Tutoring in Presentation and Verbal Skills

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0. Introduction

We would like to thank you for becoming a volunteer tutor, and hope that you enjoy and learn from this experience. This guide book introduces activities and methods for tutoring in verbal and oral skills, such as presentations, debates, and class discussion activities (with some overlap with the general tutoring guide). This booklet covers the following areas.

• Planning and organization
• Tutoring activities
• Evaluation criteria for presentations
• Rhetorical structure, argumentation and counter-argumentation
• Presentation and delivery skills
• Software
• Language issues: Pronunciation; word choice issues

0.1. Common ESL issues for Koreans

The following are the kinds of problems that Koreans are likely to have in English as a second language.

General strategies

1. Less planning. Students may not plan well beforehand, leading to a product that is not well organized or inadequately developed.

2. More laborious, but less efficient work. Students tend to get lost in the details, e.g., by spending more time consulting dictionaries, and less time thinking about good contents, ideas, or organization.

Grammatical and lexical errors

1. Simpler sentences. Students tend to avoid complex sentences, and use many simpler sentences, which can lead to a more informal, simple tone, and less smoothness or sophistication in the flow of ideas.

2. More strong modals. Students may overuse stronger modal verbs like should or must, and less often verbs like might, may, could. Also, Koreans tend to overuse could for past tense, when it is not generally used as a past form of can in contemporary English.

3. More coordination, less subordination. Students more often form longer sentences by joining main clauses with coordinating conjunctions (and, but, so, or...), and less often with subordinating conjunctions (though, whereas, after, thereby, so that...). Writing with many
coordinated sentences and few subordinate clauses leads to a more informal style and flow, and less sophisticated expression of ideas.

4. **More unmodified nouns.** Koreans may use simple noun phrases with little or no modification with adjectives, prepositional phrases, or other modifying expressions, e.g., “the experiment that was successful…” instead of “the successful experiment;” or “the experiment that was done on the mice that were genetically modified” instead of “the experiment with the genetically modified mice.”

5. **Articles.** Students may use fewer definite articles (*the*) and indefinite articles (*a, an*), or make article errors. Articles are notoriously difficult, are not so well understood linguistically, and can depend on the particular nuances that a writer wants to convey.

6. **Less passive voice, and incorrect passives.** Overall, students may use fewer passive voice verbs (e.g., “was conducted”) in academic contexts where they are fairly common. Asian students tend to incorrectly make some verbs passive that cannot be passive (e.g., “was existed, was appeared”).

7. **Fewer transitionals.** Asian students tend to use less variety of transitional or connective words (conjunctions and other words like *though, however, while, whereas, furthermore*) to link ideas, words, and clauses. They also overuse common transitionals like *but, and, so, or, and* may also overuse *there is, there are* phrases for introducing new topics.

8. **Repetition.** Koreans may use fewer synonyms, and instead may repeat the same words in subsequent sentences.

9. **Simpler or vaguer words.** Second-language users tend to overuse simpler and vaguer vocabulary. This may be due to a limited command of sophisticated academic vocabulary, and not knowing the nuances of more sophisticated words and how to use them in context. Some commonly overused word types are:
   - Simple verbs, such as *be, have, give, do, get* (for example, instead of *give, one can use contribute, donate, yield*, or others). However, for a less formal presentation like an assigned class presentation, this may be less of an issue, except when more specific wording is needed for clarity and precision.
   - Informal phrasal verbs, e.g., *get out* instead of more formal Latin words such as *remove, extricate*.
   - Simple nouns like *man, women, people* instead of more specific terms like *subjects, participants*.
   - Simple adjectives like *good, bad*, instead of more specific, meaningful terms.

**Discourse features**

1. **Overall argumentation.** Some may argue indirectly for their main idea, without clearly stating the main point (thesis) at the beginning, and without following a sequential development of claims or arguments to support the thesis. Some may instead follow a traditional Korean rhetorical style, which is more roundabout and indirect. However, in English, one is expected to state the main idea(s) first, and develop supporting arguments.

2. **Argumentation.** Claims or arguments may lack sufficiently convincing evidence, data, proof, examples, or other supporting information to back up the claims. Not enough claims may be presented to support the main idea. The student may include a lot of data, without explaining the relevance of the data, or making explicit connections between the data and his/her claims – an information dump.

3. **Source use.** Students may use more terminology without properly defining or explaining
the terms or concepts. They may have difficulty incorporating information from sources smoothly into their texts – there may be abrupt shifts between their ideas and source information. They may fail to make enough use of primary sources to support and develop their ideas. They may rely too heavily on quotations or footnotes, and may rely too much on authority, i.e., appealing to the ideas of a famous scholar for support (which itself is not necessarily scientifically valid), rather than providing direct evidence; they may even do so, not realizing that the scholar’s ideas may actually be controversial or not always accepted in the field.
1. Rhetorical style and structure

1.1. Rhetorical structure

‘Rhetoric’ in popular parlance refers to exaggerated or insincere use of language, e.g., political rhetoric. In academia, however, the original meaning is intended – the use of language to inform and persuade audiences, be it in public speaking or writing. Academic writing and speaking is informative, but often at the same time persuasive in some way. A talk may be advocating a particular view or course of action, but one may also try to persuade the listeners that a particular experiment is interesting or that it proves what it is intended to prove; that a particular topic is relevant; or that a particular theorem is true.

Koreans and other East Asians have encountered difficulties in English academic presentations or writing, because of [1] inexperience in crafting well organized presentations, and [2] different expectations and cultural patterns in expressing and developing ideas in academic and persuasive speaking and writing. This is illustrated in the following (albeit somewhat simplistic and over-generalized) comparison of the two cultural patterns in rhetoric.

The English style is described as “linear” while the East Asian style is more indirect. The typical English style follows a structure more or less like this. This cultural difference causes problems for East Asian students in several areas.

• Introductions tend to be overly general or vague. Korean students follow a traditional Confucian style, where the writer or speaker wants to make the audience feel comfortable and establish good rapport with the audience. However, a proper English introduction should be explicit and direct, being more directly related to and leading directly to the main point of the talk. For example, if talking about English language teaching policy, East Asian students might give a vague, general introduction about how hard English is, or why English is important, which is common, obvious information that would be considered irrelevant in an academic English context. Instead, one should start with information that directly relates to the main idea.


Linguists take a descriptive approach to language, so they would simply describe English and Asian rhetorical patterns and their differences. This is not evaluative (claiming that one is better) or prescriptive (prescribing or imposing a “correct” style); they would view rhetorical styles of different cultures as equally valid.
• Speakers and writers may not identify the main point of a talk or paper, especially in the introduction where it is needed.

• Speakers and writers, if giving a presentation that is somehow persuasive in nature, fail to specifically identify their main point or argument in the introduction. It may be stated directly or indirectly in the conclusion. In Western style, however, this should be stated clearly in the introduction.

• They may fail to give sufficient evidence for the ideas, claims or arguments made in the presentation. Some may rely too much on scholarly authority, e.g., by merely quoting from or citing major scholars, which alone fails to persuade an academic audience. Convincing evidence is needed to support one’s claims.

• Inexperienced native or ESL speakers and writers may resort to emotionalistic arguments and other fallacies, instead of proper argumentation, evidence, or support.

• They may summarize both sides of an issue throughout the presentation, without clearly stating their own main points or main ideas. Again, this is from the Confucian tradition of maintaining rapport with the audience and not arguing against what potential audience members believe. The Western style focuses on ideas, not people (the audience) and the need to develop one’s ideas or argue for one’s position clearly.

• They may fail to anticipate and deal with likely objections to their ideas, contrary opinions, and arguments that skeptics and opponents might make. In the English or Western style, one needs to anticipate objections and work in one’s one counter-arguments to potential objections while explaining one’s ideas.

These are issues to look for and address in helping students. The following sections explain English rhetorical structure, for which students may need clarification. A structured set of 3-5 main points is an ideal framework or starting point for students. Structuring a presentation around 3-5 main points (not counting the introduction and conclusion) is ideal, as that is easiest for listeners to follow and remember. This is because human memory can best hold about five items in working memory.

I. Introduction
1. Specific background info leading to the thesis
2. Thesis: specific position or objective
3. Possible outline or plan of main arguments to be developed
   (e.g., “American English alone should not be used as the basis for world English [←argument ], because that would not only limit global English to one dialect, and breed possible resentment toward English, but would also hinder linguistic innovation. [←plan]”

II. Body
A. Main idea / argument 1
   1. subpoint 1
      a. supporting evidence / argumentation
   2. subpoint 2
      a. supporting evidence / argumentation
   3. subpoint 3
      a. supporting evidence / argumentation
B. Main idea / argument 2
...
C. Main idea / argument 3
...

III. Conclusion
Wrap-up, summary / review of main argumentation, or comment on the relevance of the writer’s main point(s)

1.1.1. Types of rhetorical support

Different kinds of ideas and information may be used to support the main ideas or arguments. Academic talks or papers are usually a combination of informative and persuasive.

- informative or descriptive
- argumentative or persuasive (also called ‘rhetoric’)
- creative, subjective, personal (often informal or non-academic)

Academic writing is generally both informative, but also argumentative; this is true for most fields. A researcher publishes not only new information and ideas, but also attempts to persuade readers about some point, such as:

- This theory or idea is correct, or is better than other proposals
- The data support or prove a particular hypothesis
- Theory X can be applied to a new domain or to solving a problem
- This experiment is interesting and worthwhile
- These data are worthwhile

More specifically, the kinds of support or evidence for the arguments or ideas presented may be one of these types. Have your students consider some sample presentations in their fields, and which types of support they include (this will vary across academic fields).

- statistical or numerical data
- experimental data
- observational data
- comparison data (e.g., conclusions from statistical comparison of two groups)
- ethnographic data\(^4\) – based on observation of qualitative data like human social interactions
- examples
- anecdotes
- historical evidence
- historical narrative, or background
- quotations
- the authority of other scholars
- legal (forensic) argumentation
- theoretical analysis or discussion
- syllogism (e.g., in philosophy) or other logical argumentation
- mathematical proofs or arguments
- logical inferences
- analogy, metaphor
- more subjective inferences, arguments, impressions, etc.
- summary
- others?

\(^4\) ‘Ethno-’ means people, from Greek; here it can refer to observing and recording data (‘-graphic’) about individuals or several people, e.g., when an anthropologist observes people in their daily lives and social interactions.
A helpful exercise is to have your students discuss in pair or groups the following questions:

- What kinds of evidence or support (e.g., from those above) are typically used in lectures, presentations or discussions in the field?
- Why are these typically used, as opposed to others?

For example, in the sciences and many social sciences, only strictly objective, factual data are admissible as forms of evidence, and some of the above types fall into this category of empirical and objective data. In some fields, only statistical and experimental data – quantitative data – are considered trustworthy. In some social science and humanities fields, more subjective data based on personal observations and inferences – qualitative data – are typical. In some fields, purely logical and theoretical arguments are common (e.g., philosophy, theoretical linguistics) – theoretical arguments.

After having the students identify the type of arguments or information needed in their presentations, and why these are used in the field, you can then have them do practice exercises focusing on these specific types of support.

### 1.2. Introductions and conclusions

Effective introductions in a formal lecture or presentation usually one or more of the following elements.

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

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

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

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

1. Thought-provoking question - posing a problem, dilemma or interesting question to the class
2. Rhetorical question
3. Statement of a problem
4. A joke or amusing story (more informal)
5. An interesting story or anecdote (more informal)
6. An interesting example
7. A brief analogy
It is helpful to summarize the main points of the talk in your introduction, e.g.,

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

1.2.1. Further elements of introductions

An effective introduction may also include one or more of the following elements. Note that some of these examples are slightly more informal, but may still be appropriate for a student presentation.

1. Provide specific background information on the topic.

Hawthorne’s Young Goodman Brown depicts a man whose faith is tested in a dream journey into the woods, where the devil shows him that everyone he thought to be good was actually evil. At the crucial moment, when the devil is about to baptize him, he calls out for his wife, Faith. Upon doing so, the hellish vision passes. From this we can see that Hawthorne is communicating to the reader that we should resist temptation and live moral lives, but on a deeper level, is conveying skepticism about certain Puritan religious beliefs.

2. Explain the importance of the topic, or of your research on the topic.

This analysis of competing theories of the original tribal homelands will help linguists and archaeologists in determining the origin and relationship of their languages.

3. Use a clear, specific example to get the reader’s attention and interest.

A few years ago, after applying for a credit card, someone got my card number and PIN, made a duplicate card, and ran up a $2500 bill. Fortunately the credit card company’s consumer fraud division handled so that I didn’t have to pay any of the fraudulent charges. But this made me realize the serious threats to our privacy that exist out there.

4. Attract the reader’s attention by relating the topic to a current event or controversy.

The current controversy over Nike products is merely the latest example of clothing items produced by sweatshop labor.

5. Start with a statement making the reader take a new look at a familiar situation.

We have all occasionally received parking tickets and cursed the officer who issued them, but how many of us have paused to consider what would happen if parking tickets were not given out?

6. Limit the subject by proceeding from a general situation to a specific instance.

Today’s housewife has to put up with an inflation rate of 9% on food. No geographical region in North America has escaped this alarming inflation of prices on everything from apples to zucchini. But one of the hardest hit areas is the Canadian maritime provinces.

7. Use an initial quotation as a keynote for the rest of the paper.

William Perry, a Harvard administrator, has noted that the student who "......".

CAUTION: Don’t abuse this form by quoting material that isn’t crucial to the paper or presentation, or by quoting from dictionaries, encyclopedias, or other common materials, e.g., “Webster's Dictionary defines treason as...” Dictionary definitions usually sound trite or uninformative.

8. Clarify a key term by an initial definition. Observe the cautionary note above.
A gentleman is one who never intentionally hurts another person and whose company one finds comfortable. Ulysses S. Grant was no such gentleman.

9. Dramatize an issue with striking facts or statistics.
   One out of every eight residents of this city will be robbed or assaulted this year.

10. Heighten the point with a striking contrast.
    African-Americans can expect to live roughly 9.3 fewer years than white Americans.

11. Establish your qualifications for dealing with the subject by using a biographical or personal statement; but avoid being overly subjective.
    After 19 years of teaching, I have come to the conclusion that the part of the semester on logical fallacies is the most rewarding for both students and the teacher.

12. Assume the attack by denying a currently accepted assumption.
    For the last three decades, 200 million Americans have wearily followed the antics of politicians in Washington. Most viewers now cynically declare that the American dream has been shattered. Nevertheless, recent events in Washington do not in fact support this conclusion. Rather, the outcries and investigations over Watergate, Iran-Contra, and DNP fund-raising fiascos indicate a high level of morality in our government.

13. A rhetorical question.
    Can the company survive another financial meltdown when its leadership lacks a clear vision?

14. Wake up the apathetic reader with a well-phrased, cautiously worded, controversial question. CAUTION: Avoid questions or statements that are too obvious, obscure, exaggerated, biased, or inflammatory.
    Is it the right of a concerned legislative branch to impeach and remove a president whose policies are leading the country to a point that the citizens believe to be destructive?

1.2.2. Conclusions
1. A memorable restatement of the central idea or important points, stated in a fresh way, and not redundant.
2. A brief, final anecdote that reinforces the central idea without explicit restatement.
3. A careful estimate of the significance of the conclusions reached in the paper.
4. A forecast or warning based on facts developed in the paper.
5. An essential condition for future progress.
6. A suggestion for corrective action. CAUTION: This action must develop logically from your paper or presentation, and must not be to sweeping, vague, unreasonable, or simplistic.
7. A return from the specific to the general, relating the paper’s findings to a general trend or idea.
8. Other final thought(s) that flow logically from the paper, and that provide a sense of closure or “wrapping up”.

1.2.3. Common errors in introductions and conclusions
1. A non-committal platitude; overly general or vague statements:
   This problem deserves the serious attention of every concerned researcher.
2. Unfounded optimistic predictions:
But the future seems very bright.

3. An undeveloped idea as a panacea:

   The restoration of proper discipline in the nation’s schools will make juvenile delinquency a thing of the past.

4. A conclusion that raises new problems, or weaken or distract from the point of the paper.

   Of course, the proposed solution has obvious disadvantages for those concerned with ....

5. Clichés. Especially avoid common Korean cliches about the importance of English, how the world is a global village, or such.

   But every cloud has a silver lining.

6. Overly vague statements:

   In modern society we have to learn to adapt to technology.

7. For more formal academic writing or speaking, avoid first person examples or discussion (“I, we, my, our”) or second person (“you, your”).

8. Avoid language that establishes a non-professional tone in academic writing or speaking. On the other hand, avoid a tone that sounds artificial, stilted, ostentatious, or hyper-formal. In business writing, a certain degree of seriousness is expected, but not to the point of sounding aloof. In informal writing, first and second person may be desirable, as well as a more informal tone.

1.3. General argumentative structure

This section deals with presentations that are persuasive or argumentative in nature. These hold true for academic writing as well, so terms like ‘writer,’ ‘author,’ and ‘presenter’ are used interchangeably. The examples are based on academic writing, but are valid for presentations as well.

Koreans traditionally followed a more indirect argumentation style, which follows a pattern roughly like this:

1a. General introduction (intro ¶)
1b. Statement of the issue (intro ¶)
2. Summary of one side of the issue (first body section)
3. Summary of opposing side (second body section)
4. Writer’s evaluation and position (final body section and/or conclusion ¶)

However, this style is much less effective in English or Western speaking or writing. A general introduction will seem non-relevant and non-informative to Western academic readers, so the introduction should begin with a specific introduction, such as background information that is specific to the main topic and thesis statement, or that is otherwise specific and interesting enough to gain the reader’s attention.

The style whereby arguments for one side, then the opposing side, are summarized,
Rhetorical style and structure

is much less common in English academic writing, and runs the risk of sounding general and lacking coherence to native English readers. This is because summarizing arguments for each side may sound like general information, and thus less informative, and this fails to present the author’s main arguments in the process. The author instead summarizes two positions, without making clear his/her rhetorical objectives, his/her own positions, and his/her own specific claims. For an English academic listener or reader, this line of thought will be difficult to follow, and the reader may think that the writer has nothing specific or interesting to say, or is avoiding commitment to a particular position or rhetorical objective.

Instead, English essays or presentations lay out a specific position in the introduction (thesis statement) and specific supporting arguments in each of the following body paragraphs. In the process of presenting specific arguments, within each paragraph or section the author then notes and addresses potential counter-arguments to his/her arguments. In fact, most often this is done within body sections of a talk or essay, in the context of a related argument. More generally, though, there are several ways of dealing with counter-arguments in the organization of the essay or presentation.

1.3.1. Framing of main arguments

One can frame specific arguments to address potential counter-arguments, without necessarily mentioning those counter-arguments explicitly – especially if those counter-arguments are fairly obvious or commonly known to the readers or potential audience. This is the most common method, and it avoids repeated ideas or specific information that the reader may already be familiar with.

For example, the following two topic sentences anticipate claims made by some politicians about economics and government; an educated, politically aware person would probably recognize that these sentences directly contradict some commonly argued claims by advocates of neoliberal economic policies; even though their neoliberal claims are not stated, these sentences implicitly argue against them*

The neoliberal laissez-faire economic policies of American conservatives falsely assume that humans are rational economic agents who act in their best long-term interests.

... These political philosophies also operate on false assumptions about the virtue of human nature, and ignore the realities and complexities of human moral behavior and decision making processes.

1.3.2. Within body paragraphs

After the topic sentences (and often after some sentences providing positive arguments for the topic sentence), then you can turn to a potential counter-argument related to the topic sentence, and deal with that.*
A mixed market economy with sufficient government controls and regulation is more consistent with the realities of human nature. Humans often make economic decisions based on short-term goals and simple heuristic decision making mechanisms. Although libertarian conservatives believe that markets act as rational entities that “police themselves”, in that human agents act in their own self-interest to preserve market stability, their self-interest actually leads to non-rational behavior that is focused on short-term gains. This, then, leads to reliance on quick psychological heuristics in decision making, which bypass careful, analytical, thoughtful decision making. ... Conservatives also mistakenly view markets as an organic entity, which ignores modern understandings of markets as fluctuating dynamic systems that adhere to complex mathematical and behavioral patterns, as understood in game theory and chaos theory.

1.3.3. Separate paragraph

After a body paragraph (or presentation slide) presenting positive arguments for a claim, a separate, full paragraph may follow up by presenting and dealing with a counter-argument, much like the within-paragraph examples above. Also, a final body paragraph or section before the conclusion may likewise envision a major counter-argument and deal with it there. For example, one of these statement from above could be turned into a separate paragraph:

Although libertarian conservatives believe that markets act as rational entities that “police themselves”, in that human agents act in their own self-interest to preserve market stability, their self-interest actually leads to non-rational behavior that is focused on short-term gains. Conservatives also mistakenly view markets as organic entities, which ignores modern understandings of markets as fluctuating dynamic systems that adhere to complex mathematical and behavioral patterns, as understood in game theory and chaos theory.

1.3.4. Introductions

In the introduction, before the thesis statement, such that addressing an opposing argument becomes the rationale for the essay or thesis itself. (See examples below.)

1.3.5. Transitionals and expressions

Counter-arguments can be referred to and refuted with expressions like these:

Although \{summary of idea\}, .... \{your refutation\}

It \{may/could/might\} be \{argued/asserted/claimed/contended/maintained/said\} that...

However, ...

One / Some \{claim, etc.\} that... However, ....

It is sometimes claimed / etc....

It \{is / has been\} \{argued, etc.\} that ... However, ...

Counter-arguments should be discussed in an objective tone, so unprofessional or aggressive language should be avoided, e.g., referring to counter-claims or ideas as “foolish, dumb” or such. An essay writer usually problematizes them, that is, the counter-arguments are discussed objectively as problems. Your refutation should objectively explain why the opposition is wrong, why your position is better, or where the opposition’s argument falls short.
1.3.6. Examples

The following written examples shows counter-arguments underlined within the introduction and one body paragraph.

Example 1: The dangers of dams

**Introduction** (Uses counter-argument to make lead into a clear thesis argument)

Around the world, there are hundreds of dams of different sizes. Dams are used for irrigation, flood defenses, water supply, and hydroelectric power. Despite these positive elements, however, there are also many bad elements related to dams. Dams have a negative global impact because they eat up valuable land resources, ruin wildlife habitats, effects endangered species, and create damaging greenhouse gases.

**Thesis statement** (Includes three main arguments which will in turn become three body topics)

Firstly, dams take up areas of land rich with valuable resources. Dams require large areas of land as flood plains for the reservoir of water. Man-made lakes are created this way often at the cost of valuable farmland, livable land, and plentiful forests. Although there are enjoyable aspects of a man-made lake, these lakes are not always practical. In Texas, a proposed reservoir could take over 50,000 acres of forest and family farms (“Texas Water”). Not only will local populations lose natural resources, but people will also lose income due to a loss of exportable materials.

Secondly, dams ruin natural habitats for wildlife. Dam reservoirs hold water and release water slowly through a forced opening. Water lying dormant in one area begins to heat on the surface. Eventually, the water stagnates due to a lack of movement and becomes low in oxygen supply. Plants that need this oxygen for survival die off. In addition, fish that depend on the flow of the river as a form of transportation to spawning areas are not able to move past the reservoir. This disruption affects the ecosystem with dire consequences for the food chain.

Thirdly, endangered species are further threatened by a dam system. Natural systems are often so significantly affected by dams that they are either destroyed or negatively modified. Weeds that flourish in low-oxygenated areas begin to choke up the water system and absorb the remaining valuable resources. In the Amazon River’s Balbina reservoir, “even the introduction of a herd of grazing manatees has failed to staunch the spread of weeds” (Pearce). These weeds eventually begin to rot leading to the devastating effects of greenhouse gases.

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5 From is from http://www.fanshawec.ca/assets/the-learning-centre---tlc/sample1argument.pdf. Note that this has some more informal elements and word choice, e.g., a rather generally worded initial sentence in the introduction, and vague, general words like “bad”.
Fourth argument
(Linked directly to argument two)

Greenhouse gases dangerously affect the atmosphere through climate change. According to *Bioscience*, a North American science journal, “reservoirs create one-fifth of all manmade methane in the atmosphere”. Climatic change drastically effects life on earth. Polar ice caps, for example, are melting because of rising global temperatures. Coastal cities are beginning to lose land as the water levels rise in the ocean. Horrendous tidal waves have formed because of the shift in atmospheric conditions. These occurrences come together to create the greenhouse effect, which is in desperate need of reversal. According to the World Commission on Dams, “there is no justification for claiming that hydroelectricity does not contribute significantly to global warming”. With such data available, the creation of dams seems deadly.

Conclusion (Offers a possible solution to the problem)

Today, society is learning of the dangers that come with hydroelectric dams. As alternatives, solar and wind power are both green energy sources that have no foreseeable dangers. It is hopeful that these sources can come into use in the future to replace the need for dams.

Example 2

Here’s a brief example on end-of-life issues.

| argument | The primary focus in medical end-of-life decisions should be on patient consent, rather than doctor intention, because it is not a breach against a patient's rights if s/he consents to the termination of their life. |
| counter-argument | Terminally ill patients are likely to be depressed, and therefore unable to consent to their hastened death in a balanced or acceptable way. |
| refutation | Depression can be managed. The relevance of depression must be made on a case-by-case basis. Depression does not warrant a general rule prohibiting patients from consenting to a hastened death. |

Example 3

Here is a sketch of another possible example.

**“Learning” English**

Korean parents, caught up in the spirit of educational competitiveness, devote considerable resources to ensuring that their children will learn English, from an increasingly earlier age. However, the push for learning English has become increasingly counter-productive, and may negatively impact their ability to learn English meaningfully, as well as other negative effects on their learning motivation, learning habits, and self-esteem.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Argument</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argument 1</td>
<td>Korean children are sent to private learning academies and private tutors, where they increasingly focus on memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary. [More statistical evidence will be provided here, from governmental sources or other studies.] Parents believe that their children are learning English, when in fact, they are merely learning facts about English. [Further points will be elaborated here, first about the nature of language learning, and then the inadequacy of the contents that are often memorized by children as supposedly “English”].</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Argument 2</td>
<td>A number of observational examples show that middle and high school children who have learned English in a mechanical, rote-based manner are unable to use their knowledge in any meaningful way, in conversational interactions in the classroom, or especially outside the classroom when they encounter foreigners. [Various examples from observational studies are provided here.]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter-argument &amp; Rebuttal 1</td>
<td>Some might claim that this kind of focus on studying English will enable students to succeed in college and in their careers. However, the focus on rote learning of non-communicative knowledge of English in fact leaves students very poorly prepared for the demands of college and careers. Increasingly, Korean universities are moving toward English-mediated courses [EMC] or English-mediate instruction, where courses are taught in English, be it by a Korean or foreign professor. The traditional approach leaves students without practical comprehension skills or communication skills, and thus, they will have serious difficulties adjusting to real English in a real context. [More data and details here] The same will carry over to their future careers, where they will have difficulties communicating with non-Koreans, or in dealing with English-language materials or contexts in their vocation. [More data and details here]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counter-argument - Rebuttals 2 &amp; 3</td>
<td>Some will point to data from test scores. However, no meaningful correlation can be found between test scores (TOEFL, TOEIC, or the Korean sunung college entrance exam) with the increasing financial resources or study times devoted to studying English. [More data and details here] More significantly, however, is the lack of linguistic validity to these exams – these typical exams do not provide reliable measures of meaningful, communicative English ability, and such exams are not trusted by many in language education or linguistics. [More data and details here]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>[Summary of problem and implication for Korean educational policy]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.4. Logical fallacies

Below is a list and brief description of logical fallacies commonly found in persuasive or argumentative writing and speaking. Such fallacies were first describe by ancient Greek and Roman writers (especially orators and rhetoric teachers), so some of them have Latin names. Such rhetorical techniques have been used throughout history by orators, scholars, and common people alike. Today they are often used in advertising, politics, and any form of persuasive speaking or writing. Learn to watch out for use of these fallacies. Unfortunately, these are used by all kinds of people, no matter what is their educational level, social status, political affiliation, etc. Use this knowledge for what Carl Sagan calls “baloney detection” – detecting false, nonsensical, or deceptive claims. Here are a few below.

**Errors of evidence and causality, e.g., including emotionalistic arguments**

**false cause**
- Poverty causes crime. (It’s a factor, but not the cause.)
- The welfare system is causing a breakdown in American families.

**ad populum** (argumentum ad populum, argument to the people)
- This is an emotionalistic appeal to common values or deep biases of the masses; it is similar to ad hominem, and likewise is common in politics and advertising.
  - This fine, patriotic, church-going American deserves your vote.

**genetic fallacy**
- She’s from Arkansas, so she must be stupid.
- He couldn’t have done such a thing — he’s from a good family.
- Acupuncture can’t be considered an acceptable medical technique, since it came from ancient China.

**argument from false authority**
- Michael Jordan uses this product, so you should too.
- You should believe this theory because this famous scientist says it’s true.

**hasty generalization**
- If the team is losing, the coach should be fired.
- He always screws up important projects. (“always” may not be true — just sometimes)

**tu quoque** (“you also”)
- Who are you to criticize me for cheating on my taxes when you pad your expense account so lavishly?

**Lexical / semantic fallacies**

**equivocation**: Using different definitions of the same words.

**hyperbole**: Exaggerated words or extreme examples are selected to make a point.

**weasel words**: Biased wording used to present doubtful, controversial or arguable ideas
as if they were facts, with wording like “some / many scientists agree that...” (but who? - which scientists? - no specific scientists are cited).

**Logical / syllogistic errors**

**begging the question** (loaded assertion, circular reasoning/argument)

Are you going to listen to this liar, or impeach him like you should?!

**either/or fallacy**

If you don’t like our capitalist system, you’re some kind of communist!”

**loaded question** (complex question)

Have you stopped beating your wife?

How long have you been consorting with known Mafia types?

How often have you been cheating on your taxes?

**non-sequitur** (“it doesn’t follow”)

He has my vote for senator, because he has the best run campaign.

(What does a campaign organization have to do with qualifications?)

**comment on the obvious**

If we don’t do anything about the drug problem, millions of Americans will continue to suffer from drug addiction, drug-related crime, and other social hazards.

Refer to the complete handout with examples on the website below. With the handout, have students identify examples of fallacies in commercial advertisements, political speeches, and other sources as an exercise. This is necessary for undergraduates, since inexperienced writers and presenters tend to rely on fallacies when they lack strong evidence or arguments for their claims.

2. Finding and using information

In finding information for academic presentations, it is necessary to know the difference between popular and academic sources. For most academic presentations, it is preferred to use proper academic sources entirely or almost entirely. Popular sources may occasionally be used as material for examples or introductions, though more so for more introductory courses. Academic sources include:

- articles from academic journals
- articles from edited volumes (books of various scholarly articles, with academic editors)
- monographs or other academic books
- dissertations (namely, Ph.D. dissertations)
- papers from academic conferences

Such academic sources are peer reviewed, i.e., the contents are filtered through academic editors who approve and advise on the contents. The studies might not all be good or valid in the end, but at least they have undergone some quality control, and are more likely to be reliable. Some higher quality popular sources might be acceptable, such as *Scientific American* magazine, and some professional trade publications from academic societies, in which qualified writers report on research from the academic literature. For some areas of study, reputable newspapers, news magazines and websites may be acceptable, such as *New York Times*, *Wall Street Journal*, *Time*, and *Reuters*.

General popular sources are less reputable, because they are either written by people who are not experts, and/or lack quality control. These include more popular newspapers, magazines, and most websites – even Wikipedia. The only truly reliable websites for academic purposes would be websites of reputable periodicals like those listed above, websites of academic journals and societies, or some (perhaps unpublished) academic papers that scholars have posted on their websites. The general Google search engine will give results for all kinds of sources, while Google Scholar limits search results to academic websites, such as websites of universities and academic publishers.

You might want to have your students examine different kinds of particular publications, articles, magazines, journals, books, and websites, and then discuss and evaluate the reliability and usability of these sources. From there, you will probably need to have your students do exercises in incorporating information from these sources into their presentations without excessively copying, pasting and plagiarizing.

For more, refer to these online handouts at www.bit.ly/kentlee7/writing.htm.

- Google Scholar searches
- General guide to paraphrasing, summarizing and quotations
- Rewording – paraphrasing and summarizing
3. Presentation and delivery

This section summarizes specific presentation and speaking skills that can be taught to students, be it for a full presentation, debate or classroom discussion activity. These include basic methods for planning and organizing a presentation, slide design, delivery technique, dealing with ESL (English as a second language) issues, and use of presentation software. A later chapter deals more in detail with ESL pronunciation. For more on presentation skills, see www.bit.ly/kentlee7/ped.htm (or www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7/ped.htm), as well as the Youtube channel kentlee7.

3.1. Planning, organization

You can have your students do some practice with brainstorming, creating mind maps or other methods of organizing information, and outlines. You can use practice topics of your own, or have them practice these techniques on their course materials. More on these planning strategies are in the General Tutors Manual.

- Brainstorming
- Using graphic organizers
- Outlining

As much as possible, for courses taught in English, students should do this all in English. Doing it in Korean and then translating is highly inefficient, and will not help them improve their English skills.

At the outlining stage, it is then important to organize the talk around 3-5 main points. When planning a talk from an outline, it is also possible to prioritize items in the outline. You can identify which parts are more important, and which parts can be skipped, or covered more quickly. While giving a talk, if you find yourself behind, then you can omit those items, or just quickly touch on them.

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

After planning the contents, next the presenter needs to plan the introduction, and then some transitional expressions between the main points and subpoints. Effective introductions consist of one or more of the following.
• Establish relevance, connection or rationale
• Provide an interesting example or question
• Provide an overview of your contents (organizer)

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

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

For a full summary or a more complete list of transitional or sign-posting expressions, see www.bit.ly/kentlee7/eap.htm (or www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7/eap.htm).

3.2. Visual presentation

Some general tips for PPT slides.

• Clear, readable text – should be large and clear enough for everyone in the room to see well
• Use dark text on white background, or white text on a dark background; no hard-to-read colors
• No flashy transitions or special effects between slides or within slides
• Avoid crowded slides, graphics or charts
• No information dump – don’t dump a lot of information in slides, and don’t put information in slides that you don’t talk about or use in the talk.

Please don’t do this on a slide:

- This is a lot of text, lots of sentences on a slide that go on and on and on and on, seemingly forever. This is for people who want to read everything aloud and make the audience fall asleep.
- If you put a lot of text, including complete sentences, in your slides, you will probably read aloud all the slide contents, and bore the poor victims of your audience.
- How about all this tiny, crowded text? And long, long sentences going on forever, with misspelled words and (and bad punctuation) and poor grammar.
- To make it worse, we’ll throw in bright, flashy colors, including colors that are hard to read or that hurt your eyes. And how about unnecessary highlighting?
- Also, flashy transition effects are good for distracting listeners, so they won’t pay attention to the contents.

Or this:
Follow principles of simplicity and coherence:

- Use slides for outline, main ideas, talking points
- Use slides for explaining terms or providing definitions
- Use simple graphics, media, tables
- Large font
- Not too much text
- Not too many graphics, or complex graphics; provide these on a handout instead, if necessary
- Simple foreground / background color schemes

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

If you are using graphs with text labels, also make sure that the information is coherent. Text labels should be next to what they refer to; listeners should not have to look back and forth – which leads to a split attention affect, which is confusing or takes more mental effort to follow, as in this example.

**Example demonstrating split attention**

**Integrated example**

In the above figures, find a value for Angle DIBE

Solution:

- Angle ABC = 180° - Angle BAC - Angle BCA
- [Internal angles of triangle sum to 180°]
- \( \angle BAC = 180° - 55° - 45° \)
- \( = 80° \)

Angle DIBE = Angle ABC (vertically opposite angles are equal)

\( = 80° \)
3.3. Rehearsal

One of the greatest problems that East Asian students encounter in giving presentations is that they try to focus on too many things while speaking – cognitively multi-tasking. Instead of focusing mainly on the contents, they focus on two or three things at the same time: [1] the contents of the presentation; [2] the language – trying to speak good English and thus focusing on grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary; and [3] the audience and what the audience thinks of their performance. This invariably leads to more mistakes, because the mind cannot multi-task. You cannot focus on language and content simultaneously. The best way to handle contents and language is by sufficiently rehearsing multiple times, and in each rehearsal, focus on different aspects of the presentation. You can rehearse sometimes to focus specifically on the language (especially English as a second language), and separate rehearsals to focus on the contents or delivery. You may need multiple rehearsals for:

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

Also make use of...

- Visualization strategies. Imagine yourself giving the presentation successfully. This is not about positive thinking or wish fulfillment; rather, thinking about how you can do it successfully will help you to think of specific things that you need to say and plan for, and will thus help you do better.
- Memory aids (e.g., locus mnemonics for the main sections of a presentation – see the General Tutors Manual, Appendix)

3.4. Pronunciation

While rehearsing, one may need to rehearse at least once to focus on pronunciation, as well as practicing with pronouncing particular words. The following are some typical areas that Korean students may need to focus on. More on pronunciation can be found in a later chapter, or at www.bit.ly/kentlee7/eap.htm.

Stress patterns

- Stressed syllables are longer, louder, with pitch change
- Word stress
- Compound stress
- Sentence / clause stress

Vowels

- Long vowel /ei/: they, fade, nitrate, abate
- Long vowel /ou/: boat, corrode, erosion
- Short /i/: tongue relaxed, short vowel, e.g., bit cf. beat/byte;
- Unstressed schwa /ə/ - extra-short; e.g., .abate, erosion, vowel

Consonants
3.5. Delivery

The following is a summary of points presented in the tutors training workshop.

Overview
1. Voice quality
2. Energy
3. Audience interaction
4. Transitions
5. Handling nervousness

Voice quality
- Use diaphragm (abdominal) muscle to project voice
- Avoid pause fillers (“uh, um…”)
- Avoid audible breathing or sighs
- Rehearse!

Voice quality and energy
- Enthusiasm and energy - Important for keeping audience interest
- Avoid sugar, carbohydrates
- Proper sleep, diet (eating habits), exercise
- Avoid caffeine before or during talk; drink water

Delivery: Posture, poise
- Abdominal muscles
- Movement
- Hands and gestures
- Confident poise
- Energy

Audience interaction
- Face the audience – eye contact
- Ask questions occasionally
- Speak clearly
- Don’t recite from notes or PPT
- Check for understanding – see if they seem to follow and understand you
- Look at all the audience members
- Intonation – try to maintain a good intonational range

Beware the redundancy effect
- Do not read aloud slides
• Use slides to enhance and complement your talk
• You, not the PPT, should be the focus

Transitions
• Earlier we talked about... so today I’d like to start with...
• What this means is...
• Now that I’ve talked about X, let’s see what this means for Y...
• Let me repeat / emphasize that...
• Let me give an example / analogy / case study
• As a result of this
• What’s the take home message for today?

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

3.6. Presentation software

This is a summary of the section of the tutors training on software.

Besides PPT, there are other programs
• Open source (free) office programs
• SmartDraw
• Latex (science, math, engineering)
• Prezi

Free and open source office programs
• Libre Office (LibreOffice.org)
• IBM Lotus Symphony (symphony.lotus.com)
• Google Docs (with Gmail account)
• These save in ODF (Open Document format); can also save in MS formats, but formatting may be inconsistent when you open files in MS Office
• Some can install on USB drive or Dropbox folder – www.portableapps.com (LibreOffice, Chrome, Firefox, PDF viewers)

Other programs and media
• Concept maps, e.g., Freemind [freemind.sourceforge.net] – free, okay for simple concept maps
• SmartDraw [smartdraw.com] – expensive; makes great concept maps, flow charts, etc.; exports to PDF, PPT, graphic files
• Whiteboards – the old-style physical whiteboards, on which you write notes
• Handouts – ideal, especially if you are not using PPT; use handouts to provide definitions, terms, graphs, outlines, etc.

Prezi
• Prezi.com – sign up for free account with KU email account
• Uses a canvas or concept map style presentation
• Tutorials are available on the Prezi website, and on Youtube
4. Word choice issues

Common word choice issues that Koreans have include the following content words (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) that are used differently in English, formality distinctions in word choice, modal verbs, and other expressions. Due to their length, these sections are available online as handouts at www.bit.ly/kentlee7/eap.htm.

- Classroom expressions - signposting / transitionals and other expressions
- Word choice issues for Koreans
- Konglish expressions to avoid
5. ESL pronunciation issues

5.1. Terminology
Look at the following chart of the human vocal tract. Experiment with your tongue and the following important regions: lips, upper teeth, alveolar ridge (the gum ridge behind the front teeth), palate (“hard” palate), velum. What sounds can be made by these organs?

The various consonants can be described according to place of articulation, manner of articulation, and voicing – whether the glottis vibrates.

The places of articulation that we’ll refer to include the following:

1. lips (labial), e.g., both lips (bilabial)
2. teeth (dental)
3. alveolar ridge (gum ridge right behind the upper teeth)
4. palate (the “roof of the mouth”)
5. velum (velar)
6. vocal cords (glottis, glottal)
Types of consonant articulations – ways of producing consonants – include:

1. **stop** (plosive): the tongue or other organ stops the airflow and then releases the air
2. **fricative**: friction is caused as the tongue or other organ approaches surfaces of the vocal tract and narrows the airflow
3. **glide** (approximant, semi-vowel, semi-consonant): the air glides over the tongue, with little tongue movement involved; e.g., the sounds /w/ and /y/.
4. **affricate**: a double consonant composed of a stop plus fricative together, which act as a single sound, like the sounds /ʧ/ in ‘chair’ and /ʤ/ in ‘jail’.

Some consonants involve vibration of the glottis, which are called ‘voiced’; others are voiceless or unvoiced, with no glottal vibration. Minor sounds are in parentheses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>voiceless</th>
<th>voiced</th>
<th>notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(wh, m)</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>/wh/ only occurs in dialects of England or New England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>θ</td>
<td>ð</td>
<td>Both sounds are spelled with &lt;th&gt;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʃ</td>
<td>ʒ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʧ</td>
<td>ʤ</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m, n, ŋ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vowels</td>
<td></td>
<td>All vowels are voiced in normal speech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vowels of English are shown below. Front vowels are produced by raising or lowering the front of the tongue; back vowels involved the back of the tongue; and central vowels like /ə/ are in the center of the mouth. Those produced near the top are called close(d) vowels, because the mouth and jaw are relatively closed; those at the bottom are called open vowels, because the mouth and jaw are wide open; and those in between are mid vowels.
5.2. Vowels

5.2.1. Long vowels

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

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

Confusingly, dictionaries published in Korea may not use the correct phonetic symbols for these vowels. Many of them use /i/ and /i:/ for the *bit-beet* pair, respectively. However, these vowels are pronounced differently. For /i/ the tongue muscle is relaxed ("lax" vowel), while it is tensed for /i:/; the same holds true for the lax /ɔ/ cf. tense /u:/.

In stressed syllables, the tense /i:/ and /u:/ are slightly longer than their Korean counterparts ㅏ and ㅗ, respectively; e.g., *key* is slightly longer than ㅔ
Many Korean dictionaries use /e/ and /e:/ for the red-raid pair, respectively. However, these vowels are also pronounced differently, with the raid vowel being a double vowel (dipthong), starting as /e/ and blending or gliding into an /i/, rather like Korean 에이. The taught-tote vowels are also different; the /ɔ/ is short, like 오, while /ou/ is a long glided vowel that starts as /ʌ/ and glides into /ʊ/, like 우오.

5.2.2. Other vowels
The vowel /æ/ is pronounced with the jaw and front of the tongue extra-low; Asians tend to confuse it with /ɛ/. The /æ/ is tricky, because the jaw is extra-low, making the vowel extra-low. In Korean, this can occur as a variant of 에 as in 매미.

low /æ/ as in ‘bad’ versus /ɛ/ as in ‘bed’

The schwa vowel /a/ is very similar to /ʌ/, which is fairly similar to Korean 어; but /a/ occurs only in unstressed syllables and is extra-short, while /ʌ/ occurs only in stressed syllables and is normal length. The schwa should be extra-short compared to normal vowels like /ʌ/; [ ] = minor stress, [ ] = main word stress.

ˌˌunforgenˈtəbəlˌˌʌndərˈɛstɪmˌeit

5.2.3. Vowels before final voiced and unvoiced consonants
The distinction between final voiced and unvoiced consonants can be difficult to hear. In Korean all final consonants are hardened, so that many consonants in 받침 sound alike, e.g., 받, 밈, 밧. In English, these consonant distinctions need to be preserved. This is done by making vowels before final voiced consonants slightly longer.

a bad bat a red rat a dead rat
a black bag a black rig a rag on a rack
a jazz class a louse lies a fazed face
use (noun: /yuːs/) use (verb: /yuːz/)
use your ewes (‘ewes’= /yuːz/) the use of your ewes
one leaf, two leaves one thief, two thieves
slush and sludge a beige badge (‘beige’= /beɪʒ/) many teeth to teethe (‘teethe’=/tiːð/)

5.2.4. Schwa /ə/ in grammatical endings /-ed/ and /-s/
The /-ed/ ending for past tense verbs can be pronounced three different ways.
1. As /d/ after voiced sounds (the final sound of the verb stem).
   /d/ absorbed, absolved, fossilized, airmailed, flowed
2. As /t/ after voiceless sounds.
   /t/ pumped, waterproofed, badmouthed, nonplussed, cherished, mimicked
3. As /ad/ if the verb ends in /t/ or /d/.
   /d/ railroaded, plodded, unloaded, avoided, padded
   /t/ accredited, suited, committed, prohibited, uprooted
The /-s/ ending is used for plurals (cats), possessives (dog's, dogs'), and third person singular verb endings (comes, goes); it can be pronounced in three different ways.

1. As /s/ if the word stem ends in a voiceless sound.
   - /s/ mountaintops, carafes, booths, meditates, attacks

2. As /z/ if the word stem ends in a voiced sound.
   - /z/ landgrabs, curatives, bathes, tirades, hogs, portals, fathoms, automatons

3. As /əz/ if the word ends in the palatal or alveolar fricatives /s, z, ñ, ñʃ, ñʒ, ñʧ, ñʤ/
   - /əz/ hypotenuses, fossilizes, swishes, barrages, churches, hodgepodges

### 5.3. Consonants

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

The /l/ is produced with the tongue tip touching the gum ridge behind the teeth; for the /r/ the tongue does not touch, but points toward the gum ridge or the roof of the mouth, and lets air vibrate as it flows around the tongue (compare ‘rare / lair / rail’).

The /z/ is made just like /s/ - the tongue position is exactly the same, but with the vocal cords vibrating; it should not sound like ñ. The sounds /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ are made with the tongue tip pointing to, but not touching, the roof of the mouth, and /ʒ/ involves vocal vibration. The sounds /tʃ/ and /ðʒ/ are made with the tongue tip touching the roof of the mouth; they should not sound like ñ, which is made with a flat tongue. The sounds /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʃ/ and /ðʃ/ are made with the tongue curled up, with the tongue tip pointing toward or touching the palate (the roof of the mouth), while ñ and ñʃ are made with a flat tongue.

### 5.4. Rhythm: Stress

English stress is produced by the following means.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>about</td>
<td>/əbˈaʊt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unacceptable</td>
<td>/ˌʌnæksˈɛptəbəl/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English syllables have three different stress levels:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress Level</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>e.g., [á] or ['a]</td>
<td>accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative, latch on to the affirmative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>e.g., [à] or [a]</td>
<td>accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative, latch on to the affirmative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstressed</td>
<td>/ə/ &amp; other unstressed vowels</td>
<td>accentuate the positive, eliminate the negative, latch on to the affirmative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, there are several kinds of stress in English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stress Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Stress</td>
<td>accentuate the positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Lexical Stress)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound Stress</td>
<td>backbone, field mouse, the White House</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrasal Stress</td>
<td>a white house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence Stress</td>
<td>I grew up in a white house, but I doubt I'll ever live in the White House.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

- onion chopper
- greenhouse
- bad-mouth

White House
- back engineer
- upgrade

Abbreviations usually show an opposite pattern. Each letter has equal stress except the last letter, which has the main stress (one exception is abbreviated personal nicknames like D.J., with the main stress falling on the first letter).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NHŚ</td>
<td>FBÍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPŘ</td>
<td>ETÁ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROḰ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

5.5. Rhythm: Other issues

Linking (liaison): To pronounce more easily, we often link words together — especially minor or shorter words. This happens most often if a word begins with a vowel. Similar sounds can also be joined across words (like /l/ in ‘all~live’ below).

We—all~live—in—a yellow submarine.

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

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

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

could you → couldja   don’t you → doncha   give me → gimme

In speaking, you do not need to necessarily use reduction and blending as native speakers do, but you do need to be aware of these when you need to understand naturally spoken English.

5.6. Practicing pronunciation and general English skills

Improving pronunciation in a second language is difficult; it takes time, effort, and motivation, and you may be too busy to invest much time in this. Nonetheless, here are some things that might be helpful.

1. **Watching videos** with subtitles, or listening to audios with accompanying printed text (read-aloud books, songs with printed lyrics, etc.). Since many such media are freely available on the Internet, you can find whatever genre you like for practice.

2. **Shadowing**: Listening to video or audio materials, and repeating after the speakers; imitating their pronunciation and intonation can be helpful, if the materials are interesting to you. Avoid overdoing this, or using materials that are uninteresting to you, or you may become tired or discouraged.

3. **Reading**: Extensive reading can help your overall language skills, especially vocabulary; it may also reinforce the mental connections between words and their pronunciations. It will be most helpful to read a variety of materials – different genres; reading informative materials and reading for leisure; and reading materials within your field of study and outside your field.

4. **Reading aloud**, talking to yourself, singing to yourself. These may be socially safer if no one else is around.

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

6.1. Comparing types of rhetorical support
Get together with a classmate from a different major than yours (though preferably a somewhat related or similar major) and compare your results. How are they similar? How are they different? Reflect on the various organizational, grammatical, and discourse structures that you have found. Discuss why you think the writer uses these structures regularly, and how typical you think these are for your field. Also consider how and why your article may differ from your classmate’s article. What is it about your field that leads to the particular language forms, structures, writing genre, and rhetorical styles in your paper?

6.2. Practice with discourse styles
Look at examples of the types of support and discourse. Think about which ones would be typical for a presentation in your field or your classes? Why would these be commonly used in your courses? What kinds of transitionals or connectives would typically be used?

1. definition
Introducing new or difficult concepts or terms; defining terms in order to establish a syllogism; establishing importance or relevance of an item; establishing a special meaning or relevance of terms as the author will use them in his/her argumentation.

2. descriptive and narrative
Explaining events, or describing a situation, especially with the writer’s viewpoint or evaluation implied.

3. chronology
Past background of a topic; establishing the relevance of a topic or issue.

4. example / illustration
How things are to be; describing characteristics; strengths or weakness of an item or concept.

5. classification / categorization
Explaining interrelationships of items as related members of a class or group.

6. cause-effect
Explaining results or implications of an item.
7. process
Explaining or describing an item or concept as a logical sequence of steps, e.g., reports, experiments.

8. contrast
Describing differences among items, ideas or theories; showing how one item or idea is superior or inferior to another; evaluating ideas or items.

9. comparison
Describing similarities; supporting an idea by establishing similarities with already accepted ideas.

10. analogy
Illustrating a point with an illustration that would be easier for readers to understand, and that conveys relationships among items or ideas as the writer perceives them.

11. critique / evaluation
The writer examines ideas (or other things) to point out strengths and weaknesses, or positives and negatives, of particular ideas, theories, proposals, experiments, devices, or such. This can be done in order to argue for or against one of them, or to show the superiority of his/her own idea.

12. inductive / deductive logic, syllogism
This is the classical type of logical argumentation from one point to another: if X and Y are true, then Z must be true.

13. “optimal / best inference” logic
Arguing for X as the best explanation or conclusion; X works better than other possible explanations, or X best satisfies certain logical requirements that make it the most acceptable option.

14. summary
Providing the reader a concise overview of the logical development of an idea.

6.3. Paraphrasing and summarizing practice
Refer to the online handouts on paraphrasing and summarizing, and have students practice with citing and using sources, paraphrasing and/or summarizing it, and incorporating it into their presentations.

6.4. Job interview questions
The following are typical job interview questions used by North American companies. You can use these for role play or discussion activities.
1. Tell me about yourself (in other words, “What specific strengths or skills do you think you can bring to this position / company?”).
2. Aren’t you under-qualified for this job? (don’t have enough experience)
3. How do you make major decisions – what steps do you take in making an important decision?
4. How have your education (and other training) prepared you for this job?
5. Do you feel you are ready for a more responsible job? Tell me why you think so.
6. Why do you think this company should hire you?
7. Why do you want this job? / Why do you want to work at this company?
8. What are your long-term career goals? How long will you stay with this company?
9. How do you plan to do to improve yourself?
10. Of all the challenges you have ever handled, which was the most difficult, and how did you overcome it?
11. How well can you work with others as members of a team?
12. Why are you applying for this job?
13. What 2 or 3 things are most important to you in your job?
14. How did previous employers treat you?
15. What are your salary requirements? What kind of salary do you want?
16. How do you make major decisions – what steps do you take in making an important decision?
17. What have you learned from your mistakes?
18. Aren’t you over-qualified / under-qualified for this job?
19. What three areas of your present job do you like the most?
20. What specific strengths do you think you can bring to this position / company? (or: Tell me about yourself.)
21. How have your education and professional training prepared you for this job?
22. Do you feel you are ready for a more responsible job? Tell me why you think so.
23. Why do you think this company should hire you?
24. What do you know about our company?
25. What are your long-term career objectives?
26. Why are you leaving your present job?
27. How long will you stay with this company?
28. What do you plan to do to improve yourself?
29. What steps do you take in making an important decision?
30. Off all the assignments you ever handled, which required the greatest amount of sustained, persistent effort?
31. Tell me about the last time you had to overcome the resistance of others to accomplish something.
32. Tell me about the most significant accomplishment of your career/studies. Describe, step by step, how you handled the project.
33. How do you formulate priorities among the tasks you must accomplish each day?
34. How do you get along with fellow workers at your present job?
36. Tell me about the time you were under the greatest pressure to meet a project deadline.
37. In what areas of your work do you find yourself procrastinating?
38. Do you consider yourself aggressive?
39. Tell me about the specific personal strength you feel made you effective in your last position.
40. What do you think it takes to be successful in the job / field?
41. What title did your last boss have and what are his/her duties?
42. In what areas of your present job are you the weakest?
43. In what areas of your present job are you the strongest?
44. Have you ever been in a position to delegate responsibility?
45. How do you react to criticism from supervisors, when you feel it is unwarranted?
46. What do you do when you have trouble solving a problem at work?
47. Do you think you have an analytical mind? Can you give me an example?
48. If you had to go into business for yourself, what kind of business would you own?
49. Tell me some of the things you would like to have done in your previous position, to help make the company more successful?
50. Would you recommend your last place of employment to others?
51. What single thing about our produce or service interests you most?
52. Would you be willing to work overtime when the job requires it?
53. Do you like to work with facts and figures?
54. What do you think makes a good manager?
55. Why do you want to enter this field when you have been working so long in your present line?
56. How do you make major decisions – what steps do you take in making an important decision?
57. Do you have any questions?

**Interview questions for teachers or would-be teachers**

1. Tell us about your training (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, theoretical linguistics)
2. Do you have much research experience? In what areas?
3. What is your philosophy of teaching?
4. Tell us about your teaching experience.
5. How would you describe your teaching style?
6. Do you have any preferred texts?
7. What qualities do you think make a good teacher? Which do you have?
8. How do you deal with a large class?
9. Describe a problem you have had in the area of class discipline and how you solved it.
10. Do you have much experience with ____ (curriculum design & implementation, needs analysis, materials development, testing design & evaluation, etc.)? Give us some examples.
11. What sort of administrative experience have you had?
12. Could you give us an example of your ________ (organizational skills, administrative responsibilities, teacher training, etc.)?
13. Why did you leave your last (teaching) position? How would you characterize your relationships there with other faculty and administrators? May we contact them for references?

14. Have you traveled much within/outside this country / other countries?

15. Have you experienced culture shock? How did you deal with it?

16. How would you handle _______ (personal relationships with students, authority issues, health problems, etc.)?

17. What are your favorite textbooks?

18. If you could start any kind of ESL program of your dreams, what would it be like?

19. What could you contribute to our program?

20. What was your most successful lesson within the past month? Why did it work so well?

21. What was your least successful lesson? How did you decide to change it?

22. What are several ways you foster motivation in EFL/ESL students?

23. Tell me about your worst day teaching?

24. What is something you’ve learned from your students?

25. What do you like best about teaching?

26. How would you teach a lesson in (whatever) using (whatever, props, realia, etc.)?

27. What kind of teaching methodologies do you use in your teaching?

28. What are your strengths and weaknesses as a teacher?

29. Suppose a student keeps making the same mistake over and over again despite your corrections. What would you do?

30. Suppose a student asks you a question that you don’t know the answer to? What would you do?

31. What is your philosophy of education?

32. What level do you prefer to teach?

33. Are there other subjects that you could teach?
7. Evaluating presentations

The following is a summary of criteria for presentations, which you could use for giving students feedback on their presentations. These can also be given to students so that they can learn how to critique presentations. With such criteria, you can have them critique critique sample lecture videos; have them critique each other’s presentations; or have them critique themselves.

7.1. Simple criteria

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

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

C. Presentation methods
7. Expertise (expertise in content area demonstrated; shows strong teaching ability)
8. Conveying content (effective explanations, examples, and/or use of questions)
9. Effective use of lecture, instructional media, and class activities
10. Enthusiasm and attitude (shows enthusiasm for topic and for teaching; shows interest in students)
11. Interaction (interaction and eye contact with students; asking or using questions)
12. Visual aids (good PPT slides, Prezi, handouts, or other aids)

7.2. Evaluation rubrics

For more detailed evaluation, a rubric can be used – a set of specific criteria for different aspects of a presentation (e.g., content, fluency, etc.), which can be rated on a scale of 1-10; or for each category, you can specify different criteria for ‘poor – satisfactory – good – excellent’ as in the following example, or for potential grades (A+, A, B+, B...). Here is a sample scoring rubric for presentations. Come up with your own for presentations, debates, or discussion activities.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Poor – 1</th>
<th>Satisfactory – 2</th>
<th>Good – 3</th>
<th>Excellent – 4</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
<td>Student does not have grasp of material; information included does not support thesis in any way; near absence of supporting materials</td>
<td>There is a great deal of information that is not clearly connected to the subject of the presentation; very little use of supporting materials</td>
<td>Sufficient information that relates to subject of presentation; many good points made, but there is an uneven balance; a variety of supporting materials</td>
<td>An abundance of material clearly related to subject of presentation; points are clearly made and all evidence supports subject; a variety of supporting materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coherence &amp; organization</strong></td>
<td>Presentation is disjointed and choppy; does not flow; development of thesis is vague; no apparent logical order of presentation</td>
<td>Concept and ideas are loosely connected; lacks clear transitions; organization and flow are choppy</td>
<td>Most information presented in a logical sequence; generally well organized, but needs better transitions between ideas, and between media</td>
<td>Subject is clearly stated and developed; specific examples are appropriate; conclusion is clear; flows well with good transitions; succinct and well organized</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Speaking skills</strong></td>
<td>Inaudible or too loud; no eye contact; rate too slow or too fast; speaker seemed uninterested; monotonous delivery</td>
<td>Some mumbling; incorrect use or mispronunciation of key terms; little eye contact; uneven rate of delivery; little or no expression; difficult to hear presentation</td>
<td>Clear articulation; voice is clear; uneven eye contact; even rate of delivery; most audience members can hear presentation</td>
<td>Clear articulation and precise pronunciation of terms; proper volume; steady rate of delivery; good posture and eye contact; enthusiastic and confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length</strong></td>
<td>Presentation much too long or short</td>
<td>Presentation is one minute too long / short</td>
<td>Presentation is within 30 seconds too long / short</td>
<td>Presentation is just within the allocated time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tutoring in Presentation and Verbal Skills

### 7.3. Detailed presentation evaluation criteria

The following are more detailed criteria, some of which might be relevant to evaluating longer presentations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plan or outline</strong></td>
<td>Complete, well written, or seems to come from a well thought-out plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives</strong></td>
<td>Clear learning objectives (e.g., in terms of expected student outcomes or assessment criteria)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives met</strong></td>
<td>Fulfills the intended goals or apparent, well defined objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Topic</strong></td>
<td>Topic is clear, specific, focused, and doable in the allotted time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Suitability</strong></td>
<td>Topic and contents are suitable to students’ level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preparation</strong></td>
<td>T seems well prepared; T has essential questions prepared. T can articulate main concepts and goals of the lesson, and for the course.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson structure</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Structure</strong></td>
<td>Organization of the lesson is clearly communicated (via intro or signposting), including a preview of main lesson points at the beginning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives</strong></td>
<td>Lesson objectives / purpose of lesson and contents are clearly explained (e.g., relevance of contents); reasons for activities are clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objectives met</strong></td>
<td>Fulfills goals, meets lesson plan (e.g., from students’ perspective)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intro</strong></td>
<td>Effective introduction - stimulates interest or thinking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong></td>
<td>A clear summary of main points learned (or an otherwise suitable closure) at the end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transitions</strong></td>
<td>Clear transitions between points; clear transitions between lesson components.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Signposting</strong></td>
<td>T provides retrospective summaries of materials discussed and progression of the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization</strong></td>
<td>Lesson is well organized; lesson components smoothly and in logical sequence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lecture and activities</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Explanations</strong></td>
<td>Clear, detailed explanations that students can follow; lecture contents are clear and comprehensible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Expertise</strong></td>
<td>Lesson demonstrates knowledge of subject matter being taught.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variety</strong></td>
<td>T uses a variety of activities, not just pure lecture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities</strong></td>
<td>T uses group learning, problem based learning, or other means of keeping students engaged and promoting deeper learning.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

7 In the table, T = teacher, S = student(s), L2 = second language, i.e., English.
### Evaluating presentations

| Relevance | Activities and/or lectures are engaging, relevant and meaningful |
| Purpose of lesson/activity | Purpose of activity/activities made clear (e.g., its usefulness outside the classroom, or how it fits meaningfully with other lessons or in the course). |
| Group / pair work | Students function or working well together (this may or may not entail presenting to the whole class). |
| Tangible task product | The students working to produce a tangible product or work. |
| Practice | Activities allow students to practice, model, apply, or integrate concepts. |
| Expectations | T clearly explains what students are to do during activities, and what is expected of them. |
| Creativity | T shows creativity in explanations of material, and in design of activities. |
| Time management | T manages time well; components of lesson flow well; T keeps students on-task during activities; no unnecessary or excessive digressions during lecture or other activities. Not too much time is spent on one activity. |

### Conveying contents

| Establishing relevance | Making connections between new concepts / material to be learned, with the students’ everyday lives (e.g., giving real-life examples), or with students’ background knowledge or previous knowledge of the topic. |
| Background | Background, context given, or material is otherwise appropriately situated. |
| Major points | Major points are identified |
| Connections | Clear connections made between different points, including with previous material. |
| Clarity | Explanations and lectures are clear and reasonably easy to follow. Questions are suitable to students’ level. |
| Engaging | Material is intellectually engaging and interesting. |
| Scaffolding | T provides appropriate strategies, examples, analogies, or models to help students learn, digest material, make connections with previous knowledge, or to complete an activity successfully. |
| Modeling | T models concepts, explanations, or solutions to problems. |

### Questions

| Questions | T uses questions effectively to maintain interest, to make students think, and to punctuate the lesson. |
| Guiding questions | T uses questions to guide students’ thinking; questions are interesting and important to the content; questions engage students’ thinking and participation. |
| Referential questions | Occasionally asking questions (to which the T does not necessarily know the answer). |
| Rhetorical questions | Asking questions (to which the T knows the answer) to gain students’ interest. |
| **Answers** | T can answer questions effectively; provides appropriate, knowledgeable answers to students’ questions; helps students understand the materials. |
| **Question form** | Are the questions written in a form that elicits an extended verbal explanation? (Not simple yes/no questions; not simply objectives or commands in question form). |
| **Question form** | Do the questions help students think the relevance or application of the contents? Do the questions encourage students to relate learning to their lives or to other learning? |
| **Question form** | Do the questions help students organize information to be learned? Do the questions help students identify the critical content structures, concepts, or ideas to be learned? |
| **Question form** | Are the questions worded clearly and concisely? Would everyone interpret a given question in the same way – not vague or ambiguous? |
| **Questions - amount** | Is the number of questions reasonable – an economical use of questions (e.g., not more than ten – though this depends on the assignment)? |

**Materials and teaching aids**

| **Use of teaching aids** | Teaching aids used to enhance delivery of content; effective use of teaching aids and media – realia, diagrams, pictures, charts, etc. |
| **Materials** | Effective and appropriate teaching materials (handouts, readings, etc.) |
| **Whiteboard** | Effective and appropriate use of whiteboard. |
| **Technology** | Effective and appropriate use of technology. |
| **Use of PPT** | T does not use PPT or other media excessively or inappropriately; T does not lecture from slides; lecture is not all PPT based. |
| **Relevance** | Materials are relevant and appropriate for the lesson. |

**Motivational factors**

<p>| <strong>Promoting intrinsic motivation</strong> | Promoting contact with L2 speakers and cultural products and encouraging students to explore the L2 culture and community. |
| <strong>Promoting external motivation</strong> | Highlighting the role that the L2 plays in the world and how knowing the L2 can be potentially useful for the students themselves as well as their community. |
| <strong>Promoting language motivation</strong> | Encouraging students to understand the value of English – (1) by highlighting its importance in the field and for students’ future success in the field; and (2) by promoting interaction with scholars in the field using English (e.g., chances to meet or hear scholars in the field in English, in class or outside class). |
| <strong>Arousing curiosity or attention</strong> | During the presentation of an activity, raising the students’ expectations that the upcoming activity is going to be interesting and/or important. |
| <strong>Promoting cooperation</strong> | Setting up a cooperative learning activity, or having students to work / study together. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evaluating presentations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promoting autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attentiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Class interaction and dynamics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sensitivity</th>
<th>T understands students’ level, background, and difficulties with the contents. T can effectively gauge students’ level and difficulties.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personalization</td>
<td>Creating opportunities for students to express their opinions or to contribute their knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Element of interest, creativity</td>
<td>The activity contains engaging, paradoxical, problematic, controversial, or exotic material; connects with students’ interests, values, creativity, or arouses their curiosity (e.g., predict-and-confirm activity).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual challenge</td>
<td>The activity presents an intellectual challenge (e.g., an engaging problem to solve, or information to discover).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>The activity involves an element of individual or team competition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>Most students seem to pay attention; little or no inattentive or disruptive behavior; they look at and follow the teacher. Students follow instructions, and are respectful of the T and toward each other.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Most students seem to actively take part in classroom activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>T effectively manages the classroom and teaching; effectively deals with problems that arise, including unexpected events, or students’ behavioral problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student centered</td>
<td>Lesson and activities are student centered, not overly teacher centered.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Feedback and assessment

| Neutral feedback         | Going over exercises or assignments with the class without communicating any expression of irritation or criticism. |
### Tutoring in Presentation and Verbal Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process feedback</th>
<th>Focusing on what can be learned from the mistakes that have been made, and from the process of producing the correct answer.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<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>
| Positive feedback and encouragement | Specific positive feedback is given, which is accurate and commensurate with the student's achievement.  
N.B: Ability feedback (“You are very good at English”) or praise involving social comparison (“You did better than anyone else in the class”) is not considered effective praise. |
| Specific constructive feedback | Specific feedback is given to students on how they can improve – specific feedback that they can act on. |
| Expectations | T clearly communicates expectations and criteria for grading, for all assignments. |
| Transparency | Grading and evaluation criteria are well explained and followed, so that grading does not seem arbitrary; grading is fair and transparent. |
| Assignments | Assignments are effective in promoting conceptual learning of the contents; homework is intellectually challenging but not excessive (not just busy work, and not difficult just for the sake of being difficult). |
| Formative assessment | T uses formative assessment methods to understand how well students are learning. |
| Knowing students | T can know how well each student is doing based on his/her work. |
| Learning emphasis | T conveys an emphasis on learning, not grade performance or rote learning. |
| Monitoring | Teacher monitors understanding as lesson progresses most of the time. |

#### Presentation / delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocal delivery and clarity</th>
<th>T speaks clearly and audibly; clear rhythm and intonation; not monotonal; voice is well projected; good vocal variation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>T conveys enthusiasm for contents and/or teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence</td>
<td>T conveys a sense of teaching presence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>T uses effective and appropriate eye contact.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posture</td>
<td>T uses effective and appropriate eye posture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>T projects a sense of confidence and competence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>T exhibits professional behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>No major language errors that would impede students’ comprehension; proficiency in and effective use of the language (e.g., English, Korean).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>Lesson delivery demonstrates good preparation, rehearsal, and practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-verbal behavior</td>
<td>T uses effective and appropriate non-verbal behavior, e.g., to help students follow the lecture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Evaluating presentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>T is well organized.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T can self-reflect on his/her strengths and weaknesses.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Overall strengths:

### Overall weaknesses:
8. 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](http://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]
- **EAP** English for Academic Purposes website [www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7 > EAP]

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.
# 8.1. 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</td>
<td>[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>
</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>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>
## 8.2. Sample curriculum for Discussion & Debate 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] (Practice with sentences and dialogues in these handouts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>structure; introductions</td>
<td>brainstorming, outlining exercises for presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</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>05</td>
<td>asking &amp; answering questions</td>
<td>[EAP handout: questions] Students do practice Q&amp;A sessions about topics (e.g., topics in their courses), using info &amp; skills from the last session</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>presentation skills: visual aids, multimedia, poise, body language</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]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></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>07</td>
<td>leading discussions</td>
<td>Students do practice presentation / discussion activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08</td>
<td>leading discussions</td>
<td>Students do practice presentation / discussion activities</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)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>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>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>Week</td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>impromptu 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 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. Further resources

See also:

- CTL website 
  ctl.korea.ac.kr
- Kent Lee: various handouts
  www.tinyurl.com/kentlee7
  www.bit.ly/kentlee7

Includes resources on:

  > Pedagogy
  > EAP (English for academic purposes) – speaking and pronunciation
  > Writing

- TED: examples of public speaking
  www.ted.com
- Iowa phonetics site
  www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics
- Videos of various speakers on Youtube (Steve Jobs, Michael Sandal, etc.)
- www.ted.com – site for speeches by professional and experienced speakers from business, education, and professional fields
- Youtube channel: kentlee7 [http://www.youtube.com/user/kentlee7]