Guide to lecturing and teaching in English

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Kent Lee
Center for Teaching & Learning
Korea University

kentlee7@gmail.com, kentlee@korea.ac.kr
www.kentlee7.com
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Introduction

This booklet explores the issues that I have found to be most problematic for Korean professors who are required to teach in English or use English in their professional careers.

The first set of problems come from how English has been imposed upon you, and how it has been made unnecessarily stressful for you. There are some natural cognitive barriers, too, but this is exaggerated by negative pressures and a lack of good English teaching that most Koreans have suffered under. Most people are not aware of these problems and how they hinder their language development and their ability to use English.

The next obvious set of difficulties lies in pronunciation. However, the most serious problems are not with vowels and consonants, but with the stress (or "accent"), intonation and rhythm, which constitute an important difference between Korean and English. The stress system is particularly difficult, because the English stress system is very complex, while Korean has no such stress system.

From there, we go on to issues of vocal delivery, presentation skills, and structuring lectures. The difficulty here is compounded by having to lecture in a foreign language. The final problem is the class style. Too many professors still rely on a traditional lecture style. This can be because it is all they have known, they have never been exposed to modern teaching methods, and because of the pressure to cover all the course contents. However, covering all the contents may not be practical if the students simply forget most of the lecture contents after the course is over. Professors also tend to fall back on a pure lecture style because of their nervousness about English, and they find it more comfortable to speak from a script or set of PPT slides than to speak freely and naturally. Some ideas are sketched out for making classes more interactive and interesting, as well as more intellectually stimulating.

The good news is that you can save yourself some energy and discomfort by not speaking for the whole class time, especially if you do not like lecturing in English. Modern educators have embraced more modern, interactive teaching methods. You can do so, too, not only for the sake of your English discomfort and your students' English limitations, but also because it makes for more effective, in-depth learning. Interactive methods and other strategies are discussed in a later chapter in this booklet.

My website [www.kentlee7.com] contains more reference materials that provide more information on a number of these areas. You can also look at my website for some lectures on professional development that I have done for graduate students, but are also mostly relevant to your situation: emi.kentlee7.com.
Cognitive and affective factors

In discussing the challenges facing professors who must lecture in English, we must first understand the cognitive and affective challenges that hinder them in their teaching and professional effectiveness in English. These pose significant psychological barriers that people are often unaware of.

1. Assumptions and ideas about language learning

Below are some common beliefs or assumptions about learning a second language [L2]. Which ones are correct?

- Learning depends on imitation, practice, repetition, and correction
- Learning depends on memorization (e.g., learning rules or X amount of words)
- Learning depends on intelligence – very smart people should be good language learners
- Learners should learn perfect pronunciation
- Learners can learn everything inside a classroom
- Inducements like rewards, incentives or bonuses can help you learn and perform better.
- Factors like motivation, attitudes, learning goals, personality, verbal skills, anxiety, inhibitions, social / cultural interaction, extroversion / introversion, social identity and others can greatly affect language learning

Much research in learning psychology has shown that traditional classroom methods like rote memorization and drilling are at best of limited effectiveness. Memorization involves no natural linguistic or social context, which is required to effectively learn vocabulary, grammar, and language. Thus, after memorizing rules and vocabulary, people forget most of what they have memorized within days, weeks, or months. We know that language learning requires real input, such as reading and social interaction. Intelligence is not necessarily a strong predictor of language learning ability. More important factors are the motivation that one has; one's openness to taking risks by practicing the language and being willing to learn from mistakes; one's openness to other cultures and ways of thinking; being extroverted; and having realistic goals for learning. Inducements and rewards are not as effective as one might think. This causes learners to focus on the reward (or exam score, admission to a good school, a good job) rather than actually understanding the language. Thus, their language learning tends to be superficial and limited, because they are overly focused on performance than real learning, conceptual understanding, and practical skills in the language for communication.

You do not need “perfect” pronunciation, as this is impossible for most people. Most people in the world speak English as a second language, and thus speak it with an accent (Indian, Singaporean, Chinese, Israeli, South African, Nigerian, Turkish, etc.). You do not need native-like pronunciation. You only need pronunciation that is good enough to be intelligible – so that others can understand you.
2. **L2 learning and processing**

There are several major cognitive hindrances for Koreans learning and using English as an L2.

1. **Age effects of learning a language when older, as opposed to learning a language through natural or communicative methods when younger.** Due to changes that occur in the brain around puberty, once a person is in his/her teenage years, it becomes harder to learn a second language so easily or naturally.

2. **Significant linguistic differences exist between Korean and Western languages like English.**

3. **Traditional methods of language teaching have commonly been used for teaching English in Korea, which are ineffective, and do not teach really English, and shortchange students. Teaching methods that focus on oral communication and actual language use are necessary for meaningful language learning.**

4. **Automaticity.** The mind and brain process an L2 differently and less efficiently than the L1. In using your L1, most things are automatic – processing grammar, recognizing words and such – while your working memory handles the contents and meaning. In using an L2, the brain is much less efficient and less automatic. The working memory has to do more language processing (grammar, words, and such), making for less efficient processing of meaning. Thus, comprehension is weaker, more energy consuming, and tiring. Attaining mental efficiency in an L2 takes many thousands of hours of exposure.

There are no easy solutions to these problems, especially the automaticity problem. One needs simply to expose the mind to the L2 regularly and consistently over time, with input like the following.

- Extensive reading
- Exposing oneself to English media
- Using the L2 outside of class

Using a foreign language outside of class may be difficult, since English is not used much outside of classroom contexts in Korea. The best approach is to expose yourself to English regularly and consistently. You will need to expose yourself to audio and video media materials, ranging from lectures to entertainment materials. Doing a large amount of reading is particularly helpful, over time, for developing more mental efficiency (automaticity). This involves intensive and extensive reading. Intensive reading is carefully reading a text, such as publications in your field, multiple times for a full understanding. Also important is doing a large amount of extensive reading. This means reading materials from different genres and topics, without trying to understand everything; the purpose is to provide your brain English input, exposure and training. This means reading academic and non-academic materials on any topic of interest, including popular and entertainment materials. Reading is the best way also to develop better vocabulary knowledge and knowledge of how words are used. In choosing media and reading materials, it is important to choose materials that you find interesting or informative. Avoid materials written for language learning; these are artificial and boring, and will cause you to lose your motivation. For extensive reading, choose materials that do not have too much new vocabulary; otherwise, the flood of unfamiliar vocabulary over time will overwhelm you and hurt your motivation.

3. **Motivation**

How motivated are you about using English? How about your motivation for doing research? Does working under a research quota help or hinder your motivation? Where does your
motivation fall in the following continuum, for areas like language learning, research, and teaching?

1. **Intrinsic (internal) motivation**: You do it because you really want to, and/or you really enjoy it; and you gain some sense of growth or personal development.

2. **Utility motivation (internalized extrinsic)**: You have come to see it simply as useful, important, valuable, or necessary to you personally. Your attitude is neutral, without a sense of stress or resentment.

3. **Extrinsic (external) motivation**: You do it for some other reason, such as:
   - because you are concerned about your performance
   - because you are concerned about how others view your performance
   - because you are a perfectionist
   - simply because you have to – an obligation or something imposed upon you
   - because you expect some reward or incentive
   - to avoid some kind of negative consequences

Intrinsic motivation is the strongest and most successful, but hardest to cultivate. This consists of the following psychological components. Understanding these may explain why you cannot motivate yourself to do your work (or certain aspects thereof).

1. **Autonomy**: You do it solely because you want to and/or you enjoy it – i.e., with a full sense of your free will, and personal interest / choice / desire.

2. **Growth / Competence**: You gain a sense of growth, self-improvement, discovery, learning, mastery, expertise, or other personal benefit that is important to you, and the experience makes you feel better (it may even enhance your self-esteem).

3. **Connectedness**: You gain a sense of belonging, connection with others, or developing relationships with others (or the potential to do so) as a result of what you are doing, or in the process of doing it.

Do you think that rewards, incentives, or bonuses really help you to do better in [1] English-mediated instruction, or [2] research and publications? These generally induce an extrinsic motivation. The type of motivation that you operate under actually affects how well you learn and work, in whatever area you examine. Extrinsic motivations often lead to [1] more mechanical and rote learning methods such as rote memorization, [2] more superficial learning, and [3] more concern about performance and what others think of you, rather than actual learning. Intrinsically motivated individuals tend to be more focused on deeper learning, effective learning strategies, and enjoyment of what they do. They actually try to understand concepts and contents, while extrinsically motivated individuals do not; the latter are more concerned with acquiring some factual knowledge for shorter term results, rather than conceptual knowledge and deeper understanding for long-term purposes.

Before considering other aspects of English usage below, it is first necessary then to do some soul searching, to reflect on, assess, and clarify your goals and motivations toward [1] your research; [2] teaching; and [3] teaching in English.

- Consider your expectations of yourself, including perfectionist attitudes. Deep down, what are your expectations?
- Where do these expectations and attitudes come from – from past teachers, parents, society...?
- Are they realistic? Are they healthy?
A first step is uncovering your deep-down motivations, and the sources of these motivations. Then you can begin consciously renouncing these sources of unnecessary stress, pressure, and discouragement. From there you can try to embrace English simply as a useful, neutral tool for your research and teaching – a utility motivation. You might not fall in love with English and develop a genuine intrinsic motivation, but that is fine. At least a neutral attitude is an important, practical step toward overcoming self-doubt and anxiety that will hinder you as an English user.

4. Starting your self-improvement program

If you find English to be stressful, discouraging, or a source of pressure, or if you do not feel confident about your English skills or your ability to improve your English, then you first need to do some soul-searching to discover what has hurt your motivation or confidence about English. If you have motivation problems, then your study methods will not be very effective, no matter how much effort you put into it. If you can identify your motivation problems and what negative pressure or feedback in your past caused it, this is the first necessary step. It might have been pressure from your parents or teachers, or being compared with others (e.g., 엄친아), unrealistic social expectations or pressure, or unrealistic expectations of yourself that you have internalized or adopted. Then you can begin to embrace English as simply a neutral tool for your research and teaching.

As mentioned earlier, finding media and reading materials that you find interesting or informative is important for improving your English. Materials that are too difficult, beyond your current level, or uninteresting will affect your motivation. Finding interesting materials and regularly reading or watching them may be a helpful first step to rebuilding your motivation and interest in improving your English. The following offers a few ideas to start with.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>media materials</th>
<th>reading materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>academic</strong></td>
<td>• books and articles in your research area (including materials for intensive reading)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• books and articles in other research areas and other fields (extensive reading)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• online academic lectures – in your field, related fields, or unrelated fields</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• TED.com videos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• educational Youtube channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• documentaries, educational TV channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>popular, informative</strong></td>
<td>• non-academic non-fiction books and periodicals, e.g. those written for an educated audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• news sites, news magazines, newspapers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>popular, entertainment</strong></td>
<td>• any kind of entertainment and leisure reading that you like, such as fiction, comics, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• entertainment videos (Youtube, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• films, TV shows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• songs, especially with lyrics (song lyrics can be found via Google)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Common ESL pronunciation issues among Koreans

The following are the main difficulties that Korean (and other Asian) speakers have in pronouncing English as a second language. These include vowels, consonants, stress, and rhythm issues.

1. Vowels

1.1. Long vowels

Asian learners tend to make long vowels sound just like the short vowels, leading to potential confusion. English has long vowels, which are not only longer, but more tense (/i:/), or have off-glides, that is, they are really a blend of two vowels.

1. short /ɪ/ as in bit versus long /i:/ or /iy/ as in beet
2. short /ɛ/ as in red versus long /ei/ as in raid
3. short /ɔ/ as in taught versus long /ɔʊ/ or /ou/ as in tote
4. short /ʊ/ as in look versus long /u:/ or /uw/ as in Luke

Confusingly, dictionaries published in Korea may not use the correct phonetic symbols for these vowels. Many of them use /i/ and /i:/ for the bit-beet pair, respectively. However, these vowels are pronounced differently. For /i/ the tongue muscle is relaxed (“lax” vowel), while it is tensed for /i:/; the same holds true for the lax /o/ cf. tense /u:/; In stressed syllables, the tense /i:/ and /u:/ are slightly longer than their Korean counterparts /i/ and /u/, respectively; e.g., key is slightly longer than /ki/.

Many Korean dictionaries incorrectly use the symbols /e/ and /e:/ for the red-raid pair, respectively. However, these vowels are also pronounced differently, with the raid vowel being a double vowel (diphthong), starting as /e/ and blending or gliding into an /i/, rather like Korean /e/. The taught-tote vowels are also different; the /ɔ/ is short, like /o/, while /ou/ is a long glided vowel that starts as /ɔ/ and glides into /ou/, like /əu/.

1.2. Other vowels

The vowel /æ/ is pronounced with the jaw and front of the tongue extra-low; Asians tend to confuse it with /ɛ/. The schwa /ə/ is very similar to /ʌ/, which is fairly similar to Korean /a/; but /ə/ occurs only in unstressed syllables and is extra-short, while /ʌ/ occurs only in stressed syllables and is normal length.

1. low /æ/ as in ‘bad’ versus /e/ as in ‘bed’
2. The vowel known as schwa /ə/ should be extra-short compared to normal vowels like /ʌ/; [.] = minor stress, [.] = main word stress (final -le is so short that one often does not hear the schwa – the /l/ itself comprises this light, unstressed syllable).

unforgétable  /ˌʌnˌfɔːrˈgetəbl/
1.3. Vowel alternations

Long or tense vowels often become lax when suffixes are added, especially -y suffixes like -ity, -ory. The following alternations can be useful for practicing academic English. For example, cave /keiv/ becomes cavity /kævɪtɪ/. The unstressed syllables are often extra-short /ɨ/ or /ə/. Thus, these words are also good for practicing the rhythm of long, short, and extra-short syllables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ei/ → /æ/</th>
<th>cave</th>
<th>cavity</th>
<th>grade</th>
<th>gradual</th>
<th>grave</th>
<th>gravity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>humane</td>
<td>humanity</td>
<td>opaque</td>
<td>opacity</td>
<td>table</td>
<td>tabular</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/iː/ → /ɛ/</th>
<th>brief</th>
<th>brevity</th>
<th>clear</th>
<th>clarity</th>
<th>convene</th>
<th>conversion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>deceive</td>
<td>deception</td>
<td>extreme</td>
<td>extremity</td>
<td>receive</td>
<td>reception</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ai/ → /ʌ/</th>
<th>collide</th>
<th>collision</th>
<th>dendrite</th>
<th>dendritic</th>
<th>ignite</th>
<th>ignition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mine</td>
<td>mineral</td>
<td>prescribe</td>
<td>prescription</td>
<td>tyrant</td>
<td>tyranny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ou/ → /ɔ/</th>
<th>code</th>
<th>codify</th>
<th>episode</th>
<th>episodic</th>
<th>microscope</th>
<th>microscopic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mode</td>
<td>modular</td>
<td>psychosis</td>
<td>psychotic</td>
<td>verbose</td>
<td>verbosity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/uː/ → /ʊ/</th>
<th>consume</th>
<th>consumption</th>
<th>induce</th>
<th>induction</th>
<th>resume</th>
<th>resumption</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>abstain</td>
<td>abstention</td>
<td>pronounce</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>saline</td>
<td>salinity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| others               | abtain        | abstention | pronounce | pronunciation | saline | salinity |

2. Consonants

The <th> sounds are made with the tongue tip behind the front teeth. More often, the /ð/ occurs in function words (the, this, that...) and words with Old English endings (-e, -er, -est, -en, etc., as in bathe, lather, farthest, heathen); the /θ/ occurs in other words, especially in academic or technical words from Latin and Greek.

The sounds /s/ and /z/ use the same tongue position; they are exactly the same, except that the vocal cords vibrate for /z/. The /z/ should never sound like the Korean ㅈ.

For the <th> sounds /ð/ and /θ/, the tongue tip lightly touches behind the upper teeth; one should not put too much force or energy into these sounds.

The /z/ is made just like /s/ - the tongue position is exactly the same, but with the vocal cords vibrating; it should not sound like ㅈ. The sounds /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ are made with the tongue tip pointing to, but not touching, the roof of the mouth, and /ʒ/ involves vocal vibration. The sounds /ʧ/ and /ʤ/ are made with the tongue tip touching the roof of the mouth; they should not sound like ㅈ, which is made with a flat tongue. The sounds /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ are made with the tongue curled up, with the tongue tip pointing toward or touching the palate (the roof of the mouth), while ㅈ and ㅅ are made with a flat tongue.
Flat tongue position for Korean ＼; position is similar for ㅉ, with the front surface of the tongue touching the palatal area (“roof of the mouth”) above.

Retroflex (curled up) tongue position for /ʃ/ and /ʒ/; position is similar for /q/ and /ʤ/, but touching the palatal area with the tongue tip.

The /l/ is produced with the tongue tip touching the gum ridge behind the teeth; for the /r/ the tongue does not touch, but points toward the gum ridge or the roof of the mouth, and lets air vibrate as it flows around the tongue (compare rare, lair, rail). The /l/ and /v/ sounds are pronounced with the lower lips creating friction against the upper teeth. The /v/ is voiced, i.e., produced by vibrating the vocal cords. These sounds should not sound like /p/ or /b/.

2.1. Consonant clusters

Be careful not to insert extra vowels and syllables into consonant clusters like these.

gram, scheme, skewer, splinter, sputum, squiggle, smartphone, cleansed, kilns, glimpsed

2.2. Consonant practice

One can practice these sound contrasts with the following examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/s/ → /z/</th>
<th>scion</th>
<th>Zion</th>
<th>deceased</th>
<th>president</th>
<th>abuse</th>
<th>to abuse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/z/ → /ʒ/</td>
<td>Caesar</td>
<td>seizure</td>
<td>composer</td>
<td>composure</td>
<td>loose</td>
<td>luge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/ → /ʃ/</td>
<td>cell</td>
<td>shell</td>
<td>eraser</td>
<td>erasure</td>
<td>accomplice</td>
<td>accomplish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/ → /ʒ/</td>
<td>Aleutian</td>
<td>allusion</td>
<td>Confucian</td>
<td>confusion</td>
<td>mesh</td>
<td>measure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʒ/ → /ʤ/</td>
<td>version</td>
<td>virgin</td>
<td>leisure</td>
<td>ledger</td>
<td>beige</td>
<td>page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʧ/ → /ʤ/</td>
<td>charred</td>
<td>Chester</td>
<td>jester</td>
<td>etching</td>
<td>edged</td>
<td>beseech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/θ/ → /ð/</td>
<td>thigh</td>
<td>thy</td>
<td>bath</td>
<td>bathe</td>
<td>north</td>
<td>northern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/ → /θ/</td>
<td>sick</td>
<td>symbol</td>
<td>thick</td>
<td>thimble</td>
<td>unsinkable</td>
<td>ensues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z/ → /ð/</td>
<td>breeze</td>
<td>breathe</td>
<td>rising</td>
<td>writhing</td>
<td>close</td>
<td>scythe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the following Latin word stem changes, where another consonant becomes /ʒ/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/d/ → /ʒ/</th>
<th>/z/ → /ʒ/</th>
<th>/ʧ/ → /ʤ/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conclude</td>
<td>conclusion</td>
<td>exclude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collide</td>
<td>collision</td>
<td>explosion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delude</td>
<td>delusion</td>
<td>include</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>divide</td>
<td>division</td>
<td>persuade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>decision</td>
<td>provision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confuse</td>
<td>confusion</td>
<td>transfuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transfuse</td>
<td>revision</td>
<td>revise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supervise</td>
<td>supervision</td>
<td>supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revert</td>
<td>reversion</td>
<td>inversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convert</td>
<td>conversion</td>
<td>diversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>invert</td>
<td>scythe</td>
<td>press</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10
Watch out for these sounds at the end of words. There should not be an extra syllable at the end.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ʃ/</th>
<th>/ʒ/</th>
<th>/ʧ/</th>
<th>/ʤ/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
<td>selfish</td>
<td>beige</td>
<td>church</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>squamish</td>
<td>rouge</td>
<td>deluge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reddish</td>
<td>outlandish</td>
<td>barrage</td>
<td>mirage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For practice, you can try the following tongue twisters.

1. Sally sells seashells by the seashore. So if Sally sells seashells by the seashore, where are the seashells that Sally sells?
2. There once was a fisherman named Fisher,
   Who fished for some fish in a fissure.
   Till a fish with a grin,
   Pulled the fisherman in.
   And now they’re fishing the fissure for Fisher.
3. The sixth sick sheik’s sixth sheep’s sick.
4. He thinks he’d rather get married when he’s thirty-three years old.
5. Is this your sister’s sixth zither, sir?
6. Three free thugs set three thugs free.

3. **Rhythm: Stress**

Stressed syllables are pronounced with greater volume, they are noticeably longer than unstressed syllables, and they are marked by a rising and/or falling intonation with the stress. Asians tend to make the following errors: (1) not hearing short, unstressed syllables; (2) pronouncing all syllables equally strong – no stress or unstressed rhythm; (3) putting stress on the wrong syllables; (4) omitting unstressed syllables in speaking; or (5) putting in extra vowels, especially after difficult-to-pronounce consonants, which alter the rhythm of the word. Hence, a Korean speaker might mispronounce *somatoform* as *smartphone* (스마트포므). English stress is produced by the following means.

- volume (amplitude) – stressed syllables are louder
- length (duration) – stressed syllables are longer
- pitch change – the intonation rises and/or falls on stressed syllables

Stressed syllables are pronounced with greater volume, they are noticeably longer than unstressed syllables, and they are marked by a rising and/or falling intonation with the stress. Asians tend to make the following errors: (1) not hearing short, unstressed syllables; (2) pronouncing all syllables equally strong – no stress / unstressed rhythm; (3) putting stress on the wrong syllables; or (4) omitting unstressed syllables in speaking. Longer words can have a main (primary) stress and a secondary (minor) stress.

Longer words can have a main (primary) stress and a secondary (minor) stress. In words like these, there should be a clear difference between stressed and unstressed syllables.

```
about       /ˈɒbˈaʊt/   unacceptable /ˌʌnəˈkæptəbəl/
```

English syllables have three different stress levels:
Furthermore, there are several kinds of stress in English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Stress</th>
<th>Description and Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word stress (lexical stress)</td>
<td>accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative, latch on to the affirmative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound stress</td>
<td>backbone, field mouse, the White House</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrasal stress</td>
<td>a white house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence stress</td>
<td>I grew up in a white house, but I doubt I’ll ever live in the White House.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Word stress**: Word stress is very complicated in English, as stress patterns depend on which language the words come from (most commonly, Latin, Greek, French or Old English), and how common the word is. These stresses need to be pronounced clearly, with an intonation rise and fall and greater length than unstressed syllables, and the unstressed syllables need to be shorter, lighter, and with little intonation (but still audible).

Stress placement is relative to the end of the word, i.e., by counting X number of syllables from the end. Below, the last syllable is designated “-1”, the next-to-last is “-2”, the third from the end is “-3”, and so on. In shorter, more common words, they tend to be on the final (“-1”) or pre-final (“-2”) syllables. In longer academic words, usually from Latin, they tend to be on the second or third syllable from the end (so-called -2 or -3 position). French words have the main stress on the final (-1) syllable. Adding some suffixes causes the stress to shift, and/or sometimes changing the vowels (as in the vowel alternations above), while some suffixes have no such effects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Word Types</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Old English stress</td>
<td>-1 or -2</td>
<td>Old English words and other common, shorter words</td>
<td>butter, object / object, regard, greater, final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin stress</td>
<td>-2 or -3</td>
<td>most academic words and words of 3+ syllables</td>
<td>accentuate, pronunciation, lugubrious, isomerism, teleological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French stress</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>words and suffixes from French</td>
<td>baguette, attendee, picturesque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek prefix stress</td>
<td>prefix</td>
<td>some Greek prefixes</td>
<td>kilogram, television, megabyte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffix → stress shift</td>
<td>-2/-3</td>
<td>-ity, -ic, -ory, -ion, -ial, -ian, -iary, -ious, -eous</td>
<td>nacional – nationality – nationalistic democracy – democratic pronounces – pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffix → no stress shift</td>
<td>-2, -3, -4...</td>
<td>most other suffixes (but may induce vowel alternations)</td>
<td>nation – national, nationalism democratic – democratically</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Compound stress**: Compound words most often have the main stress on the first component.

- onion chopper
- greenhouse
- bad-mouth
- White House
- back engineer
- upgrade
Abbreviations usually show an opposite pattern. Each letter has equal stress except the last letter, which has the main stress (one exception is abbreviated personal nicknames like É.J., with the main stress falling on the first letter).

NHŚ   FBÍ   CPŔ   ETÁ   ROḰ

**Sentence stress:** Within sentences, the major words, called content words (nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs) are more strongly stressed than the other minor words, or function words. On top of that, clauses and sentences have intonation patterns, which are connected with the sentence stress pattern: the most important word of a clause is more strongly stressed than the other words – often the last major word of a clause that is most important. The stressed words (in bold) below would coincide with rising and/or falling intonation, and these nouns would be more strongly stressed than other major word in these clauses.

The mechanic cheated the unsuspecting **customer**, so the customer then **sued** the mechanic.

4. **Other components of rhythm**

For Korean speakers of English, it may not be necessary to speak English with all the following natural speech phenomena (especially if the audience consists of Koreans), but the following are important because [1] Koreans need to know these in order to comprehend English as spoken by native English speakers, who usually use such features in speaking, and [2] to avoid speaking English with incorrect Korean-style blendings.

**Linking (liaison):** To pronounce more easily, we often link words together – especially minor or shorter words. Similar sounds can be joined across words (e.g., ‘all~live’ below), and a final vowel or consonant of one word can link with a vowel at the beginning of the following word (e.g., We~all, in~a). Linking makes it easier to pronounce words together quickly and fluently.

*We~all~live~in~a yellow submarine.*

*Dr. Nabob~Pratt~developed~a warp~propulsion engine which~uses carbon~nanotubes for structural~integrity.*

**Consonant air release.** Stop consonants [p, b, t, d, k, g] are formed by stopping and releasing the airflow. At the end of words, the airflow is not released, unless it links with a similar consonant in the following word. With a stop consonant is followed by a different consonant (within a word or between words), the first one is made with the tongue simply stopping the airflow and not releasing it [’], and thus, not a full consonant is produced.

The stop~gap~measure didn’t~help the~up~rooted vic~tims.

A stop~consonant~cannot be held~continuously.

**Reduction:** In casual and fast speech, many minor words are reduced, with unstressed vowel sounds or sounds omitted, e.g.:

you → ya /ya/  to → /tə/  can → /kən/  could have → /kədəv/

**Blending:** Some sounds are blended together, leading to informal contractions, especially minor words with /y/ sounds; e.g.:

could you → couldja  don’t you → doncha  give me → gimme
In speaking, you do not need to necessarily use reduction and blending as native speakers do, but you do need to be aware of these when you need to understand naturally spoken English. More importantly, Korean speakers transfer their Korean-style blendings into English, which will render words unintelligible. So Koreans should take care to avoid transferring the following blending patterns in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean pattern</th>
<th>Incorrect English blendings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n+l</td>
<td>download → dowlload, download</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l+n</td>
<td>all night → all light, alright</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k+m</td>
<td>book maker → boorj-maker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d+n</td>
<td>hard night → harn night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p+l</td>
<td>upload → ubnoad, upnoad, umnoad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>η+l</td>
<td>hang loose → hang noose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t+l</td>
<td>outline → oudnine, oun-nine, oul-line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s+l</td>
<td>outline → oudnine, oul-line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>η-n</td>
<td>song list → song nist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Practicing pronunciation and general English skills

Contrary to popular belief, you do not need to sound like a native English speaker. Most speakers of English in the world speak English as a second language, with a non-native accent. Attaining a fully native-like accent is not realistic, nor is it necessary. What is important is that your pronunciation is simply clear enough to be understood by others.

Improving pronunciation in a second language is very difficult, in part due to the challenge of learning new sound categories and matching them with speech production, all of which is harder with an adult brain (which is not as linguistically flexible as a child's brain). Thus, one short course in pronunciation cannot magically improve your pronunciation. This course, rather, is designed to make you aware of your own pronunciation issues, and what your speech organs need to do differently in pronouncing English (as the English phonology, or linguistic sound system, is very different than the Korean system). It is up to you to continue practicing outside of class, and hopefully the materials in this booklet (and the websites below) will be helpful for your own study.

Again, you will need to practice on your own. You can use the materials from this book for your own practice outside of class. You can also practice speaking by talking to yourself (or to a pet, your child, etc.), and you may find it helpful sometimes to speak in front of a mirror and watching what your speech organs do, particularly for working on vowels and consonants. You can also listen to English audio and video materials, and imitate it by repeating after the speaker (sometimes called “shadowing”). It might be helpful to use audio / video software like the VLC media player (see below), which can slow down the playback speed.

Improving pronunciation in a second language is difficult; it takes time, effort, and motivation, and you may be too busy to invest much time in this. Nonetheless, here are some things that might be helpful.
1. **Use authentic materials**, that is, real English media materials (video and audio) and reading materials, rather than just English textbooks and artificial materials produced for ESL (English as a second language) studies. Natural materials are more motivating and lead to better learning and retention of what you have learned. It is best to choose materials where the amount of words that you do not know is not more than 2% of the total contents; otherwise, you will find it difficult understand and may lose interest and motivation. You can and should use a variety of materials, from academic to popular – materials that are informative, interesting or fun, such as materials in your field of study, other fields, and general interest. They should be materials that you find informative, interesting, or fun, in order to maintain your interest and motivation to study.

2. **Watching videos** with subtitles, or listening to audios with accompanying printed text (read-aloud books, songs with printed lyrics, etc.). Since many such media are freely available on the Internet, you can find whatever genre you like for practice. Videos with subtitles or transcripts are ideal, such as TED.com talks and some music videos on Youtube. Some universities that offer free online lectures also have transcripts available for their lecture videos.

3. **Repeating and shadowing**. Listening to video or audio materials, and repeating after the speakers (“shadowing”). Imitating their pronunciation and intonation can be helpful, if the materials are interesting to you. Avoid overdoing this, or using materials that are uninteresting to you, or you may become tired or discouraged.

4. **Reading**. Reading can help your overall language skills, especially vocabulary; it can also reinforce the mental connections between words and their pronunciations. It will be helpful to read a variety of materials, from different genres, such as reading materials within your field of study, materials outside your field, and popular reading materials for interest and leisure. Most of all, they should be materials that you want to read – materials that you find informative, interesting, or entertaining.

5. **Think in English**. Making yourself think in English sometimes can be a means of rehearsal or practice. Thinking to yourself and even talking to yourself in English can be helpful when you do not have access to native English speakers for practice.
Presentation and vocal delivery

This section summarizes specific presentation and speaking skills that can be taught to students, be it for a full presentation, debate or classroom discussion activity. These include basic methods for planning and organizing a presentation, slide design, delivery technique, dealing with ESL (English as a second language) issues, and use of presentation software.

1. Planning, organization

In planning a lecture, it is important to organize the talk around 3-5 main points. Regardless of how you come up with ideas for the lecture, developing an outline (be it on paper, or mentally) is helpful, especially if you lecture in English. When planning a talk from an outline, it is then possible to prioritize items in the outline. You can identify which parts are more important, and which parts can be skipped, or covered more quickly. While giving a talk, if you find yourself behind, then you can omit those items, or just quickly touch on them.

- A talk consists of 3-5 main points (thus, 3-5 main sections)
- Each main point consists of 3-5 subpoints
- Following an explicit 3-5 structure is better for listeners’ memory (short-term memory can hold about 5 items)
- Thus, it is easier for listeners to follow the flow of a talk
- Helps to prioritize for time management
- If using PPT, plan for about one slide per minute (generally)

After planning the contents, next the presenter needs to plan the introduction, and then some transitional expressions between the main points and subpoints. Effective introductions consist of one or more of the following.

- Establish relevance, connection or rationale
- Provide an interesting example or question
- Provide an overview of your contents (organizer)

Transitional expressions (or “sign-posting” expressions that tell the listener where the talk is going) can be planned between the major elements of the talk.

- Introductions: “In this presentation I will discuss... To do so, we will look at X, Y and Z” ... “So now I’d like to move on to the first point”
- Beginning and ending of each section: “First, let’s look at X”... “Now that we’ve seen how ... let’s look at the implications of X for Y”
- Repeating and emphasizing key points: “Let me repeat that” ... “Let me draw your attention to...”
- Conclusions: “So we’ve seen how...” ... “which show that X would be the better policy or course of action”
2. Using presentation media

Presentation media like PPT are often misused and overused. In many lectures, PPT usage can be reduced, and lecturers can interact more directly with the audience. Problems arise when lecturers rely too much on PPT, read aloud from slides, and speak in a monotone. When the lights are turned out for a PPT lecture, this also leads to a movie theater effect – like watching a boring movie in a dark theater. PPT based lectures are boring and interfere with learning and class interaction; the PPT essentially becomes the teacher. This leads to PowerPoint poisoning, or death by PowerPoint.

The next section discusses how to use PPT appropriately, followed by a section on alternatives to PPT.

2.1. PowerPoint

Lecturers and presenters sometimes use PPT based on false assumptions about what it is and what it can do. They think they can transfer a large amount of information, such as lecture contents, into the minds of the listeners. However, PPT is not designed for that. It is only designed as a visual aid. It cannot be used to present a large amount of information. Other media are more appropriate for detailed information, such as handouts or reading materials. PPT can only convey relatively simple information, such as the following.

- Outlines
- Talking points
- Summaries of information
- Key words
- Definitions and simple explanations
- Simple graphics

Most of all, don’t let the PPT or other medium be the center of your lecture. You should be the teacher, not the PPT. Do not use the PPT the whole time. Look at and interact with the audience. Move around, and use your voice and body language, to get them to look at you. Break away from the PPT to interact with and talk to the audience. Look at the audience, and only look at the PPT briefly to orient yourself to your current contents.

Use minimal text, and make sure the text and graphics are simple and large enough to be seen clearly by everyone, including those in the back of the room. PPT is not designed for a lot of detail, or for conveying a lot of information. Other media like handouts are better for complex or detailed information. So please don’t make slides like this:
- There is a lot of text, lots of sentences on a slide that go on and on and on and on, seemingly forever. This is for people who want to read everything aloud and make the audience fall asleep.
- If you put a lot of text, including complete sentences, in your slides, you will probably read aloud all the slide contents, and bore the poor victims in your audience.
- How about all this tiny, crowded text? And long, long sentences going on forever, with misspelled words and (and : bad punctuation) and poor grammar.
- To make it worse, we'll throw in **bright, flashy colors**, **including excessive emphasis and colors that are hard to read or that hurt your eyes**. And how about some **unnecessary highlighting**?
- Also, flashy slide transition effects are good for distracting listeners, so they won’t pay attention to the contents.

Or this:

PPT slides should not look crowded. Text and graphics should be clear and visible enough for everyone to see, including those in the back of the room. PPT was not designed as a medium for conveying a lot of information. Follow these principles of simplicity and coherence.

**General slide use**

1. Use slides for outlines, main ideas, important information, and talking points.
2. Use slides to highlight and explain key terms, and/or to provide definitions (in English or Korean).
3. Do not read aloud from the slides. Speak freely.
4. Do not look at the PPT so much. Look briefly to orient yourself to the contents, then look at and speak to the audience.
5. Do not let the PPT dominate the lecture. You are the teacher. Break away from the PPT sometimes to speak more freely and to interact with the audience.

6. No information dump – do not dump a lot of information in slides, and don’t put information in slides that you don’t talk about or use in the talk.

General slide design
1. Use simple foreground / background patterns, and simple, high-contrast color schemes. Use dark text on white background, or white text on a dark background.
2. Avoid transition effects between slides, which are distracting and not very professional.
3. Avoid themes, pictures or backgrounds that appear cluttered, girlish, cute, or otherwise unprofessional. Avoid color themes or gradients that will interfere with the text.
4. Black text on white background makes for a simple design, and is easy to read.
5. White text on a black (or very dark blue) background is also good. It is a bit unnatural, so the font needs to be a bit larger than normal. However, it is easy to see in a normally lit room, so you do not have to turn down the lights (which leads to a movie theater effect).

Text
1. Use clear, readable text – should be large and clear enough for everyone in the room to see well, including those in the back of the room.
2. Use a large font that is visible to everyone. Use standard fonts, not decorative fonts that are hard to see. Arial-type fonts are clear, but they may have to be slightly larger. Serif fonts are generally the easiest to read, and there are better Serif fonts than the old, boring Times New Roman; for example, you can use Garamond, Century, and others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sans serif font</th>
<th>AaBbCc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Sans</em> is French for <em>without</em>, i.e., without the end strokes. Letter strokes are usually of uniform thickness everywhere.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serif font</th>
<th>AaBbCc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The letters have small strokes, or serifs, at the ends. These tend to enhance readability.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serif font</th>
<th>AaBbCc</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The serifs are indicated in red here. Also note that the letter strokes vary in thickness, also enhancing the appearance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Slab serif font</th>
<th>The Quick Brown Fox Jumps Over The Lazy Dog.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most serif fonts are known as old style, transitional, or modern, which differ in stroke angles and the degree of variation in stroke thickness. Slab serif fonts have serifs but uniform stroke thickness, and thus, in between serif and sans serif style.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Do not use too much text in one slide. A general guideline is to avoid more than six lines of text per slide. Make sure everyone would be able to read it clearly and easily.
4. Avoid excessive use of bulleted lists, such that the whole presentation seems like an endless series of bullets. Use some variety in slide design, e.g., slides with pictures and descriptive text without bullets.
5. Use phrases or short, incomplete sentences. Avoid complete sentences, as a general rule, because complete sentences are hard to read, and often lead speakers to read aloud from their slides, which makes for a more boring presentation. Also, the listeners spend most of their time reading the slide instead of paying attention to the lecturer or lecture contents. Short phrases make it easier for the speaker to look briefly at the slide, and then to turn to the audience to speak more freely. Occasional complete sentences might be appropriate if you are providing quotations or definitions.

6. Avoid excessive use of text decoration for emphasis or decoration. Text decoration includes: underlining, colored text, boldface, italics, capitalization, all-capital lettering, larger text than normal, drop caps (initial large capital letters), and colored highlighting of text. Excessive use of emphasis and decoration is distracting.

7. If you use colored text for emphasizing or highlighting key words, use it conservatively. Do not use colors that are hard to read. If you use black text on a white background, use darker colors for emphasis that are easy to read, not hard-to-read colors like pink or violet. Conversely, if you use white text on a black or dark blue background, use light colors for emphasis that are easy to see.

Finally, and very importantly: What you say and the text on the slides should not be the same. If listeners get the same information through both channels – auditory and visual – they will be bored. Thus, you should avoid reading aloud your slides. The slides should complement what you are saying. The auditory and visual information should not be identical.

Graphics and tables

1. Use simple graphics, media, or tables. Avoid complex graphics in a lecture, unless students have a copy of it in their textbook, on the textbook DVD, or on a handout that you have provided.

2. If complex graphics are needed, zoom in on them so that details are clear. This is easier to do in Prezi than in PPT.

3. Avoid graphics that are not really relevant to the contents – no cute, decorative, or distracting pictures.

4. Avoid crowded slides with multiple graphics or charts. Break up crowded slides into multiple slides, and expand the sized of the graphics, so that slides are simpler and the graphics can be clearly seen.

5. For graphs with text labels, make sure the labels are clear and visible, and close to what they refer to. If labels are too far away, this leads to a split attention effect from looking back and forth between the graph and labels or descriptions of graph items.

The graphic on the left is difficult to read because the text labels are small and not near the items they refer to. This leads to split attention – one has to look back and forth between the graph and the text descriptions below. The version on the right is easier to read, and is more coherent, since the labels are next to what they refer to.

**Example demonstrating split attention**

**Integrated example**

In the above figures, find a value for Angle DBC

**Solution:**

\[ \text{Angle } \triangle ABC = 180^\circ - \text{Angle } \triangle BCA \]

\[ = 180^\circ - 55^\circ - 45^\circ \]

\[ = 80^\circ \]

\[ \text{Angle } \triangle BDC = \text{Angle } \triangle ABC \] (Vertically opposite angles are equal)

\[ = 80^\circ \]
6. For data tables, make sure everyone can see the important information. Omit unnecessary detail, making sure that the important information can be clearly read. You can use a soft color to highlight key table cells, rows, or columns.

![Data Table Example]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Height</th>
<th>Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>170cm</td>
<td>70kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>160cm</td>
<td>60kg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Poor readability – cramped text, too much highlighting, and the bright color does not contrast well with a white background.

Better readability – the soft blue contrasts well with the white background, and is not overdone.

7. Videos are often helpful multimedia aids. If you link or embed it in a PPT file, it may not work properly on another computer. It can help to make sure it works on the computer before your lecture, if you can access the computer beforehand to check it. The safest option, though, is to have the video on your USB drive, and to install the VLC Media Player on your USB drive. VLC is a free, flexible media player that can handle most any file type or codec. From [www.portableapps.com](http://www.portableapps.com), you can download a version of VLC that can be installed on your USB drive. Then during the lecture, you can run VLC from the USB drive to play your video.

2.2. Alternative presentation media

In addition to PPT, there are other programs and media.

Open source (free) office programs

Google Docs (which comes with any Gmail account) offers a presentations file format. The formats and templates available will be less sophisticated than PPT. LibreOffice (LibreOffice.org) is a free office suite, which is based on its free predecessors, StarOffice and OpenOffice (IBM Lotus Symphony is also based on OpenOffice). LibreOffice is free, and makes it easy and convenient to manage the formatting. Google Docs, LibreOffice, and related programs save in ODF format by default (Open Document format). They can also save files in MS formats such as PPT formats, but the layout and formatting may be inconsistent when you open files in MS Office and PPT. LibreOffice and OpenOffice can be installed on and run from a USB (see [www.portableapps.com](http://www.portableapps.com)), so that you can run these programs from a USB on any Windows computer. Since these programs are free, they are good options for students.

Other office programs

Other companies such as Kingsoft offer MS Office clones, some of which are free; the same cautions as above apply. Apple Keynote is a popular presentation program for Mac aficionados, but like other Apple products, it can be expensive.

Graphics software

If you need software to create graphics for your presentations, here are some options.

- SmartDraw. This is good for creating flow charts and concept maps. It can exports to PPT, PDF, and various graphics file types. It is expensive, however.
• Inkscape. This is a simple vector graphics program that is free, and is useful for creating simple line drawings and diagrams.

• Gimp. This is a graphics program that is a free alternative to Photoshop. It is somewhat more difficult to learn and use, but is fully free, and is available for Mac, Linux and Windows. It offers the same functionality as Photoshop, and it can handle any graphic file format.

• Statistics graphs. Matlab, SPSS and R can produce good quality statistical graphics. For Linux users, a free Matlab clone is available, known as Octave (www.gnu.org/software/octave).

• Maya and Blender. These programs are for professional, high-end 3-D graphics, animation, and video editing. They are commonly used for medical graphics, film editing, and professional animation. Maya costs several thousand dollars, while Blender is a free, open-source program (blender.org), which is probably more difficult to learn and use than Maya.

Latex
Latex is a free document processing program for science, math, engineering. Though not easy to learn, it can produce professional quality documents and graphs. It is a command-line program, but there are user-friendly graphical interfaces (front ends) for Latex, such as Kile in Linux, that make it easier to use (Lyx is a Windows front-end, which is very buggy and works poorly). Latex can not only create nice handouts, but the Beamer and Prosper document classes can create slide-style PDFs for presentations. They are PDFs, but in PPT-slide-size and style. This is the best way to present slides with many formulas and equations. Latex Beamer and Prosper can embed a side navigation bar in the slides. Of course, they can easily produce a handout version of the slides.

There are two other Latex-based options. LibreOffice and OpenOffice have equation editors in which you can create equations and formulas with either graphical menus or by entering Latex code. You can also find online Latex equation editors, where you can create equations and formulas via drop-down menus or by entering Latex code. A Google search for 'Latex equation editor' will turn up at least several such sites which are very similar. These allow you to save and download the equation as a graphic file, which you can insert into your PPT, web site, or handout, like this one.

\[ y^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_1 + x_2 \]

Prezi
Prezi is a free, web-based presentation program that works like a canvas, and like a concept map. Instead of a strict, sequential presentation of information, you can organize information more schematically, and the viewer moves around the canvas. It is based on Shockwave Flash, and works through any web browser, so an Internet connection is required.

Prezi is popular in humanities, social sciences and education. For a strict, sequential presentation of information, PPT might be better, but for a freer presentation style, Prezi has advantages. However, the same cautions for PPT apply to the use of Prezi. Also, it is possible to do rotation effects when moving from one frame (slide) to another, but for academic presentations, this effect should be minimized or avoided; otherwise, it becomes nothing more than a distracting transition effect.

Prezi allows you to move freely, to change the order in which things appear, and to come back to objects or frames again, through the use of path lines that can be easily edited. You can import various types of graphic files, and you can import directly from a Google image search. Videos can be embedded, including direct links to Youtube videos, and the video is ready to
play when you come to it in the presentation. You can also zoom into sections of a complex graphic, so that you can show detail that cannot be shown so easily in a PPT slide. A Prezi file can be exported to a stand-alone Flash file (for a computer with no Internet connection), or to a PDF handout.

You can sign up with your university account for the educational version. Using the online version through a web browser is free. You can also purchase a version that can be downloaded and installed on your computer, which then requires no Internet connection for it to function. Tutorials are available on the Prezi website, and on Youtube.

Prezi
The whole Prezi canvas might look like this – it can be laid out however you like. An object or group of objects are organized into frames. In the presentation, you move from one frame to another.
A few of the frames from this canvas are shown below.
Whiteboards

Whiteboards can be effective for some information, e.g., if you want to walk through something step-by-step, or write down information that is not in your presentation file. Whiteboard use can be effective if you do not turn your back to the audience too much while writing (turn to face the audience as much as possible while writing), and if you do not spend too much time writing. If you find yourself spending too much time writing on the board, then providing most of the information on handouts, PPT or Prezi might be better. Be sure to write neatly, large enough, and in a well organized manner, so everyone can see it clearly.

The following would be better.

- Writing in a well organized layout, e.g., in columns;
- Using dark, visible colors;
- Writing in large, neatly printed letters;
- Neatly drawn graphs, arrows, and shapes; and
- Not crowding in too much detail; it should be large enough for everyone to easily see.

Handouts

Handouts are ideal, especially if you are not using PPT. With or without PPT, handouts can be useful for providing basic lecture notes, additional information, definitions, English definitions and translations, graphs, supplementary materials, or other information.

Some professors make PPT handouts available to students as lecture notes; others may wonder whether this is a good idea. This seems to work if you are not trying to cram too much information into the PPT. If the PPT slides only present partial information (as described above), then students are likely to use the PPT handouts for taking notes during the lectures. If the slides contain too much text and information, then they will more likely not pay attention to lectures, and rely on the handouts; they may even rely on the handouts instead of doing the assigned readings. If you use a dark background color scheme in your slides, be sure to reverse the color schemes to a light background when creating PPT handouts for students.

Yourself

You should be the center of your lecture, not the PPT. Make them pay attention to you, by interacting with them rather than with the PPT, by moving around, and by lecturing with enthusiasm. If at all possible, avoid lecturing from PPT for the whole class period, and only use PPT for part of the session. Instead, interact with them, talk with them directly without PPT, and have them do activities. Even when lecturing from the PPT, break away from the PPT
3. Rehearsal

One of the greatest problems that East Asian speakers encounter in giving presentations is that they try to focus on too many things while speaking – cognitively multi-tasking. Instead of focusing mainly on the contents, they focus on two or three things at the same time: [1] the contents of the presentation; [2] the language – trying to speak good English and thus focusing on grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary; and [3] the audience and what the audience thinks of their performance. This is especially problematic when speakers try to memorize their talks. This invariably leads to more mistakes, because the mind cannot multi-task. You cannot focus on language and content simultaneously. Another mistake is to read aloud from a slide or PPT, which kills speaker-audience interaction, causes the speaker to speak in a monotone voice, and makes for a boring talk.

The best way to handle contents and language is by sufficiently rehearsing multiple times, and in each rehearsal, focus on different aspects of the presentation. You can rehearse sometimes to focus specifically on the language (especially English as a second language), and separate rehearsals to focus on the contents or delivery. You may need multiple rehearsals for:

- Contents
- Flow, organization
- Grammar
- Vocabulary
- Pronunciation
- Voice quality and intonation

Try some of these tips for your rehearsal.

1. You can at least mentally rehearse your talk, and verbally rehearse key sections, if you don’t have time for full rehearsals or multiple rehearsals.

2. It will be helpful to rehearse key terms and expressions with exaggerated input/output. For example, practice by over-emphasizing and exaggerating word stress patterns, long vowels, and sounds that you have difficulty with.

3. Also make use of visualization strategies. Imagine yourself giving the presentation successfully. This is not about positive thinking or wish fulfillment; rather, thinking about how you can do it successfully will help you to think of specific things that you need to say and plan for, and will thus help you do better.

4. Practice delivering your talk from an outline, such as from printed notes in your hand, or from your PPT. If possible, practice in the room where you will lecture.

5. For important or special talks, try memory aids (mnemonics). A classic method is the locus mnemonic for the main sections of a presentation.

This is how locus mnemonics work. For each main point and subpoint, create unusual, strange, or memorable visual associations, and place those images in different parts of the lecture room. For example, if you have an interesting story for your introduction, place a mental image of it in front of the stage. Let’s say the main points of your talk then are challenges in learning a language, misconceptions of language learning, motivation in learning, learning strategies, and study goals, then plant different images around the room. For example, in the
front left corner, imagine a weightlifter (challenges); in the back left corner, statues of Roman deities (=myth = misconceptions of learning); in the middle aisle, create unusual mental images to remind you of motivation. In the right sections, have images to remind you of strategies and goals (e.g., a war room strategy board, and a football goal post). The stranger or more dynamic these images are, the better. Then rehearse by following these mnemonic cues, and use these imaginary cues during your talk to stay focused on your contents.

4. Delivery
The following are key areas for effective delivery.

1. Voice quality
2. Energy
3. Posture and poise
4. Audience interaction
5. Transitions
6. Handling nervousness

Voice quality
- Use diaphragm (abdominal) muscle to project the voice. Do not rely too much on the throat, as you can cause damage to the vocal cords. The energy, enthusiasm, and vocal volume in your lecture should come from the diaphragm muscles. Suck in the stomach to tense these muscles. Find diaphragm exercises to strengthen these muscles, and do physical exercise to develop the abdominal muscles and lungs.
- Intonation is especially important in English, as word and sentence stresses requires a greater intonational range than in Korean.
- More petite women, or those with weak lungs, should especially work on vocal technique, exercise, and use of the diaphragm.
- Men with low, deep voices or monotonal voices also need to work on their intonation.
- Avoid pause fillers (“uh, um…”), as well as audible breathing or sighs.
- Rehearse and practice by focusing on, even exaggerating, your intonation, especially on important sections of the lecture, and new terms that you are presenting.

Energy
- Enthusiasm and energy are important for keeping the audience's interest, and for making them feel more motivated about your course. Energy is required for conveying enthusiasm, and for vocal intonation.
- Avoid sugar or carbohydrates before or during the talk (e.g., junk food, candy, sodas), as you will feel tired 15–20 minutes after your sugar rush.
- Proper sleep, diet (eating habits), and especially regular exercise are the best ways to maintain good energy levels and breathing ability for teaching. Aerobic exercises like jogging, swimming, bicycling or gym exercises are ideal.
- Avoid caffeine before or during talk, especially coffee, which dry out the vocal cords; drink your coffee well before the lecture. Drink water during a lecture.
Posture and poise
- Use the abdominal muscles for speaking; this also helps your posture.
- Movement: Move around some. Students do not like to listen to a talking statue. If you cannot move around the front of the classroom, move at least with the 1-2 meter space around your podium or computer.
- Use confident gestures and body language. For example, look at professional speakers on TED.com, as well as other well known speakers, to learn from their use of their voice and body language.

Audience interaction
- Face the audience, not the screen or PPT; use appropriate eye contact
- Ask questions and elicit questions from your students.
- Speak clearly, with clear intonation.
- Don't recite from notes or PPT.
- Check for understanding – see if they seem to follow and understand you.
- Look at all the audience members from time to time, or at least all parts of the classroom.
- Maintain a good intonational range to help the audience pay attention.

Beware of the redundancy effect. Do not read aloud slides. The listeners then receive the same information visually and auditorily, which is boring. Use slides only to enhance and complement your talk. You, not the PPT, should be the focus.

Transitions
- Plan transitions between sections of the talk, and between important slides.
  - E.g.: Earlier we talked about... so today I'd like to start with...; What this means is...; Now that I've talked about X, let's see what this means for Y...; Let me give an example / analogy / case study; As a result of this...; What's the take home message for today?
- See the handout on lecture expressions for sample transitions.

Handling nervousness
- Understand what nervousness is
- Make use of your nervous energy

People often misunderstand what nervousness is or what it means. They misinterpret it as a sign that (1) I am not really prepared, or (2) I'm not going to do well. However, nervousness is merely a natural psychological response to important or stressful situations, and they are the mind's way of supplying you extra mental energy for an important task. You need this extra energy to focus mentally on the contents of your talk, and for public speaking – energy for a stronger vocal delivery, use of the voice, and intonation. These are especially necessary when you lecture in a foreign language. Even the best public speakers are nervous, but they channel their nervous energy into their speaking and their mental concentration. With some effort and practice, you can learn to do the same.

Excessive nervousness can be a sign that you are thinking too much about what people will think of you – an excessive preoccupation with performance and perfectionism. When you feel very nervous, focus first on the contents of your talk, rather than the people in the audience.
Lecture structure and expressions

The following are basic expressions for introductions, various types of explanations of contents, and conclusions of lectures and presentations.

1. **Lecture introductions**

   Effective introductions usually one or more of the following elements.

1. **Overview.** Explain the main points and topics to be covered in the lecture or lesson. This helps students to follow the flow of the lecture / lesson. It is best to organize the lesson around 3-5 main points, as human working memory can keep track of 3-5 main items at once. A fairly detailed overview is most helpful to both serial, analytical learners and holistic learners.

2. **Rationale or lesson objectives.** Explain why the lecture topic and/or main points are relevant or interesting – why should the students care about this?

3. **Bridge.** Remind students of what you talked about last time, and make a connection between the previous class material and today’s topic.

A good overview with a rationale is essentially the same as stating the lesson objectives. Other possibilities include lead-ins that arouse students' attention and that lead into your topic (or into one of the above introductions), such as these.

1. Thought-provoking question – posing a problem, dilemma or interesting question to the class
2. Rhetorical question
3. Statement of a problem
4. A joke or amusing story
5. An interesting story or anecdote, e.g., the story behind the discovery of the concepts that you are lecturing about that day
6. An interesting example
7. A brief analogy

It also can be helpful to summarize the main points of the talk in your introduction, e.g.,

Today we will talk about X because.... In order to understand X, we need to examine A, B, and C. So we’ll look at A, which is... [brief description / definition of A], and its implications for B, that is,... [brief description of B] and for C... [brief description of C]. Afterwards, you will be able to... [explanation of applications, implications or relevance of X, A, B, C].
2. Lecture expressions

The following types of expressions can be found in the booklet on lecture expressions (www.kentlee7.com).

Basic lecture structure expressions
1. Introductions (e.g., *What we are going to cover today is...*)
2. Topic transitions – transitions to new topics or sections
   • Sequences (*first, second, third...*)
   • Paragraph tones (high tone on start of sentence, e.g.: ↑ *Now let's look at...*)
   • *There is/are*
3. Topic reshifts – returning to a new or related topic (e.g., *as for, anyway, as regards*)
4. Explanations (e.g., *X can be classified as; however, for example*)
5. Summarizing (e.g., *So far, we've been discussing...*)
6. Classroom management

Making classes more interactive
7. Using questions (e.g., *Could you say a little more about that?*)
8. Questions according to complexity
9. Questions for specific discussion purposes
10. Managing class discussion (e.g., *Would that be an example of...?*)
11. Managing group tasks

Specific linguistic strategies and devices
12. Sentence adverbs (e.g., *actually, by the way*)
13. Topical adverbs (e.g., *psychologically, scientifically*)
14. Relevance markers (e.g., *the important point here is...; I'd like to draw your attention to...*)
15. Emphasis and highlighting markers (e.g., *really, indeed*)
16. Handling disfluencies or speaking errors (e.g., by falling back on simpler vocabulary, using silent pauses)
17. Hedges or softeners (e.g., *maybe, hypothetically*)
18. Discourse markers (e.g., *well, you know, I mean*)
19. Korean versus English discourse markers

3. Korean versus English discourse markers

Discourse markers is a linguistic term for various words that help us organize our thoughts and expressions, make transitions, or to emphasize or soften what we say (e.g., *혹시, 글쎄, you know, I mean, like, well*). Korean has the following expressions, for which English has no direct equivalent. These may lead Korean speakers to use Konglish transitional expressions, or to feel unable to express their flow of thought in English.
### Korean marker | English equivalence
---|---
NOUN+은/는 (e.g., on a sentence subject or topic) | No equivalent. We may use contrastive or emphatic stress on a noun, including a noun at the beginning of a sentence, or the new topic transition intonation (see the section on topic transitions above). Otherwise, we simply start a sentence with a new noun subject.

...경우에는 내 경우에는; 그런 경우에는; ~ 경우에(는) | Literally, “in case of, in X case.” This is colloquial – less common in formal speaking, and rare in academic writing. It can signal examples in colloquial English, and are thus okay for lectures. But it can also express a conditional; e.g., “In case of fire, break glass” = “If there is a fire...”

증거 (e.g., 증거로 해서...) | Literally, “as evidence,” which is pure Konglish, not English. More appropriate would be “as an example,” “evidence for X comes from...”

...있다 | This translates as “have” or “there is/are.” These are fine in colloquial English, and are thus okay for lectures, but are less common in formal English or academic writing. The phrase “there is/are” is mainly for shifting to a new topic. Instead of using “there is/are” excessively, one can use other intransitive verbs, e.g., “there arose, there came, there appeared...”

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### 4. Word choice issues

Common word choice issues that Koreans have include the following content words (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) that are used differently in English, formality distinctions in word choice, modal verbs, and other expressions. Here, asterisks [*] and strikeouts indicate incorrect or awkward forms.

1. **Reporting verbs, e.g.:**
   - mention (=briefly say something)
   - discuss about
   - supports that (→ supports the claim / idea that)
   - recommend, suggest: We recommend that the bail be lowered; We recommend that the judge lower the bail; We recommend lowering the bail. We suggest lowering the bail. We suggest that the bail be lowered[^2].
   - Use of *speak, talk, tell, say.* One speaks a language or a statement; one says words, discourse, or something general; one tells a story or information.

2. **Pure Konglish lexical expressions to avoid, e.g., next next, last last, promise (≠appointment), consent (for electrical outlet), skinship, after service, MT**

3. **Mass or collective nouns.** These are not usually plural: equipment, faculty[^3], furniture, information, homework, research, staff, vocabulary

4. **Intransitive [자동사] verbs of state, e.g., *was existed, *was tended; and state change verbs, e.g., *was disappeared (appear, disappear, come...).**

[^1]: For more detailed handouts on these issues, see [http://www.kentlee7.com](http://www.kentlee7.com), under the pages for EAP and Writing.

[^2]: Note the older, more formal verb forms here (lower, not lowers; be lowered, not is lowered). These are so-called subjunctive verb forms, which are similar to conditional verb forms.

[^3]: In American English, *faculty* means professors, collectively, and cannot be plural in this sense. In British English, it means a university department. In general English, it can also mean ‘ability’ as in mental faculties. In these latter two senses, it can be plural.
5. Participle forms. For verbs of emotions and mental states, the past participles refers to the person experiencing the state or emotion. The present participle refers to the cause of the feeling or state. Thus, *I am boring → I am bored, I am exciting → excited.*

   a. *Could:* In the past tense, *could* is ambiguous, as the default meaning of *could* is the future hypothetical, potential, or conditional meaning. It is not usually understood as the past form of *can*, unless the context constrains it (e.g., past tense or negative: I couldn’t lift it. When I was young, I could lift 50 kg.)
      • We could perform the experiment (if we can get funding for it).
      • We were able to perform / We performed / We successfully performed the experiment. [Past tense]
   b. *Can vs. may vs. might.* These nuances are often unclear to Koreans. The verb *might* is a bit more remote or more uncertain than *may.* Both *may* and *might* focus more on the speaker’s assessment of the circumstances, while *can,* and the more remote or hypothetical *could,* focus more on the speaker’s evaluation of the subject’s internal ability, character, or such.
      • He could be lying. (It’s consistent with his nature or past behavior.)
      • He may/might be lying. (Based on the circumstances)

7. Collocations: These are words that typically occur or are used together in set expressions, e.g.: *is different than from; to influence X, to have an influence to on X.* Word that are used together are often difficult for foreign learners of English, especially set phrases and grammatically conditioned expressions. There is no easy way to learn these, other than by extensive reading, and exposure to English media materials. Sometimes you can Google words and expressions inside quotation marks to find how they are used in context (e.g., Google “take chance” inside quotation marks to find examples of usage in context).
   a. Light verbs (common, general meaning verbs like *do, make, have, be, set, take, run, go*), which form many idioms and collocational expressions; e.g.:
      • take a chance, take liberties with the results, run aground, run an experiment, go bungee jumping, take notice, set an example
   b. Prepositions and phrasal verbs, which are often metaphorical
      • working (in) → working at the university [‘in’ is possible in certain contexts, but ‘at’ is generally preferred]
      • The work environment has cut down diminished our motivation, especially when team members have been split apart up.
      • is different than → different from
      • apply X into Y → apply X to Y
      • influence to X → influence on X
   d. Noun + Prep. combinations, and their Verb counterparts with no prepositions.
      • X has an influence on Y → cf. X influences on Y
      • a discussion about X → cf. to discuss about X
   e. Culturally conditioned phrases. For example, Westerners speak of *salt and pepper,* while Koreans speak of *salt and sugar* as a set, common expression; Westerners speak of *apples and bananas* or *apples and oranges,* while Koreans speak of *apples and pears.*
Teaching strategies and conducting classes

If you feel that conducting a whole class session in English would be overwhelming, the good news is that you do not have to speak the whole time. Modern educational methods de-emphasize the traditional teacher-centered model, where the teacher is a transmitter of knowledge, and the students are empty vessels for receiving knowledge from a lecture. Instead, based on years of research in education and related fields, we have realized that this simply does not work as well as people have assumed. Many studies have shown that what students learn from lectures and memorizing information is largely forgotten after the course is over. The goal of the class is not to transmit knowledge, but rather, to promote understanding. If students understand concepts, they will probably not forget what they have understood. And if they understand the concepts, they can have a better framework for remembering facts and details. If they forget the details, they can relearn these later.

As a non-native speaker of English, you can rely more on class activities that are less teacher-centered, meaning that you do not have to lecture and talk all the time. There are also teaching strategies to help explain concepts more clearly in a second language, which will also be beneficial for the students who are not English native speakers. This all means that you spend less time on information, and that you cannot cover all the material in the textbook. But then, if they would forget it anyway, there is no point trying to cover all the information in the book. Instead, classes are for teaching understanding of the main ideas. Students can read the books on their own for the details.

1. Explaining concepts

Here are some techniques for explaining concepts in lectures to help students understand better. Often, professors explain concepts in overly abstract ways; the problems and difficulties are compounded for students and professors when the lecture is in a second language.

1.1. Real-life or realistic examples

When possible, use real-life or realistic examples, such as those drawn from the real world or your own experience. Professors sometimes present abstract concepts or theories without a practical example. This makes it difficult for students to understand the ideas, or to follow the lecture. Students need to be able to make connections between new information and what they already know; otherwise, the brain will discard the information without any meaningful learning. For concepts, then, students need real examples, or at least examples that are realistic or life-like. This is necessary for comprehension, for being able to explanations, and for remembering concepts. This not only aids in forming mental connections to understand ideas better, but it also aids in forming memories, including the memory of when they came to understand something.

A good, though fictional, example is seen in an old B-quality movie called ‘The Mirror
Has Two Faces.’ In the film, a man who is a boring science professor starts dating a fellow professor, a nerdy but interesting woman who introduces him to baseball. Then we see him later in class, explaining Newtonian physics in his usual, very boring, traditional way – simply equations and boring textbook-like examples. Then he gets the idea of using a baseball example, of the pitcher from the city’s team hitting baseballs, to explain trajectory motion. We see the students’ faces suddenly lighting up (and waking up) and starting to understand, and the overall quality of his course improves greatly as he begins teaching from interesting real-world examples that students can relate to.

1.2. More inductive explanations

Often, professors explain an abstract concept, they present an abstract concept, and then follow it with an example later. This can be confusing for students. Let’s say a professor explains concept X with a theoretical or abstract explanation, and then she presents an example afterward. As they sit in class, they have to hold both the theoretical explanation and the current example in working memory, and go back and forth, which means they are mentally multi-tasking; this is of course inefficient and difficult. It is better to either begin with a real example then go to the conceptual explanation; or to work through it while explaining the concept, or go through the example as you explain the concept. Starting with the real example is the more inductive way, or combining the conceptual explanation and the real example together is still fairly inductive. As in the above movie example, if you were teaching Newtonian mechanics, it would be far more effective to begin with an interesting example than with the equations and concepts, work through the concepts, and derive the equations or solutions from the problem itself.

1.3. Analogies and illustrations

Especially for more abstract or difficult concepts, analogies can be effective ways to communicate ideas, whether in physics or literature. Electron shells in chemistry can be explained by analogies like moving passengers through rows of seats on a bus. The idea of Shakespeare’s ‘Hamlet’ can be illustrated like this: “Imagine your father is the CEO of a major company, who suddenly and strangely dies. Imagine then that another member of the board marries your mother and takes over the company. How would you feel?” This gets students to think, helps them understand the plot more deeply, and helps them understand the main characters and mood of the play.

1.4. Worked examples

A well known effect in education is how worked examples help students grasp concepts readily and efficiently. This involves working through a problem (e.g., on the whiteboard) or providing an example of a problem with the steps in the solution worked out (e.g., in a handout). Studies show that students who are shown worked examples are able to perform better than students who simply solve problems on their own. This effect, of course, may depend on the type of task and how ready students are for a concept, as there are also benefits for having students work out ideas inductively.
1.5. Multiple explanations

Finally, multiple explanations of the same concept can be helpful, especially for more difficult or abstract concepts. For example, two different inductive or concrete explanations, or any combination of the above methods, can help students understand better. Of course, this takes more class time, but you can cut out less important material to focus on the ideas, and make sure students learn the details later from their readings or homework. Quizzes, homework, and formative assessment methods (see below) can be used to make them study more and learn supporting details on their own, once they have grasped the ideas from your lectures.

1.6. Further examples

- Biology. As an analogy for cell membrane permeability, think of a zoo exhibit where different kinds of animals are together in a shared cage, but also separate homes for different species. The house entrances need to be configured to allow one species in, and keep out other species (e.g., one house that allows the chimpanzees in, but is designed to block access to other species in the exhibit).
- Chemistry. For electron shells, think of Russian matrushka dolls, onions, or other objects with multiple layers and sublayers.
- Geometry. For π and 2π, use illustrations with an apple pie.
- Literature. A number of plays or stories could be introduced with a modern-day analogy, asking students how they would think or feel being part of such a scenario.
- Poetry. For teaching poetic meter, instead of starting with classical poems, start with familiar nursery rhymes, advertisement jingles, or pop songs.
- Physics. A long-standing analogy for quanta is thinking of light and other entities as simultaneously particles and waves, or as “clouds” around a nucleus.
- Physics. For pendulum motion, a famous physics professor at MIT named Walter Lewin makes himself into a human pendulum attached to the ceiling. Various videos of his can be found on Youtube, which illustrate the creative use of demonstration activities in teaching.
- Physics. For other examples of Newtonian mechanics, sports examples are often useful and interesting for students.
- Psychology and neuroscience. Often computer models are useful in explaining brain functions and cognition. One should go beyond simplistic models by pointing out how neural networks are different from traditional computers, and use more sophisticated network analogies and other illustrations, e.g., for the concept of parallel processing.
2. Communicative & group activities

Foreign students, those who have studied or lived abroad, or those who have been to international schools will particularly expect more modern style classes, rather than a pure lecture format. More interactive classes are good for other reasons. Many studies in education (be it general education, biology education, medical education, learning psychology, etc.) have shown that students actually do not learn concepts so well from pure lectures, and they often forget most of the contents after the major exams, or after the course is over. However, those who learn from more interactive methods learn better, learn concepts more deeply, and remember better over the long term. Interactive methods include not only teacher-student interaction in the classroom, but more importantly, group learning activities where students have to discuss problems, solve problems, or discover concepts on their own.

More handouts are available on my website (www.kentlee7.com) on types of group activities, group dynamics, and formative assessment techniques.

2.1. Rationale

Interactive and group activities have the following advantages.

1. They break up the monotony of a lecture and make classes more interesting.
2. They prevent learning from being a passive experience.
3. They give students a chance to explore, and to apply what they know.
4. Students can learn more deeply when they grapple with problems and come to an understanding on their own and in groups.
5. Students also remember better when they learn through such activities.
6. Koreans find it particularly difficult to formulate ideas or responses in English. Activities and discussion time provide them a chance to formulate their ideas in English.
7. The instructor does not have to talk all the time; s/he can take a break, and can interact more with students. This is especially helpful if lecturing in English for a whole class session is something that you find tiring or stressful.

1. Types of activities

8. If you have not used interactive or group activities before, it is advisable to start with small, simple activities, and then work up to a more interactive class style over time. You can start with short, simple pair discussions; then short, simple small group discussions; and later, more complex group activities.

1. Pair discussion. You can have each student turn to a neighbor and discuss a question for 1-2 minutes, and then elicit contributions from a few of them.
2. Group discussion. In small groups of 3-5, students can discuss a question or a problem for several minutes. You can then call on a few groups for their ideas, opinions or results.
3. Problem solving activities. In small or medium size groups, students discuss and work on a problem. Or you can have students try to explain a concept or problem to each other. When those with some understanding have to explain it to fellow students, all the group members may come to understand it better than from listening to a lecture explanation.
4. Problem based learning. Students are given a case study to solve, such as a legal or medical case study. Often times there is one correct answer or one best answer.
5. Challenge based or task based learning. Students are given a complex problem or issue to discuss. This could be a more open-ended problem.
6. Discovery based learning. Students are given some information or data, and have to discover a particular principle involved. This is then expounded on in the lecture. Students can learn more effectively because they have had to figure it out themselves, have been more personally invested and involved in learning, and thus can understand it better than from a passive lecture experience.

7. Role plays. Students role play a situation. This is especially suitable for language learning classes.

3. Formative assessment

You may wonder if the students have really understood your lecture, the course contents, or their readings. You may wonder if they are even keeping up with their assigned readings. So-called formative assessments are informal ways of not only measuring this so that you can formulate and modify your lectures accordingly, but of also engaging them to learn on their own (forming their own knowledge). This can be done in pre-lecture and post-lecture assignments or short quizzes. The questions can be given and responses collected via hardcopy, by email, or better yet, through an online form (such as Google Forms) or your school's course management system. Formative assessments can be done up to once every 1-2 weeks, and since students have to do work, they should be at least a minor component of the course grading system. You can grade them on effort as well as the correctness or soundness of their responses.

3.1. Pre-lecture

Students are required to answer a question or two about their assigned reading, before you lecture on the topic. The questions can be conceptual questions about the materials, a question asking them to apply a concept, or a problem based on the material. Their response should ideally be a short essay or open-ended response. If you give multiple choice items, they should then have to explain their choices in their own words (to prevent students copying answers from each other).

3.2. Post-lecture

In the last few minutes of class, or after class, you can pose the same kinds of questions to students. Or you can ask them what they did not understand, what point was unclear to them, or their understanding of the main point(s) of the lecture (e.g., “what was the main idea(s)” or “write a summary of today’s lecture”).
Evaluation criteria

Here are some basic criteria for evaluating your lectures. You may find it helpful to record your lectures, and have students, colleagues and yourself evaluate it based on criteria like these. While this might feel embarrassing, this can be helpful for developing your self-awareness as a teacher.

A. Language competency
1. Vocabulary and grammar (appropriate usage, style)
2. Fluency (pronunciation, rhythm)
3. Intonation
4. Comprehensibility (speaking rate, audibility, vocal clarity)

B. Organization
5. Structure (flow, time management, transitions, making connections clear)
6. Preparation (seems well prepared; objectives are clear and accomplished well)
7. Introduction (connection with previous materials, or clear overview of lesson or objectives); and conclusion / summary

C. Contents
8. Clear explanations of concepts
9. Use of analogies, stories, examples, etc.
10. Illustrating abstract ideas immediately with concrete or real examples

D. Presentation methods
11. Expertise (expertise in content area demonstrated; shows strong teaching ability)
12. Conveying content (effective explanations, examples, and/or use of questions)
13. Effective use of lecture, instructional media, and class activities
14. Visual aids (good PPT slides, Prezi, handouts, or other aids)
15. Body language

E. Interaction
16. Enthusiasm and attitude (shows enthusiasm for topic and for teaching; shows interest in students)
17. Interaction (interaction and eye contact with students; asking or using questions)
18. Effective use of questions
19. Use of interactive pair or group activities for deeper learning.
20. Feedback: Giving positive or constructive feedback to students during discussion, questions, and activities.
Resources

1.1. Websites

1. OCW sites: Many universities (especially in North America) host online courseware sites, offering free course lectures and materials, which can be found via Google searches; see also www.ocwconsortium.org, ocw.korea.ac.kr [고대], snow.or.kr [숙대].

2. TED.com lectures: Popular lectures for educated audiences, from speakers in academia, business, government, and NGOs. Ideal for examples of teaching, and practicing your listening and speaking skills. Below the video, look for the transcript button, as most videos have transcripts. If so, then you can also download the video with subtitles from the download link.

3. Iowa phonetics site: www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics (for practicing pronunciation of English vowels & consonants)

4. www.dictionary.com: Probably the best online dictionary, as it aggregates information from other online dictionaries; linked to www.thesaurus.com. See also Wiktionary.org for the Wikipedia dictionary.

5. www.thesaurus.com: Synonym and antonym dictionary, which also aggregates information from other dictionaries

6. www.urbandictionary.com: Dictionary for slang and some idioms (including those that would be too informal or inappropriate, especially for academic contexts)

7. www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics: Iowa phonetics site, where you can see flash videos showing how English sounds are produced in the mouth.


1.2. Reference books

1. How People Learn. (2000). National Academies Press. [A good intro to what learning psychology and education research tells us about how students learn, and how to tailor teaching accordingly.]

2. Lindstromberg, Seth. (2010). English Prepositions Explained. John Benjamins Pub. [This explains the core meaning and other meanings of prepositions; also applicable to phrasal verbs.]


4. Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary. (2006). Oxford Univ. Press. [The appendix explains the meanings or uses of verb particles like up, on, over, etc.]
1.3. Software

1. VLC Media Player [www.videolan.org]: A free media player that can handle more file types than any other player. It is also easy to slow down the playback speed of videos for listening comprehension and practice; there is a speed slider at the bottom to control playback speed.

2. Firefox web browser. Firefox and Chrome are much faster and more secure than Explorer, with regular automatic updates. Firefox in particular has many add-ons or extensions available. These include tools for downloading videos from Youtube and other sites, search engine add-ons, and dictionary tools. There are many dictionary and translation extensions available. One is the Wiktionary / Google Translate tool; with this installed, you can simply double-click on a word in a web page and get a pop-up definition.