General Tutoring Manual

Fall 2012

Center for Teaching and Learning

Kent Lee
General Tutoring Manual

Prof. Kent Lee
Center for Teaching and Learning
122 Central Plaza
Korea University

kentlee@korea.ac.kr
kentlee7@gmail.com
Youtube channel: kentlee7 [http://www.youtube.com/user/kentlee7]
# Table of Contents

0. Introduction ........................................................................................................................................ 5  
0.1. Tutor’s role .................................................................................................................................. 5  
0.2. Tutor’s responsibilities ................................................................................................................. 6  
0.3. Taking care of tutees .................................................................................................................... 7  
1. Tutees’ learning needs .................................................................................................................... 9  
1.1. False conceptions and expectations ............................................................................................. 9  
1.2. How people learn .......................................................................................................................... 9  
1.3. Summary .................................................................................................................................... 14  
2. Affective factors in learning ........................................................................................................... 15  
2.1. Motivation .................................................................................................................................... 15  
2.2. Perfectionism .............................................................................................................................. 22  
2.3. Self-esteem ................................................................................................................................... 23  
2.4. Attribution ................................................................................................................................... 24  
2.5. Other issues .............................................................................................................................. 24  
2.6. Self-efficacy .................................................................................................................................. 27  
2.7. Self-awareness exercises ............................................................................................................. 28  
3. Learning and personality styles ...................................................................................................... 30  
3.1. Learning styles and preferences .................................................................................................. 30  
3.2. MBTI: Personality types and personality dynamics ................................................................... 31  
4. Basic teaching methods ................................................................................................................... 37  
4.1. Scaffolding ................................................................................................................................... 37  
4.2. Using appropriate tasks and questions ...................................................................................... 40  
4.3. Formative tasks or assignments .................................................................................................. 43  
4.4. Metacognition ............................................................................................................................ 45  
5. Planning and organizing ................................................................................................................... 47  
5.1. Self-reflection ............................................................................................................................ 47  
5.2. Writer’s block or other blocks ..................................................................................................... 48  
5.3. Brainstorming ............................................................................................................................ 49  
5.4. Organizers ................................................................................................................................... 50  
6. Feedback ........................................................................................................................................ 55
6.1. Types of useful feedback ................................................................. 56
6.2. Examples of feedback .................................................................... 57
6.3. Hedges ......................................................................................... 59
6.4. Tutor feedback ............................................................................. 60
7. Group work .................................................................................... 61
7.1. Advantages and disadvantages of group work ............................... 61
7.2. Rationale for group work ................................................................. 62
7.3. Group and interpersonal dynamics ................................................. 63
7.4. Types of group activities .................................................................. 66
7.5. Individualized instruction ............................................................... 67
7.6. Body language .............................................................................. 68
8. Planning your meetings ..................................................................... 69
8.1. Ground rules ................................................................................ 69
8.2. Ice-breakers ................................................................................. 70
8.3. Diagnostics ................................................................................... 71
8.4. Lesson planning ............................................................................ 73
8.5. Tutoring exercises ......................................................................... 74
8.6. Conclusion .................................................................................... 77
9. Sample curricula for tutors ................................................................. 78
9.1. Sample curriculum for Presentation Skills tutoring ......................... 79
9.2. Sample curriculum for Discussion & Debate tutoring ....................... 81
9.3. Sample curriculum for writing tutoring ........................................ 83
10. Appendix: Memorization techniques ................................................. 85
11. References and resources ................................................................. 89
0. Introduction

Tutoring will involve more than sharing your knowledge. In fact, it would be unhelpful to conceptualize tutoring as merely transferring knowledge from your brain to the tutee’s brain, as this ignores much about how people learn, especially those who are struggling in their courses. ‘Tutor’ comes from a Latin word meaning ‘guardian,’ which implies some degree of caring, not just information sharing. This booklet will introduce you to some basics that tutors will need to understand in order to be more effective in helping other students.

We’ll look at the learning needs of tutees, and how you can better understand yourself and your tutees as individuals. This will include personality types, and how you may and your various tutees might get along with each other, or experience difficulties due to personality differences; being aware of some likely differences can help you understand and accommodate to your tutees.

The next section will briefly explain about how people learn, first, so that you won’t labor under false assumptions of learning, and thereby overwhelm your tutee. Your tutees may operate under false notions, which will hinder their learning. Of course, motivation is a key determinant of learning, so we’ll look at that as well. Your tutees may likely be hindered by motivation problems, such as an unhealthy performance-oriented motivation, perfectionism, discouragement, or even learned helplessness. Understanding these can help you to understand and empathize with them, and hopefully, to encourage them some, and adapt your tutoring style for their sake.

Depending on which tutoring program you are in, your main tutoring responsibilities will focus on one of the following areas:

• Content area tutoring: Tutoring students in particular courses and course contents, including the concepts, contents and materials covered by the professor on a weekly basis

• EMC tutoring: Tutoring in English skills for EMC (English mediated courses), namely, writing, presentation, discussion, and/or debate skills.

0.1. Tutor’s role

The role of the tutor is that of a helper, guide and facilitator, to help tutees with understanding course contents and how to go about doing assignments. Very likely you will be assigned a group of tutees, whom you will meet all together about once a week (it will be up to you and your tutees to work out these arrangements). This means you will need to use group work (which is explained in a later chapter), and during that time you can spend a few minutes to provide individual attention to some tutees. Whether you want to provide extra help beyond your weekly session is up to you.

Your role is like that of a coach, not a professor. You do not necessarily have to
0. Introduction

have all the answers or be able to explain everything to them – for things beyond your expertise, you can refer the tutee to the professor. It is also important that you provide constructive feedback and encouragement, to help them improve, as a good coach would encourage others and provide specific advice.

As a coach, you can help and guide them with their work, but you cannot do their work for them – that is the tutee’s responsibility. You do as much as you reasonably can to guide and encourage them, and to thereby boost their confidence and academic performance, but ultimately it is the tutee’s job to study, to do his/her own coursework, and to achieve passing grades through his/her own effort. If tutees try to become overly dependent on you, expect more than what is reasonable beyond your regular tutoring sessions, become overly demanding, or expect you to do their own work for them, then you have to draw your personal boundaries and say no. You may provide extra help to individuals beyond your regular weekly meetings, but do not let your tutees take advantage of you, as you have your own studies and responsibilities as a student.

Your tutees may be dealing with various personal issues that affect their studies, such as self-esteem issues, a sense of helplessness as a student, feeling lost and overwhelmed by their courses, or even serious issues like depression or other personal problems. You will need to provide encouragement and support for their studies and their self-confidence as students (see the chapter on affective issues), and to some degree you can be a friend to them, but you cannot play the role of counselor or therapist. Tutees with significant problems should be referred to the CTL or to a counselor for help.

0.2. Tutor’s responsibilities

The following are your general responsibilities as a tutor.

• Being prepared for your tutoring sessions. You should have some idea of the type of contents and assignments that they are working on, and you should have some ideas for how to explain things and have them practice or work on group activities, but you should also be flexible and adapt to their needs and difficulties.
• Maintain regular meetings with your tutees, and being punctual and responsible.
• Staying in contact with the CTL and keeping up with any required paperwork or reports.
• Notifying the CTL about problems that arise that you think would be beyond your ability to handle, such as problematic tutees.
• Tutors, especially content area tutors, may need to communicate with the tutees’ professors about course contents, and/or have the tutees talk to professors about course matters that are beyond the tutor’s expertise.
• EMC tutors should contact the CTL or the CTL research professor for help with English, linguistic, or tutoring issues that they need help with.
• Familiarizing yourself with the tutoring and teaching methods (namely, those in this manual and other materials provided by the CTL), and with the field or course in which you are tutoring.
Your responsibilities toward your tutees include the following.

- A professional, respectful attitude and behavior.
- Being kind, helpful, friendly, positive, supportive and encouraging.
- Helping students with their academic and learning difficulties.
- Being respectful and professional toward tutees of the opposite gender. Avoid any discriminatory or insensitive comments or behavior (be it based on gender, race, religion, linguistic preferences, age, class, major, or anything else).
- Pacing your tutoring sessions appropriately for the tutees.
- Providing constructive feedback and encouragement.
- Establishing ground rules about behavior – yours and theirs (see the section on ground rules in the chapter on initial meetings); communicate expectations clearly.
- Communicating well and clearly with tutees.
- Helping the tutee to develop better study skills.
- Trying to help the tutee to become more independent as a student.
- Respect their privacy, e.g., not sharing personal details or details of their difficulties with other students.

It is not your responsibility to do the following.

- Helping the student to earn an A; tutees are responsible for their own academic performance.
- Doing their work for them, including doing assignments, or doing a significant amount of proofreading or editing for them.
- Knowing everything about the subject.
- Working with students who are rude or disrespectful, who refuse to do their work, who cause behavioral problems during your meetings, or who engage in harassing behavior toward tutors or other tutees.

It is the responsibility of the tutees to do the following.

- Not being late or skipping sessions without valid excuses, and not being regularly late or absent.
- To do their own work.
- To act responsibly and fairly toward tutors and other tutees.
- Respecting the tutor's privacy.
- Not being overly demanding of tutors and their time.

0.3. Taking care of tutees

As mentioned, your role is not that of a counselor or therapist, but as a coach. You should do what you reasonably can to help and encourage the tutees. Those in need of tutoring are likely discouraged and lacking in self-confidence and study skills. The chapter on affective issues explains some of the emotional baggage that tutees may have. You will need to watch for signs of the following, and respond accordingly.
• lack of confidence
• poor self-concept
• poor self-esteem
• excessive or unstable self-esteem or over-confidence
• emotional immaturity
• learned helplessness, i.e., feeling helplessness as a student
• discouragement
• lack of motivation or demotivation
• anger issues
• anxiety
• depression

For more, see the chapter on affective issues, and the section on feedback in the chapter on teaching methods.

As a tutor, you can encourage the students and help them as much as possible. For more serious cases, be sure to refer the case to the CTL or the school’s counselling center for help or intervention, e.g., if the person’s behavior is too much for you to handle; does things that make you or other tutees feel uncomfortable; acts disruptively; engages in harassing behavior; makes threats (against him/herself, others, or you); suffers from serious depression lasting more than two weeks; talks about suicide; or shows other signs of serious problems.

Occasionally, a tutee might become emotionally attached or romantically interested in a tutor, or vice-versa. You should not allow yourself to become emotionally attached to a tutee, and you should not allow a tutee to become emotionally attached or romantically interested in you. You should be careful about your behavior, including the way you dress, the way you talk and interact with others (especially with those of the opposite gender), your gestures, or body language, so as not to encourage a tutee to become interested in you. Such a situation can hinder your effectiveness as a tutor, cause distraction for the tutee and distract the tutee from focusing on his/her studies, and can make other tutees feel negatively toward you and the meetings. If there is a healthy, mutual attraction between a tutor and a tutee, it is best to keep it outside of the tutoring sessions, e.g., to pursue it after the tutoring relationship has ended.

Emotional attachments in tutoring, mentoring, or counselling relationships are ethically problematic, because the tutee (or client) is in an emotionally weaker position, as s/he likely struggles with emotional issues like those above. Such a person is likely to feel attachment toward an authority figure such as a tutor. A tutor who opens him/herself up to a tutee’s emotional interest may unintentionally be taking advantage of a tutee’s emotional weaknesses. Thus, a tutor has to avoid taking advantage of this unequal situation, even unknowingly, by maintaining a safe emotional distance from a tutee who shows signs of attachment or attraction. In serious cases, the tutor may need to contact the CTL to have a tutee assigned to another tutor, especially if the tutee starts to engage in harassing or inappropriate behavior.
1. Tutees’ learning needs

1.1. False conceptions and expectations
These are very common misconceptions that people have about teaching and learning, and the next section will explain why these are misguided.

1.1.1. Memorization
Many people think of memorization as learning, or as the most important learning technique. The problem is that there are limits to how much we can memorize, especially when trying to memorize large amounts of material for an exam. It also leads to rather superficial learning, and in the long run, we forget most of what we memorize. Some memorization is necessary, but it should never be the most important thing.

1.1.2. Information transfer
It is tempting for a teacher or tutor to think of his/her role as transferring information from his/her brain to the students’ brains – a knowledge dump model. Teachers find it easier to lecture and attempt to dump knowledge into the learner’s brain, and many students have come to expect this, because this is how they have always been taught. This, however, leads to superficial learning, rather than deeper learning; it does not work very well.

1.1.3. Dispenser of knowledge
It is also tempting for a tutor (or teacher) to think of himself/herself as a master of knowledge who has the answers. This puts an unrealistic burden on the tutor, as the tutor cannot be expected to have all the answers. It would be more effective (and less draining) for tutors to think of themselves as guides and facilitators – those who help the students learn, not those who feed them information and answers. As a tutor, you will find your job as a tutor more rewarding, less demanding, and less tiring if you do so.

1.2. How people learn
There’s much that can be said about the psychology of learning, but here we’ll focus on a few key concepts and misconceptions. Below are a few key principles of learning that teachers and tutors need to understand.

1.2.1. Learning by association
Imagine trying to learn the following list of higher-level English words.
• triskeidekaphobia (irrational fear of the number 13)
• desquamation (skin peeling off)
• laparoscopy (a device or technique for internal surgery, using a tube containing small cameras and instruments inserted through a small incision)
• duotrigintillion (a large number – $10^{99}$, or a 1 followed by 99 zeros)
• accoutrements (accessory gear, especially of a soldier)
• synecdoche (a literary technique, where a part of something metaphorically denotes a whole)

How well would you remember these after 24 hours? How about days or weeks after memorizing them for an exam? Why not? The first problem is that it is not only impossible to associate these words with each other, but it is very difficult to connect them with anything you know. At best, you could remember ‘fear of 13’, but unless you know the Greek roots that form ‘triskeidekaphobia,’ it might be difficult to remember it for very long. The other terms may be foreign to your personal experience or what you know, and thus, difficult to remember, unless maybe you have personally experienced or read about strange skin diseases, hi-tech surgery, very large numerals, serving in an army unit that uses words from French, or classical literary techniques.

Our minds can only learn new information that can be meaningfully associated with something that we know or are familiar with. If we try to pour disconnected facts into our brains, our brains cannot make meaningful connections, associations, and relationships among the new data, or between new and familiar data or concepts.

Now one might think that learning a set of thematically related words or concepts might help. That is indeed better than a random list of words, but it is still not sufficient for effective learning. Learning also must be meaningful, and needs to have some kind of conceptual basis.

As a tutor, you will want to discourage your tutees from simply trying to memorize facts, and instead focus on more meaningful and effective types of learning. Students might be able to memorize enough facts to do well on the exam, but without meaningful learning, they will forget them later. When they take a more advanced course, they will find themselves in difficulty, because they have not properly learned, or have forgotten, foundational concepts and information from a previous course.

### 1.2.2. Conceptual learning

Rote or mechanical learning is superficial learning, because not many strong mental connections are formed. We learn by forming new connections between neurons (brain cells), and between different parts of the mind and brain.

For example, a Korean learning the English perfect tense needs to make many conceptual connections in order to successfully learn the tense, e.g.: how it is formed; the pronunciation of perfect verb forms; how it is related to and distinct from the English present and past tenses; how it related to and distinct from the Korean tenses; the verb form and its functions and meanings; how it is used in actual contexts; a number of useful, meaningful examples. This requires a good conceptual understanding of its functions and how it is used in real contexts, as well as useful, realistic examples of its usage. It will be unhelpful to remember dry grammar rules and a few isolated example sentences; a real understanding of its meanings and functions in real contexts, and examples from realistic
contexts, are necessary.

Concepts provide a larger framework that allow us to learn new concepts, ideas, facts, details, and skills. Without such a framework, we cannot learn effectively. A framework, or schema (as psychologists call it) allows for the formation of deeper and stronger connections among neurons and different parts of the mind where different bits and kinds of information are stored. To take the example of the English perfect tense, the typical approach of memorizing rules and a few sample sentences leads to the formation of fewer and weaker connections, and hence, superficial learning. Actually understanding its functions, meanings, usage, and real examples, and practicing it conversationally and in writing, lead to deeper learning – the formation of many stronger connections. The more the connections, the better one can learn deeply, remember what one has learned, and use it in real situations.

1.2.3. Meaningful learning

Another problem with the above vocabulary list is its lack of meaningfulness to the typical students – a list of strange words and concepts with no relevance to most people. Learning must be meaningful, because otherwise, students have nothing with which to connect new information.

Let me give an example. Sometimes Korean teenagers have approached me on the street to strike up a conversation with me, but have been unable to say much other than a few phrases, e.g., “Hello... How are you? I like kimchee.” Conversationally, this is quite awkward, but sadly, this is all that they can say to a foreigner after studying English in school for many years. The problem is that they have memorized grammar rules and vocabulary, but have been denied the opportunity for any meaningful learning of English – speaking and writing in any kind of meaningful context. They have only memorized information for taking tests, not for any meaningful purpose. Even simulated role plays in English classes would have provided helpful opportunities to practice and learn real English. They have not actually learned English, but have merely learned some facts about English.

Learning has to have some real purpose or value for the learners. Korean students fail to learn English not only because the teaching methods are often dry and mechanical, and thus, not meaningful, with no real, practical purpose for the students. Good exam scores fails to properly motivate students because it has no personal or practical value for them (or the motivation is a type that is ineffective, as we'll see below). For learning to be meaningful, students need to see or experience at least one of the following. If these are lacking, it is difficult for students to be motivated or to make deeper mental connections, and thus, it is more difficult to learn.

Goals or purpose. Students need to have some sense of purpose in what they are doing. If they see no reason for having to learn something, or if it does not seem to relate to their own goals, it is harder to connect and remember things. For example, many students do not succeed in learning English, because it is taught in a way that seems meaningless to them. Those that succeed do so not necessarily because they are verbally talented, but

---

1 This would include connections among one's knowledge of present, past, and perfect in English, English and Korean tenses, grammatical knowledge, the semantics (meanings) of the perfect, phonology (pronunciation), example verbs (lexical semantics), its usage in context (pragmatics), sample sentences from realistic contexts (pragmatics), and memories of writing and speaking it in realistic contexts (essays, real conversations, conversational role plays in class), and hence, episodic memory (memory for events).
1. Tutees’ learning needs

because they have found some sense of purpose in learning.

**Relevance.** Similarly, students need to see how the material is relevant or applicable to their lives, to their studies, or their future careers. Otherwise, it is very hard to make the necessary mental connections.

**Context.** Learning needs to take place in a meaningful context. Facts cannot be learned unless they relate to a meaningful concept or some other meaningful kind of context. It is context that gives meaning to details, and allows the formation of deeper mental connections. Some different types of context can include:

These kinds of factors provide a richer mental framework that leads to deeper conceptual learning and forming better mental connections.

As a tutor, then, you may need to draw from your experience to explain to your tutees not only the course contents or language skills, but also why they need to learn. Without sounding preachy or pretentious, you may need to help them understand realistically why the materials they are learning might be interesting, worthwhile, or important for them. This may be especially so if they have come from a class where they have suffered through a boring, hour-long PowerPoint lecture that has failed to convey the purpose or relevance of the material.

1.2.4. Learning in context

Learning needs to take place in a meaningful context. Facts cannot be learned unless they relate to a meaningful concept or some other meaningful kind of context. It is context that gives meaning to details, and allows the formation of deeper mental connections. The context is necessary for forming enough mental associations. Some different types of context can include:

1. **Content-based context.** Forming connections and remembering information can be enhanced, for example, if the teacher explains how new material is related to what students have learned previously, or to what they will learn next.

2. **Conceptual context.** Similarly, learning is enhanced if students understand how details relate to more general concepts, and how new facts or concepts related to previously learned concepts.

3. **Social context.** Learning in a social context, e.g., in a group activity or in a social setting, leads to better memory and understanding of new information, as will be discussed below.

4. **Episodic context.** A concrete memory of an event or experience, e.g., how something works, or where and when a person learned something, leads to better learning and better recall of information. This can include a specific event that exemplifies a new concept, a memorable episode where one came to understand something, an experiment done in class, or a group activity where one learned a skill, performed a problem solving activity, or worked through a challenge and came to understand a new idea.

As a tutor, you may need to provide a relevant context for the information that your tutees find difficult to connect with their experience, especially if they have come from a class where the professor has merely attempted to transfer large amounts of data or
abstract information into the students’ brains without a relevant context for the students. Methods like explaining key concepts, walking them through sample textbook problems, or having them do problem solving activities will probably be necessary components of your sessions.

1.2.5. Learning is often hands-on

   Students also learn when they can learn by doing, or by by applying their knowledge to a new situation or problem. For example, students can learn new language structures or words when they have to use them in a dialogue or conversation; they can learn new science concepts by doing hands-on experiments; when they have to work through problems; and when they have to apply newly taught concepts or principles to solving new problems. This can also invoke sensory and/or episodic memories of the learning experience, which can strengthen the mental connections formed.

1.2.6. Motivation and mood affect learning

   Motivation and other attitudes can greatly affect our learning. Emotional stresses from life can interfere with our concentration, mental processing, and ability to learn. Self-esteem and self-concept affect our academic success, our study habits, and learning. Self-esteem affects learning in that it affects one’s belief in one’s abilities, and how effectively one studies. It also relates to our sense of control. Those with poor self-esteem, discouragement, or motivation problems lack a sense of control and involvement, which affects their ability to concentrate, remember, and process information. Emotional and affective issues also have physiological effects that can interfere with health and learning.

   The right kind of motivation is also important. Those with more immediate, self-focused forms of motivation (passing a test, getting a good grade) use poorer study habits, tend to learn superficially, and tend to forget information after the test or course is over. Those with stronger forms of motivation (intellectual or personal interest in the material) study more effectively, learn more deeply, and remember better. These types of motivation will be discussed below.

   As a tutor, you will need to provide positive feedback and encouragement. These are also discussed more below.

1.2.7. Learning is personal, not mechanical or passive

   Students may have difficulty because of a boring classroom experience. If an instructor uses pure lecture format for a whole hour, especially a PowerPoint based lecture, then the learning experience is passive, much like watching TV. This leads to superficial learning, because students are not interacting with the material, and are not actively engaged mentally in their learning. Learning needs to be meaningful in the ways explained above. There is also a personal, intellectual dimension to learning that is important, which explains why passive learning is often superficial.

   Think about times when you learned something by listening to a lecture, versus times you learned something by figuring it out on your own. Which kind of learning situation help you learn better, or felt more rewarding? When you learn by grappling with a challenge, figuring things out, and learning on your own, you learn better – you develop a deeper understanding because you have engaged more mental processes and more parts of
your mind and brain. Thus, you have developed deeper and richer mental connections – deeper learning. As a result, you understand better and remember better than by passive learning. This is what psychologists call the generation effect – by generating or creating your own understanding yourself, you develop richer mental connections and learn better.

1.2.8. Learning is often social

More progressive instructors like to have students learn in group activities, rather than relying so much on traditional lectures. There are very compelling reasons for this from our understanding of the psychology of learning. Working on problems in groups can promote the generation effect, as people together work to find ideas, deal with a challenge or task, and figure things out together. This often leads to better and deeper learning than working alone. This also often leads to greater creativity, more ideas, and better results compared to working alone. The group work is more challenging, intellectually stimulating, and emotionally rewarding (e.g., more fun), which in turn enhances motivation and other attitudinal or emotional factors that lead to better learning. Learning in a group activity also invokes episodic memory of the group process and experience, which also reinforces the learning experience.

As tutors, you can make use of this by having tutees work in groups to work through tasks, exercises or problems. This will make the experience more enjoyable and less intimidating for them. This also takes some of the burden off of yourself.

1.3. Summary

Your tutees may be struggling because of how they have been taught in the past, how they have been trained to learn by their educational environment, or because of professors in their current courses who use very traditional techniques. Traditional methods like full-hour lectures, PowerPoint based lectures, and focusing on memorization do not help students, and actually hinder genuine, deep learning.

As a tutor, you can help by providing them an alternative learning environment. Thus, it is not your role to repeat the information dump experience that they have had in class, or to help them mechanically memorize large amounts of information for the next exam. It is also not necessarily your role to dispense all the answers and information they need. Rather, you can serve as a guide or facilitator; properly speaking, a tutor is a learning guide who can guide, not necessarily teach directly. After discussing matters of understanding yourself and your tutees, some more modern and interactive types of learning will be described below.
2. Affective factors in learning

Affective factors (long-term emotional states and disposition) such as motivation can have a significant impact on learning. These factors not only affect how well one can concentrate, process information, and retain information, but can also lead students to use effective or ineffective study habits.

2.1. Motivation

As a tutor, you will probably find that many of your tutees have problems with motivation. There are healthy and unhealthy forms of motivation, as well as students who have no motivation to learn. The type of motivation that drives college students falls into one of these following categories (see, e.g., Griffiths, 2003), with the two main kinds being intrinsic and extrinsic motivation\(^2\).

1. **Intrinsic motivation.** This is internal motivation, where the student has an intrinsic interest in and motivation for what s/he is studying or doing. That is, the student is internally motivated by his/her own personal goals or desires. Such motivation leads to the most successful learning; such students typically use more effective learning strategies and study habits, focus on deeper understanding of conceptual knowledge, and thus, they tend to be more successful. This can include the following subtypes (and these can overlap with each other).

   [a] **Personal.** The student takes a personal interest or pleasure in the subject.

   [b] **Intellectual.** The student derives intellectual satisfaction from the subject, and has a strong intellectual interest in the field.

   [c] **Social.** In learning a foreign language, the student has a desire to integrate socially and culturally into a different culture, have friendships in the second language, and to some degree identify with the culture and its people, and develop a second language and bicultural identity. In learning a language, this kind of motivation is a particularly strong intrinsic motivation, which can lead to the most successful language learning.

2. **Extrinsic motivation.** Extrinsicly motivated students are not motivated by an intrinsic interest or desire for what they study, but by external factors and pressures\(^3\). Such students are motivated by goals such as getting good grades, good test scores, getting into a good school, or getting a good job. Such students typically rely on less efficient study and learning methods, such as simply memorizing material for exams, rather than seeking a deeper understanding of conceptual knowledge.

---

\(^2\) 내적 / 외적 동기.

\(^3\) This generally corresponds to what some psychologists also call pragmatic or instrumental motivation.
3. **Perfectionism.** Some students are driven by a strong desire to succeed and to be the best, but often this manifests itself in a very unhealthy mindset known as perfectionism. Perfectionists often have an extreme form of extrinsic motivation. However, some may have an intrinsic motivation in a particular subject, but their studies are driven by a perfectionistic desire to succeed, and their behavior will in many ways be like that of very extrinsically motivated persons. This is discussed more below.

4. **Stop-gap.** Some students begin college with no idea of why or for what purpose they study or are in college. They are in a temporary motivational limbo, operating on a temporary or provisional motivation until they can figure out a reason. While in this stop-gap state, their thinking and study habits will be basically similar to those of extrinsically motivated students.

5. **Demotivated (amotivated).** Some students have been completely discouraged and have lost all their motivation. This condition can be linked to depression, perfectionism, low self-esteem, excessive pressure, and other problems.

The two most important types are intrinsic and extrinsic, plus the non-motivated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic (internal)</th>
<th>Self-motivated, motivated by personal or intellectual interest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic (external, pragmatic)</td>
<td>Motivated by external factors, e.g., reward-driven (grades, test scores, admission to a good school or program, job placement, financial rewards...)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demotivated / amotivated</td>
<td>Discouraged, depressed, and/or burned out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learned helplessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>May blame others or distrust teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense a lack of control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These general types correspond to another distinction made by psychologists, the learning versus performance orientation. Here, orientation has more to do with mindset, while motivation has more to do with long-term desires, goals, and affective states. Some students focus more on learning and understanding, while others focus more on performance. Performance-focused students are concerned with extrinsic rewards like grades, and/or with being seen by others as successful and performing well, rather than focusing on deeper learning. Intrinsic motivation and the learning orientation often correlate with each other; and likewise, extrinsic motivation corresponds to the performance orientation.
Learning vs. performance motivation

Learning | Motivated by desire to learn, gain understanding, and gain mastery of contents

Performance | Motivated by desire for positive evaluations (e.g., scores, grades), and avoiding negative evaluations / bad grades

Intrinsic or learning oriented motivations are associated with better study and learning habits. Extrinsic or performance based motivations correlate with weaker study habits. Consider which categories you tend toward in your different courses or endeavors. Your motivation may be different in different subjects or courses, as well as in regard to using English.

Intrinsic / learning motivation

**General orientation**
- Seeks deeper comprehension of contents
- Attempts to make connections among ideas and details
- Able to use logical/analytical skills to connect evidence to conclusions, and apply such skills to new problems or situations
- Asks questions for deeper understanding
- Able to learn independently

**General approach**
- Motivated by intellectual or personal curiosity
- Attempting to maximize their understanding (e.g., by asking questions, doing extra reading, engaging in discussions, considering different perspectives)
- Able to optimize their use of time and effort, focusing their efforts efficiently and wisely.

**Self-awareness as a learner (meta-cognition)**
- What do I know about this subject?
- How much time do I need to spend on this?
- What would be good strategies or ways of learning this?
- How can I estimate or predict the outcome of this task (how well can I expect to do)?
- How should I revise or adapt my study procedures, strategies, or methods?
- How can I spot an error if I make one?
- Did I understand what I just read?

**Planning & study strategies (self-regulation)**
- Maintain attention during instruction and problem solving
- Know how to adapt their approaches when not succeeding
- Use visualization when reading and problem solving
- Set priorities and goals
- Take opportunities for practice, rehearsal; Mentally reviewing and rehearsing one’s comprehension, during the process of reading / studying, and afterwards
### Intrinsic / learning motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Make connections between new knowledge and previous knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask themselves questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on the more important aspects or information of a task or text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tune out or focus less on less important information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognize when a relationship or connection occurs or is implied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental rehearsal and review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More use of mnemonic techniques – less effort spent on memorization, more on conceptual learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realizes when one doesn’t see connections or understand concepts, but tries to do so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deeper conceptual learning; longer retention of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Better able to manage and organize information; not overwhelmed by it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading, writing, presentation skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selectively focusing more on important sections of reading materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skimming &amp; scanning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guessing meaning of new words from context (not over-reliant on dictionary look-up)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making intelligent guesses (inferences), using context cues for comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning different styles of English usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using paraphrases in English (as a second language) when one can’t find the right expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning out one’s reading; e.g., time required; looking in advance for connections and key points; making and refining predictions about what they are reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking oneself for comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looking for concepts, connections in the process of reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For major assignments, finding an appropriate, specific topic and focus (e.g., for an essay or presentation) and collecting sufficient information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successful, organized approach to major assignments, e.g., by brainstorming, using graphical organizers (concept maps, diagrams, etc.), and/or outlines to generate and organize ideas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Longer term learning goals (e.g., related to intellectual fulfilment, mastery of concepts), rather than just good grades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More realistic goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek challenges and learning opportunities; more likely to take reasonable, calculated risks – taking on moderately difficult challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More persistence – less likely discouraged by setbacks, which don’t affect long-term goals or expectations for the future</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feedback, errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Know when and where to ask for help (from teacher, tutor, counselor, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking feedback and making good use of feedback for self-improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using errors positively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joining a study group for help</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

4 Mnemonics: Mnemonics [memory aids / devices / tricks / techniques; 연상 기법 聯想 記法, 기억법 記憶法]. A classic, practical book on mnemonics is *The Memory Book*, by Harry Lorayne & Jerry Lucas; published by Ballantine Books / Random House (originally published in 1974, with many editions and reprints since then).
Intrinsic / learning motivation

**Affective aspects**
- Less fear of failure
- Stronger belief in one’s abilities; more self-efficacy; greater hope of success
- Less anxiety and dislike toward school or courses
- Acting independently, taking charge of their own learning
- Ambiguity tolerance – able to tolerate ambiguity or uncertainty (e.g., open-ended matters that lack clear-cut solutions, gray areas, unresolved problems), including uncertainty in learning (being patient when unable to understand something, not being frustrated by a lack of understanding, not giving up easily)
- Sense of control over studies & outcomes – believes his/her investment of effort will pay off, leading to positive outcomes
- Pursuit of goals is guided by a sense of self-efficacy

In contrast to this is the extrinsic or performance oriented learner.

**Extrinsic / performance motivation**

**General orientation**
- Preoccupation with memorizing
- Excessive focus and reliance on details, rather than conceptual understanding
- Fear of failure
- Dependence – relies on what others (e.g., professors) tell them, rather than thinking and learning independently

**General approach**
- Motivated more by performance, grades or other rewards than actual understanding
- Focused on bare essentials – facts and details – rather than making meaningful connections between them
- Focused on reproducing information, rather than conceptual understanding that can be applied to new problems or situations
- Focus on memorizing strategies rather than deep learning

**Awareness**
- Superficial or inconsistent self-awareness as a learner

**Planning, strategies**
- Cramming
- Procrastination (e.g., when hindered by perfectionism)
- For major assignments, attempting an overly general topic or focus that is not manageable
- Collecting not enough information for an assignment
- Collecting too much unorganized or non-relevant information

---

5 Cramming: Studying (e.g., for an exam) by memorizing a large amount of information – especially at the last minute or right before a test or assignment; cramming is often done by rote memorization.
2. Affective factors in learning

Conceptual learning
- Rote\(^6\) (mechanical) memorization and rote learning
- Focusing on memorizing facts rather than learning concepts
- More superficial learning, and shorter retention
- Can feel overwhelmed by amount of information; difficulty in dealing with all the information to be learned or studied

Reading, writing, presentation skills
- Overuse of dictionaries and dictionary look-up; getting stuck on every unfamiliar word and trying to look it up, rather than focusing on contents first or relying on context
- Over-reliance on translating (between English & Korean) in reading or writing
- Overwhelmed by volume of reading; not using reading strategies
- More susceptible to writer’s block

Goals
- Unrealistic goals (e.g., out of perfectionistic expectations, which set a person up for likely failure)
- Or lower goals that are easier to achieve
- Avoiding challenges or risks; prefers to take easier tasks, or easier courses
- More easily affected by setbacks

Feedback, errors
- Avoiding feedback or not acting on it; not making good use of feedback for the sake of improvement
- Not asking for help when needed; trying to solve problems alone

Affective aspects
- More fear of failure, or anxiety; Less confidence or less developed sense of self-efficacy
- Ambiguity intolerance – impatience with ambiguous, unclear, or uncertain matters; impatient when unable to understand; more likely to become frustrated or give up
- After failures or setbacks, tend to invest less effort
- Lacking sense of control over studies & outcomes – pessimistic about his/her efforts, that his/her efforts may not be fruitful
- Less stable motivation and confidence – dependent on circumstances, environment, success, or rewards
- Rather than goals being driven by self-efficacy, one may rely on superficial motivational messages or an inaccurate estimation of one’s abilities (false confidence or false hope)
- More likely to fall into learned helplessness; More susceptible to burnout

Students often learn extrinsic motivation from parents and teachers pushing them too much to study hard and to succeed. They are driven by the pressure to get good scores, good grades, and admission to good schools. This kind of pressure prevents them from learning to enjoy academic subjects and studies for their own merits, benefits, or pleasure. Also, when teachers or parents provide tangible rewards (money, gifts), this robs students of any intrinsic motivation that they might have, and teaches them to develop extrinsic motivation. Thus, as tutors, you should be careful about giving rewards to your tutees. The best rewards that you can give are praise, encouragement and affirmation.

As a tutor, you will need to watch for signs of extrinsic motivation. In fact, most or all your tutees, since they are in need of help, are probably in such a situation because they have been hindered by poor motivation, i.e., unhealthy extrinsic motivation, and have been

\(^6\) Rote: By means of routine, mechanical memorization and learning, without learning in a meaningful context – without regard for conceptual learning, meaningfulness, or practical use.
handicapped by the ineffective study habits that come along with it. It is also important to keep in mind that motivation can vary by area. In some courses or subjects a student might have more intrinsic motivation if the student actually enjoys those areas, but more extrinsic motivation in others in which s/he has little or no intellectual or personal interest. Most of all, when it comes to studying and using English, your students will likely have no intrinsic motivation toward English. You can reassure them that it is okay to feel that way, and to encourage them and provide constructive feedback to help them improve. It will not be realistic to expect them to fall in love with English or every one of their courses. If you can encourage them, and help them with specific study skills, then those things may be helpful enough.

Taking these aforementioned qualities to an extreme is the student who has given up, the discouraged and demotivated students.

Demotivated / amotivated

- Anxiety, lack of confidence; May be discouraged, depressed, and/or burned out
- Learned helplessness; Sense a lack of control
- May blame others or distrust teachers
- Use avoidance and defensive strategies to avoid challenges, difficult tasks, potential risks, and failures
- May set himself/herself up for failure – taking on an unrealistically hard tasks where no one would blame them for failing
- Avoiding and misinterpreting feedback, especially negative feedback; e.g., blames the teacher; blames himself/herself (in an unhealthy way)
- Don’t know how to interpret or use negative feedback – believe their grades are arbitrary
- Believes the teacher dislikes him/her; complains of arbitrary grading or unfair “unwritten” grading policies
- Not seeking help (due to distrust, defensiveness, or hopelessness)
- Don’t understand their problems or what they need to overcome
- Don’t see relationship between amount of work and their (lack of) results or achievement

As a tutor, you will need to watch out for signs of demotivation or depression. Students who are demotivated can exhibit an attitude and behavior known as learned helplessness, where they have come to believe that their situation is hopeless, and have lost the ability or desire to [1] focus their efforts and attention on studying, [2] to be self-motivated and self-disciplined, and [3] to study or even think independently. Such students can become overly dependent on the help of others, or they may go to the other extreme of rejecting help.

As a tutor, your ability to bring about fundamental change in their thinking will be limited; it may not be possible to remotivate them. But you can help them to some degree (and if a student has serious issues, s/he
2. Affective factors in learning

Tutees may complain about having to do work in English. It may not be possible to motivate them to like English, but you can explain to them that English will be important for their future studies, for studying in most fields, and in some way or another, for most professional careers. However, you should be careful not to be “preachy” about it, or to be prescriptive – telling them to learn English, or telling them that they have to do so. Instead, it will be helpful if you can be sympathetic to their concerns, to help them talk through their frustrations and difficulties, and to be supportive and encouraging.

2.2. Perfectionism

Perfectionism is not a healthy mental state or motivation, even though some view it positively, and even brag about it and cultivate it in order to motivate themselves. In fact, it is psychologically unhealthy, and in the long run, self-defeating.

Perfectionism is an attempt to provide oneself affirmation through one's accomplishments, meaning that a person is unable to accept herself/himself as s/he is. The perfectionist seeks other people's attention and approval, to fill a void in his/her sense of acceptance. Thus, it is related to self-esteem problems. The perfectionist is either trying to win others' acceptance and approval, and derive affirmation from them; or s/he is trying to do well enough that s/he can accept herself/himself (“if I can achieve X, then my parents will accept me” or “I can prove that I am worthy of acceptance by others”). This often comes from one's childhood, from a lack of unconditional love and acceptance by one's parents or family. It can also come from too much pressure from parents and teachers to succeed, which teaches the child that s/he is not worthy unless s/he is successful. It can likewise come from social comparison – teachers or parents comparing a child to his/her peers or siblings (“your brother was good in math – why can’t you get good grades like he did?” or “your two classmates got a perfect score on the exam – why didn’t you?”); the Korean practice of 엄친아 is also a form of social comparison. These patterns of social comparison, excessive academic pressure, or a lack of love and acceptance at home lead to self-esteem problems and perfectionism.

Perfectionism may seem to drive successful behavior and hard work. But if the person is successful, this leads to a vicious cycle. The person strives for a certain level – let's call it X. Unless the person achieves X, s/he does not feel fulfilled or accepted. But with effort, s/he may reach level X, but after that, may think, “if I’m really good, then X isn’t good enough; I need to reach level Y.” Upon reaching Y, that is no longer enough, and s/he must reach Z. His/her sense of self-worth depends on every-increasing external accomplishments; s/he will never be satisfied or feel worthy. This is when the person is successful. But at some point the perfectionist will find her/himself in a situation where s/he is overwhelmed, or simply cannot succeed, no matter how hard s/he tries. When a perfectionist reaches this failure mode, s/he consciously doubts his/her self-worth, and...
can fall into depression. S/he is likely to use self-defensive avoidance strategies (designed to protect oneself from threats to one's poor self-esteem) such as procrastination (avoiding something that may show that the person is not so talented or worthy), rationalizing, or other counter-productive behaviors.

2.3. Self-esteem

Students with self-esteem issues will likely have problems with motivation, study habits, and their sense of control, i.e., their sense of control over their lives, their confidence in their ability to study effectively, and control over their academic performance and outcome.

Self-esteem is not a simple thing as motivational speakers and popular self-help books would lead you to believe; it is not just a matter of low or high self-esteem. Also, too much self-esteem is not healthy, either. Each person has a general self-esteem, which includes how s/he values him/herself, how s/he feels about him/herself, and how s/he feels about his/her abilities overall. This ties in with one’s self-confidence and self-concept, which include how we feel about one’s abilities in different areas (e.g., one’s abilities at work, at school, in different school subjects, in relationship, in one’s family, etc.). One’s self-concept and self-confidence can be stronger or weaker in different contexts and domains, and this can be affected by how important a particular domain is for a person. For example, you might feel more confident in learning and using English and French, but less confident in science and math. But if English is your favorite subject and you also like science, these will affect your sense of confidence more, when you are doing English or science learning, than other areas like French or math, which are less important to you, and will affect your sense of confidence less.

This general self-esteem can range from high to low, and can vary somewhat depending on the situation. Overly high esteem is not good, because that means overconfidence, arrogance, and not being aware of one’s limitations. Another dimension of self-esteem is stability. It is important to have not only a healthy amount of self-esteem, but a stable self-esteem as well. A stable self-esteem is not overly affected by less desirable or challenging learning situations that you find yourself in, so when you are doing a challenging task or something in an area that you don’t like, you don’t feel overly threatened. A person with low, average, or good esteem but lacking esteem stability could feel overly threatened – usually, a person with low esteem would lack esteem stability. Thus, a person with low esteem, if it is also unstable, strongly prefer to focus on things that they feel comfortable with, and try to avoid things that they feel uncomfortable with, as those things are actually emotionally threatening to them. In those situations, they may react with anxiety, depression or anger toward things that make them feel threatened. People with overly high esteem are usually unstable; they are overly confident, but can become angry or upset when difficult tasks or other people who outperform them threaten their sense of

Self-concept: What you know yourself, and your understanding of who you are – including your self-identity and self-esteem. This is complex, and different parts or dimensions come out more strongly in different situations and contexts.

Self-identity: Your sense of who you are, based on things that define you, e.g., your relationships, your belonging to and roles in various groups, your individual characteristics.

Self-esteem: Your evaluation of yourself – how well you feel about yourself in general, and in regard to your abilities in specific areas.
2. Affective factors in learning

Students with esteem problems (usually low esteem) may feel threatened by certain courses, using English for assignments, doing presentations, presentations in English, public speaking, or other situations that threaten their sense of self or sense of “face” (체면). They may use avoidance strategies to avoid these situations, such as:

- not trying hard
- depending on classmates in a group project to do more of the work
- projecting a lack of interest or confidence to others to avoid being assigned difficult tasks (“I’m no good at that – let someone else do it”)
- not participating in group activities or group projects
- making excuses
- avoiding face-threatening situations altogether by not doing assignments, avoiding presentations, or avoiding taking difficult courses

These behavioral patterns are also typical of learned helplessness or depression, which generally involve low self-esteem as well as motivational problems. Students suffering from these and other problems (like those below) may need someone to talk to about their problems, such as a tutor, a study skills coach, or even a counselor.

2.4. Attribution

When you do well on an exam, to whom do you usually give credit – do you think it was mainly because of your hard work and intelligence, or because your teacher taught you well? When you do poorly, do you blame mainly yourself (for not studying well enough or not being bright enough), or your professor (for not teaching well)? We often follow this kind of double standard – taking the credit for our successes and blaming others for failures. To some degree, this is normal for psychologically healthy persons, even though it is somewhat illogical. This is what psychologists call attribution – to what we attribute our successes and failures.

Those with self-esteem and other issues engage in more extreme and unhealthy attribution patterns. They may blame themselves excessively for their failures and shortcomings, or may negatively berate themselves and their abilities (“I’m just no good” or “I’m just dumb” kinds of thinking). Or they make engage in blaming others to an excessive degree, e.g., always blaming the teacher for their own failures when it is their fault (maybe the student did not study or pay attention well), or thinking “the teacher just dislikes me and wants to fail me.” Such thinking is very typical of people with problems like low esteem, depression, demotivation, or learned helplessness. They suffer from a sense of no control – they feel like they are not in control of their learning, their ability to succeed due as a result of their efforts. They feel as if they are subject to the control of other people (e.g., teachers) and forces beyond their control.

2.5. Other issues

Students might have other self-esteem issues, such as a general poor self-concept and lack of confidence on his/her abilities. Less likely, you may see a student with an
excessive self-esteem – inflated confidence and an unrealistic belief in his/her abilities. Inflated self-concept is also unstable – such a person is easily angered or upset by situations that threaten his/her exaggerated view of the self.

2.5.1. Affective filters

In addition to the aforementioned problems, students might be under emotional stress from other sources – personal difficulties, a recent argument with a boyfriend or girlfriend, or other stressors that occupy a person's thoughts. Such stressors and negative moods can interfere with a person's thinking processes, concentration, analytical abilities, and even their ability to process and remember new information. They may not be able to study well unless they either [1] resolve the issues weighing upon their minds, or [2] they learn to compartmentalize – putting the problem into a separate mental “compartment” and “walking away” from it for a while in order to focus on the task at hand. Negative moods can include regret and depression, and if these are strong or long-lasting, the student may need counseling.

2.5.2. Regret

Feeling regret is a fairly normal thing, and students may regret after doing poorly in a course or on an exam. However, regret can sometimes be unhealthy and run out of control. The psychological purpose of regret is for us to contemplate what has happened and for us to learn from our mistakes, if possible, or to learn from our experiences. Regret is healthy when we reflect on such things and are able to learn from our mistakes by making positive changes in our study habits, attitudes, or goals, thereby allowing us to improve our study strategies and better order our lives. In other situations, we can simply gain wisdom from our experiences, or better understand our limitations. The purpose of regret is to learn from the past and then move on, and not to dwell on the past.

Regret is unhealthy if we keep dwelling on the past. When we do so, regret becomes paralyzing, and no longer serves the positive function that it was designed for. When this happens, regret works in an unhealthy and irrational manner. For example, a person stuck in regret may blame herself for something that was actually beyond her control, where she could not have done anything. Or regret operates with a hindsight bias – when looking back, one thinks, “I should have known better,” when a normal person in the situation at the time would have no way of knowing or guessing; one could only realize it later with hindsight. An overpowering, malfunctioning regret can coincide with, be symptomatic of, or lead to depression, perfectionism, or other affective problems.

When a student has excessive regret about one's academic performance, s/he may be too self-focused, and may need to constructively work on changing his/her study habits and self-discipline, rather than simply dwelling on the past or on negative feelings toward oneself (e.g., feelings of self-pity or helplessness, which are unproductive).
2.5.3. Depression

Short-term feelings of depression may be normal, but if it continues for more than two weeks, a student will need someone to talk to. Longer-term psychological depression can come in the form of mild depression, known as dysthymia, or full-blown, serious clinical depression. These can affect academic performance, concentration, memory, and physical health, and students suffering from longer-term depression need to talk to a counselor. In serious cases, tutors will need to contact the CTL or the school’s counseling center, e.g., if a tutee’s depression is serious and last more than two weeks, if s/he talks about committing suicide, talks of threats or harming others, or shows signs of other serious emotional disturbances.

2.5.4. Procrastination and writer’s block

When you try to write a paper, but simply cannot make any progress, especially in getting started, this is known as writer’s block – for example, you sit down at the computer to begin an essay, and after an hour you find that you have typed nothing, or maybe just a few lines, and cannot think of what to write. The same can hold true of other assignments other than writing assignments. Or you may find yourself unable to focus, and thus end up wasting time and procrastinating.

Writer’s block and procrastination can be caused by affective filters like those above. Perfectionism in particular can be an affective block to starting on or progressing on an assignment. The student is overly focused on producing a perfect final product, and is worried about what the professor will think. However, a paper, presentation or project is not just a product, but a process, which has to start in a rudimentary form. Thus, it is important to focus on sketching out outlines and rough drafts, without even thinking about the final product or what others will think of it.

Another affective filter can come from “negative voices” from one’s past. One might be discouraged by a teacher (or parent) in the past who was overly critical and harsh. A student can internalize these discouraging, critical messages as “negative voices” in one’s mind, and when s/he needs to do a major assignment, s/he is discouraged by self-doubts from these negative voices. The student is probably not consciously aware of these “voices” at the time, but is aware of only the resulting self-doubt, or is maybe just aware of a general psychological hindrance. The student needs to reflect on likely sources of this hindrance, such as past teachers (or parents or others) who were overly harsh or critical, or who put the student under excessive pressure to succeed.

Writer’s block can also be caused by too much or too little information. Sometimes the student does not have enough information to properly plan the assignment or to know what s/he can write about. In that case, s/he needs to go find more information and develop more ideas first, before trying to start the assignment. More often, college students overestimate what they can cover in an assignment – they try to take on a topic that is too broad for one assignment, and try to cover too much information when writing an essay or
preparing a presentation. The student is overwhelmed by too much information and an overly broad topic, and the writer's block comes from a feeling of being lost, overwhelmed, and not knowing where to start. Most often, the student needs to focus on a more specific topic.

Students may also have difficulty with the planning and preparation. Students need to be able to brainstorm ideas, organize their ideas, and turn their ideas into a specific, well-focused outline for the assignment (and students need to find the right system that works for them). Tutors can help them with the process of brainstorming, outlining and planning for papers, presentations or projects.

2.6. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a quality that is most relevant for tutors and teachers, and secondly, for students. Self-efficacy is basically a belief in one’s own competence – a positive sense of and confidence in one’s ability and effectiveness as a teacher (or as a student). As a teacher or tutor, this means that you are aware of the specific ways that you can be an effective teacher, e.g., specific abilities and strengths as a tutor or teacher, and your successful teaching experiences that form your sense of confidence as a tutor. As a student, your sense of efficacy means that you believe that you can study and learn effectively, you know your particular strengths as a student, and you believe that you can be academically successful.

Over time, tutors will hopefully develop a sense of self-efficacy in their content area and/or in regard to English skills. As a new tutor, you probably at least have a strong sense of efficacy in your ability as a student, which is probably why you signed up to become a tutor. Your sense of efficacy derives from and can be developed further by the following:

• You gain a sense of efficacy from good teachers that you have had, who role-modelled efficacy and effectiveness as teachers.
• You have a sense of efficacy as a student that you can draw from as a tutor.
• You have successful experiences as a tutor, which over time contributes to your sense of efficacy.
• You try to project self-confidence as a tutor, in the way you lead and help tutees.

Students may or may not have a sense of self-efficacy as learners. If they are in need of tutoring, they likely lack a sense of efficacy, and need encouragement and help to develop this over time. You can help students develop at least the beginnings of a sense of efficacy over time by doing the following – but keep in mind that some tutees may require a lot more than one semester of help.

• Develop and convey your sense of effectiveness as a teacher, which will be a helpful role model for your tutees.
• Project a sense of confidence. If you convey self-confidence, this will help their learning mood and will encourage them.
• Help students develop a sense of learning effectiveness by helping them to improve their study habits and skills.
• Convey warmth, encouragement, and acceptance.
• Help them to realize their perfectionistic tendencies, or demotivated tendencies, and provide specific encouragement accordingly.
• Provide effective, specific feedback and positive encouragement.

2.7. Self-awareness exercises
Try the following with your tutees to have them think about their motivation, and negative affective states or motivations that may be hindering their learning. Have them discuss these with each other and/or with you.

2.7.1. Examining your study habits
1. How often do you have the following?
   • Writer’s block
   • Difficulty in starting other assignments
   • Difficulty concentrating when you need to study

2. How do you handle such problems? What do you think causes them? Are they due to any of the following:
   • Demotivation
   • Negative internalized voices from the past
   • Unrealistic perfectionistic expectations (expectations that you have of yourself; or worries that your teacher has high expectations that you can’t meet)
   • You chose a topic that is too broad
   • You chose a topic that is too narrow
   • You have too much information that you don’t know how to organize
   • You need to find more information before proceeding

3. Do you believe that you can study effectively? Do you believe that you can succeed if you try reasonably hard? (self-efficacy)

4. How do you plan your study time? How do you prioritize your learning?

2.7.2. Motivation and expectations – Some guiding questions
On your own, think about the following. Write out your responses and discuss them with a friend, or if necessary, with a counselor or other person that you can trust.

1. Describe what you expect your future to be (in say, five or ten years from now). What do you expect to be doing? What kind of person will you be – how will you be different than now?
2. Describe what kind of person you would like to become. In what specific ways would you like to change?

3. What kinds of things do you think about the most (during your free time, when you daydream, when your mind wanders...)?

4. What upsets you most?

5. Now... What do these (#1-4) say about your values? Your motivation? What is most important to you?

6. Do you feel like you are in control of your life?

7. Do you feel like you are in control of your learning?

8. Are your expectations reasonable? What is the source of these expectations? Are they about proving yourself? Are you trying to justify or prove yourself to someone else (or even to yourself)? In other words, are you a perfectionist?
3. Learning and personality styles

3.1. Learning styles and preferences

Much has been written about differences in individual learning styles and individual differences in learning. This has become a popular topic among educators, with many different classification systems, published studies, popular books, popular articles, and diagnostic quizzes available for teachers. This has become a veritable cottage industry. You may have heard of these or others:

1. **Multiple intelligences (MI).** Educational psychologist Howard Gardner has successfully popularized his MI theory among educators, according to which, students are talented in one or more specific types of intelligence – logical-mathematical, spatial, linguistic, kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic, and existential. However, solid scientific evidence or diagnostic methods are lacking, and it can difficult for teachers to develop different activities to accommodate students’ supposedly different styles.

2. **Kolb’s learning styles.** This model and other similar models posit several different cognitive styles in learning. Some categories are somewhat unclear and difficult to define, while others seem to make some intuitive sense. As for the clearer categories, learners are classified according to whether they like concrete experience or abstract thinking, or observing versus experimenting. This model also may lack solid scientific evidence; however, some aspects of it can be helpful, as many have found it helpful for understanding themselves.

3. **Auditory cf. visual learning styles.** This seems very intuitive – some of us feel that we learn better with visual information (reading, visual aids, real objects), and some of us feel that we learn better from auditory information (listening to lectures or such).

4. **Various learning style indices.** A Google search will easily turn up various other classification schemes and inventories of learning styles, focusing on individual, personality, academic, or workplaces preferences, abilities, or strengths (e.g., the VARK model, the Felder-Silverman model, the Gregorc model...). In fact, over 70 such learning style indices exist, with no way of determining which one is better.

However, research psychologists and educational psychologists have sounded important warnings about this whole area of work. Many published studies have claimed to show evidence for different learning styles. However, more recent meta-analyses or reviews of such studies by psychologists have shown serious shortcomings in these studies, in that they lack proper scientific controls or the kinds of experimental designs that would...

---

7 Other theories of intelligence have been proposed, most notably, hierarchic intelligences. Psychologist Robert Sternberg proposed a model of three types of intelligence, each of which in turn consists of several subtypes. The model is complex, is difficult to test, lacks scientific evidence, and is difficult for educators to practically apply.
provide solid scientific support for the supposed findings; i.e., all these experiments were lacking or poorly designed, and cannot reliably demonstrate the effects of learning styles. Maybe some of these are valid, but the scientific evidence so far is lacking.

Even the seemingly intuitive and likely distinction between auditory and visual learners is suspect. The reliable studies on this do not show strong learning effects for these as learning styles, but rather, the visual-auditory distinction is more of an individual learning preference. Clearly, we tend to prefer one or the other, but this preference may not necessarily translate to or correlate with superior learning by one means or the other (perhaps such an effect exists, but again, currently the evidence is weak or controversial). What studies do show, however, is that both types of people in general – those with auditory or visual preferences – learn better when speakers or lecturers use both of these sensory “channels”. That is, when a speaker or teacher enhances his/her lecture with visual aids, listeners or students learn better – whether they consider themselves to be visual or auditory learners.

Two of the dimensions in the Kolb inventory seem useful and sensible (but again, one must keep in mind that this system is open to criticism for a lack of strong scientific evidence). Some people prefer more concrete kinds of learning, while others prefer more abstract kinds of learning and reasoning. Some prefer more observational kinds of learning, while others prefer experimenting. These dimensions correspond roughly to some of the dimensions of the MBTI, which also capture more personal dimensions as well. For tutors and tutees, this seems more useful, so the next section will explain implications of MBTI for learning; we will focus on this, as it would be more relevant for tutoring.

3.2. MBTI: Personality types and personality dynamics

Because tutoring involves social and interpersonal dynamics, and people of different relationship status (younger tutees and more senior, experienced tutors), the quality of the interpersonal as well as intellectual dynamics is important for success in the tutoring sessions. The MBTI (Myers-Briggs Personality Type Inventory) can be helpful for examining ourselves and others that we teach. The MBTI posits
four different dimensions, and each dimension has two categories:

1. I/E: introversion – extroversion
2. S/N: sensing – intuitive
3. T/F: thinking – feeling
4. J/P: judging – perceiving

These then combine to form one of sixteen categories that a person could be classified as, e.g., INTP, ESFJ, and such. The S/N and J/P dimensions in particular have implications for learning preference, while the I/E and T/F dimensions have implications for interactions between you and your tutees.

Note that the MBTI is a classification of personality preferences, not abilities; it is not appropriate to draw conclusions about your abilities from your MBTI. Each personality type has its advantages and disadvantages; none are inherently better or inferior to others. The MBTI types are about personality types and preferences, not abilities; and they are not about learning styles. Rather, they may influence or indirectly relate to your learning styles, so your MBTI type may tell you about types of learning that may work better for you, and strengths and weaknesses in learning that are due to your personality preferences.

Also, keep in mind that the following descriptions are tendencies, not absolute. In fact, these dimensions are not necessarily either/or, but in some, one could be in-between. Some people, for example, might be in between introvert and extrovert, and how extroverted or introverted they are can depend on the situation. Thus, if they take the MBTI more than once, they might get different results for this dimension. Thus, it is best to think of each dimension as a scale or continuum, not an either/or classification. In some dimensions a person might fall absolutely in one category or another, while in other dimensions they could be in-between.

It can be helpful to know your own MBTI type. The main purpose of MBTI is for personal awareness and understanding. It may indicate the kinds of learning habits, activities, and careers that you may prefer, but again, it deals with preferences, not abilities. Also keep in mind that you cannot diagnose your tutees’ personality types. But you can gain some sense for some of their tendencies, and accordingly adjust how you interact with them and what you do.

**I/E: Introversion / extroversion**

This dimension has to do with not only one’s social preferences, but more fundamentally, where one’s mental energy comes from. Extroverts are not only socially outgoing, but more importantly, they derive their mental energy from stimulation from social interactions. They prefer to direct their energy and attention to the outside world. Introverts find this tiring, and instead need time alone to recharge. This does not mean that they are unsocial or necessarily shy, but that they need time alone. They also prefer to direct their energy and attention inward, and enjoy personal reflection and contemplation. They prefer to think through problems themselves, while extroverts like to talk things out.

8 In the table below, ‘extrovert’ is the normal English spelling, but for some reason, the MBTI creators chose to label it ‘extravert’ and ‘extraversion’.
These preferences have implications for learning and learning environments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>introvert</th>
<th>extrovert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introverts prefer studying and learning alone or independently. Their strength is reflective thinking and analysis (thus, some of the best scholars are introverts). They may enjoy abstract learning, and learning things sequentially. They tend to prefer quiet, and have to shut out external stimuli to focus on their thinking. Social interaction is draining, and they need time alone to recharge. In studying, and in language learning (like English as a second language), introverts may prefer individual study and traditional rote learning. Group projects or group work may not be their best style, but they may need to adapt – get out of their shell, improve their social skills, and discover the advantages of working and learning in groups.</td>
<td>Extroverts depend on their external social world for mental stimulation; they get their energy from social interaction, not from being alone. They like group activities, like group tasks in class or outside of class. In learning a foreign language, they like to speak it and use it communicatively. They may prefer concrete, hands-on learning than abstract learning. They may be more comfortable thinking and working when with their peers, but may need to work on personal reflective thinking at times. They are more likely comfortable with risk-taking and thinking on the spot.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are advantages and disadvantages for each of these for learning and studying. In a tutoring situation, group interaction is important, and introverts may need encouragement to focus less on self-study and memorization, which may not always be the best strategy for effective learning, and instead open up to group work in a tutoring session with fellow tutees and with a tutor. Extroverts may need more encouragement to reflect on themselves, e.g., to develop a greater self-awareness of themselves and of their learning – what we call metacognition, which will be discussed below.

I/S: Intuitive / sensing

This dimension has to do with the kind of information that one prefers to deal with – and the types of information and learning that one is interested in and remembers well. Sensors like to notice or focus on details, facts and realities of their world; they like to be practical people, who trust their experience and common sense. Intuitives are interested in connections among ideas, facts, and possibilities; they like to be imaginative, creative, theoretically oriented people, and may like to trust their instincts and intuition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>intuitive</th>
<th>sensing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intuitive types are more comfortable with abstract or conceptual thinking and problem solving. They tend to think more holistically, and may prefer more innovative, imaginative creativity.</td>
<td>Sensing types prefer hands-on, practical, or experimental learning. They tend to prefer analytical, methodical, sequential learning, and focusing on details. They may prefer adaptive creativity – creating or synthesizing based on what they have learned, after learning fully about a topic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Intuitive types may like logical problem solving, theoretical work, and more holistic and creative styles of thinking and approaching problems. Sensing types will enjoy working on more realistic kinds of problems and information, and more analytical kinds of problems. In group activities, it can be helpful to have both kinds of learners working together on problems. Giving a group of tutees real or realistic kinds of problems can be helpful, where students have to discover the principles needed or work through the application of ideas to solving a problem. Since much of learning involves understanding both concepts and how to apply them, each type can learn from the other. Problems can arise if a person is very strongly intuitive fails to see the need for practical application of ideas, or has difficulty conveying ideas clearly to others; or if a strongly sensing person wants to do hands-on or analytical work without dealing with the underlying concepts. Tutors may need to steer students away from these extremes.

**T/F: thinking / feeling**

Thinkers like to decide and act based on objective criteria, logic, or what makes sense, and thus, they may be seen as cold or impersonal. Feelers like to decide and act based on personal values, feelings, and concern for others; they may sometimes seem too emotional.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>thinking</th>
<th>feeling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinkers prefer and tend to be good at logical, systematic thinking skills and types of learning. They tend to more abstract conceptual learning, as well as retaining factual information. They prefer logical arguments and argumentation. In moral reasoning and decision making, they focus on justice and self-justice. They can be self-motivated workers who don’t depend so much on others’ approval or encouragement. But they can be less sensitive to others’ needs or feelings, and may need to learn to be more social, sensitive to others’ feelings, or encouraging to others.</td>
<td>Feelers can be good team workers, social leaders, and encouragers, but less comfortable with the demands of logical thinking tasks. They may require more encouragement from others, and their feelings may get hurt more easily. They also like to give encouragement and praise to others. They tend to like holistic thinking and learning. In moral decision making and reasoning, they focus more on caring, concern and empathy for others. They prefer supportive relationships with teachers or students.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you are a feeler, it is natural for you to give others encouraging remarks, positive feedback, and praise. If doing so is natural for you, this will be helpful for your tutees. Tutees will need such verbal support, especially if they are feelers, or if they feel discouraged. If you are a feeler, then you yourself expect encouragement from others, and may feel disappointed, even drained over time, if you do not receive such support. As a tutor, you may feel disappointed if you do not receive compliments from your professors, peers, or even your tutees, and you may need to seek support or satisfaction elsewhere (or wait until they express it after the semester).

If you are a thinker, it is less natural for you to give encouragement (thinkers tend to find giving or receiving such expressions as insincere). But doing so will be a helpful, even necessary, habit to cultivate as a tutor. Your tutees, especially the feelers among them, may be in special need of encouragement, and if they do not receive any from you, they can become more discouraged or demotivated. Thinkers themselves do need
encouragement, but not as much. In fact, a lot of encouragement might come across to them as insincere.

If you are a feeler who naturally provides encouragement, do not be surprised if your students do not seem to respond to encouragement. There could be two reasons for this. They could be thinkers, who only need small amounts of encouragement, e.g., a moderate amount of positive feedback for significant accomplishments, rather than praise for minor things, or seemingly excessive praise for significant accomplishments. Alternatively, a person who does not respond to praise may suffer from deep discouragement, poor self-esteem, demotivation, depression, or other issues. The best thing can be to provide more positive but honest feedback, and more specific feedback, noting specific positive aspects, and specific advice on how to improve.

J/P: Judging / perceiving

This last dimension speaks to how people like to process information and make decisions, and the kind of cognitive environment they prefer. Judgers prefer structured, ordered and predictable environments, and so they like to make decisions as soon as possible and have things settled. They are thus organized and productive. Perceivers like to experience as much information and as much of the world as possible. They like to keep their options open, and tend to be flexible, curious and non-conforming, but adaptable. They prefer to take in as much information or experiences as possible before making decisions. They are comfortable with things being open-ended or unresolved, in contrast to judgers, who are more uncomfortable with such situations. Thus, perceivers can be more patient when it comes to learning new things, especially when they do not understand, while judgers can become impatient when they do not understand, and may more likely give up.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Judging</th>
<th>Perceiving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Judgers want to make decisions and move on to the next task, and they put less importance on trying to understand or learn everything (thus, a more holistic type of decision making). They are comfortable with (and probably good at) decision making, things that are clear-cut (unambiguous), setting and implementing study or work priorities, and getting things done. They prefer things that are more structured (like traditional classroom lessons).
Because they like to decide things quickly, they may sometimes want to make decisions too hastily, when they need to get more information, learn more, or consider the needs of other people. They are uncomfortable with uncertainty, and may get frustrated or want to give up when they do not understand something, rather than accepting unresolved, ambiguous or open-ended situations. | Perceivers want to understand more and get more information, rather than to make decisions. They can be more patient in learning, and are less likely to get frustrated or give up when they don’t understand something (ambiguity tolerance). In decision making, they can focus more on specific details. They can wait until they are able to understand something or find the information they need; they can move on to another task and come back to the unresolved matter later. They are more comfortable if things are unresolved, open-ended or ambiguous. However, they may have trouble making decisions when they need to. |
As a tutor, you may need to encourage judges to be more patient and flexible, especially when they have difficulty understanding new concepts. You may occasionally need to encourage perceivers to come to conclusions or decisions and move on.

**Summary**

Students can take an MBTI from a university counseling center. If you and your tutees have all done so, you can discuss the results of your MBTIs as an ice-breaker activity, and discuss these learning style preferences, so that the tutees can better understand themselves, and so that you can understand and manage them better. You can understand yourself better, know your strengths so you can make good use of them, and know that you may have to adapt, e.g., learning to be more encouraging or supportive if you are an introvert or a thinker type.
4. Basic teaching methods

4.1. Scaffolding

Scaffolding refers to a building framework – a temporary structure erected around a building to provide support for the building, and for the workers. In education, it refers to any kind of supportive framework to explain and teach concepts to students. That is, rather than trying to force students to learn and dumping a lot of information into their brains, we break things up and provide structure to the information so they can learn better. The concept comes from a famous Russian psychologist named Lev Vygotsky.

Below are some common scaffolding techniques to aid learning (adapted from Daniels, Cole & Wertsch, 2007). When you have difficulty explaining concepts or terms to your tutees, it may be because it is too much information packed together at once for the tutee. In that case, try the following for ideas on simplifying and unpacking your explanations:

1. Making conceptual connections

Relating new knowledge to their previous or current knowledge. Relate what you’re teaching to what students already know – make connections clear and explicit.

• Remind them of what they have learned in a previous lesson or class session, and show how it connects with the new material.
• Remind them of what they learned in a previous course (even courses in a different field, or what they learned back in high school) and connect that basic knowledge to the new material.
• Show them how the current material relates to what they will learn in the near future.
• Relate trends or developments in one field with parallel developments in a more familiar field.
• Explain the principles behind electron shell configurations in simple terms, based on physics principles that they already know.
• Relate things to a specific context to help them remember the material better.

For some of these, you can find helpful Youtube videos that provide clear explanations of concepts in various fields.
2. Examples

Provide clear, practical examples to illustrate new concepts. In fact, it can help to provide different kinds of examples.

• Illustrate a vector dynamics principle in physics with different kinds of examples from different areas, such as baseball, a car collision, and an asteroid collision.

3. Making real-life connections

Show how the concept or material relates to their daily lives, e.g., practical, concrete illustrations or applications.

• Explain game theory in economics by showing how it can explain the students’ own buying decisions.
• Explain graphene and carbon nanotubes by relating it to pencil graphite.\(^\text{10}\)

4. Repetition

Excessive repetition is not good (e.g., excessive drilling and repetition in English vocabulary and grammar, the way many Korean children have suffered through English). However, some repetition of important materials is helpful, even necessary.

• Repeat and review important points before moving on.
• Remind students of what they already, and/or what they have recently learned, especially when doing making conceptual connections.

5. Reformulation

Repeating your explanations by reformulating them is sometimes necessary, as well as explaining the same concept in two or three different ways.

6. Simplification

Simplify concepts when possible, so they are more easily “digestible”; some complexities can be skipped, or dealt with later.

7. Chunking

Break more complex concepts into simpler pieces, and present each piece one by one, starting from the most basic; don’t try to teach everything at once. Present the most basic part, do practice activities to reinforce it; after students master the basics, then go on to other more complex aspects.

8. Focusing

Focus students’ attention to the material and have them make guesses in order to make connections and learn (inductive learning).

• In helping them learn a language, draw their attention to language forms (e.g., grammar structures, new vocabulary) and how the forms work in context, making students guess principles from materials.
• Make them guess the meanings of new terms in their readings without looking them up in a dictionary.

\(^\text{10}\) See the Youtube video entitled “How to make graphene” (search for the Veritasium channel).
• Make them guess how one might apply new concepts or theoretical principles to real-world problems.

9. Similarity
Show how new terms or concepts are similar to others that they are familiar with – essentially like making conceptual connections above.

• Show how a new language form (grammar structure, pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.) in English or another foreign language is similar to something they already know in their native language.

• Explain how a new term in statistics is comparable to another concept that they have learned before, e.g., how logistic regression is similar to general regression.

10. Analogies
This is essentially making a connection between new material and something familiar, albeit from a different field.

• E.g., you could explain the plot of Shakespeare’s Hamlet and its relevance like so: “Imagine that your father is the CEO of a major company, who suddenly dies under mysterious circumstances. Immediately one of the board members assumes control of the company and marries your mother. How would you feel?”

11. Comparison and contrast
Highlight how new terms, concepts or materials differ from others that they have learned. Show how something is different from what they would expect.

• Highlight how a new language form differs from what they already know, e.g., how it differs from the equivalent form in their native language.

• In statistics, after explaining how logistic regression is similar to general regression, show how it is also different – how the ‘logistic’ comes into play.

• We might expect a light object and a heavy object, when dropped, to land differently, but they don’t in a vacuum. Show this with a good science video.

• Some students forget why we have four seasons on Earth, thinking that it has to do with the Earth’s distance from the sun. Show them why this is wrong with a simple model of the Earth and sun.

• In statistics, show how some concepts are counter-intuitive and different from our normal daily thinking processes; e.g., random sampling follows rigid criteria that we don’t rely on in our daily decision making processes, as we make snap decisions with often incomplete data.

12. Enhanced or exaggerated input
Exaggerated or hyperbolic expression; exaggerating differences between two contrasting meanings, words, sounds, etc.

• Make your explanations more memorable with cute, humorous exaggerations in the explanation itself or in your vocal delivery (but don’t act too childish).

• Use exaggeration to make English terms or explanations clearer. Speak hyper-correctly or with exaggerated pronunciation or intonation to help them understand.

11 This well known example is from the book How People Learn.
• For students having trouble distinguishing English sounds like /l/ and /r/, over-exaggerate their pronunciation to help them hear the difference.

13. Language simplification
Use simpler or simplified language, especially when explaining things in English as a second language. Sometimes explain in their native language to explain what they cannot understand.
• Sometimes explain in both Korean and English to help them with the English, e.g., explain first in English, and then again in Korean. Use Korean more at first, and more for students with greater difficulties, but over time try to get them used to more English. Don't use too much Korean, which can allow students to get by without trying to learn English.
• Speak more slowly, especially at first, if speaking in English.
• Provide Korean notes, explanations or definitions.

14. Sequencing
Sequence classroom exercises and activities from simpler to more complex. After explaining basic concepts and/or doing simpler practice exercises, move on to more complex activities, such as group or interactive activities, e.g., problem-solving activities.

15. Rehearsal
Students can reinforce their learning with overt rehearsal and mental rehearsal of procedures, skills and strategies.
• Use practice activities appropriate to the students’ level. Some traditional exercises can be useful, leading up to group problem-solving activities.
• Also use mental rehearsal, having students mentally walk through the steps in solving a problem.
• In language learning, use some practice activities before moving on to interactive practice activities in groups. After explaining the language forms, use practice exercises, based on a meaningful context and practice materials (that are not too artificial), to help students rehearse the material, form memories and mental connections. Have students produce the target forms and actual language aloud, using their output to reinforce learning.
• Have students articulate how they would go about solving a problem – solving a math problem, solving a physics problem, diagnosing a patient with certain symptoms. Have them mentally rehearse the procedures on their own, and also have them explain the procedures aloud.

4.2. Using appropriate tasks and questions
A traditional kind of question is the so-called knowledge display question: the instructor asks students to repeat or restate information that has already been explained or learned; the student simply displays what s/he has memorized, such as a factual question (who discovered background cosmic radiation?), or repeating basic concepts (how did Einstein explain the relationship between energy and mass at near-light speeds?). This kind of question requires little original thinking (unless perhaps you are probing a complex or
difficult concept), so in modern teaching, we prefer to avoid display questions. For lecture-discussion formats, the following kinds of questions may be more useful for promoting discussion and getting students to think – to meaningfully engage and interact with the material, and thus, learn meaningfully.

4.2.1. Question types according to cognitive complexity

The following is based on the Bloom taxonomy, as it is known in education. These types of questions are useful for teaching, and these are more or less ranked by complexity. For example, application questions or analytical questions can be a good starting point for a task, a lesson, or a series of questions, leading later to more complex questions or tasks such as synthesis or evaluation tasks, which require students to engage in deeper types of thinking.

**Application questions** help students apply concepts, principles or generalizations in different contexts – e.g., “How could we apply this model to the Korean educational system?”

**Analytical questions** encourage students to pull apart different elements of the material they have been learning about to draw comparisons and contrasts, identify causes and effects; reason through explanations or arguments; etc. – e.g., “What are the key differences between Model A and Model B?” “Explain the different parts of this theory and how they fit together”

**Synthesis questions** require students to integrate the elements of the material in new and different ways – e.g., “How could you combine elements of these two models and implement them in company X” or “Explain the differences and similarities between Model 1 and Model 2.” “Compare the use of metaphor between these two authors.”

**Evaluation (critiquing) questions** require students to make informed judgments, using some combination of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis and/or synthesis – e.g., “Which method of teaching is more effective in your opinion and why?” “Which of the interactive methods for engaging students during lecture sessions do you think might work best together in a lecture on art appreciation?”

**Problem-solving questions** challenge students to use their creativity, as well as the knowledge they have gained – e.g., “How would you go about designing a new course in your subject area that involves all of the levels of cognitive functioning in Bloom’s taxonomy?” “What is the best way to design a skyscraper in Taipei to withstand a possible 8+ magnitude earthquake?”

4.2.2. Questions according to genre or purpose

The following kinds of questions can be helpful for getting students to think more. Posing such questions to make students think through problems can often be more effective for learning than trying to teach them directly.

**Evidential questions**

Questions seeking more evidence. These are designed to help students understand the reasons for X, or why X might not be correct or well supported – not as a challenge to the student him/herself.
• How can we be certain of this claim?
• What data is that claim based on?
• What information in the article supports this claim?
• What evidence could you provide to one who is skeptical of this claim?

Clarification questions
These help to expand on conceptual understanding.

• Can you give an example of that?
• Could you give an example of how that works / how that might apply to...?
• How could you explain that term you just used?
• What does the word ‘theory’ mean in scientific usage? How is it different from hypothesis, conjecture, or belief?

Open-ended (or open) questions
These questions do not necessarily have one single correct answer, and require some thought. Such questions, especially with “how” or “why”, can stretch students’ conceptual, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills.

• Is it ethically appropriate for photojournalists to artificially stage a news photo scene?
• Can people really act out of purely altruistic motives? Or are all intentions for good behavior tainted by ulterior or selfish motives?
• Why might rote memorization be a poor strategy for learning a foreign language?
• Which of these two theories can better account for X, and why?
• What are the relative advantages and disadvantages of X and Y?
• Why would people devote their lives to education despite the low pay and less than ideal working conditions?
• Which view of moral reasoning can better address a moral dilemma such as X?
• Does Kuhn’s view of scientific paradigms really endorse or entail a form of relativistic philosophy?
• How could hypothesis X be empirically tested?
• Why does Melville play with gnostic elements in this novel?
• Were these people motivated by political idealism or economic self-interest?

Linking or extension questions
These questions link different comments, or different concepts, ideas, or topics that have come up in the discussion. These can be good for promoting student-to-student discussion.

• How does your observation relate to X’s comment from a few moments ago?
• Does your idea challenge or support X’s theory?
• How does your idea go beyond what X has said?
• How does your comment relate to X’s ideas?
Hypothetical questions
These challenge students to apply concepts to new situations, thereby deepening their analytical thinking skills.

- How might have World War 2 turned out differently if Hitler not attacked the Soviet Union in 1941?
- If Shakespeare had intended Iago to be a tragic or more sympathetic character, how might he have changed Othello’s narrative?
- How would the universe be different if the gravitational constant [or other constants] tweaked to be slightly different by X amount? Would the development of some form of life on some planets still be possible?

Cause and effect questions
These also cause students to consider implications and applications of concepts.

- What effect would [a change in the exchange rate of type X / a change of type X in the prime interest rate] have on the Korean economy?
- How would a larger / smaller class size affect the effectiveness of discussion or group activities in a high school math / English / chemistry class?
- What effect would higher parking fees have on traffic patterns in region X of the city?

Summary and synthesis questions
These lead students to identify important ideas in ways that will help them remember contents or concepts.

- What are the most important ideas that have emerged from today’s discussion?
- What remains unresolved or contentious about this topic?
- Based on today’s discussion, what do we need to discuss next time in order to better understand this topic?
- What is the main “take home message” from today’s class discussion?

4.3. Formative tasks or assignments
These kinds of tasks or questions can be used to help the students realize what they know or don’t know, as well as to help you determine what they have difficulty with. They are called formative, because they are not designed to evaluate the student (like a quiz), but to help them think about the materials and deepen their own understanding by working through the questions.

Beforehand: Warm-up questions
Before the lesson, the student is asked a question regarding the upcoming material, either to prime him/her, or to have him/her engage with the reading material before the lesson. This is like a pre-class quiz or assignment about the material. For example:
• The professor will lecture on neutrinos in the next physics lecture. You prime them by emailing them the following question: “What do you know about neutrinos? Do you think it would be possible for some neutrinos to exceed the speed of light? How?” They are required to explain their thoughts by email in 1-2 paragraphs before your next meeting, or before their next class, and the question will be discussed in your next meeting with the tutees.

• The professor will cover chapter 8 in the next lecture, and it will be helpful if the students read it beforehand. You ask your tutees one or a few questions about key concepts or terms in the chapter before their class, asking them to explain by email in 1-2 paragraphs before your next meeting, or before their next class, and the question will be discussed in your next meeting with the tutees.

• You are helping freshman to understand the theory of evolution in their biology class. Before the next meeting, you email your tutees the following question: “What is a theory – what does ‘theory’ mean in science? Is it the same as ‘theory’ as the word is commonly used outside of science?” The tutees are required to email you a one-paragraph response at least one day before your next session. This is necessary because many college science professors fail to explain this explicitly, possibly causing confusion for your tutees. From their responses, you can identify and address their misunderstandings of the scientific usage of the term ‘theory.’

Wrap-up questions

The following questions can be given to have tutees think more about the professor’s lecture that they have just heard.

1. A simple conceptual question based on the readings, lecture, or concepts discussed in class. For example: “You’ve learned today about X. But what about Y?” or “How would this apply to Y?” This challenges students to extend or transfer their knowledge by applying it to something new.

2. Explain your understanding of X (ideas, terminology, concepts).

3. Muddiest point: What was one point (idea, concept, term, etc.) that you did not understand in today’s lecture? What did you not understand about X?

4. What questions do you have about this? What would you like more explanation about?

5. What was the main idea / main ideas of today’s class / lecture?

6. What was the most important thing you learned from my lecture today?

7. Write a summary of the main ideas of today’s lecture / class.

8. Have students react to a specific idea discussed in class.

9. Graphic organizers: Construct a graph / concept map / chart / diagram / flow chart / outline to illustrate or explain the contents discussed today (or contents from the textbook chapter).

10. Do you agree with X? Can you come up with a better explanation?

11. How well would X (or X’s idea) apply to another case like Y?

12. Can you provide another example of X?

13. How would you explain X in your own words?
15. What would happen if $Z$ were different?

4.4. Metacognition

Metacognition is a student’s self-awareness of his/her own learning – his/her learning progress and learning strategies. It means thinking about what we know, and self-monitoring how we learn. More successful students employ metacognition, in that they are aware of their learning and learning processes, and they monitor themselves to evaluate and adjust their study skills for more effective studying.

Students with metacognitive skills approach their studies by identifying “what I know,” “what I don’t know,” and “what I want to learn about.” As they begin a study session, while studying, or outside of their study sessions, they ask themselves self-evaluation questions like these.

- What do I know about this subject?
- How much time do I need to spend on this?
- What would be good strategies or ways of learning this?
- How can I estimate or predict the outcome of this task?
- How should I revise or adapt my study procedures, strategies, or methods?
- How can I estimate or predict the outcome of this task?
- Did I understand what I just read?

If the student realizes that s/he doesn’t see connections or understand concepts, s/he tries to do so, and adjusts study techniques accordingly, or knows how to ask for help.

Successful students also engage in self-regulation and self-monitoring of their learning, in that they naturally use the following self-monitoring techniques.

- Make and refine predictions about what they are reading
- Maintain attention during instruction and problem solving
- Make connections between new knowledge and previous knowledge
- Ask themselves questions
- Know how to adapt their approaches when not succeeding or when doing something wrong
- Focus on the more important aspects or information of a task or text
- Tune out or focus less on less important information
- Recognize when a relationship or connection occurs or is implied
- Use visualization when reading and problem solving
- Consider the worth of ideas
- Know when and where to ask for help
- Set priorities

To help students with their study skills, you might take time to have them try some of the following activities, to become more aware of their study skills.
1. **Mental rehearsal**

   Have them mentally rehearse a problem or procedure. Have them mentally rehearse the steps to solving a problem. Also have them verbally articulate the procedures for solving a problem.

2. **Journaling about their learning**

   Have them write a personal journal, in which they describe their study habits, study process, and evaluate the effectiveness of their study habits.

3. **Introspecting about their writing process or work processes**

   Have them introspect and write or talk about how they go about writing an essay, write a major assignment, or work on a major project or assignment. This includes how they get started, come up with ideas, create drafts, revise, and practice.

4. **Self-evaluation of their learning and progress**

   Have the student introspect and reflect on his/her study habits and learning strategies, whether they are effective, and how s/he could improve. You can have tutees do this as a written assignment, or by interviewing the tutee, or by having tutees discuss and articulate this with each other in pairs or small groups.

5. **Introspecting about their motivation (see previous chapter on motivation)**

   Have tutees (in pairs, small groups, or with you) reflect on and share about their motivation for learning; refer to the questions at the end of the unit on motivation.

6. **Think-aloud**

   Have one or tutees work through a problem, and have them verbalize their thinking processes and how they are trying to solve the problem. This can be done in pairs, or between you and the tutee. Note that it is actually difficult, and there are limitations to how well people can introspect about their thinking processes, so don’t expect too much; this is just a self-awareness building exercise.

7. **Prediction and inferencing**

   Have the student read a passage. Stop her before the end and ask her to predict what will happen, or what point the writer is getting to. Ask questions about the passage, or about a problem, that require her to make guesses or inferences beyond the information that is directly available.

8. **Error analysis**

   Have the student analyze his/her mistakes and articulate the reasons, e.g., try to get him/her to identify the mistakes in reasoning. If you want to focus on language learning, have the student read a passage aloud, record it, and play it back. Have the student try to identify errors in reading or pronunciation, and how s/he was led astray (e.g., she should realize that she confused two similar words while reading).
5. Planning and organizing

One of the first things that you will probably need to do at the beginning of the semester is to teach your tutees some basic planning and organizing techniques. Students having academic difficulties may have poor planning and organizational skills when it comes to assignments, especially major assignments and projects such as essays and presentations.

Students who are used to traditional courses, or those with poor study skills or very extrinsic motivation, tend to view major assignments as a simple product to be turned out. Education systems have reinforced this, such as traditional teacher-centered classes or traditional writing classes that viewed projects as merely a product to produce and turn in or present. The teacher gives an assignment, the students go home, produce a paper and turn it in, or produce some slides and present them mechanically. What happens in between is given little attention. Nowadays we recognize the importance of the process — e.g., [1] how a writer goes about planning the essay, pre-writing methods, drafting, and multiple stages of revisions (ideally), and finally, a final version; or [2] how a student goes about planning a presentation, brainstorming ideas, organizing ideas, producing slides or handouts, rehearsing multiple times, and then delivering a presentation.

5.1. Self-reflection

For you, it would be helpful for students to introspect on their own writing process for essays, or working process for presentations or projects, and then to help them with the planning techniques below as an initial exercise, before your tutees start working on an actual assignment. Have students discuss the following questions in pairs or small groups. Those tutoring students in writing skills can use the terms ‘writing process’ for ‘work process,’ ‘essay’ for ‘major assignment,’ and focus this on written assignments in their courses; writing tutors can have the students write a 1-2 page reflective paper in which they describe their work process. Other tutors can have students discuss these questions in groups or pairs, and then write a reflective paper, discuss their findings altogether, or give a short presentation about their reflection.

Describe your writing process from start to finish, including the following:

- How you go about doing an important assignment (essay, presentation, etc.), in English or Korean, at school or work?
- How you get started
- How you get comfortable
- How you brainstorm ideas and organize them
- How, how often, and how much you revise your paper, slides, handouts, notes, or other materials?
- How similar or different is your work process for different kinds of projects?
• How similar or different is your work process is for English versus Korean assignments?
• If you have trouble getting started, how do you deal with it? What do you think causes such blocks? (e.g., perfectionism, lack of ideas, too much information to deal with, or negative voices from your past that you've internalized)
• If you have writer's block, explain how you deal with it, and perhaps what causes it? (e.g., perfectionism, lack of ideas, too much information to deal with, or negative voices from your past that you've internalized)

There are not necessarily any right or wrong answers, as different people need to find what works for them. For those who face writer's block or other blocks, have them introspect about the following possible causes.

5.2. Writer's block or other blocks
Writer's block or other blocks may be caused by these factors. Refer to the previous unit on affective factors.

Negative voices from the past
These are negative messages, discouragement, harsh treatment, etc. from past teachers, especially language or writing teachers (or other teachers, or parents, or others). These are voices that we internalize, and which cause us tension and anxiety when we try to write. Somewhere in the back of your mind, these voices may be barking at you, sending negative messages about you and your ability to write; or you are afraid that whomever you are writing for will also react similarly. This may require identifying the sources of the “voices” and moving beyond them.

Affective filters
If something else is on your mind (an argument you had with someone, or some other source of emotional stress), this burdens your cognitive processing, attention, cognitive abilities, your ability to make connections among concepts, the ability to engage in systematic or analytical thinking, and the ability to engage your creative processes. You may have to take a break, resolve the conflict, relax, take a walk, talk with someone, or whatever helps you take your mind off things. Maybe the best thing is to compartmentalize – put problems in a different mental compartment and forget about them while you focus on the writing task.

The affective filter may also be due to the mental demands of writing in a second language, especially if you feel a lack of confidence or motivation in your second language.

You may find it helpful to also use visualization techniques – either relaxing by visualizing yourself in a peaceful place, for example, or by visualizing yourself thinking and writing successfully on your writing task.

Perfectionism
The desire to be perfect, or the belief that others expect you to be perfect. This may come from childhood, from how you were raised, or from pressure that parents and/or teachers
have put on you in your past studies. This leads people to have unhealthy and unrealistic expectations of themselves. When they need to write, they are burdened by expectations they have about their writing, or by what they think the readers (teachers, supervisors, etc.) may think of them and their writing or language ability. This may require:

1. Over the long term, dealing with the psychological issues or considering how people in your past conditioned you to be a perfectionist;
2. For the shorter term, getting more writing practice or instruction; and
3. For the immediate writing needs, some brainstorming and free-writing techniques, particularly where you simply forget about who you are writing for and any expectations about how well it is written, for your first draft.

**Lack of information, or overly broad topic**

You just need to find more information about the topic to get some ideas first. Also, beginning with a topic that’s too general or vague may be daunting, so you need to find a more specific or more interesting topic. If your topic is too vague or general, it can be hard to focus or to write; a much more specific topic can provide more guidance and direction.

**5.3. Brainstorming**

These methods can be taught to your students, especially as a way of getting past blocks in the planning process, or for students with ineffective study skills. Give the students a relevant or interesting topic to brainstorm ideas about, to practice these methods.

**Free writing**

Forget about apathy, self-criticism, resentment, anxiety about deadlines, fear of failure, your expectations of yourself, others’ expectations of you, or other forms of resistance. Just put something on paper (or the computer screen) in raw form. Then you can go back later to revise it and put it in presentable form. First,

- Write whatever comes to mind, no matter how raw or incomplete the ideas or sentences are.
- Pay no attention to grammar, spelling, punctuation, neatness, or style. Nobody else needs to read what you produce here. The correctness and quality of what you write do not matter; the act of writing does.
- Don’t worry about complete sentences or making sense to other readers.
- Deliberately forget about who you are writing for – audience, potential readers, their expectations, and even your own expectations for nice, polished writing.
- Give yourself a time limit. Write for one or ten or twenty minutes, and then stop.
- Keep your hand moving until the time is up. Do not pause to stare into space or to read what you’ve written. Write quickly but not in a hurry.
- If you get off the topic or run out of ideas, keep writing anyway. If necessary, write nonsense or whatever comes into your head, or simply scribble: anything to keep the hand moving.
• If you feel bored or uncomfortable as you’re writing, ask yourself what’s bothering you—and write about that. Sometimes your creative energy is like water in a kinked hose, and before thoughts can flow on the topic at hand, you have to straighten the hose by attending to whatever is preoccupying you.

• When the time is up, look over what you’ve written, and mark passages that contain ideas or phrases that might be worth keeping or elaborating on in a subsequent free-writing session.

• Don’t worry about making ideas, connections between ideas, and logical flow clear at first. But you should do that later when you revise it.

After you have something on paper or on the screen, then revise it later:

• Revise it later by first making ideas, connections, and logical flow clear to yourself on paper, then by making them clear enough to potential readers.

• Revise logical flow, grammar and wording in several stages with the audience in mind.

Talking
Try talking to a friend about the writing task – brainstorming together can be productive and less stressful. You can also try talking to yourself or a family pet to brainstorm, as long as friends and family members don’t conclude that you’re in need of counseling or other “help”.

Finding information
If you find yourself stuck, you may need to find more information on the topic before you can develop good ideas for the assignment. Conversely, you may be stuck because you’re trying to take on too much – an overly broad topic, or too much general information. In that case, you need to identify a more specific topic, and maybe get more specific information on it, before you can proceed.

5.4. Organizers
After brainstorming ideas and finding further information, students need to organize it into something more manageable that can then be turned into a paper or presentation. Or for practice, you can give them a set of information or data, e.g., from their textbook, from a Wikipedia article, or a random list of facts about a topic. A helpful stage can be using a graphic organizer such as a concept map or diagram to organize information that one has found or brainstormed. Then they should probably turn this into an outline, which will make it easier to plan an essay or presentation.

Concept maps
Known as mental maps, concept maps, semantic maps (though this properly refers to something else in computer science and related fields) or such. Just put down words and phrases on paper, draw connections between them, and fill in connections with descriptions of the relationships between ideas. For example...
A concept map on seasons

A concept map on the features of concept maps

Other methods of graphically brainstorming: a simple flow chart, a Venn diagram, and a tree diagram.

13 From http://ecrp.uiuc.edu/v8n2/ birbili.html.
Outlining

Outlining can be good for generating ideas, as well as for organizing ideas after brainstorming. This allows you to arrange things according to relationships and degree of importance, with less important items under larger, more important concepts or categories that they are related to.

An outline is an important step, whether in actual practice one outlines mentally, or sketches an outline on paper, in a text document, or in one’s slides. One should organize an outline around 3-5 main points, and each main point with 3-5 subpoints, and so on. An essay or presentation will be more coherent and easy to follow if the student follows the “3-5” principle. This is because human working memory can best keep in mind 3-5 items, so it will be easier for readers or listeners to follow the flow of an essay or presentation. An outline looks like so, though the lettering and numbering style is up to the student.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>C. Main point #3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main point #1</td>
<td>1. Subpoint 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Subpoint 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main point #2</td>
<td>3. Subpoint 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Subpoint 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main point #3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main point #4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Which can be further elaborated...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>C. Main point #3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Main point #1</td>
<td>1. Subpoint 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Subpoint 1</td>
<td>2. Subpoint 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Subpoint 2</td>
<td>3. Subpoint 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Subpoint 3</td>
<td>3. Subpoint 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Main point #2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Subpoint 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Subpoint 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Subpoint 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Subpoint 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Subpoint 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Main point #4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Subpoint 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Subpoint 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Subpoint 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each subpoint would then have supporting details – evidence, facts, data, examples, argumentation, or such – to support it, as in this facetious example.
I. Ways of tricking my writing teacher in writing my essay (when I don’t have much to write)
   A. format tricks
      1. extra large line spacing
      2. large fonts
      3. large margins
   B. content tricks
      1. teacher won’t read whole essay
         a. copy and paste same paragraphs over and over
         b. repeat same ideas over and over with synonyms
      2. teacher likely to read whole essay
         a. say nice things about the teacher in the essay
         b. include money (as gift expression of your appreciation) with essay when handing it in

To take advantage of this, the student should make these main points explicit in the introduction. In an essay, after the thesis statement, the main points to follow can be summarized, and in a presentation, an overview of the topic and main supporting points can be provided in an introduction.

• Essay thesis statement: The current college entrance exam is linguistically invalid and needs to be replaced, because X, Y, and Z. [ = summary of main points]
• Presentation introduction: I will argue that the current college entrance exam is linguistically invalid and needs to be replaced. This is because [1] X..., [2] Y..., and [3] Z... [ = summary of main points]
6. Feedback

Providing effective feedback and encouragement will be necessary for students having difficulties. Simply correcting mistakes without positive statements will hinder their progress by discouraging them. Before providing critique or pointing out errors, it is helpful to preface such comments with positive statements of praise or encouragement. This is especially so for students who have affective issues like poor self-esteem. If possible, phrase negative comments in a neutral way.

- Positive statement: “You’ve been working really hard,” “You’ve really improved over the past month,” or “You followed all the right procedures in solving this problem.”
- Critique: “But... You need to be careful here,” “This part can be tricky, so...,” “This part is not quite right.”

However, empty praise can also backfire, or even honestly intended praise that seems vague or insincere to tutees may fail. Praise is most effective when it is based on specific evidence – specific achievements, improvements, qualities or abilities that you can identify in the tutee.

Types of ineffective feedback include:

- Vague, impractical, or insincere feedback
- Empty praise, i.e., praise that is general and/or exaggerated – does not match the student’s actual achievement
- General ability feedback (“You are very good at English”)
- Praise involving social comparison (“You did better than anyone else in the class”)

Ability feedback that is general in nature can be unhelpful, as it provides nothing for the person to act on, or lacks specifics that would help with self-esteem. Ability feedback may be helpful if it is specific, e.g., if there is specific evidence that you can point out, and if it helps them with their self-esteem. For example, compliments on a person’s English ability can seem insincere if the student already knows that she is good in English, or if s/he feels that s/he is poor in English. But if s/he struggles in English or has doubts about her ability, then a compliment supported by evidence can help the student – e.g., “You may think you’re not good in English, but I can tell that your vocabulary level is pretty good, because...”

Social comparison is a non-useful, even harmful form of feedback. This involves making either positive or negative evaluations of a student’s performance based on comparing the student’s performance with others – classmates, siblings, neighbors, or others; e.g.,

- Wow, you beat all your classmates on the exam!
• Why aren’t you good in math? You only got an A. Your older brother always got A+’s in math.
• Our neighbor’s son got into Harvard. You should study harder so you can get into Harvard, too.
• Mr. Kim’s son got a perfect score on the exam and got into KAIST. (Implication: Why can’t you do that?)
• Any kind of 염친아 comparisons like those above.
• Why didn’t you get an A+ on the exam?
• How could you let someone score higher than you on the exam?
• I got A’s when I was in college, so you should do the same.
• We’ve spend a lot of money on your 학원 education, so don’t disappoint us.

These all involve or imply comparison with others. Even positive evaluations are harmful in the end, because such statements teach students to focus on performance and externally visible achievement, rather than on actual learning and self-enhancement. Statements based on social comparison teach students to be extrinsically motivated, and very likely, teach them to become perfectionistic, such that their sense of self-worth is tied to unrealistic and unobtainable expectations of success. This then sets them up for depression or discouragement when they fail to get all straight A+’s, get perfect scores on achievement tests, get into Oxford or Harvard, or land a job at Samsung Micro-electronics.

Therefore, when you give feedback, you must be careful not to evaluate tutees in relation to their classmates or fellow tutees, or based on expectations that others might have for them. You must be careful not to place specific performance expectations on them, or encourage them to aim for unrealistic expectations. You must be careful not to compare them in any way to others. You can focus on how a particular tutee has improved over a period of time, but never compare the tutee with another person.

6.1. Types of useful feedback

Effective feedback can be [1] neutral and not phrased in a way that evaluates the student’s performance (“you didn’t do so well”), and [2] constructive, in that you provide specific advice on what the student can do to improve.

[15] In fact, many Westerners are surprised to see the extreme emphasis and value that Koreans place on very prestigious schools like Ivy League schools, Oxford or Cambridge. Many Americans do not value such schools so highly, and do not consider them that much better than other well known universities. Having a degree from such schools will not necessarily help a person get a good job in North America any more than a degree from other good schools (e.g., Illinois, Berkeley, Michigan, University of Texas...). In fact, many Americans view such prestigious schools somewhat negatively as “snob schools” and would not prefer such schools.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effective praise</th>
<th>Offering specific, sincere praise (i.e., more than merely simply “Good job!”), commensurate with the student’s achievement. E.g., praise or applaud a student’s or group’s success, risk-taking, effort, specific achievements, or specific strengths.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neutral feedback</td>
<td>Going over the answers of an exercise with the class without communicating any expression of irritation or personal criticism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process feedback</td>
<td>Focusing on what can be learned from the mistakes that have been made, and from the process of producing the correct answer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructive feedback</td>
<td>Specific advice on a student’s weaknesses and what specifically the person can do to improve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praise for self-</td>
<td>“You’ve really improved in your problem solving ability over the semester.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improvement</td>
<td>“You seem so much motivated and positive than before.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliciting self or peer correction</td>
<td>Encouraging students to correct their own mistakes, revise their own work, or review/correct their peers’ work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008.)

For feedback for different types of students (especially those with motivation or esteem problems), consider the following:

- Providing specific, constructive feedback that can be acted on
- Some students require more praise than others, especially those who are struggling, those who are “feeler” types, and those with affective issues, e.g., motivation, self-esteem, or discouragement problems.
- Avoiding social comparison

### 6.2. Examples of feedback

Feedback and critique on a student’s performance might look like the examples below. Pointing out a problem needs to be followed up by specific advice that the student can act on; otherwise, s/he will simply become discouraged. Vague advice along the lines of “try harder” or such is not at all helpful, for the student has no specific way of acting on it. The tutee needs specific advice that s/he can do something with, such as specific materials and background knowledge that the tutee can review or relearn, specific study skills that s/he needs to implement, or specific things that s/he needs to understand. If you need to point out their mistakes or problems, you can try to “sandwich” it between two positive comments. These, especially the preface, should be specific and somehow related to the problem.
### 6. Feedback

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>step</th>
<th>example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. preface - specific praise or encouragement | • I can see that you are trying really hard, and fighting with this.  
• You’ve certainly improved in your problem solving ability over the past month.  
• I can see that nowadays you have a better grasp of the material, especially \{vectoring out forces, using trigonometry for X, the basic ideas of literary theory, the forces involved in the Civil War...\} |
| 2. pointing out problem in a neutral manner | • But it seems that you are having difficulty here with X.  
• But it seems that the topic of X is posing difficulties for you.  
• But it looks like the correct problem solving procedures need to be followed here. |
| 3. (optional, if applicable) qualifying statement | • But don’t feel bad, because this is a difficult concept, and lots of students struggle with this.  
• But don’t worry, because I know a lot of professors don’t explain this part very well, so it’s not your fault.  
• I know the textbook is overwhelming. It’s a huge amount of contents, and it’s in English, which I know would be hard for most students, not just for you.  
• I know it’s easy to feel lost and confused about this. |
| 4. specific advice | • I’d recommend that you go back and review X from the previous unit / course before trying this, since X is rather fundamental to understanding the exercises / materials from this unit. In fact, let me walk you through X briefly to refresh your memory.  
• I’d suggest not trying to memorize everything, but trying to understand the concepts.  
• How about if you try to verbalize this, as if you were explaining it to yourself or to someone else? That might help you to understand the material better if you mentally or verbally rehearse it.  
• How about if you try to verbalize this, as if you were explaining it to me? Working through it like this could help you to better understand it.  
• How about using a memory trick to quickly memorize these steps? - instead of spending so much time with rote memorization, would be more efficient. Let me show you some memory aids.  
• I know that you’re worried about getting a good score on the test, but understanding the concepts will be more helpful than just memorizing things.  
• Understanding how these formulas work would be better than simply memorizing them by rote. Let’s walk through these and see what the different components of these formulas are, what they do, and how they affect the result.  
• Since these textbook chapters are overwhelming, let me show you how to focus on the main ideas and terms first, rather trying to learn everything at once and drowning in information as a result. After you master the basic ideas, then you can go back and get some of the details. I’ll even show you what things you can skip altogether.  
• Let me show you some brainstorming techniques and ways of organizing your information.  
• Maybe you’re overwhelmed by too much information or too broad a topic. Can you think of a way to focus on something more specific and more... |
manageable for an essay / presentation?

- Maybe you need more information on this topic before you can get started on your essay / project / presentation. Where could you get some more information or ideas?
- I think you’re making it too hard by trying to memorize your presentation. Let’s focus on an outline, and building your PPT slides from the outline, so you can speak more naturally from a well designed set of slides.

5. final encouragement

- If you really try it this way, I’m rather sure you can succeed.
- I know you don’t like English, and it’s totally okay if you don’t like it. That’s understandable, so don’t feel bad if you don’t like it. You don’t have to like English. But if you focus on the contents of the presentation and not on the English so much, I think you can do well.
- I can see that you like Y and did well with that, so I think you can also do well in X.
- Maybe you’ve gotten a lot of discouragement from your past problems (or teachers, parents, etc.), but you don’t need to listen to those voices from your past. I think you can do well if you focus on the material from this unit.

6.3. Hedges

In giving feedback, and for framing critiques and problems in a neutral way, it helps to use expressions to soften the impact of what we say, as in the examples above. Instead of saying “you have difficulty with X” we can soften it by saying “I think you might have difficulty with X” or “It seems that you’re struggling with X.” Linguists refer to such expressions as ‘hedges’. Literally, a hedge is a shrub or other plantings around one’s property that protects the property from the outside, and forms a boundary. Likewise, linguistic “hedges” put a boundary around what we say, to protect ourselves and others from the impact of the statement, especially for the sake of the speaker’s and listener’s sense of “face” [체면]. Here are a few words and phrases which are used to soften, “hedge” or mitigate statements, for the sake of politeness, or to simply qualify statements. A Korean example would be the commonly used term 혹시, which is used to soften or qualify a statement, and to be more polite. The following is only a partial list.

---

16 Some of these are from http://www.umich.edu/~jlawler/lakoffhedgesCLS8.pdf.
6.4. Tutor feedback

At certain points you should collect anonymous feedback from your tutees about the tutoring sessions. This could be done at least twice, at midterm and finals time, or three times – one-third of the way into the semester, after midterms (2/3 through), and around finals time. You can use this to adjust your teaching style, and you can discuss the results with the tutees and together discuss changes that you might want to make.

You can provide a simple anonymous form to have them rate the quality of the sessions on a scale of 1-10, and open-ended questions. The scalar and open-ended items can include questions about: how well they are learning; how useful the tutoring sessions are; how well you are interacting with them; how responsive you are to their needs; whether they think they are learning and improving; whether they are learning to grow and improve as students and in their study skills; how well you explain things; and the effectiveness of various activities that they do in the meetings.

---

17 E.g: That's rather daft-like. That's more of a quasi-theory, if not a bad theory altogether. The color is kind of navy-ish.
7. Group work

Much of your tutoring work will probably be in small groups of several tutees, e.g., to work on problems together. It will be important to include all tutees and to get them to participate equally. This section deals with group dynamics, and how to explain the importance of group work to your students. It will help to explain that the use of group work is increasingly common in various levels of education, to set ground rules, as discussed above, to be aware of group dynamics, and to be ready to deal with problems that could arise.

- Students form groups to review, summarize, or discuss concepts discussed in lectures, or further conceptual questions and extensions of such concepts
- Students work together to solve a problem
- Students work together to collaborate on a task
- Students rehearse or role play a situation
- Students rehearse a presentation

Using group activities can lighten your work load when you have a number of tutees. You can have them all do a group activity, and as they are working, you can go around and provide individual attention to particular students. Also, some tutees who are stronger, at least in some areas, can help those who are weaker.

7.1. Advantages and disadvantages of group work

Advantages

- Better information, opinions, and solutions can be generated
- Helpful for managing large numbers of students
- Opportunities for practice and practical learning
- Members learn more about material or task
- More creativity, and more creative ideas can be generated
- Generation effect - better understanding & retention of knowledge
- Better morale, sense of contribution and belonging
- Members demonstrate value contribution to group
- Members learn teamwork and social skills

A few seeming inherent disadvantages come with group work, such as the time it takes at first to get started, but the advantages greatly outweigh the disadvantages soon thereafter. If students are not cooperative or if groups are not well controlled, other disadvantages can arise.
7. Group work

**Disadvantages**

- Takes time & training to learn how to work in groups
- Blame for mistakes may be spread or passed to others; some may disengage to avoid blame or mistakes
- Group work takes time; results & benefits are not immediately apparent to all (people want quick answers / results)
- Groupthink: Overly familiar or homogenous groups may not seriously work on problem in detail, avoid conflicts that might be healthy or create good discussion, seek simplest solution (“path of least resistance”)
- Conflicts, different communication styles; different backgrounds or levels
- Students may not be familiar with independent work groups

7.2. Rationale for group work

Some students may expect you to spoon-feed them information and answers, and may resist the idea of working in groups. You will need to explain to them that they need to learn to work and think independently and in teams, and group work can be effective for developing both independent and collaborative study skills, thinking skills, work skills, and teamwork skills.

**Illustration: The V-formation**

The following illustration can be an effective way of explaining the value of group work to students.

1. As each goose flaps its wings, it creates an uplift for others behind. The V-formation leads to a 70% greater flying range than for flying alone.
   - People who share a common direction & sense of purpose can achieve quicker & better results.
2. Whenever a goose flies out of formation, it quickly feels the drag and tries to get back into position.
   - It’s harder to do some things alone than together.
3. When the lead goose gets tired, it rotates back into the formation and another goose flies at the head.
   - Shared leadership and interdependence give us each a chance to lead as well as a chance to rest.
4. The geese in formation honk from behind to encourage those in front to keep up their speed.
   - Group members need to provide encouragement to each other, rather than discouragement.
5. When a goose gets sick or wounded and falls, two geese fall out and stay with it until it revives (or dies); then they catch up or join another flock.
   - Stronger students can help weaker students.

18 From (Harris, 2002).
Under the right conditions, group work can promote greater creativity, and can invoke the generation effect, whereby students, with help from each other, are able to figure things out without being told by a teacher or tutor. Also, not only the tutor, but some students who have a better understanding can help the weaker ones.

7.3. Group and interpersonal dynamics

To ensure good participation and cooperation, it will help to establish some clear ground rules for group work at first, e.g.,

- Students can speak in turn, not interrupting others
- Time limits may be set on how much one can talk, or on a whole activity
- Students should be polite and respectful
- Every one must contribute equally

When you have them work on activities or problems, you will need to monitor their teamwork and progress. You will need to intervene when problems arise, and you will need to step in to help those who are having greater difficulties.

7.3.1. Group formation

When working with groups, you can watch for the following dynamics playing themselves out (from Tuckerman, 1965). At the initial stages, you can take a more hands-on approach for group activities, then later you can act more as a facilitator. Nonetheless, you will need to establish yourself as an active leader from the start. Otherwise, if the tutors assume you are a weak leader, this perception will become the norm.

1. Forming. As the group first comes together, some members will exhibit shyness, uncertainty or disinterest. Some more extroverted members may try to assume some kind of leadership.

2. Storming. Members start to settle into their roles, while some may try to test the leader. Disagreements may occur over members’ roles, which should work themselves out or may need to be managed.

3. Norming. A group identity and cohesion emerges, and members realized what kinds of behaviors are accepted, possible, or encouraged.

4. Performing. Productive work and learning occurs.

The performing stage should become the norm; otherwise, you will need to intervene and manage conflicts or team behavior. For a given activity or problem that you give them, the problem-solving process should look like this in the group.

1. Problem identification stage. Depending on group dynamics, this may be an opportunity to grow and achieve, or to seek safety and security. A more “serious” problem can motivate the group to devote more time and energy toward a solution than a “less serious” problem.

2. Brainstorming stage. Better groups generate more ideas or more creative ideas, which can lead to a more multi-faceted solution that accommodates more members’
viewpoints. Ideally, ideas are first generated, then later evaluated.

3. **Solution or recommendation stage.** A single solution or multiple solutions are settled on; parts of the plan may be revised based on feedback from others. Members may choose their solution based on the following criteria: (1) cost, or the effort and resources needed; (2) potential benefits; (3) flexibility, or how well the solution meets different needs, or how well it accommodates different members’ ideas or preferences; and (4) elaboration, or how well the members can develop or implement their plan in detail, or how well they can explain it.

4. **Implementation stage.** How well the members can carry out their plan depends on efficiency, the amount of time and effort required, and the quality of the final plan.

### 7.3.2. Seating arrangements

The semi-circle or circle will be preferred means for an informal atmosphere that encourages students to actively participate. With you in the center, you can see and guide everyone. The tutor needs to maintain face-to-face contact or eye contact with all the tutees, unless you are giving individualized help to a tutee.

![Informal: semi-circle arrangement](image)

This arrangement is most conductive to group work – either with or without a table. The tutor or teacher occupies the center position, but can leave if the members are working on an activity (in which case the tutor can then walk around to help various students). However, a rectangular or square table can make the atmosphere seem more serious or structured, if desired – a conference table style arrangement. A round table makes it easier and more natural for everyone to see and work with each other.

For pair work between tutees, or for a 1:1 discussion between you and the tutee, sitting across from each other, especially across a table, is more formal and imposing, and would be preferred only if you want to be imposing, e.g., if you need to confront the tutee. Otherwise, sitting side-by-side, either around the corner of a table, or with no table, is preferable for establishing a more relaxed, non-threatening, comfortable atmosphere.

![Formal: competitive-defensive or interview position](image)

![Informal: cooperative or collaborative position](image)
7.3.3. Troubleshooting

Consider how you would deal with the following issues.

- Lone wolves – those who do not want to work with others
- Social loafers – those who freeload off of others and do not contribute their fair share in the work
- Dominating – a tutee tries to to dominate the discussion
- Overly dominant leaders or tutees (e.g., the hyeong phenomenon – the leader says, “I’m 형, and we’ll do whatever I say”) - e.g., if the tutor is overly dominant, or one of the tutees tries to assume a role of leadership or dominance
- Personality conflicts among members
- Students not doing their required work or reading before class – especially if it is necessary for the group work in class.
- Students come unprepared, (e.g., not having done their assignments), or under-prepared (having done only minimal work)
- Non-participation: a tutee does not participate in the discussion
- Distracting behavior – a tutee engages in behavior that distracts others or disrupts the session
- Different pace – one tutee tends to to finish a task before the others do, or one is usually behind the others
- Motivation – a tutee lacks motivation, e.g., about the course contents, the course, studying in general, or tutoring
- Helplessness – a tutee feels helpless about his/her academic performance, or his/her academic abilities

Nervous, shy, or poorly motivated students can be encouraged to participate more readily if they are placed across from or facing (i.e., in direct eye contact of) the group leader (the tutor), or a sympathetic student, or an out-going, encouraging classmate. A misbehaving, difficult, or overly impulsive student can be placed right next to the group leader (the tutor), so the leader can keep him/her in check. Usually it’s best to mix the students who are noticeably introverted and extroverted, so the extroverts can engage the introverts in discussion (if they don’t, make sure they include the introverts in the activity). Some students may need individualized attention from you beyond the regular group meetings. For students who do not do their work before class or before meetings, try pre-class quizzes or warm-up questions beforehand (see the section on formative tasks above). Some students will need extra encouragement or feedback on how to improve and study better. Some may need someone to talk to about their personal issues that need to be addressed or vented before they can focus on their work. For some of these cases, you may need to intervene and address their behavior, or enforce your ground rules about behavior or teamwork. You may have to intervene in the group to make sure everyone participates fairly, equally, and respectfully. You may need to talk to a tutee privately, and in serious cases, contact the Center for help or to have students with serious issues dealt with or removed from your group.
7.4. Types of group activities

The following kinds of activities can be useful for various types of tutoring sessions.

- **Think-pair-share.** Students discuss a question in pairs for about one minute, then you and all the students discuss it all together.

- **Problem-solving exercises.** E.g., collaboratively working through sample problems and exercises; these of course usually have a specific correct answer.

- **Problem based learning.** Discussing and working on solving a realistic or real-world type of problem, where there is a single correct answer that is not readily apparent; students may have to identify which pieces of information are relevant or not relevant to the solution, and/or find more information on their own to solve the problem. Typical examples would be patient diagnoses in medicine, which involve a lot of information and complexity.

- **Problem-solving exercises, open-ended.** Discussing and working through open-ended problems that do not necessarily have one correct answer. Examples might include complex issues in social sciences, humanities, education, or such.

- **Case study.** Students are given detailed information about a case example involving specific individuals or entities, such as a business case study, a legal case study, or a case study in education, child development, history, philosophy, ethics, political science, medicine, or other areas. Students attempt to organize information, and then describe or explain the situation, e.g., finding causes and effects, finding underlying principles, generating hypotheses, or suggesting a diagnosis.

  Business case studies consist of information about a successful or underperforming business. Medical case studies consist of information about a patient’s symptoms and medical history, for which students try to find the correct diagnosis. In education and some social sciences, a case study might be a description of a group of people and what they do, e.g., a group of students in a classroom and how they learn or interact with the teacher; how a group of people in another culture act in certain situations or perform certain cultural activities; or how a group of teenagers from a minority group in a low socio-economic level think, behave, and live their daily lives.

- **Group projects.** Students work collaboratively on a project, such as their assigned course projects, possibly culminating in a group presentation.

- **Concept map task.** Students are given information, which they must then organize into a concept map (mind map, semantic map). You can then have them organize it into an outline, especially if it is for a presentation or writing assignment.

- **Brainstorming tasks.** Students brainstorm and come up with ideas for a project or a problem. You can then have them organize the ideas into a concept map or outline.

- **Argumentation.** In small groups, students think of and write down arguments for or against a particular point of view on an issue (e.g., an issue that is an academic controversy, a current political or social issue). You can do this different ways, e.g., Group 1 develops arguments for X, Group 2 develops arguments against X, and they debate each other. Or students come up with arguments for X, then they develop objections against X, and finally, counter-arguments against those objections.

---

19 For more, see handouts on group dynamics and group activities at this site: www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7, under ‘Pedagogical aids’.
• **Role plays.** Students role play or act out a scenario, e.g., something related to the course, or to practice English in a pretend scenario.

• **Group critique.** Students present short sample presentations, and the other students critique each other’s presentations. For each one, they should comment on the strengths, and provide constructive criticism on areas needing improvement.

• **Peer editing.** Students bring drafts of their assignments, and read and critique each other’s work. For each one, they should comment on the strengths, and provide detailed constructive criticism on weakness and areas needing improvement. They should focus mainly on the contents, and not focus too much on grammar or such.

• **Discovery exercises.** Students are given data, examples, or problems, and they are to discover for themselves a concept, a principle, or how something works, with the facilitator guiding them and providing hints, but not giving away the answer. This is essentially an inductive learning exercise.

### 7.5. Individualized instruction

At times you will probably talk to a tutee one-on-one for a consultation or pair activity, and pair work is essentially a very small group, in this case, with the facilitator. If you do individualized instruction with a student, a 1:1 lesson, activity, or consultation can be implemented with the following considerations\(^\text{20}\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>The tutor and student should agree or work out goals for a given session, week, or semester, as long as you two will do 1:1 work. The tutor may have to set the goals and agenda if the tutee is facing constraints (e.g., exams or assignments due).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-pacing</td>
<td>Ideally, the tutee should be allowed to proceed at his/her own pace. But if necessary, have the tutee do some work on his/her own outside of your meetings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit mastery</td>
<td>Students should master materials of a particular unit before moving on. They should master the more fundamental concepts or information in a unit before moving on to more complex or specialized information or concepts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cautious use of lectures</td>
<td>Tutors should be careful about how much and how often they lecture tutees. Lectures can be used for summarizing and reviewing concepts, but longer lectures should be broken up with learning activities, questions, or exercises.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises</td>
<td>Exercises are not for evaluation, but as a learning tool, and as a means of providing feedback. Sequence exercises from simpler to more complex. If necessary, assign some exercises as “homework” but make clear that it is not for evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>Provide specific feedback for exercises.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{20}\) Part of the following table is adapted from Fox (2004:212).
When meeting individually with a student, a casual seating arrangement is best. Rather than sitting directly in front of the tutee over a desk, it is best to side diagonal to the tutee.

7.6. Body language

Teachers and tutors should pay attention to body language and related behaviors. Effective body language can convey confidence and authority, and can put tutees at more ease. Ineffective body language can convey nervousness, and can indirectly hinder the tutee’s learning experience if the tutor conveys a lack of confidence in what s/he is teaching, or if the tutor unintentionally sends other distracting signals with his/her body language.

Defensive gestures may indicate or convey nervousness, shyness, a lack of confidence, a lack of interest, defiance, or defensiveness. Typically, this involves crossing the limbs, such as crossing one’s legs, crossing the arms and holding one’s hands in front of the body, or folding the arms. Some gestures can convey impatience, assertiveness or defensiveness, such as folding the arms, closed or clenched fists, or hands in the pockets. Concealment gestures, like hands in the pocket, hands held behind the back, or lowering the head, may convey disinterest, a lack of confidence, indifference, or that one has something to hide.

Nervousness gestures include playing with one’s hair, constantly playing with or pushing one’s glasses, scratching the face, tapping their feet, or rubbing the fingers together (especially repeated or constant rubbing). Some gestures where one places a hand or fingers on the face can indicate nervousness, especially if scratching the side of the face, while others can indicate that one is thinking about or evaluating something, depending on other things like how much the hand moves and the accompanying facial and eye gestures.

A polite, nervous or fake smile differs from a genuine, warm smile, in that for the fake smile, the person moves the lips and surrounding muscles only, while a genuine small involves moving the muscles around the cheeks and eyes back as well – this kind of smile is hard to fake. Eyes wide open can convey attentiveness and interest, while squinted eyes can indicate skepticism, a negative attitude, tiredness, or eye problems. Eyes rapidly darting around can convey nervousness or social discomfort.

People indicate their interest or receptiveness to another person in several ways. Closing off one’s personal space, e.g. defensive gestures or holding the limbs close to the body, indicate a closed attitude, while limbs open indicate confidence or openness. How close a person stands to another, or if sitting, then leaning toward or away from the other person conveys openness or interest. People also tend to point their feet toward the person they are interested in (or pointing away from people or toward an exit, if they want to leave). Tilting the head can indicate boredom, flirting or other emotions, depending on other facial gestures.
8. Planning your meetings

8.1. Ground rules

It is important to first establish some basic ground rules. Behavioral rules like these can be a good start. Inform your tutees of the ground rules that you would like for everyone to follow. Also go over the procedures and policies from our Center.

• Arrive on time
• Respect each other’s point of view (okay to critique a fellow student’s point of view, but not okay to criticize or ‘put down’ the person)
• Listen to each other, and not interrupt when another person is speaking
• Come prepared for each class
• Acknowledge that it’s okay to make mistakes – mistakes are an opportunity for learning
• No sexist, racist or otherwise derogatory comments
• Turn off mobile phones or put them in silent mode

You can have students discuss their expectations and mutually agree on further ground rules for the tutor and tutees. Here are some general ground rules for tutors.

Do:

• Get to know your tutees, especially at first
• Have reasonable expectations, and clearly communicate your expectations and basic “rules” for what you and the tutees are supposed to do
• Act professional
• Come prepared
• Respect the tutee’s feelings
• Respect the tutee’s confidentiality
• Be encouraging and friendly, and listen well to the tutees
• Ask questions and allow time for them to answer
• Use more open-ended questions to encourage them to think or to solve problems on their own
• Adjust to the tutees’ pace
• Observe personal boundaries
• Treat all tutees equally, fairly, and courteously
• Arrive on time to meetings
• Help tutees discover as much as possible on their own
8. Planning your meetings

- Encourage and help the tutee to become more independent as the semester progresses.
- Help the tutee to develop a meaningful understanding of concepts, ideas, skills, or English ability (rather than memorize information).
- Be patient with tutees, especially if they seem slow or make mistakes; assure them that making mistakes is a necessary part of the learning process.
- Be relaxed and don’t worry too much about making mistakes (if you are humble and honest about it, tutees will probably be forgiving); making occasional mistakes as a tutor is part of the learning process.
- Be honest about your shortcomings, mistakes or things that you don’t know – but show willingness to find out what you don’t know and share it with the tutee later.
- Contact us if you are having significant problems with a tutee.

Don’t:

- Do the work for the tutee.
- Try to teach everything directly – don’t just teach them the answers, but have them think and work through problems on their own or in group activities.
- Be negative (e.g., toward tutees; regarding the course, professor or contents; about yourself).
- Overwhelm the student.
- Have the tutee simply memorize facts, vocabulary, or information.
- Go too quickly through the materials in the textbook, tutoring booklet, etc.
- Go too quickly through course materials or concepts.
- Talk too much or over-explain things.
- Dominate the sessions.
- Try to “save” your tutee.
- Hinder the tutee from growing and becoming independent.

8.2. Ice-breakers

During the first session or two, you’ll probably want to do two things: [1] get to know your tutees, and [2] find out about their specific difficulties and weaknesses (see below on how to do this). After introducing the ground rules and policies, you can do some ice-breakers (ice-breaking activities, to “break the ice” and get to know each other), and then some diagnostics. Ice-breakers can include the following:

- Simple self-introductions: Each person introduces him/herself, with an opportunity for tutees to ask questions about each other; you can also provide some questions that each person must answer about him/herself, such as favorite activities, most interesting life experience, etc.
- Introduce your neighbor: Get to know your neighbor, ask him/her questions, and then have each person introduce his/her partner to the whole group.
• Find out who: Make a list of experiences, abilities, etc., and have students go around asking each other questions to find as many people as possible who have done or can do such things. For example, tutees are given a handout with blanks beside items like “Can speak Japanese,” “Has lived in Europe,” “Has done extreme sports,” “Has eaten cooked insects,” and “Knows programming languages.” The students go around to ask each other questions and fill in the blanks with the names of people who meet the criteria. Afterward, as a group, have the students share what they have found about their fellow tutees.

• Many other ideas for ice-breakers can be found on the Internet

8.3. Diagnostics

At first, you also need to find out about their specific difficulties and weaknesses – what they know and don’t know about the materials or skills in which you are tutoring them. These may be necessary at the beginning of the semester, or even at the beginning of a unit later in the semester. Possible diagnostics are classified by the type of tutoring that you may be doing: [1] tutoring in content areas (e.g., a particular course in their major that they are taking), [2] English skills for courses taught in English – known as English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English mediated instruction (EMI) or English mediated courses (EMC); this can be divided into [2a] writing skills, and [2b] oral / verbal skills, i.e., discussion, debate, or presentation skills. Diagnostic activities in a tutoring session need not be complex, and should not take too long, but just enough to give you a good idea of their level and needs.

8.3.1. Content area skills diagnostic

Short diagnostic quizzes can be used to find out how much they know and what gaps or misunderstandings they have. Multiple choice quizzes are not recommended, because students can guess answers based on recognition of words in the answers, rather than by actually understanding the contents. Short answer questions would be better, in which students have to explain concepts or terms in their own words, or explain the process of working through a problem. Quizzes and other diagnostics would likely try to assess the amount of background knowledge that they should have (e.g., from previous courses, or from related general subjects from high school), or basic concepts from the current course that they might know or should know already. A few other options are listed below. You can look at the previous sections on using questions and formative tasks for more ideas.

• Interview. In a 1:1 interview setting, or with you and a pair of tutees, have him/her/them explain aloud in their own words basic concepts, how much they know about the current subject, or their background knowledge.

• Self-report. Have the tutee describe (verbally or in writing) what the tutee feels his/her weaknesses are in the subject, what the tutee feels are his/her weaknesses in study habits, or what s/he knows about the subject.

• Pair discussion. Have tutees discuss the above questions in pairs, and then share with you.
• **Diagnostic quiz.** Keep quizzes short and informal, and focus on key concepts or ideas, background knowledge that they should (but might not) know, and other important information. Open-ended or short answer questions are better than “objective” answer questions like multiple choice items. To make it more informal and relaxed, you could give it to them as a group quiz – have them discuss items in pairs or smaller groups of 3-4 students, fill out the quiz, and then discuss the answers.

### 8.3.2. Writing skills diagnostic

A short essay assignment can be ideal for finding their writing strengths, be it an academic topic or an informal topic.

- **Self-introduction.** Tell me about yourself, including academic background, your major, why you chose your major, future plans, etc.
- **Your writing process.** How you go about doing major writing assignments, in English and/or in Korean. How do you decide on the topic, and then plan, brainstorm ideas, organize your thoughts, and start writing? How many times do you revise it? What kind of environment do you need to write? Do you have difficulties getting started, and if so, how do you manage this?
- **Major introduction.** Tell me about your academic major, what your field is about, what people do in the field, and why the field is interesting.
- **Term or concept explanation.** Take an interesting concept from your field and explain it to me. How is it relevant or interesting to people in your field?
- **Response paper.** Provide tutees with a short essay or paper advocating a certain point of view on a current topic of interest or controversy, be it a current political or social issue, or something that is a hot issue in the academic world. Have the tutee write a response to the article, explaining and defending his/her own views.

### 8.3.3. Oral / verbal skills diagnostic

You can have students talk about the following, either in the form of a short presentation, a pair discussion activity followed by an informal discussion with the whole group, or a 1:1 interview between you and each tutee. For an initial short presentation, you can let them have a few minutes to prepare it. You could have them do it impromptu (on the spot, with no preparation – also known as extemporaneous or improvised), but this may be too intimidating for tutees at first.

- **Self-introduction** presentation
- **Partner introduction.** Each tutee interviews a partner, then introduces the person to the whole group.
- **Major introduction.** Tell me about your academic major, what your field is about, what people do in the field, and why the field is interesting.
- **Term or concept explanation.** Have each tutee take an interesting concept from his/her field and explain it, including how it is relevant or interesting to people in the field.
- **How-to.** Have a tutee give a short presentation on how to do something – how to prepare and deliver a presentation, how to write an essay for a class, how to fix a tire, how to bake a cake, how to cook a favorite dish, or such.
• **Persuasive or argumentative speech.** Have each tutee give a short presentation arguing his/her position on a current political, social, or academic issue, or a short presentation in response to a video or reading that you provide on a current issue.

**8.3.4. Personality and study skills diagnostics**

In the first few sessions, you can address students’ study skills, personality factors, and motivation. You can, as a group discussion or activity, discuss the self-reflection questions at the end of Chapter 2 regarding motivation and study habits.

**8.4. Lesson planning**

As a tutor, planning for a tutoring session will need to be flexible and open-ended. Ideally, you would be in contact with your tutees during the week, and you can find from them the kinds of issues and topics that you need to address during the tutoring session. A session might begin with one or more of the following.

• **Review** of previous materials. Review, or at least briefly summarize, what was covered last time. Briefly explain how it relates to what you will (probably) discuss today.

• **Overview.** If you have planned some activities, then give an overview of today’s topics and activities. However, you should be flexible and allow for a change of plans, e.g., if you find tutees are having particular difficulties with something that you had not planned for, if some tutees or topics need more attention, or if other important issues arise.

• **Probe.** Finding out about the difficulties that they are currently having (best to do this beforehand by email)

• **Quiz.** A short (diagnostic) quiz over current topics in the course(s), if you don’t know what they are currently having difficulty with.

After these introductory activities, you can spend you time on the following, as needed.

• **Explanation.** You may need to take some time to explain important concepts and materials from their courses.

• **Inductive exercise.** Instead of directly explaining all of the material, it may be better to give them a problem, example, case study, or data set, and give them some hints, but try to have them figure out principles or concepts themselves. This could also be called a guided learning exercise.

• **Group or pair activities.** Have them do exercises, problem solving activities, open-ended exercises, inductive exercises, projects, or such, in pairs or as a group, with you giving hints or advice, rather than telling them the answers. See the section on group activities.

If you tutoring in writing or oral skills, then an explanation component may involve some explanation of writing or presentation techniques. However, it is best to keep explanations to 5-15 minutes, and then move on to some exercises, practice, or group activities. Longer explanations can be split up, e.g., explain part of the material, do an activity based on it, explain the rest, and do another related activity. Try to explain with good examples, and if possible, try to teach inductively. Refer to the section on scaffolding in the chapter on teaching methods for more ideas.
8.5. Tutoring exercises

This section provides an overview of other types of exercises in your tutoring sessions for different kinds of skills. Some will tutor specifically in writing skills, or verbal skills (listening, speaking, debate, discussion, and presentation skills). Many may want some first-day diagnostic activities (some of which can also serve as ice-breakers). Some tutors may want to focus on exercises in students’ areas of study, i.e., content areas, rather than verbal or writing skills.

8.5.1. Content area activities

In addition to explanations, much of your time will be spent in [1] walking them through exercises, [2] having them do practice activities and exercises. Often will probably have tutees do activities and exercises as a group or in pairs, with you supervising and providing help as needed. You can refer to the chapter above on group activities for ideas, or for more, you can refer to an online booklet on group activities at www.bit.ly/kentlee7/ped.htm (or at a mirror address, www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7/ped.htm). For content area activities, you can also adapt the ideas below for writing and oral activities.

You can also draw from Youtube videos and OCW videos pertaining to the course contents, for good English explanations or examples by well known professors. A number of universities in the US, Korea and other countries make course materials and even lecture videos for college courses available online for free (some sites may only offer course materials, some offer audio lectures, and some include video lectures). Such videos can help when the tutees have not understood their own professors’ course lectures.

8.5.2. Writing activities

• **Inductive activities - errors.** Tutees are given written samples and asked to identify mistakes or stylistic problems. It is better to focus on a particular issue, e.g., looking for errors with articles, or looking for colloquial or informal expressions that do not belong in an academic paper.

• **Inductive activities – comparisons.** Students can be given two writing samples, or two different versions of the same piece, where one sample is well written and the other sample has problems; students can more easily identify problems by comparing two examples.

• **Inductive activities – discovery.** Students are given a writing sample or samples of a new writing structure, grammar structure, or stylistic device (or a plain version without the target structure, and a version with the target structure). The students try to infer how it functions and sounds. This would work with inverted sentences, some article usage patterns (‘the, a’), and transitional phrases.

• **Inductive activities – vocabulary.** Students often rely too much on dictionaries. You can give them a reading passage and make them guess the meanings of some words without using dictionaries, so they can learn to read more efficiently without looking up too many words.

---

21 OCW = OpenCourseWare, or free online lectures and course materials. Our university has its own OCW site (http://ocw.korea.ac.kr), as do a number of universities in the US and other countries (e.g., www.ocwconsortium.org).
• **Inductive activities – critique.** Students read a short story or essay, and analyze and critique the writing and style, looking for various expressions or structures that make it effective (or ineffective); e.g., what is effective about the word choice, use of transitionals, structure, flow, or attention-getting devices.

• **Peer editing.** In pairs, students critique each other’s essay drafts or writing samples.

• **Written genres.** In pairs or groups, students draft various kinds of writing samples – outlines, short essays, abstracts, proposals, summaries, paraphrases, job application cover letters, résumés, CVs, statements of purpose...

• **Brainstorming and/or outlining.** Students learn how to improve their writing process by brainstorming ideas for an assigned topic, organizing the ideas into concept maps or other diagrams, and then outlining. Or students can be given a set of unorganized information, which they then organize into outlines.

• **Descriptive writing.** Students write short descriptions, e.g., their life story, an interesting experience, or describing a nature scene.

• **Creative writing.** Writing short stories, simple poems, songs, etc. (maybe less practical for teaching academic writing, but maybe useful as a warm-up or ice-breaker).

• **Informative writing.** Students write a short piece explaining a concept or term from their fields.

• **Argumentation exercise – simple.** Students outline and then write a short essay to explain their position on a political, social, or academic issue.

• **Argumentation exercise – response.** Students read an essay about a particular position, and then they write in response to it, e.g., agreeing with it, partially agreeing with it, or arguing against it.

• **Counter-argumentation.** Students write a paragraph or short outline of how they would explain their position. Then they are asked to write another paragraph or outline to attack their original positions. Then they write a final paragraph in which they argue for their original position, including counter-arguments against the objections from the second stage.

8.5.3. **Oral / verbal activities**


• **Introductions.** Tutees give short presentations to introduce themselves or fellow tutees.

• **Practice presentations.** Students give individual practice presentations; or they work in small groups or pairs to give a group presentation, or work on a project and give a group presentation about the project.

• **Presentation rehearsals.** Students rehearse presentations that they are working on for their current class, and use the tutoring session to rehearse and get feedback from you and from fellow students.
8. Planning your meetings

- **Presentation critique.** Students hear sample a sample speech or lecture (academic or non-academic, e.g., from Ted.com, Youtube, or OCW), and critique it. Initially, this can be open-ended (what was effective or ineffective), and then later you might have them focus on specific elements, such as word choice, use of transitionals, structure, flow, attention-getting devices, vocal delivery, body language and gestures, confidence, use of PPT or visual aids, informativeness, and persuasiveness.

- **Using visual aids.** You can explain presentation skills and the use of visual aids, and critique sample lectures for presenters’ use of PPT and visual aids. You may need to show some how to design PPT slides and presentations. After they have mastered PPT, you can show them newer applications like Prezi (www.prezi.com), a non-traditional, web-based presentation application.

- **Peer critique.** Students give short practice talks or presentations, and then critique each other.

- **Discussion.** Students read and discuss an article, topic of interest, or a topic from their course.

- **Discussion – student-led.** Tutees take turns leading discussions of articles or other topics.

- **Toasts.** At formal dinners, one may need to offer or propose a toast (建배하다, 축배 드다) to a person of honor. This can be a quick exercise, where students “toast” each other.

- **Informative presentation.** Students give an informative presentation about a topic of interest, or a topic in their class.

- **Argumentative / persuasive presentation – simple.** Students prepare and present an persuasive talk in which they argue for a position on an academic, political, or social issue.

- **Counter-argumentation.** As in the written counter-argumentation activities above, students argue and counter-argue for and against their own positions.

- **Motivational talk.** Motivational speeches are popular at business conferences and other meetings. As a fun exercise, you can have students try to identify a motivational theme and turn it into a talk.

- **Impromptu speaking** (also known as extemporaneous speaking). Students are given only a few minutes to prepare a short talk (say, three minutes) on a topic. This is difficult, and students should have experience with other presentations first. An impromptu talk on an informative or descriptive topic would be safer, and after that, they can try the more challenging task of a persuasive impromptu talk.

- **Debate.** Students divide into teams; each side prepares arguments for their position on an issue. Then students debate the topic, with you moderating. To make things interesting, you can also have them argue for positions different from their own; e.g., if those in group A oppose the KORUS FTA treaty, and those in group B are for it, have group A argue for it and group B against it in a debate.
8.6. Conclusion

For more ideas and information, you can refer to my website, www.bit.ly/kentlee7 or www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7, where you can find more handouts on the following, as well as a PDF copy of this manual.

- **EAP** (English for academic purposes): handouts on academic English, especially for presentations. More handouts will be posted later on English pronunciation.
- **Writing aids**: handouts on many aspects of English academic writing.
- **Pedagogical aids.** Handouts for teaching and pedagogy, such as group work, using questions, and others.

You can also find a few helpful videos on my Youtube channel (kentlee7) on presentation skills, using technology and visual aids, and pronunciation.
9. Sample curricula for tutors

The following sample curricula for tutoring in verbal skills – presentation, debate, or discussion – are based on the KUPT tutoring manuals, which can be found on my website, www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 under ‘EAP.’ The activities below refer to the following manuals and chapters, or my website.

- **GT** General Tutoring Manual (usually chapter 8.5, unless otherwise noted)
- **PD** Manual for presentation & debate – *Tutoring in Presentation & Verbal Skills*
- **EAP** English for Academic Purposes website [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 > EAP]
- **WTM** Writing Tutors Manual
- **EAP** English for Academic Purposes website [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 > EAP]
- **WW** My writing website [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 > writing]

The EAP website has handouts on word choice, lecture expressions, and pronunciation. The tutoring manuals can also be downloaded from there.

These sources are highly recommended for materials for your tutoring; you can show them sample speeches or lectures, and have tutees critique them in conjunction with many of your lesson topics, or as stand-alone lesson materials.

- **TED.com**, where you can watch and critique good speeches on many topics, by speakers from education, business, government, and other areas.
- **OCW** (OpenCourseWare) – online lectures from university courses, such as KU [ocw.korea.ac.kr]; from various North American universities like Harvard, Yale, MIT, Berkeley, Stanford, and many others [just do a Google search for OCW]; and the OCW Consortium [ocwconsortium.org].

Most of these lessons below could be supplemented with OCW or TED.com videos, e.g., having students critique videos in terms of pronunciation, delivery, organization, body language, informativeness, persuasiveness, etc. These are just outlines; you should adapt them to your students’ needs, ability level, and pace.
## 9.1. Sample curriculum for Presentation Skills tutoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>week #</th>
<th>lesson topic</th>
<th>activities or materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>introductions; discuss ground rules [GT 8.1]</td>
<td>ice-breakers [GT 8.2] or diagnostic activities [GT 8.3] practice speeches: self-intros or introducing a partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>pronunciation</td>
<td>pronunciation [EAP – pronunciation section] (Try some of the practice sentences &amp; dialogues in the online handouts.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>planning [PD 1]; structure; transitions &amp; expressions</td>
<td>Students engage in brainstorming, outlining exercises to prepare short, informal speeches [GT 5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>structure &amp; organization; introductions [EAP] handout on classroom expressions / transitions; Watch sample video, critique structure, listen for structure, transitionals &amp; other expressions; See [PD 1] on structure, &amp; intros [PD 1.3] Practice intros to presentations while revising and re-doing speeches from last session</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>gathering information; summarizing, paraphrasing</td>
<td>Google search syntax [see web handout] Students gather info and plan for speeches at next session; practice summaries, paraphrases [PD 2, EAP handouts]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>informative speeches</td>
<td>Students plan and deliver short informative talks about topics in their fields;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>07</td>
<td>analytical, and/or summary speeches [optional, due to midterms]</td>
<td>Students give presentations summarizing articles or other info (e.g., academic articles, essays, online articles), or in which they provide their analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>persuasive speeches</td>
<td>Critique speeches from TED.com (how persuasive is the talk, and why; what techniques make it persuasive); Have students outline and present short persuasive speeches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sample curricula for tutors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>rhetorical support, evidence; avoiding logical errors</td>
<td>Discuss support (e.g., how good speakers support and argue for their points; TED videos or debate videos would be good) Discuss fallacies; look for examples of logical fallacies (bad logic, emotionalistic arguments) in commercial advertisements, political speeches [PD 1.3-1.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>counter-argumentation</td>
<td>Discuss counter-arguments [PD 1.3-1.4] Have students revise and extend their previous persuasive speeches, with more info &amp; counter-arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>persuasive speeches</td>
<td>more practice with giving persuasive speeches &amp; critiquing each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>impromptu (extemporaneous) speeches</td>
<td>Students are given 5 minutes to outline and deliver a 3 min. speech on an assigned topic (e.g., a topic related to current events, political or social issues, academic issues)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>using visual aids and media</td>
<td>Discuss principles of good PPT use, visual aids, etc.; critique sample talks (e.g., Steve Jobs talks on Youtube, TED.com speakers) [PD 3] Students practice presentations that they are to give in their classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>poise, body language</td>
<td>Critique sample lectures (OCW, TED) for body language; practice body language skills in short sample speeches or mock interviews [GT 7.6, PD 6.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>debates</td>
<td>mock debates (on any kind of issue of interest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>(finals week)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## 9.2. Sample curriculum for Discussion & Debate tutoring

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>week #</th>
<th>lesson topic</th>
<th>activities or materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 01     | introductions; discuss ground rules [GT 8.1] | ice-breakers [GT 8.2] or diagnostic activities [GT 8.3]
diagnostic activities [GT 8.3] practice speeches: self-intros or introducing a partner |
| 02     | pronunciation | pronunciation [EAP – pronunciation section] (Practice with sentences and dialogues in these handouts) |
| 03     | structure; introductions | brainstorming, outlining exercises for presentations |
| 04     | gathering information; summarizing, paraphrasing | Google search syntax [see web handout]
Students gather info and plan for speeches at next session; practice summaries, paraphrases [PD 2, EAP handouts]
| 05     | asking & answering questions | [EAP handout: questions]
Students do practice Q&A sessions about topics (e.g., topics in their courses), using info & skills from the last session |
| 06     | presentation skills: visual aids, multimedia, poise, body language | Discuss principles of good PPT use, visual aids, etc.; critique sample talks (e.g., Steve Jobs talks on Youtube, TED.com speakers) [PD 3]
Critique sample lectures (OCW, TED) for body language; practice body language skills in short sample speeches or mock interviews [GT 7.6, PD 6.4] |
| 07     | leading discussions | Students do practice presentation / discussion activities |
| 08     | leading discussions | Students do practice presentation / discussion activities |
| 09     | rhetorical support, evidence; avoiding logical errors | Discuss support (e.g., how good speakers support and argue for their points; TED videos or debate videos would be good)
Discuss fallacies; look for examples of logical fallacies (bad logic, emotionalistic arguments) in commercial advertisements, political speeches [PD 1.3-1.4] |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>counter-argumentation</td>
<td>Discuss counter-arguments [PD 1.3-1.4] Have students revise and extend their previous persuasive speeches, with more info &amp; counter-arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Toulmin model of arguments</td>
<td>Students create outlines and practice talks following the Toulmin model (resources readily available online about Toulmin style)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>impromptu (extemporaneous) speeches</td>
<td>Students are given 5 minutes to outline and deliver a 3 min. speech on an assigned topic (e.g., a topic related to current events, political or social issues, academic issues)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>impromptu (extemporaneous) speeches</td>
<td>More impromptu exercises, to practice traditional argument / counter-argumentation format and/or Toulmin style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>debates</td>
<td>Students do mock debates (on any kind of issue of interest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>debates</td>
<td>Students do mock debates (on any kind of issue of interest)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>(finals week)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# 9.3. Sample curriculum for writing tutoring

The following sample curriculum for tutoring writing skills is based on the *Writing Tutors Manual*, which can be found on my website, [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7](http://www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7) under ‘EAP’. The activities below refer to the following manuals with chapter numbers, or my website. Be sure to have read or looked through these manuals before you start tutoring.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>week #</th>
<th>lesson topic</th>
<th>activities or materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>introductions;</td>
<td>ice-breakers [GT 8.2], or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>discuss ground rules</td>
<td>diagnostic activities [GT 8.3];</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[GT 8.1] writing process</td>
<td>Writing process: reflective writing assignment [WTM p. 8]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>writing process</td>
<td>brainstorming, revision [WTM p. 8-16]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>essay structure,</td>
<td>[WTM p. 24-29, 40-43]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>introductions</td>
<td>[WTM p. 24-29, 40-43]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>support, evidence;</td>
<td>Discuss types of support for arguments;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>genre analysis</td>
<td>Students compare and analyze academic papers from their field; each should write a short paper on “how papers are written my my field” [TWM p. 30-34]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>peer editing</td>
<td>Students peer edit papers assigned last time; optional: ask students to revise their papers [WTM 15-19]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06-07</td>
<td>arguments, counter-</td>
<td>Critique sample essays (e.g., Salon.com, online editorials from good news sites) [WTM 47-56]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>argumentation</td>
<td>Students can do an argumentation exercise, in which they write a paragraph for a particular view, then write a paragraph attacking that same view, and a third paragraph to argue for the original view and address the objections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>logical fallacies</td>
<td>Discuss fallacies; find &amp; discuss examples from commercial advertisements, politicians, etc. [WTM 57-62]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09</td>
<td>summarizing, paraphrasing,</td>
<td>Do practice with summarizing / paraphrasing, or plagiarism exercise [WTM 64-75]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>avoiding plagiarism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>using sources</td>
<td>Discuss how to use &amp; cite sources in one’s writing [WTM 64-75, appendices on MLA, APA]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Discuss Google searches [WTM 177-183]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/12</td>
<td>coherence, flow, transitionals</td>
<td>Discuss [WTM102-133], do exercises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>word choice issues</td>
<td>Discuss [WTM 137-164]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>writing grammar</td>
<td>Discuss [WTM appendices]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>peer editing</td>
<td>Peer editing of papers they are doing in their courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>(finals)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. Appendix: Memorization techniques

While some memorization is necessary in learning, the more effective learners have learned not to rely on this method too much, and some use mnemonic techniques, or memory tricks, to reduce memorization time in order to focus more on deeper learning of concepts. Some common mnemonics are summarized here; many of these are adapted from Lorayne and Lucas (1996).

Music
Singing or humming short phrases or series of numbers, or committing them to memory with a melody, can help. This works for the same reason that TV commercials with musical jingles and slogans stay in your head forever (or those who grew up in the 1980s in North America or Europe will always remember the rock song “Jenny, 867-5309”).

Numeric patterns
For numbers such as phone numbers, look for any kind of mathematical patterns; e.g., for a phone number like 355-5364, remember ‘3’ and three 5s, 3+5=8, 5+5=10, 5+3=8, 6+4=10. It also helps to “chunk” or divide longer numbers into smaller segments of 2-4 digits, and learn it segment by segment.

Keypad patterns
You can remember simple keystroke patterns for words and numbers, such as how your fingers move to dial a phone number – a visual and tactile association.

Acronyms
This is the most common type of mnemonic, for example:
1. The colors of the rainbow: Roy G. Biv = red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet.

Visualization
Creating unusual, strange or dynamic mental images can help to remember things more
Appendix: Memorization techniques

Word association

Learning new words, such as those in a foreign language, can be simplified with word-visual associations. For example, a Korean learning basic English can remember ‘suddenly’ by associating it with ‘썩온이’ (rotten teeth), especially if one creates a humorous or memorable mental image that connects ‘suddenly’ with rotting teeth. For a foreigner learning Korean, one can use associations like these.

Facial visualization

Remembering names and faces can be enhanced with word and visual associations. For example, to remember someone named Barclay after meeting him, imagine that his face looks like broccoli. For Korean and Chinese names, connect a possible meaning of the name (not necessarily the correct meaning, but a possible one, for the sake of a memorable association) with the person with a creative visual association. For someone named Suyoung, imagine her swimming 수영하기; for someone named Juyoung, make a visual association with the famous Korean footballer 박주영.

Locus method

The locus (Latin for ‘place, location’; ‘loci’ in the plural) method is an ancient method used by Greek and Roman orators. To memorize one’s speech, one can associate different parts or topics of the speech with different parts of one’s home. Create a visual association between the contents of your introduction with the front door, and then mentally move through your house, associating different parts of the talk with rooms and household items. Alternatively, you can use the visual layout of the room where you will be speaking. The different corners and parts of the room, and different rows of seats, can serve as mnemonic loci. For example, when I give talks about presentation skills, the first main part of the talk is about planning and organization, so I imagine someone in the far front left corner (my immediate left) doing some kind of planning work (for subpoints of that section, I can extend the image into the neighboring front row of seats). The next section on delivery skills is associated with the back left corner, where I imagine a delivery truck arriving, and the driver gets out and performs several actions that remind me of the subpoints of that section.

Peg system

For memorizing numbers or lists of items, the peg system is a classic system. There are different variations, but here I will present the one popularized by Lucas and Lorraine. For each numeral (1, 2, 3...) or item in a list or series (item 1, item 2...), a standard consonant (or consonant pair) is associated with that numeral, and with that, a word that stands for that consonant; this word serves as a “peg,” with which items to be memorized.
are associated by means of creative visual association. For numbers 0-9, the following letters can be used, but feel free to change this to whatever works for you, or create your own peg system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>number</th>
<th>consonant(s)</th>
<th>peg word</th>
<th>hint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>s, z</td>
<td>(not usually used for list items)</td>
<td>an “S” is roundish like “0”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>t, d</td>
<td>tie</td>
<td>a necktie looks long and thin like “1”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>no (or Noah)</td>
<td>“n” is curved like “2”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>Ma (or mow)</td>
<td>“m” has a double curve like “3”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>rye (bread)</td>
<td>‘r’ in ‘four’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>law (imagine a police officer)</td>
<td>imagine five police officers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>sh, ch, j, zh</td>
<td>[ʃ/ʧ/ʤ] shoe</td>
<td>imagine six shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>k, g</td>
<td>cow</td>
<td>“7” is angular like “k”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>f, v</td>
<td>ivy</td>
<td>imagine ivy shaped like a figure 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>b, p</td>
<td>bee</td>
<td>“9” has a loop like “b” or “p”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>t+s/z</td>
<td>toes</td>
<td>Simply combine the peg consonants for 1 &amp; 0 and think of a word with those sounds.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The consonants /w/, /h/ and /y/ are unassigned, as are all the vowels, so these can be put in anywhere without changing the numeric values of any words. This system can be extended indefinitely by combining the peg consonants, e.g., 11 = toot (train sound), 12 = ton (something extremely heavy falling), 13 = Tom or dam, 14 = tire, 20 = noose, 30 = moose, and so on.

Example: Biological characteristics of planarian worms (flatworms)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>item #, peg</th>
<th>characteristic</th>
<th>mnemonic association</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 = tie</td>
<td>No respiratory or circulatory systems</td>
<td>A flatworm is wearing an overly tight tie and choking, so it cannot breathe, and its face turns red due to lack of circulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2= no</td>
<td>Breathe by diffusion of oxygen and CO₂</td>
<td>A flatworm is offered an oxygen mask and dry ice (solid CO₂) but refuses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix: Memorization techniques

3 = ma  Basic nervous system  A flatworm is nervous and shaking in front of your mother.

4 = rye  Sexual or asexual reproduction  A bunch of flatworms have infested a loaf of rye bread, and are rapidly reproducing and taking it over.

5 = law  Reproduction also by regeneration  A police officer cuts a flatworm into pieces, and each piece regenerates into a whole flatworm.

6 = shoe  Move by ventral cilia or muscular undulations  A flatworm crawls out of a shoe (or takes off some shoes) and starts moving on the ground by twisting and undulating.

### Numeral – consonant associations

Memorizing numerals can be helped by associating each numeral with a consonant sound, as in the peg system. For actual strings of numerals, fill in vowels to make up words, phrases, and sentences. (Feel free to adapt this so that it works for you.) For a number like Π, convert it to consonants and then words, create memorable phrases and sentences, and create a mental image to remember it.

\[
\begin{align*}
\pi & = 3.14159265358979323846264 \\
& = m\text{ trtlp} \ n{\text{ml}} \ fpkpm\text{ tmfrf} , \quad \text{OR} \\
& = m\text{ drdlb} n\{\text{ch/j}\}\text{ lml} \ vbgbm\text{ dmvr}\{\text{ch/j}\} \\
& = \text{My turtle Poncho will, my love, pick up my dumb fridge. (fridge = refrigerator)}
\end{align*}
\]

You can also find other peg (or “hook”) systems on the Internet. An alternate system uses the following pegs, which may be easier, but is difficult to extend beyond 12.

1. one – bun
2. two – glue
3. three – tree
4. four – door
5. five – hive
6. six – mix
7. seven – heaven
8. eight – fight / bait
9. nine – dine
10. ten – tent

88
11. References and resources


