Speck B. (1999). The writing center as ambassador plenipotentiary in a developing WAC program. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), Writing centers and writing across the curriculum programs: Building interdisciplinary partnerships (pp. 13-32). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Kahmi-Stein, L. D. (2000). Looking to the future of TESOL teacher education: Web-based bulletin board discussions in a methods course. TESOL Quarterly, 34(3), 423-455.

Kuriloff, P. (1999). Writing centers as WAC centers: An evolving model. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), Writing centers and writing across the curriculum programs: Building interdisciplinary partnerships (pp. 105-118). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Lam, W. S. E. (2000). L2 Literacy and the design of the self: A case study of a teenager writing on the Internet. TESOL Quarterly, 34(3), 457-482.

Lawton, S, & Scane, J. (1990). Centralize,decentralize, control and liberate: CEO's views of restructuring school systems. In K. Leithwood, & D. Musell (Eds.), Understanding school system administration: Studies of the contemporary chief education officer (pp. 273-286). Bristol, PA: The Falmer Press.

Louhiala-Salminen, L. (2002). The fly's perspective: Discourse in the daily routine of a business manager. English for Specific Purposes, 21, 211-231.

Lunsford, A. (1995). Collaboration, control, and the idea of a writing center. In C. Murphy & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 109-116). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published 1991).

Master, P. (1998). Positive and negative aspects of the dominance of English. TESOL Quarterly, 32(4), 717-722.

McCrum, R., Cran, W., & MacNeil, R. (1986). The story of English. New York: Elizabeth Sifton Books.

Moore, R. (2001). The writing clinic and the writing laboratory. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), The Allyn and Bacon guide to writing center theory and practice (pp. 3-9). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. (Original work published in 1950).

Morgan, G. (1986). Images of organization. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Mulholland, J. (1999). E-mail: Uses, issues and problems in an institutional setting. In F. Bargiella-Chiappini, & C. Nickerson (Eds.), Genres, media and discourses. Essex, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Munshi, D., & McKie, D. (2001). Toward a new cartography of intercultural communication: Mapping bias, business, and diversity. Business Communication Quarterly, 64, 9-22.

Murphy, C. (1995). Writing centers in context: Responding to current educational theory. In C. Murphy, & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 117-126). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published in 1991).

Murphy, C., & Law, J. (2001). Writing centers and WAC programs as infostructures: Relocating practice within futurist theories of social change. In R. Barnett & J. Blumner (Eds.), The Allyn and Bacon guide to writing center theory and practice (pp. 458-472). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. (Original work published in 1999).

Murray, D. E. (2000). Protean communication: The language of computer-mediated communication. TESOL Quarterly, 34(3), 397-421.

Nayar, B. (1997). ESL/EFL dichotomy today: Language politics or pragmatics? TESOL Quarterly, 31(1), 9-37.

North, S. (1995). The idea of the writing center. In C. Murphy, & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 71-86). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published in 1984).

Norton, B. (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. TESOL Quarterly, 31(3), 409-429.

Pattanayak, D. P. (1981). Multilingualism and mother tongue education. Delhi, NY: Oxford University Press.

Pennycook, A. (1994). The cultural politics of English as an international language. London: Longman Publishing.

Pintos dos Santos, V. B. (2000). Genre analysis of business letters of negotiation. English for Specific Purposes, 21, 167-199.

Porter, R. E., & Samovar, L. A. (1988). Approaching intercultural communication. In R. E. Porter, & L. A. Samovar (Eds.), Intercultural communication: A reader (5th ed.) (pp. 1-26). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Porter, R. E., & Samovar, L. A. (1997). An introduction to intercultural communication. In R. E. Porter, & L. A. Samovar (Eds.), Intercultural communication: A reader (8th ed.) (pp. 1-26). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Robinson, P. (1991). ESP today: A practitioner's guide. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall International.

Rodis, K. (2001). Mending the damaged path: How to avoid conflict of expectation when setting up a writing center. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), The Allyn and Bacon guide to writing center theory and practice (pp. 176-188). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. (Original work published in 1990).

Nazareth College. (n.d.). Sample cover letter. Retrieved April 19, 2002, from http://www.naz.edu/dept/career_services/coverletters.html

Nazareth College. (n.d.). Sample resumes. Retrieved April 19, 2002, from http://www.naz.edu/dept/career_services/resume.html#stresumeguide

Siegel, J. (1999). Stigmatized and standardized varieties in the classroom: Interference or separation? TESOL Quarterly, 33(4), 701-728.

Sivert, S., & Egbert, J. (1999). CALL Issues: Building a computer-enhanced language classroom. In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical issues (pp.41-64). Alexanddria, VI: TESOL.

Skinner, B. (1957). Verbal behavior. New York: Appleton, Century, Croft.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2000). Linguistic genocide in education-or worldwide diversity and human rights? Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Smith, L. (2001). Independence and collaboration: Why we should decentralize writing centers. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), The Allyn and Bacon guide to writing center theory and practice (pp. 408-414). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. (Original work published in 1986).

Smith, S. L., Paige, M. R., & Steglitz, I. (1998). Theoretical foundations of intercultural training and applications to the teaching of culture. In D. L. Lange, C. A. Klee, M. R. Paige, & Y. E. Yershova, (Eds.), CARLA working paper series: Vol: 11. Culture as the core: Interdisciplinary perspectives on culture teaching and learning in the language curriculum (pp. 53-91). St Paul, MN: University of Minessota: Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition: Institute of International Studies and Programs.

Sudlow, M. (1998). Business English U.S.A. Monmouth, OR: Excellence in Education Publications.

Swales, J. M. (1990). Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

The Euro: Europe takes changeover in its stride. (n.d.) Retrieved April 17, 2002, from http://www.euronews.com

Underwood, J. (1989). Linguistics, computers, and the language teacher: A communicative approach. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Vilsteren, V. (1999). Leadership in schools. In A. J. Visscher (Ed.), Managing schools toward high performance: Linking school management theory to the school effectiveness knowledge base (pp. 163-212). Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Mind in society. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Waldo, M. (2001). The last best place for writing across the curriculum: The writing center. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), The Allyn and Bacon guide to writing center theory and practice (pp. 415-425). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. (Original work published in 1993).

Waldo, M. & Madruga, M. (1999). Finding common ground when WAC writing center directors meet neurotic pride. In R. Barnett, & J. Blumner (Eds.), Writing centers and writing across the curriculum programs: Building interdisciplinary partnerships (pp. 59-70). Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Wallace, R., & Simpson, J. (1991). Introduction to the collection. In R. Wallace, & J. Simpson (Eds.), The writing center: New directions (pp. xiii-xxvi). New York & London: Garland Publishing, Inc.

Wallace, R. (1995). The writing center's role in the writing across the curriculum program: Theory and practice. In C. Murphy, & J. Law (Eds.), Landmark essays (pp. 191-196). Davis, CA: Hermagoras Press. (Original work published in 1989).

Walsh, C. (1991). Literacy as praxis: A framework and an introduction. In C. Walsh (ed), Literacy as praxis: Culture, language, and pedagogy (pp. 1-22). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Warschauer, M. (1996). Computer-assisted language learning: An introduction. In S. Fotos (Ed.), Multimedia language teaching (pp. 3-20). Tokyo: Logos International.

Warschauer, M. (1999). Electronic literacies: Language, culture, and power in online education. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Warschauer, M. (2000). The changing global economy and the future of English teaching. TESOL Quarterly, 34(3), 512-535.

Widdowson, H. G. (1990). Aspects of language teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wilber, K. (2000). A theory of everything. Boston: Shamballa Publications, Inc.

Witziers, B. (1999). Coordination and control in education. In A. J. Visscher (Ed.), Managing schools toward high performance: Linking school management theory to the school effectiveness knowledge base (pp. 97-134). Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger.

Yeok-Hwa Ngeow, K. (1999). Classroom Practice: Enhancing and extending learning styles through computers. In J. Egbert, & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical issues (pp.302-325). Alexandria, VI: TESOL.

ASSIGNED RESPONSIBILITIES

This was a two-person project where authors collaborated throughout. However, for each phase of the project, certain authors took primary responsibility. These responsibilities were assigned in the manner listed below.

Writing Report and Presentation of Findings

Introduction

Team Effort: Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki and Lash Keith Vance

Review of the Literature:

Critical Theory and the Spread of English: Lash Keith Vance

School Program Administration: Lash Keith Vance

English for Business Purposes: Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki

Intercultural Training in English for Business Purposes: Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki

Computer-Assisted Language Learning: Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki

Writing Centers in English for Business Purposes:

Lash Keith Vance

Theoretical Framework

Team Effort: Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki and Lash Keith Vance

Curriculum Design and Instructional Plans

Team Effort: Roumpini Aikaterini Papadomichelaki and Lash Keith Vance