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The Korea Association of Teachers of English
2013 International Conference



Tailoring English Teaching for the Foreign Language Context

Friday, July 5 - Saturday, July 6, 2013
Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea

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Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies

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Opening Address

Hae-Dong Kim
(Conference Chair, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)



Honorable presidents, distinguished guests, invited speakers, ladies and gentlemen from both home and abroad. As chair of the conference, it is both a privilege and an honor to make the opening address at the 2013 KATE International Conference here in Obama Hall at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies.

My deepest appreciation and gratitude goes out to all of the individuals who have contributed to the success opening of this conference. Over the next two days, 104 presentations, including 1 keynote speech, 4 plenary speeches, 4 featured speeches and 95 concurrent paper presentations will be held under the theme of 'Tailoring English Teaching for the Foreign Languages Context'. The theme indicates that we, as English language teaching practitioners, are major designers tailoring a solid foundation for the new era. To facilitate the progress of development of English language teaching, the conference will provide a wonderful opportunity to think about English language teaching in a variety of different contexts.

On this meaningful occasion, I would like to extend my deep gratitude to all the conference committee members who have expended tremendous amounts of time and energy to make this unprecedented event possible. Based on their efforts, we can share and explore ideas for future betterment in English language teaching. Let me take this opportunity to extend my special appreciation to organizations providing us with continued sponsorship. They are: The National Research Foundation of Korea, British Council Korea, Embassy of the United States, CHUNGDAH Learning, International Communication Foundation, English Mou Mou, Hyundai Yong-O-Sa, Daekyo, ETS Global, Neungyule Education, Cambridge University Press, Anaheim University, Natmal® Co. Ltd., and YBM Sisa.

With a thankful heart and marvelous expectations, I hope everyone will find the Conference inspiring and enriching. I wish good health, great happiness and much success to all of you.

Thank you very much for your participation and support for the KATE.

Welcoming Address

Junil Oh
(President of KATE, Pukyong National University)

Distinguished scholars, honorable guests, KATE members, and ELT professionals, I am greatly honored to welcome all of you to KATE 2013 International Conference. I am truly delighted to witness the start of this year's conference in such a great hall in the presence of so many eager participants from home and abroad.

The theme of this year's conference is "Tailoring English Teaching for the Korean Context." I guess it is a perfectly appropriate theme as we celebrate the 130th anniversary of English language teaching on the Korean Peninsula. The 130-year history of English language teaching in Korea has been replete with attempted changes for the better, and it is time we looked back and thought about how far we have fared in tailoring English teaching for the Korean context.



The conference will be highlighted by presentations by the most distinguished scholars in our field, including Professor David Nunan at Anaheim University, Professor Carmen Munoz at University of Barcelona, Professor Barry O'Sullivan at University of Roehampton, Professor Tim Murphey at Kanda University, and Professor Icy Lee at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. The conference will also feature talks by representatives of our international affiliates, the Japan Association of College English Teachers, Thailand TESOL, and the Malaysian English Language Teaching Association. Today and tomorrow, many scholars from home and abroad will touch upon the conference theme, which is hoped to help expedite entry into the promised land where students at all levels of instruction enjoy their right to receive quality English language teaching tailored to cater to their needs in the Korean context.

My deepest gratitude goes to Dr. Chul Park, President of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, for allowing KATE to use the Obama Hall and other facilities as the venue for this year's conference. Special thanks also go out to the officers of the conference committee including the conference chair, Professor Haedong Kim at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, the site co-chairs, Professor Hyunsook Yoon also at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies and Professor Dongho Kang at Seoul National University of Science and Technology, and the proceedings co-chairs, Professor Sunhee Choi at Jeonju University and Professor Mun Woo Lee at Hanyang University. Many organizations deserve special recognition as well. This conference would not be possible without generous support from the Korea Research Foundation, the British Council Korea, the Embassy of the United States, International Communication Foundation, Chungdahm Learning, English MouMou, and other dedicated sponsors.

This conference will encourage you to think of ways to be more perceptive of the teaching context you are in and learn to act keenly, intelligently, and wisely in your endeavor to tailor English language teaching for the context. I sincerely hope that all of you have a wonderful time today and tomorrow sharing ideas, gaining new insights, meeting old friends, and making new ones. Thank you so much.

Congratulatory Speech

Chul Park

(President of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)



Good morning everyone. And welcome, esteemed KATE (Korea Association of Teaching of English) members, respectable current president Dr. Junil Oh and former presidents, distinguished guests and invited speakers from Korea and abroad, to Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (HUFS). As the president of HUFS, I am delighted to be at the opening ceremony of the 2013 KATE International Conference on the topic of 'Tailoring English Teaching for the Foreign Languages Context'.

Right here in this Obama Hall, the President of the United States, Barack Obama, made a speech on March 26th 2012, and proclaimed "I know that this school has one of the world's finest foreign language programs -- which means that your English is much better than my Korean." As he mentioned, HUFS, true to its name, is a specialized university for foreign language teaching and so it is the most appropriate institution to hold the KATE conference to discuss teaching English as a foreign language.

HUFS was founded in 1954, and started as a college which had only five foreign language departments. But now, HUFS has grown to a full-scale university offering courses in as many as 45 foreign languages. HUFS has signed agreements with 105 institutions and 310 universities in 76 countries for academic exchange programs. HUFS also annually invites approximately 1,160 international students from 74 countries. HUFS gives students the opportunity to get course credit while working in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, and also at embassies and legations abroad. For half a century, HUFS has been playing a crucial role in the internationalization and economic development of the country in accordance with the founding spirit of specialization and globalization through foreign language education. All of these efforts have been well recognized, and HUFS has achieved distinction by being ranked first in Korea, in terms of globalization, for 2010, 2011 and 2012.

And among all the foreign languages offered here, English has been and will be a key pathway for HUFS to meet the world. I personally believe this KATE conference contributes to the further development of English language teaching at HUFS, and it will in turn allow HUFS to increase the quality of English language teaching in Korea. Therefore, I am very pleased to be holding the 2013 KATE International Conference and am certain that the direction for English foreign language education will be formed by enlightening and productive discussion and exchanges of the results from research made by participants through this conference.

Availing myself of this opportunity, I want to state my wholehearted gratitude to Dr. Junil Oh, the President of KATE, and all committee members of the conference and KATE members who have made this wonderful conference what it is today. I extend my heartfelt encouragement to those who have travelled a great distance from all over the world to come to HUFS. We extend to you a warm-hearted welcome here in Seoul, which, is filled with historical sites and attractions. May your stay be fulfilling and enjoyable.

I applaud this opening of the 2013 KATE International Conference, and I wish all of you encouragement and the best of luck. As President Obama mentioned at the end of his speech at HUFS, I too would like to say 'Come to this great university, where a new generation is taking its place in the world!'

Thank you very much.

Conference Program

DAY 1 Main Sessions (Friday, July 5)

Time	Place	Event	
09:00 - 09:30	Minerva Complex	Registration	
09:30 - 10:30	Minerva Complex	Concurrent Sessions	
10:30 - 10:50		Coffee Break	
10:50 - 11:10	Obama Hall	<p>Opening Ceremony Moderator: Hee-Kyung Lee (Yonsei Univ.)</p> <p>Opening Address Hae-Dong Kim (Conference Chair)</p> <p>Welcoming Address Junil Oh (President of KATE)</p> <p>Congratulatory Speech Chul Park (President of Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)</p>	
11:10 - 12:00	Obama Hall	<p>Keynote Speech (Moderator: Hikyoung Lee, Korea Univ.)</p> <p>Out of the mouths of babies David Nunan (Anaheim Univ., U.S.A.)</p>	
12:00 - 13:30	Faculty Cafeteria	Lunch	
13:30 - 14:20	Obama Hall	<p>Plenary Speech I (Moderator: Isaiah WonHo Yoo, Sogang Univ.)</p> <p>Early foreign language learning: Fast and easy? Carmen Muñoz (Univ. of Barcelona, Spain)</p>	
14:20 - 15:10	Obama Hall	<p>Plenary Speech II (Moderator: Jeong-Won Lee, Chungnam Nat'l Univ.)</p> <p>Standards and assessment: Roles and understandings Barry O'Sullivan (Univ. of Roehampton, U.K.)</p>	
15:10 - 15:30		Coffee Break	
15:30 - 17:00	Graduate School Bldg.	Concurrent Sessions	
17:00 - 17:20		Coffee Break	
17:20 - 18:00	Graduate School Bldg.	<p>Featured Speech I (Room 105) (Moderator: Yunkyong Cho, Pukyong Nat'l Univ.)</p> <p>Successful second language learners: A neuroscience approach Harumi Oishi (JACET, Gifu Shotoku Gakuen Univ., Japan)</p>	<p>Featured Speech II (Room 411) (Moderator: Myong-su Park, Sangmyoung Univ.)</p> <p>The implementation of collaborative learning in English language classroom Nopporn Sarobol (Thailand TESOL, Thammasat Univ., Thailand)</p>

DAY 2 Main Sessions
(Saturday, July 6)

Time	Place	Event	
09:00 - 09:30	Minerva Complex	Registration	
09:30 - 10:30	Minerva Complex	Concurrent Sessions	
10:30 - 10:40		Coffee Break	
10:40 - 11:30	Obama Hall	<p><i>Plenary Speech III</i> (Moderator: Seongwon Lee, Gyeongsang Nat'l Univ.)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Exciting classes as socially intelligent dynamic systems (SINDYS) Tim Murphey (Kanda Univ. of International Studies, Japan)</p>	
11:30 - 12:20	Obama Hall	<p><i>Plenary Speech IV</i> (Moderator: Judy Yin, Korea Nat'l Univ. of Education)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Feedback in EFL writing: Issues and challenges Icy Lee (The Chinese Univ. of Hong Kong, Hong Kong)</p>	
12:20 - 13:30	Faculty Cafeteria	Lunch	
13:30 - 14:10	Graduate School Bldg.	<p><i>Featured Speech III (Room 105)</i> (Moderator: Yong-Yae Park, Seoul Nat'l Univ.)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Online tools for teaching and learning writing in schools Kok-Eng Tan (MELTA, Univ. Sains Malaysia)</p>	<p><i>Featured Speech IV (Room 226)</i> (Moderator: Sunhee Choi, Jeonju Univ.)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Directions for glocalization of ELT in the Korean EFL context Sang-Ho Han (Gyeongju Univ., Korea)</p>
14:10 - 14:30		Coffee Break	
14:30 - 16:30	Graduate School Bldg.	Concurrent Sessions	
16:30 - 16:40		Coffee Break	
16:40 - 17:10	Graduate School Bldg. Room 105	General Meeting	

DAY 1 Concurrent Sessions (Friday, July 5)

Session 1 - Approaches and Methodologies

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-11

Session Chair: Ji-hyeon Jeon (Ewha Womans Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Chinese tertiary EFL learners' readiness for learner autonomy Zhang Minghua (Yanbian Univ., China)
10:00 - 10:30	The application of collaborative writing in EFL writing instruction Junghwa Kim (Arizona State Univ., U.S.A.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 105

Session Chair: Su-jung Park (Hanyang Cyber Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	Native English speaking assistants in elementary EFL classrooms: Blessing or curse? Juhyun Do (The Ohio State Univ., U.S.A.)
16:00 - 16:30	Examining the effects of metacognitive instruction and the relationships between metacognition, self-efficacy, strategy use, and oral communication in EFL classrooms Ayako Kobayashi & Osamu Takeuchi (Kansai Univ., Japan)
16:30 - 17:00	Adult and young EFL learners' attitudes towards teacher code-switching and English-only instruction Jang-Ho Lee (Korea Military Academy)

Session 2 - Second Language Acquisition

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-12

Session Chair: Young-In Moon (Univ. of Seoul)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Syntactic scaffolding on literacy development in EFL contexts Youngmin Park, Mark Warschauer & Mijeong Oak (Univ. of California, Irvine, U.S.A. & Busan Metropolitan City Office of Education)
10:00 - 10:30	A study of teaching writing skills through meaningful activities in elementary school English education Kyeryun Hyun (Nohyeong Elementary School)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 411

Session Chair: Min-young Song (The Cyber Univ. of Korea)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	A strategic approach to oral errors in the EFL classroom Douglas Paul Margolis (Univ. of Wisconsin, River Falls, U.S.A.)
16:00 - 16:30	Effects of types of input distribution on the learning of grammar rules by Korean elementary school students Min-Ju Sung & Sang-Ki Lee (Korea Nat'l Univ. of Education.)
16:30 - 17:00	A structural equation model of Korean EFL learners' perceptual learning styles, L2 self, and English proficiency Yoon-Kyoung Kim & Tae-Young Kim (Chung-Ang Univ.)

Session 3 - Materials and Curriculum

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-13

Session Chair: Kyoung-hee Ko (Jeju Nat'l Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	The initial effectiveness in the process of L3 acquisition Zhang Zhenai (Yanbian Univ., China)
10:00 - 10:30	Subsyllabic structure differences and English L2 spelling accuracy Chaehee Park (Sun Moon Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 402

Session Chair: Ki-Il Lee (Korea Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	A corpus analysis of English quantifiers and partitives Yu-Kyoung Shin & Isaiah WonHo Yoo (Sogang Univ.)
16:00 - 16:30	A critical discourse analysis of a global commercial English language textbook: "I didn't recognize about that before you talking" Linda A Fitzgibbon (Univ. of Queensland, Australia)
16:30 - 17:00	Comparing writing feedback between secondary and college students Jeong-Ok Kim (Woosong Univ.)

Session 4 - The Use of ICT in Language Teaching

Morning Session / International Conference Room

Session Chair: Eun-Ju Kim (Hanyang Women's Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Quantity and quality: CALL/MALL for vocabulary learning Scott Miles (Daegu Haany Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	Using online feedback tools with international graduate students in TESOL Dennis Murphy Odo & Youngjoo Yi (Georgia State Univ. & The Ohio State Univ., U.S.A)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 403

Session Chair: Sung-mook Choi (Kyungpook Nat'l Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	The role of task complexity in vocabulary learning in a Korean EFL context YouJin Kim (Georgia State Univ., U.S.A.)
16:00 - 16:30	Using Criterion® as a self-study writing tool Junko Otoshi, Neil Hefneran & Yoshitaka Kaneko (Okayama Univ., Ehime Univ. & Utsunomiya Univ., Japan)
16:30 - 17:00	A study of focus-on-form tasks and learners' prior knowledge on the noticing of a target feature Sinhyang Park & Yunkyoung Cho (Pukyong Nat'l Univ.)

Session 5 - Language Policy and Teacher Education

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-14

Session Chair: Nam-hee Kim (Hanyang Cyber Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	English teachers' attitudes towards Korean English in South Korea Hyejeong Ahn (Monash Univ., Australia)
10:00 - 10:30	The role of teacher's "Anything else?" token in EFL classrooms Joy Boram Kwon (Sungkyunkwan Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 409

Session Chair: Bo-kyung Lee (Chongju Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	Tailoring English teaching by reinventing a university English language program Neil Heffernan (Ehime Univ., Japan)
16:00 - 16:30	Freshman English: Tailoring the program to current-day needs Andrew Finch (Kyungpook Nat'l Univ.)
16:30 - 17:00	Tailoring readers theatre for the TEFL context Asano Keizo (Nanzan Junior College, Nanzan Univ., Japan)

Session 6 - Language Policy and Teacher Education

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-19

Session Chair: Kyeong-hee Na (Chungbuk Nat'l Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Linguistic globalization and North Korean migrants: Preliminary findings Eun-Yong Kim (Univ. of Toronto, Canada)
10:00 - 10:30	Sequence, continuity, and integration of the revised English curriculum Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea Nat'l Univ. of Education)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 502

Session Chair: Chae-hee Park (Sun Moon Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	The development of a Facebook supplementary learning model at a cyber university Hijeon Kim & Jungah Kwak (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies & Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:00 - 16:30	Visualizing the ideology of native-speakerism through narratives of Asian English teachers Hye-Kyung Kim (Univ. of Seoul)
16:30 - 17:00	The use of a movie summary to identify cause-effect relationship in English Anissa Pane (Sampoerna School of Education, Indonesia)

Session 7 - English Language Testing

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-20

Session Chair: Hye-Kyung Ryoo (Daegu Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Teacher feedback on L2 writing in assessment for learning: A case of an experienced college ESL composition teacher and a novice student YiBoon Chang (The Ohio State Univ., U.S.A.)
10:00 - 10:30	Corpus-based grammatical studies of Philippine English and language assessment: Issues and perspectives JooHyuk Lim & Ariane Macalinga Borlongan (De La Salle Univ., The Philippines)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 503

Session Chair: Jeong-Ah Shin (Kwangwoon Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	The effect of raters' background language on the L2 speaking judgment Seokhan Kang (Seoul Nat'l Univ.)
16:00 - 16:30	Blogging in freshman English: Student evaluations James Robert Garner (Kyungpook Nat'l Univ.)
16:30 - 17:00	An analysis of item facility in middle school English achievement tests using Angoff method Inhee Hwang (Yonsei Univ.)

Session 8 - Culture & Intercultural Communication

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-21

Session Chair: Soo-Jeong Shin (Korea Baptist Theological Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Understanding native speakers' scholarly experiences overseas: A case of North American academics publishing in South Korea Michael Chesnut & Sungwoo Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies & Seoul Nat'l University)
10:00 - 10:30	Bilingual teachers do exist: A qualitative study on three bilingual teachers from South Korea Sang Eun Lee (Ewha Womans Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 407

Session Chair: Hyun-Woo Lim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	Korean bilingual education communities in the U.S. Mun Woo Lee (Hanyang Univ.)
16:00 - 16:30	Who are college students?: Focused on English learning styles Mijin Im (Kookmin Univ.)
16:30 - 17:00	Learning English within the curricular reform context: An analysis of Korean college students' autobiographical memories Kyungja Ahn (Seoul Nat'l Univ. of Education)

Session 9 - Culture & Intercultural Communication

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-22

Session Chair: Cheong-min Yook (Keimyung Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Interactive feedback between instructor and learner under EFL environment: From bottom to the top Won-Chul Park (English Mou Mou)
10:00 - 10:30	Identities, language communities, and community resources for English: Students of English from multicultural family backgrounds Miso Kim (Chung-Ang Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 408

Session Chair: Sang-Min Lee (Seoul Nat'l Univ. of Science & Technology)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	Literature review: Identity construction of EFL learners in China, Japan, and Korea Jaran Shin (Univ. of California at Berkeley, U.S.A.)
16:00 - 16:30	Perceptions and intelligibility of multiple English varieties: A north-east Asian learner perspective Andrew Pollard (Kangwon Nat'l Univ.)
16:30 - 17:00	Motivational effect of third language Yukiko Ideno (Toyo Univ., Japan)

Session 10 - Culture & Intercultural Communication

Afternoon Session / Graduate School room 507

Session Chair: Jun-kyu Lee (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
15:30 - 16:00	The relationship between teachers' native language and students' literacy improvement Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona Univ., U.S.A.)
16:00 - 16:30	Discourse analysis approach to teaching culture for higher level language proficiency Hyunsoo Hur (The Defense Language Institute, U.S.A.)

DAY 2 Concurrent Sessions (Saturday, July 6)

Session 1 - Second Language Acquisition

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-11

Session Chair: Hye-sook Park (Kunsan Nat'l Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	The role of individual differences in L2 syntactic priming Haein Lauren Park, Marisa Filgueras-Gómez & Nick Pandža (Georgetown Univ., U.S.A.)
10:00 - 10:30	Reconceptualizing the relationship of L1 and L2 literacy practices: An exploratory case study Sungwoo Kim (Seoul Nat'l Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 105

Session Chair: Young-hwa Lee (Sun Moon Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	Syntactic processing training for novice Japanese EFL learners Miwa Morishita & Tomoko Yamamoto (Kobe Gakuin Univ., Japan)
15:00 - 15:30	Effects of the different levels of explicitness of focus-on-form techniques on the acquisition of the relative clauses by Korean middle school English learners Sanghui Seong & Sang-Ki Lee (Korea Nat'l Univ. of Education)
15:30 - 16:00	An action research of effects of English debate on high school students' writing and speaking proficiency Hyonphil Shin (Gyeonggi Academy of Foreign Languages)

Session 2 - Materials and Curriculum

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-12

Session Chair: Jee-Hyun Ma (Chonnam Nat'l Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Korean EFL learners' errors at different proficiency levels of English: A case of Yonsei English Learner Corpus (YELC) 2012 Seok-Chae Rhee & Chae Kwan Jung (Yonsei Univ. & KICE)
10:00 - 10:30	Clustering vocational textbooks based on lexical similarity Yong-Hun Lee & Kyung-Suk Chang (Chungnam Nat'l Univ. & KICE)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 411

Session Chair: Jin-Seok Kim (Seoul National Univ. of Education)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	Revisiting communication strategies Ji-Hyun Lee (Kookmin Univ.)
15:00 - 15:30	Exploring rater behaviors during writing assessment discussion Susie Kim (KICE)
15:30 - 16:00	Self-efficacy, attributions, and listening strategy instruction in a blended learning environment Jinyoung Lee (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:00 - 16:30	Effects of peer feedback and reflection on learning writing in the Korean context Younghwa Lee (Sun Moon Univ.)

Session 3 - The Use of ICT in Language Teaching**Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-13**

Session Chair: Jungtae Kim (Pai Chai Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	The approaches to teaching NEAT writing section level 2 at public English education Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	Corpus-based teaching and learning vocabulary to use ICT Kunihiko Miura (The Univ. of Shimane, Japan)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 226

Session Chair: Jin-Hwa Lee (Chung-Ang Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	A way of workshop design for ELT materials development Hae-Dong Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
15:00 - 15:30	Exploring the types of vocabulary in English textbooks for Japanese junior high schools Maiko Kimura & Hiroko Arao (Mukogawa Women's Univ. & Mie Univ., Japan)
15:30 - 16:00	Effects of the use of authentic materials for remedial English classes in Japan Kanao Yamaoka (Kinki Univ., Japan)

Session 4 - The Use of ICT in Language Teaching**Morning Session / International Conference Room**

Session Chair: Daehyeon Nam (UNIST)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Assessing writing quality of Korean high school EFL learners through automatic text analyzer tools and its pedagogical implications Junghee Byun (Seoul Nat'l Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	Is the error-coder training erroneous? Jun-Shik Kim & Seok-Chae Rhee (KICE & Yonsei Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 402

Session Chair: Yoon-Hee Na (Chonnam Nat'l Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	Implementing glossing in mobile-assisted language learning environments: Directions and outlook Hansol Lee (Korea Military Academy)
15:00 - 15:30	How to employ an e-textbook in teaching English methodology class Yunjoo Park & Hyojung Jung (Korea Nat'l Open Univ. & Dankook Univ.)
15:30 - 16:00	The effects of corpus-based investigation on formulaic language to improve automaticity of L2 writing process Hyeyoung Cho (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

Session 5 - Language Policy and Teacher Education**Morning Session / Minerva Complex B1-14**

Session Chair: Mun Woo Lee (Hanyang Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Academic writing practices of graduate engineering students in Korea: A case study Ji-Yeon Chang (Seoul Nat'l Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	Prospective middle school students' reflections and expectations on public English education Wooyoung Park (Hanyang Univ.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 403

Session Chair: Mi-ae Park (Chuncheon Nat'l Univ. of Education)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	A study on English writing teaching anxiety of Korean secondary school teachers: Scale development and validation Kyung Eun Lee (Sinseo High School)
15:00 - 15:30	Perceptions on punctuation: University students' views and voices David E. Shaffer (Chosun Univ.)
15:30 - 16:00	A study of changes in Korean secondary school students' English learning motivation: Focusing on retrospective qualitative methods Yu-Jin Lee (Chung-Ang Univ.)
16:00 - 16:30	A practical English debate curriculum: Debate as an L2 learning device in an EFL context Hyo-Jin Lee (International Graduate School of English)

Session 6 - Language Policy and Teacher Education**Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-19**

Session Chair: Dohyun Yun (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	EFL students' discourse strategies in an English-medium undergraduate seminar Jungyeon Koo (Seoul Nat'l Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	An English native speaker teacher's development in teacher identity and teaching skills in Korea Ju A Hwang (Georgia State Univ., U.S.A.)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 409

Session Chair: Jae-Suk Suh (Inha Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	Introducing the NEAT levels 2 and 3 speaking section Chae Kwan Jung (KICE)
15:00 - 15:30	Introducing the writing section of NEAT Hoky Min (KICE)
15:30 - 16:00	Overview of the National English Ability Test: With focus on the listening section Tae-joon Park (KICE)
16:00 - 16:30	NEAT reading test item specifications: A comparison of Level 2 and Level 3 Su Yon Yim, Yonghyo Park, Bokyung Cho, Jun-Shik Kim (KICE)

Session 7 - Teaching Young Learners

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-20

Session Chair: Hye-young Kim (Chung-Ang Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	The latent structure of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity of Korean EFL students Jiyoung Bae (Yeonji Elementary School)
10:00 - 10:30	The relationship of learning strategies and styles on language learning Seunghyun Roh (Seohyun Middle School)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 502

Session Chair: Haewon Pyo (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	The effects of reading assistant program on reading fluency and learners' perception changes for Korean elementary school students Hyang-Mi Lee & Hye-Jin Kim (International Graduate School of English)
15:00 - 15:30	Creating dialogic spaces using children's literature in elementary English classroom Hyunhee Cho (Daegu Nat'l Univ. of Education)
15:30 - 16:00	Affective teacher training modules for teachers in a country Shaheena Bakhshov (British Council)
16:00 - 16:30	Practical applications of concordancing programs Seamus Murphy (British Council)

Session 8 - Culture and Intercultural Communication

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-21

Session Chair: Chong-Won Park (Pukyong National Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Bicultural identity construction: A case study of Korean short-term resident children in the United States Ki-il Lee (Korea Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	Primary school teachers' blues in teaching English Su Yon Yim (KICE)

Afternoon Session / Graduate School Room 503

Session Chair: Tae-Young Kim (Chung-Ang Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
14:30 - 15:00	Factors influencing perceptions of the accentedness of second language speech: The role of speech rate Mi Sun Park (Columbia Univ., U.S.A.)
15:00 - 15:30	Consonant accommodation by Korean learners of English in interlanguage talk in the UK context Hyunsong Chung (Korea Nat'l Univ. of Education)
15:30 - 16:00	Epistemic stance work in providing an assessment Younhee Kim (Nat'l Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological Univ., Singapore)
16:00 - 16:30	Intercultural learning via videoconferencing and the Zone of Proximal Identity Development in English education Hyun-joo Lee (Kyonggi Univ.)

Session 9 - Culture and Intercultural Communication

Morning Session / Minerva Complex B2-21

Session Chair: Young-kyu Kim (Ewha Womans Univ.)

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter
09:30 - 10:00	Korean middle school students' perceptions toward native speakerism Hannah Kim (Ewha Womans Univ.)
10:00 - 10:30	What does World Englishes mean to teachers?: Korean English teachers vs. native English teachers Jongmin Song (Kyung Hee Univ.)

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KEYNOTE SPEECH

Out of the Mouths of Babes

David Nunan (Anaheim University, California)

ABSTRACT

Learner-centered instruction places learners at the heart of the instructional process, and decisions about content, process and outcomes are based on data by and from learners. In this talk I will look at how instructional decisions for young learners can be informed by their stories about language, life and learning.

BIODATA

David Nunan is Vice President for Academic Affairs at Anaheim University, California. He also holds positions as Emeritus Professor of Applied Linguistics at the University of Hong Kong and Professor of Education at the University of NSW. He also has honorary professorships at universities in Thailand, Japan, Germany, Sweden and the United States.

He has published over 100 scholarly books and articles on teacher education, curriculum development, research methods and child language development. In addition to his research and scholarly work, Nunan is the author of several textbook series for the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language. These are widely used in schools and universities around the world. His series *Go For It* is the largest selling textbook series in the world with global sales of over three billion copies. His non-academic output include a travel book, *Roadshow*, a memoir of growing up in the Australian outback, *When Rupert Murdoch came to Tea*, and a forthcoming collection of short stories based on his experience as a long-term expat in Hong Kong, provisionally entitled *A Near Death by Drowning*.

David Nunan is a former President of TESOL, the largest association of language teachers in the world. He currently serves on the Executive Committee of the International Research Foundation for Language Education.

Honors and awards include a 2002 citation by the United States Congress for services to education, and the 2003 TESOL Lifetime Achievement Award. In 2005, he was named one of the 50 most influential Australians internationally by *Business Review Weekly*, and in 2006 was named by the then Australian Prime Minister, John Howard, as one of the 100 most influential Australians in the fields of business, education and the media. In 2008, Anaheim University created the David Nunan Institute to further language education and research around the world. He divides his time between Hong Kong, Sydney and California.

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PLENARY SPEECHES

Early Foreign Language Learning: Fast and Easy?

Carmen Muñoz (University of Barcelona, Spain)

ABSTRACT

Many countries all over the world have lowered their start age policies for foreign language learning during the past twenty years. The rationale for an early start to foreign language learning includes economic and cognitive advantages for learners as well as benefits for cultural understanding between countries. The rationale is also supported by the folk belief that young learners are better language learners than older learners.

In my talk I will critically examine the theoretical basis underlying this common belief as well as relevant empirical evidence that shows that an early age of learning is not a sufficient condition for success in foreign language learning. To begin with, the relevance of the Critical Period for foreign language learning in typical school settings will be discussed through the examination of the time conditions involved in reaching native-like ultimate attainment. Research findings from the fields of bilingualism and brain studies will be presented that highlight exposure-related factors over start age. Finally, research findings from recent research in instructed foreign language learning settings will be examined focusing on the issues of short-term and long-term outcomes as well as on the challenges faced by young foreign language learners.

BIODATA

Carmen Muñoz is Full Professor of Applied English Linguistics at the University of Barcelona (Spain). She holds a B.A. in Psychology and a B.A. in English Philology (UB), an M.A. in Applied Linguistics (University of Reading, UK), and a Ph.D. in English Linguistics (UB).

Her research interests include the effects of age and context on second language acquisition, young learners in instructed settings, aptitude and individual differences, and bilingual/multilingual education. She is the coordinator of the BAF Project and editor of the book *Age and the Rate of Foreign Language Learning (Multilingual Matters, 2006)*. She has participated in other research projects, such as *Age, intensity of instruction and metalinguistic awareness in EFL learning*, awarded a TIRF grant, and the *ELLiE Project*, a comparative study of early language learning in seven European countries, with a grant from the European Commission and funding from the British Council. At present, she is working on several research projects including a longitudinal study of English language learning in Primary and the transition to Secondary. Recent publications include the edited book *Intensive exposure experiences in second language learning (Multilingual Matters, 2012)*, and the state-of-the-art article *A critical review of age-related research on L2 ultimate attainment (Language Teaching, 2011)* (with D. Singleton).

PELNARY SPEECH II

Standards and Assessment: Roles and Understandings

Barry O'Sullivan (University of Roehampton, U.K.)

BIODATA

Barry O'Sullivan is interested in issues related to performance testing, test validation and test-data management and analysis. He has lectured for many years on various aspects of language testing, and is currently Director of the Centre for Language Assessment Research (CLARe). He is also very interested in academic enterprise and is the Assistant Dean for Academic Enterprise in the School of Arts. Professor Barry's publications have appeared in a number of international journals and he has presented his work at international conferences around the world. His first book 'Issues in Business English Testing' was published by Cambridge University Press in the Studies in Language Testing series in 2006. His second (Modelling Performance in Oral Language Testing) was published by Peter Lang in 2008 and he is currently working on two edited volumes which will appear in the coming year. He is also on the editorial board of a number of journals in the areas of language testing and applied linguistics.

Exciting Classes as Socially Intelligent Dynamic Systems (SINDYS)

Tim Murphey (Kanda University of International Studies, Japan)

ABSTRACT

Looking at our classes as Socially Intelligent Dynamic Systems (SINDYS) can help us to see how students can help us create a positive and stimulating learning environment. Many dynamic systems are not socially intelligent. For example, we can get information from weather systems, but we cannot give the information back to the weather system and expect it to improve itself. However, people can reflect on data about themselves and learn from it and improve their conditions. Thus, people are socially intelligent dynamic systems. We do this regularly with health and economic data. However, too often in education we are concerned with teaching material that is not about or drawn from the students themselves. I will describe several practical ways that teachers can gather data and information from students and ways to redistribute this data (i.e. loop it back to them) so that students can reflect on it and learn from it. This data is usually more intrinsically motivating because it comes from or is about the students themselves. To a great extent I believe that the content of any class can be at least partially about the people in the class, and that makes “exciting classes.” Wilga Rivers (1975, p. 96) said:

We must find out what our students are interested in. This is our subject matter. As language teachers we are the most fortunate of teachers—all subjects are ours. Whatever the children want to communicate about, whatever they want to read about, is our subject matter. The “informal classroom” we hear so much of these days is ours if we re willing to experiment... The essence of language teaching is providing conditions for language learning—using the motivation which exists to increase our student’s knowledge of the new language; we are limited only by our own caution, by our own hesitancy to do whatever our imagination suggest to us, to create situations in which students feel involved—individually, in groups, whichever is appropriate for the age level of our students in the situation in which we meet them. We need not be tied to a curriculum created for another situation or another group. We must adapt, innovate, improvise, in order to meet the student where he is and channel his motivation.

As we design our program it should be possible to involve students in the selection of activities according to their personality preferences. Should all students, even the inarticulate, be expected to want to develop primarily the speaking skill? Some children reared on television may feel more at ease if allowed to look and listen with minimal oral participation until they feel the urge to contribute: these children will learn far more if allowed to develop according to their own personality patterns than if they are forced to chatter when they have nothing to say.

REFERECES

Rivers, W. (1975). *Speaking in many tongues: Essays in foreign-language teaching*. Rowley, Mass.:Newbury House Pub.

BIODATA

Tim Murphey (PhD Université de Neuchâtel, Switzerland) teaches at Kanda University of International Studies in Chiba, Japan. He has published and presented extensively in the TESOL field, and is a regular presenter at KOTESOL where he has been a plenary speaker at both the national and international conferences. His publications include *Music and Song* (OUP 1991), *Teaching One to One* (Longman 1992) and *Group Dynamics in the Language Classroom* (OUP 2003), a volume he co-authored with Zoltan Dornyei. More recently, he wrote a novel about Japan’s entrance exam system, *The Tale that Wags* (Perceptia 2010), and has just completed a collection of inspired and inspiring essays entitled *Teaching in Pursuit of Wow!* Tim’s current research interests include Vygotskian socio cultural theory with a transdisciplinary emphasis on community, play, and music. He finds inspiration in fields as diverse as juggling and neuroscience.

PELNARY SPEECH IV

Feedback in EFL Writing: Issues and Challenges

Icy Lee (The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong)

ABSTRACT

In EFL contexts (school contexts in particular), it is common to find writing teachers adopting conventional feedback practices, collecting single drafts from students, marking student writing laboriously with little student involvement, and finding themselves burnt out through engaging in this gruelling and exhausting aspect of their work. Despite teachers' reticence about such day-in-and-day-out chores that eat into their time, there is a tacit awareness that their efforts in feedback do not really pay off. Students continue to make the same mistakes, become more and more reliant on the teacher, and their writing does not necessarily improve as a result of teacher feedback. With a paradigm shift in assessment that places more emphasis on the relationship between teaching, learning, and assessment—and hence assessment *for* learning (i.e. using assessment to promote learning) rather than assessment *of* learning (i.e. using assessment for primarily administrative purposes) — a revolution in conventional feedback practices seems imperative. In this presentation, I examine issues and challenges involved in feedback in EFL writing from the perspective of a writing teacher and a writing researcher, and conclude with implications for classroom writing assessment practice.

BIODATA

Icy Lee is Professor in the Faculty of Education at The Chinese University of Hong Kong. Her main research interests include second language writing and second language teacher education. She was formerly President of Hong Kong Association for Applied Linguistics and Chair of the Non-native English Speakers in TESOL (NNEST) Interest Section of TESOL International Association. Her publications have appeared in international journals such as *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *Language Teaching*, *ELT Journal*, *Canadian Modern Language Review* and *System*. She was a recipient of the 2013 TESOL Award for an Outstanding Paper on NNEST Issues, the 2010 TESOL Award for Excellence in Teaching, and the 1999 TESOL Award for Excellence in the Development of Pedagogical Materials. She was also a recipient of the 2008 Journal of Second Language Writing Best Paper Award for her article “Understanding teachers’ written feedback practices in Hong Kong secondary classrooms”.



FEATURED SPEECHES

Extensive Reading for Effective Reading Comprehension of EFL Learners Viewed from a Neuro-imaging Approach

Harumi Oishi (Gifu Shotoku Gakuen University, Japan)

ABSTRACT

Many researchers (e.g., Krashen, 2004; Nuttall, 2005) have reported that extensive reading (ER) has a positive effect on language learning. By reading many books some changes occur in learners such as increasing reading speed, raising motivation and consciousness. These effects of the ER have been mainly demonstrated in its pedagogical application through interviewing, a subjective way. However, few studies have investigated the mechanism of the relative success of learners using a brain science approach, a new objective way.

This study applies both subjective way and a new objective way. It used interviewing to investigate what they read and how much they understand the passage. Besides, a neuro-imaging technique called near infrared spectroscopy was applied to examine the effects of the ER method.

Two EFL learner groups, experimental (n = 10) and control (n = 10), participated the experiments. The experimental group engaged in reading activities based on the ER method for two weeks while the control group read materials by traditional approach. The changes in brain activation patterns were recorded while the learners are a reading material before and after the experiments.

Results of the experimental group revealed that their reading comprehension improves and the brain activation patterns became relatively similar to those of advanced level learners. The control group did not show a substantial change. Such consequence can be interpreted as a proof of effectiveness of the ER method by using objective neuro-scientific method as well as subjective cognitive method. (241 words)

BIODATA

Harumi Oishi is a Professor at the Graduate School of International Cultural Studies and the Faculty of Education at Gifu Shotoku Gakuen University, Japan. Her teaching and research fields of interest are brain science and English education, reading pedagogy, and World Englishes. She received a conference award from JACET in 2005.

FEATURED SPEECH II

The Implementation of Collaborative Learning in English Language Classroom

Nopporn Sarobol (Thammasat University, Thailand)

ABSTRACT

Collaborative Learning (CL) is a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn together. In this presentation, the presenter will report the attitudes of university students towards the implementation of collaborative tasks in the classroom. The participants in this study consisted of twenty-six first-year students in the Faculty of Engineering, enrolled in English Foundation Course III during summer 2012 at Thammasat University in Bangkok, Thailand. Pair work and group work activities were employed during the lesson throughout the semester to develop all English language skills. A questionnaire was used to survey the students' satisfaction of learning with this experience. Quantitative data from the survey and qualitative data from an open-ended questionnaire were then analyzed. The presenter will discuss research findings and provide implications for classroom practices. The examples of collaborative tasks will also be shared in this session.

BIODATA

Nopporn Sarobol is at present a professor at the Language Institute, Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand. She got the Bachelor degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (2nd Class Honor) from Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University and Master Degree in Teaching English from Faculty of Education, Kasetsart University. She has been involved in English language teaching for more than 30 years. Her areas of interest include language teaching methodology, learner independence, cooperative learning, classroom observation and professional development. She is a training teacher in several training programs organized by the Ministry of Education, Thammasat University and other organizations. She is now the President of Thailand TESOL.

Online Tools for Teaching and Learning Writing in Schools

Kok-Eng Tan (Universiti Sains Malaysia)

ABSTRACT

Since the birth of the Internet, many studies have emerged on its positive impact in teaching and learning. Alongwith this, online teaching tools with interesting applications have been developed for classroom use. The Internet is now not short of educational resources for teachers teaching different levels. But just how much has the Internet been employed by ordinary school teachers in an online learning environment? A number of studies have shown that ICT facilities only remain potentially useful. Teachers have only used these facilities for administrative purposes, such as the recording and announcement of marks, and churning out school statistics. At most, in some cases, teachers print out downloaded materials for their lessons or direct their students to useful websites to be accessed after class time. To encourage teachers to use the Internet in a more direct and productive way, this paper highlights two studies in the Malaysian secondary school ESL classroom in which students are engaged in thelearning of writing skills using online tools. While both studies report improvements in student performance in writing, the online teaching tools developed and used are different. The focus of the first study is on developing narrative writing abilities at Year 10 level while the second study focuses on developing argumentative writing competencies in Year 12 students. The studies showcase specific ways in which online tools may be used to improve writing skills among school students. It is hoped that these two showcases will spark greater interest, amongESL/EFL teachers to use webbed environments to enhance the language learning experience of students.

BIODATA

Kok-Eng Tan (PhD) is Associate Professor at the School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia. She has served as Chair of the B.Ed. (TESOL) program for a number of years. Her research interests include English literacy, writing practices, ELT, TESOL and educational research. She has successfully completed a number of projects funded by internal and external grants. Her work has been published in both local and international journals. She is a reviewer for several journals as well as examiner of master's and doctoral theses.

FEATURED SPEECH IV

Directions for Glocalization of ELT in the Korean EFL Context

Sang-Ho Han (Gyeongju University, Korea)

I. Introduction

In my presentation, I will try to entertain and stimulate re-thinking among my audience with the idea of English education as (1) science-art wavicle, and as (2) an extension, seen from the lens of both, globalization and glocalization as a wavicle of reflection for English language educators. In this presentation, I will have Korean EFL learners, teachers, classrooms, and general Korean society in its cultural-historical perspectives in mind as I discuss directions for English teaching in the Korean EFL context. I will begin with the concept of glocalization, and then put more local coloring on the global-local continuum of glocalization with my own examples of glocalizing ELT teaching methods. Finally, I will introduce the term llobalization (local-global) as natural authentic development from glocalization (global-local), with some positive implications for relevant research fields as well as EFL Korean English education.

II. Conceptualizing Glocalization

1. Origin of Glocalization

As a teacher of English, I have been constantly asking myself what could be a better way to teach English to Korean students in Korean settings (Han 1999, 2004a, 2004b). Of course we want our students to be more “global,” so to speak; but the word ‘global’ made me somewhat uncomfortable. Struggling to find alternative teaching methods, I came across a new term during web-surfing - glocalization. Glocalization is originally defined as a neologism and a contraction of two words: globalization and localization. It bridges two different but related thoughts. First, it means ‘the creation of products or services intended for the global market, but customized to suit the local culture.’ Second, it means ‘using electronic communications technologies, such as the Internet, to provide local services on a global (or potentially global) basis.’

The term glocalization originated from Japanese business practices of the 80s. Before it was adopted into English-speaking societies, its meaning was *Dochakuka* (土着化, indigenization: melding global inside local), which was used to refer to changing farming techniques to fit the condition of the land of the region. Glocalization was first popularized in the English-speaking world by British sociologist Ronald Robertson in the 1990s. (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/glocalization>). The term glocalization is used to describe a product or service that is developed and distributed globally, but is also fashioned to accommodate the user or consumer in a local market. This means that the product or service may be tailored to conform to local laws, customs or consumer preferences. Products or services that are effectively “glocalized” are, by definition, going to be of much greater interest to the end user.

2. Features of Glocalization

When I adopted ‘glocalization’ into my teaching, I thought local was more important than global. Therefore, my major concern when I presented it in conferences was something Korean as reflected in the key words of those presentations: A wavicular perspective of EIL: Teaching English as an international language, Neo-confucianism, and English education in Korea: a critical perspective. However, the definition of glocalization as stated earlier had rather value-neutral and objective features only. I took this as marriage between commercialism of TESOL and positivistic science. I was of the opinion that without glocalizing the mind-set of students with traditional-local perspectives, English learning in Korea would only result in skills-oriented, efficiency-driven value-neutral processes.

In order to discover value-laden properties for more authentic glocalization of the field, I analyzed keynote and plenary speakers’ addresses delivered in major international conferences held in Korea from 1997 to 2002. As a result, I could find 4 other features of glocalization from critical, subjective perspectives besides 5 value-neutral

features of glocalization. These are 1) global, 2) local, 3) production of goods, 4) providing services, 5) use of electronic web system, 6) intercultural understanding, 7) autonomy, 8) authenticity/subjectivity, 9) consciousness-raising (Han, 2006). In the following sections, I will propose an inclusive wavicular perspective of glocalization in ELT, starting with the concept of wavicle, its application into Master's Way (2005, 2006), Pedagogy of Inclusion: English is English (2007), and culminating with the Beginner's Mind Approach (2010).

III. Glocalization of ELT in the Korean EFL Context

1. On Wavicle

The concept of wavicle has always been with human beings. In the contemporary era, the new physics movement in the early 1920s witnessed the eureka of wavicle. The word wavicle is a portmanteau – or what linguists call a blend. It is derived from the concept of wave-particle duality. It is a unified whole of wave and particle, which in actuality manifests itself sometimes as continuous wave and sometimes as non-continuous particle. A wavicular perspective, therefore, pertains to the wisdom of being able to see something continuous as non-continuous and acknowledging the non-continuous as continuous at the same time. A different manifestation of this concept is well captured in Zen Buddhists' reference to nature. It is argued in Buddhism that 'mountain is water and water is mountain'. That is, in the bigger world of nature, there is no difference between water and mountain, and mountain and water, because each manifestation does not exclude the possibility of another at other points in the time-space continuum.

To have a clear understanding of this wavicular phenomenon, let's take a tossing of a coin as an example. When the coin falls down on the ground, either the front or back side of it is supposed to manifest. But the manifestation of either side does not necessarily mean the absence of the other side. The front side is still the coin and the back side is still the coin. What comes into view does not negate the existence of what's hidden from our limited sense of sight. This logic declares the end of either-or logic which has been in existence since Aristotle in the ancient, and Newton of the modern science. It introduces a new perspective of appreciating both A and B at the same time. In this holistic unified logic, the sum of parts is more than the physical sum of the parts as calculated by the classical Cartesian logic and Newtonian physics. In other words, it's wavicular.

2. Glocalization as a Wavicle

The concept of wavicle has shown parallels between quantum physics and oriental mystic philosophy (Capra, 1975; 1982). This has, from my viewpoint, an implication for the interpretation of the term glocalization introduced above. If we follow this logic, it becomes natural that both Koreanness and internationality manifest at the same time when we speak even when only half (less or more than half doesn't matter) seems to manifest to our naked eyes. If we extend this inclusive logic to the 9 features of glocalization, we could even say that what's described by each feature is valid. The understanding of a mountain is not only constituted by the objective measurement and precise description of it but also subjective descriptions of all different climbers of it. We need to be open to any other possibilities for real appreciation of the sense of wavicle.

3. Glocalization of ELT in Korean Perspectives

Glocalization of English education is, as I mentioned, a matter of customizing the products or services to suit the 'authentic' local culture. This also means globalizing EFL with local sensitivity. The case of English education in Korea is in need of this kind of glocalization process.

“Many researchers and scholars involved in English education in Korea are relying on expertise, methodology, and materials controlled and dispensed by Western ESL countries. Instead, we need to develop language teaching methods that take into account the political, economic, social, and cultural factors and, most important of all, the EFL situations in the countries” (Li, 1998: 698).

As Li mentions above, we need to develop teaching methods in critical consideration of our own teaching/learning settings. This will involve a wavicular approach to English education, which will help decolonize the mind-set of educators as well as parents and students by cooling down the overenthusiasm of English learning in our society. In the following sections, I will share with you my journey to discovering how Korean glocalization of ELT should proceed.

1) Master's Teaching of English (Han, 2005)

In this article which I wrote in 2005, I extended Capra's (1975) discussion on the parallels between modern physics and eastern philosophies into the wavicular approach to teaching English, introducing the master's way of teaching (Han, 2005a; 2005b). In this approach, I embraced both objective value-neutral approach to teaching English as an international language and critical perspectives in inclusive wavicular position arguing for a master's balanced approach to teaching. Also argued in this article was that the practice of master's English teaching must involve having his/her students go through language awareness in the domains of cognition, affection, socialization, performance, and power in a non-dualistic wavicular manner.

2) Wavicular approach to glocalization of research and teaching (Han, 2006)

In dwelling further into the Master's way of teaching, I saw the non-dualistic wavicle between research and teaching and ideas toward practicing this wavicular understanding into both research and teaching (Han, 2006). In so doing, I could present how to glocalize ELT in our context more precisely than in the previous Master's way.

With a wavicular awareness, the five objective features of glocalization, namely, globalness, localness, commodities production, provision of service, use of global network, could be grasped with glocalization's four subjective features of intercultural understanding, autonomy, authenticity & subjectivity, and awareness-raising. In this 2006 article, I discussed the master's way of teaching in a more precise, in-depth way by introducing the concept of teaching with the beginner's mind, which encourages students to develop spontaneous, joyous attitude toward their learning of English. It was argued, in the initial period of glocalizing education, that the teacher as master needs to foster classroom atmosphere in which students promote in themselves autonomy, subjective authenticity, and critical awareness, followed by reinforcement of cross-cultural awareness as part of their cultural continuity. In this process, the master must always keep the beginner's mind and let it happen in the mind-heart of his/her learners so that they can constantly enjoy minute-by-minute discoveries in the process of learning English.

3) English is English Perspective

As a follow-up from Han (2005), I argued that we need to implement pedagogy of inclusion when we teach English. The idea of inclusion in English education came upon to me in 2007 when I was searching for some harmonious ways of teaching English as an international language (EIL). Again I could embrace the two opposing views of EIL's liberal-objective and critical-subjective positions into an inclusive-wavicular perspectives.

I called this inclusive perspective as 'English is English,' where there is no distinction between standard and substandard English. This is an approach where not any one is in charge of the other. Thus, the rationale behind this wavicular approach is to have a Tao awareness on the language without reference to the types of English. Just like when we ask tea what type of tea it is, we will obviously not hear any value-laden comments from the tea. We become free of valuation of perspectives when we reach this Tao stage of awareness. Since we hear no response from the tea, we could only say Tea is Tea. Likewise, English is just English: it's not anybody's. It's owned by anyone who has command of it (Han, 2007).

The pedagogy of inclusion has many implications for us as we go along in the search of the most appropriate method for language teaching. In terms of teaching methods, we can use the Beginner's Mind Approach to English Education where the sheer joy of learning and communicating in it is celebrated.

4) Beginner's Mind Approach

As a further development from the enlightened Dharma teacher's perspective (Han, 2005) and English is English Pedagogy of Inclusion (2007), I could elaborate more manifestations of Dharma teaching in the name of the Beginner's Mind Approach (Han, 2010). Quoting from Suzuki's process of Zen practice (Suzuki, 1970), the five features of the Beginner's Mind are at the core of this approach: 'empty', 'free of habits of the expert', 'ready to accept', and 'ready to doubt'. Briefly, his assertion is, "If one maintains a Beginner's mind, one is supposed to be 'open to all the possibilities' in one's endeavor toward learning."

It is noted that when we discuss the beginner's mind, we have to make sure that it applies to both the Master teacher and Novice learner. That is, the master teacher must dance the 'teaching' by not trying to teach. First, in relation to learning, the Master teacher maintains the beginner's mind because he/she is of the idea that the Zen mind is a Master's mind; and the Zen mind is a Beginner's mind. The Master teacher is fully enthusiastic about

what he/she is learning, and what he/she is communicating to others. The Master teacher's dancing of learning is not forced learning. It's learning with constant pleasure. His/her dancing is simple, repetitive, but nothing is to be desired in his/her learning.

Second, in relation to language, he/she is the master of it. He/She uses it as if it were the last time he/she will be using it. To the Master teacher, every communication is the new communication because he/she lives in the constant Here and Now and every moment is the new moment.

Third, in relation to teaching, the Master teacher teaches by not teaching. He/She does not teach, but dances with the language to teach, yet the students learn. This is the way the Master teacher teaches - teaching of non-teaching. This kind of teaching is compared to the way water influences and transforms places as it passes along. It touches and affects where it passes, but it never says it made the change.

The Master does not teach, but students learn. A Master teacher of wavicular awareness teaches by 'not teaching'. Students become free of fears of learning when the teacher approaches them with this beginner's mind and lets them find the pleasure of discovering something new all the time. Since the authority of the teacher does not oppress the students' process of learning, students begin to develop autonomy and spontaneity of learning, finally reaching the stage of establishing critical awareness as learners (Han, 2006).

Zukav (1979) comes up with a metaphor of dancing to explain teaching with beginner's mind:

"Every lesson is the first lesson. Every time we dance, we do it for the first time. It does not mean that we forget what we already know. It means that what we're doing is always new, because we're always doing it for the first time." (Zukav, 1979, p.9)

Likewise, the English teacher as master dances a natural dance of teaching without being interfered by contents or methods of teaching. Thus, it can be said that if the teacher with the master's awareness walks on the learning path of awareness, his/her students will also follow on his/her steps, developing spontaneity of learning and gradually improving their expressive abilities (Han, 2005).

The metaphor of dancing above merits some elaboration. The Master keeps his/her balance of wavicle between rational and irrational, self-assertive and receptive, masculine and feminine. The Master teacher does not negate or reject what seems like the opposites, but embraces them in the dance of teaching-learning (Zukav, 1979, 41). He/she always dances near the center of learning. The master knows that description about experience is different from experience itself. It is because the language used to describe experience is an explanation about that experience, not the experience itself. This can be interpreted to mean that the master of language education knows the difference between explaining language functions and structures in terms of linguistics. Thus the master just dances the dance of language use, and tries not to explain each movement of hands and parts of bodies in further detail. He/she motions this way or that way in the middle of all opposing concepts embracing them sometimes this way and sometimes that way, sometimes in a positive way and sometimes in a negative way naturally. Thus sometimes movements become dance and dance becomes movements. The master does not confuse the types of dance with the fact that he/she dances (Zukav, 1979). This is what we need to develop as we perceive, grasp, and make our own way in the business of Teaching English.

5) From Glocal to Llobalization of ELT

Globalization and glocalization are both challenges and, at the same time, new opportunities for us. For more than 60 years after World War II, globalization of ELT (or ESOL/TESOL) and its uni-directional extension, liberal glocalization, has served many cases of successful 'transplants' in many parts of the world. In this process, the science of ELT, which has developed in the Inner Circle or BANA area countries (Holliday, 2005), has been expanding to Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries. Meanwhile, many Outer Circle countries have also succeeded in indigenizing or glocalizing ELT education systems consisting of glocalized specialists, indigenized systems, and its own authentic materials of more local validity. This puts forward a concern of which half to put more emphasis on in the dual nature of global-local (that is glocalization).

So let us ask a question at this juncture: Which half is more important in the dual concept of glocalization: global or local? The answer I propose is, of course, using wavicular logic of both A and B, both global and local are equally important. We are living in a world where constituting elements of whatever entity deserve to be valued as holistic parts, not as separate isolated parts.

Korea has been successful in many respects in adopting and adapting teaching methods, developing and

implementing new curricula models, and devising and amending policy platforms for English education in the era of internationalization and globalization. However, this success has only been so, to a certain extent, in terms of Think Global - Apply Local, meaning we localize global standards, but generally, we put global standard as higher point of reference. In other words, the concept of global has been, most of the time, more important than the concept of local. I am of the opinion that this needs to be reconsidered.

What about giving more emphasis or at least equal emphasis on the local side of the duality, hence making a new term Lobal, that is, Local-Global, not Global-Local. This will help us to propose a new term of duality, Lobal in contrast to Glocal. I suggest this not to belittle the importance of the global side since my logic is always maintaining a balanced wavicle of global and local or local and global: that is, to the best of my conscience, at least, the order does not matter if only both are seriously taken.

To many, the new term lobal will strike us as a bit peculiar. Nonetheless, it is a term already in use in globalization studies. If glocal means thinking global, acting local, lobal means thinking local, acting global. If we adopt this new term, it could be safely agreed that I have been trying to llobalize ELT when I was referring to my previous presentations such as Neo-confucianism and English education, Master's Way, English is English Perspective, and the Beginner's Mind Approach.

Why not start with our version and make them global? Wouldn't it be an interesting alternative to current perceptions and practices of ELT in Korea? I am of the idea that the future of ELT in the Korean context toward the sea of English will be positively captured in the blue ocean. With the development and introduction of information technology to the glocalization of interaction on the web, tablets, and smart phones, the future is to be more optimistic for us.

Now is the time for us to think locally and act globally. In order to get that global competitive edge, we must first maximize the potentials and characteristics of local cultures and local educational traditions; and based on this, we must act globally in order to win a real competitive edge in the international arena of commerce, business, politics, and diplomacy with both Korea and the world as wavicle.

Korean movies which try to adopt Hollywood movies in a critical and glocalizing way have been not only more popular among Korean movie fans but also among global world audiences. Korean TV dramas in the name of Hanryu (韓流) are winning more and more favors from Asian viewers thanks to a change of perspective from global to glocal, and to llobalization. Glocalization with Korean mind and heart at the center that is, starting from lobal perspectives enables our identity to be more valued and our economic and cultural products more aesthetically appreciated in the world market. The most typical example of success of llobalization can be represented by Psy's success in the world of music and video arts.

IV. Conclusion

In this presentation, I have introduced perspectives of glocalization and tried to present a unique, inclusive way of applying them into teaching English in Korean EFL context: Master's Way, Pedagogy of Inclusion, and Beginner's mind (Choshim, 초심, 初心) approach. In all these methods or approaches, although much emphasis is put on local-cultural-historical perspectives in their application, it is essential to point out that the importance of global encounter with people from other parts of the world is never disregarded.

The concept of wavicle, which argues the idea of both A (wave) and B (particle) in contrast to either A or B, serves as a constant conceptual catalyst for creative thought and action in the world of teaching which is inclusive of English education. This is a useful tool for harmonizing differences in favor of consilial understanding and more creative endeavor in teaching. This struggle to come to terms with indigenization of globalism has enabled me to use a new term: llobalization. I hope this new term will serve as a theoretical foundation upon which both our public English education entities and private sector corporate worlds could develop educational programs or services catering to the varying needs beyond EFL contexts.

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BIODATA

Sang-Ho Han teaches in the department of English & International Tourism at Gyeongju University. He served as National president of Korea TESOL in 2000, and has served as executive council members of Asia TEFL, KATE, PKETA, and KAFLE. Currently he is serving as president of PKETA. The presenter's original primary research interest has been second language acquisition/ learning, himself having been educated in the context of "education as value-neutrality". His current interest is more critical than functional & instrumental, more political than pedagogical, more social than personal & individual, posing himself as Freirian liberator in the praxis of teaching English in Korean context. His recent articles are "Teaching English as an international language and English teacher as Dharma" (2005), "A wavicular argument on glocalization of research-practice in English Education" (2006), "A critical alternative to teaching English for overcoming native speakerism" (2007), A Study of Beginner's Mind Approach to Teaching English: Approach, Design, and Procedure. (2010).

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DAY 1

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Day 1

Concurrent Session 1: Approaches and Methodologies

Morning Sessions / Minerva Complex B1-11		
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Chinese Tertiary EFL Learners' Readiness for Learner Autonomy

Minghua Zhang (Yanbian University)

ABSTRACT

With the development of learner centered approaches in education, the notion of 'learner autonomy' has become more and more crucial in the field of language learning for more than three decades in the past. According to educational and specific cultural contexts, current literature on learner autonomy suggests that the perception and practice of autonomous learning change. For this reason, it is significant to identify students' readiness for learner autonomy before designing or adapting activities inside class or outside class to promote autonomous learning in any given country. This study is an attempt in that direction. In order to identify university level Chinese EFL learners' readiness for learner autonomy, the study investigated 41 learners' perceptions of teachers' and learners' responsibilities, their confidence about their own abilities to act autonomously, learning motivation, and their actual autonomous language learning activities they practice. Results in this study indicated that learners seem to be ready to take responsibility in deciding learning objective, and some areas of the language learning process inside class and outside class.

BIODATA

Minghua Zhang is a professor at the department of foreign language teaching and research in college of foreign language at Yanbian University in China. She received her Ph.D from Hanyang University in Korea. She has published more than 30 papers and two books on English teaching and language research. From 1989 to now, she has worked on more than eight research projects. Now she is in charge of one school level project and one province level project, which are about teacher development.

The Application of Collaborative Writing in EFL Writing Instruction

Junghwa Kim (Arizona State University)

I. Introduction

Researchers who view writing as a process of meaning-making and social activity employ the theoretical concepts from Bakhtin (1981), Halliday (1978), and Vygotsky (1978). The notion of collaborative writing stems from the social constructionist view of language learning. In Vygotsky's notion of socio-cultural theory, language serves as a mediator of developing thinking skills and bridging the gap between what one can do and what he or she can achieve with others' assistance. Collaborative learning theory has rapidly making its way in theoretical and pedagogical approaches to many fields including writing. Contrary to its fast spread of pedagogical approaches and a number of studies done in collaborative work in speaking, the number of studies on the benefits of collaborative writing is still a paucity (Storch, 2005; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007). This critical review examines theoretical frameworks and related issues in past findings of collaborative writing. In discussion of previous findings, the pedagogical implications in collaborative writing and the future research directions are suggested.

II. The Definition of Collaborative Writing

There are a few definitions depending on scholars. Those definitions have several distinctions between how scholars view collaborative writing tasks in the process of writing activity and what salient features researchers have emphasize in collaborative activities. For instance, Saunders (1989) distinguished "co-writing" from "co-publishing" and "co-responding". Ede and Lundsford (1990) refers to group writing. That is, group writing activity that is done with other students collaboratively. Particularly, the term includes planning and revising collaboratively but it does not necessarily mean drafting collaboratively. Other scholars look at this term with a lens of collaborative interaction. Louth and McAllister (1993) view collaborative writing as group members' interaction in the process of writing. Bosley's definition (as cited in Ede & Lundford) is that two or more people work together to produce one text in a situation that a group who has the responsibility of sharing the document. According to Storch's (2011) description, she put more emphasis on joint ownership, which refers to writers' participating in the whole process of writing. Her distinction of the term differentiates collaborative writing from the group-planning or peer response activities.

III. The importance of Interaction in Collaborative Writing

Ortega (2007) mentioned the potentials of interaction applied to writing. As Ortega pointed out, most of interaction studies have been done in verbal interaction by speaking and getting oral feedback. More importantly, written interaction is also considered to be the part of meaningful activities in facilitating negotiation of meaning with others. Not only oral input and output but also written input and output can reinforce learners' acquisition of target knowledge. Thus applying the benefits of learners' interaction to language learning can be extended to writing classes. Cumming (1990) and Harklau (2002) maintain that in writing tasks, the provision and subsequent noticing of corrective feedback are more feasible with writing. Further, Weissberg (2006) mentions that integrated tasks with speaking and writing like collaborative writing may be more conducive to language learning than solitary writing. In this task, writers can play multiple roles, such as tutors, coauthors, sounding boards and critical readers. The benefit of collaborative writing is that it encourages learners to make their thoughts vocalized. Swain's study on collaborative dialogue is informed by Vygotskian (1978) sociocultural theory. Jointly built performance can surpass individual competence. She points out the importance of collaborative dialogue while working collaboratively. More recently, she claims that 'languaging', defined as "the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language" (Swain, 2006, p. 89), is a source of L2 learning. The term, 'languaging' refers to what learners who are engaging in collaborative activity produce in a metalinguistic conversation with their peers while performing a group work. She explains how the metalinguistic conversation can help their collaborative writing and its cognitive aspect to language learning.

IV. Past Findings and Various Factors

1. Proficiency

In the study of Storch and Wigglesworth (2007), the advanced ESL learners elicited more attention to lexical choices than accuracy. The researchers explain that advanced learners are already mastered in structures, so that it is likely that their most frequent topic may fall into lexical choice. The reason behind this would be that defining the exact meaning of words which may have subtle differences is assumed to be an important process in collaborative writing. Learners come up with similar ideas but the way they express their meaning may vary, which lead to more negotiation between learners for making their sentences clear to other members. Similar results were in Storch's (2005) classroom study with advanced groups, which showed that pairs produced shorter texts but the texts were more accurate and syntactically complex.

2. Vocabulary

When it comes to expanding L2 vocabulary, Kim's (2008) study on the effectiveness of collaborative tasks for the acquisition of L2 vocabulary suggested that the posttest scores among pair work were higher than those of individual work. It was because learners in a group had more opportunity to pool their knowledge each other. Watanabe and Swain (2007) conducted a study to assess language gains from collaborative activities. Their findings suggested that regardless of their partners' proficiency level, collaborative pattern of interaction helps yield higher posttest scores in vocabulary.

3. The Quality of Writing

Deeper engagement in language negotiation would affect language development. Thus, better quality of writing can be made in collaborative writing (Storch, 2008). With respect to improving the overall quality of writing, the depth of attention and engagement in collaborative writing can be a crucial factor. The topics which learners engage most in collaborative writing is linguistic resources such as grammar, and vocabulary. In particular, Storch (2005) examined what aspects of writing learners pay attention to. The results are that learners mostly focused on generating ideas. Second aspect was attention to language. The types of decision made in collaborative writing activity are that completing each other's ideas, building or offering alternative suggestions or alternative phrasing, feedback, collective scaffolding for pooling their linguistic resources for accuracy. Through collective scaffolding, some of results reveal that learners produce more linguistically complex and grammatically accurate texts in collaborative writing.

4. The Process of Writing

The processes of writing include planning, writing, and revision. From the results, the most time spent was on writing which refers to writing contents. The second is planning and the last was revision. It was quite surprising that learners did not spend much time in revision. The reason was that when learners construct sentences, they focus on one idea and revise the sentences many times and then move on the second sentences. Their processes involved in collaborative writing were recursive. This gives an implication that a writing teacher needs to recognize that various writing processes and strategies can be incorporated. Additionally, the time management can be an important factor because groups produced shorter texts than individual writer. Groups spent large amount of their time in negotiation for the contents and sentence construction.

5. Group Formation

McAllister (2005) investigated the 150 college writing by focusing on texts over a semester by students working under three conditions. The results showed that students in permanent and changing groups wrote better quality texts than an individual group. Students who did collaborative writing in groups showed improvements in their writing and they exchanged ideas in a more active way. The distinction between permanent and changing groups was observed in terms of building trust and expressing participants' thoughts. Members in permanent groups felt more comfortable in negotiating their views on texts. Although both groups improved their writing, students who were in a permanent group talked significantly more about writing. It can be noted that cultural differences in expressing ideas in a group and different L1 backgrounds may influence how participants in a group

6. Language Related Episodes (LREs)

As Donato (1994) mentioned collective scaffolding, the advanced learners care about lexical and grammar more than mechanics. The analyses of the pair dialogue suggested that in terms of process of writing, collaboration afforded the learners the opportunity to interact on different aspects of writing. It encourages learners to collaborate in generating ideas and pool their language knowledge. In the study of Dobao (2012) illustrated that in small group, each individual has limited time to speak but each would have more linguistic resources. He examined how the number of participants in a writing task affected the accuracy, fluency, complexity and the frequency of LREs. It was clear that the number of participants in a group related to the accuracy, fluency, and complexity of the texts. In a small group, participants in collaborative writing pay more attention to language and more successful in solving language-related problems than learners in pairs.

V. Discussion

Drawing on the previous studies, firstly, teachers' careful planning and consideration of various factors are necessary to maximize the benefits of collaborative writing in mixed level of L2 proficiency and different L1 backgrounds. It can be noted that making the most advantageous group mix of students is an important task for teachers. In EFL contexts, using L2 or L1 while working collaboratively should also be considered depending on learners' L2 proficiency because the contents and quality of participants' interaction can vary and their interaction may affect their texts. Secondly, in relation to the aspects of processes of writing, the types and amount of teachers' intervention and feedback should be examined by allowing the flexibility of writing processes such as planning, organizing ideas, generating contents and editing in collaborative work. Teachers and students should be aware of how to negotiate various tasks involved in collaborative writing. Thirdly, in terms of assessing collaborative writing, the fair distribution of collaborative work and various approaches of assessment need to be examined in further studies. Additionally, a study of learners' attitudes towards collaborative work shed light on the relations between learners' attitudes and their interaction in collaborative work, which reported that students who showed reservation about collaborative writing expressed a lack of confidence in their writing skills. In keeping with recent research, more empirical research in learners' and teachers' attitudes on collaborative writing and low L2 proficiency levels can help us to understand how collaborative writing tasks can promote learners' development of L2 writing. Most of previous studies in collaborative writing have mainly focused on intermediate or advanced level of L2 proficiency groups, which may not provide complete pictures of implementing collaborative writing in mixed proficiency levels. Some learners with a low proficiency level concerned about criticizing others and the difficulty of showing negative reactions in group negotiations. Some of the concerns above can be solved as learners are making a good relationship with each other and building trust on their peers. In doing so, teachers' role can be critical in providing good learning environments for learners. Studies of Mak and Coniam (2008) and Storch (2011) confirm that the willingness to contribute and collaborate in a coauthoring activity may take time to develop. In addition to students' attitudes toward collaborative activity, Watanabe (2008) reported that learners' past experience of collaborative work influences their attitudes on collaborative work. The negative experience of past collaborative work might make collaborative writing ineffective. Accordingly, learners' previous learning experience, interactional patterns and their attitudes on collaborative writing should be taken into consideration.

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BIODATA

Junghwa Kim is pursuing her Ph. D. in Applied Linguistics at Arizona State University. Her research interests include second language writing, intercultural rhetoric, language testing, and teacher education. She has 5 years of teaching experience in English reading and writing courses at universities.

Email: jkim344@asu.edu

Phone: 480-344-7655

Native English Speaking Assistants in Elementary EFL Classrooms: Blessing or Curse?

Juhyun Do (The Ohio State University)

I. Introduction

As communicative language teaching has increased in popularity throughout the world, one "solution" to the variable communicative competence of local English teachers has been to import native English speakers from "Inner Circle" countries--usually untrained in English language teaching--to work together with the locals. This case study examines strengths and problems of elementary school English classes using native English speaking "assistant teachers" (ATs) in one local setting under Korea's national program to bring native English speakers into the classroom--the English Program in Korea (EPIK) program. Understanding the circumstances of assistant language teaching in this local situation is one step toward helping us understand the overall English language learning situation in Korea and beyond.

The main questions posed in this research were: 1) What are the effects of Korean English Teacher (hereafter KT)-AT co-teaching on elementary students, and what do the students think about co-taught classes?; 2) What do KT co-teachers think about the EPIK program and co-teaching classes, and what should be done to improve co-teaching in their view?; and 3) What do AT co-teachers think about the EPIK program and co-teaching classes, and what should be done to improve co-teaching in their view? For the purposes of this presentation, I focus especially on the narrower issue of reported cultural differences among students, KTs, and ATs. Other findings are reported in Do (2009).

II. Background Information

1. Background of the English Program in Korea (EPIK)

According to Lee (2011), the English Program in Korea (EPIK) imports native English speaking ATs to work with KTs in the primary/secondary English classroom. EPIK seeks to enhance the English communicative skills of Korean students and teachers and to increase national competitiveness and cultural exchange in the era of globalization. EPIK was established in 1995 for these purposes; that year 59 native English-speaking ATs were brought in. Over the past 10 years annual AT numbers have increased steadily, with 9,320 ATs being hired in 2011.¹

2. Co-teaching in the EPIK program

Co-teaching can be defined as the complementary performance of teaching duties between KTs and ATs. For each class, KTs and ATs take turns leading different parts of the lesson. To give one example, while the AT introduces the day's topic, the KT hands out worksheets; then the KT conducts the lesson with the use of pictures and Total Physical Response. This gives the AT a chance to walk around the room and help lower-level students. During subsequent group work, both teachers monitor the class and help groups and individual students (Bae, 1997).

III. Methods

¹ The following represent totals of EPIK teachers per calendar year (with smaller numbers of teachers from three other programs — Fulbright, provincial, and city offices of education added in) (Lee, 2011).

Year	'95	'96	'97	'98	'99	'00	'01	'02	'03	'04	'05	'06	'07	'08	'09	'10	'11
# of ATs	59	60	856	274	176	146	140	131	541	866	1,017	1,909	2,937	4,332	7,997	8,546	9,320

1. Subjects

There were three groups of subjects in this study. The *student group* was comprised of 223 elementary students from four 5th and 6th grade classes at one elementary school in Daegu. The *KT co-teacher group* taught English at all 33 elementary schools where ATs were assigned at the time of the research in Daegu metropolitan city. The *AT co-teacher group* was comprised of those who taught English at the 33 designated elementary schools in Daegu.

2. Design and Procedure

Participants were given survey questionnaires asking their opinions on co-teaching in English classes with ATs. The survey questionnaires for students and co-teachers were written in Korean and the questionnaires for ATs were written in English.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Analysis of Questionnaire for Students

Students were asked what they think about their ATs' understanding of Korean culture. Table 1 reports students' opinions on ATs' understanding of Korean culture. As seen in Table 1, 93.6 % of 5th grade students said that ATs fully understand, generally understand, or understand Korean culture, while 81.6% of 6th grade students reported the same opinion. Therefore, there is evidence that students think ATs understand Korean culture, although more 5th grade students than 6th grade students hold that opinion.

Table 1
Students Opinions on ATs' Understanding of Korean Culture

	5th grade		6th grade	
	frequency	%	frequency	%
Fully understand	16	14.7	12	10.5
Generally understand	51	46.8	34	29.8
Understand	35	32.1	47	41.3
Rarely understand	6	5.5	13	11.4
Not at all	1	0.9	8	7.0

2. Analysis of Questionnaire for Korean Co-teachers

KTs were asked how they view ATs' understanding of Korean culture and Korean students. As seen in Table 2, 58.6% of KTs believe that ATs fully or generally understand Korean culture and Korean students. On the other hand, 41.3% think ATs understand a little or rarely understand Korean culture and students. Considering the students' view of ATs' understanding of Korean culture, as reported in section IV.1 above, the KTs tend to take a more critical view toward ATs' understanding of Korean culture.

Table 2
KT's views on ATs' Understanding of Korean Culture and Korean Students

	Frequency	Percent
Fully understand	7	24.1
Generally understand	10	34.5
Understand a little	5	17.2
Rarely understand	7	24.1

3. Analysis of Questionnaire for ATs

ATs were asked what their greatest difficulties with teaching were. As seen in Table 3, 41.7% of the ATs who answered this question (17 ATs did not answer this question) reported finding it difficult to teach English

because of cultural differences in the classroom. The second biggest factor cited was the language barrier with co-teachers (33.3%).

Table 3
ATs' Difficulties with Teaching

	Frequency	Percent
Cultural differences in classroom	5	41.7
Lack of time	1	8.3
Language barrier with the co-teacher	4	33.3
Attitude of the co-teacher	2	16.7

4. Conclusion and Implications

To summarize, students evaluated ATs' understanding of Korean culture highly, while KT's opinions were more divided, with about half evaluating ATs as having a full or general understanding of Korean culture and students and approximately 40% as having little understanding or rarely understanding. ATs themselves reported that their greatest single difficulty with teaching concerned cultural differences in the classroom. This suggests that cultural differences are a real issue in AT-KT co-teaching, and should be addressed. Further research on the specifics of these differences may provide detailed guidance on solutions to cultural issues; the results of the present study merely points to their existence, at least as regards ATs' and KT's perceptions.

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BIODATA

Juhyun Do is a Ph. D. Student in Foreign and Second Language Education at the Ohio State University. Her research interests focus on academic discourse socialization, intercultural competence, NNS/ NNES teacher education, and identity.

Email: do.89@osu.edu

Phone: 1-614-296-7295

Examining the Effects of Metacognitive Instruction and the Relationships between Metacognition, Self-efficacy, Strategy Use, and Oral Communication in EFL Classrooms

Ayako Kobayashi & Osamu Takeuchi (Kansai University)

I. Introduction

Amid ongoing globalization, English communication skills are important. In general, English communication skills include four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Among these skills, it has been said that Japanese university students lack especially speaking and listening skills, i.e., interaction skills/oral communication skills (OC). Because they are studying English in an EFL environment, it is not easy for them to develop such skills. Therefore, it is important to help them become more self-regulated learners so that they can learn more effectively and efficiently and improve their interaction skills. Research suggests that in order to help them become more self-regulated learners, metacognitive instruction can be beneficial as metacognition plays a key role in self-regulated learning (SRL) (Schraw, Crippen, & Hartley, 2006). However, research on how metacognitive instruction effects on students' metacognition, strategy use, motivation, and oral communication in EFL classrooms has not been conducted. Therefore, this study aims to examine the impact of metacognitive instruction on EFL learners' metacognition, self-efficacy, communication strategies, and OC by using structural equation modeling (SEM).

II. Procedure

1. Participants

The participants of this study were Japanese undergraduate sophomores, non-English majors ($N= 184$). They attended an OC course where metacognitive instruction was conducted for three months. They were guided to develop their metacognitive knowledge (e.g., awareness of themselves as a language learner, tasks, strategies, and learning processes) and self-regulatory skills (e.g., planning, monitoring, and evaluating) regarding OC.

2. Features of Metacognitive Instruction in OC

There were four main features of the current metacognitive instruction in OC. First, these processes of metacognitive instruction were included: 1. Awareness raising and goal-setting; 2. Modelling; 3. Practice; 4. Expansion; and 5. Evaluation (and goal-setting). These processes were chosen based on the relevant literature on metacognitive instruction and strategy instruction (e.g., Goh, 2008; Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters, & Afflerbach., 2006; White, Schramm, & Chamot, 2007). Second, metacognitive instruction was integrated into classroom activities. Third, students were encouraged to set their goals (they were encouraged to use interaction strategies intentionally during the class) and to reflect on their learning processes by using a goal-setting and reflection sheet. Fourth, a step-by step approach was used to help students build their skills and reinforce them. The students were given the opportunities to review the strategies taught and to practice them.

3. Method

These data were analyzed by using SEM: (a) the participants' pre and post-questionnaire answers; and (b) their pre and post-OC proficiency tests grades. The SRL in OC questionnaire (developed by Kobayashi and Takeuchi, in preparation) was used to assess students' metacognition, self-efficacy, and interaction strategies in OC classes. The SRL in OC questionnaire was based on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true of me*) to 7 (*very true of me*). Participants were tested for OC proficiency at the beginning of the course and at the end of the course ($\alpha = .975$). The personal information exchange task was chosen because it activates interaction. Casual conversation topics were chosen (e.g., what are you doing this weekend?) for the test. All the topics required basic vocabulary and grammar and the level of difficulty was carefully checked by English language teachers.

III. Results

Table 1 below shows a summary of descriptive statistics for the SRL in OC questionnaire and the OC scores. It also shows results of *t*-test (paired-samples) and effect sizes. According to Cohen’s (1988) guidelines, $r = .10$ (small), $r = .30$ (medium), and $r = .50$ (large).

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for the SRL in OC Questionnaire and the OC Scores

	Pre ($n = 92$)		Post ($n = 92$)		<i>t</i>	<i>r</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Metacognition	3.72	0.83	4.16	0.87	-4.60	0.44
Self-efficacy	2.77	1.17	3.45	1.34	-5.49	0.50
Interaction Ss	2.68	1.20	4.07	1.17	-9.75	0.72
OC	4.28	1.37	8.48	1.52	-24.45	0.93

Note. $p < .001$.

As you can see in Table 1, after the intervention, metacognition, self-efficacy, interaction strategies, and OC were all increased. With respect to metacognition, there was a medium effect size. With respect to self-efficacy, interaction strategies and OC, there were large effect sizes. Overall, it seems that the students became more self-regulated learners. Table 2 below shows a summary of the evaluation of measurement model fit of the hypothesized model. The results of model evaluation show that although two out of eight structural model fit indexes (GFI and AGFI) did not meet the acceptable fit thresholds, the other fit indexes (The chi-square/*df* ratio, the CFI, the RMSEA, the TLI, IFI, and NFI) suggested that the hypothesized model was meaningful and appropriate and that it had a good overall fit with the empirical data.

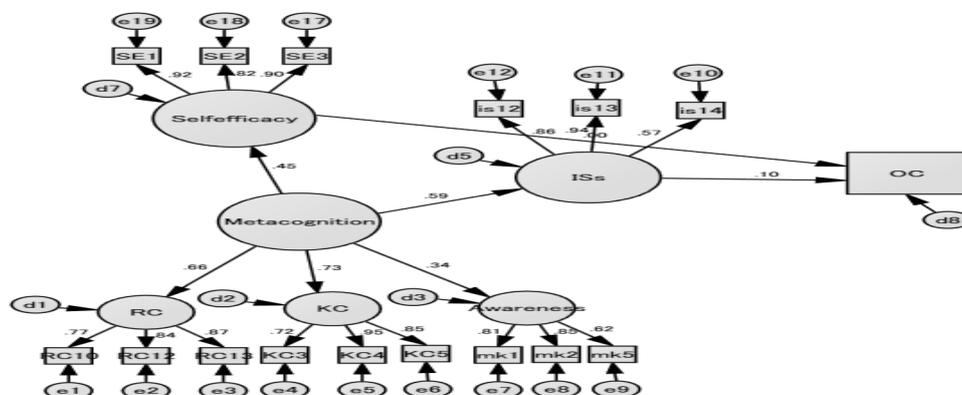
Table 2
Summary of the Evaluation of Measurement Model Fit

	χ^2/df	CFI	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	TLI	IFI	NFI
Acceptable fit	< 3	> .9	> .9	> .9	< .08	> .9	> .9	> .9
CFA model	1.53	.93	.83	.78	.05	.93	.94	.9

Note. CFI = Comparative fit index, GFI = Goodness of fit index, AGFI = Adjusted goodness of fit index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, IFI = Incremental fit index, NFI = Normed fit index.

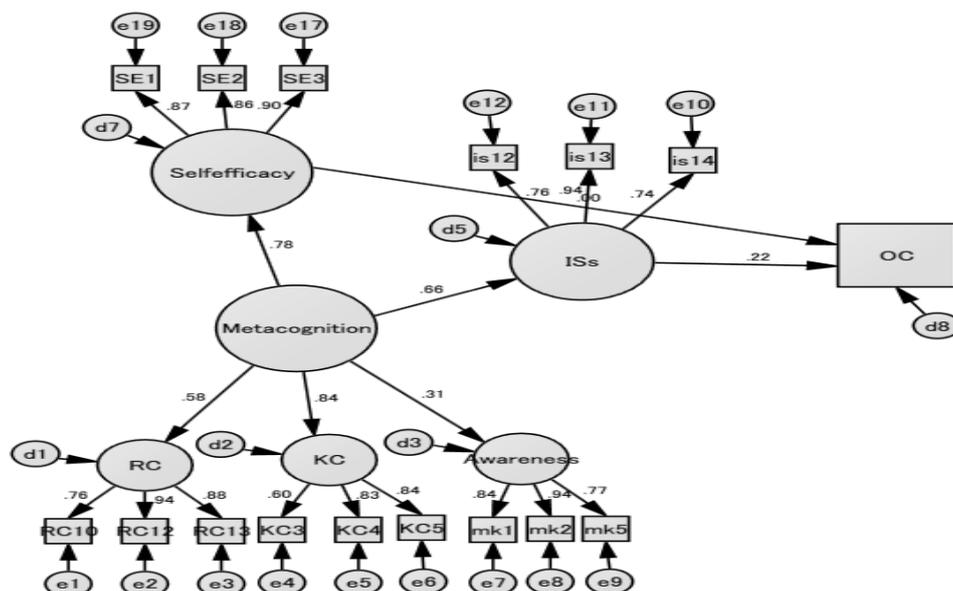
Figure 1 below shows the results of the hypothesized model before the intervention. Figure 2 shows the results of the hypothesized model after the intervention.

Figure 1
Results of the Hypothesized Model (Pre)



Note. Latent variable: ISs = Interaction Strategies. Indicators: is = interaction strategy, SE = self-efficacy, RC = Regulation of Cognition, KC = Knowledge of Cognition, mk = metacognitive knowledge, OC = OC scores. All the paths are standardized path coefficients, $p < .001$ except for the path from ISs to OC, which is not significant.

Figure 2
Results of the Hypothesized Model (Post)



Note. See Figure 1 for abbreviations. All the paths are standardized path coefficients, $p < .001$ except for the path from ISs to OC, $p < .05$.

Results indicated that after the intervention the path from strategy use to OC scores was significant. Furthermore, these two causal relationships were also strengthened: (a) between metacognition and strategy use ($.45 \rightarrow .6$); and (b) between metacognition and self-efficacy ($.45 \rightarrow .78$). Thus, we can conclude from the findings that the intervention had a significant impact on students' metacognition and their activated metacognition influenced their self-efficacy, interaction strategies, and OC. Furthermore, we can suggest from the findings that activated metacognition can lead to more effective learning.

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BIODATA

Ayako Kobayashi has been teaching English for more than 10 years. Currently, she is teaching at universities in Kansai area in Japan as a part-time lecturer. She holds an MA in ELT from Nottingham University. Her academic interest is learner autonomy. Her current research focuses on the effectiveness of metacognitive instruction in EFL classrooms.

Email: contepastel@hotmail.com

Osamu Takeuchi, Ph.D., is Professor of Applied Linguistics at Kansai University, Osaka, Japan. His current research interests cover L2 motivation, learner strategy, and self-regulation in language learning.

Email: takeuchi@kansai-u.ac.jp

Adult and Young EFL Learners' Attitudes towards Teacher Code-switching and English-only Instruction

Jang Ho Lee (Korea Military Academy)

I. Introduction

The present study aims to contribute to the important issue on whether teachers in foreign language classrooms should use the learners' first language (L1) for the purposes of instructing the target language (TL) – English in this study, by examining Korean EFL learners' attitudes towards teachers' language uses. Previous research has provided evidence that TL teachers generally adopt some limited L1 use (also known as code-switching) in their pedagogy regardless of educational context (e.g., Levine, 2003; Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004), and use it for a variety of functions (e.g., Gearson, 2006; Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002) such as teaching vocabulary and grammar, and classroom management. The present study investigates two EFL learner populations, 12-year-old children and university-level freshmen (around age 20 or so). The rationale for this is as follows. In South Korea most learners begin to learn English in a school environment at the age of 9. English language education has been strongly promoted by the Ministry of Education (2000) through the notion of teaching English in English (TEE), which implies that teachers are highly encouraged to conduct English classes in English (rather than in learners' L1). However, Korean teachers had difficulty in implementing this recommendation as found in early studies (e.g., Kim, 2002; Liu et al., 2004). What's worse is that we do not have much evidence (especially from a large scale study) as to whether our learners appreciate this type of instruction or not. The author argues that investigating learners' attitudes is crucial to the establishment of a sound pedagogical approach.

II. Literature Review

As one of the earliest studies on this issue, Macaro (1997) sampled English pupils at the secondary level and examined their attitudes towards teachers' language use. He found that only a minority were positive about dealing with a large amount of TL input, while a majority of the learners were worried about not being able to understand what was being spoken and taught. Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008) examined learners' attitudes in an introductory French course for university students in Australia. In this context, teachers were strongly encouraged to use target language to a maximum degree. Despite this atmosphere in the department, a majority of the learners found teachers' L1 use to be greatly helpful in understanding their TL vocabulary and grammar explanations. Burden (2004) looked into the conversation EFL classrooms in Japan, and he administered the same questionnaire to university students twice, at the beginning and end of the semester. The findings suggested that the proportion of students who believed that their English teachers should use their mother tongue (i.e., Japanese) was high (more than 90% at the beginning of the semester), and this figure dropped to a very small degree at the end of the semester.

III. Method

The present study uses a subset of data collected for a more wide ranging research project that examined the effects of teacher code-switching (CS) in South Korea (Lee, 2010). In order to avoid the effects of the putative presence (or absence) of a critical period, the author deliberately chose 12-year old children in their final year of elementary education (sixth grade), thus operationalizing them as beyond the critical (or sensitive) period. The author chose to compare this population to that of adults at university for the arguments made by some for English-only approach from the onset of learning. The two population learners, with some variation, would have been learning English for 3 and 9 years, respectively.

The procedure of data collection was as follows: first, exploratory interviews with 10 adults and 12 young learners were conducted with questions dealing with their ideas about teachers' English-only (EO) use, teachers' teaching methods and their English learning in general. Based on the interview, the author created a preliminary questionnaire (which deals with the issues such as EO instruction, teachers' CS, vocabulary learning and so on), and this questionnaire was piloted with 119 sixth grade students and 66 undergraduates. The preliminary

questionnaire was then revised in terms of its length and difficulty of language based on the piloting. The finalized questionnaire was administered to 311 adults enrolled in English courses at four colleges and 487 sixth-grade students at two elementary schools, all South Korean students.

IV. Results

Regarding teachers' language use, the EFL learners (in particular the young learners) generally did not favor EO instruction, but rather preferred to have at least some degree of teacher L1 in English lessons. The explanation for this result seems to lie in the fact that EO instruction is somewhat overwhelming and cognitively demanding for the young learners in the present study, in view of their limited English proficiency. This difficulty in taking EO instruction expressed by the learners was largely associated with lexical items, which frequently triggers comprehension problems on the part of learners. Based on the results of the questionnaire, it appears that the adult learners would prefer to have the higher ratio of English to Korean in terms of teachers' language in English lessons than the young learners. The results of the participant questionnaire and follow-up interviews further showed that the learners agreed to a large extent with the opinion that teacher CS enhances their understanding of the contents of lessons and that it delivers classroom management information (e.g. giving instructions about classroom activities, discussing class outlines) more effectively than EO instruction.

The adult learners generally seem to be more aware of the importance of English input and using English in classrooms to develop their English proficiency than the young learners; they were more responsible for their own learning than the young learners. It seems that these differences between the two age groups were due to the adult learners' additional experience in learning English. In addition, a higher percentage of the adult learners, compared with young learners, believed that the quality of teaching is more important than teachers' native language.

The results of the questionnaire items regarding the instruction in vocabulary learning showed that both age groups saw the value of using both languages, which would yield better vocabulary learning. The follow-up interview further confirmed the learners' preference for the CS resource, both in the oral (i.e. teacher CS) and written (i.e. dictionary entries) formats, which are more learner-oriented from their point of view. The two age groups also believed that understanding the meanings of the target words through their Korean equivalents and revisiting them in English sentence contexts would be the best way to learn English words. The learners did not strongly agree with the idea that EO instruction would help them comprehend or retain English vocabulary. While it was found that this result may be attributed to the fact that EO instruction is not comprehensible on some occasions for the learners, it was also revealed that the adult learners were willing to try out EO instruction for vocabulary learning as long as it is *comprehensible*. The adult learners also saw the value of such instruction as opening another path to learning new English vocabulary (as EO instruction itself might contain some unknown vocabulary).

V. Conclusion

The results of the present study concur with previous studies (e.g., Burden, 2004; Macaro, 1997; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). That is, learners generally do not prefer instruction that exclusively consists of target language. The findings here point to the need to re-evaluate the notion that English-only approach is more effective and appropriate than the approach integrating learners' first language into the instruction. The findings of the present study further imply that learners' age (or proficiency) may be an important factor to be considered in establishing the sound pedagogical approach.

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BIODATA

Jang Ho Lee received his DPhil in education from the University of Oxford. He is presently an assistant professor in the English Department at Korea Military Academy. His areas of interest are teachers' code-switching in English classrooms, learners' attitudes towards teachers' instruction, the effects of collaborative Focus on Form (FonF) tasks on English grammar learning, and mobile-assisted language learning.

Email: jangho330@gmail.com

Phone: (02) 2197-2746 / Mobile phone: 010-9269-3546

Day 1

Concurrent Session 2: Second Language Acquisition

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Session Chair: Young-In Moon (Univ. of Seoul)		
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10:00 - 10:30	A study of teaching writing skills through meaningful activities in elementary school English education Kyeryun Hyun (Nohyeong Elementary School)	65
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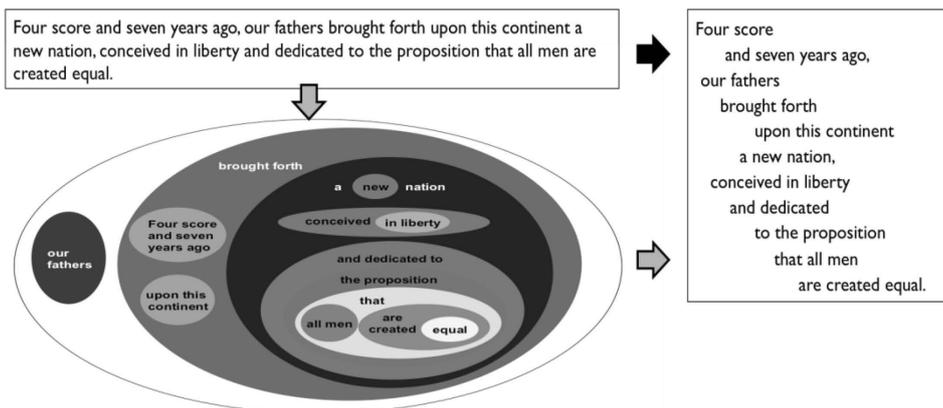
Syntactic Scaffolding on Literacy Development in EFL Contexts

Youngmin Park & Mark Warschauer (University of California, Irvine)
 Mijeong Oak (Busan Metropolitan City Office of Education)

I. Introduction

Proficient readers are characterized by automatic word decoding skills and effective language comprehension (Hoover & Gough, 1990; Scarborough, 2001). Even with automatic word decoding skills and a large vocabulary size, EFL readers are challenged by the syntactic difference between English and their mother language (for more discussion, see French-Mestre & Pynte, 1997; Shiotsu, 2010). In order to help overcome such a challenge, common practices in EFL classrooms include providing simplified texts and teaching grammar explicitly. These approaches, however, are criticized as being ineffective in preparing students for academic work (Scarcella, 2003). A recently developed tool called Live Ink that converts block texts into a cascaded arrangement may be one of the solutions for this issue. As seen in Figure 1, Live Ink technology converts texts into visual-syntactic text formatting (VSTF), which is a hierarchically phrased format and better matches readers' visual and cognitive processes. Lines are not only shorter, but they also demonstrate how phrases and clauses are structured in print.

Figure 1
 The Process of Converting Block Formatted Text into Visual-syntactic Text Formatting



The purpose of this study is to explore how modifying but not abridging texts to highlight syntactic structure (VSTF) can be incorporated into EFL class. Drawing on a number of successful studies with U.S. students across grade levels in reading/writing instruction to examine the effects of VSTF (Vogel, 2002; Walker et al., 2005, 2007), two separate studies were conducted each by a single teacher with Korean students. In these two studies, we examined (1) whether syntactic scaffolding improved EFL students' comprehension and (2) the domains of language that were influenced. In the following, the recent study in the U.S. (study I) is discussed together with the two studies in Korea (studies II and III).

II. Methods

The methods for each study are explained in Table 1.

Table 1
 Methods of the Three Studies

	Study I	Study II	Study III
Sample	Sixth graders in Southern California ($N=553$, 50 percent were native English speakers)	Eighth graders in a Korean middle school ($N=54$)	Twelfth graders in a Korean vocational high school ($N=167$)

Measure	English language arts (ELA) performance in California Standard Tests (CST) 2010-2011 and 2011-2012; five ELA subtests (word analysis, reading comprehension, literary response, written conventions, writing strategies)	A listening test from the previous year served as a pretest. As a post-test, a district-administered listening test was used. The results from school-wide reading tests were also compared between the two groups.	A final test from the previous year served as a pretest. Two reading comprehension tests based on each reading were given. Two school-based reading tests were also administered as posttests.
Study Procedure	<p>-As a treatment, all students ($N=347$) read the VSTF version of their ELA textbooks on their laptop for one school year, ranging from 30 to 120 minutes weekly.</p> <p>-Control students ($N=222$) read the two texts in regular block format.</p> <p>-Near the end of the school year, all of the students took CST, which served as a post-test and were compared with the CST results from the previous year.</p>	<p>-In listening classes, treatment students ($N=36$) read scripts in VSTF when studying sample tests with a native English- speaking teacher. They were also exposed to VSTF reading materials in reading classes.</p> <p>-In both listening and reading classes, control students ($N=18$) were given the same study materials but in regular format.</p> <p>-All students took one listening test during the study and another listening test as the post-test near the end of the semester. One reading test was administered during the study and one after the study.</p>	<p>-Treatment students ($N=71$) read three grade-appropriate books in VSTF for one hour weekly for four months. Before the study started, a teacher explained to the treatment students how VSTF and regular text format differed, but did not explicitly explain grammatical points during the study in order to avoid interfering with the natural flow of reading.</p> <p>-Control students ($N=96$) read the same texts in regular format.</p> <p>-Three reading comprehension tests were administered when each reading was finished. Students took two school-wide tests after the study.</p>

III. Results and Discussion

Using Stata version 12.1, we ran the ordinary least square regression to analyze the data from the three studies. While scaled scores were used for analyzing studies I and II, standardized z-scores were used for study III because measures in that study were scaled differently. On the pretest across the studies, there was no statistically significant difference between the treatment and control groups. We still controlled for the pretest scores in order to statistically equate all participants on their pretest scores, after which we examined their posttest scores.

1. Study I

1) Reading and writing

On average, sixth grade students in the study I who had read with VSTF during the year improved substantially and significantly more than their peers who did not read with VSTF on CST ELA scores. There was .18 standard deviation greater improvement in ELA for the treatment students, a sizeable educational advantage. Especially, significant benefits were found in the word analysis, written conventions, and writing strategies subtests, an outperformance of .38, .17, and .19 standard deviations respectively. The word analysis subtest requires students to use word, sentence, and context clues to interpret words with novel or multiple meanings. VSTF more clearly and saliently shows the relationship of individual words to phrases, clauses, and sentences. It thus appears that the use of VSTF over the school year may have allowed students to better observe the relationship of individual words to sentence structure and thus to better make use of sentential or textual clues to analyze word meanings and relations. The result of the written conventions subtest extends this claim. As this subtest entails students' ability to use both simple and complex sentence structures to express complete thoughts, not to mention basic grammar, the positive result in this subtest indicates that exposure to VSTF reading over a school year enabled the participants to deal with complex texts. Interestingly, VSTF reading positively affected writing skills, even though participants had no chance to use VSTF for their writing tasks. The writing strategies subtest assesses students' ability to use appropriate forms of writing, precise use of vocabulary to develop a topic, knowledge of effective organizational patterns including comparison and contrast or arrangement in a specific order, and the ability to revise writing for improvement of organization. In this sense, increased vocabulary analysis skills and improved knowledge of written conventions, in turn, led to better performance on such writing tasks.

2. Study II

1) Reading and listening

The positive effects of VSTF on reading development were confirmed by the studies in Korea. Among eighth grade students in Study II, the VSTF group outperformed the control group on the reading posttest by .70 standard deviations.

Although VSTF is a reading tool, its usage is not limited to reading class. Due to the difference between English and students' mother language in an EFL context, listening classes in an EFL context are often accompanied by reading scripts. Reading in listening classes helps students better understand the vocabulary, expressions, structures, and content found in listening materials. VSTF was used to facilitate such teaching and learning practice for listening development in Study II. On the pretest, the treatment students performed better than the control students, but this was not statistically significant. This difference was controlled for in the analysis. Although there was no significant difference in the students' performance during the study, the treatment students outperformed the control students on the posttest.

3. Study III

1) Reading

Twelfth graders did not show improvement on their reading tests until the end of the treatment. The VSTF group performed better on the school-wide test (posttest 1) after one semester of the treatment than the control counterpart by .45 standard deviations. However, there was no difference between the two groups on the posttest 2. This can be explained by the special condition of vocational school, where students participated in internships near the end of the semester. Between posttests 1 and 2, most of the participating students were not in class, so the effects of the treatment might have worn off.

IV. Limitations

While Studies II and III confirmed the positive impacts of VSTF on adolescents' reading development in Study I, Studies II and III were each conducted in a small number of classes for a shorter period by a single teacher. We suggest that it would be worthwhile to test VSTF in a variety of EFL classroom activities.

Though Study I implies that VSTF helped students' writing development, students who achieved better scores on written conventions and writing strategies are not necessarily able to write extended pieces. Developers can accommodate this need of students' extended writing by modifying the features of the software to help young writers examine and edit their own writing more easily.

V. Conclusion

These results converge to confirm the result from previous studies that using texts modified to highlight syntactic structure leads to greater gains in reading achievement. Extended usage of VSTF texts in writing and listening development in our studies provide implications for tailoring VSTF to EFL classrooms across all domains of teaching and learning English. Extensive empirical research is called for in order to confirm the effects of VSTF in a way to facilitate language instruction in the EFL context.

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BIODATA

Youngmin Park is a Ph.D. student in Education at the University of California, Irvine, specializing in Language, Literacy, and Technology. Previously a high school teacher and teacher trainer in Korea, she has published and presented on topics related to English teaching and learning in English as a Foreign Language environments. As a recipient of a fellowship from Korean Ministry of Education, she is using her studies at UCI to advance practical knowledge that she brings from her previous posts. Her research focuses on the use of digital media for English language learning, especially adolescent reading instruction. She is currently participating in research on Visual Syntactic Text Formatting (VSTF) to investigate the effectiveness of digital scaffolding in reading development.

Email: youngmp@uci.edu

Phone: 1-949-394-7354/82-70-7847-5707

Mark Warschauer is Professor of Education and Informatics at the University of California, Irvine and Associate Dean of UCI's School of Education. He has previously taught or conducted research in Russia, the Czech Republic, Egypt, and Japan. He is the founding editor of *Language Learning & Technology* journal. His most recent book is *Learning in the Cloud: How (and Why) to Transform Schools with Digital Media* (Teachers College Press, 2011). With funding from the National Science Foundation, Spencer Foundation, Haynes Foundation, and Google Research, he is currently investigating the use of digital tools to promote improved literacy and learning among diverse K-12 students.

Email: markw@uci.edu

Mi Jeong Oak is a high school teacher in Korea. She holds three B.A. degrees in home economics, history education, and English education. After ten years of teaching experience in high schools, she pursued her M.D in English education. As she is now working at a vocational high school, her interests include ways to motivate low-performing or de-motivated adolescent language learners. In this respect, her master's thesis reflects her stance and teaching practice. It is about the reading effectiveness of visual-syntactic text formatting. She continues to research and develop methods in English literacy instruction, which meet foreign language learners of English.

Email: eve0405@empas.com

A study of Teaching Writing Skills through Meaningful Activities in Elementary School English Education

Kyeryun Hyun (Nohyung Elementary School)

I. Introduction

Since the mechanical writing for teacher-centered activities makes it difficult to improve the writing skills gradually, and discourages the desire for learners to write, it is necessary to connect learners' own experience and choices to the actual writing. When it comes to teaching how to write, it is significant to develop various teaching techniques which can relate to the learners' experiences and interests in order to gain learners' interest and motivation. This study will analyze a writing activity from a textbook being used at school in order to find out better approaches, and to develop practical writing techniques. These include the meaningful writing and communication-centered activities that vary according to the level of learners and their interest to assist in elementary English education.

II. Methodology

The specific ways for this study are as in the following. At first, we will research the theoretical basis and the direction of study by reviewing reference books about teaching English writing for elementary students and the previous study. Secondly, we will find out the parts that should be amended after analyzing the textbook for the 5th graders with laying a focus on the session for presenting writing activities and writing types. Lastly, we will devise the method for communication-centered writing activities which can be applied to English education in elementary school. However, this study has some limits. First of all, this study has mainly focused on the textbook that is only used in certain school where the researcher presently works, so there is a limit to generalizing the outcome of this study. Second, it cannot be deniable that there may be a subjective point of view from the researcher since some activities have been sorted or analyzed by the researcher's intuition.

III. Result

1. Teaching Model

Table 1
Teaching Model

Stages	Activities
Think	Elicit related words – Brainstorming, Mind mapping, etc. Talk about related experience
Write	Write about learners' own experience
Share	Present writing, Have quiz time

2. English Writing Activities

Table 2
English Writing Activities

	Min	Stages		
		Think	Write	Share
3. Do You Want Some More?	My Favorite Food	Foods from around the World	Introducing my favorite food	Talking about what we want to try
4. Where Is the Ball?	My Future Room	What I have in the room	Drawing my dream room and describing that	Guessing whose room it is
7. How Beautiful She is!	My Friend	How cartoon characters look like	Introducing my favorite friend	Guessing who it is
8. What Time Do You Get Up?	My Future Schedule	Different kinds of jobs What I want to be in the	Thinking about My schedule in 20 years	Guessing what someone's job is

9. Did You See the Moon?	My Happy Memory	future Flash back to my happy days with pictures	Description what happened in the picture	An Exhibition of photographs
12. I Want to Be a Teacher	My Dream	Different kinds of jobs	What I like and what I can do well	Recommendation appropriate job for presenters

IV. Conclusion

This study has devised the writing model to improve the better communicative skills by analyzing the writing activities in the textbook A for 5th graders according to the types of writing and finding out the problems to reinforce the methods. The conclusion could be made through the result of this study. Firstly, we have noticed that there are many types of writing using the applications of the text and pictures in the textbook A for the 5th graders according to the analysis of writing types. Also we could notice that the error-correction activity is implemented every lesson during the first semester, followed by filling in the blank, arranging words in order and dictation. The above four activities are mainly used among 42 types of writing while the rest activities are rarely used. Since learners are likely to get bored of doing the same types of activities, more various types of writing activities should be needed. Secondly, the four activities mentioned above are rather simple and accuracy-focused, causing learners to lose their interest. In order to make English writing in elementary more effective, learners should not just write words and sentences under controlled condition, but create their own writing through the actual activities which can relate the writing to their experience in a meaningful way. Thirdly, the writing class is often finished with only writing itself, but the outcome should be integrated with communicative activities. Several writing models have been devised and applied to the textbook and we have found out those activities are naturally integrated with other skills such as speaking, reading and listening. By using written language and reinforcing spoken language, those activities can provide the opportunity to use the target language and draw more participation from learners.

Based on this study, several ideas are suggested. There have been many studies in regards to teaching English for phonetic language in elementary but the study is not enough for teaching English writing. Recently many studies are being done about teaching how to read but still teaching how to write hasn't been emphasized in English education in elementary. As a result, writing activities are only repetitive or mechanical, but the writing techniques to enhance the communicative skill should be devised as students are getting more interested in how to be a better writer. Secondly, I used the specific textbook for 5th graders, but writing activities can be interconnected by analyzing other textbooks and different graders. Thirdly, the appropriate standard for analyzing the actual textbook should be needed. Lastly, the application is necessary to see how the teaching model for English writing devised for the better communicative skills will help learners' participation in writing activities and improvement of writing skills.

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BIODATA

Kyeryun Hyun is a teacher of Nohyung Elementary School in Korea. She is a PhD candidate majoring elementary English education. Her academic interests are primarily focused upon teaching English to young learners and teacher-training.

Email: assapurple@naver.com

H.P: 010-5613-5614

A Strategic Approach to Oral Errors in the EFL Classroom

Douglas Paul Margolis (University of Wisconsin, River Falls)

I. The Need for a Strategic Approach

Error feedback constitutes a primary responsibility of instructors in all learning contexts. In language learning, however, the role of error feedback has been subjected to scrutiny due to theoretical suggestions that language learning operates on principles distinct from general learning and that language acquisition requires only the comprehension of natural input without instruction regarding form (Krashen, 1982). A good deal of the second language acquisition error feedback literature has sought evidence for or against this input perspective, or its leading contenders, regarding both written and oral language errors. Oral error feedback, the focus of this paper, has been investigated in class contexts (i.e., Lyster & Ranta, 1997), dyadic interactions (i.e., Philp, 2003), experimental conditions (i.e., Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998), and natural conversation (i.e., Brock, et al, 1986). Most of this research has been done from a cognitive interactionist perspective, although studies influenced by a Vygotskian, or sociocultural (see for example, Nassaji & Swain, 2000) and conversation analytic perspective (for example, Seedhouse, 2004), among others, exist. A growing consensus emerging from the research seems to be that oral error feedback does have a role to play in second language acquisition, but for the question of exactly how oral errors should be addressed, there is less agreement. In fact, the need of researchers to isolate variables has led to creative research designs that find evidence for the efficacy of particular error feedback types (see for example, Long, et al, 1998; and Lyster & Ranta, 1997), without conclusively informing language teachers whether errors should always be addressed or always addressed via the same feedback type. Researchers, moreover, need to focus on theoretical and methodological concerns that often preclude consideration of classroom dynamics, student needs, and the other particulars of authentic classroom contexts. As such, language teachers looking for answers about what to do with their students' errors are likely to be disappointed by the error feedback literature. This paper seeks to buck this trend and identify practical implications of this literature for teaching. To achieve this goal, I draw on a business approach: the cost-benefit analysis, and explain how this model can serve oral error feedback decisions. Then I describe the specific decision components of error feedback provision.

II. Cost-Benefit Analysis

While the oral error feedback research has resulted in a greater degree of sophistication in our understanding of oral feedback interactions and a general consensus that providing some form of feedback when student utterances are "ill-formed" would be beneficial, most of the research has narrowly examined the possible positive effects of feedback without considering potential negative impacts. Margolis (2007: p. 71), for example, identifies the following potential negative impacts of oral error feedback: (a) discourages students, (b) creates or heightens anxiety, (c) strengthens learner dependency on the teacher, (d) imparts inaccurate metalinguistic information, (e) confuses students with ambiguous information, and (f) reinforces intolerance of ambiguity, to name a few.

If we accept the possibility that the provision of feedback could lead to both positive and negative outcomes, then the decision to provide feedback is no longer a dichotomous do or don't. Moreover, this decision cannot only consider the variability of potential effects, but must also recognize the different potential costs of providing feedback. Giving feedback consumes time, energy, and attention. Teachers take time away from the lesson plan to give feedback and the focus on the error can distract students from the lesson topic.

By necessity then, teachers must consider both the costs of feedback provision as well as the likely benefits that might accrue from it. Taking this step leads us to a typical cost-benefit analysis. Obviously, teachers will not have time to weigh the costs and benefits each time a student commits an oral error, but adopting this approach, teachers can develop tools that prepare them for potential errors and appropriate responses. The following sections discuss features of an error feedback cost-benefit analysis, pointing out the key decisions involved in feedback provision in order to encourage a more conscious and strategic approach when making these decisions.

III. Prioritizing Errors

All errors are not equal. One of the first steps toward a strategic error feedback approach is prioritizing errors. Teachers cannot and should not correct every error. Doing so would waste class time. How do we determine what is wasting class time? Anything that takes resources away from efficient learning opportunities and occupies students with inefficient activities is wasting class time. Some examples of wasting class time include instruction on highly technical and rarely used vocabulary in a class devoted to general language proficiency or focusing on whether students aspirate the /p/ phoneme in “spot” and “spoke.” Both could be appropriate learning objectives in high level language classes, but in the majority of EFL classes, both would consume too many resources with very little progress to show for it. In other words, these activities would provide too little bang for the buck. In the same way, teachers need to pick and choose which errors to focus on in order to maximize the feedback value.

The error feedback literature includes taxonomies classifying errors based on the effect of the error, such as whether it stigmatizes the learner or makes the message unintelligible; based on pedagogical concerns, such as whether the student's error related to a class topic, was a frequent form in the class, or considered teachable; or based on the source of the error, such as phonological, syntactic, pragmatic, and the like. (For a summary of 14 of these taxonomies and the studies where they appear, see Margolis, 2007, p. 58.) Given that errors are not created equal, for an effective cost-benefit analysis teachers need to consider each error carefully, which is difficult to do in the spur of the moment. James (1998) uses the term “error gravity” to express the difference between forms that ought to be addressed versus ones that should probably be ignored. Teachers tend to have their own sense of error gravity, but taking the time to make conscious choices about error prioritization may help teachers develop consistent and effective feedback strategies. James, for instance, argues that errors that block comprehensibility, irritate listeners, or miscommunicate intended messages would be more grave than other errors and thus correcting them would be a higher priority.

Error prioritization is a step in the cost-benefit analysis that needs to be done in advance. Teachers should collect samples of student errors over a period of time to consider their differing error gravity. This practice will prepare teachers for when errors appear in the classroom and help instructors make quick triage decisions. By deciding in advance the types of errors that will be addressed, teachers ensure that the feedback value is maximized and not watered down. In fact, most of the error feedback research that found positive benefits had limited feedback provision to one or two specific error types.

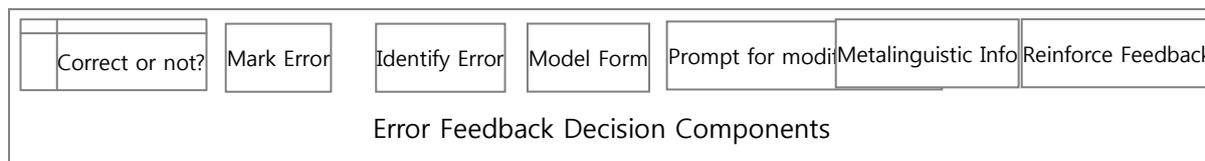
IV. Feedback Decision Components

Making decisions in advance about what error types to address also helps teachers notice them when they arise. An equally important consideration to error prioritization, however, is how we organize our time, energy, and attention to address errors that we decide are worth the expenditures. Teachers face several options. The more implicit the feedback, the less costly, but also the more likely students fail to notice the feedback. The more explicit, the more noticing occurs, but also the more costly. One feature of feedback that adds to the explicit side of the continuum is marking the learners utterance as an error. If a teacher recasts a student's utterance, or repeats it in a confirmation check, or prompts the student for modified output with a clarification request, the student is receiving feedback, but not necessarily obtaining information that declares their utterance ill-formed. All three of these negotiation moves lean toward the implicit side of the feedback continuum. If, however, the teacher signals that an error has been made, either with intonation, gestures, or specifically stating the case, then all these negotiation moves become more explicit feedback.

Marking the error, however, is only the first of several decisions teachers can make regarding feedback costs. A second decision is whether to identify the error. Marking the error informs the student that an utterance was ill-formed, but it does not clarify what part of the utterance failed. The student must discern whether the teacher is indicating a phonological problem regarding a particular phoneme, word stress, or intonation, a grammatical problem, a word choice issue, or other phenomenon that may or may not be on the student's radar. Making sure that a student knows that an error was made and clearly specifying what the error is takes the feedback up a notch on the explicitness scale. Another notch toward explicitness can be obtained by providing students with the correct form in contrast to the error identification. A recast, for example, gives students a model of the correct form. A recast, however, remains implicit without marking and identifying the error. When the error is marked and identified, the recast becomes a more explicit form of feedback, and likely elicits student uptake.

There still remains two levels of explicitness further that teachers can add to feedback. First, giving students metalinguistic information explaining why their form was incorrect and why the L2 requires the correct version. This information can help students generalize the correction to similar instances of the error. Second, reinforcing the feedback by giving students tasks that support the retention and incorporation of the feedback. My presentation will provide some tools and ideas to support these decision points.

The context of the error in part determines which options are best. One feedback type does not fit for all situations. Hence, if the class is working on a project and fluency practice is the focus, more implicit forms of feedback are warranted. On the other hand, if accuracy practice is the focus, then teachers would probably lean toward more explicit feedback decisions. Above all, teachers need to recognize that errors present a set of decisions to us, and that our decisions will lead to a more effective use of class time if we make them strategically.



V. Time

Another important decision to make is when to deliver the feedback. Most error feedback research investigates feedback delivered in the turn immediately following an error. However, a strategic approach might demand withholding the feedback until a later time, possibly because the class is focused on meaning in that particular moment, experience with the student suggests they might not handle the feedback well, or for other reasons interrupting the flow of the class at that moment for feedback provision would be inappropriate. In such cases, feedback could be delivered at a later point in the class or even in a later class.

VI. Conclusion

Responding to student oral errors is not a simple task. Adopting a strategic approach aligns feedback with lesson and course objectives, making the costs of providing feedback more likely to produce the desired benefits. By understanding the different decision components that comprise feedback provision, teachers can adjust feedback to fit context demands and achieve more bang for the buck. This presentation, based on classroom observation research in Korea, discusses feedback from an instructional cost and benefit analytic perspective and offers participants tools to support their strategic approach for handling errors.

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BIODATA

Douglas Paul Margolis is an assistant professor of the University of Wisconsin, River Falls, where he teaches courses for the TESOL Program. His research interests include oral error feedback in L2 classrooms, suprasegmental pronunciation instruction techniques, the role of practice and noticing in second language acquisition, and assessing language proficiency.

Email: douglas.margolis@uwrf.edu

Phone: (001) 715-425-3754

Effects of Types of Input Distribution on the Learning of Grammatical Rules by Korean Elementary School Students

Min-Ju Sung & Sang-Ki Lee (Korea National University of Education)

I. Introduction

Usage-based accounts of language learning suggest that frequency distribution can have an effect on construction learning. In particular, some of the extant studies have shown skewed distribution—a low variance distribution in which prototypical exemplars appear in high frequency—to be a potential determinant of learning (e.g., Boyd & Goldberg, 2009; Ellis & Ferreira-Junior, 2009). Natural linguistic corpora also demonstrate that the most frequent word occurs approximately twice as often as the second most frequent word, three times as often as the third most frequent word, etc. This skewed distribution in language use may have a significant impact on learning constructions (Goldberg, Casenhiser, & White, 2007). This quasi-experimental study was designed to examine whether types of input distribution (skewed first, skewed random, and balanced) would lead to differential effects on learning. It was expected that the skewed distribution would lead to a better performance of Korean elementary school students in their learning of the ditransitive construction in English.

II. Literature Review

Whether approached from a usage-based perspective or from an instructed SLA perspective, frequency has been shown overall to be an important factor in second language (L2) learning and to have facilitative effects on processing and learning of linguistic forms (Ellis & Schmidt, 1997; Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001; Lee, Miyata, & Ortega, 2008). In relation to the frequency effects on the productivity of learning, many researchers also wanted to investigate any relative effects of skewed input versus balanced input. Skewed input contains more exemplars created from one prototypical lexical items, while the other lexical items occur less frequently. In balanced input, the distribution of exemplars across the lexical item has equal token frequency (McDonough & Trofimovich, 2013).

First language (L1) studies have shown that skewed input is more beneficial for the acquisition of novel constructions than balanced input for child and adult speakers (Casenhiser & Goldberg, 2005; Goldberg, Casenhiser, & Sethuraman, 2004). Additionally, Goldberg et al. (2007) found that skewed first input (which is operationalized as presenting skewed exemplars initially at the beginning of a treatment session) is more effective than presenting all the exemplars at random (so called skewed random input). These findings are contrasted with several other L2 studies that could not find such beneficial effects of skewed type of input, including Lee (2008), Year and Gordon (2009), Nakamura (2012), McDonough and Trofimovich, (2013), and McDonough and Nekrasova-Becker (in press). Some of them even reported that it was balanced input that was more effective of the two. It appears that more studies should be added in this research domain to tell the relative benefits of types of input distribution with more confidence, which motivated the current study.

III. Methods

1. Participants

The participants of this study were fifth-year students at a public elementary school located in Busan, Korea ($n = 67$). They were randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups (skewed first, skewed random, and balanced) and one control group. The ANOVA results on their pretest scores showed that the four groups did not statistically differ from each other, $F(3, 63) = 0.19, p = 0.95$.

2. Target Construction

The target construction of this study was the English ditransitive, which has the syntactic frame of 'SUBJ-V-OBJ1-OBJ2' and the meaning of 'transfer of possession.' Five ditransitive verbs (*give, send, hand, lend, and buy*)

were chosen to be used in both treatment and test sessions. In order to assess the extent to which the learners generalize the learned knowledge, five additional verbs, *show*, *pass*, *sell*, *bake*, and *make*, were used in the test session only. During the treatment session, all the participants experienced a total of 20 instances of the five target verbs but in different learning conditions. In the skewed first condition, *give*, presumably the most prototypical member, was presented 12 times, and afterwards the other four verbs were presented two times each. In the skewed random condition, the same 20 verb tokens were randomly presented to the participants. In the balanced condition, each of the five verbs contributed four tokens and the total 20 tokens were randomly presented to the learners.

3. Materials

1) Treatment materials

The participants of the study watched short video clips describing various episodes. Each episode showed a short scene in which an agent transferred an object to a recipient. Each video clip was less than 20 seconds long and the total number of the slides was 20. Each slide included a short sentence at the bottom that contained one of the five target verbs. All the sentences were recorded by a male native English speaker and presented aurally to the participants.

2) Comprehension test materials

The extent to which the students understand the target construction was measured through three comprehension tasks: a video clip selection task, an argument selection task, and a sentence selection task. A video clip selection task ($k = 20$) was a forced-choice comprehension test, which required the participants to choose the video clip that corresponded to what they heard. An argument selection task ($k = 11$) was to assess the students' knowledge about the roles of the indirect and direct objects. A sentence selection task ($k = 24$) was a multiple choice test, which was to measure how well the students knew the word order of the target construction.

IV. Results and Discussion

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted with the level of significance set at 0.05. As shown in Table 1, the skewed first group ($M = 26.06$) performed best and the balanced group ($M = 24.93$) outperformed the skewed random group ($M = 21.89$) on the posttest. The posttest means of the four groups were statistically significantly different from each other, $F(3, 63) = 5.15, p < .01$. The multiple comparisons of Dunnett's T3 showed that the mean differences between the skewed first and the control groups and between the balanced and the control groups were statistically significantly different. Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the delayed posttest scores of the four groups. The ANOVA revealed that the treatment conditions had statistically significant effects on the participants' performance on the delayed posttest, too, $F(3, 63) = 4.64, p < .01$. The post hoc analyses revealed, however, that it was only between the skewed first and the control groups that showed a statistically significant difference in their means on the delayed posttest. The sizes of the effect of the skewed first distribution were the largest in both the posttest and the delayed posttest sessions ($d = 1.45$ and 1.33 , respectively). These findings may suggest the overall frequency effect, and also the beneficial roles of skewed first input in the learning of the English ditransitive construction by Korean elementary school students.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Posttest Scores

Group	<i>n</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max	Effect Size (<i>d</i>)
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Skewed First	17	26.06	3.54	24.24	27.88	18.00	30.00	1.45
Skewed Random	18	21.89	7.31	18.26	25.52	4.00	30.00	0.36
Balanced	15	24.93	3.67	22.90	26.97	19.00	30.00	1.18
Control	17	19.65	5.29	16.93	22.37	13.00	30.00	
TOTAL	67	23.06	5.74	21.66	24.46	4.00	30.00	

Note. Effect sizes were calculated with the control group ($n = 17$) as the contrast.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of the Delayed Posttest Scores

Group	n	Mean	SD	95% CI for Mean		Min	Max	Effect Size (d)
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Skewed First	17	26.24	3.70	24.33	28.14	20.00	30.00	1.33
Skewed Random	18	21.61	6.71	18.28	24.95	10.00	30.00	0.20
Balanced	15	24.40	3.89	22.25	26.55	18.00	30.00	0.89
Control	17	20.41	5.09	17.80	23.03	13.00	28.00	
TOTAL	67	23.10	5.46	21.77	24.44	10.00	30.00	

Note. Effect sizes were calculated with the control group (n = 17) as the contrast.

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BIODATA

Min-Ju Sung is currently studying at Korea National University of Education for her master's degree.

Email: smj8547@gmail.com

Cellphone: 010-6237-3171

Sang-Ki Lee is an assistant professor at Korea National University of Education. His research interests include instructed SLA and cognitive linguistics.

Email: slee@knue.ac.kr

Phone: 043-230-3513

A Structural Equation Model of Korean EFL Learners' Perceptual Learning Styles, L2 Self, and English Proficiency

Yoon-Kyoung Kim & Tae-Young Kim (Chung-Ang University)

I. Introduction

This study investigated the interrelationship between perceptual learning styles, English learning motivation, and achievement of Korean EFL learners. Expanding on previous studies (e.g., Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009), this study initially hypothesized that particular perceptual learning style pREFERENCES, especially visual style, would contribute to developing more vivid ideal second language (L2) self and more motivated behavior, which would lead to higher levels of L2 proficiency. The research questions were postulated as follows:

- (1) To what extent are perceptual learning styles, imagination, the ideal L2 self, motivated behavior, and English proficiency related among elementary, junior high, and high school students?
- (2) What is the structural relationship between perceptual learning styles, imagination, the ideal L2 self, motivated behavior, and English proficiency among Korean EFL learners?
- (3) What are the major differences in the structural model based on different school levels?

II. Methodology

A total of 2,471 EFL learners (934 elementary, 412 junior high, and 1,125 high school students) in a metropolitan area were surveyed between July and October, 2011. The questionnaire was administered from July to October 2011. The collected data were explored using Pearson product-moment correlation analysis for the first research question. As for the second and third questions, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted in order to establish and evaluate a conceptual model including observed and latent variables. An initial model was piloted, and then, in order to identify more theoretically robust relationships, revisions to the initial model were made.

III. Results

1. Correlations Between the Perceptual Learning Styles, Motivational Variables, and English Proficiency

The results showed the overall patterns that visual and auditory styles were positively correlated with imagination, the ideal L2 self, motivated behavior, and English proficiency. However, kinesthetic style exhibited negative correlations with those motivational variables and proficiency.

Table 1
Correlations Between the Variables Based on School Levels

		Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Imagination	Ideal L2 self	Motivated behavior
Auditory	Elementary	.502** (.000)	-				
	Junior high	.415** (.000)	-				
	High	.246** (.000)	-				
Kinesthetic	Elementary	.106** (.001)	.310** (.000)	-			
	Junior high	.102* (.027)	.330** (.000)	-			
	High	.133** (.000)	.395** (.00)	-			
Imagination	Elementary	.321** (.000)	.431** (.000)	.407** (.000)	-		
	Junior high	.327** (.000)	.420** (.000)	.305** (.000)	-		
	High	.295** (.000)	.342** (.00)	.277** (.00)	-		
Ideal L2 self	Elementary	.507** (.000)	.387** (.000)	.082** (.009)	.391** (.000)	-	
	Junior high	.462** (.000)	.367** (.000)	.039 (.399)	.284** (.000)	-	
	High	.344** (.000)	.216** (.00)	.017 (.553)	.306** (.00)	-	
Motivated	Elementary	.559** (.000)	.447** (.000)	.063* (.045)	.355** (.000)	.753** (.000)	-

behavior	Junior high	.418** (.000)	.396** (.000)	.015 (.753)	.268** (.000)	.700** (.000)	-
	High	.375** (.000)	.242** (.00)	.043 (.138)	.259** (.00)	.685** (.00)	-
English Proficiency	Elementary	.312** (.000)	.129** (.000)	-.022 (.497)	.104** (.001)	.365** (.000)	.331** (.000)
	Junior high	.291** (.000)	.186** (.000)	.014 (.775)	.089 (.072)	.373** (.000)	.398** (.000)
	High	.168** (.000)	.031 (.299)	-.127** (.00)	.032 (.285)	.340** (.00)	.459** (.00)

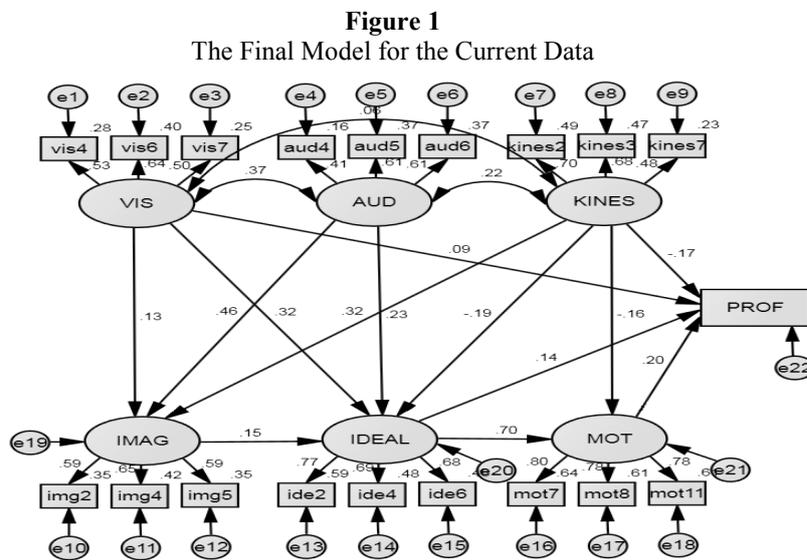
Note: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; Elementary school=934, Junior high school=412, High school=1,125

Among elementary school students, elementary school students' visual, auditory, and kinesthetic styles were significantly interrelated with their ideal L2 self and motivated behavior. Especially, their visual style possessed higher correlation coefficients with their ideal L2 self ($r=.507$) and motivated behavior ($r=.559$) than auditory and kinesthetic styles. Secondary students' visual style was also more highly related to the ideal L2 self and motivated behavior than was their auditory style. This suggests that more visually-oriented EFL learners in Korea are likely to possess more vivid ideal L2 self and show higher level of motivated behavior. However, even though visual and auditory styles of Korean EFL learners consistently showed relatively high and significant correlations with their ideal L2 self, the correlation coefficients decreased from elementary to high school. Given this, the intensity of the relationship of the ideal L2 self with perceptual learning style seems to become weaker as Korean students proceed to high school.

The correlation between the ideal L2 self and motivated behavior was the strongest in each case of elementary ($r=.753$), junior high ($r=.700$), and high school students ($r=.685$). This indicates that the more vivid the ideal L2 self of Korean EFL learners becomes, the higher level of motivated behavior they exhibit in their English learning, and vice versa. Moreover, the participants' ideal L2 self and motivated behavior denoted significant correlations with English proficiency, which were relatively higher than those between perceptual learning styles and imagination with English proficiency. Given this, there seems to be a potentially direct relationship between the ideal L2 self, motivated behavior, and English proficiency among Korean learners of English.

2. The Structural Relationship of Perceptual Learning Styles, Motivational Variables, and English Proficiency

Figure 1 shows the final version of the structural equation model, which proved to adequately fit to the present data with statistically significant regression weights as well as satisfactory goodness-of-fit statistics. The model confirmed that visual style had the most substantial influence on high proficiency, mediated by the ideal L2 self and motivated behavior.



Standardized direct, indirect, and total effects in the paths of the final model are represented in Table 2 for a closer investigation. First, all of the perceptual learning styles had direct impacts on the ideal L2 self as well as indirect influences on the ideal L2 self through imagination. This corroborates that various perceptual learning style preferences are reflected on developing vivid ideal L2 self. Especially, visual style exhibited the greatest impact on the ideal L2 self ($\gamma=.338$). The smallest effect on the ideal L2 self was found in kinesthetic style ($\gamma=-.146$).

Table 2
Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects in the Final Model

Path	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
	Estimates	Estimates	Estimates
Visual → Imagination	.134***	-	.134**
Auditory → Imagination	.457***	-	.457**
Kinesthetic → Imagination	.323***	-	.323**
Visual → Ideal L2 self	.318***	.019*	.338**
Auditory → Ideal L2 self	.230***	.066*	.296**
Kinesthetic → Ideal L2 self	-.193***	.047*	-.146**
Imagination → Ideal L2 self	.145**	-	.145*
Visual → Motivated behavior	-	.237**	.237**
Auditory → Motivated behavior	-	.208**	.208**
Kinesthetic → Motivated behavior	-.164***	-.102**	-.266**
Imagination → Motivated behavior	-	.102*	.102*
Ideal L2 self → Motivated behavior	.701***	-	.701**
Visual → Proficiency	.086**	.096**	.182**
Auditory → Proficiency	-	.085**	.085**
Kinesthetic → Proficiency	-.166***	-.075**	-.241**
Imagination → Proficiency	-	.041*	.041*
Ideal L2 self → Proficiency	.142***	.143**	.286**
Motivated behavior → Proficiency	.205***	-	.205**
SMC(R ²)	Imagination: .45 Motivated behavior: .53		Ideal L2 self: .28 English proficiency: .17

Note: *p<.05; **p≤.01; ***p<.001

As for the effects of perceptual learning styles on motivated behavior, only kinesthetic style exerted a direct influence on it, albeit negatively ($\gamma = -.164$). The other perceptual learning styles were positive predictors of motivated behavior via mediating functions of imagination and the ideal L2 self. The ultimate destination of SEM in this study is English proficiency. It was revealed that the most substantial predictor was the ideal L2 self ($\beta = .286$). Even if the ideal L2 self had a smaller amount of direct influence on proficiency than motivated behavior, it showed a larger effect on English proficiency in total. Given this, the ideal L2 self can affect achieving more successful English proficiency when mediated by motivated behavior.

3. The Differences in the Structural Model Based on School Levels

In terms of contribution to motivated behavior, the ideal L2 self showed statistically significant effects at the level of 0.001 in all cases of elementary, junior high, and high schools. However, the explanatory power consistently decreased, suggesting that the role of the ideal L2 self in leading to motivated behavior becomes less important at higher school levels.

Table 3
Comparison of the Structural Model for Elementary, Junior High, and High School Students

Path	Elementary	Junior high	High
Visual → Imagination	.045	.052	.241***
Auditory → Imagination	.523***	.510***	.362***
Kinesthetic → Imagination	.405***	.248**	.189***
Visual → Ideal L2 self	.360***	.319**	.235***
Auditory → Ideal L2 self	.213*	.297*	.233***
Kinesthetic → Ideal L2 self	-.228***	-.117	-.169***
Imagination → Ideal L2 self	.234*	.042	.169**
Kinesthetic → Motivated behavior	-.101**	-.160**	-.157***
Ideal L2 self → Motivated behavior	.777***	.771***	.640***
Visual → Proficiency	.135*	.185*	.076
Kinesthetic → Proficiency	-.089*	-.106	-.223***
Ideal L2 self → Proficiency	.342***	.211	.122*

Motivated behavior → Proficiency	.060	.115	.271 ^{***}
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Note: *p<.05; **p≤.01; ***p<.001

Also, the negative influence of kinesthetic style on motivated behavior was identified among the participating students in all of the school levels. Kinesthetic style also exerted negative influences on achieving higher levels of English proficiency. Although the influence was minor for elementary school students ($\gamma=-.089$), it proved to be relatively greater for high school students ($\gamma=-.223$). Thus, it seems that kinesthetic style preference can be more problematic for Korean high school students' English learning.

Finally, it is noteworthy that elementary school students' ideal L2 self and high school students' motivated behavior proved to play the most significant role in accomplishment of better English proficiency. Junior high school students' data did not exhibit any helpful roles of the ideal L2 self and motivated behavior for their English proficiency. When observing differences based on school levels, elementary school students' ideal L2 self led to better proficiency without a significant intervention of motivated behavior. For high school students, motivated behavior was the most crucial factor affecting proficiency. Junior high school students' ideal L2 self and motivated behavior were not identified as the factors influencing English proficiency.

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BIODATA

Yoon-Kyoung Kim is a Ph.D. student at Chung-Ang University, South Korea. She completed her master's thesis on Korean EFL secondary school students' English learning motivation focusing on the perspective of the L2 Motivational Self System. Her current research interests involve changes in L2 learning motivation, demotivation, teacher motivation and demotivation, activity theory, and complexity theory.
Email: yk.em.kim@gmail.com

Tae-Young Kim (Ph.D. OISE/University of Toronto) is an Associate Professor in the Department of English Education at Chung-Ang University, where he teaches both undergraduate and graduate courses in applied linguistics, and coordinates Graduate School of Education (English major). His research interests include ESL/EFL learning/teaching motivation, demotivation, sociocultural theory, and qualitative methodology. He has published over 50 papers on various topics in L2 motivation. His recent studies have been published in the *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *System*, the *Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, and *Asia Pacific Education Review*.
Email: tykim@cau.ac.kr
Phone: (02) 820-5392

Day 1

Concurrent Session 3: Materials and Curriculum

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The Initial Effectiveness in the Process of L3 Acquisition

Zhenai Zhang (Yanbian University, China)

ABSTRACT

In China, the minority English education is based upon two language systems, their mother tongue (L1) and second language (L2), so it belongs to the third language acquisition (L3) and third language education. This condition provides us with a good environment for doing researches on the third language acquisition, and make contribution to the language acquisition research. Through comparative study between the acquisition features of English as L2 and L3, we had the following findings: L3 acquisition, the same as L1 acquisition and L2 acquisition, follows the basic rules of language acquisition. However, there are differences between the acquisition of English as L2 and L3. Bilinguals have more advantages of cognitive potential and language aptitude than monolinguals when they learn the third language. Furthermore, there are distinguishing process features between L2 and L3 acquisition. Then what's the influence of bilinguals' two language systems and two kinds of learning experience on their third language acquisition? On the base of the above research and question, this paper puts forward a hypothesis; there exist initial effectiveness in the process of L3 acquisition. Through a series of experiment studies, we proved this hypothesis.

BIODATA

Zhenai Zhang is a full-time professor at the English department in Yanbian University, China.
E-mail: zazhang@hanmail.net

Subsyllabic Structure Differences and English L2 Spelling Accuracy

Chaehee Park (Sun Moon University)

I. Introduction

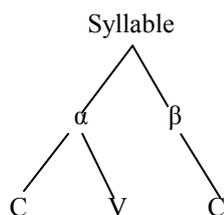
According to Ziegler and Goswami (2005), when children are exposed to spoken language at the early stages of reading acquisition, the phonological contribution seems to be made at larger grain size units. When children begin learning to read and spell in later stages, smaller grain size units play a more significant role. For instance, the substructure of the one syllable word *cat* consists of /k/ (onset), /æ/ (nucleus), /t/ (coda). Initially, they seem to recognize the sound of the word *cat* as a whole and begin segmenting the sound to a rather larger grain size; onset-rhymes (/k/ - /æt/). However, when children start learning to read and spell, they seem to recognize smaller grain size units of the word such as /k/, /æ/, /t/. Recognition of relative a larger grain size is different between English and Korean (see literature review for details). In Korean, body-coda preference (/kæ/ - /t/) is rather prominent in contrast to English language (onset-rhyme preference). This pilot study examines English L2 spelling based on this subsyllabic structure differences.

II. Literature Review

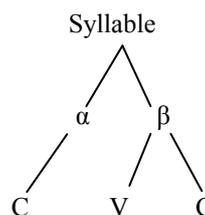
The speech sounds usually include phonological units such as onset-nucleus-coda (internal structure of syllable) and syllable levels. Children's awareness of the internal structure has been found to develop sequentially in English (Stahl & Murray, 1998; Treiman, 1985; 1992; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991). Internal structure of syllable (sub-syllabic unit) also relates to the development of phonological awareness. One of the important views on this syllable internal structure is that a syllable does not consist of only linear strings of segments (Fowler, Treiman, & Gross, 1993). Rather, two-phoneme sequences are intrinsically more closely associated with each other than the other two-phoneme sequences in the syllable. The syllable internal structure of language is represented with tree diagrams to account for the subsyllabic structure difference in Korean and English.

Figure 1
Structural Representation of the Syllable (Yoon & Derwing, 2001)

(a) CV- Cluster Hypothesis



(b) VC-Cluster Hypothesis



It is well supported that the boundary between onset and rhyme is salient in English (Figure 1b, VC cluster hypothesis). In other words, English speakers parse CVC monosyllabic words into a C/VC partition (Treiman, 1983; Fowler, Treiman, & Gross, 1993) in which the major boundary lies between the onset and the nucleus of the syllable. This finding is also supported by the prominence of the rhyme unit in reading English (Treiman, Mullenniz, Bijeljac-Babic, & Richmond-Welty, 1995; Kessler & Treiman, 1997; Goswami, 1988, 1993, 1998). More specifically, these researchers also suggested that the phonological structure of the language plays an important role in forming grapheme phoneme correspondence in orthography and in learning to read.

As for the Korean sub-syllabic structure, Yoon and Derwing (2001) found that Korean children have a preference for syllable-initial CV (body) units over syllable-final VC (rhyme) sequences (Figure 1a, CV cluster hypothesis). In their study, they conducted different types of experiments to clarify the status of rhyme vs. body constituents in the Korean language. One of the experiments was a sound similarity judgment (SSJ) task focused

on monosyllabic CVC-CVC pairs. In this task, students listened to pairs of words and rated on a scale of how similar each pair is in overall sound. For instance, in CVC pairs composed of body sharing parts (e.g., pan-pat) and rhyme-sharing parts (e.g., pan-tan), if the body (onset-nucleus) were a more salient part of the Korean syllable than the rhyme (nucleus-coda), the body sharing pairs should be judged more similar than the rhyme sharing pairs and the body variable should account for more variance than the rhyme variable. They found that pairs sharing the body unit were judged significantly more similar than pairs sharing the rhyme.

Furthermore, Kim (2007) used blending and segmenting tasks to examine four different phonological units: syllable, onset-rhyme, body-coda, and phoneme. In these tasks, Korean L1 children listened to audiocassette-recorded sounds and were asked to either combine or segment sounds. For instance, in the onset-rhyme task of the segmenting task, the children listened to [kɔŋ] and were asked to segment it into the onset -rhyme unit /k/ and /ɔŋ/. The results indicated that the syllable tasks were easiest for the children, followed by the body-coda tasks. The body-coda tasks were easier than the phoneme tasks and the onset-rhyme unit tasks were the most difficult indicating that body-coda boundary (e.g., ca-t) is more salient than onset-rhyme boundary (e.g., c-at) for Korean children. This finding suggests that Korean children's knowledge in the similarity of the spelling sequence in the body facilitates word reading and spelling development in Korean. These results confirm that the onset-rhyme boundary prominent in English is not universally accessible across languages (Share & Blum, 2005; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). Based on the difference of subsyllabic structure prominence, following research question was posed:

- (1) Does the spelling accuracy of Korean L1 learners of English differ depending on the position (syllable initial or syllable final) of the phonemes in the words?

III. The Study

1. Participants

Thirty native English speaking children and 36 native Korean speaking children who are learning English as a foreign language participated in this experiment. The English group was recruited from three private schools located in Muncie, IN (14, 10, and 12 students from each school). The Korean group was recruited from a public elementary school in the urban area of Metropolitan Gwangju, South Korea. The researcher contacted the principals of each school in Muncie, IN and the research assistant contacted the principal at the school in Korea. All participants had received formal education in their L1 through third grade which ensured that they were phonologically developed in their L1. The teacher reported that all participants in each group can read and write in their L1. The children in this study came predominantly from middle class families and the children's parents had received university level education and regarded education as important to their children's scholastic development.

2. Materials

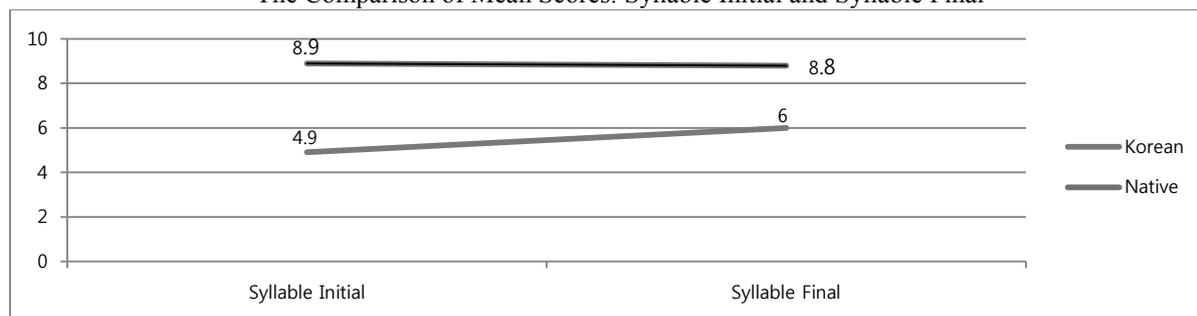
Twenty-four monosyllabic pseudowords were created. To address students' spelling accuracy in the word initial and word final positions, the target phonemes were placed in either syllable initial or syllable final, and only consonants (syllable initial and syllable final) were considered to score points. For the initial consonant, when participants spell only one letter (consonant as in *p _ _* for [pim]), or consonant and vowel (e.g., *s i _* for [siv]) in order, it was considered as the initial consonant. For the final consonant, when the participants spelled vowel and following consonant (e.g., *_ i s* for [vis]), it was counted as the final consonant. When the participants spell two consonants without a vowel between them (e.g., *m _ p* for [mɛp]), the first was counted as initial <m> and the second as final <p>. Participants received two points for items answered correctly, one point for items misspelled by one letter, and zero points for items misspelled by both consonants. The task was administered during class time but it was not a part of the regular lesson. Before the task, the classroom teacher explained the purpose of the task, and the primary researcher administered the task.

3. Results

Figure 2 illustrates summaries of mean scores and standard deviation of syllable initial (SI) consonant and syllable final (SF) consonant for each language group (max score 12). The mean scores of the English group was 8.9 ($SD = 2.0$) for the syllable initial consonant, and 8.8 ($SD = 1.6$) for the syllable final consonant. The mean scores of the Korean group was 4.9 ($SD = 2.7$) for the syllable initial consonant, and 6.0 ($SD = 2.1$) for the

syllable final consonant. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with language background (English vs. Korean) as the between-participants factor, and syllable position (syllable initial vs. syllable final) as the within-participant factor. The main effect for language background was significant, $F(1, 64) = 58.054$, $MSE = 389.536$, $p < .0001$, $\eta_p^2 = .476$, indicating that the Korean group score is lower than the English group. The main effect for syllable position was not significant $F(1, 64) = 2.057$, $MSE = 5.989$, $p > .05$, indicating that there is no difference in mean scores in syllable initial and syllable final. However, the interaction between L1 groups and syllable positions was significant $F(1, 64) = 4.430$, $MSE = 12.898$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .065$, indicating that the difference of mean scores between the syllable initial and the syllable final in the Korean group is much larger than that of the English group.

Figure 2
The Comparison of Mean Scores: Syllable Initial and Syllable Final



4. Findings

Research on the sub-syllabic structure sensitivity in both English L1 and Korean L1 has supported the idea that the boundary between onset and rhyme is salient in English. English speakers parse CVC monosyllabic words into C/VC partitions (Treiman, 1983; Foweler et al., 1993) in which the major boundary lies between the onset and the vowel of the syllable. However, in the study on the Korean sub-syllabic structure sensitivity, it has been found that Korean children have a preference for syllable-initial CV (body) units over syllable-final VC (rhyme) sequences (Yoon & Derwing, 2001; Kim, 2007). The results of this study indicated that there is a difference in the sensitivity to the sub-syllabic structure difference between the English group and the Korean group. As seen in Figure 2, the Korean group tends to correctly spell the syllable final (6.0) which is coda compared to syllable initial (4.9) which is onset, whereas the English group does not show much difference between the syllable initial (8.9) and syllable final (8.8). Thus far, there is limited research on Korean L1 learners of English L2 spelling, but the results of this study partially suggest that Korean L1 learners of English are sensitive to syllable coda rather than syllable onset in their English L2 spellings.

IV. Conclusion

Although further research focusing learner's sub-syllabic structure sensitivity is necessary, the results of this study suggest that Korean L1 learners of English show coda preference in their English L2 spelling as in Korean L1. The finding of this study suggests that learners' dependence on the body-coda grain size unit needs to change to the onset-rhyme grain size to facilitate English L2 spelling learning process.

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BIODATA

Chaehee Park is an assistant professor in the department of English at Sun Moon University, Republic of Korea. His research area mainly includes L2 spelling and vocabulary acquisition.

Email: chpark@sunmoon.ac.kr

Phone: (041) 530-2423

A Corpus Analysis of English Quantifiers and Partitives

Yu Kyoung Shin & Isaiah WonHo Yoo (Sogang University)

I. Introduction

Defining quantifiers as “[s]ome determiners [that] specify nouns in terms of quantity,” Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan (1999, p. 275) point out that they can combine with both indefinite and definite noun phrases and “[i]n the latter case they are generally followed by *of*” as shown in these examples: *some money* vs. *some of the money*; *many girls* vs. *many of the girls*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 349) also point out that partitive constructions are “normally definite,” and they provide the following contrasting examples:

- (1) a. Many of the delegates complained.
- b. *Many of delegates complained.

Although not using the term *definite noun phrase*, Carter, McCarthy, Mark, and O’Keeffe (2011, p. 100), and Parrott (2010, p. 44) also state that quantifiers can be used with “*of* together with a referring determiner (*the, this, my, etc.*),” as in (2), and “*of the* or *of*+ possessive adjective,” as in (3).

- (2) **Some of his** friends are awful people. (Carter et al., 2011, p. 100)
- (3) **Many of our** friends came. (Parrott, 2010, p. 44)

However, as the following two corpus examples show, such phrases with quantifiers do not always take definite nouns. As shown in (4), *much of* can be followed by an indefinite article or a bare noun without a determiner.

- (4) a. To be honest, we haven’t given that **much of a thought**. (Frown)
- b. Science eliminated **much of magic and superstition**. (Brown)

While learners of English have difficulty acquiring many aspects of articles, most learners have particular difficulty when the articles combine with a quantifier. Errors with such constructions are commonly found in essays written by learners of English. The sentence in (5) provides an example from a learner who omitted the definite article, which is required before the count noun *high school students* because it is preceded by the quantifier phrase *many of*.

- (5) ***Many of *(the)** high school students think that Sogang is very tight in study. (Learner Corpus)

Confounding the problem is the fact that partitive constructions such as *plenty of*, which is not a quantifier, are followed by indefinite plural nouns, as in (6).

- (6) A generation ago, there were **plenty of people** who appreciated antiques and fine reproductions. (Brown)

As shown above, the usage of a determiner within a phrase does not necessarily follow the rules proposed in grammar books; however, very few studies have examined systematic uses of determiners as part of quantificational phrases. In traditional grammars, such phrases have been consistently introduced in the form of “quantifier (or quantifying noun) + preposition *of*.” Yet the content phrases should be extended to incorporate a following determiner, because articles are said to be difficult for second language (L2) learners of English even at an advanced proficiency level. By investigating the determiners that follow a range of quantifier phrases, this corpus-based study will provide L2 English learners with useful information to help them use the phrases more properly.

II. Method

This study uses two native speaker corpora, i.e. Brown and Frown, and one learner corpus. The learner corpus of written data was built on writing samples from first-year students at Sogang University collected in February 2010. A total of 806 students were asked to write an essay as part of the placement test for mandatory freshman English classes. The 37 English quantificational phrases analyzed in this study were selected from 10 current English grammar books. Of the 37 quantificational phrases we investigated, 19 are quantifier phrases and 18 are partitives. We first closely examine the following determiners after each phrase in the two native corpora to see if there are any exceptions to the rules presented in the current grammar texts.

III. Results and Discussion

The Brown and the Frown corpora yielded a total of 5,566 occurrences of 37 English quantificational phrases. For this study, each quantifier phrase and partitive was closely examined in terms of the embedded NPs, as summarized in Table 1. The definite NP types in the data include those with the definite article, demonstratives, and possessives, as well as several other noun types under “other” in the table: objective pronouns, proper nouns, *wh*-words, reflexive pronouns, quantifications, and numbers. Indefinite NP types contain those with indefinite articles *a/an* and bare nouns without a determiner.

Table 1
The Number of Tokens of Embedded NPs After QPs and Partitives

	Definite NPs	Indefinite NPs	Total
QPs	3,307 (97%)	104 (3%)	3,411 (100%)
Partitives	990 (46%)	1,176 (54%)	2,155 (100%)
Total	4,297 (77%)	1,280 (23%)	5,566 (100%)

Note: QPs refers to quantifier phrases

The two kinds of quantificational phrases show distinctive differences regarding the definiteness of embedded NPs: the quantifier phrases take definite NPs for 3,307 tokens (97%) and indefinite NPs for 104 tokens (3%), while the partitives take definite NPs for 990 tokens (46%) and indefinite NPs for 1,176 tokens (54%). The examples in (7) show a quantifier phrase (a) and a partitive (b) followed by definite embedded NPs.

- (7) a. At least 60 stations devote **all of their time** to reaching this audience in about half of the 50 states.
(Brown)
b. **A segment of this route** was placed in the 1990 road bond issue. (Frown)

In example (8), a quantifier phrase (a) and a partitive (b) take a bare noun without any determiner.

- (8) a. When his audience had had **enough of music** he would discourse on politics or tell stories of his western adventures guaranteed to excite the emotions of men and women alike. (Brown)
b. We are keeping **a number of surprises** under our hats. (Brown)

As the example of (8a) demonstrates, contrary to the traditional account some quantifier phrases indeed take indefinite embedded NPs. Similarly, there seem to be several partitives that occur mostly with indefinite NPs and others that take only definite NPs, unlike typical partitives, which occur with both definite and indefinite NPs. Therefore, based on the probabilistic usage of embedded definite and indefinite NPs, quantificational phrases are classified into the three groups, with the distribution given in Table 2.

Table 2
The Number of Tokens of Definite NPs & Indefinite NPs After QPs and Partitives

	Definite NPs	Indefinite NPs	Total
Det-obligatory	3,272 (99%)	33 (1%)	3,305 (100%)
Contextual	943 (80.5%)	229 (19.5%)	1,172 (100%)
Zero-likely	82 (7.5%)	1,007(92.5%)	1,089 (100%)
Total	4,297 (77%)	1,280 (23%)	5,566 (100%)

The Det-obligatory group includes most of the quantifier phrases and three partitives (i.e., *the rest of*, *the remainder of*, and *the whole of*). The second group, Contextual, contain some of the partitives and four quantifier phrases (i.e., *much of*, *enough of*, *more of*, and *less of*). The last group, Zero-likely, includes the rest of the partitives, including the phrases that are classified as quantifiers by some grammarians (e.g., Quirk et al., 1985). The learner corpus contains 775 tokens of 23 English quantificational phrases. Fourteen of the phrases from the native speaker corpora (i.e., *either of*, *another of*, *certain of*, *several of*, *the rest of*, *the remainder of*, *the whole of*, *enough of*, *less of*, *a/the remnant of*, *a/the segment of*, *an abundance of*, *an amount of*, *a quantity of*) did not occur in the learner corpus. Of the 23 phrases found in the learner corpus, nine have more than 10 tokens each (a total of 730 tokens), and these are closely examined in this analysis.

Table 3 gives the percentages of the errors in using determiners as part of English quantificational phrases found in the learner corpus. The Korean college students most frequently made errors on *many of* (15 tokens, 55.5%),

followed by *most of* (41 tokens, 44%), *all of* (25 tokens, 40%), *a/the part of* (16 tokens, 34%), *some of* (3 tokens, 12.5%), and *one of* (13 tokens, 9.5%), while they rarely made such errors with *a lot of*, *lots of*, and *a number of*.

Table 3
Tokens of Errors in Quantificational Phrases Used by Korean College Students

Category	Phrases	Errors (%)	Total
Det-Obligatory	<i>one of</i>	13 (9.5%)	136
	<i>some of</i>	3 (12.5%)	24
	<i>many of</i>	15 (55.5%)	27
	<i>most of</i>	41 (44%)	93
	<i>all of</i>	25 (40%)	63
Contextual	<i>a/the part of</i>	16 (34%)	47
Zero-likely	<i>a lot of</i>	2 (0.9%)	201
	<i>lots of</i>	0 (0%)	127
	<i>a number of</i>	0 (0%)	12
Total		115 (15.8%)	730

The sentences in (9–12) provide examples of errors in the use of following determiners in the groups of Det-obligatory and Contextual, mainly involving omissions of the definite determiners.

- (9) **Some of *(the) teachers** don't try to upgrade their teaching skills.
 (10) **Most of *(the) Koreans** step back when exotic looking people approach.
 (11) For example, we can take **all of *(the) classes** in our school.
 (12) **Part of *(the) mountain** must be changed to downtown.

Unlike the high error rates in the Det-obligatory and Contextual groups, the error rates of the Korean students were quite low in the Zero-likely group. They used these phrases fairly correctly, as in (13) and (14), with an error rate of 0.6% on average—which is expected, as the learners tend to underuse articles.

- (13) **A lot of people** have maintained to solve this problem.
 (14) **A great number of people** will visit my hometown to participate in the festival.

Admittedly, the high accuracy rate with Zero-likely phrases does not necessarily reflect learners' grammatical knowledge. A feasible explanation that may account for learners' high accuracy in using bare nouns is one put forth by Master (1988). In his study, the zero article (\emptyset) is the predominant article used by L2 English learners coming from article-less languages, resulting in very near 100% accuracy. He explains that this could be attributed to the peculiar nature of the zero article because the absence, presence, over-generalization, and incorrect use of zero articles by L2 English learners are all indicated in the same manner.

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BIODATA

Yu Kyoung Shin is a Ph.D. candidate (ABD) in the Department of English Literature and Linguistics at Sogang University. She received her M.A. in TESOL from Sookmyung Women's University. Her research interests include language acquisition, written corrective feedback, and corpus linguistics.

Email: sheen@sogang.ac.kr.

Isaiah WonHo Yoo is Associate Professor in the Department of English at Sogang University. After an undergraduate psychology education at UC Berkeley, he earned a Ph.D. in applied linguistics from UCLA and taught EAP for three years at MIT. His research focuses on how corpus linguistics informs language pedagogy and how definiteness is expressed in English and other languages such as Korean, Japanese, and Chinese. His recent articles appeared in the *Journal of Pragmatics*, the *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, the *Journal of English Linguistics*, and the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*.

Email: iyoo@sogang.ac.kr.

A critical Discourse Analysis of a Global Commercial English Language Textbook: “*I didn’t recognize about that before you talking*”

Linda A Fitzgibbon (University of Queensland)

I. Introduction

Ideology is a concept that has been a concern for scholars of applied linguistics (Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1998; Phillipson, 1992), as language textbooks are known to be shaped by dominant ideologies (Luke, 1985, van Dijk, 2004). To Fairclough, ideologies are “representations of the world which contribute to establishing and maintaining power, domination and exploitation (2003, p. 218), and to Brookfield they are “broadly accepted set[s] of values, beliefs, ... and justifications that appear self-evidently true, ... personally relevant, and morally desirable to a majority of the populace (2005 p. 41). Thus, ideology is problematic in foreign language classrooms when using global commercial ELT course books because administrators, instructors, and students may find it difficult to notice and challenge representations of world that appear to be true. Althusser (1984) recognized that ideology ‘recruits’ people into accepting ideas as reality. Accordingly, I argue that South Korean students may be disadvantaged when using global commercial course books because the reality in them is ‘true, accurate, relevant, and desirable’ to the people who wrote them, and as we know, these books are written by people outside of South Korea.

I problematize the unquestioned use of global commercial EFL textbooks in compulsory Practical English 실용영어classes in universities in South Korea. These books are problematic in that they contain hidden ideological messages posing as normal and natural to the average university student (Chapelle, 2009; Francis, 1995; Simon-Maeda, 2004). In particular, I am concerned that global commercial textbooks promote of Imperialism, Colonialism, and Orientalism which demean Korea and Koreans As Pennycook (1998) writes that discourses associated with these ideologies ‘adhere to English’, these EFL books warrant urgent critical analysis.

II. Methodology

1. Data

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is, in general, concerned with questioning assumptions, for example, the nature of reality and its representations, therefore it was used to examine the entire contents of one global commercial English language textbook: *Top Notch 2 (TN2)* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006) for its ideological content. The local distributor determined it as being one of the best-selling English books used in South Korean universities. To be respectful to critical theory, and mindful that I have a personal interest in this research, yet to avoid defining understandings for South Koreans, I conducted open-ended guided interviews with Korean students, using a phenomenological approach. I used this approach because it can reach deep issues, and it allows voices to be heard. The purpose of PR is to illumine the specific phenomena to determine how it is perceived from first-hand personal experience.

2. Data Analysis Procedure

Fairclough is careful to note that the data analysis stage is not purely mechanical. It is a critical object in and of itself (2001, p. 22). The first stage of CDA is descriptive, the second is interpretative, and the final stage is explanatory. I conducted extensive examinations of the textbook, Fairclough advises an analyst to ‘look and then look again’ (Fairclough, 2001). In this way, I investigated every page of the textbook. I conducted informal and interactive interviews using an open-ended questionnaire, and active listening strategies. After the interviews were transcribed, I aggregated the data using colored post-it notes. The bundle of colored notes summarized what each participant said about each of the topics. Common reactions to images of Korea and South Koreans, and reactions to the values, beliefs, and attitudes in *TN2* emerged as major themes.

III. Results and discussion

1. Linguistic Imperialism

Imperialism is found on the Acknowledgements Page of *TN 2* because the first group, at the top of the page, is labeled *Top Notch* International Advisory Board. In this group, twenty-two names from Inner and Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1990) are listed. The first finding is that the people from the U.S.A. represent all speakers of English. In addition, names on the page indicate that people from the Inner Circle speak for people in the Expanding Circle. To illustrate, Doreen Gaylord speaks for Japanese, Louis Pardillo for Koreans, and Frances Westbrook for Thai people.

The second group, Reviewers and Piloters, includes four people from the U.S.A, who solely represent the Inner Circle, and ninety-five people from Expanding Circle countries. In this group, we find G. Julian Abaqueta representing Thailand, Beth Bartlett representing Colombia, Marie Cosgrove and Gene Hardstark representing Japan, Julian Charles King representing Qatar, and Massoud Moslehpour representing Taiwan. The practice of having people from outside the local context speaking on behalf of the local populace is an example of linguistic imperialism (Canagarajah, 1999; Phillipson, 1992). Pennycook (1998, p. 162) questions the common practice of speaking about the Other “with easy authority”. One of the participants, Sunny said, “*I can feel excluded, they [publishers and writers] tried to do, to excluded some other uh, countries but especially Korean....*”

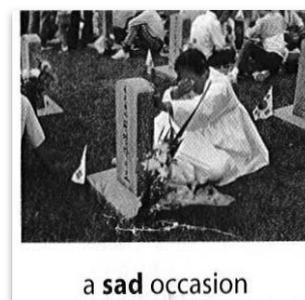
2. Colonialism

My particular interest in the images is to identify the ways that Korea and Koreans have been objectified¹ and constructed as the Other. The participants recognised that Korea and Koreans had been Othered in these two images. I offer two examples.

Figure 1
From page 12



Figure 2
From page 77



Shin said: *Um Korean Folk Village*, (following his eyes to the photos of a London bus and the Tower of Pisa in the same activity). *I think they could find a better one for Korea. I don't know why they put these guys here? We have Gyeongju, scattered towers which is also nice but they just show a Farmer's Dance. I think a ancient building or a famous person, Kim Eun ha is better.*

Jimmy said: *I'm little bit feeling against using ... shouldn't be like that. But the sad could be the sad scene but shouldn't be negative (for Korea). We have to respect for this halmoni² and for somebody who die fighting for the country, But shouldn't be negative. This photo (Figure 2) should be replaced.*

3. Orientalism

The following image (Figure 3) illustrates one way in which Orientalism appears in *TN 2*. The image shows Europe as being complex, sophisticated, verdant, and populated. In contrast, Africa and Asia are depicted as being arid, empty, and inert. The map of Europe shows people, cities, and activities, while Asia and Africa are

¹ To present or regard something or someone as an object, and not as people (in these cases)

² 할머니

depicted as *terra nullius*. One participant, Tony said, “I can feel from here this picture ... [the] green part is more developed, and this yellow part is still very struggling with economical developing, or poverty. I am a Korean, and I don't feel good” (about the representation of Asia). Hyun said that she couldn't notice anything specific, and asked me to help her. I drew her attention to the colors, people, and buildings in Europe, and then slowly and meaningfully she said, “I didn't recognize about that before you talking.”

Figure 3
Map from page 13



IV. Conclusion

My research shows that *TN 2* includes the ideologies of Imperialism, Colonialism, and Orientalism. I argue that students in compulsory EFL classes at universities would benefit by using textbooks which reflected their own representations of the own world, and to be exposed to language learning materials in which Korean ways of being and knowing receive equitable treatment. I conclude that further CDA needs to be undertaken to generate awareness of the ideologies that exist in global English textbooks, which may lead to the marginalization, disempowerment, and discouragement of South Korean students, particularly those in compulsory *실용영어* classes. This conclusion is in line with the student's comment: “I didn't recognize about that before you talking. After awareness has been raised, one remedy would be to tailor the images and discourses in English as a Foreign Language education to the realities of South Korean university students. This remedy could create emergent discourses that respect and include South Korean representations of the world. Such changes would be in agreement with the emancipatory aspects of the work by Freire (1973) and Giroux (1982).

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BIODATA

Linda Fitzgibbon holds a Bachelor of Education, and an MA TESOL from the University of Canberra in Australia. Linda taught in South Korea for ten years. During this period, she taught English as Foreign Language (EFL), as well as working with EFL teachers, both in-service and pre-service. Her academic interests include critical theory, and discourse analysis that can contribute to the development of humanistic teaching pedagogy. In 2010, Linda was a finalist in the University of Queensland's UniQuest, a research commercialization competition. Currently, Linda is a fulltime PhD Candidate in Applied Linguistics at the University of Queensland, Australia, and expects to graduate in December of this year. She teaches Korean Popular Culture at the University of Queensland, she has become fascinated by the mechanics of the wave of Korean popular culture, and enjoys sharing this fascination with students in Brisbane.
Email: linda.fitzgibbon@uqconnect.edu.au

Comparing Writing Feedback between Secondary and College Students

Jeong-Ok Kim (Woosong University)

I. Introduction

English language teachers appear to be required to boost students' writing in secondary schools and colleges more than before. This led to a revision in 2009 of the secondary textbooks to include a writing component. Also, college students are encouraged to improve their writing skill, which is an important language skill for their academic achievement and for finding a better job after graduation. Kim J-O (2012) gives a possibility on how to uphold the writing of Middle school students through adequate and necessary feedback from the instructor and peers. The research subjects were high leveled Middle School students of a liberal arts gifted students' program which was run by the Education office of D-city. Nevertheless, since rare comparative research has yet to be done between different school levels about English writing, it would be a new attempt to compare the gifted Middle school students' writing process with college students and their perspectives about the writing feedback. The primary purpose of the study also includes their respective practical revision in the end followed by counting and comparing between two domains at the same time.

II. Literature Review

1. Writing for secondary school students

Considering the K-SAT (Korea Scholar Aptitude Test), the focus of evaluation of English communicative competence in Korea has been biased to the areas of listening and reading. This has resulted in the lack of command in writing secondary schools in Korea. The lack of sufficient classroom hours, large class size and lack of confidence in teachers' own English writing (Leki, 2006; Shim, Eun-sook, 2009) are drawn as the obstacles faced by many teachers. However, the importance of writing is counted these days for academic purpose and for global communicative purpose as well (Kim J-O, 2012).

2. Feedback on Writing

The most commonly used feedback is categorized into two: feedback on form and feedback on content. Many researchers (Cohen, & Cabalcanti, 1990; Leki, 1999; Williams, 2003) look at the effectual ways of providing feedback and students' pREFERENCES as well. Williams (2003) elaborates them and divided the feedback on form such as outright teacher correction of surface errors, teacher markings that indicate the place and type of errors without corrections and only underlining to indicate the presence of errors. The first requires students to copy the corrections and the latter demands students to revise the errors on their own. Feedback on content, on the other hand, mainly consists of comments written on drafts that allege problems and offer the writer suggestions to revise it.

There was little research developed and compared between secondary school and college level on students' perspective about the written feedback. Also because of the limited or rare opportunity of regular MSs' English writing, it was not easy for English practitioners to figure out how to guide them in writing. Even the MS are from gifted class which means they had far higher English competence than regular MSs. Therefore, the researcher was trying to find how differently MS and CS give and take the written feedback from the teacher and their peers respectively.

III. Research Method

1. Questionnaire

According to MS self-confidence level based on a questionnaire, even though they were gifted students, 44.4%

(n=8 out of 18) of MS showed weak self-confidence in English writing, answering that they had very weak English writing competence. Likewise, all but one CS (93.3%, n=14) agreed that they had low English writing competence and the one CS said that she was very poor at writing, which was far lower confidence than MS. Both MS and CS appeared to have lower confidence in English writing than general English.

2. Writing and Feedback

The feedback process was aimed to help the students improve their writing in the next draft with the same topic and future writings as well. Following the objectives of the feedback, responding letter feedback was given by the teacher in the first writing, formative and corrective or evaluative feedback¹ were provided in the second and third writing. The followings are the research questions that led to the analysis and comparison of two different school levels of students:

- (1) Is there any difference between MS and CS when they take the teacher's comment?
- (2) How differently do MS and CS take their peers' written feedback in their final draft?

IV. Analysis and Discussion

1. How Do MS and CS Take the Teacher's Comment?

As a whole, 18 MSs reflected and changed 83.3% (105 out of 126) and CSs took 47.1% (73 out of 155) of both types of the teacher's comments.

Table 1
2nd Writings and Formative Feedback Examples with Correction Symbols

CS1-2nd writing-1 st draft	Corrected in the final draft
#1: [It was cold winter snowing heavily.] (ro)	It was cold winter in December 25. In this happiest day, something horrible happened. All around the world it was snowing heavily.
#2: Finally the man <u>fall down</u> to the bottom. (ww)	Finally the man <u>fell down</u> to the ground.

Speaking of the 2nd writing feedback, when the feedback was given by the teacher in the form of correction symbols, students tended to repeat the same errors in the final draft, especially when proper and specific examples were not given. Example 1 provides some cases. At #1 of CS1 in Table 1, the teacher commented as "ro/cs" (run-on sentence or comma splice), and expected she would change it into "It was a cold, heavily snowing day." However, CS1 repeated the mistake in the corrected draft. Also the teacher marked as ww (wrong word choice) at CS1's #2, expecting CS1 to change the word, "fall down" into "jumped to the ground." Instead, CS1 just changed it into its past tense "fell down."

Table 2
2nd Writings and Formative Feedback Examples

CS3-2nd writing-1 st draft	Corrected in the final draft
...and she became angry.	...and she became angry. She said to him that she will break up with him and he did an extreme action.
CS8-2nd writing-1 st draft	Corrected in the final draft
There was an accident yesterday night. Oneman fell down.	In the day time today, a young man who seems to be 20's or 30's jumped off the 10 th floor of a building in L.A, leaving on letter behind.
CS13-2nd writing-1 st draft	Corrected in the final draft
There is a one student who is a high school student.	Song's neighbor Kim saw him in front of his apartment while he returned to his home after jogging in this morning.

¹ General response can be replaced by formative feedback which helps the writer with contents and the structure of the writing. Corrective feedback instead of explicit markings focuses on correcting the grammatical errors (McGarrel & Verbeem, 2007) in this paper.

Examples describes how CSs attempted changes in their final drafts of the second writing through elaborating their original lines abundantly, and in some cases unnecessary words were added (Table 2). This was a big difference from MSs'. MSs usually focused on changing the specific parts appointed and followed the corrective suggestions. MSs also rarely reflected on the teacher's formative suggestions in the final draft. CS 3, CS8 and CS13, different from other cases, seem to be successful in elaboration and made the lines more affluent even though they are not completely exact. In the final draft, however, CS9 shows a worsening different problem, correcting the phrase on his/her own, even when corrective or formative comments were not given. At #2, CS9 rather made the wrong correction, of which the original line had no fault but the lacking of an auxiliary verb.

2. How Do MS and CS Take the Peers' Comment?

MS and CS apparently tended to offer and embrace most of their peers' suggestions in their writing. 76.2% of MS and 72.1% of CS accepted peers' corrective comments and 66.7% of MS and 47.1% of CS took formative feedback.

Table 3
3rd Writings and Formative Feedback Examples

CS2-3rd writing-1 st draft, from CS3	Corrected in the final draft
My mom has this two individualities in herself – one (these) for normal life and the other for a driving life. (is) (is)	My mom has <u>these</u> two personalities at the same time – One is a normal personality which is so heavenly and the other is a driving personality which is the opposite of <u>the other</u> .
CS3-3rd writing-1 st draft, from CS6	Corrected in the final draft
So many students do their working, and part time job. (subject) (verb)	So many students do their working, and part time job.
CS4-3rd writing-1 st draft, from CS12	Corrected in the final draft
However, he choose me for varsity. (??)	However, he <u>chose</u> me for <u>varsity</u> .

Most CS tried to receive and follow their peers' feedback as much as they considered them as helpful. Although all of the suggestions from their peers were not appropriate and necessary in some cases or wrong from time to time, they basically seemed to be ready to accept them. Out of these students, CS2 attempted to elaborate his/her sentences, accepting a part of the comment in example 3. "These" in the final draft of example 3 seems not necessary, however, CS2 faithfully followed the suggestion. Likewise, "the other" should be changed into "the one." CS2, nevertheless, reorganized the sentence well according to the CS3's formative comment. CS3 took the comment selectively. He/she acquired and modified the other comments, but when s/he could not understand the comment from CS6, s/he just ignored it and did not show any change in the final draft. There were some students who corrected the mistakes themselves regardless of the comments. In case of CS4, she corrected her word "choose" into "chose" without any comment, but she maintained "varsity." She must have recognized the feedback giver's slip.

IV. Conclusion

Two different school levels of students showed different aspects in recognizing and using feedback from the teacher. First, 18 MSs reflected more the teacher's corrective feedback given with example corrections (92.7%), however, 15 CS reflected only 45.4% of the teacher's corrective feedback with correcting symbols. Written feedback with correction symbols to CS without any helpful example or explanation about students' writing did not demonstrate a big advantage for CS writing. This reflected Fregeau's claim that just the presence or types of errors without correction is ineffective (1999) and suggested the necessity of study about giving feedback such as direct access like conferences between the teacher and the student, or recorded voice comments based on time limitation. The comments, in any case, should be delivered clearly, not making the feedback receiver confused. As for formative feedback, however, CS took more (64.3%) teacher's suggestions than MS (18.8%). Second, MSs showed a little higher rate of adopting feedback of peers than CSs, although they provided much less number of feedback than that of CSs'.

This study tried to figure out the learners' features of different school levels to implement feedback practice in English writing. However, there are some limitations to generalize the comparison between two groups English writing due to the different educational environment setting. If you set both groups in the same regular curriculum or in the extracurricular setting, you could access better generalized research result. On the same line, two groups did not take any Standard English test which could measure their English proficiency objectively. If they took the same Standard English test, the study would be more reliable.

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BIODATA

Jeong-Ok Kim is a dedicated teaching faculty at Nursing Department of Woosong University. She has a lengthy teaching experience for diverse school levels: Middle School students, college students, Secondary English teachers, and adults. Her main concern is Methodology of Teaching English. She currently is focusing on how to improve her students' extensive reading and writing skill as well.

Email: juliaucd@wsu.ac.kr, juliaucd@gmail.com

Phone: 82-42-630-9937 / Mobile: 82-10-3096-8632

Day 1

Concurrent Session 4: The Use of ICT in Language Teaching

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Quantity and Quality: CALL/MALL for Vocabulary Learning

Scott Miles (Daegu Haany University)

I. Introduction

One of the bigger challenges in teaching or learning a foreign language is the massive amount of vocabulary a learner needs in order to attain a reasonable level of competency. While mastery of the 2000 most common vocabulary words in the English language will give a learner roughly 80% text coverage of a general authentic text, 95% test coverage is needed to be able to effectively employ top down skills to comprehend texts (Laufer, 1989). Reaching this goal requires students learn at least another 8,000 words (Nation & Waring, 1997; Hazenbarg & Hulstijn, 1996). Our research of vocabulary level knowledge at Sogang University and Daegu Haany University shows that the average university student in Korea is far short of this goal, with most students having spotty knowledge of the 3000 most common vocabulary words, and very little knowledge of the less frequent words. In most EFL learning contexts, giving students the thousands of words they need is an impossible task to accomplish in the classroom.

Recently there have been a number of online programs which provide vocabulary study through spaced repetition (see Appendix A for a listing of popular online vocabulary sites). The trend for universities and language institutes to use CALL vocabulary programs has seen substantial growth recently, particularly in Europe and Japan. This trend has not yet caught on in Korea to a great extent, but several universities in Korea have begun to incorporate CALL programs for vocabulary acquisition. For the bulk of English programs in Korea, vocabulary learning is still given through traditional offline vocabulary activities, or simply ignored.

This presentation shows the results of two studies which compared students learning vocabulary with an online program providing a variety of exercise types according to spaced repetition memory schedule, and students using more traditional 'offline' activities (Study 1: in-class instruction and practice, Study 2: vocabulary notebook activities). The tests used in the studies sought to measure vocabulary learning both in quantity (total amount of words learned receptively) and quality (degree to which the words were learned productively with proper usage).

II. Literature Review

Considering the limited amount of time available in class, CALL and MALL are increasingly seen as attractive options for vocabulary learning. CALL vocabulary programs can provide vocabulary development in two major ways that the traditional classroom cannot. First, CALL has the potential of providing vocabulary learning that is tailored to the individual levels and needs of the students. There is little uniformity in specific vocabulary knowledge, even among students of the same general level; a word that is known to one student may not be known to another. Furthermore, students vary in language learning motivation and goals. Some students, for example, may be strongly motivated to master vocabulary common in speech and in popular culture, while others may only be interested in vocabulary that is likely to appear on a TOEIC type test. In the classroom, it is difficult to provide for all the various levels and needs of the students, but a good CALL program could provide students with the words they want and need.

The second major way CALL programs show much promise for vocabulary instruction is that they can provide recycling through spaced repetition. Memory research has consistently shown that learners best maintain long-term retention of information that is given in brief review sessions spaced in increasing time intervals, as opposed to learning the information in one lengthy but uninterrupted session. For example, if a learner is given 30 minutes to memorize a list of words, it will be far more effective to divide that 30 minutes into three 10-minute sessions spread out over several days or weeks, rather than spend a straight 30 minutes devoted to studying the list ('massed repetition study'). This phenomenon is referred to in the applied psychology literature as the spacing effect, and is considered to be one of the most robust and consistent findings in memory research (Baddeley, 1997). Pimsleur (1967) developed a memory schedule based on an expanding retrieval system (see Table 1) which, in principle, would maximize the potential of the spacing effect.

Table 1
Pimsleur's Memory Schedule (1967)

Study Session	Waiting time before next review session
1	5 seconds
2	25 seconds
3	2 minutes
4	10 minutes
5	1 hour
6	5 hours
7	1 day
8	5 days
9	25 days
10	4 months
11	2 years

A number of studies have shown that spacing effect methodology has a major impact on second language vocabulary acquisition (Landauer & Bjork, 1978; Bharick, 1979; Bloom & Shuell, 1981; Dempster, 1987), including a handful of studies specifically showing that CALL vocabulary programs can be effective in delivering systematic repetition of vocabulary (Siegel & Misselt, 1984; Miles & Kwon, 2008). In most of these studies, students learning vocabulary through spaced repetition typically experienced vocabulary gains 2-3 times larger than students in the massed repetition treatment groups. Though it is possible to provide spaced repetition treatment 'offline' in the classroom, time constraints and inflexible class schedules tend to make this extremely difficult, if not impossible.

Most online vocabulary programs provide learners with simple 'flashcard' or simple multiple choice type questions. These exercises have the advantage of being easy to make and automatically score, and as they are quite short exercises, programs can easily provide a relatively large number of new vocabulary in each lesson. The downside of these types of programs is that they provide a very limited and mostly receptive learning experience. The learners are not able to see the words in context with information on usage, collocations, colligations, and so on. Newer CALL programs, however, are beginning to add a wider variety of exercises which include tests of productive knowledge and context-rich exercise types that can add to the 'depth' of vocabulary knowledge.

III. Results

In Study 1 (Miles & Kwon, 2008), a variety of learning conditions were explored utilizing CALL programs, in-class instruction, and independent study. Table 2 shows the results of a test of receptive knowledge. Table 3 shows the results on a measure of productive vocabulary knowledge.

Table 2
Receptive Tests—Pre Test and Delayed Post Test

	pre	Delayed post	Gain*
Group A (CALL only)	14.3	33.7	+19.4 (+40%)
Group B: CALL + class instruction:	13.5	34.4	+20.9 (+44%)
Group C: Independent Study Only	14.1	23.5	+9.4 (+20%)
Group D: In-class study	12.7	19.2	+6.5 (+14%)
Group E: Control group	16.5	20.3	+3.8 (+8%)

*All differences between pre and delayed-post tests were significant at .01

ANOVA tests between groups found that differences between groups A and B were not significant (.80). Otherwise, the differences in gains of groups A and B were significant over all the other groups. Differences between groups C and D were also significant (.03). Differences between groups D and E were not significant (.16).

Table 3
Productive Tests: Pre Test and Delayed Post Test

	pre	Delayed post	Gain*
Group A (CALL only)	9	23.4	+14.4 (+40%)
Group B: CALL + class instruction:	11.5	27.5	+16 (+44%)
Group C: Independent Study Only	12	15	+3(+9%) (sig. .05)
Group D: In-class study	11	17.5	+6.5 (+18%)
Group E: Control group	14	16	+2 (+5%) (sig. .08)

*All gains significant at .01 unless noted otherwise

The non-CALL groups made very little progress in productive use of the vocabulary. Note that their gains barely exceed those of the control group, which did not study the words directly at all. An ANOVA test failed to find a statistically significant difference between the non-CALL experimental groups (C and D) and the control group E, though group D gains were just short of statistical significance (.06). The second study reported in this presentation was conducted in Japan by Hirschel and Fritz (2013) utilizing the same CALL program. In this study, Hirschel compared a group using the CALL program to another utilizing vocabulary notebook study and related activities in class (Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995). Total time on task between the two groups was kept roughly equal. Immediate post-test results showed equal progress for both groups, but an unannounced delayed-post test given 6 weeks later showed steep declines for the vocabulary notebook study group, particularly in productive knowledge. The differences were statistically significant, with the CALL group showing no significant decline in gains over the 6 week period.

III. Conclusions

Advances in technology have finally enabled CALL to become not only feasible in assisting language development, but perhaps indispensable as a means of filling in the gaps that traditional classroom instruction struggles to address. Online vocabulary learning programs can give students the vocabulary learning they need, while allowing instructors to spend more of their valuable class time on areas of language learning that a classroom environment provides best, such as conversation practice and direct instruction. As our experience has shown, the students are ready and eager to benefit from this technology for language learning. The question that remains is whether or not educators are ready to take this advantage.

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APPENDIX

Online Vocabulary Learning Sites Using Spaced Repetition

1. www.praxised.com (site used in both reported studies)
 2. www.vtrain.net
 3. www.wordengine.com
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BIODATA

Scott Miles is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Foreign Languages in Daegu-Haany University. Scott has an MA in TESOL and a PhD in applied linguistics from Lancaster University. He has published a reading course book for Macmillan publishers (Essential Reading), is the editor of the TESOL Review journal and is a Board Member of the Extensive Reading Foundation. His research interests include extensive reading and cognitive approaches to second language vocabulary and grammar acquisition.

Email: scott@dhu.ac.kr

Phone: H.P: 010-2016-6846

Using Online Feedback Tools with International Graduate Students in TESOL

Dennis Murphy Odo (Georgia State University)
Youngjoo Yi (The Ohio State University)

I. Introduction

This study addresses the issue of how international doctoral students assimilate and use multimodal writing feedback provided with the assistance of digital technology. These questions are beginning to be addressed with first language writers (Cope, Kalantzis, McCarthey, Vojak, & Kline, 2011) but there is presently much less discussion with second-language writers. The relative scarcity of research into the use of multimodal feedback for second-language learners attending graduate programs in North American universities must be addressed because of the widely acknowledged struggles that second-language learners face adapting to the oral and written discourse cultures of North American graduate-level academic contexts (Morita, 2004; Casanave, 2002). Furthermore, the increasing proportion of international students in North American higher education contexts (McMurtrie, 2012) necessitates serious consideration of how these learners' academic literacy needs are being met. To this end, the following research questions were asked:

- (1) What do international graduate students perceive to be the advantages and challenges of receiving feedback on their writing through multimodal tools?
- (2) What kinds of feedback are provided during online multimodal feedback sessions?

II. Literature Review

Feedback has been called "the most important part of the assessment process" (Price, Handley, Millar, & O'Donovan, 2010, p. 277). With the ubiquity of computers in education, nascent research into computer-mediated feedback demonstrates its potential for improving assessment by providing extensive and detailed feedback (Hepplestone, Holden, Irwin, Parkin, & Thorpe, 2011). Additionally, Crook et al. (2012) found that video feedback helped assuage faculty members' doubts regarding the value of feedback. Likewise, university students reported audio feedback to be clearer, more motivating, and easier to remember (Ice, Curtis, Phillips, & Wells, 2007). Research into doctoral students' experience of feedback highlights the importance of interaction and peer-to-peer dialog between student and supervisor (Kumar & Stracke, 2007) and a greater need for culturally sensitive feedback approaches for international students (Wang & Li, 2011).

The positive findings of research into feedback through audiovisual tools such as videoconferencing with L2 learners certainly encourage greater experimentation with these tools. Researchers are beginning to see the promise of digital devices for better monitoring lessons and delivering feedback to learners (Develotte, Guichon & Vincent, 2010). Research from an instructional perspective with learners of Chinese revealed that videoconferencing allowed the teacher to tailor instruction to the unique needs of individual learners through its ability "to provide immediate and specific responses to the indicators from the participants..." (Wang, 2006, p. 138). Nevertheless, despite their much-touted affordances, these tools also present several challenges including pressure on the teacher and learner to manage images, text and links in real time (Wang, 2006). These findings are certainly intriguing but there is still much to be learned. For instance, at present, a dearth of research exists regarding specific information on international students' perceptions and practice of giving and receiving computer-mediated feedback on their academic writing.

III. Methods

Qualitative multiple case research was used to investigate the role of computer-mediated feedback from the perspectives of international doctoral students. The research took place in a TESOL Education program in a large research-intensive state university in the Southeastern United States. Each of three participants participated in six feedback sessions in which they engaged in think-aloud while reacting to feedback on their academic writing presented through several online modes (e.g., screencast and VoIP). The think-aloud sessions were followed by semi-structured interviews that included questions about their perceptions of the quality of the

feedback they were receiving as well as the software tools that were being used to deliver the feedback. Data included transcripts of feedback sessions and interviews, participants' written reflections and writing samples, as well as field notes. They were analyzed using a constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and content analysis.

IV. Results and Discussion

Table 1 below summarizes the international graduate student participants' perceptions regarding the advantages and challenges of multimodal forms of feedback on their writing. As can be seen in the table, some of the common advantages across all of the audiovisual feedback tools were that they incorporated a variety of sources of feedback including paralinguistic and extra-linguistic signals. Aspects of each tool that were specifically preferred included the interactivity of VoIP and the ability to hear the teacher think aloud enabled by screencast and video. These findings concurred with Ice, Curtis, Phillips, & Wells (2007) regarding students' perceived greater value of audio-visual feedback tools. Each of these devices also came with some limitations. One potential danger was that the ease of sharing feedback could facilitate rambling or providing an overwhelming amount of feedback as opposed to the relatively focused commentary encouraged by typed comments. Participants also pointed out that voice-to-text, screencast and video all revealed limited interactivity in comparison to VoIP.

Table 1
Summary Table of the Tools

	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Limitations</i>
Voice-to-text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relatively familiar • Enabled extensive comments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teachers could be tempted to overdo comments • Limited interactivity
Screencast	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combined visual, auditory and written feedback • Use screen to show learner the paper as teacher thought aloud • Reader's online processing of the learner's work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Could facilitate rambling • Limited interactivity • Feedback maybe not as portable as paper
Video	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easy tool to work with • Allowed focus on content • Additional feedback through extra-linguistic signals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constraints on ability to focus on structure • Limited interactivity • "Passive" feelings
VoIP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interactive • Helped reveal student thinking • Can conference from anywhere 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learner might avoid making necessary changes • Difficult to see comments on some devices (e.g., Smartphone)

In answer to the second research question, at least three unique kinds of feedback are enabled by using these tools with international students. The first is *dialogic* and *bi-directional* between a student and faculty member. Traditionally, feedback has tends to flow in one direction from the feedback giver to the receiver. Marginal comments on a students' paper exemplify this unidirectional feedback flow. In contrast, the VoIP software tool investigated here appeared to open up a space where learners are able to give feedback to the teacher as well. For instance, the learners in this study could inform the teacher when they did not understand particular feedback comments as well as when they disagreed with the teacher's evaluation. They could also make their case for why they believed they were right. This bi-directional feedback is similar to the kind promoted by Kumar and Stracke (2007).

Another significant finding that emerged through work with the VoIP was the phenomenon of *negotiated feedback*. In essence, this was a process whereby through dialogue and discussion the graduate student and teacher reached a mutually-satisfactory compromise regarding alterations that were to be made to the text. This kind of feedback seemed to be fostered by the spatial separation of teacher and student. Unlike with face-to-face interaction the student appeared emboldened and somewhat more comfortable expressing disagreement and negotiating what changes they thought needed to be made to the text.

A final powerful type of phenomenon that surfaced across the use of most of the tools was *micro-mentoring*. This kind of situation typically involved a brief digression from the feedback process at hand to discuss a tangentially related aspect of academic life. Examples of this included brief discussions about the importance of flexibility and resilience in graduate school, the value of learning about mixed methods research as well as possible research ideas, methods and tools. Participants often commented on how much they valued these brief discussions. All of these findings begin to extend our understanding of ways in which computer-mediated, multimodal feedback can be employed for improving writing assessment.

V. Conclusions and Implications

Educational implications include the introduction of several formative assessment tools to assist teachers and learners in higher education contexts. This information can support teachers as they begin to consider which computerized feedback tools might most effectively develop the academic writing skills of their learners. Teacher and student perspectives on some of the affordances and constraints presented by these digital feedback tools can offer insight into potential pitfalls of ill-considered adoption of the technology. Scientific implications include exploration of formative assessment processes with a previously understudied group of international graduate students. This kind of information becomes increasingly valuable as the numbers of international students in North American higher education institutions continues to grow. This research also helps to expand current conceptualizations of feedback to include previously unconsidered aspects such as micro-mentoring and negotiated feedback. These nuanced feedback conceptualizations provide both scholars and practitioners with a more accurate representation of the complexity and interactivity of a feedback process that incorporates online audiovisual tools.

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BIODATA

Dennis Murphy Odo, Ph. D. is an assistant professor of ESOL/Literacy in the Department of Middle secondary Education at Georgia State University. His current areas of research interest are in classroom formative assessment, teacher assessment education and assessment competence.

Email: demodo@gsu.edu

Youngjoo Yi, Ph. D. is an associate professor of foreign and second language education in the Department of Foreign and Second Language Education at The Ohio State University. Her areas of academic interest are in and out-of-school literacy development of English language learners, language and identity and second/foreign language teacher education.

The Role of Task Complexity in Vocabulary Learning in a Korean EFL Context

YouJin Kim (Georgia State University)

I. Introduction

The role of task design features in second language (L2) performance and interaction-driven language learning are being increasingly examined in the field of instructed second language acquisition (SLA). For example, researchers have explored the effects of task complexity on language development by testing the predictions of Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis (e.g., Robinson, 2011) and Skehan's Trade-off Hypothesis (Skehan, 1998). Within this body of research, however, few studies have examined vocabulary learning in task-based language teaching contexts. The purpose of the current project is thus to examine the role of task complexity in L2 vocabulary learning in Korean English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms where task-based syllabi are implemented.

II. Literature Review

Robinson's (2001, 2005, 2007) triadic componential framework for pedagogic task classification determines task complexity based on either resource-directing or resource-dispersing variables. Resource-directing variables are hypothesized to make greater demands on attention and working memory in a way that they are redirected to the linguistic resources necessary for successful task performance. On the other hand, resource-dispersing variables are those that make increased performative/procedural demands on participants (Robinson, 2001, 2005). Task complexity along resource-directing variables can be increased by manipulating reasoning demands, number of elements, and/or narrating events that are displaced in time and space (Robinson, 2001). Increases in task complexity along resource-dispersing variables draw learner attention to non-linguistic areas during task performance, namely requiring learners to perform more than one task simultaneously, to carry out a task with no prior knowledge, or to manipulate planning time before task implementation.

With the fundamental claim of the Cognition Hypothesis that L2 pedagogic tasks should be sequenced from simple to complex in order to maximize L2 learning, several predictions about the role of task complexity in language development have been introduced (Robinson, 2003, 2011). In conversational contexts, Robinson proposes that more cognitively complex tasks will facilitate "greater attention to, and uptake of, forms made salient during the provision of reactive Focus on Forms techniques such as recasts" (2011, p.22). He also claims that increasing the task complexity of tasks along the resource-directing dimension will lead to L2 development, especially with developmentally more advanced forms (Robinson, 2007; Robinson & Ellis, 2008).

To date, a number of researchers have investigated the role of task complexity on interaction-driven L2 development during learner-learner and native speaker-learner interaction, with many studies focus on morphosyntactic development (e.g., Baralt, 2010; Kim, 2012; Nuevo, 2006; Révész, 2009). Overall, previous research has provided mixed findings. For instance, in a lab-based study, Révész (2009) examined the relationship between task complexity, recasts, and the development of past progressive forms with EFL learners. Learners were randomly assigned to one of the following groups: recast/simple, recast/complex, no recast/simple, no recast/complex. Révész found that learners in the recast/complex group demonstrated a greater amount of L2 learning than those in the simple task conditions.

Nuevo (2006) operationalized task complexity by means of the factor [+/-reasoning demand] with two interactive task types that targeted locative prepositions and the past tense. In terms of L2 development, the findings did not show any relationship between task complexity and L2 development. Kim (2012) discussed the importance of exploring multiple levels of task complexity, and examined the role of task complexity operationalized as [+/- reasoning] with three different levels (simple, + complex, ++complex) on question development. The results indicated that although the + complex group did not show significant question development compared to the simple group, the ++ complex group achieved the greatest advancement in question development, which might have been due to a greater amount of Language Related Episodes (LREs) targeting more advanced questions during learner-learner interaction.

In the research domain of L2 vocabulary acquisition, a variety of instructional techniques have been examined such as translation and rehearsal (e.g., Laufer & Girsai, 2008). To date, the concept of “depth or processing” has been supported by many researchers (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Kim, 2008) because of the claim that retention of unfamiliar words is conditional upon the amount of learner involvement while processing the meaning of those new words. Despite growing interest in the role of interaction in task-based language teaching, research on instructional vocabulary learning during interactive tasks is scarce.

In sum, there has been an increasing number of empirical studies which investigated the role of task complexity in interaction-driven language learning in both tightly controlled lab-based and classroom settings. Overall, task complexity appears to promote interaction-driven learning opportunities and some linguistic development. However, previous studies have focused on the development of grammatical features such as past progressive and questions. Additionally, little research has been conducted in a classroom where task-based curricula are implemented. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to examine the role of task complexity in the acquisition of L2 vocabulary in task-based language teaching contexts. The study was guided by the following research question: How does task complexity impact Korean EFL learners’ vocabulary learning?

III. Methods

1. Participants and Instructional Context

The participants were 93 adult Korean EFL students who were enrolled in a required English course. The class met once a week for two hours over a 16-week semester. The learners’ ages ranged from 18 to 24 years, and the length of their previous English study ranged from 6 to 15 years, with a mean of 8.9 years. The learners had taken at least 6 years of mandatory English classes at junior high or high schools before entering the university. Four sections of the same course were selected for the current study, three of which were randomly assigned to task groups with three levels of task complexity (n=27 for the simple group, n=22 for the +complex group, and n=24 for the ++complex group), and one of which was assigned to a comparison group (i.e., traditional instruction) (n=20). While three task-based groups carried out four interactive tasks, the comparison group was provided with reading and listening activities similar to those provided by the four instructors who taught the other seven sections of the same course.

2. Materials

1) Instructional Materials

For the three task groups, four interactive tasks were designed based on students’ interests and conversational needs in traveling: 1) Traveling in Seoul with an international friend, 2) Deciding on accommodations in Europe, 3) Planning a class trip, and 4) Attending an Intensive English Program abroad. Based on Robinson’s task complexity framework (2001, 2003, 2005), the complexity variable, [+/- reasoning demands] along resource-directing dimensions, was operationalized using three different levels: simple task [-reasoning], +complex task [+reasoning], and ++complex task [++reasoning]. To manipulate different degrees of task complexity between +complex task and ++complex tasks, the [+/-few elements] variable was used for controlling the number of factors learners needed to make a decision (see Kim 2012). For the traditional instruction group, listening and reading materials dealing with the same theme (i.e., traveling) were designed based on the information provided by the four instructors of the same course.

2) Testing Materials

The current study determined vocabulary knowledge focusing on students’ recall of target words as well as their use of target words in meaningful contexts. A total number of 36 target words which were identified as unfamiliar words on the pretest were included in the study. On the posttests, each item presented a Korean word as well as a picture which describe a context for eliciting the target word. The test was conducted orally: for each item, learners were asked to say corresponding English words and create a sentence using the target word to describe a picture.

3. Procedure

The present study was carried out over five weeks. The pretest was given during the first week, and interaction tasks were provided to task groups (i.e., simple, +complex, ++complex) during weeks 2 and 3, whereas the

traditional group followed the regular syllabus adapted from other instructors. Each task was carried out for 40-45 minutes, and learners completed two tasks per week. The first posttest was conducted during week 4, and the second posttest was carried out during week 5.

4. Data Analysis

Learners' oral vocabulary test responses were transcribed and scored. For the recall of target words, 2 points were given if learners provided a correct English word, and 1 point was given if a target word was provided with a correct root but with an incorrect form (e.g., depart instead of departure). Thus the total possible score for the recall test was 72. In terms of the use of target words, 1 point was assigned for semantic appropriateness of a target word in a sentence, and 1 point was assigned for morphosyntactic appropriateness of a target word in a sentence. Thus 2 points were given if a target word was used semantically and syntactically appropriately in a sentence. The total possible score for the vocabulary use test was 72.

III. Results

In order to ensure the reliability of the vocabulary test, internal consistency was examined using Chronbach's alpha. The results indicated that Chronbach's alpha was .95 and .97 for posttest 1 and posttest 2, respectively. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of vocabulary test results for both posttest 1 and posttest 2 by groups.

Table 1
Vocabulary Test Results

	Traditional (n=20)		Simple (n=27)		+Complex (n=22)		++Complex (n=24)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Recall_Posttest 1	25.90	18.84	44.33	18.09	44.86	22.65	61.21	9.51
Recall_Posttest 2	25.00	22.81	37.33	19.25	40.77	21.17	51.94	12.85
Use_Posttest 1	21.80	19.09	36.89	14.69	38.32	19.79	52.33	13.45
Use_Posttest 2	17.85	17.16	29.74	16.81	35.05	18.12	42.67	15.36

One-way ANOVA tests indicated that there was a significant group difference on both posttests focusing on the recall and the use of target words: $F(3, 89)=14.37, p=.00$ (recall on posttest1); $F(3, 89)=6.84, p=.00$ (recall on posttest 2); $F(3, 89)=12.16, p=.00$ (use on posttest1), $F(3, 89)=8.30, p=.00$ (use on posttest 2). For the recall of target words, the Bonferroni post hoc comparisons revealed that the three task groups outperformed the traditional instruction group. Among the three task groups, the ++Complex group scored significantly higher than the Simple and the +Complex groups on posttest 1, and no difference was found between the +Complex and the Simple groups. However, on posttest 2, the ++Complex group significantly outperformed the Traditional group only. In terms of appropriate use of target words, a similar pattern was found. Bonferroni post hoc comparisons indicated that the three task groups scored significantly higher than the traditional instruction group. Among the three task groups, the ++Complex group scored significantly higher than the +Complex and the Simple groups on the posttest 1. However, no difference was found between the Simple and the +Complex groups. On the posttest 2, the ++Complex task scored significantly higher than the other groups, and there was no difference between the Simple and the +Complex groups on learners' appropriate use of target words.

IV. Discussion

Building on previous research on the Cognition Hypothesis, the current study examined the role of task complexity on the development of L2 vocabulary among Korean EFL learners. Vocabulary learning was determined based on learners' recall of English target words as well as their appropriate use of the words in a sentence. The results partially supported the claims of the Cognition Hypothesis in that the ++Complex group significantly outperformed the Simple and the +Complex groups on both recall and use of target words. The benefits of carrying out the ++complex tasks was found on posttest 2 which was administered two weeks after instruction. However, there was no difference between the Simple and the +Complex groups on any of the measures. Such results were in line with the findings of Kim (2012) who found that ++complex tasks were the most effective for promoting acquisition of questions.

The benefits of performing more complex tasks seem relevant to the concept of "depth of processing" which was suggested by Craik and Lockhart (1972). The degree of learner involvement during interactive tasks seems

to affect vocabulary learning. However, based on the similar amount of learning between the Simple and the +Complex groups, one can argue that with or without reasoning demands might not be as relevant a factor in promoting vocabulary learning as the degree of reasoning demands. Additionally, the findings suggest that task complexity should be treated on continuum. Based on the results of the study, important implications for L2 vocabulary pedagogy can be drawn. First, interactive tasks seem to promote productive vocabulary knowledge. With regards to task complexity, the current study suggests that teachers need to consider task complexity levels when they design vocabulary tasks because the differences in task complexity levels appear to be related to learners' involvement load with vocabulary items (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001); more complex tasks promote higher involvement, and as a result are more beneficial for production of new words in meaningful contexts.

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BIODATA

YouJin Kim is an assistant professor in the Department of Applied Linguistics and ESL at Georgia State University, USA. Her main research interests lie at the interface of second language acquisition and second language instruction. In particular, she is interested in the role of interaction and individual differences in second language development, task-based language teaching, and syntactic priming. She has published her work in a variety of venues, including *Applied Linguistics*, *Language Learning*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *Modern Language Journal*, *Language Teaching Research*, and *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*.

E-mail: ykim39@gsu.edu

Phone: 1-404-413-5188

Using Criterion[®] as a Self-Study Writing Tool

Junko Ootshi (Okayama University)
Neil Heffernan (Ehime University)
Yoshitaka Kaneko (Utsunomiya University)

I. Introduction

When learning a second language, it is well known that output is deemed to be crucial in advancing the process of learning in second language acquisition (Swain, 2005). Through producing the target language, learners can test their language ability and correct it if necessary on their own. In the case of second language writing, regular practice is crucial, as it is one of the productive skills. In reality, however, writing classes in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) do not usually devote enough time to writing practice in the classroom. Also, providing feedback to each writing assignment is very time consuming for teachers. Therefore, an alternative approach, which can have students practice writing regularly, all the while receiving feedback is necessary.

In this pilot study, Criterion, an online writing practice tool developed by Educational Testing Service was utilized outside of classrooms as a self-study tool aimed at facilitating the students' writing practice as well as easing teachers' burden when faced with providing feedback to students on multiple tasks. As Kawamura (2009) points out, the use of the Internet allows learners to work on their study anywhere and at any time. These efficient and convenient characteristics of e-learning tools can be hypothesized to increase students' writing ability. At the same time, however, the outcomes of self-study must be examined by comparing them with the real condition of having feedback from an actual teacher. As Nielson (2011) argues, the key to making self-study a success is ample support and guidance from a teacher. Therefore, the current study explores how the outcomes of writing practice using Criterion are different between two groups: students who receive feedback from a teacher and students who only receive feedback from the Criterion system. Based on the results of the study, pedagogical implications will be discussed focusing on teachers' guidance for successful self-study.

II. Study

The study was conducted in the 2012 academic year in Japan, making use of the online writing evaluation tool Criterion as a means of self-study for Japanese EFL learners. The participant students were divided into two groups: six students were in the feedback group and six were in the non-feedback group. The students in each group wrote three writing tasks that were provided by Criterion, totaling 36 essays in all. While six students did not receive any feedback from the teacher when working on the three writing tasks, six students did receive written feedback. This feedback was given two times: after their first and second drafts. The teacher, one of the researchers of the study, provided feedback making use of the comment functions in Criterion. The feedback comments were focused on the following four rhetorical features: thesis statement, topical development, information distribution, and awareness of readers. All thirty six essays were evaluated by Criterion and two EFL instructors, who are also researchers in this study. One researcher was eliminated in evaluating the essays because she was the one who originally gave feedback to the group of students who received feedback in the study. The outcomes were analyzed quantitatively. Descriptive statistics were tabulated based on the Criterion six-point scale. Also, two of the researchers in this study marked all thirty six essays on the six-point scale referring to an analytic rubric whose dimensions consist of the four rhetorical features mentioned above. The mean score of the two researchers' marking was calculated after Cronbach's alpha was determined to have a value of .78.

III. Results

Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the results of the students' three writing tasks evaluated by both Criterion and the researchers.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Participant Students' Writing Tasks

Writing task #	Criterion's Evaluation			Researchers' Evaluation		
	Mean (S.D)			Mean (SD)		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Feedback Group	3.8 (.75)	4.6 (.81)	4.5 (.83)	3.6 (.18)	4.6 (.63)	4.5 (.92)
Non-Feedback Group	4.1 (.75)	4.3 (.51)	4.1 (.75)	3.9 (.76)	3.6 (.40)	4.4 (.77)

As indicated in Table 1, while both evaluations showed a higher mean score for the non-feedback group in Writing Task 1, the feedback group showed a higher mean score than the non-feedback group in Writing Task 2 and 3. In order to determine the statistical differences over the three writing tasks evaluated in the two groups, the Friedman test was conducted using the scores obtained by Criterion and the mean scores of the two researchers' evaluations. While the Friedman test did not reveal a significant statistical difference in the three writing tasks in the non-feedback group in the evaluation by both Criterion and the researchers, the feedback group showed a significant statistical difference over the three writing tasks at $\chi^2 = 8.4$ (2, $n = 6$), $p = .015$ in Criterion's evaluation and at $\chi^2 = 6.87$ (2, $n = 6$), $p = .032$ in the researchers' evaluation.

For further statistical analysis, the Wilcoxon signed ranks test was conducted to compare each writing task's mean scores in the feedback group using both evaluations, as summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2
Results of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

	Criterion's Evaluation			Researchers' Evaluation		
	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>
Writing 1-Writing 2	-2.00	.046	.82	-2.20	.028	.90
Writing 1-Writing 3	-2.23	.025	.91	-1.99	.046	.81
Writing 2-Writing 3	-1.00	.317	-	-2.71	.786	-

As for Criterion's evaluations, statistically significant differences are found between Writing 1 and Writing 2, and Writing 3 at the .05 level. The strongest statistically significant difference was found between Writing 1 and Writing 3, showing a large effect size ($z = -2.23$, $p = .025$, $r = .91$). In terms of the researchers' evaluations, statistically significant differences were found between Writing 1 and Writing 2, and Writing 3, also at the .05 level. The strongest statistically significant difference was found between Writing 1 and Writing 2, showing a large effect size ($z = -2.20$, $p = .028$, $r = .90$). Table 3 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of the twelve participant students' writing scores evaluated by the two researchers, focusing on the four rhetorical features.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of the Scores of Participant Students' Writing Tasks on Rhetorical Features

Writing task #	Thesis statement			Topical development			Information distribution			Awareness of readers		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Feedback Group	3.7 (.85)	4.9 (.66)	4.8 (1.1)	4.3 (.88)	4.6 (.77)	4.5 (.90)	3.6 (.88)	4.1 (.83)	4.0 (.66)	3.5 (.92)	4.8 (.71)	4.6 (.98)
Non-Feedback Group	4.0 (.95)	3.8 (.71)	4.3 (1.4)	3.6 (1.4)	3.8 (1.0)	4.0 (1.6)	3.3 (1.3)	3.4 (.51)	3.6 (1.9)	3.7 (1.3)	3.5 (.67)	3.7 (1.8)

As shown in Table 3, it was found the feedback group demonstrated a higher improvement in all the four rhetorical features than the non-feedback group, especially between Writing 1 and Writing 2. Taking a closer look at the table, it was noticed that while the feedback group indicated great improvement in awareness of readers showing an increase of 1.3 between Writing task 1 and Writing task 2, the non-feedback group did not

show any improvement in that feature, giving credence to the notion that heeding a teacher's feedback on a writing task can greatly improve the manner in which learners keep the reader of their work in mind.

IV. Conclusion

This pilot study explored how Japanese EFL learners' writing changed between a group receiving feedback and one not receiving any feedback while using Criterion as a self-study tool. As a result, Criterion's evaluations were deemed to be consistent with the teachers' analytical scoring focusing on the rhetorical features prevalent in Criterion. Consequently, learners might be able to be made aware of the importance of the four rhetorical features in their writing, but they might not necessarily understand the feature awareness of readers unless they receive feedback from their teachers. When Criterion is used outside of the classroom as a self-study tool, writing teachers should clearly explain both the four rhetorical features to their students and the areas in which Criterion may not be of assistance when revising their work: precisely the cases where the teacher can be of greatest assistance.

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BIODATA

Junko Otoshi is an associate professor of Okayama University, Japan. Her research interests include EFL writing and learners' autonomy.

Email: otoshi-j@cc.okayama-u.ac.jp.

Phone: 81-86-251-8512

Neil Heffernan is an associate professor in the English Education Center at Ehime University, Matsuyama, Japan.

Yoshitaka Kaneko is an associate professor in the Liberal and General Education Center at Utsunomiya University, Tochigi, Japan.

A Study of Focus-on-form Tasks and Learners' Prior Knowledge on the Noticing of a Target Feature¹

Sinhyang Park & Yunkyong Cho (Pukyong National University)

I. Introduction

The important role of input provided for learners has been widely accepted in the field of SLA (Gass, 1997). However, not all the input learners are exposed to can be used for learning. Rather, only the input which learners pay attention to can be utilized for further processing. Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 1995) posited in his Noticing Hypothesis that through noticing by learners, input becomes *intake*, and that attending to linguistic features in incoming input is a necessary condition for L2 development to take place. Taking this notion into account, the question of how learners' attention can be effectively drawn to linguistic features for L2 development has been explored by a body of research, and various approaches and techniques have been suggested. One such pedagogical approach is *focus on form* (FonF), first proposed and introduced by Long. It emphasizes brief instructional focus on linguistic features in meaning-oriented contexts. In other words, it suggests that learners' attention should be allocated to both linguistic forms and meaning as learners are engaged in communicative activities.

Two types of FonF instruction are of special interest in SLA: input-based FonF instruction and output-based FonF instruction. In particular, some empirical studies (Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara, & Fearnow, 1999; Song, 2007; Song & Suh, 2008) reported superior effects of output-based instruction over input-based instruction in the learners' noticing of target grammar features. However, some problematic operationalization of these studies raises questions about their results. For example, while output activities in these studies required learners' understanding and use of target features for successful accomplishment of the activities, input activities could be completed without learners' understanding of target grammar features. Such unequal operationalization for the two types of FonF activities might have resulted in effects of output-based activities superior to those of input-based activities in drawing learners' noticing on target features. Moreover, since the previous studies (Izumi et al., 1999; Song & Suh, 2008) examined only the effects of input and output based instruction, not much has been investigated regarding the combined effects and the task sequential effects of the two FonF instructions.

Therefore, the present study sought to compare the relative effects of input- and output-based FonF instruction on the noticing of a target grammar feature by having learners (1) evenly exposed to the target feature and (2) perform input and output activities, both requiring learners' understanding of the target feature for completion. This study also investigated the combined and task sequential effects of input- and output-based FonF instruction on the learners' noticing of the target feature. In addition, considering one of the learner internal factors affecting noticing and learning, that is, learners' prior knowledge (Kang, 2005, 2011a, 2011b; Shin, 2010), this study also examined whether the effects of FonF instruction would differ depending on learners' prior knowledge of a target grammar feature.

II. Methodology

1. Research Questions

This study addresses the following three research questions:

- (1) Do the effects of the different types of FonF instruction (input/output/input-output/output-input) differ on the noticing of the target grammar feature?
- (2) Do the effects of the learners' prior knowledge differ in the noticing of the target grammar feature?
- (3) Do the interaction effects between the types of instruction and learners' prior knowledge occur in the noticing of the target grammar feature?

¹ This paper is part of the first author's doctoral dissertation.

2. Participants

The participants of this study were students of eight general English classes at three universities in Busan. Eight classes were assigned to four experimental groups (input/output/input-output/output-input). The number of participants included for analysis was 136 in total: input group (30), output group (39), input-output group (32) and output-input group (35). In order to confirm the equivalence of the four groups prior to the treatment sessions, the four groups' pretest scores were entered to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results showed no significant statistical differences among the four groups ($F(3, 135) = .313, p = .816$), indicating that learners of four groups have similar levels of prior knowledge on the target grammar feature before the treatment sessions. Table 1 shows the definition and operationalization of learners' prior knowledge on the target feature.

Table 1
The Definition and Operationalization of Learners' Prior Knowledge on the Target Feature

Level	Definition	Operationalization
1	Not knowing the presence and form of the target feature	Less than three correct answers in multiple-choice questions on the comprehension test
2	Knowing the presence and form, but not knowing the usage of the target feature	More than three correct answers in multiple-choice questions on the comprehension test
3	Knowing the form and usage, but showing lack of use of the target feature	Less than 80% of correct answers on the pretest

3. Research Design and Treatment

The target grammar feature in this study was the past counterfactual conditional in English (e.g., if she had gone to bed earlier last night, she could have caught the train.). One week prior to the treatment sessions, four groups performed the pretest. The pretest consisted of four types of tests: multiple-choice questions and reading comprehension questions for comprehension, picture-cued writing and fill-in-blanks for production, and this included 30 questions in total, with 20 target feature related questions and 10 distractors. The internal consistency reliability estimate for the pretest was $\alpha=.90$.

The treatment consisted of two different sessions, each of which was conducted consecutively on one class. Input and output activities were designed using the same stories. In the first treatment session, learners in the input group read the textually enhanced reading materials, and answered the comprehension questions on the next page. The comprehension questions were composed of 5 questions, all of which require learners' understanding of the form and meaning of the target feature. After this, learners in the input group read the same reading materials without the target feature textually enhanced, and for the measurement of learner noticing, learners were asked to underline the items which they thought important for successful completion of the comprehension questions. In the second treatment session, learners in the input group performed the same input task with different reading materials. Reading materials in the each treatment session consisted of approximately 100 words, including three sentences with the target feature.

Learners in the output group were asked to read 3-4 sentences related to the story, and then write sentences cued by the provided pictures. The pictures consisted of three pairs; one representing causes, the other results. After writing the three sentences, learners in the output group received the model of the picture-cued writing, and they were asked to underline the items which they thought important for successful completion for the picture-cued writing. On the next page, learners performed the same picture-cued writing again. In a similar manner and with different stories, the output task was conducted by learners in the second treatment session. The two combined groups (input-output/output-input) performed both the input and output activities. Specifically, the input-output group was asked to perform the input task followed by the output task, while the output-input group was provided the output task followed by the input task.

III. Results and Discussion

The learners' noticing of the target feature was measured by utilizing sub-elements of the target feature, and the maximum scores of learner noticing were 30 points since this study employed two different reading materials. Table 2 displays the descriptive statistics for the learners' noticing on the target feature according to the types of instruction and the levels of learners' prior knowledge.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Noticing Scores by the Instruction Types and the Levels of Prior Knowledge

Group	Input		Output		Input-output		Output-input		Total	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	20.77	9.76	19.31	9.40	22.94	8.62	19.07	7.98	20.38	8.95
2	18.88	11.32	26.50	4.18	21.17	9.06	19.85	7.80	21.06	8.59
3	29.00	1.58	16.86	9.03	27.10	5.04	21.38	9.65	24.15	8.02
Total	22.73	9.44	19.97	9.06	23.91	7.86	19.89	8.11	21.49	8.72

To examine the statistical significance of the differences in the descriptive data, a two-way ANOVA was conducted, and the results were shown in Table 3. The ANOVA results showed no significant differences in the noticing scores by the four groups ($F(3, 135) = 1.186, p = .318$). This indicated that the four groups noticed the target feature similarly.

Table 3
Results of Two-way ANOVA for the Noticing Scores by the Instruction Types and the Levels of Prior Knowledge

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig
Corrected Model	1459.726	11	132.702	1.869	.050
Intercept	54661.518	1	54661.518	769.684	.000
Instruction Type (A)	252.729	3	84.243	1.186	.318
Level of Prior Knowledge (B)	205.943	2	102.971	1.450	.239
(A)×(B)	787.495	6	131.249	1.848	.095
Error	8806.245	124	71.018		
Total	73046.000	136			
Corrected Total	10265.971	135			

The results for the noticing scores of the input and output groups in this study contrasted with those of the previous studies. In Song and Suh's study (2008), the output group outperformed the input group in the noticing of target feature. Song (2007) also showed that the learners in the output group and the output-input combined group noticed more target features than the learners in the input group. The different results between the present study and these two previous studies seemed to be due to the differences in the input activities used in the studies.

Specifically, learners in the input groups in Song (2007) and Song and Suh (2008) were provided the comprehension questions asking the learners for the content of the reading passages or their opinions about the passage. This meant that learners in the input group could have successfully accomplished the comprehension questions without their understanding of the target feature, and the learners' noticing of the target feature might not have been necessarily great. On the other hand, the comprehension questions in the present study were designed to be correctly answered only if learners understand the meaning and form of the target feature, and therefore this might have required great noticing by learners. Eventually, since both the input and output activities provided for the four groups (input/output/input-output/output-input) in this study were to draw learners noticing of the target feature alike, it seemed that significant difference was not found in the noticing scores of learners in the four groups.

In terms of learners' prior knowledge, no significant difference was shown in the learner noticing, and interaction effects between the types of instruction and the learners' prior knowledge were not found as well (learners' prior knowledge: $F(2, 135)=1.450, p=0.239$, interaction: $F(6, 135)=1.848, p=.095$). The results of the learner noticing by learners' prior knowledge were different from those of Shin (2010). Shin (2010) revealed significant differences in learner noticing by the grades of learners' prior knowledge. Specifically, learners with

some prior knowledge of the target feature noticed more target features than those with a lot of prior knowledge and those with little knowledge of the target feature.

The different results of the two studies seemed to be due to the different quality of the output activities used in the studies. Both the two studies used picture-cued writing as output activities. However, the learners in the output group in the present study were provided with 3-4 sentences describing the background story for the picture-cued writing, and also the pictures with words and expressions - necessary for writing sentences by learners - were presented only when the use of the target feature was needed. This meant that the learners in the output group might not have been distracted to linguistic features other than the target feature. Meanwhile, the picture-cued writing in Shin's study (2010) asked the learners to write the whole story accompanied to the pictures, some of which entailed the use of the target feature and some did not. The output activity with such quality tends to be readily affected by learners' individual factors. In other words, the output activity with low learners' freedom in the present study seemed to be less sensitive to learners' prior knowledge than that of Shin's study (2010).

IV. Conclusion

This study examined whether the learners' noticing of the target feature differ according to the types of the FonF activities(input/output/input-output/output-input) and learners' prior knowledge of the target feature. The statistic analysis results showed that neither the different instruction types nor the learners' prior knowledge led to any statistical differences in the noticing of the target feature. The results might have been the fact that learners in this study were exposed to the same amount of the target features, and both the input- and output-based activities were designed to be successfully accomplished only through the learners' understanding of the form and meaning of the target feature. However, the pedagogical implications of the study can be limited because of the noticing measurement. This study employed only one type of noticing measurement, *underlining*, which might have measured learner noticing inadequately. Leow (2001) suggested utilizing various noticing measurements for the correct measurement of noticing and the quality of noticing. Therefore, multiple noticing measurements should be employed in the future studies for the correct and multilateral measurement of learner noticing.

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BIODATA

Sinhyang Park

Pukyong National University
E-mail: arncott@hanmail.net
Phone: 051-629-5384

Yunkyoung Cho

Pukyong National University
E-mail: ykcho@pknu.ac.kr
Phone: 051-629-5384

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English teachers' Attitudes towards Korean English in South Korea

Hyejeong Ahn (Monash University)

I. Introduction

In spite of the pluralistic view of English proposed by a large number of scholarly articles, people still regard the new Englishes as largely controversial. Studies have reported that both the general public and English teachers treat American English (AmE) and British English (BrE) as the yardstick of linguistic correctness, and Received Pronunciation (RP), in particular, has been stereotypically accorded higher status and more prestige than any other Englishes (Ball, 1983; Clyne & Sharifian, 2008; Garrett, 2009; Matsuda, 2003; Sharifian, 2009; Stewart, Ryan, & Giles, 1985; Tsui & Bunton, 2000). Similar results were also found in studies into S. Korean attitudes towards varieties of English (Bolton, 2012; Chang, 2005; Gibb, 1997, 1999; McDonald & McRae, 2010; Young & Walsh, 2010). These studies reported an extreme "favourism" for AmE regarded as carrying the only "notion of correctness" in the usage of English.

In this article, special attention is given to English teachers' cognitive, behavioural and affective attitudes towards KoE. Five attitudinal research questions will be addressed. The first two questions aim to investigate participants' cognitive attitudes: 1. "How do English teachers describe KoE?" and, 2. "To what extent, do English teachers consider KoE as a developing variety of English?" The third and the fourth question investigate the behavioural aspect of their attitudes: "Do English teachers use and teach KoE and how do they react when they hear students using KoE?" The last question aims to study participants' affective related attitude. It is important to note that although each research question aims to investigate the different components of informants' attitudes, expressed and elicited data may reveal other components of their attitudes and some of these attitudes conflict with and contradict each other. However, my aim is to draw attention to how the participants define, think about, and react to KoE.

II. Literature Review

1. Three Components of Attitude

The abstract concept of attitude has been explained and defined in a variety of ways and from different angles in a number of studies. According to Garrett (2010) and Baker (1992), attitude is defined in three components: cognitive, affective, and behavioural (Garrett, 2010; Garrett). The behavioural component has also been referred to as a "readiness for action" (Baker, 1992; Bohner & Wanke, 2002). Firstly, the cognitive component concerns thoughts and beliefs (e.g., S. Korean beliefs about and thoughts on the importance of the English language. This component of attitude is based on the notion that individuals are not born with attitudes, but through socialisation particular attitudes are possibly "learned" causing individuals to think or react favourably or unfavourably towards a class of objects. For example, as children enter the school system, they are consistently influenced not only by teachers' instructions reflecting teacher pedagogical choices and beliefs, but also by hearing others referring to certain groups of people, their language and culture in a certain manner. In this process, attitudes towards an object are "learned", "created", "influenced" and "reinforced" by external factors. However, the cognitive component of attitude is often regarded as "opinion"; thus, investigation of this component in attitudinal studies is often excluded.

Secondly, the affective component, concerning a person's feelings towards an object, has been the major area of focus for attitudinal studies of language because this component could be a determinant of a person's attitude. For instance, a S. Korean person encounters someone speaking an unrecognisable variety of English, such as Indian English; they may consider it "pleasant" or "unpleasant", which can cause them to respond to the speaker in a positive or negative manner. The third component of attitude, behaviour, is understood as the predisposition of a person to act in certain ways (e.g., many S. Koreans save money to study English in the USA). Although there has been a great deal of controversy regarding the precise role of attitudes in predicting and explaining behaviour, it has been generally agreed that attitudes can be influential determining factors (Bohner & Wanke, 2002). The difficulty, however, occurs when external behaviour is consciously and/or unconsciously designed to conceal or disguise inner attitudes composed of cognitive and affective components (Baker, 1992). Sometimes it is assumed that if a person appears to have a particular attitude towards an object, their behaviour, in turn, will

reflect this attitude, but this may not necessarily be the case. For example, people's cognitive and affective attitudes toward varieties of English can appear to be one way, but their behaviours can indicate something quite different. Therefore, investigating attitudes towards a language can be a difficult task as attitude is not directly observable, but can only be inferred from observable responses.

2. Korean English (KoE) and Konglish

Park (2009) proposed that KoE included not only specific lexicons but also unique culture-laden linguistic and paralinguistic phenomena that reflect Korea's distinctive value system and cultural and social perspectives: indirectness, modesty, seniority, hierarchism, formality, collectivism and emotionalism. In addition to the development of KoE, a contact language called Konglish has evolved and become a part of everyday Korean speech (Lawrence, 2010a, b, 2012; Kent, 1999). Despite the pervasive use of Konglish, studies on Konglish have so far been few in number and mainly on a small scale. Defining Konglish is largely subject to ongoing debate and, admittedly, Konglish has often been misunderstood or been used interchangeably with KoE (Lawrence, 2012).

One of the pioneers in research on Konglish, Kent (1999) discussed Konglish in association with loan words. While, Lawrence (2012), argues that Konglish is not merely made up of loan words as it has undergone too many changes and adaptation to be simply understood as loan words and proposed the following definition:

Konglish.....are potential contact vernacular developing as a creative mix between English and the local language, which normally include morphology, semantics and syntax but may also include pronunciation, pragmatics and discourse. They are "potential" in that they are not considered languages, but subsections of languages. They are "contact" in that they result from the contact of English and local languages. They are "creative" in that they are not static, but dynamic with new elements appearing and some disappearing over time. They are a "mix" in that elements of English are mixed with elements of the local language, or changed, or recombined with other elements of English in unique ways. (Lawrence 2010b, p.12)

Despite the lack of agreement defining the features of Konglish, several studies found that Konglish is being used by virtually all Koreans, playing a wide range of significant functions in Korean communities. Konglish can be readily found on public signs in a number of areas in S. Korea and, arguably, influencing larger sociolinguistic patterns relating to modernity, luxury and youth.

III. Methodology

1. Settings and Participants

The study was conducted at 20 high schools and 2 universities in two major regions of South Korea: the, *Seoul Gyonggi* and *Busan Gyungnam* regions. These regions were chosen because the population of these areas constitutes approximately 83 % of the total population of South Korea (Park & Kim, 2007). A total of 204 participants were recruited for this study, comprising of 101 male and 103 female teachers. Working experience of the participants ranges from 0 to 20 years. More than two thirds of the participants have been teaching less than 5 years or more than 15 years. The other third have been teaching between 6 to 15 years.

2. Data Collection

In order to achieve triangulation, data were collected from two sources using different collection methods, questionnaire and individual semi structured interviews, over a period of two months. The seven-point Likert scale of 1 (least agree) to 7 (most agree) and multiple choice questions were used in the questionnaire. In terms of interview data, the three research questions were directly put to 25 selected participants in order to understand their views about KoE more completely.

IV. Findings

1. You mean Konglish? Defining Korean English (KoE)

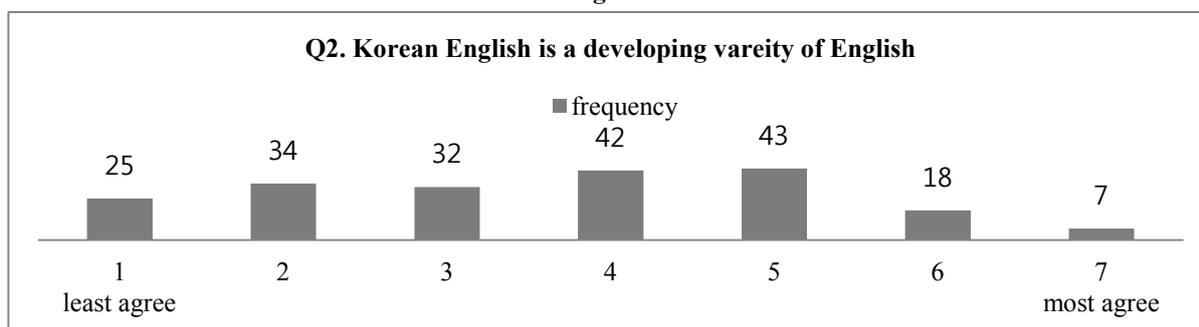
The analysis of answers to interview question 1 showed that there was an apparent misunderstanding by English teachers in Korea about KoE resulting in it being classified as Konglish. It was interesting to note that most of

the English teachers who identified KoE with Konglish showed a rather more negative attitude than those who did not. Frequent definitions of Konglish closely associated it with Korean accent and vocabulary and termed it as “inappropriate” and “not real”, while KoE was labelled as “unique” and “sophisticated” and closely associated with Korean culture and heritage. It was, however, noticed that these participants still believed that KoE and Konglish could be used interchangeably. They reported that they were very familiar with the use of KoE and experienced it on a daily basis. It was also reported that KoE was used mainly in Korea by Koreans and by some foreigners who had lived in Korea for a lengthy period of time.

2. A Developing Variety of English vs. Wrong English

With a mean of 3.57 and a mode of 5, the results for Question 2 in the survey: “*Do you think English with Korean features is a developing variety of English?*” indicated that the largest number of participants had a positive response to this statement, yet it could be seen that a large proportion of the population also held negative attitudes. The analysis showed that there was no statistical difference amongst the three groups.

Figure 1



In short, participants’ attitudes toward this question varied. Some revealed negative attitudes expressing their belief of KoE as a Korean language, as incorrect English or as a learner language, while others were positive believing KoE was on its way to become a legitimate variety of English and had the potential to do so. Intelligibility of KoE in a wider context, and the demographic and geographical use of KoE are significant factors shaping informants’ attitudes toward KoE. Although some teachers expressed their concerns about the present limitations of KoE preventing its acceptance as a variety of English, their awareness and understanding of language variation, spread and English as an international language seemed to have had a major influence on embracing a positive attitude to KoE as a developing variety of English.

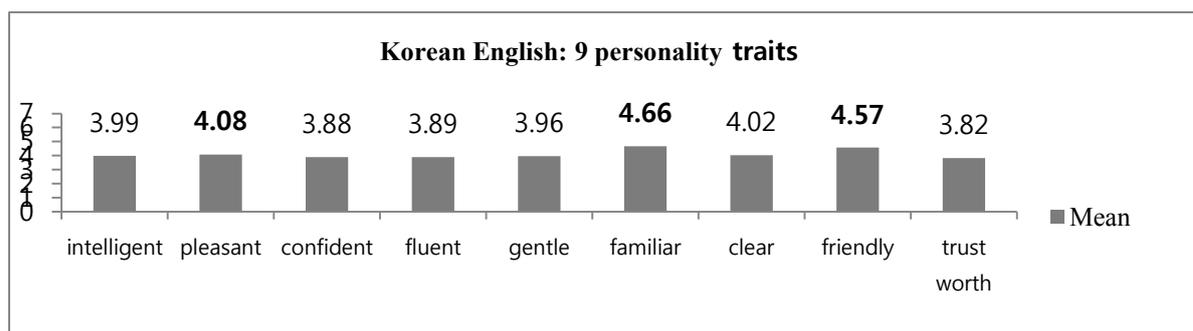
3. Using KoE is O.K. But...

In this section, participants’ attitudes toward their own language behaviour and towards others’ use of KoE were investigated. In summary, participants showed rather negative attitudes towards their own and students’ use of KoE, yet showed positive attitudes towards others using it for communication purposes. Most interviewees reported that they frequently saw both Koreans and foreigners speaking in KoE on a daily basis. Regarding the educational context, KoE was not necessarily considered a poor model of English and AmE was highly favoured as a version of English to be taught, learned and spoken for two main reasons. First, it was because KoE was not the variety of English that was going to be tested which was reported as the main reason for learning English in the S. Korean context. Secondly, KoE was seen as “incorrect English” created by “non-native speakers of English”, therefore, it should not be taught.

4. KoE is Friendly English.

Participants reported that they are familiar with KoE and KoE is considered as friendly and pleasant English (see figure 2). The overall means of KoE (i.e., 4.09) towards nine personality traits reveals that KoE is not considered negative and participants generally showed positive attitude toward KoE.

Figure 2



V. Conclusion

In this study, three components of attitudes toward KoE were investigated and some of the possible causes for developing negative attitudes towards KoE have been discussed. The analysis revealed a contradiction between the two aspects of teachers' attitudes. Ambivalence or a possibly deep-seated bias against KoE seems to exist among the participants. This study has helped to provide a deeper understanding of the extent to which KoE is being accepted by English teachers in S. Korea. Although the present study is highly contextualised to particular educational settings in limited areas in S. Korea, its findings contribute to the field of world Englishes and the concentric circle model by illustrating how EC Englishes are in the process of being accepted and how the users' attitudes are changing. The issue of attitude towards KoE by researchers, teachers, and the public at large has only begun to be addressed, despite the fact that KoE is an everyday language for most KETs and FETs. The results of this study indicate the need for further research into the emotional changes in attitude of KoE users towards the language and also attitudinal changes of other EC users to their own English varieties.

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BIODATA

Hyejeong Ahn is a PhD candidate and an academic staff in the program of English as an International Language (EIL) in the Faculty of Arts at Monash University, Melbourne, Australia. Her research interests include attitude to language, English as an International language and World Englishes.

Email: Hyejeong.Ahn@monash.edu.au

Phone: 613-9905-0902

The Role of Teacher's "Anything else?" Token in EFL Classrooms

Joy Boram Kwon (Sungkyunkwan University)

I. Introduction

Few would disagree that Korean students lack communicative competence (Hymes, 1967) in spite of a steady input of English education from primary school years. There are numerous students who score high grades in English exams, e.g. university entrance exam, TOEIC or TOEFL exam; however, comparing to these high academic performance, it is difficult to find students who have fluent speaking ability or show a confident attitude toward communicating in English. Being aware of the discrepancy of academic performance and communicative skills, more and more specialists are paying attentions on teaching methods for enhancing students' communication skills. The first step would be to increase student's oral participation in class, but before, we should keep in mind that one common characteristic of Korean students is that many of them show reluctance in speaking in front of the class. Therefore, my interest springs from how teachers can involve more students for an active interaction in Korean EFL context. In other words, it would be meaningful to closely examine in what ways teacher-talk can elicit students' responses. Copious studies have observed teacher talk and classroom discourse, but few empirical research have been conducted with regard to how elicitation is achieved in a less communicative language class. In this study, conversation analysis (CA) method (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; ten Have, 2007 *inter alias*) probes how teacher encourages his/her student to speak out has been observed. From the target classroom, a token 'anything else?' appears several times, displaying a strong marker which successfully invites the students to speak out.

II. Method and Data

The data consist of conversations of six to ten students and one teacher in a private middle school. Students are fourteen years old, and all of them are non-native speakers of English, having Korean as their L1. Their proficiency of English varies from intermediate to advanced level, assorted by their academic performance in school. The teacher has advanced level of English, comparable to a native speaker of English. She majored in English Education and graduated from a renowned university in 2011, relatively being a new and young teacher as she has started teaching right after her graduation. The target class is one of the after-school programs, originally planned as a TEE (Teaching English in English) class; however, Korean is frequently used to encourage students to speak, in pursuit of improved communicative competence. The current data set is selected from approximately 240 minutes of classroom interaction. The class was either videotaped or voice-recorded, and the data were later transcribed with the conventions of CA and analyzed qualitatively.

III. Results

Among various tokens, the teacher question of 'anything else' elicited more students' response prominently and led to a more interactive environment.

1. Cases of 'Anything Else?' Eliciting Student's Respond

The first extract presents a conversation doing a classroom activity. The teacher shows the students a picture of Shrek, and asks to come up with a word or words which can describe him. She starts with a question asking 'What words can be used to describe his face?,' and after a several turns, one students says *naphal* (trumpet in English). The teacher initiates the turn with request of searching the equivalent word for *naphal* in English (line 01).

Extract 1. Shrek's face

01 T: What's na:phal in English?
 trumpet
 02 S?: Horn.=
 03 S1: =Tr[u:mpe::t

04 SL: [ho::rn
 05 T: Ho[rn? It looks like a trum]pet? You mean the ears?=
 06 S1: [>trumpet<trumpe-]
 07 S1: =Yeah.
 08 → T: a::h Okay (.)ea::rs: (.) trumpet↑ (.) anything else?=
 ((teacher writes on the board, repeating student's respond))
 09 S2: =[big nose:
 10 SL: [ah::
 11 T: bi:g no::se, okay,

In line 02, one student answers 'horn' and right after S1 (capitalized S stands for student) says 'trumpet' (line 03), where a repetition of a student named Se Li (abbreviated as SL in the extract) is overlapped (line 04). The teacher picks up students' respond 'horn' and 'trumpet' where it overlaps with S1 repetition (line 06) of her previous turn (line 03). The teacher confirms whether *naphal* was intended for describing Shrek's ears, thus asks 'you mean the ears?' and S1 agrees saying 'yeah' (line 07). In line 08, she writes the word on the board simultaneously repeating student's respond 'trumpet' (thus micropause occurs). Despite the eye-contact is avoided, she asks 'anything else' for a successive interaction and consequently achieves in inviting S2's respond 'big nose' (line 09). She repeats (line 11) and closes the sequence by 'okay.'

When enough responds were collected, the teacher asked students to write down some words she had written on the black board, and then, she begins a new sequence described in Extract 2 as following.

Extract 2. Shrek's body

01 T: NE:::xt↓, let's talk about (.) hi:s↑ (.) bo:::dy::
 02 S?: =fat.
 03 T: >how do you<, how can you describe his body?
 04 → It looks bi:::g, fa:::t, >anything else<?
 05 SL: It looks like a mouth.

The first pair-part (FPP) is initiated by the teacher uttering the next task (line 01: ↑NE:::xt↓, let's talk about (.)hi:s↑ (.)bo:::dy::) and one student, serving in second pair-part (SPP), gives an answer 'fat' in latching. In line 03, the teacher reformulates the question into "How do you, how can you describe his body?" Se Li achieves the SPP by saying 'It looks like a mouth.' Her answer triggers a trouble source, since the teacher cannot find any relevance between the body and mouth. In the following conversation of line 05, the teacher repeats her answer in a rising intonation and Se Li provides the reason why she thinks Shrek's body looks like a mouth. The teacher gives explicit positive assessment (EPA) 'how creative' to Se Li (Waring, 2008) and continues to gather more responds asking 'anything else?'

Extract 3. Shrek's leg 1

01 T: =it looks like a mouth, how:::cre^ative! Wow. Se Li. You always
 02 → think >outside of the box. I luv you<. (.) Anything else?
 03 (1.0)
 04 T: \$about the legs?=\$
 05 S?: =sho[rt,
 06 S?: [thin, thi- thin and short.
 07 T: thin and short?
 08 SL: *puleci-l kes-man kat-un namucekkalak.*
break-ATTR thing-only like-ATTR wood chopstick
like an wooden chopstick that is going to break soon.
 09 T: okay. Az if it'z going to break soon.
 10 (2.0)
 11 → T: anything else?=
 12 S1: =brown? shoes?
 13 T: brown shoes? his clothing we're ta[lking about
 14 S2: [gladiator brown shoes
 15 T: ohh:::>bein very<spe^cific.=it's the: style of gladiator.

In line 03, a pause occurs for a second and the teacher extends her FPP by addendum 'about the legs?' A student immediately answers in SPP 'short' (line 05), where it overlaps with another student's respond 'thin, thi- thin

and short.’ (line 06). In teacher’s third turn, she repeats the two adjectives thin and short, and in line 08, Se Li, who provided a trouble source in Extract 2, responds ‘like an wooden chopstick that is going to break soon’ in Korean. This line is noticeable that the learner replied complex utterance in Korean where she is aware that she should answer in English. The teacher admits her answer and repeats in an equivalent English sentence. In line 10, students’ response is absent because students perceived the ‘okay’ token in line 09 as a closing. Thereby, in line 11, the teacher initiates the turn by using the token ‘anything else?’ again, and succeeds in eliciting students respond—S1 answers ‘brown? shoes?’ In line 12, the teacher repeats and give assessment ‘his clothing we’re talking about’ and S2 interrupts giving more description on the brown shoes, supplementary ‘gladiator.’ In teacher’s third turn, she renders a positive assessment ‘being very specific’ and paraphrase into ‘it’s the: style of gladiator.’

2. Cases of “Anything else?” Failing to Elicit Student’s Respond

However, there was a deviant case where token ‘anything else’ did not succeed in drawing students’ answers. The following extract is a consecutive conversation of extract 4.

Extract 4. Shrek’s leg 2

```
01   S2:                                [gladiator brown shoes
02   T:  ohh::>bein very<spe^cific.=it's the: style of gladiator.
03       (1.5)
04 → T:  anything else?
05       (1.5)
06   T:  thatzit? Okay.
07       NEXT. Let's talk about (.) his: (0.5) facial expression†
08       [or action that he's takin.>Whad'iz he doing?<=
09   S3:  [funny
10   S?:  =funny, scaring
```

After line 02, a 1.5 second pause takes place and the teacher attempts to elicit more responds in line 04, asking ‘anything else?’ Unlike the previous examples, another 1.5 second pause occurs and the teacher closes the whole sequence of describing Shrek’s body uttering ‘thatzit? Okay’ (line 06) and shifts to a new topic of depicting Shrek’s facial expression (line 07); S3 and an unidentified student answer ‘funny’ and ‘scaring’ at once. As the students gave immediate responds to the new topic, it could be concluded that students were having problem to bring more words on describing Shrek’s body.

3. Other Linguistic Variations with ‘Anything Else’ Token

Along with ‘anything else?’ some other linguistic devices are found for an effective elicitation. In extract 5, the teacher says ‘can anyone, any volunteer’ (line 01-02), and ‘any disagreeing opinions?’ (line 05). The adjective ‘any’ is repeated, assuming that the term may affect students’ passive attitude that actually s/he can be one of the ‘any’ students to actively speak out.

Extract 5. Discussion on school uniform

```
01 → T: okay:: can, somebody disagrees with this writer:: can anyone,
02 →   any volunteer? read your answers or speak it in: uhm::as a speech.
03     uhm it's ok to tell me um very casually but want you to tell me
04     your opinion why:: you disagree with the writer.
05 →   any disagreeing opinions? ((Yun Seraises her hand))
06     ok Yun Se would you like to read your answer please?
07   YS: =I disagree with the writer. In my opinion, school uniform
08       is cheaper than (those) clothes we buy in three years.=
```

Moreover, the token ‘anything else?’ could occur in a combination with a question, using an ‘anyone’ (line 03) as in the following extract 6.

Extract 6. Fill-in-the-blank

```
01   T:  If you see the key expressions on the bottom you said, I think
      that
02       or you used >first second third therefore and those kind of words.
```


Tailoring English Language Teaching by Reinventing a University English Language Program

Neil Heffernan (Ehime University, Japan)

I. Introduction

With the forces of globalization now visibly evident across the world, and with the massive changes this brings, university students today are forced to deal with these changes by adapting their learning strategies and the goals they have for their futures. In a similar vein, teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) must also adapt their teaching styles and methods in order to suit the students in their classrooms; for in order to successfully prepare them for the rapidly changing world we live in, we must do our utmost to prepare our students for what they may face outside the classroom (Oi, 2005; Tanaka, 2009).

In 2008, Ehime University – a national Japanese university in southwestern Japan – overhauled its English program in order to tailor to the specific needs of its approximately 2,000 first-year students. This reinvention took a four-pronged approach: For the eight permanent faculty members to work on teams to create a textbook for each of the four macroskill-themed classes taught; to make a common test for these classes; to implement a comprehensive e-learning program; and to initiate an “English Professional Course” catering to advanced-level second to fourth year students. All four elements were imposed after the results of research indicated that first-year students at the university desired a more tailored approach to their English language learning. The purpose of this paper is to outline the details of the program as it exists, and to delineate the origins of the program and the successes of the program since its inception.

II. Background

It is well known that reading and grammar are given more importance than speaking, listening and writing in Japanese junior and senior high schools (Aiga, 1990). This poses a problem for students when they enter university, as they do not have the requisite skills to cope with the courses they will have to take. In fact, due to the great emphasis placed on writing at U.S. and Canadian universities (Fujioka, 2001), the conduct of English-language classes in Japan – and indeed across Asia – needs to be re-evaluated. Warschauer (2000) argues that traditional methods of learning English will be inadequate in preparing students for the changes in global Englishes and a society that relies more and more on critical thinking skills. This leaves those entering university greatly unprepared for the rigours of academic life that many teachers expect of their students. True preparedness for a study-abroad experience at a university where English is the language of instruction – the goal of an increasing number of Japanese high school and university students in recent years (Drake, 1997; Heffernan, 2003) – means that our curricula should include courses on how to effectively prepare our students for the world they will face upon graduating from university. In a similar vein, the Vice President of Ehime University has stated that the acquisition of critical thinking skills is a central pillar in the education of all undergraduate students at the university (Matsumoto, 2013) – making the creation of the program delineated here all the more relevant and timely.

III. Details of the Program

The first step of this process was to design a textbook for each of the four macroskill-themed classes. This was done over a period of two years; all four textbooks are now in use at the university and also in the Japanese textbook market. The textbooks were created after extensive research into the needs of Ehime University students. This involved surveying all 2,000 first-year students as to their interests and needs when learning English. As a result, a set of “Can-Do” lists for each skill was created. The “Can-Do” lists were compiled in 2008 after analyzing the data from the students’ responses to questionnaires asking exactly what they expected from their English language studies. From this, a team of between two to four authors set out to write a textbook

that matched the requirements set out in these “Can-Do” lists, but more importantly, that matched the needs and wants of the learners at the university. The resulting textbooks cover topics such as those listed in Table 1:

Table 1
Outline of textbooks in use at Ehime University, Japan

Listening: Understanding conversations on the telephone; making plans for everyday arrangements; understanding weather reports; using everyday complaints and requests (Blight, Tanaka & McCarthy, 2010).

Reading: Reading: the environment; different cultures; technology; traveling abroad (Murphy, Heffernan & Hiromori, 2011).

Speaking: Introducing yourself to others, daily life; likes and dislikes; talking on the telephone; events that left an impression (Stafford et. al., 2010).

Writing: Paragraph writing: hometowns; stating one’s opinion; introducing Japanese culture; and studying abroad (Stafford et. al., 2009).

Next, a common test for all first-year students was created for each of the four first-year classes. There are currently three distinct forms for the Listening and Reading tests, and a specific rubric focussing on the curriculum in use for the Speaking and Writing classes. The Listening tests consist of 50 multiple-choice questions based on the themes and vocabulary of each unit of the textbook. Two types of scripts are on each recording: short conversations between two people, and one announcement or lecture. The first version of the Listening test was piloted with 908 first-year students in the Spring of the 2009-2010 academic year, and subsequently revised and updated. All three versions were recorded professionally at a studio in Tokyo. The Listening test was administered for the third time in the Spring of 2012, with 1,747 students. The Reading test consists of 30 questions based on short texts: advertisements, recipes, notices, schedules. Question types include scanning, skimming, main idea, inference, summarizing, guessing meaning and organization. The first version of the Reading test was piloted in October of 2010 with 807 students. The full version of the Reading test was administered for the third time in February, 2013 with 1,622 students. Similarly, the creators of the Speaking and Writing tests created a rubric for each test based on the curriculum and the textbooks for each class (see Stafford et. al, 2009; Stafford et al., 2010). These tests have remained basically the same as when they were created in 2010, with some minor changes to each of the rubrics to make them more user-friendly for the teachers using them.

The next step in the process involved instituting an e-learning program for all first-year students. The university currently uses “ALC Net Academy” for its usefulness in training students in TOEIC-style questions, as all first-year students at the university must take the TOEIC Bridge test twice a year, counting for 10% of their grades for all four classes mentioned above. The initiation of the e-learning element of the curriculum was a key element of the program, as students consider using the Web as a key tool to supplement their studies. While the program in use has been acceptable to date, the faculty noticed some alarming trends in the students’ use of the e-learning software. Chiefly, a small percentage of students (approximately 5%) did not do any of the work required of them on the e-learning system. Second, a large portion of the students (approximately 30%) started and finished their work on the TOEIC-style questions 24 hours before the stated deadline of required completion. This has led the faculty to either try to implement some stricter rules on the students (since the e-learning system itself cannot be altered because it was purchased from the company that created it), or to look for an entirely new e-learning system to use in the future. This has created a quandary for the faculty members, as the cost of such systems is the primary concern when considering whether to replace the existing one.

Finally, an “English Professional Course” program designed for students in their 2nd-4th years of study at the university, with a TOEIC score of at least 450. Each year, 30 students are chosen from approximately 120 applicants based on an application form outlining their past English experience, an English essay based on why they want to enter the program, their TOEIC score, and a face-to-face interview. Students were required to complete four compulsory courses: Writing Workshop, Effective English Presentations, Oral Communication, and Speaking and Reading Strategies. The students were also required to choose four more classes from a choice of eight: TOEIC Experience, Business English, Discussion Skills, Writing Strategies, Academic Reading, Introductory Interpretation, English for Tourism and International English Experience. The course is offered to students in the Professional Course in both the first and second semesters of each academic year. Each class runs for 90 minutes and for 15 weeks in a semester. A distinct focus of each of these classes is instilling critical thinking skills in Japanese learners, as this is something they are wholly unused to upon entering university

(Kubota, 1997). In correspondence with the tenets of critical thinking, each instructor emphasizes “self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored and self-corrective thinking” (Paul & Elder, 2000) during the Professional course classes. While this is often a challenging prospect with Japanese youth (Vandermensbrugge, 2004), Stapleton (2001) pointed out that critical thinking skills can indeed be explicitly taught in the EFL classroom to Japanese learners; and sometimes with great success (Nishigaki & Leishman, 2001). A final element to the English Professional Course is a study-abroad option that allows students to go to the University of Hawaii for three weeks to study English and stay with a homestay family. This program is partly subsidized by the university.

IV. Initial Results of the Program

To date, the program outlined in this paper has been extremely successful; so much so that other universities in Japan have been enquiring into the program with the intention of setting up similar programs. First, the textbooks in use have been useful for our purposes: they suit the needs of our learners and curriculum. Second, the tests have proven to be an effective measure of our students’ progress in the four courses taught to first-year students. Third, while the e-learning program has had limited success, the current version of ALC Net Academy has its limits in that it does not fully support student learning; there has been some evidence of students cheating the system in order to gain credit for doing work they have not put effort into. Lastly, the English Professional Program saw its first set of graduates in the Spring of 2013: a group of 27 students successfully finished the eight required courses and received recognition from the university for doing so.

In conclusion, the success of a program of this type largely depends on the work put into it: this program was conceptualized in the spring of 2008 and has been a constant project for the eight permanent faculty members at the university. Having said that, the results are in and they are positive: student outcomes and satisfaction – determined by the common testing program in place and regular questionnaires distributed to students throughout the semester – demonstrate a high satisfaction with the English language program at Ehime University.

V. Future plans

With the program described here in its fourth full year of operation, the faculty at the university plans to further develop the program in three ways: i) continue to develop the common tests for each of the courses at the university. This will involve both revising the three current versions of both the Listening and Reading tests so that they are the most reliable and valid measures of our students’ abilities and achievements, and also creating a fourth addition to each test; ii) expand the e-learning program to include more inclusive and user-friendly systems that will prepare first-year students for the TOEIC Bridge test; and iii) to expand the English Professional Course to include more study-abroad options for students to go to American, Canadian, British and Australian universities. A further expansion of the English Professional Course may also include adding more courses to the existing twelve on offer for the 2nd-4th year students at the university. However, this will depend on student demand for such courses and faculty availability to teach them.

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BIODATA

Neil Heffernan has worked at the tertiary level in Japan since 2002 and is currently an Associate Professor in the English Education Center at Ehime University, Matsuyama, Japan. His research interests include testing, materials development and Computer Assisted Language Learning. He is a Senior Associate Editor at the Asian EFL Journal.

Email: heffernan@ehime-u.ac.jp.

Freshman English: Tailoring the Program to Current Day Needs

Andrew Finch (Kyungpook National University)

I. Introduction

This presentation describes the design and implementation of a Freshman English program, which moves beyond “conversation English”, having been designed to meet the current-day academic and professional, needs of university/college students. The presenter will describe the program as it has progressed over its first three semesters and will show how instructor feedback, student feedback, student evaluations, and other recommendations have been used to evaluate and change the program.

Educational reform is under way in a number of countries in East Asia (Mok, 2006), and the 5th APEC Education Ministerial Meeting (AEMM) in Gyeongju, Korea (May, 2012) identified “how changes to the natures of work, instruction, and program implementation are driving regional economies toward future skills, ICT use and teacher quality, and global partnerships” (APEC, 2012). This resulted in a call for innovation in teaching that mirrors earlier calls for urgent educational reform: “We are facing growing needs to learn other languages and unprecedented reasons for doing so as we move into the new millennium” (Tucker 1998 qtd. Genessee 2008, p. 22). A working knowledge of English is now vital for university students in Korea, since many white-collar jobs are being outsourced and automated, technical journals are available in English on the Internet, English is becoming a global language, and international student mobility is making English the international language of study.

In this situation, Freshman English can no longer continue to focus exclusively on ‘conversation’ (Kroeker, 2009) or being able to speak to foreigners. Globalization, international corporations, Free Trade Agreements and a booming world tourist industry have upgraded English to a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2012), while the economic status of the Asian Tigers (Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan), along with China, India, and Japan, has given birth to a sizable community of business people who negotiate and communicate in a common second language. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners now need English for use in their domestic situations in addition to potential international uses, and consequently they need formal and academic English as well as the informal language that has featured in many course textbooks to date.

II. Method

In view of the program requirements, which called for a multi-level, speaking/writing program, the author chose to perform an analysis of the current situation, in order to establish the premises upon which the program would be based. This analysis of relevant sources indicated that: i) Korean students had achieved international success in math, reading and science (c.f. the Programme for International Student Assessment - PISA), but this success had not been mirrored in learning English; ii) students and their parents were highly motivated in terms of learning English; iii) the traditional educational values inherent in Hongik Ingan (UNESCO 2011) were not being acquired in the test-driven classroom; and iv) a task-based, humanistic approach to language teaching and learning had been successful in EFL situations, including Korea, and offered a suitable model for the program (Finch, 2010).

Based on this analysis and the findings in the literature review, the author chose a co-constructivist (Williams and Burden, 1997), socio-cultural, task-based philosophy, on the premise that “learning comes about through interacting with others in meaningful contexts” (Swaffield, 2008, p. 60). This was implemented through a student-centered approach that had been found to be effective with South East Asian students from middle school to university level (Finch, 2012; Littlewood, 2000). This philosophy and the principles that emerge from it are described in depth in an online program mission statement. A summary of these core principles is offered below:

- (1) Learners acquire language according to their own inbuilt internal syllabus, regardless of the order in which they are exposed to particular structures (Willis, 2004).
- (2) Learners do not acquire language as a system and then learn how to use it in communication, but discover the system in the process of learning how to communicate (Ellis, 2003, p. 14).

- (3) Motivation is one of the key issues in language learning (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 1).
- (4) Collaboration is more effective than competition as a means of promoting effective learning (Kohn, 1992).
- (5) Learners learn more in groups than individually (Vygotsky, 1986).
- (6) Student beliefs and perceptions contribute greatly to what is learnt in the language classroom (Breen, 2001).
- (7) Students need to be fully involved in the classroom, so that beliefs and perceptions can be positively modified by experience (Mantle-Bromley, 1995).

The recommended teaching methods for the program were constructivist and socio-cultural, set in a student-centered infrastructure, and facilitated by the two in-house textbooks, which were written by the author. Extra parts of the program gradually grew from this approach, as instructors helped to develop assessment, writing, speaking, and other aspects. However, the books represented the starting point of the syllabus and the program. Both books consisted of 11 theme-based Units, containing structured opportunities for speaking and writing, though the four language skills were constantly in use during the process of exploring, finding out, understanding, applying, analyzing, performing, evaluating, and concluding. This structure functioned as a scaffolding for various types of activities, based on Pattison's seven activity types: questions and answers, dialogues and role plays, matching activities, communication strategies, pictures and picture stories, puzzles and problems, discussions and decisions (Pattison, 1987; Ellis, 2003, p. 68).

In addition, there were also surveys, board games, linguistic and structural input (grammar, vocabulary and paragraph types), process writing activities, and reflective assessment. Mid-term oral and written tests focused on cognitive and linguistic growth, but were only part of the overall assessment process, in which self/peer-assessment, teacher assessment, writing portfolios and group presentations provided an overall picture of the students' skills.

III. Results

1. Evaluating the Program

In view of the number of student participants (more than 4,500), an examination of 100 randomly selected student evaluations (instrument ii) was carried out after semester 1 and revealed a number of trends. This was done in order to obtain a general idea of student perceptions, in preparation more detailed analysis in the second semester.

There was a general satisfaction with the learning content of the first semester, with "a little better," "better," and "much better," being the most frequent comments in all the categories. Many students saw only "a little" improvement in their English skills and a significant proportion wrote "same," still identifying a need to improve in speaking and writing skills. Interestingly, the majority of responses to "What was the most impressive thing in the course" mentioned the final test or "play," referring to role-plays that occurred during the semester, and the final group presentation. The possibility of making new friends during group work was also seen as a benefit. Many students expected to experience a conversation-English program (as in previous years) and were confused at the emphasis on speaking and writing skills. However, the new curriculum had been described in detail (in Korean) in the online syllabus, though it is possible that some students did not read it when registering. As a consequence, some of the learning content (self/peer-assessment, peer editing, discussion, and paragraph writing) was seen as difficult by students expecting to "speak in English with a foreigner," though aspects such as role-plays and the acquisition of presentation skills were perceived as exciting and challenging.

A similar random analysis of the comments in Book 2 revealed that the focus on job-related English skills and academic English was seen as meaningful by the students, who appreciated the learning content despite its extra emphasis on writing. Comments about the textbook were favorable: "I think this book was helpful to students." while comments about speaking skills and writing skills included "better than before," "improved," and "upgraded." Doing one's best was the main factor in comments about the assignments. Groupwork was described in positive terms as "Awesome!" and "It is a wonderful experience," and project work was generally "interesting." Students mentioned being satisfied, making new friends, and being impressed by the print media project (final exam).

End-of-semester student evaluations (administered by the university for every credit course) were also investigated. This evaluation consists of 6 compulsory questions, concerning the syllabus, the teacher, the learning environment, the teacher's attitude, the students' opinion of the class, and the amount of English used in the class. Students give these components scores from 1 to 5. There are also 2 optional questions to which students can respond in writing, and these responses were examined and analyzed for significant trends.

Question 1: What were the most impressive and instructive/beneficial parts of this course?

The group presentation, which replaced the final-term exam, left the most lasting impression to me. It was interesting for each group to prepare and give presentations in their own characteristic ways. (Student 1)

With my group members I prepared for a presentation as the final-term exam, and I really enjoyed and liked the process of preparation. (Student 2)

There was a diverse course plan and professors did their best in teaching. (Student 3)

The entire course was very impressive. (Student 4)

Every part was all good. In particular, doing the job interviews and group presentation was the most instructive to me and deeply meaningful. (Student 5)

Writing (58) and speaking (52) were the next categories that students found beneficial and it is significant that writing was perceived in such a positive light, since the program had changed so quickly from a conversation focus to speaking/writing. Students particularly appreciated the emphasis on job-related writing. This aspect was further commented on in the 'future benefits' responses.

It was very informative to learn how to write a personal statement and resume, and to make immediate use of them. (Student 6)

Writing the personal statement and resume was immensely helpful. (Student 7)

A number of responses (35) praised individual teaching styles, while another 30 expressed satisfaction with personal development during the program. This indicated that the attention to holistic learning had been successful to some extent.

I am not good at English, but this course gave me confidence. (Student 8)

I learned that there is a new direction in my English study, and studying English in an enjoyable manner using diverse methods was deeply impressive. (Student 9)

Finally, classroom activities (group work), assessment, and assignments received a similar number of responses (24, 24, 21), these students seeing the assessment practices and the assignments as the most impressive aspects of the program.

2. Reforming the Program

Meetings with representative teachers enabled significant revisions to be made to the textbooks. These revisions were also informed by the university-administered student evaluations and the in-house student evaluations described in the previous section. In particular, it appeared that there was a feeling amongst students that the writing emphasis (60/40 and 80/20) was too great. Some of these responses had arisen because some teachers had not apportioned speaking and writing activities appropriately. However, in view of the call for more speaking and the overwhelming approval of the end-of-semester group project, it was decided to replace Units 8, 9 and 10 in Book 2 with a drama-project. This would satisfy the need for more speaking and would give students two projects to work on in the final 6 weeks of the program. Students would now be able to make the most of their learning by making a speaking/writing project (writing and performing a mini-drama) and then a writing-based project (making a magazine/newspaper).

Reform is currently being implemented for the first post-pilot year, involving teachers more in the program by promoting special-interest groups. In addition to textbook revision, groups of interested teachers are looking at assessment, extended reading, writing, an online data bank of teaching resources and the policy manual. The orientation workshop just prior to the spring semester will also include presentations by teachers on these topics. In this way, the essentially formative nature of the program and eventual ownership by the teachers can take it into the future, enabling it to be sensitive to the ever-changing needs of the students.

IV. Conclusion

Evaluation of the pilot year of this Freshman English program provides practical evidence that a task-based, sociocultural approach to language acquisition can be adopted to suit university EFL learners at every level, benefiting both teachers and students. The implications of these findings are that teaching to the goals of the National Curriculum, in the context of Hongik Ingan and Canale's (1983) four competencies (linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence), is an effective means of serving the learning needs of future professionals in an ever-changing society.

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BIODATA

Andrew Finch is a tenured professor of English Education in the Teachers' College of Kyungpook National University, where he teaches graduate and undergraduate pre-service and in-service Korean teachers of English. His research interests include bilingualism, education of the whole person, classroom-based assessment, and task-based materials design. Dr. Finch was visiting research fellow at the Graduate School of Education (TESOL), Bristol University, UK, during his sabbatical year (2008), when he visited bilingual and immersion schools in Europe. His Ph.D. was with Manchester University, UK, and was on the design and evaluation of a task-based, three-year language program in Korea. He has authored a number of ELT course books and resource books, some of which can be downloaded (free) from www.finchpark.com/books.

Email: afef@knu.ac.kr

Phone: (053) 9505832

Tailoring Readers Theatre for the TEFL Context

Asano Keizo (Nanzan Junior College, Nanzan University)

I. Educational Constraints

The presenter attempts to show issues, insights, and considerations concerning Readers Theatre (RT) and its applications to EFL classrooms based on his experiences in teaching EFL through RT at college in Japan. A great number of Japanese students wish to be able to communicate in English, regardless of their majors at college. However, in a few weeks after the new academic year begins, students tend to find it difficult to do so. Instructors, too, might want to give up when faced with educational constraints. First of all, for example, the students' motivation to keep studying English seems to disappear once they pass competitive entrance examinations. Some disclose that the purpose of their English study is to take credit for graduation, not necessarily to improve their skills of English. Second, a lot of Japanese college EFL instructors may find it challenging to use English as a means of instruction throughout their sessions. They all know that the students are quite likely to stop listening to them simply because they do not understand.

Another educational constraint would be that almost all Japanese universities and colleges require students to take English as part of their curricula, but the 90-minute EFL classes are provided only once a week or twice for some innovative schools. It would not be surprising to see some students attend private language schools for English speaking practice after school. Finally, but not least, the average graduates would not need to speak in English even though they start working after graduation. It might be necessary for them to be able to read and write English text messages sent through email or facsimile, but not to communicate face to face with non-Japanese speakers on a daily basis. Yet, despite all of the restrictions, many college students would think it is "cool" to be competent in oral English. To meet the needs and expectations shown by the students, the presenter has been successfully engaged in tailoring RT to the EFL context in college classrooms, where readers, audience, and the teacher are all Japanese speakers.

II. Issues of EFL at Japanese College

- (1) Students may have a good knowledge of grammar and a relatively large vocabulary after cramming for entrance examinations, but there seem to have been few opportunities at high school to get trained for oral reading of English texts or speaking English.
- (2) Students are so much used to reading English by translating it into Japanese that they may get a wrong idea of what reading English is; that is, getting Japanese translation of the texts would be the purpose of reading in English.
- (3) Partly due to the social changes brought by the fact that fewer children are being born, students have had less time to communicate with peers and adults than before. It is often pointed out, therefore, that they need to develop their skills to communicate and cooperate with others successfully.

III. Insights into Studying Readers Theatre

The presenter regards RT as a means of an integrated way of teaching EFL: reading for linguistic knowledge, reading for comprehension, and also oral reading as a step towards oral interpretation. As opposed to studying only for scores and grades provided by some standardized English examinations, RT can provide an additional goal or purpose of learning EFL; the students' social growth is observed in such areas as cooperation, responsibility, and sense of fulfillment. Studying RT in an EFL classroom can offer an alternative to studying English for "quantitative" growth, such as higher scores on TOEIC or TOEFL. Studying English through RT would urge students to communicate with their listeners. This must be the fundamental basis of language learning.

IV. What is Readers Theatre?

RT can be defined as in-between oral reading and drama, or as an open book play. Readers read scripts aloud together with other readers. They do not have to memorize their lines. They stand or sit as they read with their scripts in hands or on music stands. They may sit or stand to express the meaning of what they read. Using the animation of body, facial expressions, and gestures can be part of their tools to convey messages. Adams (2003) puts it that RT is a “presentational performance based on principles and techniques of oral interpretation and conventional theatre to present all kinds of literary and non-literary material in a choice of staging styles to entertain, instruct and persuade.” Since RT is an “imaginary play to exert the imagination of the audience” (Holland, 2010), there are no stage props, lights, or sound effects to be prepared and used during the performance.

The production of RT may be divided into several phases. Instructors can engage the students in a circle-reading of the story at the beginning. They get each student in the group to read the text aloud sentence by sentence without casting him. The students can check pronunciation with each other. The next phase is to understand the meaning of the text and to interpret the message. It is often advisable to have students ask journalistic questions as they read along such as when, where, who, what, and why. Then comes the script-making phase. It would be educational to have the same number of reading parts as the readers in a group. Each group, then, reads the script aloud to see if the script just made is well-balanced. It would be extremely difficult to give the readers the same number of reading parts, but this is the time they can make as many adjustments as they can. The fourth phase of the RT production is staging and oral reading practice. The appropriate uses of body animation, facial expressions, and gestures that go along with the oral reading will help the audience understand easily. Finally, all the groups have a run-through before the performance. It is very meaningful to get the students to watch the other groups perform as an audience.

V. Considerations for Applying RT

There is more than one consideration in applying RT to EFL classrooms, but RT can be a successful technique for EFL teachers who wish to make changes in their classrooms.

1. To teach the basics of oral reading, the oral reading phase of RT will cover sentence stress. It differs according to the meanings that the reader tries to convey in the context provided by the story. The reader most probably pays no attention to sentence stress unless he reads it aloud to the audience. The reader will have to understand the text he is reading aloud and decide on the sentence stress in order to communicate with the audience. RT can connect comprehension of the text with its oral reading very easily.
2. The script-making phase gets students involved in reading for deeper comprehension. Script-making of RT may be a little different from what it is thought of. To make a RT script, the reading text must be sorted out so it matches the number of readers. Since RT script-making allows no deletions, additions, or changes to be made in the original reading text, it must be left as original even after it is scripted. Deeper comprehension of the story takes place while it is read again and again to get it scripted fairly for all.
3. It would be advisable to encourage students to use nonverbals such as facial expressions, gestures, and body animation while reading the text aloud. Readers would not have to memorize their lines but as they go reading repeatedly they may start taking their eyes off from the script. To use nonverbals, the reader needs to know exactly what happens to the story in the text. Using nonverbals will make the audience imagine the story more easily. Not only that, it will make the words in the text come alive and make the whole performance more enjoyable. This is practiced in the interpretation and practice phases of RT.
4. Throughout all the phases of RT, it is absolutely necessary for the students to be cooperative and to work in collaboration with each other. Students should be reminded to help and support each other, and contribute to the whole group in the way that they can. A student who may be more confident in speaking and listening than the rest can help peers learn pronunciation and intonation. Another student may be able to interpret the text deeply and explain what it is all about. Another student might be a skillful group organizer who makes a creative learning atmosphere in times of trouble. Whether all the preparatory activities are done in English or in Japanese, students will learn the importance of

cooperating and respecting each other and can enjoy the strong sense of achievement and fulfillment after the performance is finished.

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BIODATA

Asano Keizo started off his teaching career at senior high school in Japan in 1981 right after finishing his master's in TESOL at Teachers College Columbia University, New York. His first school only accepted Japanese returnees whose parents lived and worked outside Japan and also in-coming non-Japanese students. There he taught English for 11 years before becoming an administrator at his second school. After having been in management for another 11 years, he began again teaching English at junior college, his third place of employment, as a full-time instructor. The area of his interest is teaching EFL at college as post-secondary education. He is particularly concerned with applying Readers Theatre to help students develop better human relationships. Currently, he is Associate Professor at Nanzan Junior College, Nanzan University, Nagoya.
Email: kzasano@nanzan-u.ac.jp.
Phone: 81-52-832-6211.

Day 1

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Linguistic Globalization and North Korean Migrants: Preliminary Findings

Eun-Yong Kim (University of Toronto)

I. Introduction

This doctoral research aims to describe and explain a case of linguistic globalization of English as it is experienced by a particular social group in South Korea, the North Korean (NK) Migrants who have defected the state of their birth in the North and are in the process of settling in the state in the South. Two social phenomena constitute the background of this research; first, the increasing dominance of English since South Korea's neoliberal turn after IMF crisis, and second, the increase of North Korean migrants arriving and settling in South Korea since the devastating famine in mid 1990's. Through close contacts with North Koreans in a church community in Seoul since 2011, the researcher identified heavy investment in 'studying English' by North Korean young adults pursuing higher social status, and their perception of English as a major social barrier in integrating into the host society. Taking a sociolinguistic and anthropological approach to this problem, I ask why studying English is salient to NK Migrants for settling in South Korea. The hypothesis of the study is that NK Migrants use English to negotiate between competing ideologies about the world and themselves, and to navigate the complex process of their integration in South Korea. This paper explains this study in detail, presents some for the preliminary findings from the data collection that is currently in its last phase, and the direction of future data analysis.

II. Literature Review

1. North Korean Migrants and English

Studies on North Korean (NK) Migrants report that one of the biggest difficulties for them settling in South Korea is the problem of English (Yoon, 2009; Demick, 2010). The difficulty with English for NK Migrants is twofold; firstly, they have difficulty understanding the language of South Koreans because of the high percentage of English loan words in the language; secondly, they have difficulty following the high demand of English ability by universities and the society, particularly for the NK young adults in, or pursuing, higher education (David-West, 2009; Cho & Jeon, 2004). Although English has been increasingly promoted and pursued in North Korea, signaled by the change of first foreign language from Russian to English in early 1990's (Lee, Yang & Kwon, 2005), most of the NK Migrants in South Korea have much lower English proficiency than South Koreans. However, not many NK Migrant studies have given central focus on this issue of English. Also, the persistent view by scholars on NK Migrants has been based on an assimilation model (critiqued by Yoon, 2009), which assumes that the migrants should assimilate to the monolithic host society. With this assimilatory view, the concern often becomes about how to change their linguistic practice and proficiency (in this case, how to improve English) in order to become more like the South Koreans. This approach too often overrides the attempts to understand the practices themselves and the linguistic landscape of Korea surrounding those practices.

2. Dominance of English in South Korea

Many Korean scholars from diverse disciplines have been trying to understand the linguistic landscape of Korea and explain the dominance of English in South Korea, from the fields of English Education (Lee, 2008) English Literature (Yoon, 2007; Song, 2008), Sociolinguistics (Choi, 2003), and Linguistic Anthropology (Park, 2009). Many argue that the dominance of English should be understood as part of a larger process of globalization and neoliberal world economy. It is mostly agreed that the pervasive dominance of English and the increasing discourse of "globalization" in South Korea was sparked by the neoliberal turn of South Korean economic policies, which began in early 1990's and in full force after the 1997 IMF crisis. Park, (2009) explains the dominance of English through identifying three inter-locking language ideologies or naturalized beliefs about English held by South Koreans; first, we absolutely need English; second, we cannot speak English perfectly because we are ethnically Korean; and thirdly, we cannot speak English perfectly because we are not good at English. Park & Lo (2012) argues that the dominance of English in Korea can be a very useful context for the study of globalization and transnationalism; the increasing study-abroad students and early study-abroad

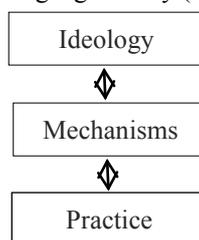
students, the vast number of native-speaker teachers coming into South Korea are all very telling local manifestations of linguistic globalization. However, they note that the North Korean migration into South Korea has not yet been fully documented in this respect. These gaps in the literature, the issue of English of NK Migrants from the perspective of sociolinguistics of globalization are where this doctoral research is situated.

III. Theoretical Framework

Scholars with a critical approach to the study of language have been focusing on the role of ‘language ideology’ which mediates linguistic power struggles, such as language change (Irvine & Gal, 2000), language choice (Heller, 2011), educational policy (Shohamy, 2006) and the global spread of English. As in the example of South Korea in Park (2009), acceptance of the power of English by the South Koreans is not externally forced but rather voluntary to some extent mediated by the language ideologies they believe in. Woolard (1998) suggests two definitions of language ideology with different connotations. First is a neutral definition, a system of beliefs about the role and status of language, how to best learn and assess it. Second is a negative definition of language ideology, a system of beliefs which makes certain linguistic form and use normal, natural and desirable, and often in the service of the powerful. This study will shed light on the language ideologies of South and North Korea through examining the practice and account of the NK migrants.

Shohamy (2006) proposes a framework to explain the relationship between language ideology and people’s linguistic practices. As shown in the following diagram (Diagram 1), ideology and practice are mediated by various mechanisms, which includes laws, language policies and language regulations, language academies, language education curriculum, testing, and public displays. in the following diagram. This framework is useful for analyzing both the North and South Korean linguistic landscape, and the conflict which the NK Migrants experience, who enter the South Korean field with very different tendencies taught from North Korea.

Figure 1
Mechanism of Language Policy (Shohamy, 2006)



IV. Methodology

As this study takes language ideology as its main object of study, it follows the methodology of the field this concept is mainly studied (Linguistic Anthropology), which is Ethnography (Heller, 2008; Erickson, 2005). Ethnographer observes and participates in a social group, taking naturally-occurring data with a holistic perspective and listening for the perspective of the group members themselves on how they make sense of themselves, rather than the researcher exclusively interpreting their behaviors. These qualitative data, or the qualities of lived practices, allow for description and explanation into the beliefs of the group members. Another reason for the qualitative methodology of this study is that there have been many big-scale surveys and quantitative research into scholars and government into the lives of NK Migrants in South Korea. This study explores an aspect of their lives with more details and qualities. As the researcher herself is a Korean, she takes up the position of an ethnographer within her own country, and observes a social group from which she is perceived as both an insider (as a fellow Korean) and an outsider (as a ‘South’ Korean).

V. Data Collection

Recruitment of participants and collection of data have been conducted since Aug. 2012. Recruitment began at the church where researcher first met NK young adults in 2011. This community consists of about 200 members, about half of which are NK Migrants and the other half South Koreans. The NK participants were recruited based on their age (age between 20 and 39, which is about 60% of the NK Migrant population; Ministry of Unification,

2012) and their interest in English. Eight focal participants were recruited over the period of six months. With each participant, the researcher conducted life-history interviews and English lessons over the period of nine months from Aug. 2012 to Apr. 2013. During this period, the research followed the participants to other related sites, such as North Korean Young Migrants' English Speech Contest, and North Korean Christian Young Adult Association, and interviewed the staff there. Three of the participants at the time were attending an alternative school (N School) within the church which helps them prepare for college admission. This school became the focal school for observation. The researcher observed the school, interacted with the fourteen students there and taught several classes for the fall semester (Sep. 2012 – Feb. 2013). Interviews were conducted with the principal and teachers of N School, and pastors of the church. The research visited other alternative schools for NK young adults established by South Korean churches in Seoul, and interviewed the principals and teachers there. Other visited sites were *Hanawon* (government-run settlement education institution for all NK Migrants entering South Korea), English and employment *hagwons*, and private corporation stock meeting.

VI. Preliminary Findings

The preliminary findings through this fieldwork for the past nine months suggest three inter-related factors in constructing the dominance of English for the NK young adults: first, North Korea's extremely limited social mobility, second, the gatekeeping English regulations in South Korea, and third, the western (or global) culture of the South Korean church. Firstly, many interviewees repeatedly testified to a culture of pessimism about studying among the students in secondary schools in North Korea, which caused low proficiency in English among other academic achievements. The reasons for that pessimism are students' lack of hope for the future due to restricted opportunities to children of lower class, students' orientation to family's financial difficulty, and circumstances which restrict schooling due to migration processes.

Secondly, the participants' life trajectories proved to be greatly influenced by the mechanisms of English policy in South Korea. Many of the participants showed a major shift of attitude towards English during the several years they lived in South Korea (ranging from two to six years), from thinking of English as trivial to thinking of English as the biggest barrier in their lives. Several of the participants changed their course of life (choice of college major) or failed in their endeavors (college drop-out, disqualified for employment exam) because of English. They invest a lot on English because it takes longer time to master a language than other academic subjects. However, there were also participants who succeeded in their endeavor using English (US internship, Global camps, employment to foreign airline) and sees English as an area to compete fairly with South Koreans and gain approval.

Lastly, the South Korean church which is one of the biggest sponsors of NK migrants, and a site where large NK communities are found, seem to contribute to an orientation to English due to its doctrine of world mission and its academic tradition centered around the theology schools in USA.

VII. Future Data Analysis

Data analysis will involve repeatedly reading through the corpus of data with some of the key questions that have emerged from the data so far, including: How do NK young adults learn who they are, and what kind of person are they asked to be, in South Korea, in university, and in the church? What are the boundary markers between North Korea and South Korea, and how does English play a role in that boundary-making process? What is the South Korean version of global leader, cosmopolitan life, and English studying? Who of the NK young adults chooses to embrace that South Korean identity of English learning?

This study is limited to a sample of NK young adults in a particular religious tradition, so therefore cannot represent the whole of the young adult generation of NK Migrants. However, the sample does represent a major portion of the young adults, since reportedly around 56% of the migrants participate in Christian churches (Yoon, 2009). The study may have implications on the problem of English for NK migrants and for South Korea, suggesting the influence of ideologies and the possibility for individual agency. It will have implications on how the two Koreas understand each other and themselves.

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BIODATA

Eun-Yong Kim is a PhD Candidate in the program of Second Language Education at Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) at University of Toronto in Canada. She completed her BA degree in English Education at Seoul National University in South Korea, her MA degree in TESOL and MEd degree in Philosophy and Education in Teachers College, Columbia University in USA. She is currently working on her doctoral dissertation on the topic of English and identity of North Korean young adults in South Korea. Her research interests include English Education in Korea, Identity and Language Ideology, Global spread of English, Critical Applied Linguistics and Sociolinguistics, Linguistic Anthropology, North Korean Studies, and Qualitative Research Methodology.

Email: euni80@gmail.com

Sequence, Continuity, and Integration of the Revised English Curriculum

Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National University of Education)

I. Introduction

A curriculum to be successfully implemented in students' learning requires four criteria to satisfy: scope, sequence, continuity and integration. Scope is what should be included in the teaching and learning. Sequence is how different parts of learning contents should be organized in relation to each other so that the previously learned teaching and learning content can support the later part of teaching and learning. Continuity is how a previous learning is repeated in the later part of learning so that students can expand their understanding and engagement of the previous learning in a different and more complicated context. Integration refers to how what students learned effectively become a part of students' thoughts and behavior so that students make a use of the learning in their daily life or life events.

There are growing concerns on the issue of curriculum sequence, continuity and integration of English curriculum in Korea recently with the introduction of differentiated curriculum followed by the idea of grade groups in 2009 revised curriculum. Differentiation requires curriculum contents to be organized in a proper sequence according to the difficulty levels of the contents. The issue of continuity is also discussed in relation to the problem of so called 'overloaded' curriculum. It is argued that curriculum overload is partly caused by unnecessary repetition of the same curriculum contents. The meaning of curriculum continuity can be defined by clarifying what kinds of relationship should be maintained between the elements of curriculum contents. This question has been largely regarded as a matter of curriculum organization, rather than a matter of selecting curriculum contents. Tyler's principles of continuity, sequence and integration have been accepted as the basic principles in this area.

In 2009 the government made another curriculum changes to prepare students to be an effective 21 century learners who require critical thinking skills, creative thinking skills, effective communicative skills and good collaborative skills (4Cs). This general curriculum change in 2009 becomes the directional points of English curriculum revision in 2011. The revised English curriculum in 2011 contains a new concept of running English classes in different grade groups (3-4 grades, 5-6 grades and middle school grades). The grade groups provide the basis of differentiated levels of English proficiency for English education. The grade groups provide a greater flexibility on the part of schools by setting up different classes according to the differentiated strength of students' skills. In this context curriculum sequence, continuity and integration can play an important part to smooth out the transition of elementary school English to middle school English which causes difficulties on the students in the area of written language, scope, sequence, continuity and integration. This presentation will look particularly into the problems and issues of sequence, continuity and integration of English textbooks in a constructive view as to how one can incorporate the concepts of sequence, continuity and integration in a functional curriculum.

II. Historical Perspective

The difficulty of sequence, continuity and integration in the English curriculum was predicted to arise when the curriculum changed from structural to functional. This does not mean that functional changes in the curriculum were not desirable or wrong. On the contrary, the sixth national curriculum changes back in 1992 are known to be the most democratic and needs-based changes in the history of Korean curriculum changes. I'm not arguing in any way to diminish the eventful democratic nature of the process and procedure of the work many scholars and practitioners put in. I want to make it clear that the nature of functional curriculum caused the difficulty of sequence, continuity and integration when the curriculum has implemented in the EFL public school environments where no immediate functional needs can be found.

Up to the fifth national curriculum, the structural patterns of English governed the scope, sequence, continuity and integration. The structural patterns were ranged and scoped, sequenced along with the complexity scale and packaged to each grade level. The same structure was revisited from lesson to lesson in a form of a reading passage, which in a way it includes the concept of curriculum continuity. Integration of these structures they learned was the core of students' reading and brain exercises. The English up to the fifth curriculum remain mental activities rather than practical uses. The notion of sequence, continuity and integration made a perfect sense and systematic and reasonable in the realm of brain exercises.

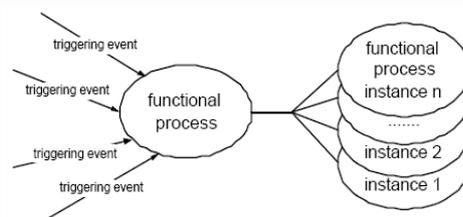
However, once structural curriculum ported out to functional curriculum, the then obvious nature of sequence, continuity and integration was not at all clear. Functional curriculum is based on a list of communicative functions, and the school English classes are expected to put these communicative functions not only for students to know but also into practice and use. The sequencing among difference communicative functions does not make a clear sense. The continuity is a random and arbitrary conceptual exercise rather than governed by any explainable systematic approach. The integration of communicative functions is not easy due to the EFL context where the practical English does not bear the necessary relevance to the students' experiences outside schools.

III. Difficulty of Functional Sequence

Once we tread to the territory of functional curriculum, it's not obvious how we can grade the functional complexity as done in the structural complexity. Is a communicative function, say 'introduction', simpler or more complex than 'expressing feelings'? It's not obvious how one can explain to validate the sequence of the communicative functions in the curriculum once exemplified in the English textbooks. One may argue that sequence of functions should be from familiar to less familiar or from more frequent to less frequent as an alternative to the complexity-based sequence. The concept of familiarity and frequency immediately brings in who-questions: Korean students' daily life, native speaker's daily life or an imaginary world of Korean students' encountering English speaking people. The sequence of familiarity or frequency is largely conceptual and yet to be seen the validated model of it.

The English textbooks dealt communicative functions in such a way that the functions were introduced along with triggering events of the season such as introducing *greetings* and *introductions* at the beginning of the school year, *sharing experiences* after vacations and *speaking of future plans* at the end of school year etc. The textbook authors think of triggering events of functional processes and embed the linguistic expressions around the event so that the functional process is a natural composite of event and expressions. Figure 1 illustrates that events trigger functional process, and the functional processes are accumulated to the stack of functional instances.

Figure 1
Functional Sequence

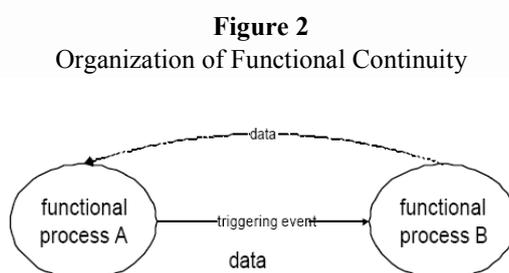


If this is the state of art, the functional complexity can be argued in that each atom of communicative function accumulates into a number of instances to cover the triggering event(s) contextually appropriate. The number of functional instances can provide the basis of functional complexity measure to be validated.

IV. Difficulty of Functional Continuity

The principle of continuity requires that the same educational contents are taught in repetition so that important learning experiences are fully internalized to the learners. However, it is not quite clear what should be repeated and what should not be. If it's repeated, how it should be repeated. Repetition of a simple factual knowledge is unacceptable, for example, whereas 'conceptual themes' and functional skills to learn are encouraged to be repeated. Thus, the criteria of continuity will depend eventually on our views on what the important educational contents are. This means that the principle of continuity is not simply a matter of organization, but also related to the selection of contents. However, the current state of continuity in the English textbooks does not reflect a structural basis of curriculum continuity, but a simple showcase of a subset of arbitrary chosen functions are repeated unsystematically without any structured guidance.

Figure 2 illustrates a structured repetition of curriculum contents supported by triggering event and language data between communicative functions.



Functional process A is connected to functional process B in a triggering event and the linguistic data. Function A is newly introduced, for example 'apology', and a triggering event is designed to support the function, for example 'a kicked ball hitting a girl nearby'. Functional process B is repeated from the previously learned communicative function, say 'suggestion' or 'description' which is contextually support the triggering event with linguistic data. Then the interaction goes as follows:

[Function B: a repeated communicative function]

A: *Let's go and play soccer outside.*

B: *Sure. Let's go.*

[Function A: a new function 'apology']

[Triggering Event: They play soccer and the ball hits a girl sitting on the bench]

A: *I'm sorry.*

Girl: *That's Okay.*

The continuity of function B is triggered by the event, and it supports the event by providing related linguistic data in communicative functions. The systematic continuity must be based on this line of logical interconnections of events and functions.

V. Difficulty of Functional Integration

Integration of curriculum has been a topic of discussion since the turn of the 20th century. Over the last hundred years, theorists offered three basic categories of integration (NCTE, 1935): incidental integration of language with content (multidisciplinary), a qualitative integration of language and content (interdisciplinary) and the unification of language and experiences (transdisciplinary). Integration of new knowledge and skills to the learner's life is a key element to the education to make it useful and meaningful. In a sense it's why we do education to make a sense of what we do and what we do with the new learning. The difficulty of communicative functions and their expressions, some call it practical English, is that the learning does not bear

any relevance to the students' daily life unless they go to the private language institutes where native speakers talk to them in practical English they've learned at schools. To make relevance between English learning and students' daily life, the EFL setting requires teachers to make an extra effort of the integration to happen in the students' life.

One such attempt is a project-based learning using both English and students' life and academic experiences. In project-based learning, students tackle a local problem. Some call this problem-based learning or place-based learning. According to Chard (1998), planning project-based curriculum involves three steps:

- (1) Teachers and students select a topic of study based on student interests, curriculum standards, and local resources.
- (2) The teacher finds out what the students already know and helps them generate questions to explore. The teacher also provides resources for students and opportunities to work in the field.
- (3) Students share their work with others in a culminating activity. Students display the results of their exploration and review and evaluate the project.

Studies of project-based programs show that students go far beyond their level of effort in regular classes, make connections among different subject areas to answer open-ended questions, retain what they have learned, apply learning to real-life problems, have fewer discipline problems, and have lower absenteeism (Curtis, 2002). At Grand River Collegiate Institute in the Waterloo Region District School Board in Ontario, 11th grade students took on the problem of improving the city image (Drake, 2000). This project did not originate in any subject area; students completed project work in a separate time slot scheduled into the school day. After extensive research, students wrote proposals to renew or enhance the city's image and presented the proposals to a group of external evaluators. Student assessment considered teamwork, critical thinking skills, problem solving, and time management. Interestingly, more than one proposal received serious consideration by the city council.

The above example shows a case where the education makes sense of the world to the students by contributing their ideas to the changes of their cities. Functional curriculum can include projects using the communicative functions so that students go out and use the language to do the project. In the process, they are expected to utilize the language. Another context we should seriously explore is that students can use other disciplinary topics to think and discuss using language they learned in English classes. There's a flood of researches as to how to connect the topics or the performative goals to the use of English teaching which can be the guidance to the design of the integrated work of language and use.

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BIODATA

Jeong-ryeol Kim has a Ph.D. in applied linguistics from University of Hawaii and has been a professor of English at Korea National University of Education (KNUE) teaching methodology, integrated content and language teaching, English linguistics. He served as a director of planning and a deputy dean of center for in-service education at KNUE. He is currently serving as the president of Korea Association of Foreign Languages Education for 2013-2014 and was the president of Korea Association of Primary English Education for 2010-2011 and the president of KOTESOL back in 1996-1997. He was involved in different government projects in curriculum, textbooks and English education using information and communications technology. He has published books on classroom English, teaching methodology, English curriculum, English classroom observation and analysis to name a few. He has published numerous articles in the area of elementary English education and technology enhanced English teaching.

Email: jrkim@knue.ac.kr

Phone: 0432303537

The Development of a Facebook Supplementary Learning Model at a Cyber University

Hijeon Kim (Cyber Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)
Jungah Kwak (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

I. Introduction

As the advent of the Internet has made innovative changes, e-Learning becomes a new learning system that overcomes the limitations of face-to-face traditional classrooms, places more emphasis on the students' self-directed learning as active participants in their own learning, gives students web-based learning communities for collaborative learning, and 4) builds open learning systems that students can utilize for various information and multimedia content (Kearsley, 2000). Nevertheless, despite these advantages, e-Learning has also been criticized for the absence of 'social presence' for teachers and other students, encouraging short attention span, and lack of interaction (Parker, 2003). Especially for online universities where most lectures are conducted in online environments, efforts to overcome these limitations have recently emerged. Incorporating Social Network Services (SNSs) or web 2.0 technologies into e-Learning has attracted the attention of some scholars (Blees&Rittberger, 2009; Lee &McLoughlin, 2009), and they assert that SNSs can activate students' participation, increase and encourage students interaction, and have develop social relationships with an immersive environment.

In recent years, numerous studies have attempted to utilize SNS as an educational tool. They have designed teaching and learning models with SNS, and then testified its effectiveness (Balcikanli, 2012; Chen &Breyer, 2012; McCarthy, 2010; Shih, 2011). However, research on SNS and education is still in its formative stage in Korea and most case studies are conducted in the context of offline colleges. Little is known of the implementation of SNSs at online universities and their use for learning English. Moreover, comprehensive, practical and detailed manuals that can be used in a language classroom have not been developed nor have they been studied yet. Therefore, this paper aims to 1) design a supplementary learning model by incorporating online learning and Facebook for a 'Basic English Reading and Speaking' course in cyber universities, 2) investigate the students' perspectives and 3) evaluate the effectiveness of the model. We adapt the supplementary learning approach with mobile Facebook in consideration of most students' occupations; most students at cyber universities are full-time or part-time employees with limited study time. In consideration of the students' limited time and short attention span for mobile learning, this study suggests simple tasks for progressive development. For integrative language learning, the researchers made learning video clips that have listening, reading, writing, and vocabulary learning activities with 'iMovie' and 'Windows Live Moviemaker', additionally reflected authentic English expressions by using the web-corpus tool 'Web Corp'.

II. Supplementary Learning Model with Mobile Facebook

A total of thirty nine students (30 females and 9 males) from a cyber university in Korea participated in this study. According to the students' learning conditions, 39 students were assigned into two groups (Group A: online lectures with mobile Facebook supplementary contents, Group B: online lectures only). Both groups of students took the same online course, but only A group students had Facebook supplementary contents. A mixed method consisting of qualitative and quantitative approaches was employed to analyze the collected data, including the pre- and post-tests, pre- and post-survey questionnaire, mid-term exam results, interview, and qualitative data of students' homework messages on Facebook Sites. This study designed a supplementary learning model based on the lecture course 'Basic English Reading and Speaking' at a cyber university. That online course is a topic-based lecture series and aims to teach speaking and writing through encouraging students to share their perspectives on certain topics. Each topic has a two week learning curriculum consisting of activities to develop receptive skills in week one (reading and listening), and in the second week, learning contents are focused more on productive skills (writing and speaking).

Students in Group A were invited to the Facebook group page 'm-Learning at ○○○' and provided with a set of learning content and homework every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday for 5 weeks (see the Figure 1 below). The reason why the researchers used Facebook as an educational tool is that Facebook has been widely used for

its convenient functions, wide social networks and its 'notification' service that can supplement online education's limitations: The principal criticism of online learning being the perceived 'lack of interaction and immediate feedback'. 'WebCorp', 'iMovie', and 'Windows Live Moviemaker' programs were used for authentic content and integrative language development. In addition, the researchers facilitated interaction with students in a variety of supplementary ways including Facebook messaging, KakaoTalk(a popular South Korean instant messaging service), text messages, and with phone-calls.

Figure 1
Facebook Learning Procedure

Step 1: Instructor – Upload learning content and homework on the Facebook group page (3times per week)
Step 2: Students – Study the content and send answers to the homework by Facebook message
Step 3: Instructor – Check the students' messages and give feedback via Facebook message

The learning flows uploaded on the Facebook group page were as follows (see the Table 1 below): 1) On Mondays - Learn new vocabulary and expressions with the 'Listen & Fill in the Blanks' activity and complete the homework 'Video Watching & True/False Questions' by Facebook message. As soon as the researchers receive a message from students, give feedback. As Shih(2011) addressed, if students write the answer on the related posting, the answer can be easily exposed to other learners who have not studied that content yet. Therefore, this study used the Facebook message function to allow more privacy for checking homework and interaction with students. Then 2) On Wednesdays - By using given collocations, complete the 'Controlled writing' activities and 'Correct some errors' on the context as homework. 3) On Fridays - Do the 'Guided Writing' for the phrase-level and then complete 'Guided Writing' for the sentence-level. This learning flow is carefully followed by progressive learning procedures that ensure the contents are getting progressively serious, broad, and challenging as learning continues.

Table 1
Facebook Learning Contents Flow

	Activities		Target skills
Mon.	Content	Listen & fill in the blanks	Receptive skills (listening & reading)
	Homework	Video watching & T/F questions	
Wed.	Content	Controlled writing with given collocations	Receptive skill (reading) Productive skill (writing) English collocations
	Homework	Error-correction	
Fri.	Content	Controlled writing (phrase-level)	Productiveskill (writing)
	Homework	Controlled writing (sentence-level)	

III. Research Findings and Discussion

1. Descriptive Results for Affective Domains

Students' perspectives for affective factors were found to be very positive. The participants' responses to Question 3 ("Was this Facebook learning more interesting and helpful than a general language lecture at cyber universities?") and Question 5 ("Were you interested in English speaking and collocations?") showed that they considered this model to be helpful and made them interested in learning English collocations and speaking (mean score: 4.0). For Question 2 ("Was it helpful for the development of English collocation skills?") the mean score of students' responses was 3.72 which is quite positive because many different and repetitive activities were provided and these particularly helped students to acquire the target expressions via Facebook.

2. The Language Proficiency

This current study attempted to investigate the effectiveness of the supplementary learning model. The results of collocation ability tests showed that there were no significant differences between two groups' proficiency, even though the mean score of the Group A was higher than in both pre- and post-tests. This is owing to the failure in

the appropriate level of difficulty and sufficient content quantity provided at the beginning of the Facebook learning. Too much contents mad students feel stressed and they had a hard time to do the supplementary learning. Researchers adjusted its difficulty and contents at week 2, however students still felt pressured and burdened by supplementary learning. Therefore, further studies should consider the appropriate difficulty and amount of content that is provided, as well as the importance of continual encouragement from instructors.

3. Educational Value of Facebook Supplementary Learning

To evaluate students' specific and concrete opinions, this study consisted of interviews and open-ended question in surveys. Students reported that Facebook supplementary learning helped them to study English collocations and expressions because of its repetitiveness. They were exposed to the target expressions with various learning activities 3 times a week so that students were able to get used to expressions and acquire them very naturally. Moreover, the results indicate that the encouragement and interaction from the researchers encouraged the students to get sustain their motivation and continue studying. These findings are very much like those of Kang, Han, & Kim (2010)'s studies of Facebook. They demonstrated too that Facebook can foster students' participation and it can be a useful tool for learning especially for communication and interaction.

4. Limitation of Facebook Supplementary Learning

As this mobile Facebook learning was conducted on Facebook, students had difficulties finding certain postings because of its complicated interfaces and layouts. The way in which Facebook orders comments was particularly confusing for students, and interrupted the flow of learning. If someone makes a comment on a posting, that posting goes first and the order of posting is then messed up. Progressive learning is the principle of this learning model, and so the order of contents is very important. Therefore, in further studies, the physical or environmental characteristics of the learning tool that is selected should be considered carefully. Also, in this study, the feedback from researchers took a day sometimes. It is a very crucial factor that students might lose their interest if they must wait for the answers and cannot feel any meaningful active interactions there. One of the limiting characteristics of online universities is that too many students take a class by comparison to the number of instructors available. In the light of this consideration, peer-feedback and interaction with others can facilitate cooperative and social learning by taking advantage of SNS's properties (Bingham & Conner, 2010).

IV. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to 1) design a supplementary learning model by incorporating online learning and Facebook for a 'Basic English Reading and Speaking' course in cyber universities, 2) examine students' perspectives and 3) evaluate the effectiveness of the model. A total of thirty-nine students from a cyber university in Korea participated in this study. They took the same online lecture at a Cyber university but only group A students had Facebook supplementary learning for 5 weeks. The mobile Facebook learning model was designed to reflect the principles 'integrative learning' and follow 'progressive learning' procedures based on the 'lexical approach'. For the affective domains of students, they considered that this mobile learning was helpful and interesting because of its varied activities and repetitiveness. As they were frequently exposed to the target expressions, they naturally acquired that target language. Responses to the interactions online were both positive and negative. While some students were encouraged by the interaction and feedbacks from the researchers and felt that it fostered further learning, others were tired of waiting for feedback. As Shih(2011) pointed out in his study, there is too great a workload for instructors to give quality feedback to many students. Accordingly, adaptation of cooperative learning, social learning, and peer- or group-feedback system will potentially resolve these problems. In addition, there were a few improvements for Group A in English collocation abilities. This supplementary learning was not mandatory and most students in Group A do not have enough time to follow all of the leaning in Facebook. This notwithstanding, although the researchers kept encouraging students to study and submit the homework, the students had low motivation to either complete the tasks or study with committed enthusiasm. With this in mind, evaluations of learning procedures and implement of the cooperative learning factors should be needed for more active participation. SNSs are made for interactions, communications, information sharing, and active participation with each other. When close feedback and interaction was possible, Facebook learning had positive response from the students. It fostered the feeling that the instructors were accessible and around the students, and motivating study. If we learn about the specific characteristics of each SNS carefully and utilize it into the language classroom, it can be of great value as an educational tool and encourage students to feel more connected and willing to communicate with each other.

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BIODATA

HiJean Kim is currently an associate Professor of English and the head of U-learning Center at Cyber University of Foreign Studies. Her research interests include e-learning, blended learning, smart learning and the application of corpora to higher English education. She sits on the editorial board of several peer-reviewed journals and her articles have appeared in distinguished publications.

Email: hijean@cufs.ac.kr

Phone: 82-2-2173-2377

Jungah Kwak is a graduate student at Hankuk Universities of Foreign Studies Graduate School of Education. Her research interests are smart learning, e-learning, and multimedia assisted language learning.

Email: victoria48@cufs.ac.kr

Phone: 82-10-5499-9418

Visualizing the Ideology of Native-speakerism Through Narratives of Asian English Teachers

Hye-Kyung Kim (University of Seoul)

I. Introduction

The ideology of native speakerism assumes that NESs have a special claim to English, and this ideology provides a basis for the deeply embedded dominance of NESs both in decisions about the most appropriate models for teaching English and in the recruiting of teachers (Holliday, 2005). In particular, Holliday (2005) reveals the ideology that shapes the distinction between NESs and non-NESs, and names this ideology a form of “native speakerism,” which refers to “an established belief that ‘native speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (p. 6). Holliday (2005) adds that there is no reason that applicants labeled nonnative cannot be good or even better teachers than native fellow teachers. For example, non-NESs can acquire an instinct similar to that of NESs, which is crucial for effective teaching. They can also be sympathetic to English language learners’ frustrations with the target language in a way that NESs cannot. In this study, using critical discourse analysis and visual analysis, I explored how East Asian English teachers enrolled in a U.S. language teacher education program positioned themselves as language teachers in relation to issues of native-speaker ideology.

II. Methodology

In order to capture the complex negotiation of identity and ideology described in the participants’ lived experiences, I employed critical narrative research.

1. Participants

My participants were East Asian graduate students enrolled in a U.S. language teacher education program. With one exception, all the participants were born and received their regular school education (from elementary school to college) in their home countries, and all came to the United States to earn a Master’s or doctoral degree in Language Education.

2. Data

To generate multiple sources of narrative data, I utilized individual interviews, group conversations, and drawings.

3. Analysis

Using Gee’s (2005) suggested building tasks as a framework, I examined identities (more specifically, socioculturally-situated identities), politics, and connections that were constructed during the individual interviews and group conversations. In addition to critical discourse analysis, I also looked at visual texts created by study participants for data analysis in order not to miss important messages hidden in spoken and written texts. Albers (2009) asserts that all images are “entirely in the realm of ideology” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, p. 12; cited in Albers, 2009), in which particular discourses are privileged and others are silenced (p. 9). To systematically analyze the discourse and the world as interpreted by the textmakers, I examined the structures and organization of visual texts and how certain social structures and social identities are depicted within the visual texts (Albers, 2009). As a next step, I drew connections between visual texts and spoken data in order to fully understand the creators’ intentions behind their artworks (Reissman, 2008). By analyzing visual and spoken texts together, I was able to map the complex identities of each participant, noting consistency or contradictions in how they positioned themselves in situated contexts.

III. Findings

This study reveals that native-speaker ideology was explicitly or implicitly embedded in the personal narratives of Asian non-NESTs enrolled in a U.S. language teacher education program. They viewed themselves as less-than-confident non-NESTs or overwhelmed/silenced non-NESTs in the classroom. However, I found that their identities as non-NESTs could be transformed and actively or implicitly challenged by their participation in this study and/or in the U.S. language teacher education program. U.S. education seemed to reshape Eunji's and Yiping's identities as confident language teachers. Critical thinking developed during their U.S. university experiences actively challenged Minsu and Bin to view themselves as an ambivalent language teacher and a WE-oriented language teacher, respectively. Long and extensive participation caused Chen to see herself as a well-prepared but inflexible language teacher because she learned many language, literacy, and research theories from a U.S. language teacher education program, but the reality she confronted in society might make her behave in a limited way, and ideologies might influence her actions in contrast to her wish to become a more flexible language teacher. In short, the study participants, with the exception of Eunji, seemed to have an opportunity to develop their critical perspectives on controversial issues of language education in doctoral level courses provided by the language teacher education program. Hence, the impacts of our group conversations and/or the language teacher education program on their self-images as non-NEST preservice teachers turned out to be diverse depending on their personal learning and teaching experiences in the United States and their home countries.

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BIODATA

Hye-Kyung Kim received her PhD in Linguistics from Ewha Womans University in 2001 and her second PhD in Literacy, Culture, and Language Education (LCLE) from Indiana University at Bloomington in 2012. She taught language education-related courses in the department of LCLE and Korean as a foreign language in the department of East Asian Languages and Cultures at Indiana University, and is currently teaching general English at the University of Seoul, Korea. Her research interests include second language teacher education, language teacher identity, language and ideology, and World Englishes.

Email: kimhk3@uos.ac.kr

Phone: (02)6490-5229/H.P: 010-9389-0316

The Use of A Movie Summary to Identify Cause-effect Relationship in English

Anissa Pane (Sampoerna School of Education)

I. Introduction

Reading is one of the underlined language skills. Bhardwaj (2004) names reading as ‘a tool of acquisitive mind’, which allows the user to absorb the knowledge that cannot be transferred orally. Thus, improving reading skill is very important, including for students. To achieve this goal, one of the strategies that can be taught to students is identifying cause-effect relationship in sentences. In one of the teaching practice programs conducted by Sampoerna School of Education, higher education institution, the researcher taught 9 students of XI Science 1 in one of the private high schools in Bekasi, Indonesia. The topic was about how to identify cause-effect relationship in sentences using a text. In the beginning, a literature text is used, which was a novel excerpt that existed on the school textbook at that time. However, the students encountered some difficulties to find cause and effect using that text. Most of them said that the story was not really interesting and the vocabularies used were too hard for them. So, the researcher changed the reading material into a movie summary of Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows, in which the story was known and liked by the students. In this paper, movie summary of Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows will be called ‘the movie summary’. Through this study, two research questions are delivered:

- (1) After reading the movie summary, are the students able to find cause-effect relations in sentences?
- (2) What do students perceive about using the movie summary related to learning cause and effect?

II. Literature Review

In spite of reading skill as an essential language skill to be learned by students, it cannot be assumed that all students like reading texts. Combs (2011) states that readers could take reading as a boring activity when they are not interested in the content. Supporting Comb’s statement, Nuttall (as cited in Brown, 2000) pointed up one of criteria in choosing a reading text, which is: suitability of content. It means that the material learned should be interesting for students and suitable for their goals in learning English. It will also be harder for them to understand a text with a topic beyond their prior knowledge. Sweet’s summary (as cited in Braunger & Lewis, 2006) purposes one type of specific prior knowledge called topic-specific knowledge, which makes readers use their prior knowledge to understand the points in a topic given. Meanwhile, Cook (1989) states that the mind can be simulated by the context to activate knowledge schema and process the discourse. Thus, the consideration on students’ interest and prior knowledge is prominent to select the appropriate text to train students’ reading skill.

One of the reading strategies that need to be learned by students is identifying cause and effect relationship. Learning cause and effect using texts is a strategy for students to understand the message of a text. Cause and effect show the relationship of one event results in another (French, 2002). Finding cause-effect relationships can also be used to take the implicit message (Nation, 2009). It is included in analysis level, where students are also able to break the whole point into smaller parts and understand the relationship among them (Badgett & Christmann, 2009). Moreover, French (2002) supports this by stating that students should bear it in mind that the order of cause and effect in a text could be varied. He exemplifies that the cause does not always appear before the effect. Thus, Reiner (as cited in Davis, 2009) argues that relating cause and effect could be taken as students’ task for assessing their reasoning and thinking skill. It shows how importance it is to teach students to analyze cause and effect in a text using appropriate strategies.

One of the text type used commonly for learning English is movie summary. March et al. (2008) suggests that writing movie summary is one of the effective study strategies to help students improve their writing skill. O’ Bannon & Goldenberg (2008) recommend writing movie summary as a post activity to improve students’ writing skill for particular topics. Nahrwold (2004) conducts a research to improve students’ writing skill, along with their social competence, by instructing them to write a movie summary and discuss it in groups. The process of summarizing itself is included in higher-level thinking skill because it helps the students to absorb what they are learning (Buckner, 2005). Many studies and theories like the ones mentioned above describe how

summarizing movie can be used to improve writing skill. However, there have not been many studies which use movie summary to improve reading skill or reading strategies. Therefore, taking 'thinking skill' described above as the same point needed in summarizing movie and learning cause and effect, the researcher carried out a study about using a movie summary to teach students how to identify cause-effect relationship as one of the reading strategies.

III. Data Collection and Analysis

Due to the difficulties encountered by the students in learning cause-effect relationship using a literature text, the researcher decided to change the reading text with a movie summary of Harry Potter and The Deathly Hallows. The choice on this text is based on informal chat between the researcher and the students that showed the fact where all the students knew the story and most of them had watched the movie. Besides, the vocabulary and sentences structures used in the summary were also checked via readability statistics in Microsoft Word based on the FRE scores.

Each student is given one text and one blank cause-and-effect table to be fulfilled during reading activity. Here, the students should find pairs of causes and effects in the story and put them in the table according to the categories. During the process, the researcher monitors the students' work. After the activity was accomplished, in order to find out the students' perception on using movie summary to learn cause-effect relationship, the researcher also asked them to write a reflection on the reading material they preferred to be used in learning cause-effect relationship. To make it easier, they were invited to reflect their feeling about learning cause effect using the novel excerpt and the movie summary. Some guidelines on separated paper had already been written. The students just got blank paper to give their responses to the guideline. It aimed to give them freedom to write as much as they wanted. They also had a freedom to use Indonesian or English for their convenience.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. The Process of Analyzing Text

During the reading and analyzing process, the students were still sometimes confused to decide whether a sentence they read had a cause-effect relation or not. Nonetheless, using the movie summary, the researcher built illustrations in students' mind. To elicit students' prior knowledge about the story, the researcher asked them to read the sentence carefully and connect it to what they knew about that part of the story. Some questions were delivered as hooks, such as: 'Do you think this is the cause of that event?' or 'From this sentence, do you think that the fight is the cause why Ron leaves Harry and Hermione?' Dils (2009) takes this as 'think visually'. She places this term in writing skill, where the writers should have an illustration in their mind for each episode they make. Meanwhile, reflecting from the application of this concept in learning cause-effect relationship, I believe that this illustration also works for reading activity when it is connected to students' interest and prior knowledge.

It was easier when there were some conjunctions, such as 'so', 'because', and any other conjunctions indicate cause-effect relationship. This touches a model of reading process by Carpenter & Just (as cited in Samuels & Kamils, 2002), called 'interclause integration'. They argued that to understand the coherence of clauses or sentences in a text, the readers should relate them each other. According to Cook (1989), one of the cohesive devices is conjunction, which shows type of relationship between sentences or clauses. However, when they did not meet these signals, they sometimes misplaced the cause as the effect and vice versa. Here, I invited them to use their thinking skill. While pointing the sentence, the researcher gave some questions like: 'Which comes first between these two events in the story?', 'Do they decide to revisit Godric's Hallow to find a clue or do they find a clue to revisit Godric's Hallow?' Then, they got the point and understood how to determine which sentence was the cause and which one was the effect. Those problems were getting decreased as the students were used to using those methods in finding cause-effect relationship in sentences. After finding those elements in sentences, they submitted their work.

2. Overall Results

After the students learned how to encounter those difficulties, it can be seen in their work result that mostly, they

could find the causes and effects on the movie summary. They could break the united ideas into parts and determine the pairs of causes and the effects by placing them correctly in the column provided. It showed their ability in deciding which parts were the causes and which ones were the effects. There were only slight mistakes from some students, which were between one to two numbers, including the mistake in interpreting an event to be the cause of others and the mistake in mentioning the doer of the act. In spite of those slight mistakes, there were also students who found the correct causes and effects for all parts of the column. This is the example of the result:

Table 1
The Example of Students' Work Result

Cause	Effect
e.g. Voldemort's Death Eaters want to torture the Dursely's for information.	e.g. The Dursely's are forced to go into hiding
Because of their lack of plan, lack of food, and lack of progress	Their spirits are often low and Ron becomes argumentative
In search of clues	They finally decide to revisit Godric's Hallow
Harry discovers his wand was broken in the battle	Their spirits sink even lower
One night, Ron and Harry get into an epic fight	Ron leaves to go back home

Based on the reflection, it could be seen clearly that there were some reasons why students chose the movie summary to learn cause and effect. The first one was the vocabularies used in the summary that are considered easier than the one in literature text. These vocabularies influenced their perception on understanding the story. Nation (2009) states it is good to give input for students' vocabulary knowledge through reading activity in which the text contains new vocabularies for the target students. Nuttall (as cited in Brown, 2000) mentions it as *readability*, where the texts used should have lexical and structural difficulty that challenge students but does not burden them. Thus, in spite of some new vocabularies in the movie summary, the students did not take them as burdens, but perceive them as a point to support their comprehension on the story.

Beside the vocabulary level, students' interest and prior knowledge about the story also made them feel that learning cause and effect is easier if they use the movie summary. They said that it was because they could imagine the story to grasp the content. It indicates that students' interest and prior knowledge about the story motivate them to read the text. According to Medina (2008), students' motivation to read engage them more in learning process and give them a long-term recall of what they read. Therefore, the students' motivation that come from their interest and prior knowledge about the story becomes an essential point that help the students engage in the learning process.

IV. Conclusion and Recommendation

It can be concluded from this study that the movie summary can be used to teach cause-effect relationship as one of the reading strategies. It involves students' thinking skill to find cause and effect in the text. The students also perceive that the movie summary helps them learn about cause-effect relationship because of their interest and prior knowledge about the story. Some of the students only write few words to describe their feelings. Looking at this situation, the researcher actually planned to design an interview session with the students to clarify their responses and to ask further questions. However, due to the limited time and schedule change from the school, this planning could not be conducted. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers provide time to conduct interview session whenever it is possible, especially if they need to clarify some points in students' reflection.

To conclude, using a movie summary in teaching cause-effect relationships is recommended, especially for teaching students whose English language skill is in intermediate level. The flow of the story helps them determine which causes and effects exist in sentences. Considering students' interest and prior knowledge about particular movies is also very helpful to choose the appropriate movie summary as the reading text. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers observe or do a survey first to know what movies are known and liked by their students. It is also important for the teachers to consider or even edit the words choices on the text to make them suitable with the students' English proficiency. Other text types with higher level of vocabulary may be used when they have learned about cause-effect and have understood the strategies to decide which causes and which effects exist in sentences.

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BIODATA

Anissa Pane is a teacher candidate from Sampoerna School of Education, Indonesia. Her interest is in language, culture, art, sociolinguistics, grammar, and English language teaching. She has conducted some research studies fall into those areas, including the one presented in ILAC international conference in Thailand.

Email: anissa.pane@ymail.com

Phone: 08988897079

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Teacher Feedback on L2 Writing in Assessment for Learning: A Case of an Experienced College ESL Composition Teacher and a Novice Student

YiBoon Chang (The Ohio State University)

I. Introduction

As one of the most common daily practices in L2 writing instruction, teacher feedback has constantly attracted the practitioners and researchers concerning its pedagogical effects. The widely-known controversies about the effects of feedback practice on developing L2 writing abilities are still under a heated debate. Meanwhile, more pedagogically constructive perspectives on the feedback practice have recently emerged in the pursuit of developing effective feedback practice rather than testing its effects (see Evans et al., 2010). This new strand of feedback research corresponds to the emerging concept in the field of educational assessment, an Assessment for Learning (AfL). AfL prioritizes the role of assessment as a foundation of enhancing students' learning and underscores the role of feedback as one of the key elements (Black & William, 2009). Recently, Parr and Timperly (2010) located teachers' written feedback in the AfL perspective, which suggests that AfL is a viable theoretical framework for the research on L2 writing feedback to enhance its pedagogical effects.

As AfL is an emerging theoretical framework, existing studies have some limitations. On the one hand, most of the studies involved training novice teachers from the AfL perspective to provide quality feedback. However, positive evidence of quality feedback from experienced teachers would help to provide more down-to-earth suggestions for novice teachers complementing the theory-driven training. On the other hand, the learning effects of quality feedback to student writing were primarily determined by students' writing products, not fully considering the process of their writing. For the further development of this new concept of AfL, it is necessary to expand the extant research to explore how teacher feedback is actually practiced with regard to the AfL perspective and how students improve their learning through teacher feedback in the intact L2 writing classroom.

To serve the recent needs of both fields of L2 writing and educational assessment, the present study aims to explore how an experienced teacher practices feedback to writing (to complement the previous studies on novice teachers) and how a novice student develops her learning in the process of responding to teacher feedback (to complement the product-oriented prior studies) from the perspective of AfL. The aims of this study are embodied in the following research questions:

- (1) How does an experienced college ESL writing teacher coordinator practice his written and oral feedback to L2 writing from the perspective of assessment for learning?
- (2) How does a novice student engage in an assessment for learning through the teacher feedback?

II. Method

1. Research Site

The research site is an advanced level college ESL composition class in a large American University. ESL students are required to complete a series of composition courses to be eligible to take required English classes in the General Education Courses. Most of them are assigned to ESL composition courses according to their performance in the placement tests. The advanced level course aims to equip ESL students with academic writing conventions, particularly those of integrating sources into their formal research paper. To attain the course objectives, students were given five weekly writing assignments (ex., paraphrasing, summarizing etc.) and two major writing assignments (mini research paper and long research paper) during a 10-week quarter. The teacher and students mainly responded to each other online concerning the assignments; students submitted their writing assignments on the online course management system and the teacher posted his feedback including final grades on the system as well.

2. Participants

The teacher of the research site, an Indonesian male in his 30s, is an experienced ESL composition teacher and academic specialist coordinating the advanced level courses. With his 10-year teaching experiences in the ESL

program including the first one-year tutoring experience at the University Writing Center, he has developed his own belief in teaching and learning L2 writing and established his identity as an important member of the program also serving. The student participant Z, a Chinese female in her early 20s, is a freshman who graduated from a high school in the U.S. having stayed in the U.S. around two years. Although she finished her third year of high school in the U.S. as an exchange student, she did not have formal instruction on L2 writing including teachers' written feedback or individual tutorials. She was one of the most inexperienced L2 writers in the research site.

3. Data Collection and Analysis

The data corpus consists of teacher's written feedback to student drafts of all writing assignments, student drafts and final revised products, the audio-recordings of two individual tutorials for major writing assignments, and the audio-recordings of interviews. The interviews were conducted total four or five times to explore how the teacher and the student thought about L2 writing feedback in general and how they responded to each other participating in each writing task. The teacher's feedback, both written and oral, was coded following the teacher feedback typology proposed by Tunstall and Gipps (1996) as seen in Table 1. Then, it was examined how the teacher and the student engaged in each type of teacher feedback with regard to the two research questions.

Table 1
Teacher Feedback Typology: A Summary (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996, p. 392)

Type	S	A1	B1	C1	D1
Category	Socialisation	Rewarding	Approving	Specifying attainment	Constructing achievement
Type		A2	B2	C2	D2
Category		Punishing	Disapproving	Specifying improvement	Constructing the way forward
Role	Socialisation/ management	Classroom/ Individual management	Performance orientation	Mastery orientation	Learning orientation

III. Results and Discussion

1. Teacher Feedback to Student Writing

The teacher was found to have instructional goals of promoting learners' independent learning and helping them to be a better writer, which corresponds to the principles of AfL. Accordingly, the characteristics of mastery-oriented (Type C) and learning-oriented (Type D) feedback permeated his feedback practice. More specifically, the check-list question and answering format in his feedback to weekly writing assignments demonstrates specific indication of learning objectives and success criteria (in the questions) and the student's current achievements in relation to the objectives and criteria (in his yes/no answers to the questions) as follows, which corresponds to C1 and less-specific C2 type feedback.

Does the paraphrase have the same meaning as the original? Yes
Does the writer use his/her own words to explain the idea? Yes
Is the sentence grammatical? Yes
Are vocabulary choices appropriate? No ("standing" was used inappropriately in the sentence)
Is the paraphrase cited correctly? No
 (Teacher's feedback to Z's 1st weekly writing assignment of paraphrasing)

Having recently adopting the check-list type of feedback, the teacher was satisfied by the fact that his feedback became more systematic in terms of identifying the good and bad points of student performance. In the feedback to major writing assignments, the teacher selectively provided written feedback according to the task-specific learning objectives and success criteria. His written feedback featured predominantly C1 and C2 type feedback including direct corrections of Z's grammatical errors. His comment-type written feedback was more likely to promote Z's self-checking practice by reminding her of the success criteria (ex., *What is the concluding sentence for this section? How is this example supporting your main idea of how we define others?*) or by indicating the gap between success criteria and her performance (ex., *Pay attention to the subject-verb*

2. Student Engagement into Teacher Feedback

With regard to the type C1 and C2 feedback to the weekly writing assignment, Z valued the specification of attainment and improvement in the check-list format, but expressed the demand of D2 type feedback so that she could see how to improve her current performance. For the major writing assignments, Z intentionally set the room for teacher feedback to the problems that she had not been able to deal with on her own in the process of drafting. During the tutorial about mini research paper, her participation in tutorial interaction was very limited having hardly initiated tutorial interactions mostly acknowledging teacher's feedback, although the teacher tried to invite her into more constructive feedback interactions. In the tutorial of long research paper, however, she actively participated in the tutorial frequently initiating tutorial interactions by asking questions and sharing her challenges. In her subsequent revision, Z appeared to act out her autonomy and responsibility in her final products, making additional revisions without teacher's written or oral feedback. In that process, she reminded herself the teacher's emphasis on the principle that she is the one who is primarily in charge of her writing. Meanwhile, various contextual factors such as her personal time management appeared to influence her response to teacher feedback. For example, Z could not work enough on the final draft of long research paper due to her friend's unexpected invitation to dinner. She could not improve her draft enough under the tight schedule and just submitted the final draft. Concerning teacher's feedback to final grading reports, her interest was found to be primarily drawn to the letter grade despite her appreciation of the C1 and C2 type teacher feedback on the report. Indeed, the student did not even look at the mastery-oriented feedback after having checked her letter grades.

IV. Conclusion

The present study shows that quality teacher feedback from the perspective of AfL promotes student autonomy in learning. In particular, learning-oriented feedback (D1 & D2) gave rise to the most tangible changes in the novice student's participation in feedback practice. Conversely, the traditional summative type feedback, i.e., final letter grades, appeared to interfere student learning as it distracts the student's attention from the quality feedback. The study also demonstrates that an experienced teacher with instructional goals of AfL perspective successfully practices quality feedback facilitated with his own strategies from extensive experiences. His valuable hands-on practices of quality feedback and the related trial and error give a meaningful implication to L2 writing researchers and practitioners.

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BIODATA

YiBoon Chang is the fifth year doctoral student in Foreign, Second, and Multilingual Language Education program at the Ohio State University. Her research interests include incorporating Activity Theory and Assessment of Learning into conceptualizing L2 writing feedback practice. She also pursues to examine the dynamics of interaction among diverse contextual variables around feedback practice and the cross-modal (written-oral) mediation of sequential feedback practice in the process writing approach.

YiBoon Chang

Email: yiboon22@gmail.com

Corpus-Based Grammatical Studies of Philippine English and Language Assessment: Issues and Perspectives

JooHyuk Lim & Ariane Macalinga Borlongan (De La Salle University)

How the world Englishes paradigm impacts language assessment has been perplexing among scholars and stakeholders of various vested interests on the matter. While the issue remains controversial, most especially because language testing and assessment is one enterprise that is about accuracy, the apparent ‘dilemma’ that the world Englishes paradigm presents is that of accommodation of variety and, in effect, divergence. The present paper stands on a more dispassionate plane: How a sub-set of world Englishes studies – to be more specific, corpus-based grammatical studies of Philippine English – may influence the practice of language testing and assessing.

This paper is organized as follows: First, it contextualizes the discussion within the landscape of Philippine English as a new English and as a field of study, with emphasis on endonormative stabilization of grammatical structures. Then, it will discuss the meta-synthesis of Borlongan and Lim (2012a) of corpus-based grammatical studies of Philippine English. Finally, directions to take towards a world Englishes paradigm-informed language assessment in the Philippines will be suggested.

Ample descriptions of Philippine English grammar have been made available through the compendium of corpus-based grammatical studies of Philippine English. Corpus-based reference works (e.g. Borlongan, 2011a) are also being prepared, and hopefully a much more comprehensive grammatical description of Philippine English will be ready soon. These are valuable resources, among others, in informing language assessment of the world Englishes paradigm, of the variation that should be recognized as acceptable, and not labeled as learner errors. Standardized tests are fairly institutionalized mechanisms, and may be hard to commit to transitional change. Also, comprehensive paradigm shifts in the construction and implementation of these standardized tests require access to a readily available grammar. This notwithstanding, the reality remains that these standardized tests (which are Anglo-American-based) are given high recognition and validity for the various purposes they may serve. And therefore, how the results of these tests are valued and used as a means to discriminate persons in general and students in particular must be reconsidered.

Within the present realities, it is almost impossible to instigate institutional change and comprehensive paradigm shift. The perennial problem of the Philippine educational system is lack of resources, most especially financial resources, and this delays innovation. Putting up standardized tests that conform to the conviction of the world Englishes paradigm requires comprehensive linguistic descriptions of Philippine English. A grammatical description of just one grammatical category (i.e. Borlongan’s [2011a] verb grammar) will not be able to warrant paradigm shift. Though efforts leading to more grammatical descriptions are in progress (e.g. Carissa Anna Cariño and JooHyuk Lim of De La Salle University are working on adjectives and prepositions respectively), a concrete and tangible reference work must be in place. Of course, introducing variance in these standardized tests remains an issue and more complex psychometric techniques must be used to be able to assess users of Philippine English (cf. Davidson, 2006).

In the interim, what can be done should be done: Teachers in service must be informed of this emerging, liberating paradigm. They must be made aware that English is not a monolithic entity, and the norms have become pluricentric. These should first and foremost be reflected in their teaching philosophies, and then translated into action: Teachers should start teaching Philippine English, not necessarily as the target variety but simply to increase awareness on the existence of such a legitimized new English, thereby also helping students improve their sociolinguistic competence. Classroom evaluation schemes must reflect this reinvigorated philosophy and enhanced content. This can be easily applied in less objective assessment tools like essays and research papers, which should be common in English language classes. Teachers must point in class how Philippine English textual patterns may differ from other Englishes and must instruct their students to be aware of how these differences and variations may be used appropriately. The findings of corpus-based studies of Philippine English with reference to internal stylistic variation may help in pointing out when Philippine English discriminates between the use of the subjunctive mood, for example, and so the teacher must try to make the most out of this kind of resource. Given this, teachers must likewise rate submissions without judging those works that make use of Philippine English patterns as inferior.

But like standardized tests, classroom objective-type tests will continue to conform to the exonormative standard as long as high-stake standardized tests also remain to be Anglo-American-based. That these classroom tests will favor an exonormative standard at present – until such a time when Philippine English standardized tests are available – is understandable because these tests are usually taken as preparations for high-stake standardized tests. However, in light of the world Englishes paradigm, teachers should also make mention how some answers that are categorically right may be variably optional (cf. Bautista, 2000, 2004 on categorical/invariable and variable rules in Philippine English). Teachers should take advantage of post-test implementation discussions as teaching and learning moments when students can be made to realize how grammatical variation exists across Englishes, and it is also at these moments when corpus-based findings become invaluable.

While, as mentioned earlier, standardized tests are the most difficult to change, in relation to a world Englishes-informed language assessment, efforts should remain unrelenting as to the development of standardized tests that accurately measure language proficiency and competence, and this kind of proficiency and competence must include sensitivity to the reality of the existence of a local English, which is legitimate and not that that falls short of American or British English. It is at this stage of reenvisioning a more world Englishes-informed language assessment that findings of corpus-based studies will be most important and truly necessary.

The task of putting up a world Englishes paradigm-informed language assessment in the Philippines is a difficult one. Borlongan (2010a, 2010b) it is difficult to introduce an innovation in English language teaching in the Philippines, primarily because there is no system for managing innovations in English language teaching in the Philippines. However, sacrifices must be done as to as develop English language teaching in the Philippines and the development of Philippine English as a legitimate English (Borlongan, 2011b).

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BIODATA

Ariane Macalinga Borlongan is Assistant Professor in the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University, Manila, the Philippines. His interests are on Philippine English and world Englishes, English linguistics, historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, and language teaching and learning.

E-mail: arianemacalingaborlongan@yahoo.com

JooHyuk Lim is graduate student in the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University, Manila, the Philippines. His interests are on Asian Englishes and world Englishes, English linguistics, historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, and contact linguistics.

Email: joohyuklim@yahoo.com

The Effect of Raters' Background Language on the L2 Speaking Judgment

Seokhan Kang (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

The motivation for the study initiates from debate about the validity issues of non-native English raters' ratings on non-native Korean speaking test of English proficiency. The study tried to suggest the better objective method in assessing the native English speaking performance by non-native Korean raters, using the intermingled research of quantitative and qualitative methods. The practical goal of the study is to analyze the non-native raters' assessment patterns comparing with native raters by two groups, five tasks, and five criteria.

II. Literature Review

In L2 performance assessment, examinee test performance is affected by numerous factors. Raters' nativeness is one of the crucial factors. Some studies investigate the possibility of differing orientations to the oral proficiency construct by native and non-native English speaking raters. Their studies reported harsher ratings among non-native raters compared to their native counterparts (e.g., Fayer and Krasinski, 1987; Santos, 1989; Brown, 1995). Some research in Korea, comparatively few in numbers, has been studied on the non-native raters' characteristics. Kim J-K (2006) pointed out some problems in grading system by Korean raters, in which many students felt problems with fairness and validity. Furthermore, it was also reported that test-takers' main complaint to Korean raters is on scoring standard or test efficacy. Lee C-H(2010) reported some statistical difference in the areas of grammar and fluency between two raters' groups. That is, native English raters graded more strictness on grammar, while Korean raters rendered more strictness on fluency.

III. Methodology

The test was administered in a computer-mediated indirected interview format. The indirected method was chosen because of its effectiveness, reliability, and easy accessibility (e.g., Lee Y-S, 2006; Kim Y-H, 2009). The test lasted approximately 30 minutes. Small compensatory money was paid. For the assessment, ten raters rated the speaker's performance individually, listening to their speaking. They were given criteria and references. The two groups of raters each assessed 70 speech samples (14 * 5 tasks) selected from a pool of recorded speeches to represent a wide range of proficiency levels. Each file a task approximately 30 minutes' duration with 14 speeches and total durations are 150 minutes approximately. The assessments took the forms of analytical ratings on a five-point scale from 0 (very poor) to 4 (excellent) with midpoints labeled as 1 (poor), 2 (good), and 3 (very good) respectively for 5 tasks and 5 criteria. This study adopts mixed methods research which can provide a depth and breadth that a single approach may lack by itself (Ivankoca and Creswell, 2009). In particular, explanatory design was set up to understand a research problem more completely. An advantage of the design is that a researcher could explain comparatively clearly how the qualitative findings helped elaborate or extend the quantitative results.

IV. Results

1. Raters' Severity and Consistency

Generally no difference between native English and non-native Korean raters can be found in severity measurement as shown in 1.88 of mean logit for English raters and 1.89 of mean logit for Korean raters. The result supports the non-native raters' credibility, meaning that two different groups of native and non-native raters exhibited similar strict scores in overall ratings. This, non-native Korean raters like native English raters were consistent in their ratings, although they exhibited somewhat little lenient ratings. Overall, it is safe to say that non-native raters' grading is reliable in assessing non-native English speaking performance.

2. Criterion Measurement

The non-native Korean raters seem to have behaved similarly in terms of severity over criteria, with two criteria showing quite opposite rating patterns. Korean raters exhibited the strict grading on grammar accuracy, while they kept the lenient measurement on the discourse cohesion. The result of bias analysis suggests that non-native Korean raters exhibited valid grading on the criteria, with some particular characteristics.

3. Severity Test on Tasks

The analysis was carried out in order to identify whether the two groups of raters exhibited similar leniency measures across different tasks. The non-native Korean teachers seem to have rated similarly in terms of severity over tasks, with the opinion task showing meaningful different rating patterns. The non-native Korean raters exhibited the strict grading on the task of opinion, while the native English raters showed the lenient grading on it. The result of bias analysis, however, suggests the validity of Korean raters' grading over the tasks measured, in which Korean group seems to keep the unbiased ratings.

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BIODATA

Seokhan Kang is currently a Researcher Professor at Foreign Language Education in Seoul National University. He received Ph.D. in English phonetics/phonology from Yonsei University in 2005 and carried out research work at MIT as a post-doctoral researcher funded by Korea Research Foundation. His research interests include phonetics, phonology, English education, and L2 acquisition.

Email: kangs45@snu.ac.kr

Phone: 02-880-7616 (office). 010-9120-2433

Website: [sites/google.com/site/reall2research](http://sites.google.com/site/reall2research)

Blogging in Freshman English: Student Evaluations

James Robert Garner (Kyungpook National University)

I. Introduction

With the increasing availability and speed of the Internet, Social Networking Services (SNS) and other Web 2.0 technologies have grown exponentially in use and are now permeating typical daily life. They have also begun to be implemented in English education around the world. One of these technologies receiving the most attention from language instructors is weblogs, or simply blogs. Blogging has been claimed to increase students' sense of authorship, motivation towards writing, and improve their writing ability. These claims have been supported by the results of previous studies, which have shown that students improved their writing quality through blogging. Studies of student attitudes have also confirmed that students enjoy writing blogs and perceive it as a useful way to improve their writing. However, there have been no studies investigating blogging in English by Korean students. This presentation will report on the results of a study hoping to address this gap in the literature. Subjects wrote blogs as a part of their freshman English course and were required to read and comment on classmate's blogs. Before instruction, subjects took surveys gauging their experience with blogs in English and Korean. Another survey was administered following instruction in order to assess the subject's attitudes towards blogging. The first part of this summary will review the relevant literature. Next, the methods of instruction and student response collection will be described. The results of the surveys were not able to be fully collected at the time of submission and, therefore, are not included in this summary, although they will be fully discussed in the presentation.

II. Literature Review

Weblogs, or simply blogs, are free user-friendly online journals that allow individuals to express their ideas and thoughts to a wider online audience (Campbell, 2003). Individuals can maintain their blog with relative ease thanks to blogging software that allow users type directly into the browser and, with one click, publish their writing. These writings are displayed in reverse chronological order, creating a record of writing. In addition, readers can post reply commentary on blog entries, which helps to foster dialogue and collaborative writing and creation of ideas.

Over the past decade, blogging has increased in popularity. This increase in use has also been seen in the field of education in general and language education in particular. In the ESL field, three general types of blogs have been developed. The first is the tutor blog. This blog is maintained by a teacher or tutor and used to give students reading practice, promote exploration of English websites, encourages online discussion, and provides valuable class information and links for self-study. The second type, the learner blog, creates a space for individual students to express themselves and share their own opinions. Last, the class blog is a blog maintained by an entire class of students, which can promote project-based learning as well as intercultural communication (Campbell, 2003).

Blogs have been purported to have several benefits to writing in a second language. Learners writing their own blogs can feel an increased sense of ownership and responsibility in regards to their writing. This could lead them to be more thoughtful, knowing that they are writing for an audience outside their teacher (Godwin-Jones, 2003). By posting frequently on personal blogs, students can develop strategies and skills needed to become more successful writers (Hashemi & Najafi, 2011). The continuous updating of a blog can also help students realize that writing is not a one-time event, but an ongoing process (Ward, 2004). It also reveals to students how they have improved and the areas that need further improvement (Du & Wagner, 2007). Furthermore, the ability of readers to comment on blogs can foster peer review outside of the classroom. Fellow students can comment on a classmates blog entries and offer both linguistic and content-based feedback. They can do so without the usual inhibitions that come with face-to-face peer review and without the anxiety that comes with classroom interaction (Ward, 2004).

There have been a fair amount of studies that have shown the benefits blogging can have for language students. These studies have mostly focused on the development of writing skills and student attitudes towards blogging.

Fellner & Apple (2006) had low-level low-motivation university students in Japan write daily blog entries for twenty minutes a day for seven days. They observed that both the students' writing fluency, defined as number of words written in a given time frame, and lexical diversity increased. Students improved their word totals in blog entries by 350%, as well as their use of less frequently occurring words. The subjects in Arslan and Sahin-Kizil's (2010) study greatly improved their writing ability over one semester of blogging compared to a control group that did in class writing. Specifically, students made improvements in terms of the content and organization of their writing. However, there were no significant differences in terms of vocabulary, mechanics, or grammar. Similarly, Fageeh's (2011) subjects that blogged for one semester improved their writing significantly from pre-test to post-test compared to students who did not.

Not only have studies found that student writing does improve through blogging, but also that students often respond favorably to it. Ducate and Lomicka (2008) surveyed intermediate students of German and French who maintained their own blogs as part of their language courses. Overall, students responded that they were able to learn from their peers and that writing blogs gave them good vocabulary and grammar practice. Similar results were found in Dippold's (2009) study on blogging by advanced German students. According to their survey responses, students enjoyed blogging and felt it increased their motivation to write. In a study of advanced Spanish learners, Lee (2010) investigated blogging to foster self-expression and interaction between students. The results of the survey revealed that students felt writing blogs increased their competence in Spanish. They also indicated that they enjoyed writing on their own topics more than topics given by the instructor. They also enjoyed writing comments to their students, as well as reading comment written to them. The subject's of the previously mentioned study by Fageeh (2011) claimed that they enjoyed writing for an audience and that it made them pay closer attention to formal aspects of writing. Amir, Ismail, and Hussin (2011) asked their advanced-level students to write about their experience with collaborative blogging throughout the course on their own blog. Students responded by saying that they increased their vocabulary usage, general writing knowledge, interest, motivation, and confidence in writing. It also encouraged them to write more freely and, through peer comments, enhanced their awareness of grammatical issues.

These studies have offered great insight into the benefits blogging can have for language students. They have shown blogging can give students more practice writing for an audience, which can increase their sense of ownership. Students can also feel more motivated to write knowing that an audience is there to read what they write. It forces them to think more critically about the content and form of their writing, leading to improvements in their writing ability. Also, the communicative nature of blogging can foster more interaction between students as they comment and give feedback to each other.

All of these advantages would be incredibly valuable to Korean university students, especially incoming freshman. Writing is often used in Korean high school just as a means to practice grammar or respond to reading comprehension passages. As such, Korean students entering university for the first time have little motivation for writing, do not possess any sense of ownership of writing, and are often unaware of the process approach to writing. However, to the author's knowledge, there has been little to no research in blogging in English by Korean students. This study hopes to address this gap in the literature. Through pre- and post-study surveys, it will investigate student attitudes and perceptions towards blogging in their first-year English course.

III. Methods

This blog project was carried out during the first semester of Freshman English at a large national university in South Korea. The course, titled *Freshman English 1* and the first of a required two-course sequence, takes a task-based approach to language learning and integrates all four language skills with a combination of speaking and writing activities (Finch, 2013). Classes met twice a week for an hour at a time. Students written assignments for the course, with the exception of one writing test, were written on student created blogs and done as homework. The goal of the blogging was to offer students a wider audience outside their instructor for their writing.

The participants were students enrolled in the researcher's classes. In total, there were 163 students, 96 males and 67 females, enrolled in nine classes. The students were predominantly freshman in their first semester of university study, although there were several seniors taking the class to complete graduation requirements. They were also mostly Korean, with just two (n=2) coming from outside Korea (Mongolia and China, respectively). Only five (n=5) had spent any time living abroad in English-speaking countries, with longest duration of stay

being 3 years. The students' majors were varied across all disciplines, with most coming from the physical sciences and engineering. Most students had an either intermediate or pre-intermediate level of English proficiency.

The blogging site used for the course was *Wordpress* (<http://www.wordpress.com>). *Wordpress* was chosen because it is free to use and has a simple and easy to use interface. Users simply enter text into a text box and click "Publish" to post their writing online. If they are not finished, they can also click "Save To Draft" for the future. *Wordpress* also makes it easy for users to change the layout or design of their blogs, as well as add many kinds of multimedia features to a it. Last, *Wordpress* can be used in Korean, which can cut down on the anxiety of students using it. To facilitate student use of the website and avoid any technical difficulties, students were taken to the computer lab at the Language Institute for one session in the first week of the semester. During this session, students created their blogs and wrote an introductory entry to practice using *Wordpress*. In addition, students were directed to the *Wordpress Support* site (<http://wordpress.org/support>) if they reported any further technical difficulties.

There were two types of blogs used for the project. First, the instructor created and maintained a tutor blog for the course. This blog was mainly used to publish summaries for each class, remind students of upcoming homework, and post class handouts for students to download. The goals of this were to allow students an opportunity to review any important topics covered in class and help students who missed class not fall behind their classmates. The instructor also posted links to English-learning websites for students to use, as well as extra reading, discussion, grammar, and vocabulary activities. These activities gave students more information about the daily class topic and extra practice on key grammar and vocabulary for upcoming assignments.

The second type of blog in this project was learner blogs. Throughout the semester, each student was required to publish their writing assignments for the class on their own blog. The writing assignments were a range of different paragraph genres, including description, compare and contrast, and cause and effect. The students were free to select their own topic for each of the paragraphs, although most students chose from ones given in the textbook. An additional writing assignment at the mid point of the semester was given to allow students a chance to reflect their own learning and give feedback to the instructor. These assignments accounted for 20% of the student's final grade and each had a minimum word count of 125 words. In addition to publishing on their own blogs, students were required to read and comment on their fellow classmate's blog entries. This served as a kind of peer review outside of class. The instructor also gave feedback on students' posts.

During this project, two surveys were given to the subjects. The first was given in class before students created their own blogs and consisted of 10 statements. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (1 = *Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (5 = *Strongly Agree*) was used to investigate the student's experience with reading and writing blogs, both in Korean and in English, as well as their perception of blogging's usefulness in the language classroom. The survey at the end of the semester was given during the last week of classes. This survey consisted of 20 statements and 5 open-ended questions. Again, a 5-point Likert scale was used for the statements in order to gauge students' views and attitudes towards writing their assignments on a blog. Specifically, students were asked about their blog use, the usefulness of the class blog, their enjoyment in writing their own blogs and reading classmate's blogs, the perceived helpfulness of fellow student's comments, and improvements to their English proficiency and writing skills they may have received through blogging. The open-ended questions were used to obtain additional observations and offer suggestions for improvement.

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BIODATA

James Robert Garner has been a visiting professor at Kyungpook National University since August 2012. His extensive experience teaching English as a foreign language includes classes on speaking and listening, general composition and academic writing at various levels in Germany, the USA and South Korea. Being recognized for his excellent scholastic achievements by several academic honors societies, he wrote his MA thesis on the effects of data-driven learning on different aspects of the academic writing of ESL students at the University of Alabama in 2011 under the supervision of Dr. Dilin Liu. His research interests lie in the areas of second language writing and corpus linguistics, which he hopes to combine for a PhD project in the future.

Email: james.r.garner@gmail.com

Phone: (010) 6290-0911

An Analysis of Item Facility in Middle School English Achievement Tests Using Angoff Method

Inhee Hwang (Yonsei University)

I. Introduction

English testing has extensive and important relationship with every aspect of language education. Testing can provide teachers with useful information about learner's strength and weakness, learning aptitude, and progress. Teachers can understand the learners' characteristics and predict their linguistic abilities based on information obtained from testing (Harris, 1969). Also, teachers take this information into account when they set a learning objective and plan a lesson. Again, whether (and how well) the objective was achieved or not would be determined by testing. Hughes (1989) calls this close relationship between testing and education "partnership" (p. 2). This distinctive characteristic becomes salient when we consider that English subject assesses learner's abstract linguistic ability. This makes it harder for teachers or developers to determine the contents and method of the test. Because we have to test learner's ability of language use not the knowledge about English, testing is heavily influenced by its method.

Therefore, it is important to choose appropriate and suitable test method (Kim & Lee, 2005). Mostly, schools use achievement test as a test method to assess learners' ability or knowledge and how well they achieve the learning objectives after the certain period of instruction. Also, among various types of test item, multiple-choice item is widely used in achievement test. The question, however, arose concerning the different item facility of the tests depending on various external factors such as location, size, and type of school. While there were many studies on English achievement test in middle or high school, relatively few studies were found that focused on item facility of the test. Thus, this study was conducted to analyze the difference in item facility of the tests aimed at the same grade middle school students who studied with the same English textbook. Accordingly, this study sought to answer the following question:

"Are there differences in item facility of the tests depending on the variables such as location, size, and type of school?"

II. Literature Review

1. Item Facility

Item facility is defined as the proportion of test takers who answered an item correctly (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007, p. 102). For example, if 65 out of 100 students answered a particular item correctly, the proportion would be .65. The easier the item is, the higher the facility value is. Generally, this term has been used with item difficulty in the area of item analysis. However, item difficulty is rather confusing in that it would cause misunderstandings when we say that item difficulty is high or low. Thus, it would be appropriate to use item facility to indicate how many students respond correctly to an item.

2. Standard Setting

Standard setting refers to procedures that establish cut score to distinguish students according to their achievement level. Cut score means the point that becomes a standard between levels. For example, if we want to divide the students into three categories according to their level of competence (e.g., competence, incompetence, and the remaining students), we set two cut scores on the score scale of a test. In a broad sense, standard setting includes not only finding a cut score, but also describing what learners can do or what they have to know within a certain level of achievement. In addition, Cizek (1993) defined it as "a prescribed, rational system of rules or procedures resulting in the assignment of a number to differentiate between two or more conceivable states or degrees of performance" (p. 100). The cut score obtained through standard setting is used to determine the level of item facility or to set the standard for a criterion-referenced test.

3. Angoff Method

There are dozens of methods for standard setting. Among them, the Angoff method is the most commonly used method for setting standards (Cizek & Bunch, 2007, p. 82; Impara & Plake, 1997, p. 353). Angoff method, which was initially suggested by Angoff (1971), is test-centered method that panelists' judgment about cut score is primarily based on test content or test items (Jaeger, 1989, pp. 493-496). To begin with, the raters, most of whom are subject matter experts, are asked to imagine minimally acceptable persons (i.e. "just-barely-qualified person" (Shepard, 1980, p. 452)). Then, they examine all the test items and evaluate the proportion of a person who will respond correctly to each item. The average of these probabilities for all the items becomes the cut score. Additionally, it is important to consider who should be included in an expert group and how many the raters are needed for standard setting. Jaeger (1991) suggested eight qualifications that characterize experts for a standard setting including excelling in their domains, ability to perceive meaningful patterns in their domain, ability to perform rapidly, strong self-monitoring skills, etc. Also, while there are diverse opinions about the adequate number of experts, it seems that at least ten raters are needed to get a reliable cut score (Hambleton & Pitoniak, 2006).

III. Method

1. Material

In order to investigate the research question mentioned above, 680 multiple-choice items were collected from 29 middle schools between 2011 and 2012. These tests were aimed at second grade students who studied with the same English textbook. Also, to improve the representativeness of the study and to avoid being biased about areas, the schools were chosen randomly from Seoul to Jeju Island based on the enumeration results of the 2010 population and housing census. In addition, nine schools which account for about 30 percent of the 29 schools are large size schools with more than 1,000 students and nine schools which also account for about 30 percent of all are small size schools with less than 100 students. Furthermore, of six schools located in Seoul, three schools are in Gangnam, and the others are in Gangbuk.

2. Participants

To evaluate the item facility of the test items, ten teachers, each of whom had over two years of English teaching experience in school, examined the individual item and evaluated facility value of it using Angoff method. All of them were teaching English at middle school at the time of participation.

3. Analysis

From the ten raters, probabilities of correct answers of the 680 test items were collected. The average of these probabilities of each school was considered to represent the item facility of that school. The results of the evaluation of item facility were incorporated into a statistical analysis (one-way analysis of variance, ANOVA) to look into the difference in item facility according to the variables. Also, intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) analysis was carried out to measure the reliability of rating.

IV. Results and Discussion

First of all, value of the intraclass correlation coefficient was .65 from which we can infer that the degree of reliability between the raters was "substantial" (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165). As shown in Table 1 below, the item facilities were statistically different according to the variables. Firstly, the results revealed that there are identifiable differences in item facility between schools in big cities and those in small municipalities such as agricultural, mountainous, and fishing villages ($p=.000$). Furthermore, the results of the raters' evaluation indicated that the test items of the schools in big cities were more difficult than those in small cities. This statistically significant difference can also be found between schools in Gangnam and Gangbuk. The item facilities between these two groups were statistically different ($p=.033$). Moreover, the test items of the schools in Gangnam were judged to be more difficult than those in Gangbuk. Secondly, the results showed that the item facilities were statistically different depending on the school size ($p=.000$). In addition, the raters evaluated that test items of large size schools with more than 1,000 students were more difficult than those in small size

schools with less than 100 students. Lastly, the type of schools was analyzed as an influencing factor to the item facility. The item facilities of the public schools were significantly different from those of the private schools ($p=.004$). To sum up, the results of this study showed that tests tended to become more difficult in large size private schools located in big cities and that they became much easier in small size public school located in small municipalities.

Table 1
Comparison of the Item Facility in Middle School English Achievement Tests

	Variables	N	Mean	SD	F-value	P-value
Location	Schools in Big Cities	90	63.73	6.734	42.373	.000***
	Schools in Agricultural, Mountainous, and Fishing Villages	90	69.36	4.679		
	Schools in Gangnam, Seoul	30	64.21	5.580		
	Schools in Gangbuk, Seoul	30	67.26	5.183		
Size	More than 1,000 Students	90	65.19	6.595	23.981	.000***
	Less than 100 Students	90	69.36	4.679		
Type	Public School	250	66.96	6.389	8.340	.004**
	Private School	40	63.84	6.121		

Note. * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

As we have seen so far, the results of analysis show that the item facilities of achievement tests in middle schools were greatly influenced by a variety of factors such as location, size, and type of school. The problems, however, have been pointed out regarding the growing achievement gap between regions. Although the test items were taken from the same English textbook which was used by the same grade students, item facilities of those items were substantially different. Consequently, the difficult tests force students to compete excessively with other students and the easy tests make the achievement gap between regions worse. Additionally, this excessive competition causes another problem about private education. As the test becomes more difficult, the students want more private education to get a higher score in the test. As a result, unlike its original purpose to assess the learner's linguistic ability, the test method in middle school seems not to work in proper way.

V. Conclusion

This study offers empirical evidence showing that the achievement tests carried out in middle schools have significantly different item facility according to the various external factors. Considering that there were few studies that conducted the standard setting method broadly, this study has significance in that it applied the Angoff method in national level. This makes it possible to look into the test methods in education field with a much broader perspective. In addition, this study has an importance in English testing area in that it could be used as a useful resource to improve the quality of achievement tests.

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BIODATA

Inhee Hwang's areas of academic interest include English language testing, developing test items, item facility, and standard setting

Email: inheehwang@daum.net

Day 1

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Understanding Native Speakers' Scholarly Experiences Overseas: A Case of North American Academics Publishing in South Korea

Michael Chesnut (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)
Sungwoo Kim (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

The number of foreign faculty in South Korea is increasing as the globalization of Korean universities accelerates. At the same time, university policies drive faculty members, regardless of their nationality, to publish regularly in refereed journals to contribute to their respective universities. This trend may be attributed to multiple sociocultural forces. First, academic migration is becoming a normal state of affairs in a number of universities and is happening at all levels of educational activities from students' study abroad to faculty members' short- and long-term stays in foreign universities. Second, pressure for scholarly publication has been increasing under the dominant ideology of neoliberalism, which promulgates competition and deregulation as principles for social and economic operation. With a changing Korean academia as the backdrop, this study explores the publication processes of three native English-speaking faculty members in Korea. Specifically, it reviews three foreign academics' application processes, interpretations of the journal reviewers' comments as well as their perceptions of reviewers' feedback and strategies for incorporating this feedback.

II. Research Participants, Data Sources, and Methodology

1. Participants

A total of three foreign faculty members participated in the study. Details of each participant are as follows.

Table 1
Research Participants

Name ¹	Nationality	Field of Study	Position	Year of Degree Earned
Michael	Canadian	Education	Lecturer	PhD ABD
Chris	American	Education	Assoc. Prof.	2012
Brian	American	Literature	Assoc. Prof.	2010

As the table shows all three participants are relatively junior scholars and are working towards their first major international publications while also publishing in local Korean journals. Further, all three participants' academic positions depend on successfully publishing within limited timeframes. However, Brian works in literature in a field where single author publishing is the standard and coauthoring is uncommon, while Michael and Chris work in fields where a variety of coauthoring possibilities are available. Further, both Michael and Chris have focused on research issues related to Korean education.

2. Data Source

The study draws on multiple data sources, including autobiographic and ethnographic accounts of the publication experience by Michael Chesnut, document analysis of reviews and drafts, and interviews with the writers. The current presentation focuses on the analysis of interview data, highlighting the participant's first-person accounts of their publication processes in Korea.

3. Interpretive Dialogue as a New Form of Research Methodology

The authors have long discussed the potential limitations of either a native or nonnative researcher in dealing with the (non)native speaker's cognitive and emotional experiences. In this study the authors have sought to

¹ Both Chris and Brian are Pseudonyms to protect participant confidentiality while Michael is a coauthor of this paper.

continually reexamine their researching selves within an ecological perspective (cf. Kramsch, 2010) by intentionally forming a functional, collaborative nexus of 'native' and 'nonnative' speakers.

This awareness has encouraged the researchers to adopt *interpretive dialogue* as the research method for this study. It uses dialogue between the two coauthors as a means of data collection, analysis, interpretation and triangulation. Placing coauthor dialogue as the center of this methodology helps employ the widely varying subject positions and lived experiences of these researchers to examine and reflect on the object of this study: native speakers' experiences publishing in Korea. Furthermore, it enriches the research experience, transforming the research process into a journey of mutual understanding. This may add another layer of critical yet empathic interpretation to the existing qualitative method in applied linguistics.

III. Research Questions

1. What factors motivate foreign faculty members to publish either in local or international journals?
2. What steps are involved in their publication process?
3. What kinds of cognitive and emotional experiences do the participants have during the publication process?

IV. Results and Discussion

Although this is a preliminary study, it provides a tentative exploration of the complex and sometimes contradictory journeys academics engage in as they seek to distribute their scholarly work. In terms of reasons to publish in Korean journals, all three participants mentioned their need to publish as scholars employed by universities and their opportunities to publish articles in Korean journals. However, these participants also expressed somewhat divergent opinions as to why they published in Korean journals. Brian discussed his belief that it was important for academics to be involved with their local scholarly community. He also discussed an interest in contributing to a community of scholars with whom he could regularly meet face-to-face. Further, he expressed interest in understanding Korean academics' research and perspectives within his area of literary interest and that his department head aided him in finding a suitable Korean journal in which to publish.

Michael discussed his interest in publishing as being driven partially by a superior who encouraged him to contribute to a specific journal focused directly on issues related to his department and teaching context, meaning both the context in Korea and departmental focus. As a part of the writing process, Michael reviewed articles from that journal and found several articles that contributed to his understanding of his teaching context and larger curriculum issues. This encouraged him to contribute to this journal and seek out other similar journals in Korea. Chris in his interview initially discussed how he applied for a grant to conduct research that required he publish in a Korean Citation Index or KCI journal, choosing not to apply for a larger grant that would require a publication in a Social Science Citation Index or SSCI journal as he was somewhat uncertain that he could publish in such a journal within the allotted time frame. He described his main reason to publish at the time of the interview as simply fulfilling the requirements of the grant. In his previous instance of publishing in a Korean journal he described receiving a call for papers that seemed well suited for a research project he had been developing. Interestingly, despite having some research interests directly related to Korean education and a social network including Korean academics, Chris did not explicitly see publishing in Korean journals as particularly desirable, unless the focus overlapped with his own.

All three participants discussed the pressure to publish and at least hinted at the relative ease of publishing in English in Korean journals, especially compared to the relative uncertainty attached to publishing in SSCI journals. However, each participant also had differing particular interests in publishing in Korean journals, highlighting that alongside the larger pressure to publish in SSCI journals exists individual desires to contribute to academia in other ways.

The submission and revision process for all three participants was somewhat different. Both Michael and Chris have submitted at least one article to a Korean journal and been rejected while Brian has not. In Brian's experience he first presented his papers at a particular Korean conference and then received oral feedback as part of the review process to publish his paper. Brian said he found this feedback productive in further developing his ideas and final paper, although he also said he would have preferred written feedback given his personal preference for written texts over discussion. Chris found the revision process more focused on issues related to methodology, often in a way that he felt disregarded other aspects of his paper. Chris responded by

focusing on carefully matching his writing style and format to those of his chosen Korean journals in order to increase the likelihood of his research being accepted. He also said that he never received any comments on the quality of his writing with him assuming that the reviewers could tell he was an educated native-speaker and were not concerned with issues of academic writing. Alternatively Michael's initial feedback for his first Korean journal publication was given to him in Korean, significantly challenging his limited Korean ability. Further, one reviewer strongly suggested he consult a native-speaker to improve his academic writing. He found that a large amount of the revisions focused on the linguistic aspects of the article, with only one out of the three reviewers really focusing on the research content. Although Michael found this comment somewhat perplexing he also found this an interesting experience and surprisingly a chance to further develop his academic Korean language skills. All three participants found the revision process different from their initial expectations. Additionally, these experiences varied widely hinting that individual Korean journals engage in revision processes for English language articles quite independently.

In examining both the interests of these scholars in publishing in Korean journals and their experiences submitting and revising for these journals this preliminary study has highlighted both the large-scale pressure on academics in Korea to engage in academic work, and the complex individual paths available to different scholars. Given the increasing pressure on academics across the globe to publish in highly cited prestigious journals these experiences highlight the possibility Korean journals offer as an alternative means of disseminating research and community building, at least for some scholars.

IV. Implications for Future Research

This study highlights a significant gap in the literature regarding academic publishing. While traditional research in the field of academic publishing has focused on the nonnative speaker's struggles and strategies for academic publication (Canagarajah, 2002), the terrain of native writers' publication practices within foreign countries, usually accompanied by the reversal of the typical reviewer-writer roles, is largely underexplored. This calls for the field to examine this "mirror-image" of academic publishing: revealing social, cognitive, and affective factors involved in native writers' publication processes. Additionally, this study examines the potential of forming a native-nonnative nexus for this type of research enterprise, in that it enables having multiple yet balanced vantage points through a critical triangulation of the across-the-border publication phenomenon.

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BIODATA

Michael Chesnut is an assistant professor of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. He is interested in language teacher development and second language writing
Email: chesnut.m@gmail.com

Sungwoo Kim is an adjunct instructor at Seoul National University. He is interested in second language writing, Sociocultural theory of mind, cognitive linguistics, and technology in language learning and teaching.
Email: socioculturaltheory@gmail.com

Bilingual Teachers Do Exist: A Qualitative Study on Three Bilingual Teachers from South Korea

Sang Eun Lee (Ewha Womans University)

I. Introduction

This essay is intended to address the construction of bilingual teachers who do not fit either Native Speakers of English Teachers (NSETs) or Non Native Speakers of English Teachers (NNSETs) in Korean ELT context. The field of TESOL has questioned and redefined the construction of NSETs or NNSETs. Many studies approached the way NSETs are paired with and compared to NNSETs. However, such approach to the dichotomy of NSETs and NNSETs has not addressed those who do not fit in the category of either NSETs or NNSETs. As a result, this has been questioned in literatures (Block, 2007; Cook, 1999; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Pavlenko, 2003). Even though there are many bilingual teachers in Korea, there have not been resourceful studies on them. Through extensive interview with three bilingual teachers of English in Korea, the study tries to explore how bilingual teachers are situated and situate themselves in the context of the dichotomy. Three questions were asked: (1) Do bilingual teachers view themselves as NSETs or NNSETs? (2) Do bilingual teachers create their own community or choose either NSET or NNSET identity? and (3) In what ways, do bilingual teachers shape their identity? Researches of the distinction of NSETs and NNSETs would be readdressed and discussed how such distinction leaves those who are placed in “the third place” category (Block, 2007, pg.864). Recognizing multiple identities of teachers as well as learners, the study is intended to suggest a multifaceted approach to teacher identity in Korea thus empowering language teachers.

II. Method

The interview was the primary method for this qualitative study. Three bilingual teachers in Korea were interviewed by the researcher. The participations of the interview were limited to those who hold F4 visa. The government of South Korea provides F4 visa only to overseas Koreans with foreign nationality (Gyopo) who had a Korean citizenship before obtaining a foreign nationality or an immediate family member of a Korean-foreigner who obtained foreign nationality is eligible for obtaining this visa. The research restricted the participations to F4 visa holders because they have nearly the same rights as Korean citizens such as legally working anywhere in Korea. The F4 visa bilingual teachers are believed to have more flexibility terms of placing themselves in the dichotomy of NSs and NNSs.

Because language is a significant factor in this study, all participants are fluent in both Korean and English. All participants are all able to fluently and perfectly express language functions needed in research and work in field of ELT in both Korean and English. They are also able to use language skills in unfamiliar themes such as politics, economics, society and culture. The study followed Bloomfield’s (1933) criterion of bilinguals, as native-like control of two languages. Hauku’s (1974) idea was also implied that bilingualism is not only about the bilingual individual, but also the circumstances surrounding the creation of bilingualism and its maintenance and attrition.

The interviews were conducted at the convenience of the bilingual teachers. Each interview was set in one section and lasted approximately 30 minutes on average. The techniques of the interview were focused or semi-structured where the main purpose was to understand the respondents’ point of view rather than making generalizations of behaviors. Both close-ended and open-ended questions were employed and they were planned prior to the interview by the researcher and arisen naturally during the course of the interview. In order to obtain more reliable data coding and analysis, one native teacher who has experience in teaching Korean EFL settings along with the researcher was involved in coding analysis. The transcribed data will be coded for Snow, Anderson, & Lofland (2006)’s three aspects:

- (1) cognitive aspects or meanings (e.g., ideologies, rules, self-concepts, identities);
- (2) emotional aspects or feelings (e.g., sympathy in health care, workplace satisfaction);
- (3) hierarchical aspects or inequalities (e.g., racial inequality)

After coding according to the three aspects, it was categorized into eight different concepts listed alphabetically as follows: (a) challenges, (b) identity as a bilingual, (c) empowerment/ motivation, (d) expectations from community, (e) identity as a teacher, (f) self- conception about their teacher identity, (g) social perception about their teacher identity, and (h) status as a teacher. Finally, all the coding for information in each of the eight concepts and three aspects were combined together in order to obtain a better understanding of the participants.

III. Three Narratives

1. Alexander's Experience as a Bilingual Teacher

Alexander is working as a native teacher in a public high school. He came to Korea last year and first worked as an English teacher at one of precious English private academy in Korea. After six months of working, he moved to a public high school and started working as a native English teacher. Majored in English literatures from university, Alexander's level of English proficiency is near- native but his level of fluency is also perfect.

Although Alexander admitted that he was a bilingual, he placed himself as a native teacher. He answered that "I am teaching as a native teacher. Therefore, even if I speak Korean [fluently], I subconsciously place myself as native speaker category". Alexander also commented that he did not see any problems of the separation between NSs and NNSs. He stated that "I don't mind. I do my work and other teachers do their work." He also argued that the field of language teaching towards diversity was changing for the better.

I know that some school still prefers white skin, yellow hair native speaker rather than Asian-looking native teachers. However, it has changed a lot in a way that some schools prefer teachers who can also speak and understand Korean. The reason is that it makes work for the Korean teachers that much easier. So yes I think it is changing for the better. I also think that usually bilingual native speakers who can speak Korean cause less trouble than those who don't.

2. Benita's Experience as a Bilingual Teacher

Benita is working as a Korean teacher in a private elementary school. She is teaching from kindergarten to grade six. Benita's level of English and Korean is near-native. Benita stated that she would identify herself as a Korean teacher because she never worked as a native teacher. However, she commented that her expectation at workplace was just like a native teacher and she was not able to speak any Korean. Her school also hired native teachers and their duties and responsibilities were different from Korean teachers. As a result, she thought that there was a distinction between native teachers and non-native teachers.

The media and even some private English institutions seem to only value native teachers and English-only environment. But I guess Korean public school hires native teachers for a different reason. I can see that the government hires native teachers to encourage and promote English education but do not use them effectively.

Benita argued that bilingual teachers existed: "Although there is different degree of bilingualism, bilingual teachers are there and they are very important in the field". Benita believes that being bilingual would be a huge asset because they could change their identity flexibly. As working in Korean as a language teacher, she realized that Korean society did not recognize the existence of bilingual teacher. Instead, bilingual teachers would be placed different position, either native teacher or non-native teacher, according to circumstances. Benita also added that English-only environment sometimes preferred native teachers with traditional Western features.

I believe that the ultimate goal of teaching second language is to create bilingual individuals just like me. I do not understand why some school administrative, students, and parents prefers white skin teachers over other people. I do not like that kind of category about who is qualified and who is not qualified by external factors. It does not have positive influence on learners.

3. Cynthia's Experience as a Bilingual Teacher

Cynthia is currently working at public elementary school after-school program in Seoul. Cynthia came to Korea four months ago and the after school program is her first job as a language teacher in Korea. Without considering her teacher identity, Cynthia identified herself with Canadian rather than Korean. As her family immigrated to Korean when she was grade three, she spent most of her life in Canada. Moving back to Korea by herself, Cynthia realized that how people perceive her was different than how she expected.

I speak Korean but I am culturally closer to Canada. A lot of times, I find Korean culture weird. Because I look Korean and I speak Korean, they do not understand why I do not agree with them in some aspects. I do not understand that I am more Canadian than Korean. So, in that point, I say that I am more Canadian.

Cynthia showed her concern about the distinction between native and non-native teachers. She also concerned that the field of English education in Korea, especially private intuitions, prefers particular group of teachers over other but she told that it was not about who teaches English, but the quality of teaching that is provided to students. She said that:

When you think about the quality of education, I am sure an expert. ... Being bilingual[s] and non native teacher[s] is nothing to do with the quality of education. It's the same for the other way. It depends on the person [who teachers students.]...I find [just discrimination and distinction] weird and not necessary.

IV. Discussion and Implications

1. The Construction of Self-identity as Bilingual Teacher

The participants all agreed that they considered themselves as bilingual teachers. Their identities were flexible in terms of job selection, but they demonstrated their uncertainties about their identities throughout the course of the interview. They were situated as either native teacher or non-native teacher according to different circumstances, but they concluded that they did not fully belong to either of the groups. As a result, they accepted that they belonged to the bilingual group of teachers, a third category of English teachers. However, it is important to recognize that these three bilingual teachers can also select their identities actively. They were not only submissive to accept their identities but they are also themselves actively participating to choose their identity according to their needs. Alexander, for example, quit his former job as a Korean teacher and moved to a public high school as a native teacher. He explicitly explained that he chose this job because of 'fewer responsibilities' to handle. Although the field of English language teaching influenced the identity of bilingual teachers, bilingual teachers also produce, create, and establish norms and practices in the field. This recursive process definitely impacted the EFL circumstances in Korea

2. Imagined Community amongst Bilingual Teachers

All three bilingual teachers described their professional duties and responsibilities as NS teachers or NNS teachers but eventually their expectations at workplace were the same: they could only speak English to students while they were expected to communicate in Korean with teachers and staffs. Alexander stated that he made a presentation about his lessons in front of teachers and staffs in Korean. The duties and responsibilities of Alexander were not the same as the native speaker of English who could not communicate in Korean. Alexander concluded that that some schools preferred teachers who "can speak and understand Korean". Cynthia also commented that she was asked not to speak Korean in front of the students but the school hired her as a non-native speaker of English. Although both Alexander and Cynthia were placed in different groups of teachers, they performed the same duty. This could be an indication that the bilingual teachers have not obtained full membership to both NS and NNS groups of teachers; as a result, they created their own imagined community amongst themselves (Anderson, 1991). It could be considered as an imagined community because even though there was no physical construct of it, the bodies of bilingual teachers existed in the field of Korean ELT with marked characteristics that distinguished themselves from NS and NNS groups of teachers.

3. The Concept of Ambivalence and Third Place Identity as Bilingual Teachers

The concept of ambivalence is defined as the state of having mixed feelings or contradictory ideas about something or someone (Block, 2007). As a result, it seems useful to comprehend the concept of ambivalence as referring to conflicting experiences that are relevant for personal identity or for the personality. All three bilingual teachers showed this ambivalent feeling about their identities. The feeling of ambivalence occurred while bilingual teachers were searching for their social relationships, identities and their placement in the dichotomy of NS and NNS, thereby oscillating between polar contradictions in feeling, thinking, wanting, or social structures, contradictions that appear temporarily or permanently insolvable. Benita argued that the ultimate goal of teaching language was to produce bilinguals like her so she questioned the significance of separation between NSs and NNSs. Although she appreciated that she was able to speak both Korean and

English fluently yet she felt bitter that some schools in Korean EFL field were still judging individuals based on the division between NS and NNS teachers.

David Block (2007) elaborated the concept of third place identity based on the concept of ambivalence. The concept of third place identity refers to a place where individuals find a place for themselves as an act of personal identity, reflecting upon existing frames but creating new ones. Bilingual teachers are continuously struggling and negotiating their identities as they are immersing themselves in new sociocultural environment. According to Block, these struggles and negations of differences were not adding the new identities to the old ones, nor half-to-half propositions whereby the individual becomes half of what he or she was and half of what she or had been exposed to. Rather, the third place identity refers to the negotiations of difference which the past and the present encounter, and transform each other's gaps, contradictions, and fissures. Bilingual teachers were not adding their new Korean culture into their existing cultures, but they have been consistently negotiating the differences and the contradictions in order to create new teacher identity in Korean EFL contexts. Bilingual teachers sometimes actively involved in the construction of their identities and consistently shifted their identities as their circumstances changed. These results demonstrated their ongoing negotiations of difference and could explain the third place identity of bilingual teachers.

V. Conclusion

The article has attempted to deconstruct an essentialist approach to the NS and NNS distinction existing in Korea EFL contexts. Recognizing multiple identities of teachers in Korea, the study is intended to suggest a multifaceted approach to teacher identity in Korea thus empowering language teachers. Through extensive interview with three bilingual teachers, the study suggests that bilingual teachers created their own imagined community apart from the dichotomy of NS and NNS thus placing themselves as third place identity. This research might have opened the door for awareness for multilingual identities in Korean EFL contexts and could suggest professionals of a linguistic diverse world than one dominated by what is believed to be standard.

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BIODATA

Sang Eun Lee received her B.A (Honors) from the University of Toronto and a B.Ed in Primary Education from York University, Canada. She is currently a Master's student in the Department of Teaching Foreign Languages at Ewha Womans University and is an English teacher at Seoul Chinese Primary School. Her academic interests include discourse analysis, gender and language, learner and teacher identity, content-based instruction, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

Email: leesange25@ewhain.net

Korean Bilingual Education Communities in the U.S.

Mun Woo Lee (Hanyang University)

I. Introduction

As the term "Education Immigration" shows, more and more Korean families want to immigrate to the United States because of "better" education of their children (Oh, 2005). According to Overseas Koreans Foundation (2008), more than a half of 708 Korean adults who were surveyed took into account seriously about living in another country, and "children's education" was one of the compelling reasons why they wanted to leave South Korea. Unfortunately, however, immigration into the U.S. does not guarantee a rosy future for all Korean immigrants. As Kim (2004) demonstrated, Korean immigrant families who decided to come to the U.S. because of their children's education were so-called white-collar work forces back in Korea. However, most of them had to readjust themselves to blue-collar occupations in the U.S. mainly because of language barrier, and this often made Korean immigrant families struggle with economic hardships. Ironically, children's education often gets more difficult as well because of "language differences." Previous studies showed that English-Korean bilingual education was the center of educational issues in Korean immigrant families, and the conflicts between parents' generation and children's generation were based upon the language differences and language-related differences such as value-system or attitude toward American culture (Ahn, 2006; Moon, 2005; Min, 1990; Sohn, 2004). In short, both external and internal problems that Korean immigrant families face in the U.S. are related to their native language, Korean, and their second language, English.

Focusing on these issues of "language differences," this study attempts to delineate the characteristics of Korean immigrant families in the U.S. especially in terms of their children's language education by using the "community of practice" (Barab & Duffy, 2000) framework. The research questions this study addresses are (1) What are the beliefs that Korean immigrant families have toward two different languages, English and Korean? (2) What kinds of practices are done in Korean immigrant families according to the language differences? and (3) What are the characteristics that Korean immigrant families in the U.S. have as "community of practice" regarding their children's bilingual education?

II. Methodology

1. Participants

Participants for this study were selected based on purposeful sampling in qualitative method (Creswell, 2005, p.204). It fell into "homogenous sampling" that "the researcher purposefully samples individuals or sites based on membership in a subgroup that has defining characteristics (p.206)." It was also related to snowball sampling (p.206), since I contacted my relative who lives in a major Midwestern city, and asked him to recommend appropriate participants. Nineteen Korean immigrant families took part in this study. All families had at least one child and were both-parents families. Also, all parents showed keen interest in their children's bilingual education. They all resided in the same Midwestern city, and their occupation were mostly related to self-owned business (e.g. restaurant or beauty shop, etc.). The average duration that the families had spent in the U.S. was 8 years and 7 months.

2. Data Collection Procedures

The data was collected using two different methods--interview and relevant document collection. First, I conducted a face-to-face interview with each family at least three times. I interviewed 12 families three times and the others, five times. Whenever I carried out the interview, I tried to include all the family members at the same time. However, I sometimes had to interview children separately after interviewing parents because they were at the school when the interview was conducted. The interviews were semi-constructed--I prepared some questions ahead (See Appendix 1), but I did not follow the interview questions strictly. The interviews were tape-recorded under the agreement of participants.

Second, I visited each family's house once after the interviews for relevant document collection. By relevant document, I meant some real document that could support their statement that they have mentioned in the interviews. For example, one mother mentioned she valued Korean language education so that she let her children practice writing Korean every night, and the other mother said that she let her children watch as many English videos as possible. I asked them to show me the real writing practice sheets or the English videos, and to share more about their concerns and the philosophy of child's bilingual education. This was more like informal interviews mainly with mothers. However, I could also ask some questions to children such as how they felt about Korean writing practice or watching English videos. In case of family 3, family 10, and family 12, the fathers also participated in this procedure with the mothers. I took a field note while I talked to parents and children.

III. Results

1. English and Korean: Korean Immigrant Families' Beliefs

First, the participants considered English as a tool or a skill that they had to be equipped with to live in the totally different society. This was very important since it was directly related to the stable income that enabled them to be "economically independent. The parents who came to the U.S. in their late 20s or early 30s had hard time speaking in English.

Second, they thought English enabled them to be in multiple communities in the U.S. society. Seventeen out of nineteen families agreed that English gave an opportunity to become a real part of American society. For example, they could attend American church and made some friends there, if they could communicate in English. They could participate in community festival, if they were able to speak in English. And they could speak out their opinion in the parents' meeting at their children's school, if they knew English.

Third, all nineteen families connected English to good values of life. They all talked about the potential opportunities that their children would get by acquiring English and this was integrated to the reason why they decided immigrate to the U.S. They mentioned that English meant a hope for the future and a promise for the better life especially for their children. In addition, the U.S. could not be separated from English--they consist of a beautiful picture "together" in Korean parents' perceptions

As seen above, Korean immigrant families demonstrated different beliefs toward each language, English and Korean. Both languages were essential for them to live in the U.S. as Korean immigrants, but with different reasons (Pease-Alvarez, 2003; Reyes, 2008; Schechter and Bayley, 1997). Next section will illustrate how Korean immigrant families practiced each language at home in relation to these beliefs.

2. English and Korean: Korean Immigrant Families' Practices

Even though all parents from nineteen families emphasized the importance of English with mostly "outward" reasons such as financial support or social participation, they did not perform many practices regarding English language education at home. All nineteen mothers agreed that their children learned English so naturally when they entered (pre) school so that the mothers themselves did not need to take special effort to make their children learn English at home.

Unlike English language-related practices that demonstrated the best result with the least effort, Korean language-related practices indicated intense struggles in Korean immigrant families (Choe and Park, 2006; Jeon, 2007). All nineteen families mainly spoke Korean at home, and all the couples spoke Korean each other. Five out of nineteen families spoke only Korean between parents and a child, too. However, the rest of the families used English and Korean in a mixed way between parents and children.

Korean immigrant families showed different practices regarding different languages, English and Korean. Although they perceived both languages were equally important, they paid more attention to Korean language-related practices at home. Parents said that English was acquired by just letting their children attend schools in the U.S. However, Korean needed to be taught consciously and repeatedly in order to have the children maintain the Korean language ability. Ironically, children felt negatively toward Korean-language related practices that they 'had to' follow, and these practices influenced their perception toward two languages subsequently. Next

section will incorporate all these characteristics of Korean immigrant families within the framework of the "community of practice" (Barab & Duffy, 2000).

3. The Characteristics of Korean Bilingual Community in the U.S.

1) Intra-community of Practice Characteristics

Barab and Duffy (2000) mentioned common cultural and historical heritage with two important aspects: socially negotiated meanings and the possibility of inheritance. First, the members of community of practice shared goals, meanings, and practices. It was beyond the meaning of just "being together." There should be constant interactions among members of the community in terms of their beliefs and practices. Second, new members of the community were to inherit much of shared beliefs and practices from the former members of the community. This was also related to reproduction cycle with respect to the maintenance of the community with desirable changes.

Common cultural and historical heritage worked mainly with Korean. Parents believed that Korean was "inwardly-oriented," which meant that Korean was related to family relationship, common values, and identity as a Korean. Korean language was crucial since it enabled the family to be a "family" that shared goals, meanings, and practices. As an everyday communication mechanism, Korean made the parents hand over Korean values and identity to their children. Thus, if Korean did not work properly between parents and children, that could cause conflicts "inwardly".

By reproduction cycle, Barab and Duffy (2000) meant that the possibility of replacement of community's practices from old-timers to newcomers. What was noteworthy here was that community did not stay the same as it had been before when the replacement happened. The basic frame of the community should stay the same; however, the community "improved" when the replacement occurred since the process of replacement was always grounded in social negotiation practices. It was not the process of forcing newcomers be in a part of the existing community; rather, it was the process of mutual development of both old-timers and newcomers in the realm of community.

Reproduction cycle was related to both English and Korean. Parents wanted their children to be successful in American society, and at the same time, they wanted their children to keep uniqueness as a Korean. To be successful "Korean" immigrants in the U.S., children should be able to trespass the borderline of two languages and cultures and they needed to be fluent in English as well as in Korean; they ought to be accepted by two different cultures without difficulties. This was the main reason why they came to the U.S. and this was the fundamental purpose of children's bilingual education. In doing so, they thought they could achieve the goal of reproduction cycle, keeping the form of the community with improved replacement inside.

2) Inter-community of Practice Characteristics

Interdependent system was linked to the inter-community of practice characteristics of Korean immigrant families in the U.S. Barab and Duffy (2000) pointed out the layered feature of communities. According to them, individual members in one community become a member of a larger community as well since the community that they belonged to was a part of the larger communities. In other words, an individual came to be covered with multiple layers of "communities" by positioning himself/herself into one community.

Individual members in Korean immigrant families in the U.S. were also the members of American society since the Korean community was a part of American society. Because English was the medium for Korean community to be in the American society, interdependent system corresponded with English. By using English, the borderline of the two different communities was blurred and each individual could take part in larger social activities as well. These interrelations between two different communities eventually influenced individual members' identity formation by having them be conscious about their roles and relationships. This was especially true for Korean children who were more familiar to English than their parents. Unlike their parents who believed English as a tool for a living, they would confront more fundamental questions because they spoke English as L1 in the U.S. For them, English would be more than a bridge between two different communities; English would be a future life itself.

To summarize the characteristics of Korean community of practice in the U.S. in terms of children's bilingual education, I came up with a model, as presented in Figure 1. Figure 1 tells us (1) the interrelationship among parents' beliefs, their practices, children's practices, and their perception according to English and Korean, 2) the

intra-community of practice characteristics from parents' side to children's side, 3) the inter-community of practice characteristics in relation to children's English.

IV. Conclusion

Despite the long history of immigration, Korean community in the U.S. has not been known enough to the U.S. society as much as Chinese or Japanese ones. This study was intended to delineate how Korean families function as a community of children's English and Korean bilingual education. Nineteen Korean immigrant families who had young children showed that both languages played an important role in Korean immigrant families in the U.S. but with different reasons. English was emphasized mainly with "outward" reasons such as financial status, broadening social relationship in the U.S. and the positive values for children's future. On the other hand, Korean was more "inward-oriented," focusing on family relationship and ethnic identity.

Although this study had been conducted with the very limited number of Korean immigrant families in relatively short period of time, it has two main implications. First, immigrant families need be considered as a basic unit of bilingual education. Children from immigrant families have to reposition themselves between two different beliefs and values as well as two different languages in the U.S. To them, school is obviously one influential place and home is another important place that affects their repositioning. Thus, home and family should be paid as much attention as schooling to look at immigrant children's bilingual development and their socio-cultural identity formation. The framework that this study applied, "community of practice," is especially useful since it helps researchers to examine immigrant families as a large group that can be equivalent to schooling.

Second, the present study provides Korean parents who want to immigrate to the U.S. for their children's education with information about what kinds of issues they might face, what beliefs they might have, and how they might educate their children in relation to two different languages. The information is especially meaningful since it is based upon the first-hand information of nearly 20 Korean immigrant families. More specifically, it is expected to give Korean parents who want to immigrate to the U.S. because of their children's English education valuable insights in terms of what should be the first and foremost goal of bilingual education.

BIODATA

Mun Woo Lee is an assistant professor at the Department of English Language Education, Hanyang University. She got her Ph.D. in Language Education at Indiana University, Bloomington and her research interests are discourse analysis and second language acquisition from sociocultural perspectives.

Email: ppohi@hanyang.ac.kr

Phone: 02-2220-2607

Who Are College Students?: Focusing on English Learning Styles

Mijin Im (Kookmin University)

I. Introduction

The fox and the stork invite each other to dinner in Aesop's fable. As everyone knows the story, it might not be necessary to tell it in full. They serve dinner to each other, ignoring the other's taste and thinking only of their own position. I would like to say this story is similar to English Education in Korean universities now. What characteristics do college students show in their learning? It is difficult to find any studies dealing with this in Korea. Without this understanding, having policies for reinforcing English Education is like building a house on the sand as there is no strong foundation based on the knowledge of who college students actually are and what they really want. You may have heard that several universities have adopted a policy for reinforcing English Education but there is some doubt that this policy will succeed.

This study examined the characteristics of college students' English learning. For this, two case study groups (A and B) were selected and a longitudinal study was started that will be continued for one year. There is no definite procedure that was followed for the classes. First, the lessons are twice a week and an hour at a time. If students dislike this arrangement, these lessons will be decreased to once a week and the amount of time also reduced. The intention is that the lessons take students where they want to go. There is only one requirement - for students to follow the instruction given by the teacher. They are not supposed to miss a lesson. If one student is absent from a class, the lesson will be rescheduled to another time. Two types of materials were used in this study: group A studied with the script from the sit-com *The Modern Family*, and group B used the script from the sit-com *Friends*. Each sit-com has about 20 minutes of screen time. Thus, in each class the lesson can move on to the next episode if students work hard. It is considered that this is suitable to observe the process of change. Depending on what the results are, it is anticipated that this study can provide effective English education in Universities in the future.

II. Literature Review

Unfortunately, there are few studies focusing on college students' learning styles. Brown (2007), however, asks 7 questions about issues in second language acquisition beginning with the characteristics of learners:

Who are the learners that you are teaching? What is their ethnic, linguistic, and religious heritage? What are their native languages, levels of education, and socioeconomic characteristics? What life's experiences have they had that might affect their learning? What are their intellectual capacities, abilities, and strengths and weaknesses? How would you describe the personality of any given learner? These and other questions focus attention on some of the crucial variables affecting both learners' successes in acquiring a foreign language and teachers' capacities to enable learners to achieve that acquisition (p. 2).

III. Method

1. Participants

The data in this study will be collected from two case study groups (A and B group) over a year. The A group consists of 1 male and 3 female college students majoring in English language and literature. The B group consists of 2 male and 3 female college students not majoring in English language and literature. This study uses an inductive qualitative approach. It aims to reach its conclusions through in-depth description. It is in progress and is to be completed in a period of a year so only partial results can be presented now.

2. Material

For group A, the material is the sit-com *The Modern Family* (season 3, episode 2), for group B it is the sit-com *Friends* (season 6, episode 3). Both are comedies with short screen times so that students will not become bored.

These sit-coms were chosen so if students study hard and make fast progress, it will be easy to move to the next episode. On the other hand, if they neglect their lessons, they will be stuck in the same episode.

3. Procedure

In fact, there is no fixed procedure. If students dislike the method, it will be changed. If they like the approach, it will continue in the same way. For this reason, there is the possibility to change any aspect of the class.

- (1) Students are asked about the review and preparation of the lesson.
- (2) Translating into Korean
- (3) Re-translating into Korean or moving to the next episode

IV. Results and Discussions

1. Review the Lesson

Only one of the 8 students reviewed the lesson and this was only done once. Apart from this, for the two months of the study period, no one reviewed the lesson. Whenever they were asked the reason why they hadn't reviewed the lesson, they simply said that they were sorry but they had not reviewed it. They say that they didn't, although they thought that they had to review at the end of the lesson. They knew the importance of review for improving their English skill. Reviewing the lesson is regarded as a difficult activity if it is not mandatory.

2. Preparation for the Lesson

Except for two female students all students prepared for the lesson. They were asked how long they had prepared for it. They said about 15 minutes. They seemed to think they can catch up with the lesson in this length of time. They prepared in the time just before the lesson. The reason why they prepared but didn't review classes is that they felt sorry for their teacher and that reviewing was a way of showing support to the teacher. Two students who didn't prepare just said they were sorry without giving any reason when they were asked why they didn't prepare. To summarize, they didn't prepare for the lesson voluntarily. Although they knew they should, they didn't put this into action. This needed the compulsion of the teacher. Students spent 15 minutes for preparation, because they arranged it according to the teacher's teaching intensity. If the teacher teaches intensively, they will spend more than 15 minutes in preparation.

3. Instructional Process

Students enjoyed these lessons compared to lessons without preparation and review. If they were alone, they would not study at all. They said that it is a good thing that the teacher guides their learning. After finishing with one episode, they wanted to go back to the starting point because they didn't prepare or review, so they needed to repeat it. This means that students show high interest in learning. It could get boring to repeat the material but they wanted to do it again in order to learn. Students said that movies or TV dramas (sit-coms) were not boring and made it easy to learn expressions that would be very useful in the future. Attending lessons was not boring at all. They were sorry for not preparing for and reviewing lessons, but they were always willing to attend the lessons. This means they may need someone who can guide them to study. In short, students are proud to have this kind of environment to study. Although it remains to be seen how to run it, students want the environment where they can study and have someone to lead them.

4. Students' Needs

Students need just one thing. They long for the teacher to encourage them to study. Thus, they want to be a little more under the compulsion of the teacher. The teacher said, "how about taking a review quiz?" All the students agreed with it. The teacher asked again, "it would be hard to learn and study so what if you give up learning?" Students think that there may be truth to this, so they tried to find another way. Eventually, students want the compulsion of the teacher, but they hope the degree of compulsion doesn't cause them to give up.

V. Conclusion and Suggestions

This study will last at least one year so only partial results from two months can be presented now. Therefore, using the term “conclusion” might be inappropriate. In the future, depending on how the teacher manages the lessons, there might be different responses. First, most college students have a busy life so that they do not study if they are not in a hurry. Hence, you can’t expect them to prepare for or review classes. Second, students are more dependent on their teacher than expected. Both preparation and review need the help of the teacher. Students feel secure in life when they learn with a teacher. Lastly, college students said that they needed to be under compulsion, but teachers should ponder on to what extent and what kind of compulsion is necessary. Taking one with another, because college students had no time to study English, they hope someone will guide them, and also be friendly to them. They can be forced to follow even under compulsion.

The following are suggestions. It is necessary to form groups. Since they are living with a busy schedule, they can have some time to prepare for and review classes. In a group, students can check their preparation and review with one another. It seems more useful to be under the compulsion of group members than a teacher. For this, a teacher needs to make small groups with their students, and be trained in managing and organizing the small groups.

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BIODATA

Mijin Im is an assistant professor of Kookmin University. Her research interests include English language teaching through movies and TV dramas and teaching adult learners.

Email: gogomaryjane@naver.com

Phone: +82-2-910-5536

Learning English within the Curricular Reform Context: An Analysis of Korean College Students' Autobiographical Memories

Kyungja Ahn (Seoul National University of Education)

I. Introduction

English education in Korean public schools has experienced important changes since the 6th National Curriculum, when the communicative approach was first proposed as a method of instruction. This recommended approach has been continued in the 7th and the revised 7th National Curricula. Within the context of the curricular reforms in Korea, numerous studies have reported that discrepancies exist between the mandated policies and their implementation in the classroom, due to factors related to teachers, students, and institutional contexts (e.g., Choi, 2000; Guilloteaux, 2004). While most of the studies investigated teachers' point of view, studies also have been conducted on secondary school students' experiences with communicative approaches (E.-J. Kim, 2008). Also, although the majority of the previous studies on teachers and students have examined the issues cross-sectionally, longitudinal perspectives are needed to investigate how students experienced the reformed curriculum throughout their time in elementary and secondary schools and what factors were involved in the students' English learning experiences.

One way to look at learners' English learning experiences effectively is to analyze their narratives such as autobiographies. In recent years, language learner narratives have gained increased attention in the field of second language learning (e.g., Kramsch, 2000; Pavlenko, 2002; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). These researchers maintain that narratives are a legitimate source of data, constructed by social, cultural, and historical conventions. Thus, L2 learner narratives provide learners' experiences, voices, motivations, struggles, losses, and gains and offer long-term and historical perspectives on language learning (Pavlenko, 2001, 2002). In this vein, autobiographies of English learners in Korea demonstrate their learning, thoughts, and feelings within their English learning contexts. Therefore, by analyzing their autobiographies, this study examines how current college-level English learners underwent their English learning under the curricular reform context in Korea.

II. Literature Review

Several studies have examined how EFL students experienced CLT-based curriculum innovation. The findings have revealed college students' positive (Savignon & Wang, 2003) and negative responses (Chen, 2003, Rao, 2002; Shamin, 1996). In the Korean context, E.-J. Kim (2008) investigated seven middle school students' current experiences with CLT in their English classrooms, which were taught by two different teachers. Students' exposure to the current curriculum reforms was indirect and limited and was primarily filtered through the teachers. Therefore, depending on the teachers' views about the curricular reforms, beliefs about language learning, and instructional practices, students had very different experiences with the curricular reform. However, at a more macro-level, the students' language learning experiences were similar as the content of students' instruction were regulated by school exams, and getting high exam scores was a goal clearly shared by the teachers and students in schools.

Research has also been carried out about Korean students' prior English learning experiences. In one such study, B. Lee (2010) investigated Korean college students' experiences in private sector education. Forty-three freshmen were surveyed, and seven of them were interviewed. The findings indicated that the participants benefited from diverse English instruction outside of school, which greatly improved their English proficiency. Another study that examined Korean college students' English learning experiences was done by T.-Y. Kim and Y.-J. Lee (2013). It specifically focused on the changes in Korean students' motivational and demotivational factors from kindergarten to university. The analysis of seventy-five college students' essays about their previous English learning experiences demonstrated that the participants' English learning methods, test scores, and competitive motivation functioned as both motivational and demotivational factors. The competitive motivation factor was found to reflect competitive Korean educational contexts in which the goals of having good grades and graduating from prestigious secondary schools and universities are pursued.

In order to examine Korean students' English learning experiences, this study employs activity theory (Leontiev, 1978, 1981) as its theoretical and methodological framework. This theory views all human actions as goal-oriented and artifact-mediated; thus, in the pursuit of the goals by using various artifacts, people's cognition and actions develop. In addition, the theory also emphasizes the importance of human mediation and the social and collaborative nature of human activities. More specifically, the activity system model (Engeström, 1987, 1999) provides a framework for "mapping and transforming the complexities of social practice in educational settings" (Thorne, 2004, p. 57) by identifying the participants and processes of an activity system as subject, artifacts (tools), object, outcome, community, rules, and division of labor. Using activity theory, specifically the human activity system model, this study analyzed how EFL students experienced their elementary and secondary English education under the curricular reform context.

III. Methodology

The participants were sixteen college students in an intermediate academic English class taught by the researcher. One of the class assignments was to write five journals, and the first of these, an entry entitled "History of my English learning," was collected for data. These autobiographies were analyzed to trace the students' English learning experiences over their time in pre-school, elementary, and secondary schools. Additional data included interviews, surveys, and the students' final portfolios. The data were analyzed through grounded content analysis (Bogdan & Biklin, 1998). Final themes emerged from further iterative and refining processes of data reduction, verification, and additional data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Then, the final themes were analyzed within Engeström's activity system model. In order to heighten the trustworthiness of the study, data triangulation, thick description, and peer debriefing were employed (Creswell, 2003).

IV. Findings

The findings displayed commonalities and diversity in the students' English learning experiences, specifically in terms of individual learners' motives, human mediation, and artifacts.

1. Motives for English Learning

Most of the students expressed their current concepts of learning English as it being a means of communication (S4, S10, S11, S13) and information exchange (S3) in the written or spoken format (S15). However, depending on the students' school contexts and individual differences, two distinct motives for learning English were found: learning English for fun and learning English for exams.

1) Learning English for Fun

Many students stated that before they began English education in the public educational system, they started learning English at home with their parents (S6, S8) or through the private sector including at private institutes, with English home schooling tutors, and through individual or group tutoring. All the students except one (S2) mentioned that they enjoyed learning English when they first began their study of it and/or in their elementary schools. Overall, the students perceived their English learning experience in pre-elementary and elementary schools as very positive, describing how the teachers, materials, and instructional methods helped them enjoy learning English.

2) Learning English for Exams

At the secondary school level, almost all of the students felt that they lost interest in English due to the pressure from studying English for exams and traditional instructional practices such as grammar-translation and memorization. Depending on individuals, this change happened in their middle (S9) or high school (S7) years. The exam most frequently mentioned was the college entrance exam, though school-based exams and other standardized tests (e.g., TEPS, TOEFL) were also brought up. Not all the students felt unhappy about studying for exams. For instance, S3 enjoyed learning interesting facts from reading paragraphs. Also, some students maintained their interest in English outside of the classroom through reading story books (S1) or through participating in speaking activities in an English club (S6) or reading literary works (S13). Overall, the conflicts between studying out of interest and for exams emerged when students learned English in their secondary schools, especially in their high schools.

2. Human Mediation

It was found that the community members of the students' activity systems also mediated students' language learning. Human mediation related to native speaking teachers, Korean teachers, parents, and classmates was evident in the students' autobiographies.

1) Native Speaking Teachers

Almost all of the students considered communicating with native speaking teachers beneficial to their learning, although some reported difficulty with communication and felt worried and afraid. They stated that the native speaking teachers in both the public and private sectors created an environment in which they could speak more comfortably and motivated them to speak in English. S3's case showed her fear of talking with the native speaking teachers at first and then her gradual comfort with them and how they were helpful to her further English learning.

2) Korean English Teachers

Many students had good memories of some of their Korean English teachers. S13's case showed how she felt good about her reading teacher and how her teacher's instruction was helpful. In addition, in the exam-oriented context, some students recalled having good teachers who helped them prepare for tests (S15). However, at the secondary school level, specifically in high schools, some students had negative perceptions of teachers because they covered too much content and administered frequent pop quizzes (S14). This indicates that the teachers' mediation was inseparable from the school context and the instructional goals of the school.

3) Peers

The students' classmates and/or foreign friends were reported to help them develop their English ability through competitive and/or cooperative relationships, inside or outside of the classroom. S3's case is an example of a competitive relationship between peers. When S3 met her classmates in her new elementary school, she felt that she needed to improve her English to catch up with them. This demonstrates that the social relationship with her peers mediated her English learning. Additionally, she justified her low achievement in English as being due to the discrepancies in the educational environment between urban and rural areas. The relationships in other cases were more cooperative than competitive. For example, in extracurricular club activities, students were able to collaborate with peers (S6, S13). In the case of S7, as a middle school student, he had a chance to communicate with a foreign student in English outside of the classroom when he and his Filipino high school student friend visited each other's countries and houses. This experience helped him develop his motivation and ability to speak English.

4) Parents

Several students stated that their parents had an impact on them by serving as resource-providers, teachers, managers, and story-tellers. Parents' influence was frequently reported in the students' pre-elementary and elementary school experiences in English learning. For example, S6's father supplied resources for her English practice, and her mother helped her select materials and study them thoroughly and gave her treats or rewards for completing each piece of material. Also, S8's mother first exposed her to English and taught her several English words even before she began learning English in kindergarten. As a manager of language learning, S15's mother controlled the way she learned English: Her mother required her to watch English movies without Korean subtitles. In addition, parents functioned as story-tellers by reading story books aloud to their children (S14).

3. Artifacts

1) Materials and Activities

Diverse materials and activities were used for the students' language learning outside as well as inside the classroom. For instance, S6 used multiple types of learning materials and methods in her elementary school context: reading picture books, studying following the instructions from materials with audio-taped story books, writing diaries, and using English-English dictionaries. Other students used materials such as English animated movies (S5), novels and poetry (S13), magazines (S12), and test preparation materials. Extracurricular activities included cultural activities in kindergarten (S1), English camps (S9), and using English in English-speaking countries (S7).

2) Instructional Methods

Several students reported that they learned English in elementary school through singing and dancing (S13, S14), and other physical activities (S1). In elementary school, there were also grammar- and reading-oriented activities based on communicative functions (S2). The students mostly felt that conversation classes were lacking in the secondary school curriculum. Also, almost all the students reported that in their secondary schools they learned English focusing on grammar and reading through drills and memorization. Some felt bored in this kind of class (S1), while others found it helpful for preparing for exams (S2) and getting new information from reading diverse texts (S3).

V. Discussion and Conclusion

The findings revealed similarities in students' patterns of English learning at the elementary and secondary levels. Whereas the students mostly maintained their interest during elementary school, the majority of them lost it while studying English for exams in secondary school. Despite these general similarities, individual differences were also found in the students' English learning experiences in terms of motives as well as in human mediation and artifacts. The results also showed that the students' diverse experiences took place in the private sector, at home, and through self-study, in addition to in public educational settings. This indicates multiplicity of the activity systems and that each student's activity system was socially constructed and influenced by other activity systems. Finally, the findings displayed the discrepancies between the objectives of English education mandated by the curricular reforms, students' own learning goals, and classroom realities in elementary and secondary schools. Although the development of learners' communicative competence is the ultimate goal of ELT according to the curricular reforms, gaining higher scores on exams is the shared, explicit objective. At the macro-level, the importance of school-based or college entrance exams had an extremely powerful influence on the students' English learning experiences.

Despite the insights this study provides into English education in Korea, there were several limitations that should be considered and accounted for in future studies. First, since the subjects of this study were undergraduate students in one of the most prestigious universities in Korea, the proficiency level of the students or their test scores might have been higher than average. Thus, further research may be needed to examine students at other proficiency levels and in other instructional contexts. Furthermore, while this study presented themes that emerged in sixteen students' autobiographies, more in-depth investigation of each individual could give more insights into learning English in Korea.

The results of this study demonstrated the legitimacy of using autobiographies as data to investigate students' English learning histories. Moreover, this study supported the use of activity theory and the activity system model as a methodological framework for analyzing the macro- and micro-structure of the students' learning experiences. Finally, this research provided insights into learning and teaching English under the CLT-based curriculum in Korea. It also offered important suggestions about English language education, L2 teacher education, and policy making in relation to the national English curriculum.

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BIODATA

Kyungja Ahn is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language Education at Seoul National University of Education. She received her Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the Pennsylvania State University in the United States. Her research interests include second language teacher education, classroom discourse, language planning and educational policy, sociocultural theoretical perspectives on language learning and teaching, and second language writing.

Email: kjahn@snue.ac.kr

Phone: (02) 3475-2565

Day 1

Concurrent Session 9: Culture & Intercultural Communication

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Interactive Feedback between Instructor and Learner under EFL Environment: From Bottom to the Top

Won-Chul Park (English MouMou)

I. Introduction

Under EFL environment, L2 learners need to find the effective way to study English. This paper suggests methodology that can be needed in bottom-up model of reading process before reaching at the level of extensive reading.

II. Content

Phonological processing is at the bottom of reading process. During the learning, position of tongue, and the picture of native speakers are listed for L2 learners. If they can practice these lists with mirror, their learning may be effective to get the phonological awareness. To comprehend the stress in a sentence, presenting a sign or a diagram in a word may help them when they do the sentence practice. In a sentence, they can practice the words that are stressed in a bold shape. By using L1 knowledge from school, L2 learners can comprehend the parts of speech with the picture on the text. Checking parts of speech helps learners to understand the sentence, and avoid putting wrong words in a wrong place. (Nation, 2009, P40)

For L2 learners, translation activity can give better understanding of different sentence structure between L1 and L2. Learners may learn following concepts. In Korean, the parts of sentences are not determined by their positions in the sentences like English does, but by postpositions. Understanding these concepts, learners can practice word meaning, grammar, and sentence structure. Intensive reading can be a means of increasing learners' knowledge of language features. Understanding grammatical features, checking grammar will help learner. Learners fill in grammar checking box which is related to the sentence. Learners fill out what word is linked to. Through this activity, learners may experience which grammatical function they should use during their reading.

Using grammatical knowledge, L2 learners are able to do the writing. Before writing, they must understand the different writing style between L1 and L2. According to Kroll, first and second language learners may not approach writing in the same way. (1990). For L2 learners, following writing steps are made to overcome the difference, and difficulty. Before writing, unfamiliar words are given. Learners do the brainstorming, they write the words that are important from the story in circle map. Then learners get an instruction of the basic writing form which is topic, supporting and concluding sentences. Finally, learners start to write.

L2 learners who studied from Phonology to Writing, they may be ready to do extensive reading. The reason to learn from bottom to top is that considerable knowledge and skills are required for reading. (Nation, 2009, P50) If learners are ready with necessary skills before extensive reading, three features can be learned: Fluency, communication, and writing. From bottom to the top, online learning is ready for the learners. If learners want to increase the ability to use what they learned that day, online learning can be the efficient way to increase their competence. Learners can practice speaking, vocabularies, fixation of grammar, and writing. Environment may be one of the important factors when learners study. The following environments can be considered: Learner-centered, Knowledge-centered, Assessment Centered environments.

III. Conclusion

A balanced program is suggested to help learners speak, read and write in English under EFL environment. L2 learners start from the bottom which is the phonology, because starting from the top which is the extensive reading program may be the difficult task for them. Every curriculum from bottom to the top, learners practice principles and Korean teachers may interact with them and correct their errors for the improvement. To increase literacy, they also can practice on online. For learners' improvement, environment must be considered.

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BIODATA

Won-Chul Park is in the education department of English MouMou. He is interested in the current English education of EFL environment.

Email: wpark1@moumou.co.kr

Phone: (02) 2240-9925/H.P: 010-9668-0579

Identities, Language Communities, and Community Resources for English: Students of English from Multicultural Family Backgrounds

Miso Kim (Chung-Ang University)

I. Introduction

South Korea (henceforth Korea) has been facing an unprecedented increase of multicultural, or *Damunwha*, population. Rapid increase of international marriage and the influx of immigrant workers from foreign countries are the main contributors of this demographic change. International marriages now account for 2.75% of overall marriage in Korea, while immigrant workers reached approximately 790,000 in Korean society at the year of 2012 (Statistics Korea, 22 November 2012). In accordance with the demographic change, the children from either international marriage families or foreign workers' families are beginning to enroll in Korean schools. However, Korean schools are not yet ready to fully embrace the students, due to the deep-rooted belief that Korean society has homogeneous ethnical composition and the inexperience living in harmony with foreign population (Choi, 2010). Even worse, the students who were born in such foreign families suffer from participation in Korean society (National Human Rights Commission of The Republic of Korea, 2011).

In light of those addressed problems, this study investigated the students' participation into English language community and other language communities, language identities, and community resources to learn English, from Communities of Practice (CoP) perspective (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) and critical pedagogy perspective (Giroux, 2007; Sung, 2009). The students are participating in three language communities, namely Korean, English, and their (one of) parents' language communities. Among those, English is particularly important considering the fact that English proficiency has powerful influence over important social opportunities, such as university entrance, job openings, promotion and other opportunities (Yoo, 2012). Therefore, this study would place primary importance on their English language communities, in relation to other language communities they participate in.

II. Literature Review

1. Communities of Practice

The Communities of Practice (CoP) perspective situates learning in the community (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). CoP perspective emphasizes participation, considering that learning takes place in interaction with others in a community. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), learning is conceptualized as a "comprehensive understanding involving the whole person rather than "receiving" a body of factual knowledge about the world; on activity in and with the world; and in the view that agent, activity, and the world mutually constitute each other" (p. 33). From their observation of apprenticeship cases, they postulated learning as participation, involving gradual identity changes from newcomers to old-timers of the community. At first, the newcomers start to participate in the CoP by doing very trivial kind of work; as time goes by, their participation increases, hand in hand with their experience and knowledge about the cultural norm, rules, and related skills of the community. Accordingly, their access to community resources increases as well, which includes valuable opportunities and useful objects. In short, from the CoP perspective, learning takes place through legitimate peripheral participation into a particular CoP. This study postulated *Damunwha* students' language communities as CoP, and conceptualized their language learning as their participation into each language community. Investigating each of their language community, their identities, imagined communities, and community resources for English proficiency were identified.

2. Identities and Imagined Communities in English Learning

Identities are senses of themselves shaped in relation to interactions with other people in a community. As Norton (2000) puts it, identities are "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (p. 5). Applying this view of identity into the CoP perspective, identities are "a way of talking about how learning changed who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities" (Wenger,

1998). In other words, identities are reflections of themselves in a particular CoP where their interactions with others are negotiated. Negotiation of identity also takes place in imagined communities which reside in a learner's imagination. According to Norton (2001), imagined communities refer to groups of people, not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of imagination. This imagined community also paves the way for imagined identities to be negotiated in the community. Bringing the theoretical discussion of identities in applied linguistics, the present study examined their identities being negotiated in their each language community, thereby revealing how the *Damunwha* students felt themselves in each language they speak, and how they take advantage of the identities.

3. Critical Pedagogy in English Education

Critical pedagogy provides a way to look at what is hidden behind the scene. The term 'critical' denotes, "how people use texts and discourses to construct and negotiate identity, power, and capital" (Luke, 2004). Tweaking the picture which was previously depicted as normal, critical pedagogy allows interpreting activities from the perspective of power relation in the community. Ultimately, critical pedagogy seeks to "enhance human possibility" (Simon, 1987) through providing students with the skills and knowledge necessary for them to expand their capacities both to question deep-seated assumption and myths which disempower social practices (Giroux, 2007).

III. Methodology

1. Research Contexts and Participants

The study took place in two welfare centers for *Damunwha* students which provided after-school English classes for middle school students. Four core participants, two from international marriage families and the other two from foreign workers' families participated in this study. In addition, their volunteer teachers who taught the after-school English class for them and their supervisors in the center were invited to the study. Overall, four core participants and five other participants were invited. The profile of the core participants are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Profile of the Core Participants

Center	Name (pseudonym)	Years in school	Age	Gender	Family	Parents' (or mother's) country
A	Chenik	9th	17	Girl	Foreign worker	Russia
	Hwang	8th	14	Boy	Foreign worker	China
B	Gahee	8th	14	Girl	International marriage	The Philippines
	Yong	8th	14	Boy	International marriage	China

2. Research Data and Analysis

Primary data sources were semi-structured interviews with each participant. The core participants have completed one to three interviews, and other participants were asked to join one interview session. Their background information and open-ended questionnaire on life history and English learning history given to the core participants were analyzed. All the research tools were piloted. Data were analyzed based on grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

IV. Findings

1. Language Communities of Students from Foreign Worker's Family

Chenik spoke Russian as her L1, Korean as an L2, and English as an L3. She immigrated to Korea approximately four years before the time of data collection. Because of her active personality and western-like appearance, she could be embraced in Korean language community as a legitimate member, as all of her friends

welcomed her to the communities. In terms of the L1 community, her mother's network with other people who shares the same L1 benefited her participation into the L1 community. As for English language community, she actively formed an imagined English community, where foreigners are waiting for Chenik's translation service. Influenced by her dream to be a translator who simultaneously translates three languages, she could form the imagined community. However, she could not have access to community resources because of her socio-economic status and her inexperienced teacher in the center. Hwang, who spoke Chinese as his L1, Korean as an L2, and English as an L3, was a reticent boy who prefers playing games rather than hanging out with others. Contrary to Chenik, he did not seek opportunities to increase his participation in the language communities. As for his L1, he lost his contact with others who share the same L1 upon immigration; moreover, he did not have a good relationship with his parents, thereby losing his primary contact with the L1 community. In Korean language communities too, he was not interested in interaction with others. Although Hwang recognized the need to learn English to achieve his dream to be an international photographer, he resisted to participate into the English community, because of his trauma in learning English.

2. Language Communities of Students from International Marriage Families

Gahee spoke Korean as her L1 and English as her L2. As she was born into a family comprised of a Korean father and a Filipino mother, she could participate in tangible English language community using her mother's network. Her identity as a *Damunwha* student having a foreign mother was a debilitating factor in her participation into Korean language community, because her classmates made fun of the identity. In contrast, she could take advantage of it when it comes to English language learning, receiving an English lesson from her mother and visiting the Philippines once a year. However, Gahee did not adequately take advantage of the resources, as they are not perceived meaningful to her. For her, only the English class provided by the volunteer teacher was meaningful to increase her school score. Yong was an indifferent boy, who spoke Korean as his L1, Chinese as his L2, and English as an L3. He kept indifferent attitude toward his peers in Korean community, saying that "they are too noisy to get along with." His participation into the L2 community was suffering, because of his bad relationship between his family members and the low socio-economic status of the family. In addition, he refused to form an English language community, and failed to realize the fact that English is a language which is spoken for communication purpose. For him, the available resources to learn English were only the school and the center, in contrast to Gahee who could enjoy rich resources.

V. Discussion

1. Participation into English Language Community in Relation to Other Language Communities

From the four cases, it was found that all the language communities in which they had legitimate participation were closely intertwined. For example, Chenik's motivation to learn English could be shaped by her linguistic resources gained from two other language communities. She thought that, she could utilize her resources to the utmost extent if she becomes a translator who speaks all the three languages simultaneously. Therefore she motivated herself to study English in order to be a competent translator. The other example is that Yong's failure to realize the fact that English is more than a mere school subject to memorize. He was left alone in his L1 community, and he could not have sufficient contact with L2 community members due to his negative relationship with other family members. The experience in other language communities, then, led him to take indifferent attitude toward others and the English. In sum, their English learning was closely intertwined with other language communities.

2. Affordance and Environment: The Participants' Utilization of Community Resources

The community resources for learning English were unequally distributed to all the four participants; however, their realization of the community resources was not directly related to the amount of resources given. In Chenik's case, she could not enjoy access to fine opportunities to learn English conversation, although she longed for them. The after-school class taught by a novice teacher and the English class provided in her school through her L2 were the only resources she could have. Contrary to Chenik, Gahee failed to realize the ambient resources given by her L2 community, including the English-speaking mother and relatives. As Gahee draw a solid line between the English spoken at home and the English learnt in school, she failed to realize that the resources from her home was also beneficial to her English language learning. In this context, only the resources perceived meaningful to the participant is converted into affordance from environment; the latter means a set of

unrealized possibilities and opportunities surrounding a learner, and if the environmental factors are realized meaningful to the learner, they are converted into affordance (Kim, 2010; van Lier, 2000). In other words, the resources realized as affordance were not directly related to given resources in the surrounding environment.

3. *Damunwha* Students' English Learning from a Critical Perspective

Most importantly, the resources which the participant had were not socially valued in Korean community. Although the participants had a rich linguistic resource, languages other than Korean and English were depreciated in Korean community, as the two languages were the only language of power and others were considered minority. In addition, the English language spoken by native speakers in western countries was considered as the norm, devaluing the different form of English spoken by Gahee's Filipino mother. Moreover, their identities as *Damunwha* student had two-folded effect on their participation. In case of Chenik, who had western-like appearance, was welcomed into Korean community while Gahee could not help but suffering from the identity as a *Damunwha* student.

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BIODATA

Miso Kim is a graduate student in master's course, currently attending Chung-Ang University. Areas of Academic interests are identities, critical pedagogy, multiculturalism, immigration, and *Damunwha* students.

Email: miharu29@wm.cau.ac.kr

Phone: 010-7124-0673

Literature Review: Identity Construction of EFL Learners in China, Japan, and Korea

Jaran Shin (University of California, Berkeley)

I. Introduction & Point of Departure

The issues of identity have been discussed extensively for decades. Beginning with Anderson's (1983) classical theory of imagined community and imagined identity, identities related to nationality, cultural background, social class, and gender have been continuously researched. The field of language teaching and learning is not an exception. The scope of such studies ventures beyond identities in monolingual settings and extends to second language contexts.

Nevertheless, these studies tend to be limited to language learning in English-speaking countries or in the English as a Second Language (ESL) setting. Few studies have examined learner identities in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, although most EFL countries have no other option than to teach English as a crucial focus in both the public and the private sectors due to the widespread use of English in this era of more active intercultural and international exchange. The consequent problem is that we do not know how EFL learners construct their identities associated with English learning, although their identities are likely to be influenced by distinctive social, political, and cultural factors of their own. As language learning and identity construction are essentially linked to each other (e.g., Norton, 1997), it is therefore crucial to explore how English learning affects EFL learners' established identities and how they (re)construct their identities while learning the language.

This presentation focuses on EFL learners in China, Japan, and Korea, who have not received enough attention in the field given that they have occupied a large proportion of the EFL population. By reviewing a few existing studies regarding college students' EFL identity construction of these respective countries, I aim to understand the current stage of the study of the topic and suggest the need for more structured quality studies that examine EFL learners' identity construction as associated with English learning.

II. What is Identity?¹

Norton (1997) defines *identity* as "how people understand their relation to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future (p.410)," and Kramsch (2004) defines the term as "our conscious or unconscious sense of self as mediated through symbolic forms" (p. 18). That is, identity is a tool for displaying one's existence by understanding similarities to and differences from others, as well as by figuring out who they are and who they are not. Importantly, as noted by Kramsch, identities do not form all at once or on one occasion. This means that depending on contexts (e.g., time, place, topic), individuals take up different subject positions and perform their identities differently, and accordingly, identity is constructed when those subject positions accumulate repeatedly and recognizably (i.e., sedimentation) (Kramsch, 2011).

III. Review of Existing Empirical Studies Targeting Chinese, Japanese, and Korean EFL Learners

Chinese EFL Learners: Although there are more studies about Chinese students' identity construction in learning English compared to the number of studies focusing on Japanese or Korean students, three studies

¹ From a poststructuralist approach, the term *subjectivity* has been widely used. Weedon (1987) defines the term as "the conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions of the individual, her sense of herself, and her ways of understanding her relation to the world" (p. 32). This concept of subjectivity helps characterizing identity as a site of struggle and as changing, multiple, nonunitary, dynamic, decentered, and contradictory over historical time and social space (Ivanic, 1998; Norton, 1997; Weedon, 1997).

examine the topic most comprehensively. It is important to note that approaches to the term *identity* differ depending on the researchers across the three studies.

Table 1
Studies Investigating Chinese EFL Learners' Identity Construction

Researcher	Year	Methodology	Focus
Gao, Li, & Li	2002	Qualitative	The researchers examine the processes of EFL identity reconstruction of students who major in English at a Chinese university and found that there are individual variations in constructing identity as EFL learners (e.g., identities as a writer, as a reader, and as a speaker).
Gao Cheng, Zhao, & Zhou	2005	Quantitative	In investigating EFL learners' self-identity changes, the researchers found that English learning affects self-confidence the most and argue that this reflects Chinese society valuing English. Interestingly, they also demonstrate that not many students experience identity changes or cultural/identity conflicts in learning English. Lastly, there are varying degrees of self-identity change in relation to learners' sex, college majors, and beginning age of English learning.
Gu	2010	Qualitative	Chinese college students' construction of their EFL identity vis-à-vis (a) their English learning community (i.e., department), (b) surrounding Chinese social environment, and (c) an imagined global community.

Japanese EFL Learners: Researchers in Japan acknowledge that there are very limited studies that examine the identity construction of Japanese EFL learners. In particular, Yoshizawa (2010) emphasizes the importance of investigating Japanese students' identity construction in the EFL context. Yoshizawa goes on to argue that Anderson's (1991) notion of imagined community can be helpful in understanding how they identify themselves in learning the language, as EFL learners may imagine a community, people, and/or a country that are involved in English learning. Although Yoshizawa (2010) suggests an intriguing research idea, few studies specifically explore how EFL learners in Japan conceive an imagined English-speaking community and how it might influence their identity construction and English learning.

Table 2
Studies Hinting Japanese EFL Learners' Identity Construction

Researcher	Year	Methodology	Focus
Pritchard & Maki	2006	Quantitative	The researchers found that more than 90% of the 259 examined Japanese college students have favorable attitudes toward English, although they tend to demonstrate self-deprecation in evaluating their English ability. They also demonstrate that students actively search for opportunities to develop their English competence and prioritize communicative functions of language learning to grammar and forms.
McKinley	2006	Qualitative	The researcher highlights how Japanese students learn to develop critical argument, establish Japanese English writer identity (academic writing), and experience identity conflicts between the Japanese writing and English writing styles.

Korean EFL Learners: Similar to the situation of studies about Japanese EFL learners' identities, there are limited studies in number and scope that target how Korean college students construct their identity as EFL learners. Rather, the issue of identity associated with English learning tends to be connected to the issue of whether Korean learners can maintain their cultural and historical identity as Koreans (Krik, 2000; Mun, 1997).

Table 3
Studies Exploring Korean EFL Learners' Identity Construction

Researcher	Year	Methodology	Focus
Kim & Kennedy	2004	Quantitative	The researchers found that Korean college students have mixed attitudes toward English. They feel English threatens the Korean language and culture. However, they also view English

			as beneficial and crucial to success in society. Although 52% of students seem not to lose their Korean self-identity, it is interesting that approximately 25% of students report that their self-identity as being Korean has been lost in learning English and about 23% position themselves neutral to the question.
Lee	2007	Qualitative	The researcher examines college students' English writer identity and identity construction with the first person pronoun "I". In Ivanic's (1998) and Tang and John's (1999) framework of studying writer identity, the researcher argues that "the opinion-holder" is flagged the most frequently in students' writing.

IV. Discussion and Conclusion:

Overall, in studying identity vis-à-vis English learning, researchers in China, Japan, and Korea tend to focus on the social, political, and economical environment that English functions in as "the language of power and prestige" (Pennycook, 1994, p. 13). In a similar vein, some researchers examine whether students experience any identity conflicts based on the stereotypical assumption that there are cultural and stylistic differences between Chinese/Japanese/Korean writing and English writing.

Nevertheless, two major issues emerge after reviewing the existing studies delving into EFL learners' identity construction. First, we still do not know how these EFL learners learn and use languages in multiple contexts and how they associate themselves with the language. That is, studies have not emphasized "the flesh-and-blood individuals who are doing the learning" (Kramersch, 2009, p. 2). Secondly, it is salient that researchers have different conceptualizations of *identity* and use different terms (e.g., self-identity, identity, self). This would stem from the different disciplines in which researchers have trained and participated. However, a more noticeable aspect of these studies is that the researchers tend to adopt a rather modernistic way of conceptualizing identity (i.e., "a limited and temporary fixing for the individual of a particular mode of subjectivity as apparently what one *is* ... give individuals a singular sense of who they are and where they belong", Weedon, 2004, p. 19). Therefore, it is crucial to have a shared understanding of what identity is, how it is related to language and language learning, and why we as researchers would not be able to get away with not talking about identity in learning a language.

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BIODATA

Jaran Shin is a doctoral candidate in Language, Literacy and Culture program at UC Berkeley Graduate School of Education. She earned an Ed.M. in Language and Literacy from Harvard University Graduate School of Education and a B.A. in Classical Chinese and English Language and Literature from Korea University. She voluntarily taught children English in Korea for years. Her research focuses on second/foreign language acquisition and learning and on how language learning interacts one's identities and culture backgrounds.

Email: jaranshin@berkeley.edu

Phone: (1) 617-308-2609

Perceptions and Intelligibility of Multiple English Varieties: A Northeast Asian Learner Perspective

Andrew Pollard (Kangwon National University)

I. Introduction

Japan, Korea and Taiwan are three of the more established and prominent EFL markets in the Northeast Asian region. One of the things they have in common is that there is a reliance on the 'native' speaker as an English teacher, which often comes at the expense of more highly qualified and experienced local and regional teachers (Galloway, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Phillipson, 1992). This paper will look at the region's learners of English and have them assess a range of English varieties than span the three circles presented by Kachru (1986) in an attempt to shed light on learner's perceptions of these varieties and to what extent the varieties are received intelligibly.

II. Background

Notions surrounding English education seem to fall in two camps – 'norm-dependent' and 'norm-developing' (Lippi-Green, 1997; Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2002). In other words, the main argument is between the notions of Standard English and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF). Seidlhofer suggests that as English spreads, the norm-developing notion of ELF is growing in strength. This notion appears to be in direct opposition of the policy across the Northeast Asian region (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Phillipson, 1992). The argument between norm-dependent and norm-developing is one that can transfer to the realm of pronunciation, and therefore, receptive intelligibility. The Literature suggests that with the newly globalised aspect of English, the interlocutor must be able to receive and interpret utterances in an effective manner (Crystal, 1997; Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006; Jenkins, 2000). In order to facilitate this, Crystal believes that it is a necessity for learners to have increased experience with and exposure to a multitude of English varieties.

With increased exposure in mind, ELF communication and the issues of intelligibility and mutual communicative success are often depicted as a minor concern unless intelligibility is hindered. In addition, should misunderstandings arise, negotiation of meaning or modification of verbal delivery through shifting pronunciation or lexical selection is a safe means of averting further concern (Jenkins, 2000). Prior research suggests that global communication need not rely on the norm-dependent native English speaker as teacher and that for ELF to gain greater momentum, a shift in the teaching paradigm would be beneficial (Jenkins, 2000; Kirkpatrick, 2007). Through Pollard's (2011) own research, it has been suggested that the 'ideal' English teacher for the Korean learner of English is a weakly marked Korean English speaker. Therefore, it will be of greater interest to see if a) a deeper study into the Korean Learner of English garners similar findings, and b) to see if there is any consistency between the findings across Japan, Korea and Taiwan.

III. Methodology

1. Objectives of the Research

In the age of global communication through the vehicle of English, intelligibility levels in conjunction with interlocutor perceptions play major roles. This project focuses on the Northeast Asian learner of English (NEAL) and considers their perceptions of a selection of English varieties as well as analysing the receptive intelligibility levels of each English variety tested. Therefore, the objectives of this research are to attempt to answer the questions:

- (1) Which of the selected varieties of English tested is the most intelligible on the receptive level to the NEAL?
- (2) Which of the selected varieties of English tested is perceived the most positively by the NEAL?

2. Significance of the Research

Through this research, light may be shed on which of the selected English varieties is the most beneficial to the NEAL when receptive intelligibility is considered. On the perceptions front, the NEAL is able to voice their opinion through this study in respect to which variety of English it is that they deem to be most beneficial in their personal situation. Implications of this study have the potential to influence not only the NEAL on the micro level, but may also crossover into the macro level of language planning and educational policy; particularly in the countries where this study is conducted: Japan, Korea and Taiwan. The reason for delving into this research area is primarily due to the over-reliance in these three countries on the 'Native English Speaker' as teacher (Galloway, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Phillipson, 1992).

3. Methodology

1) The Participants

The participants of this study number 268 – 84 in Japan, 94 in Korea, and 90 in Taiwan – and were drawn via a purposive sampling strategy. All participants were enrolled in university English language courses as part of their studies. Through making use of in-principle research agreements, research was conducted across two universities in both Korea and Taiwan, while research was conducted across three universities in Japan.

2) The Instrument

The instrument for this study made use of seven audio recordings of male speakers of differing origins: Japan, Kenya, Korea, the Philippines, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. These origins were selected due to their ability to cover Kachru's (1986) Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles, while also focusing on the local varieties pertinent to the research context. Each of these speakers were selected not only because of their origin, but also because of their pronunciation, which was deemed to be representative of their respective regional variety of English. Each selected speaker was required to produce an audio recording of between 120 and 155 words in length. Each spoken recording derived from passages within the *Stage 1 Oxford Bookworms Graded Readers*. These Stage 1 readers contain 400 headwords and encompass a Flesch Reading Ease ranging from 85 through to 96.2.

Participants were able to listen to each recording once and proceeded to rate the speakers on a 5-point Likert scale relating to the overall perception and impression of the speaker and the overall perception of intelligibility. In addition to the Likert scale ratings, the instrument contained a six option multiple choice response section that related to comprehension. The multiple choice response options attempted to provide a one-sentence summary of the spoken recording. These summary sentences were presented in the participants' respective L1.

IV. Findings

It is interesting to note that research conducted with English language learners across three different countries can produce such similar findings. Through these descriptive findings it is possible to draw the conclusion that the NEAL is a greater entity that can jump the boundaries created by national EFL policy. Across Japan, Korea and Taiwan a consensus was largely reached in respect to English varieties and which of the tested varieties have the most positive perception, the high perceived intelligibility rating, and are the most comprehensible. On a 5-point scale, with 5 being the highest possible rating for perception and perceived intelligibility, the Taiwanese English and the Korean English audio recordings were consistently in the top two.

Tables 1 and 2 show the most consistent performers in relation to perceptions, intelligibility and comprehension levels from the study with the Korean English audio recording being the better performer by-and-large across the three groups of participants. As can be seen, the Korean English audio recording received an overall perception ranging from M: 3.3 (SD: 1.01) through to M: 3.56 (SD: 0.9), while the Taiwanese English audio recording returned a slightly lower rating. In regard to perceived intelligibility, the Korean English audio recording returned ratings that ranged from M: 2.98 (SD: 0.92) from the Korean participants through to a rating as high as M: 3.57 (SD: 0.93) from the Japanese participants. Again, the Taiwanese English audio recording performed well overall, but was rated slightly lower than the Korean recording. Comprehension accuracy across both the Korean English audio recording and the Taiwanese English audio record were comparable, with the Korean English audio recording proving marginally more comprehensible.

Table 1
Taiwanese English Audio Recording

	N	Overall Perception	Perceived Intelligibility	Comprehension Accuracy
Japanese Participants	84	M: 3.21 (SD: 0.95)	M: 3.1 (SD: 0.93)	65%
Korean Participants	94	M: 3.19 (SD: 0.96)	M: 2.84 (SD: 0.85)	67%
Taiwanese Participants	90	M: 3.29 (SD: 0.92)	M: 2.96 (SD: 0.91)	87%

Table 2
Korean English Audio Recording

	N	Overall Perception	Perceived Intelligibility	Comprehension Accuracy
Japanese Participants	84	M: 3.56 (SD: 0.9)	M: 3.57 (SD: 0.93)	73%
Korean Participants	94	M: 3.3 (SD: 1.01)	M: 2.98 (SD: 0.92)	69%
Taiwanese Participants	90	M: 3.3 (SD: 0.9)	M: 3.27 (SD: 0.94)	71%

While the Taiwanese English and the Korean English audio recordings performed the best overall, there were two minor discrepancies. Where the Taiwanese participants were concerned, the Filipino English audio recording performed well and returned ratings of M: 2.99 (SD: 0.78), M: 3.12 (SD: 0.81), and 79% for overall perception, perceived intelligibility and comprehension accuracy respectively. The biggest discrepancy here being that the 79% for comprehension accuracy makes the Filipino English audio recording very comprehensible in the eyes of the Taiwanese participants.

The second discrepancy is in respect to the Japanese participants and the UK English audio recording. The Japanese participants rated the UK audio recording very positively in the areas of both overall perception and perceived intelligibility, with figures of M: 3.51 (SD: 1.07) and M: 3.78 (SD: 1.04) being returned. It is interesting to note that the rating for perceived intelligibility of the UK English audio recording is the highest of any recording from any participant while the Japanese participants' comprehension accuracy of the same recording was a lowly 37%, the sixth ranked position of seven recordings.

V. Discussion

Across three nations, seven universities, and 268 participants, one point of note has come to the fore which sits in line with Pollard's (2011) earlier research: a weakly marked Korean English speaker is perceived positively while being both intelligible and comprehensible. Pollard's earlier research focused solely on the Korean learner of English, whereas this current research has been expanded to include two additional countries, and therefore, focus on the NEAL. It is a boon for the EFL industry to consider that a regional variety such as Korean English can be seen in a positive light not only in its own context, but also in two additional contexts.

To further expand on this notion of regional acceptance, a Taiwanese speaker of English has also been seen in a similar light across the three contexts of Japan, Korea and Taiwan. As Kirkpatrick (2007) alludes to, the idea that a local user of English can thrive in their own local context is not a new one, but where visa policy across Northeast Asia in relation to the EFL industry is concerned, perhaps the restrictions need to be lessened in an attempt to further develop the regional acceptance and development of ELF and to move away from what Kachru and Nelson (2001) coin 'native speaker idolisation'.

While native speaker idolisation in the region may never be quashed, the opening of the restricted doors would not only allow for a greater facilitation of ELF use, but could also have the run-on effect of strengthening and facilitating regional business ties, as well as tourism and trade capabilities. A claim and implication of this nature is not as grandiose as it appears at first glance if we are to take Crystal's (1997) claim that through greater

exposure to and familiarity with a variety of accents and speech norms, aural comprehension is increased. It therefore, stands to reason that an awareness of the English norms throughout the region would serve the NEAL more appropriately than a native speaker norm that would less likely to be encountered through the course of business, trade or tourism practices in the professional world.

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BIODATA

Andrew Pollard is an alumnus of Yonsei University and currently Visiting Professor at Kangwon National University. He is the 2010 recipient of the Palgrave Macmillan (Australia) Award for Applied Linguistics and holds research interests that place an emphasis on the East Asian context. Andrew's current research primarily lay in English as a Lingua Franca with a focus on the prosodic and paralinguistic features of different English varieties and their effects on listening comprehension.

Email: apollard@kangwon.ac.kr

Motivational Effect of Third Language

Yukiko Ideno (Toyo University, Japan)

The purpose of this research is to examine how Japanese university students' attitude to third languages (eg: Chinese French German Korean) change and to investigate the relationship between their motivation and English proficiency (TOEIC). The survey was conducted at three universities in July 2012 in Japan. The findings showed that there was much difference in the motivational items to third language related to TOEIC scores.

1. Students with Average 300-399 TOEIC Score

Table 1

Like English	Dislike English	Total
108	142	250

The language they are interested in
(“like English” students)

The language they are interested in
(“dislike English” students)

Table 2

3 rd language	Number	3 rd language	Number
Chinese	56	Korean	63
French	13	French	28
German	12	German	16
Spanish	9	Chinese	11
Italian	8	Spanish	9
Korean	6	Italian	7
Russian	3	Portuguese	3
Thai	1	Russian	2
Portuguese	0	Finnish	2
Finnish	0	Dutch	1
Dutch	0	Thai	0
Total	108	Total	142

- Need for International Society in the future
- The language a lot of people speak
- Useful for Job-hunting

- Useful in the future
- Interest in Korean dramas
- Attractive intonation

2. Students with Average 400-499 TOEIC Score

Table 3

Like English	Dislike English	Total
198	52	250

The language they are interested in
(“like English” students)

The language they are interested in
(“dislike English” students)

Table 4

3 rd language	number	3 rd language	number
Chinese	87	Chinese	28
French	35	French	9
Spanish	25	Spanish	7
German	20	German	6
Italian	19	Korean	2
Korean	10	Italian	0
Russian	2	Russian	0
Total	198	Total	52

- Need for International Society in the future
- The language a lot of people speak
- Useful for Job-hunting
- Useful in the future
- Interest in Korean dramas
- Attractive intonation

3. Result

The students who had high scores tend to be interested in third language, especially Chinese. While those who had lower scores also are interested in third language, especially Korean. The results shows that the students who have high English proficiency are highly motivated to learn the third language. On the other hand, the students who have low English proficiency also highly motivated to learn the third language. However, they chose similar language to Japanese. That means both students are also highly motivated to learn the third language, but intrinsic motivation was totally different. Thus, university students in Japan are interested in third language, especially Asian languages.

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BIODATA

Yukiko Ideno is a lecturer of Toyo University. Her areas of interest include language aAcquisition, Asian language, and bilingualism.

Email: MLG19817@nifty.com

Phone: 81-90-4248-7927

Day 1

Concurrent Session 10: Culture & Intercultural Communication

Afternoon Sessions / Graduate School room 507		
Session Chair: Jun-kyu Lee (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
Time	Presentation Title and Presenter	Page
15:30 - 16:00	The relationship between teachers' native language and students' literacy improvement Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona Univ., U.S.A.)	225
16:00 - 16:30	Discourse analysis approach to teaching culture for higher level language proficiency Hyunsoo Hur (The Defense Language Institute, U.S.A.)	227

The Relationship between Teacher's Native Language and Students' Literacy Improvement

Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona University)

I. Introduction

Some language institutes have preferred native speakers than non-native teacher based on the belief that teacher's native language (L1) significantly influences students' language performance. This study investigated the relationship between teachers' L1 and students' literacy skills.

II. Literature Review

Teachers' L1 whether it is English or not is an important issue in some countries as a qualification of being an English teacher. For instance, the Korean government had assigned a native speaker as an English teacher in each public elementary and middle school (The Korean Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2011). In addition, a public school in Hong Kong hired native English teachers to achieve students' academic literacy success, indicating that educational policy makers believed that a native could teach English better than non-native teachers. Chu & Morrison (2011) claimed that native speaker English teachers in Hong Kong should stay more as they had handled various cross-cultural adjustments. In addition, Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne (2010) found that non-native teachers' L1 negatively influenced their code-switching in a language classroom. However, Üstünlüoğlu (2007) showed mixed results about native and non-native English teachers. According to the study, native teachers were given high scores on in-class communication skills by their students whereas non-native teachers received higher scores on in-class teaching and in-class management than native teachers. In order to convince the belief of policy makers, empirical studies should be required. However, few studies were conducted to find the relationship between teachers' L1 and students' literacy skills. For instance, Shim (1999) found that students who had been taught by non-native teachers acquired unnatural English. However, more research should be conducted to generalize the effects of teachers' L1 on students' English learning.

III. Methodology

1. Participants

The participants were forty-five high-intermediate students and four teachers in a reading and writing class of an intensive English program (IEP) in the southwestern United States. The native language of the student participants was Arabic. Their ages were from twenty to twenty five. They were international students who wanted to go to university in the U.S and they were provided with instructions of academic reading, listening, writing and speaking in English in the IEP. The students were assigned levels based on their English proficiency and each level of students learned English under the same curriculum and lesson plans. In addition, the four teachers taught reading and writing to the students participating in the study. The teachers had a regular weekly area meeting to share the curriculum and lesson plans which each teacher had made. Two teachers were English native speakers and other two teachers were Korean English teachers. The average age of teachers was thirty-one and the average of teaching experience was 6.2 years showing that no teacher was a novice teacher. The students were divided into four sections. Twenty-two students were included in the native teacher group and twenty-three students were from the non-native teacher group.

2. Procedures

The student participants were asked to take the achievement test including reading, vocabulary and writing section for two hours after seven-week reading and writing instruction. Twenty-one multiple questions in the reading test were scored as 0 (incorrect) or 1 (correct), and the writing tests were rated by two trained raters. The raters scored a summary and a four-paragraph essay in the writing test based on the rubric including

subcategories which were organization, content and language use. The inter-rater reliability was .85. The scores on vocabulary were excluded in this study.

IV. Results and Discussion

The students in the non-native teacher group received higher scores on both reading and writing tests. The mean of the scores on reading of native teacher group was 31.77 (SD = 6.38) while that of non-native teacher group was slightly higher as 31.91 (SD = 5.24). Moreover, the mean of the scores on writing of native teacher group was 30.09 (SD = 5.00) whereas that of non-native teacher group was higher as 33.54 with lower SD (2.05). The observed value of t for the writing scores between native teacher group and non-native teacher group was -3.05 which was higher than the critical value of t ($= 2.02$) while the observed value of t for the reading scores between native teacher group and non-native teacher group was $-.08$ which was lower than the critical value (see Table 1). That is, the results shows that the students' writing scores from non-native teacher group were statistically significantly higher than the students' scores from native teacher group. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected as non-native teacher group performed better than the native group. The effect size was also examined. The η^2 as the effect size was .18. The value shows that teachers' L1 was hard to account for the students' writing scores although the non-native teacher might teach better than the native teachers to cause the students' higher grades on writing.

Table 1
Reading and Writing Scores from Native and Non-native Teacher Group

Test	Group	n	k	Mean	SD	t
Reading	Native Teacher	22	28	31.77	6.38	
	Non-native Teacher	23	28	31.91	5.24	-.08
Writing	Native Teacher	22	2	30.09	5.00	
	Non-native Teacher	23	2	33.54	2.05	-3.05*

Note. k = number of items; $t_{critical}$ (43df, 2tailed) = 2.02; * $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .18$.

V. Conclusion

As non-native teacher group received the higher scores on writing, teachers' L1 may not influence the students' literacy performance. Other factors from teachers would be more important to improve students' literacy skills. As the results of the study are different from Shim (1999), more research would be conducted to support the hypothesis of the relationship between teachers' L1 and students' literacy skills.

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BIODATA

Seonmin Park is a Ph.D. student in Northern Arizona University. She has taught English in Korea, Singapore, Ireland, the U.K. and the U.S. Her research interest is teacher training, corpus linguistics and vocabulary acquisition based on register variation.

Email: seonmin.park@nau.edu

Discourse Analysis Approach to Teaching Culture for Higher Level Language Proficiency

Hyunsoo Hur (The Defense Language Institute)

I. Introduction

The topic of teaching language and culture has been an on-going interest to many language teaching professionals. Many studies have delved into the topic of culture's role in language acquisition and how culture can be taught (e.g., Kramersch, 1998, 2006, 2008; Seelye, 1996, 1997; Byrnes, 2010; Shaules, 2007; Moran, 2001; Byram, 2010). Considering that "communication is the creation of meaning" (Seelye, 1996, p. 10), effective communication with native speakers cannot take place without a clear understanding of "a frame of reference consisting of learned patterns of behavior, values, assumptions, and meaning" shared to "varying degrees of interest, importance, and awareness with members of a group" (p. 9).

Culture predisposes its speakers to certain worldviews through creating a cognitive framework shared by community members (Thanasoulas, 2001). Being a proficient language speaker indicates having the ability to understand and interpret cultural connotations as well as the capability to produce culturally embedded spoken and written texts. Kramersch (2008) claims that learners should develop "symbolic competence" that enables an awareness of the symbolic value of words, and develop an ability to capture the larger social and historical significance of events. This presentation proposes a discourse-analysis approach to teaching culture with examples from authentic materials. A discourse-analysis approach assists foreign language learners' development of symbolic competence, which eventually enhances learners' intercultural communication.

II. Discourse Analysis and Symbolic Competence

Discourse analysis is concerned with "the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 5). It is interested in how natural spoken and written discourse appears and sounds and the possible meaning emerged out of the context. Considering the fact that language use is "a social and cognitive enterprise" (Hatch, 1992), discourses are "social practices, processes, and products" (Rogers, 2011, p. 6). They rely on different sign systems to reflect and construct the social world. Since systems of meaning are influenced by political, social, racial, economic, religious, and cultural formations, discourses cannot be regarded as neutral (Rogers, 2011). They project particular meaning created out of the situated and contextualized reality within different human communities. Thus analyzing discourses of a particular community reveals its viewpoints, values, way of thinking and behaviors that connect its community members.

Kramersch (2005; 2006) refers to language as a symbolic system. Language is symbolic representation, symbolic action and symbolic power that not only reveal what and how the mind works, but also of the speakers' intentions, and social relations, and their emotions and aspirations. Kramersch and Whiteside (2008) defines symbolic competence as "the ability not only to approximate or appropriate for oneself someone else's language, but to shape the very context in which the language is learned and used" (p. 664). In this regard, a discourse analysis approach encourages learners to develop symbolic competence that enables a better understanding of the target language society and culture through a foreign language as well as capability to participate and shape contextualized settings through expressing thoughts, experiences, feelings, values, and attitudes.

III. Methods

This interactive workshop format presentation explores a discourse analysis approach to teaching culture through examination of natural data from American context. Several examples of authentic materials, such as video clips of TV commercials, proverbs from different cultures, and newspaper editorials and advertisements are examined to explore how discourse projects sociocultural and historical aspects of particular societies. While samples of authentic materials are from the U.S., Korean data are also included to compare and contrast projected meanings and stance embedded in the Korean vs. American society regarding the same topic.

Pedagogical implications towards achieving a high level of language proficiency and promoting intercultural communication using a discourse analysis approach will be discussed.

IV. Conclusion

To be communicatively competent and highly proficient in the target language, language learners should be equipped not only with linguistic knowledge but also pragmatic knowledge based on socio-historical and cultural understanding. Namely, symbolic competence should be the outcome. From this perspective, a discourse analysis approach to teaching culture assists learners to develop in-depth understanding and knowledge of the target language and community through in-depth analysis and interpretations of the way particular expressions are used in certain situations. Having cultural knowledge is crucial in reaching a high level of foreign language proficiency. A discourse analysis approach to teaching culture can be an effective method.

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BIODATA

Hyunsoo Hur is Associate Professor at the Defense Language Institute. She educates foreign language teachers working for the U.S. Government. She has made numerous conference presentations in the U.S., such as annual meetings of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Her areas of interest are language teacher education, language acquisition and instruction, culture, and instructional technology.

Email: hyunsoohur@gmail.com

Phone: 1-831-642-9236

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DAY 2

CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Day 2

Concurrent Session 1: Second Language Acquisition

Morning Sessions / Minerva Complex B1-11		
Session Chair: Hye-sook Park (Kunsan Nat'l Univ.)		
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10:00 - 10:30	Reconceptualizing the relationship of L1 and L2 literacy practices: An exploratory case study Sungwoo Kim (Seoul Nat'l Univ.)	238
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The Role of Individual Differences in L2 Syntactic Priming

Haein Lauren Park, Marisa Filgueras-Gómez, & Nicholas Pandža (Georgetown University)

I. Introduction & Literature Review

Syntactic priming refers to the tendency for a speaker to produce a structure used in the recent discourse rather than an alternative structure. Previous literature documents that priming can occur across languages (e.g., for German, Scheepers, 2003; for Dutch, Hartsuiker & Kolk, 1998) for a range of constructions (e.g., for dative and passive constructions, Bock, 1986; for word order, Hartsuiker, Kolk, & Huiskamp, 1999; Hartsuiker & Westenberg, 2000), even when the structure encountered in previous discourse and the speaker's subsequent response have different lexical items (Bock, 1989) or discourse factors (Weiner & Labov, 1983). The basic account for syntactic priming is that speakers are more sensitive to experiences with a syntactic structure than they are to experiences with surface-level features. Although priming methods originated in psycholinguistics, syntactic priming has become a topic of interest in second language acquisition (SLA) more recently (Tromfimovich & McDonough, 2011). Such heightened attention to syntactic priming can be attributed to its potential influence on L2 language learning. In usage-based approaches to acquisition, constructions are acquired through (a) creating an inventory of lexically-based frames that occur frequently in the input and (b) generalizing through analogy to derive complex abstract constructions from those lexical frames (Pickering & Ferreira, 2008; McDonough & Kim, 2009; Rowland, 2007). As a result, learners will be able to develop more abstract representations or strengthen the knowledge representations that learners already have stored, which will eventually lead to automatic retrieval of linguistic forms. From this perspective, syntactic priming facilitates L2 learning in that it assists learners to produce a particular form with a wider variety of lexical items, prompting them to rely less on formulaic expressions or a limited-scope pattern, and to form more abstract syntactic representations (McDonough & Mackey, 2008). Provided that syntactic priming for L2 learners can involve alternation between developmentally advanced and simple structure or between target-like and interlanguage constructions, priming paradigms allow learners to acquire more advanced and target-like structures.

A number of studies (McDonough, 2006; McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2010; McDonough & Kim, 2009; McDonough & Mackey 2006; 2008) have examined whether language production in the form of syntactic priming promotes L2 learning. For instance, McDonough and Mackey (2006) investigated the effects of recasts and different types of responses (i.e., primed production forms and immediate repetitions of recasts) on English as a second language (ESL) question development. Thai learners of English and native speakers (NS) of English carried out a series of communicative tasks that elicited questions and opportunities for recasts that targeted developmentally advanced question forms. The NS interlocutors provided recasts in response to the learners' nontarget-like questions when appropriate. Results indicated that recasts as well as learners' response in the form of primed production were predictive of ESL question development, whereas immediate repetition of recasts was not. However, it was unclear from their study whether primed production would still facilitate ESL question development in the absence of any interactional feedback.

To tease apart the effects of primed production from those of interactional feedback, McDonough and Mackey (2008) investigated the development of question formation of Thai learners of English. The study design was kept relatively similar to the previous study in order to facilitate comparison. Participants in the priming group carried out communicative activities with the scripted interlocutors who were instructed to use scripts to produce as many developmentally advanced questions as possible. The scripted interlocutor always spoke first in order to ensure that the participants heard developmentally advanced questions before producing questions of their own. Results indicated that participants who frequently produced developmentally advanced questions after hearing scripted interlocutors produce such questions moved to a higher stage of ESL question development. Furthermore, syntactic priming that involved the repetition of lexical items produced by the scripted interlocutor was not associated with L2 development, while priming that involved different words enhanced development. These findings, together with results from McDonough and Mackey (2006), require special attention as they shed light on how syntactic priming is different from simple repetition or mimicking. Despite the fact that syntactic priming may be viewed as another variant of repetition, findings of the two studies report that the effects of these two mechanisms on L2 development (i.e., ESL question development) are not the same; that is, immediate repetition of a recast and the use of the same verb in the target sentence did not yield development,

while producing the question form modeled in the recast was predictive of development. This highlights the importance of learners' productive use of advanced forms (in the two studies, developmentally advanced questions for ESL question development) as opposed to simple repetition of structures.

Kim and McDonough (2008) further investigated whether L2 learners of varying proficiency levels are similarly influenced by lexical items during syntactic priming activities. Korean learners of English from three proficiency levels carried out a picture description activity with a researcher, and they were instructed to use same-verb prompts (verbs produced previously by the researcher) and different-verb prompts (verbs that have not been used in the discourse) to describe a transitive action. Findings demonstrated that L2 learners produced more passive constructions when they were prompted by verbs that occurred in the previous prime sentences, confirming results from L1 and L2 priming research. Although all three proficiency groups behaved the same way, the effect sizes indicated that low proficiency learners were more dependent on individual lexical items than advanced learners. Given that this was the first attempt to examine the role of proficiency in the syntactic priming effects, more research is inevitably necessary to confirm these findings.

Taken together, recent studies support that production in the form of syntactic priming could facilitate L2 learning. Whereas previous interaction research has pointed out that interactional feedback may be more beneficial for L2 learning than models (Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998), a growing body of research reveals that models might also contribute to L2 learning when learners have opportunities to produce the syntactic structures contained in the models. However, McDonough and Mackey (2006, 2008) empirically show that these models in syntactic priming are different from simple repetition since production elicited by syntactic priming promotes language development while the other does not. One of the future directions for L2 priming research is to further investigate whether the priming effects found in existing few studies can be generalized to a larger array of linguistic targets as well as target languages. In addition, provided that L2 learning is largely conditioned by various internal variables, it is also worth examining individual differences that have been found to mediate learning in interactional settings. Some of the predictive factors discussed in the literature are working memory (Mackey, Adams, Stafford, & Winke, 2010; Mackey, Philip, Egi, Fujii, Tatsumi, 2002; Sagarra, 2007), proficiency, and aptitude (Robinson, 2005).

The current study seeks to advance L2 priming research by examining whether syntactic priming is mediated by individual differences such as working memory and L2 proficiency. Although the relationship between L2 proficiency and syntactic priming has been explored in Kim and McDonough (2008) for the first time, more studies are needed to confirm their results as noted earlier. To do so, the present study will also examine whether one task feature, the lexical boost effect, impacts the extent of priming effects. By employing a target structure (i.e., OCLVS word order) and a target language (i.e., Spanish) that have not yet been diagnosed in L2 priming research, the study further aims to investigate the generalizability of the priming effects to new linguistic settings. The two research questions under investigation are as follows:

- (1) Do L2 learners of Spanish produce more OCLVS sentences when prompted by verbs that occurred in their interlocutor's OCLVS sentences?
- (2) Are there any relationships between syntactic priming and individual differences (i.e., L2 proficiency and working memory capacity)?

Based on previous L1 and L2 literature, it is expected that English learners of Spanish will be primed by the interlocutor's previous utterance, and that the lexical boost will be observed among participants. In particular, sensitivity to lexical items is in align with usage-based approaches to acquisition, which explain that language development starts from formulaic expressions to abstract representations (Ellis, 2005). According to this view, learners in the early stages of development are likely to depend on individual lexical items to produce complex constructions, while advanced learners are more independent, showing less reliance on individual lexical items. It is thus hypothesized that there will be an interaction between L2 proficiency and the lexical boost effect in syntactic priming. That is, low-intermediate learners of Spanish will display stronger priming effects when prompted by the same verb, while advanced learners might not show differences between task conditions. However, findings of Kim and McDonough (2008) did not confirm this theoretically-motivated hypothesis since all three proficiency groups in their study yielded stronger priming effects when prompted by the same verb. Therefore, it is important that this hypothesis be empirically revisited. As for the role of WM capacity in language learning, Payne and Whitney (2002) have suggested that as learners attempt to understand and produce language, their internal processing involves holding representations of the input in short-term memory while retrieving information about L2 grammar from long-term memory. Accordingly, syntactic priming is constrained by learners' working memory capacities as it requires learners' to hold the previously used structure in short-

term memory to use it in the subsequent production (McDonough & Mackey, 2006). Therefore, it is expected that learners with higher working memory capacity will display stronger priming effects than those with low working memory.

II. Results & Discussion

Results indicated that a) there was a significant priming effect with the Spanish OCLVS construction (see Table 1); and that b) the priming effects for the same-verb condition were stronger than those for the different-verb condition (see Table 2), confirming the lexical boost effects found in previous literature.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for OCLVS targets (N=40)

Sentence Type	Mean	SD
Overall priming (OCLVS)	8%	13%
Same-verb	6%	9%
Different-verb	2%	5%
Overall priming (SVO)	.2%	1%

Table 2
Results of Wilcoxon tests

	OCLVS targets (OCLVS vs. SVO condition)	OCLVS targets (same-verb vs. diff-verb)
<i>Z</i>	-3.83	-2.92
<i>p</i>	< .001*	.003*

As for the effects of individual differences, working memory approached significance ($\rho = .27, p = .09$), while proficiency was not found to mediate the syntactic priming effects (see Table 3).

Table 3
Results of Spearman's ρ (N=40)

		Proficiency	WM	PSTM
Overall priming	ρ	-.002	.27	.12
	<i>p</i>	.99	.09	.45
>> Same verb	ρ	-.04	.24	.17
	<i>p</i>	.81	.13	.28
>> Different verb	ρ	-.03	.09	-.16
	<i>p</i>	.84	.58	.32

Based on qualitative post-hoc analyses (Table 4), however, the current study questions whether the cognitive mechanism employed by participants during the main task is indeed the priming mechanism.

Table 4
Results of Spearman's ρ (N=40)

		Awareness	Change
Overall Priming	ρ	.30	.53
	<i>p</i>	.06	<.001
>> Same Verb	ρ	.35	.55
	<i>p</i>	.03	<.001
>> Different Verb	ρ	.08	.29
	<i>p</i>	.61	.07

The significant relationship between priming and participants' awareness of the purpose of the task suggests that the more they were aware, the stronger the priming effects, and such an interaction is mainly driven by the same-verb condition. Considering that priming is generally understood as "implicit, automatic process that occurs independently of explicit memory" (Bock, Loebell, & Morey, 1992), it is rather questionable whether the mechanisms that participants used during the task were indeed those of priming. Based on the qualitative data, many participants seemed to have employed the typical explicit mechanism often used in instructed SLA to construct a new sentence using the OCLVS structure. That is, they did not use their implicit memory to activate their abstract representations of the target structure. The current study suggests that when conducting L2 priming research, it is necessary to ensure that the mechanisms underlying the task are indeed priming.

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BIODATA

Haein Lauren Park holds MA in Applied Linguistics from Teachers College, Columbia University, and MS in Linguistics from Georgetown University. She is currently a Ph.D candidate in Linguistics at Georgetown University. Her academic interests include psycholinguistics, bilingualism and cognition, language and thought, and cross-linguistic influence.

Email: hp78@georgetown.edu

Marisa Filgueras-Gómez holds MA in Teaching Spanish as a second language from Antonio de Nebrija University and MS in Spanish Linguistics from Georgetown University. She is currently a Ph.D candidate in Spanish Linguistics at Georgetown University. Her academic interests include the effects of instruction, feedback, and practice, and study abroad.

Email: mf364@georgetown.edu

Nicholas Pandža holds MS in Linguistics from Georgetown University and will be starting a doctoral program in Second Language Acquisition at The University of Maryland, College Park, in Fall 2013. His academic interests include psycholinguistics, bilingualism and brain/cognition, and cross-linguistic influence.

Email: nbp7@georgetown.edu

Reconceptualizing the Relationship of L1 and L2 Literacy Practices: an Exploratory Case Study

Sungwoo Kim (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

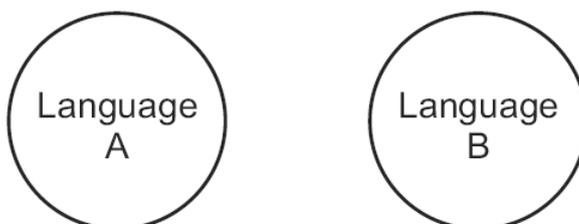
Traditional research on the role of L1 in second language writing has focused primarily on its positive or negative transfer in terms of rhetorical structure and linguistic features. Recent developments in composition studies highlight translanguaging practices in diverse sociocultural contexts while attempting to understand the impact of L1 on L2 from the perspective of the hybridity and fluidity of L2 composition. Despite theoretical insights and pedagogical usefulness of these vantage points, the potential of integrating the fruits of L1 literacy practices into L2 writing pedagogy has been largely underexplored, thus undertheorized. This is against the intuition of the majority of writing instructors that L2 writing proficiency has much to do with the writer's L1 literacy experiences.

This study adopts a theoretical position that integrates L1 and L2 competence under the umbrella of multicompetence, which opens new possibilities as well as challenges for L2 writing practitioners. A short discussion of potential approaches to the multicompetence model in Korea follows. The next section presents several excerpts from the researcher's interviews with the research participants, which characterizes the multicompetence development as highly complex and dynamic. Suggestions for future research from the perspective of multicompetence are made in lieu of a conclusion.

II. Two Models of Conceptualizing L1 and L2 Competence

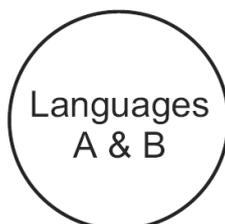
A long-held conception of the relationship between the L1 and the L2 where two linguistic systems exist within an individual can be represented the following way.

The two systems grow as independent entities, interacting with each other. To borrow Cook's term, this model can be called the Separation Model. (Cook, 2003, p.7)



In this model, the relationship between two languages is understood as transfer, either positive or negative. Thus language pedagogy focuses on minimizing the negative impact while maximizing the positive one. (Odlin, 1989)

An alternative model proposes that "(1) the L2 user has other uses for language than the monolingual; (2) the L2 user's knowledge of the second language is typically not identical to that of a native speaker; (3) the L2 user's knowledge of his or her first language is in some respects not the same as that of a monolingual; (4) L2 users have different minds from those of monolinguals." (Cook, 2003, p. 5) This model, which Cook calls the Integration Model, can be represented as follows.



This model understands an individual's linguistic competences as an integrated whole, which is qualitatively different from the monolingual competence. In other words, it conceptualizes one's linguistic competence not as two separate systems, one dominant and the other less dominant (and even deficient), but as one organic system which can foreground or background specific dimensions of the system depending on specific sociocultural contexts. Scholarship has been discussing this concept as *multicompetence*. (Cook, 2003, p.2)

III. Building an Ecologically Valid Model of Multicompetence

With this theoretical framework of multicompetence in mind, the researcher proposes that we understand multicompetence in situ in the Korean educational context. This can be done at different levels and resolutions. First, multicompetence can be conceptualized by a comprehensive review of educational curricular. This means that researchers can compile, compare, and contrast Korean and English (and other additional language) curricular across the public and private sectors. Although this approach is expected to provide a caricature of Korean foreign language learners' multicompetence, it cannot offer an ecologically valid understanding of their multicompetence development. There always exists a substantial gap between what curricular mandate and what learners actually do. Second, multicompetence can be used as a theoretical lens to look at the consequences of the current language learning and teaching practices. In this approach, students' linguistic competence can be evaluated as an integrated system, rather than as separate L1, L2, and L3 abilities: multicompetence is utilized in order to describe the current state of language learning. To the researcher's knowledge, however, there is no solid framework that can put this idea to actual educational use. Third, multicompetence can be employed as a strategic mediation to foster learners' linguistic development. This approach takes multicompetence as a pedagogical principle and seeks to design various activities to foster the learner's awareness of their competence as multilingual agents rather than their deficiencies as second language learners.

Whether literacy educators and researchers want to adopt the curriculum comparison approach, multicompetence as a theoretical lens, or attempt to design multicompetence-based pedagogical strategies, it is crucial to achieve an ecologically valid account of the current language education landscape. That is, the field needs to keep a minute record of the genesis of multilingual competence by conducting social, psychological, and anthropological research on the issue. The following section discusses several issues involved in this regard, highlighting changing multilingual literacy practices and their implications for literacy researchers and educators.

IV. Changing Multilingual Literacy Practices

The current study aims to describe four elementary students' literacy activity systems (Engestrom, 1987) so that researchers can design pedagogical interventions that can utilize the L1 as a valuable asset for L2 writing pedagogy. For this purpose, the researcher has conducted a series of interviews with their mothers. The interviews showed that the students' mothers shape the breadth and depth of their literacy experiences. Following is a series of notable remarks of the two focal parents. Each remark is followed by the researcher's comments.

"I know a five-year-old boy who has acquired the English alphabet before Korean letters. He is not rich or something. He has never been abroad. I heard that he has been exposed to English even before birth... I have tried to provide my son (age 5) with a lot of language learning multimedia resources. However, I found that there are an overwhelmingly larger number of online educational resources related to English compared with those related to Korean learning." (KH)

The first remark by KH poses an intriguing question about the conventional conception of multilingual literacy practices. Traditionally, it is assumed that language learners, in the context of English as a foreign language, develops L1 literacy first and then acquire L2 literacy. However, the child mentioned at the first remark has developed his ability to read and write the English alphabet before learning Korean letters. This shows that the basic literacy skills (in its narrow sense, which encompasses phonemic awareness and letter-sound relationship knowledge such as phonics) can be developed in a reversed order, in other words L2 first. The other point is that the availability of multimedia resources for language learning can influence the parent's teaching strategies, which in turn can shape an important part of the ecology of multilingual literacy practices.

"My daughter, aged 11, lost her interest in English because of her bad experience with a Hakwon. So I almost gave up on her English learning... Nowadays she is reading Harry Porter. She read the Harry Porter series first in Korean. After several months, to my surprise, she expressed her wish to read the series in English. I shouted,

“Thank you.” Now she reads four pages of the novel every day.” (KH)

This anecdote shows that an L1 literacy event, specifically extensive reading experience, can lead to an active exploration of L2 reading. Even though there is no evidence that can prove the causal relationship of L1 and L2 reading, the mother was highly confident that her daughter’s L1 reading was instrumental in her pursuing L2 reading, in which the student has long lost interest. This implies that establishing a tight relationship between L1 and L2 literacy activities can motivate students to develop their multicompetence.

“At least my friends do not send their kids to Korean language Hakwon (private educational institute). Many of them send their kids to English education institute... Regarding writing, both of my twins (age 11) are attending Hakwon and they have to regularly write, say about two times a week, for their online assignments. Korean writing is not that frequent. All they do is write in class. And it’s usually “Dok-hoo-gam.” (A short book review) That’s all.” (HJ)

This remark raises an interesting question about the traditional contrastive rhetoric approach. Even though the CR framework posits the possibility of bidirectionality of linguistic and rhetorical influence, most of the literature has focused on the influence of L1 culture and literacy practices on those in L2. However, if students are exposed first to a variety of genre conventions and rhetorical structures in L2 before they deal with composition in their native language, the implicit unidirectionality of contrastive rhetorical approach should be reconsidered. This phenomenon can also be approached from the perspective of critical pedagogy and linguistic imperialism, which may contribute to our understanding of the ways in which a dominant languacultural ideology is spread and permeated across different sociocultural contexts.

“My twins spend about 15 hours a week studying English. This includes five hours in Hakwon, 6-7 hours for homework, and 3 hours of elementary school classes... I am sending my kids to a Korean Non-sool (academic argument) Hakwon. The teacher does not push them at all to produce texts. Instead, he just emphasizes active discussion. So my kids rarely write in Hangul, while writing at least two 80-something-word English essays a week.” (HJ)

According to the General guidelines for elementary curriculum (Korea Ministry of Education, 2012), Grade 5 students take a total of 408 Korean lessons a year while receiving a total of 204 English classes. In the case of HJ’s twins, two additional hours a week are added for Korean Non-sool Hakwon. This makes a total of 512 hours a year. Meanwhile, they spend a total of 984 hours learning English. The gap becomes substantial if we consider the actual amount of time they invest in producing written texts. At least in the area of text production, English writing easily surpasses Korean writing.

V. Suggestions for Future Research

Given this complex situation of multilingual literacy practices, language educators and researchers need revisit the relationship of the L1 and L2 competence. Furthermore, the concept of multicompetence needs to be explored in a more ecologically-valid manner, keeping abreast of the current trends in language learning. In addition, L2 literacy educators need to consider embracing multicompetence-based writing pedagogy, making the most of learner’s L1 literacy practices. Meanwhile, we need to keep a critical eye of the consequences of some parents’ efforts to “artificially create the bilingual environment” and consider the risks of such endeavors.

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BIODATA

Sungwoo Kim is an adjunct instructor at Seoul National University. He is interested in second language writing, Sociocultural theory of mind, cognitive linguistics, and technology in language learning and teaching.
 Email: socioculturaltheory@gmail.com

Syntactic Processing Training for Novice Japanese EFL Learners

Miwa Morishita & Tomoko Yamamoto (Kobe Gakuin University)

I. Introduction

The initial step toward language production is to combine several words to create sentences. Simple as it may sound, this process is not so easy for EFL learners, especially for novice learners. This study reports the results of a classroom research aiming to facilitate oral production of English sentences through syntactic processing training.

II. Literature Review

Among Japanese university students studying English as a foreign language, the majority are not English majors and most do not have opportunities to study English as EAP (English for Academic Purposes) or ESP (English for Specific Purposes). It is usually difficult for them to keep good motivation or set proper goals for learning English. Morishita, Yamamoto, and Nakanishi (2012) conducted a survey to grasp the current situation and asked approximately 200 students majoring in business administration to (i) self-evaluate their proficiency levels in and (ii) prioritize training in the areas of 'Reading,' 'Writing,' 'Listening,' 'Speaking,' 'Pronunciation,' 'Vocabulary,' and 'Grammar'. As a result, 'Speaking,' followed by 'Listening,' was the area which they think they are the poorest at, but at the same time, they want to improve the most. In addition, we conducted a written test to check the students' levels of syntactic mastery, in which they had to rearrange shuffled words into correct order of English sentences. It was found that there were a lot of wrong answers even for the relatively easy questions.

According to Levelt (1993)'s spoken language processing model (Figure 1), speakers first think about what they are going to say in the conceptualizer. Then, grammatical encoding and phonological encoding are processed in the formulator by accessing the speakers' mental lexicon. The utterance is completed in the articulator. Although this speech process is automatic in the case of L1 speakers, it is a demanding process for L2 learners and trade-off effects are often observed between fluency, complexity, and accuracy of the speech (Morishita, 2010). In addition, according to Bock and Levelt (1994)'s grammatical encoding model (Figure 2), the process of grammatical encoding consists of (i) functional processing, where the semantic roles are given, and (ii) positional processing, where the word order is decided. Therefore, even if we come up with appropriate words, we may not be able to produce a sentence unless we can combine those words quickly and accurately in accordance with the grammatical rules.

Figure 1.
Spoken Language Processing Model (Levelt, 1993)

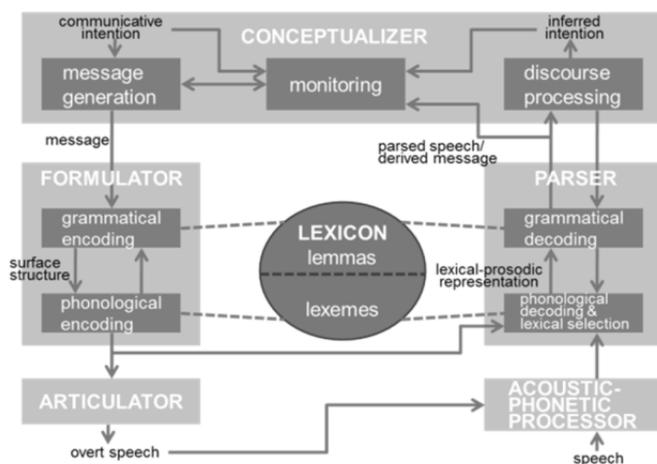
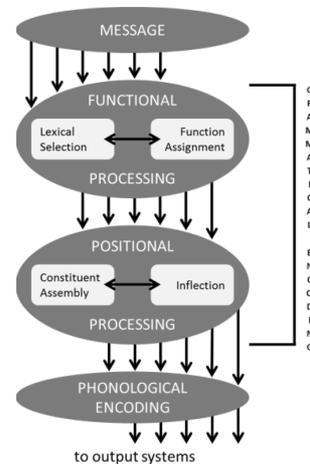


Figure 2.
Grammatical Encoding Model (Bock & Levelt, 1994)



III. Method

University freshmen in four English classes conducted in CALL facilities received 15-minute training sessions at the beginning of each lesson over a total of ten lessons. The students listened to three shuffled word groups and orally rearranged them into correct order (e.g., ‘gives us,’ ‘history,’ ‘the answer’ → ‘History gives us the answer.’). The format of the training materials was based on the items in Part D (Sentence Builds) of the Versant™ English Test (Pearson Kirihara K.K.). In this part of the test, the test takers have to access the vocabulary in their mental lexicon, remember the shuffled word groups they listened to, and rearrange them into correct order at the same time. Such tasks are expected to pose a high cognitive load and can lead to automatized language production. We gave the students ten items in each lesson and although the items of the pre- and the post-tests of the training were different, they had the same sentence structures (Appendix). The scores of the pre- and the post-tests of the training, i.e., the number of right answers out of ten rearrangement tasks, as well as the scores of the Versant™ English Test, were compared in order to examine the effect of the training.

IV. Results and Discussion

Table 1 shows the mean scores of the pre- and the post-tests of the training as well as the Versant™ English Test.

Table 1
The Mean Scores of the Pre- and the Post-tests of the Training and the Versant™ English Test

	Pre-test		Post-test		<i>p</i>
	Mean score	<i>SD</i>	Mean score	<i>SD</i>	
Training (full score = 10)	4.49	1.85	4.96	1.65	.016*
VET (full score = 80)	25.62	4.03	24.81	3.86	.121

Note. The number of the students who took the rearrangement task both in the pre- and the post-tests was 96, and that of the students who took the Versant™ English Test both in the pre- and the post-tests was 53, respectively.

The result of the *t*-test shows that there was a significant difference in the scores of the training between the pre- and the post-tests. Therefore, overall, the training seems to have had a positive effect on the students’ oral production. The fact that no significant difference was found in the scores of the Versant™ English Test suggests, however, that the effect of the training is not necessarily reflected on the result of such an objective test. It can also be said that although these tests measure the students’ listening and speaking ability, each of them actually examines different aspects of the ability.

In summary, in order to improve syntactic processing in speaking, we must enhance grammatical and phonological encoding capacities in Japanese EFL learners. This means that conscious input and output of spoken language is needed especially in EFL settings. It was also found, however, that the improvement depended on the sentence structures, indicating that some structures are harder to be learned implicitly. We may obtain more insights by examining the data in further details, such as possible differences according to sentence structures, reaction time to observe the changes in processing speed, as well as the data in the middle of the training to investigate the developmental process.

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APPENDIX

Items of the Pre- and the Post-tests of the Training

Pre-test	Post-test
1 Who wrote this Christmas card?	1 Who made this vegetable juice?
2 I had my watch stolen.	2 Tom had his hair cut.
3 Small cars are easy to park.	3 This box is difficult to move.
4 I found the book very interesting.	4 I thought his speech exciting.
5 She looks much happier than before	5 He looks more careful than usual.
6 I am very pleased with his present.	6 She was very surprised at the news.
7 He is as tall as his mother.	7 This car is as big as mine.
8 How do you like the new system?	8 How do you feel about learning English?
9 The man riding a horse is my uncle.	9 The dog running around the park is cute.
10 It is important to have a future dream.	10 It is possible to get a high score.

BIODATA

Miwa Morishita is an associate professor at Kobe Gakuin University, Japan. She completed her BA at Rikkyo University, Tokyo and her MA and Ph.D. at Kobe University. Her areas of research include psycholinguistics, second language acquisition, and language education. She is particularly interested in combining theory with practice in her research.

Email: morisita@ba.kobegakuin.ac.jp

Phone: +81-78-974-1551

Tomoko Yamamoto is an associate professor at Kobe Gakuin University, Japan. She completed her BA and MA at Kobe City University of Foreign Studies. Her primary research area is phonetics and she is interested in speech perception and second/foreign language listening process. She enjoys teaching pronunciation as well.

Email: yamamoto@ba.kobegakuin.ac.jp

Phone: +81-78-974-1551

Effects of the Different Levels of Explicitness of Focus-on-form Techniques on the Acquisition of the Relative Clauses by Korean Middle School English Learners

Sanghui Seong & Sang-Ki Lee (Korea National University of Education)

I. Introduction

Current interest in focus-on-form (FonF) seems to reflect the English teachers' dilemma of whether and how to teach grammar in second language (L2) classrooms. Considering the basic assumptions of FonF (e.g., drawing students' attention to linguistic elements incidentally in a communicative context), it would be an interesting research topic to compare the sizes of the effects of explicit versus implicit types of FonF techniques on grammar learning. This quasi-experimental study aimed to examine how the different levels of explicitness of FonF techniques affect the acquisition of the English relative clauses by Korean middle school students. To examine the effects of different level of explicitness of FonF techniques on learning, three different FonF techniques (garden path, input enhancement, and dictogloss) were chosen because they have been widely discussed in the literature as having different degrees of explicitness. It was expected that the degrees of explicitness involved with each of the three teaching techniques would result in differential learning outcomes.

II. Literature Review

FonF is an approach that attracts learners' attention briefly to a targeted grammatical form within a communicative context. It is contrasted with *focus on formS*, which entails the isolation of linguistic features from the communicative activity, and *focus on meaning*, which does not pay attention to form at all. Long (1991) defined FonF as "overtly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p. 46). Over the years, many empirical studies have revealed some beneficial effects of FonF techniques on L2 learning (e.g., Doughty 1991; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Fotos, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Long, 1991a, 1998b; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada, 1997), showing overall that FonF instruction would accelerate the speed of learning and produce higher levels of ultimate L2 attainment than instruction with no focus on form (Long, 1991).

A number of the experimental studies have been conducted to examine the relative effectiveness of implicit and explicit learning conditions (Carroll & Swain, 1993; DeKeyser, 1995; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1993; Robinson, 1996; Williams & Evans, 1998). For example, Carroll and Swain (1993) suggested that explicit instruction with explicit meta-linguistic feedback may be helpful for rules that are not clear-cut. They found that the students who received explicit instruction combined with meta-linguistic feedback performed better than the students who received implicit feedback in extending their knowledge of novel exemplars. DeKeyser (1995) examined the interaction between rule complexity and learning condition. Students in the implicit-inductive condition received no instruction on rules of morphology, whereas students in the explicit-deductive condition were instructed with the rules. The results showed that explicit learning was better for learning the simple categorical rules. Norris and Ortega (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of 49 primary studies published between 1980 and 1998 and investigated the effects of L2 instruction. Their meta-analysis revealed that explicit types of instruction was more effective than implicit types of instruction, suggesting that treatments involving an explicit focus on the rule-governed nature of L2 structures would be more effective than treatments that do not include such a focus. The current study is designed to test out the relative effects of types of FonF techniques with varying degrees of explicitness (or implicitness) on the learning of such complex rules as English relative pronouns by Korean middle school students.

III. Method

1. Participants

Four intact classes from a middle school located in Jeonbuk Province participated in this study. The participants consisted of a total of 89 2nd-year middle school students. At the time of research, most of the students were 15 years old and had about five years of English learning experience in the school curriculum. Each intact class was randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions (garden path, input enhancement, and dictogloss) and one comparison group. Each group underwent three treatment sessions over two weeks.

2. Assessment Measures

The learning outcomes of the students were measured through various tasks, including a grammatical judgment task, a sentence completion task, and a correction task. A grammatical judgment task was to assess the students' ability to make accurate judgments regarding the pronoun retention errors ($k = 30$). A sentence completion task was to examine the students' knowledge about the appropriate positions of the relative pronouns ($k = 20$). Finally, a correction task was administered to assess the students' knowledge of the relative clause markers ($k = 20$). The types of relative clauses chosen as grammatical targets for this study were: the subject (*who*), the direct object (*whom*), the indirect object (*whom*), the object of a preposition (*whom*) and the possessive (*whose*).

3. Reading Materials

The reading text for the treatment sessions was a short story named *Robin Hood*. The story had three episodes and the target forms were embedded in each episode. Each episode contained four tokens of the different relative clause types. According to a readability measure, all three episodes were appropriate for fourth graders in the American school system, suggesting that the reading passages were appropriate for the participants of this study. The baseline version was presented to the garden path group, dictogloss group, and the comparison group, while the typographically enhanced version was provided to the input enhancement group.

IV. Results and Discussion

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted using SPSS ver.12.0 with the level of significance set at 0.05. As shown in Table 1, the results confirmed the expectation of the study, showing that the garden path group ($M = 27.74$) performed best and the dictogloss group ($M = 21.02$) outperformed the input enhancement group ($M = 18.50$). Table 2 showed the results of ANCOVA, which suggest that the differences among the group means were significant, $F(3, 89) = 36.33, p = 0.00, R^2 = 57\%$.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest and Corrected Posttest Score

	Groups	GPG	IEG	DG	CG	Total
Pretest Score	Mean	18.67	20.38	20.54	20.35	20.10
	SD	10.94	12.83	11.36	9.57	11.00
Posttest Score	Mean	26.33	18.8	21.5	22.4	22.11
	SD	10.47	11.84	12.90	10.77	11.66
Corrected Posttest Score	Mean	27.74	18.50	21.02	22.14	22.35
	SD	0.67	0.62	0.58	0.56	0.61
<i>n</i>		18	21	24	26	89

Table 2
Results of ANCOVA

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	10416.12	1	10416.12			0.94
Group	871.29	3	290.43	36.33	0.00	0.57
Error	671.47	84	8.00			
Corrected Total	11958.88	88				

The magnitude of the effects was inspected by calculating Cohen's (1988) d . The effect size d values were calculated by contrasting the means of the experimental groups with the mean of the comparison groups. The d value for the garden path group was small-sized and highest among the three groups ($d = 0.37$, cf. $d = 0.10$ for DG, $d = -0.32$ for IEG). Notwithstanding the short treatment sessions, the findings of this study would suggest the importance of the provision of the explicit rules in the learning of complicated constructions like the English relative clauses.

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BIODATA

Sanghui Seong is currently studying at Korea National University of Education for her doctoral degree.

Email: saintsanghee@hanmail.net

Cellphone: 010-9476-3927

Sang-Ki Lee is an assistant professor at Korea National University of Education. His research interests include instructed SLA and cognitive linguistics.

Email: slee@knue.ac.kr

Phone: 043-230-3513

An Action Research of Effects of English Debate on High School Students' Writing and Speaking Proficiency

Hyonphil Shin (Gyeonggi Academy of Foreign Languages)

ABSTRACT

This action research aims to measure effectiveness of English debate on highschool student's writing and speaking proficiency. Six students from a highschool located in Gyeonggi province participated in this research. These students practiced debate every Tuesday for two months from April 2013 to June 2013, the debate practice was conducted for 50 minutes from 3 pm to 3:50 pm during the club activity session in school. Students were informed of the debate topic before the practice and they were supposed to prepare for their speech before participating in the debate. During the practice each student is expected to speak for 7 minutes in front of the audience. Student's speech is carefully observed by a judge and each student is provided with a detailed feedback after the speech. Four tools, which are a survey, an essay, video recording and an interview, were utilized to measure the effectiveness of English debate on writing and speaking proficiency of the students. Throughout the debate practice period, students are continuously forced to speak for 7 minutes when they stood at the podium and they are required to write their opening speech. In addition, students are required to do lots of research to write their arguments. Among four areas of language, student's fluency in writing and speaking is expected to improve. Also student's self-awareness on the effects of English debate is introduced.

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Day 2

Concurrent Session 2: Materials and Curriculum

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Korean EFL Learners' Errors at Different Proficiency Levels of English: A Case of Yonsei English Learner Corpus (YELC) 2012

Seok-Chae Rhee (Yonsei University)

Chae Kwan Jung (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

I. Introduction

This paper reports on an on-going project to identify and analyze Korean EFL learners' errors at different proficiency levels of English. In the field of English language teaching, identifying and analyzing language learners' errors has made a major contribution to increasing our understanding of the process of language learning (Corder, 1967, 1974; Granger, 1994, 2003, 2009; Tono et al., 2001; McEnery et al., 2006; Truscott, 2007; Heydari & Bagheri, 2012; Wang, 2013). However, little attention has been paid to learner errors at different levels of English proficiency in Korean EFL contexts. This study aims to discover what type of errors Korean EFL learners make at different proficiency levels of English, drawing on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and will address how teachers deal with the errors in terms of the urgent versus the important.

II. Method

In order to identify the errors, we compiled the Yonsei English Learner Corpus (YELC) 2012 following the corpusization approach that had been designed and developed by Rhee and Jung (2012). The YELC 2012 holds 7,312 examples of authentic student writing (approximately 1.2 million words) from 3,656 Korean male and female high school graduates who were accepted to further their studies at Yonsei University for the year 2013 (see Table 1 for an overview of the YELC 2012). We then extracted 84 examples of authentic student writing (specifically argumentative essays) from each of nine proficiency levels of English (A1: 10 essays, A1+: 10 essays, A2: 10 essays, B1: 10 essays, B1+: 10 essays, B2: 10 essays, B2+: 10 essays, C1: 10 essays, C2: 4 essays).

Table 1
Overview of the Yonsei English Learner Corpus (YELC) 2012

	YELC 2012
Tokens	1,219,906
Types	24,027
Type/Token Ratio (TTR)	1.97
Standardized TTR (STTR)	75.57
STTR Standard Deviation	25.60
STTR Basis	50

The examples were then error-coded by native speakers of English trained to use a semi-automatic error-coding system. To identify, compare, and analyze the errors at different proficiency levels of English, corpus software was used.

III. Results and Discussion

Initial results indicated that no significant differences were found among the language learners at different proficiency levels of English regarding the types of errors. However, further analysis revealed that teachers should direct their attention not only to the types of errors the language learners make but also to which errors they should master at different levels of English proficiency. In this talk, we will discuss the detailed research findings. Our findings will be of interest to teachers of writing and those with an interest in error analysis.

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BIODATA

Seok-Chae Rhee is currently Professor of the Department of English Language and Literature at Yonsei University. He is also the Director of the Institute of Language Research and Education, Yonsei University and Professor-in-Charge of the Department of English Education, Graduate School of Education, Yonsei University. He is now in charge of the English Corpus Lab, Yonsei University. His main research areas include Phonetics, Phonology, Language Corpus, Linguistics, and Informatics.

Email: scrhee@yonsei.ac.kr

Phone: (02) 2123-4483.

Chae Kwan Jung is Associated Research Fellow at Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE). He studied and conducted research in the field of Technology, Online Tutoring, Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching at the universities of Birmingham, Oxford, and Warwick in the UK respectively and he is the co-author of *Corpus Linguistics* (2012). His research interests include Corpus Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Language Testing, Academic and Professional Writing.

Email: ckjung@kice.re.kr

Phone: (02) 3704-5992.

Clustering Vocational English Textbooks Based on Lexical Similarity

Yong-Hun Lee (Chungnam National University)

Kyung-Suk Chang (Korean Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)

I. Introduction

Nowadays, as occupation fields have become specifically-divided and specialized, the field of English for vocational education seeks for a way to better prepare students for such change in the job market. New materials were developed for teaching English for the existing five vocational areas, i.e. agriculture, engineering, commerce, marine and fishery, and domestic industry. Table 1 shows what textbooks were developed under each vocational area. 13 textbooks were authorized by the ministry of education or local offices of education, and distributed to vocational high schools across the country. It is expected that vocational high schools under each vocational area adopt the authorized textbooks for English teaching for vocational training.

Table 1
Classification of Vocational Textbooks

Vocational Areas	Vocational Textbooks
Agriculture	Agriculture, Horticulture & Landscape (2)
Engineering	Architectural Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Electronic Engineering, General Engineering, Mechanical Engineering (5)
Commerce	Finance, Retail & Logistics (2)
Marine & Fishery	Maritime, Nautical (2)
Domestic industry	Culinary Art, Tourism (2)

Although the textbooks passed the vocational textbook authorization standards, little has been known about by what criteria the list of vocabulary was selected for the textbooks under each vocational area. There is no doubt that the vocabulary of the textbooks under the same vocational area has something in common for students to learn for better vocational training. To see how appropriate such categorization of the textbooks is, it is necessary to have a close examination into lexical properties and syntactic structures of English sentences in each textbook.

The goal of this paper is to provide a principled and scientific method to classify the English textbooks for different vocational areas. For this purpose, we made a textbook corpus with the authorized 13 vocational English textbooks. Then, we applied quantitative and statistical methods to each textbook in the corpus and grouped the textbooks based on the lexical similarities.

II. Literature Review

Our research is basically based on the ideas in *computational stylometry*, an area used in both corpus linguistics and computational linguistics. It can be described as an attempt to capture the essence of the style of the particular author by reference to a variety of quantitative criteria, usually lexical criteria, called discriminators (Oakes, 1998, 2009). The most common application of the *computational stylometry* has been author identification in cases of disputed authorship. However, it can also be used for genre identification and text grouping, based on the lexical and/or syntactic properties (discriminators) of each text.

From the early period in corpus linguistics, there have been several approaches which use statistical methods to measure linguistic relationships. Ellegård (1959) supposed that there existed a hypothetical language L consisting of just 20 roots and demonstrated how to use the *product-moment correlation coefficient* r to measure how much its descendants had been developed from the common language L . Dyen et al. (1967) adopted the *portion of connate pairs* to obtain estimates of language divergence and word retention from determinations of the number of cognate words which were found in pairs of Austronesian languages. Dyen et al. (1992) took a quantitative approach to judging historical relatedness. In their research, the *percent cognate words* was adopted, and they took the number of shared cognates in a list of 200 cross-linguistically common words as a measure of

overall similarity among 84 Indo-European languages (Swadesh, 1952) and then used a cluster analysis to produce a dendrogram of Indo-European.

III. Research Methods

1. Research Procedure

Our study proceeds as follows. First, we selected 13 authorized vocational textbooks, which are currently used at high schools in Korea. Then, we made a textbook corpus with these 13 textbooks. Second, we made a word list for each textbook. During the process, we eliminated all the numbers from the lists, and we applied a token/type-based analysis (not a lexeme-based analysis or a family-based analysis) in order to maximize the lexical differences among the textbooks. (One may apply a lexeme-based analysis or a family-based analysis instead. However, it does not change the overall grouping.) Third, we used a word-list compare tool in *NLPTools for English Education Experts* to identify which word appears in which textbook. The analysis result is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1
Comparison of Word Lists for Vocational Textbooks

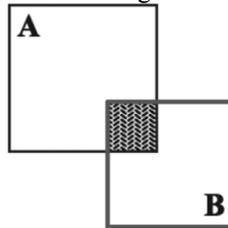
No	Word	Frequency	Agriculture dic	ArchitecturalEngne	Culinary/Art dic	ElectricalEngineering	ElectronicEngineering	Finance dic	GeneralEngineering	Horticultural_Landsc	Maritime dic	MechanicalEngineer	Nautical dic	Retail_logistics dic	Tourism dic
1	A	13	A												
2	AA	1										AA			
3	AAA	1													AAA
4	AB	3			AB								AB	AB	
5	ABANDON	2									ABANDON		ABANDON		
6	ABANDONMENT	1											ABANDONMENT		
7	ABASICALLY	1			ABASICALLY										
8	ABBREVIATE	1		ABBREVIATE											
9	ABBREVIATION	3			ABBREVIATION				ABBREVIATION				ABBREVIATION		
10	ABC	3					ABC			ABC					ABC
11	ABCD	1					ABCD								
12	ABCDDE	1								ABCDDE					
13	ABCDEF	1													ABCDEF
14	ABCOMANY	1							ABCOMANY						
15	ABDOMEN	1													ABDOMEN
16	ABEAM	1											ABEAM		
17	ABECAUSE	1			ABECAUSE										
18	ABIDE	1										ABIDE			
19	ABILITY	8	ABILITY			ABILITY	ABILITY		ABILITY	ABILITY		ABILITY	ABILITY		ABILITY
20	ABILL	1			ABILL										
21	ABIN	1													ABIN
22	ABLAST	1			ABLAST										
23	ABLE	8	ABLE	ABLE	ABLE	ABLE			ABLE	ABLE		ABLE			ABLE
24	ABN	1				ABN									
25	ABNORMALITY	2		ABNORMALITY								ABNORMALITY			
26	ABOARD	2									ABOARD		ABOARD		
27	ABOUT	13	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT	ABOUT
28	ABOUTFOR	1							ABOUTFOR						
29	ABOVE	12	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE	ABOVE
30	ABOVEBY	1											ABOVEBY		
31	ABRASION	2							ABRASION			ABRASION			
32	ABRASIVE	1										ABRASIVE			
33	ABROAD	4	ABROAD		ABROAD			ABROAD		ABROAD					
34	ABS	1										ABS			
35	ABSENCE	1							ABSENCE						
36	ABSOLUTE	7	ABSOLUTE				ABSOLUTE	ABSOLUTE		ABSOLUTE		ABSOLUTE	ABSOLUTE		ABSOLUTE
37	ABSORB	5	ABSORB			ABSORB	ABSORB		ABSORB			ABSORB			
38	ABSORBENT	1							ABSORBENT						
39	ABSORBS	1							ABSORBS						
40	ABSORPTION	1								ABSORPTION					
41	ABSTRACT	2													ABSTRACT
42	ABUNDANT	1	ABUNDANT												
43	ABUT	1			ABUT										
44	ABUTMENT	1							ABUTMENT						
45	ABY	1			ABY										
46	AC	5				AC	AC		AC			AC	AC		

Fourth, we calculated the *percentage of lexical similarity*, which was similar to the *percent cognate words* in Dyen et al. (1992). (Note that it was impossible to use the *percent cognate words* since we did not study the historical changes.) This process was done by a tool in *NLPTools for Corpus Experts*. Finally, based on a matrix of the *percentage of lexical similarity*, we adopted a clustering method (one of the unsupervised machine learning algorithms) and produced a dendrogram using R (Baayen, 2008; Johnson, 2008).

2. Calculation of Lexical Similarity

The *percentage of lexical similarity* was automatically calculated using a tool in *NLPTools for Corpus Experts*. The basic idea of the calculation is as follows.

Figure 2
Calculation of the Percentage of Lexical Similarity

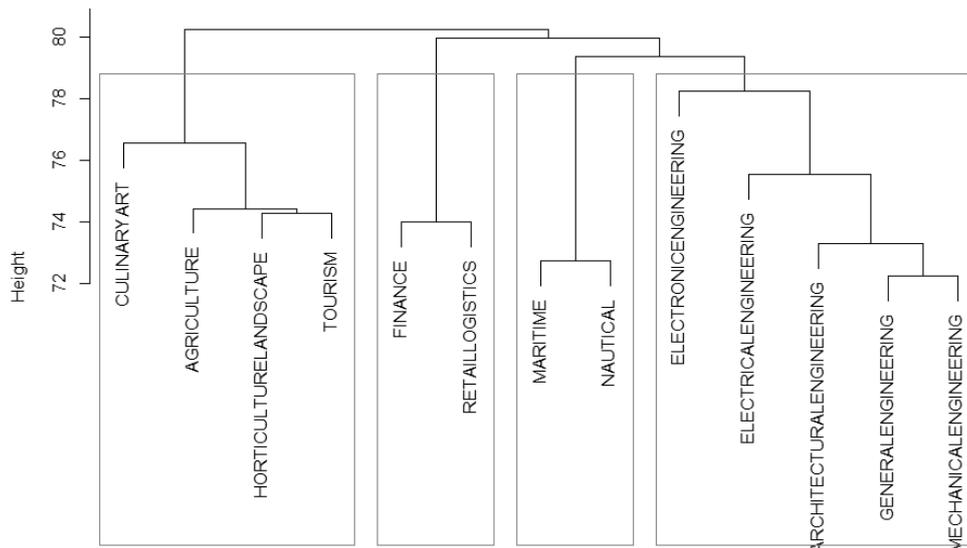


In the figure above, the shaded part is the part common to both A and B. The *percentage of lexical similarity* was calculated with set-theoretical operations by comparing (i) the number of words in either A or B and (ii) the number of words in both A and B. In a matrix for the *percentage of lexical similarity*, we have the same values in the diagonal axis ($M[i,j]=M[j,i]$). We have $n(n-1)/2$ pairs for n word lists. Since we have 13 textbooks, we have $13(12-1)/2=78$ textbook pairs. For each pair, we have five set-theoretical operations. Therefore, we have the total $78 \times 5 = 390$ operations to get a matrix for the *percentage of lexical similarity*. Since this number is too many calculations to be handled manually, we made a tool for these calculations in *NLPTools for Corpus Experts* and automatically calculated the values.

IV. Research Results

After we made a matrix of *percentage of lexical similarity* for each pair of textbooks, we used a clustering method and produced a dendrogram using R. The result is shown in Figure 3. Here, the grouping is automatically performed using a function in R. As it is shown in this dendrogram, the 13 vocational English textbooks are grouped into four groups, purely based on the lexical similarity. If we compare the result with the classification in Table 1, we may find the following facts. The second, third and fourth groups correspond to Commerce, Marine & Fishery, and Engineering Areas respectively in Table 1. These three groups are clearly identified also in the statistical analysis of vocational textbooks. However, the vocational textbooks in Agriculture and Domestic Industry Areas are interwoven in the dendrogram in Figure 3.

Figure 3
Cluster Dendrogram of Vocational Textbooks



As you can observe, two textbooks in Agriculture Area (agriculture and horticulture & landscape) are properly include in the textbooks for Domestic Industry Area. There is a gap between the current classification of the textbooks and that based on the lexical similarity of textbooks. We also found that the distribution of lexical similarity is not identical even within a vocational area, and that a textbook could be compared with another based on the lexical similarity even within the same group.

V. Conclusion

In this paper, we applied a clustering method to the classification of 13 authorized vocational English textbooks used at the vocational high schools across the nation. We compiled a textbook corpus using the 13 vocational textbooks. After that, we made a word list for each textbook and compared the word lists using a tool in *NLPTools for English Education Experts*. Then, we got a matrix for the *percentage of lexical similarity* using a tool in *NLPTools for Corpus Experts*. Finally, based on a matrix of *percentage of lexical similarity* for each pair of textbooks, we used a clustering method and produced a dendrogram using R.

Through the analysis, it was found that the textbooks under Commerce, Marine & Fishery, and Engineering Areas were properly grouped in the current classification. We also found that there was a gap between the current grouping of the textbooks under Agriculture and Domestic Industry Areas Group and the grouping we gained on the basis of the lexical similarity of the textbooks. For effective vocational training it is suggested that the gap should be narrowed by a regrouping of the vocational areas and English textbooks, or revising the English syllabus at vocational high schools. It is expected that the findings of the present research have implications for further material development and curriculum revision for vocational education at the high school level.

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BIODATA

Yong-Hun Lee is a copyright holder of both *NLPTools for English Education Experts* and *NLPTools for Corpus Experts*.

Kyung-Suk Chang is a researcher in Korean Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation (KICE).

Email: yleeuiuc@hanmail.net, kschang65@hanmail.net

Phone: (02) 3704-3504/H.P: 010-7797-7844

Revisiting Communication Strategies

Ji-hyun Lee (Kookmin University)

I. Communication Strategies in Theory

Since Selinker(1972) coined the term 'communication strategy', there's been a lot of research of communication strategies. Canale and Swain (1980, p. 30) defined strategic competence as “the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence.” Even though clear-cut agreement has not been reached on the definition of the term, many researchers accept that “the ways in which an individual speaker manages to compensate for this gap between what she wishes to communicate and her immediately available linguistic resources are known as communication strategies” (Faucette, 2001, p. 6). Communication strategies are typically divided into avoidance and compensatory strategies. Avoidance strategies are those a speaker uses to avoid syntactically or phonologically difficult items or topics that pose linguistic difficulties. Compensatory strategies involve using prefabricated patterns, dictionaries, or asking for linguistic assistance (Brown, 2007).

II. Communication Strategies in Real Life

This classification focuses excessively on linguistic perspectives of communication strategies. However, communication strategies involve more than linguistic strategies. Compensating for a lack of language knowledge surely helps communication, but we also need to employ different strategies for satisfactory communication. We sometimes experience communication difficulties due to our lack of proficiency in the “art of talk,” which is rarely emphasized in classrooms or in the academic world. Sometimes people do not have linguistic problems in communication, rather, they lack strategies in the art of talk. In other words, it is scarcity of the art of talk that makes us in trouble in communication.

III. Communication Strategies in Sitcom *Friends*

This script is from American sitcom *Friends*, season6 episode3.

1. Phoebe: Hey.
2. Ross: Hey!
3. Phoebe: So, what did Rachel say when you told her you were still married to her?
4. Ross: Oh, that. Umm, she took it really well.
5. Phoebe: You didn't tell her did you?
6. Ross: No.
7. Phoebe: Of course not, because you're in love with her.
8. Ross: I am not in love with her. She was very upset about having to move out so I didn't tell her we were still married because she would only get more upset. I-I just comforted her, as a friend.
9. Phoebe: What do you mean, comforted her?
10. Ross: It's nothing, I just gave her a hug.
11. Phoebe: Ah-ha! A classic sign of love, the hug!
12. Ross: It's also a sign of friendship.
13. Phoebe: Yeah, not in your case Lovey Loverson. (tries to take a bite out of Ross's cookie.)
14. Ross: (grabs back his cookie) It was a hug! Okay? A simple hug.
I was a friend being a friend to a friend.
15. Phoebe: Use the word 'friend' more. Just tell me this, did you or did you not smell her hair?
16. Ross: S-s-smell her hair? What if I did?
17. Phoebe: Ninety percent of a woman's pheromones come out the top of her head!
That's why, that's why women are shorter. So that men will fall in love when they hug them!
(Ross is staring at her dumbfounded.) Oh come on Ross, you're a scientist.
18. Ross: I was hugging her as a friend. It's not my fault her hair got in my face, she's got a lot of it and it smells all-all uh...coconutty. (Phoebe raises her eyebrows.) What?! Oh, that doesn't mean I have

feelings for Rachel!

Maybe it means I have feelings for coconuts!

19. Phoebe: (taking his coffee) Okay, whatever you say. But just be careful, all right?

Rachel's not in the same place you are.

20. Ross: (grabbing back his coffee) If the place you are referring to is being in love, then she is in the same place as me because I am not in that place!

21. Phoebe: Okay, I didn't understand that, but y'know, maybe that's 'cause you were speaking the secret language of love!

In the American sitcom *Friends*, Ross, Phoebe, and Rachel are the best of friends. Ross is a paleontologist and Phoebe is a masseuse. In this scene Ross keeps denying his feelings for Rachel. Phoebe thinks that he likes Rachel and tries to make Ross admit his feelings. Both Ross and Phoebe have no problems with their linguistic knowledge. Phoebe provides some evidence of Ross's affection for Rachel, but Ross keeps giving excuses for his behavior. Phoebe skillfully wins the verbal battle; she knows *how* to talk. This is an area of communication that people want to learn and use.

IV. Conclusion

What do we have to teach for successful communication? We should not limit our understanding of communication strategies to avoidance and compensation. These strategies are not enough for satisfactory communication. The appropriate meanings can be constructed, but the communication may not be satisfactory. How to talk should be included in communication strategies for successful communication.

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BIODATA

Ji-hyun Lee is an assistant professor in Department of General Education at Kookmin University. She majored in TEFL methodology and her specific major is communication strategies. She is a specialist in teaching English through movies and a regional officer of The Society for Teaching English through Media.

Email: ljh2b@hotmail.com

Phone: 02-910-5536

Exploring Rater Behaviors during a Writing Assessment Discussion

Susie Kim (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

I. Introduction

In writing performance assessments, the process of rating is an important aspect of investigating both test validity and reliability (Lumley, 2002). As Eckes (2008) stated, research on rater effects has revealed the existence of rater variability, or inconsistencies between raters. In the field of language testing, rater training has been introduced as a means for maintaining the consistency of assessments. Studies show that, while training raters can improve their reliability, it does not always have a positive effect on increasing rater consistency (Choi, 2002; Shohamy, Gordon, & Kraemer, 1992; Weigle, 1998; 1999). To date, most major works on rater variability have focused on raters' differing academic backgrounds and experience (Barkaoui, 2010; Cumming, Kantor, & Powers, 2002; Song & Caruso, 1996; Weigle, 1999; Wolfe, Kao, & Ranney, 1998) or on their language background (Johnson & Lim, 2009; Shi, 2001).

II. Literature Review

Studies have investigated the role of rater discussions in assessing portfolios (Broad, 1997; Huot, 1996; Moss, 1996, 1998), resolving discrepant ratings assigned by different raters (Cronbach, Linn, Brennan, & Haertel, 1997; Johnson, Penny, & Gordon, 2000; Johnson, Penny, Fisher, & Kuhs, 2003; Johnson, Penny, Gordon, Shumate, & Fisher, 2005), and placing students into composition courses (Huot, 1996). Discussion used to resolve discrepant individual ratings takes place when raters' initial scores differ. The original raters or a resolution team composed of expert raters can hold a discussion to assign a final score on which all raters agree (Johnson et al., 2005). Johnson et al. (2005) studied the validity, or accuracy, of scores when discussion was used to resolve two discrepant ratings and investigated whether the raters engaged equally in the resolution process. The results indicated that there were higher correlations and smaller mean differences between scores reached through discussion and expert-criterion scores, compared with those between averaged the scores and expert-criterion scores. The holistic scoring session found possible rater; the final score after discussion in a holistic scoring session agreed more frequently with the original score of one rater. There are occasions when discussion between raters needs to take place, such as when resolving discrepant ratings by two or more raters (Johnson et al., 2000) and during rater training, which requires trainees to discuss writing samples with other trainees or expert raters (Bachman, 1996; Hughes, 2003). Little is known, however, about how raters interact during discussions intended to produce consensus on scores. Observation of discussion between raters is expected to yield valuable insights regarding characteristics and behaviors that may affect rater reliability, as raters are expected to expose their thoughts, ideas, and attitudes. This study proposes to address the following questions:

- (1) How does each rater maintain or change his preliminary, individual rating during the discussion?
- (2) What characteristics of raters most influence the decisions they make in group discussion?

III. Methodology

1. Participants

The rater-participants (N=4) were selected to rate the pilot version of the English placement test as a team in consideration of their previous background. They all have a thorough knowledge of the CEFR and experience teaching various parts of the course.

Data Collection Procedure

2. Placement Test Administration

The writing samples used in the rater discussion were collected from a pilot version of the university's English placement test. The target test-takers were freshmen who had been enrolled in the general English program for the previous two semesters. The number of students who participated in the pilot test was 99, which was

sampled proportionally according to the English course distribution: 15% from ESP courses offered to the most advanced learners, 30% from advanced-level courses, 50% from College English, an intermediate level course, and 10-15% from basic-level courses. Writing samples consisted of Part 2, a 100-word paragraph about a familiar topic, and Part 3, a 300-word essay expressing personal opinion on an academic topic.

3. Rater Norming

Norming is a procedure needed to calibrate raters' understanding of the rubric descriptors. As the rubric was new and one of the raters had no experience in rating for this placement test, it was necessary for the raters to discuss the rubric together to clarify its terms and apply it to several real samples in order to familiarize themselves with it. After the pilot test, the raters used 24 out of 99 sets of student writing samples for norming. Raters spent much time discussing how to interpret the CEFR rubric and how to apply the rubric to grading writing samples. This procedure allowed raters to set the rating criteria in their mind in accordance with the CEFR rating rubric.

4. Rater Discussion

A rater discussion was held in order for the four raters to reach a consensus on the writing performance of each student. The purpose of this discussion was to find benchmark essays, or anchor papers, representing each CEFR level. First, the team members rated the writing performance samples individually without any discussion. The raters then met to compare and discuss their scores and tried to come to a consensus on each one. The discussion went on for approximately three hours and covered 74 writing samples. The raters exempted 21 writing samples from the discussion because all four raters had already assigned to them the same score in their initial, individual ratings. For each sample, the raters first shared their individual scores and then took time to read the sample together in order to recall the thinking processes underlying their preliminary ratings. Then they freely discussed their reasons, relying on the rubric and evidence from the samples. The average time spent on each sample was 3 minutes and 41 seconds.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Frequency of Argument Retention

To investigate the extent to which each rater contributed to and participated in the discussion, the number of arguing statements made by each rater was counted. A total of 53 writing samples were discussed, but as the raters freely discussed the samples, the number of arguments made for each sample was uneven. In some cases, very few words were exchanged during the discussion of a writing sample; moreover, it should be noted that the raters did not make arguments for every sample. Table 1 shows the number of arguments made by each rater and how many writing samples each rater made arguments about. When a rater did make an arguing statement for a sample, it was noted whether the statement was vindicated or withdrawn during the discussion. Table 2 shows how often each rater's arguments remained in effect by indicating the number and percentage of writing samples about which arguments were reflected in the final decision or withdrawn.

Table 1
The Number of Arguments Made by Each Rater

	Rater A	Rater B	Rater C	Rater D
Number of arguments made	47	32	98	42
Number of samples for which an argument was made* (Percentage of samples about which each rater made an argument**)	27 (51%)	19 (36%)	42 (79%)	20 (38%)

* The number of writing samples about which a rater made any arguing utterance.

** The participation rate of each rater. The number of samples about which a rater generated arguments was divided by the total number of writing samples, 53.

Table 2
The Rate of Argument Retention by Each Rater

	Rater A	Rater B	Rater C	Rater D
Number of samples about which	17	13	34	9

argument was retained	(63%*)	(68%)	(81%)	(45%)
Number of samples about which argument was withdrawn	8 (30%)**	4 (21%)	7 (17%)	9 (45%)

* The percentage indicates a rater's argument retention rate; the number of samples about which an argument was retained in the final score was divided by the total number of samples about which the rater made arguments.

** This indicates how many times a rater withdrew his argument after the discussion.

2. Rater Characteristics that Influence Decision Making

The analysis of the discussion revealed general behaviors and characteristics of raters that influenced final, unanimous score decisions. These characteristics fall into three categories: personality dynamics, the affective domain, and the level of comprehension.

1) Personality Dynamics

Before observation of the discussion, it was assumed that the raters' career backgrounds—such as expertise in rating, previous experience, or current position at the university—would have a major influence on the group decision-making process. Yet it is interesting that the arguments made by Rater C were the most accepted (see Table 2) among the raters despite the fact that he is relatively younger and the least experienced with testing and rating. Rater B, on the other hand, made fewer contributions to the discussion despite his previous experience in the field and the important post he holds in the department. Judging from this case, personality can have a significant influence on the decision-making process.

2) The Affective Domain (appreciation of student effort)

The raters exhibited a characteristic that Turner (2000) called 'the affective domain,' that is, recognizing student effort and wanting to somehow work that recognition into making judgments. As English instructors, the raters are well aware of the factors that can affect student performance. The tendency to allow the influence of 'the affective domain' might cause leniency in rating, and the above examples demonstrate that raters' affective judgments can influence the decision-making process.

3) The Level of Comprehension

The grading rubric used for the assessment places emphasis on clarity in writing. Descriptors such as 'can write clear, detailed text,' 'it is clear what s/he is trying to express' and 'occasional unclear expressions and/or inconsistencies may cause a break-up in meaning' were frequently mentioned by the raters in their discussion. Consequently, raters who were better at understanding students' intended meaning tended to give and argue for better grades, and vice versa.

V. Conclusion

This study aimed to increase understanding of the characteristics of raters that influence how they reach decisions on final scores during discussion. More specifically, it investigated how each rater maintains or changes his preliminary, individual rating during the discussion. We found variability between raters in the degree to which their initial, individual ratings were reflected in the final score and the extent to which they participated in the discussion. Further, it was found that raters' personality dynamics, affective domain, and comprehension of students' intended meaning were the characteristics that most influenced the process of deciding on final scores.

This study provides empirical examples of raters' characteristics and behaviors, which have implications for handling the intricate process of resolving rating discrepancies in writing assessments. First, the findings indicate that rater dominance is possible when scores are determined through rater discussion, as Johnson et al. (2005) also found. Thus, when rater discussion as part of the rating process is used, it is important to understand the factors that can affect the outcome and keep the context and the raters' disposition in mind. Rater discussion, however, could be helpful when developing materials for rater training, deciding benchmark essays, or modifying the grading rubric. As raters with different dispositions meet to consider one thing, rater discussion is a good platform to air different opinions and problems beforehand and to refine the rating materials and the rating process. In fact, during the discussion, the raters talked about the distinction between the levels and how certain descriptors were vague or failed to measure students' ability.

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BIODATA

Susie Kim is a research intern at Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. Her academic interests are English education, language assessment, and writing assessment.

Email: kimext@gmail.com

Phone: (02) 3704-5961/H.P: 010-7103-8619

Self-Efficacy, Attributions, and Listening Strategy Instruction in a Blended Learning Environment

Jinyoung Lee (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

I. Introduction

Research in L2 listening strategy and its instruction has been focused on identifying metacognitive and cognitive strategies and the patterns of strategy use that differentiate successful and less successful listeners. Another focus has been on the effect of strategy instruction on listeners' development of comprehension skills. However, motivational impact of strategy instruction has been relatively less explored except for a few studies that addressed listeners' anxiety in relation to L2 listening. Self-efficacy and attribution, constructs grounded in the social cognitive theory, have shown a close relationship with language learners' performance in the field of educational psychology and has been exclusively discussed in connection with L2 listening strategy by Graham (2006, 2007). Graham (2007) looked at how scaffolding in the form of teacher's feedback on strategy use affects comprehension and self-efficacy. This study aimed to investigate the effect of strategy instruction reinforced by learner collaboration and hard and soft scaffoldings for strategy use provided in blended learning environments on the development of listening comprehension, self-efficacy and changes in attributions. Blended learning that combines online and offline learning environments was selected since it is deemed appropriate in accommodating effective learner collaboration and timely provision of scaffoldings. Therefore, the study addresses the following research questions: 1) What are the effects of interactive L2 listening strategy instruction on the development of listening comprehension?; 2) What are the effects of interactive L2 listening strategy instruction on learners' self-efficacy for listening comprehension?; and 3) Does interactive listening instruction cause any changes in the learners' attributions in their self-efficacy for L2 listening comprehension?

II. Theoretical background

Research in L2 listening strategy has been focused either on identifying how successful and less successful listeners differed in strategy use or the effects of strategy instruction on the development of listening comprehension. Major findings so far has been that successful listeners tend to make effective use of various cognitive and metacognitive strategies in particular, such as planning or monitoring when compared with less successful counterparts (Berne, 2004; Graham, Santos & Vanderplank, 2011; O'Malley, Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Vandergraft, 2003). Another direction of research examined the effect of listening strategy instruction on the achievement of listening comprehension. Most quasi-experimental studies proved the effectiveness of strategy instruction over comparison group (Goh, 2008; Goh & Hu, 2013; Graham & Macaro, 2008; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Recent addition to this tradition is the socio-cultural perspective that examined the role of collaborative dialogue among learners as they shared comprehension and strategic approaches (Cross, 2010, 2011). In similar vein, the concept of scaffolding was examined in terms of its effectiveness in reinforcing listeners' strategy use and by extension, the development of listening comprehension skills (Graham, 2007; Graham & Macaro, 2008). The implication from these new additions to research is that external and learner's affective factors that serve to reinforce strategy instruction deserve closer examination.

Self-efficacy is defined as learners' judgment on their own capability of performing specific tasks (Zimmerman, 1995). Learners' self-efficacy, one of the central constructs of motivation grounded in Bandura's social cognitive theory, has sparsely been investigated in relation to L2 listening strategy (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006). According to the self-efficacy theory, flexible strategy use was one of the indicators that represent strong self-efficacy where learners show willingness to perform challenging tasks, exert efforts and demonstrate persistence to overcome obstacles (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992). Self-efficacy in language learning has been explored in terms of language learning anxiety as well as motivation (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008). Specifically, self-efficacy has been examined with a focus on uncovering what differentiates successful learners from less successful ones in the way they perceive their own ability (Hsieh & Kang, 2010). Developing Bandura's concept, main factors that learners attribute their beliefs of efficacy to, were investigated, using Russell's CDS II (McAuley, Duncan & Russell, 1992) that were developed and refined based on Weiner's causal dimensions, identifying major attributions that significantly relate with self-efficacy. Major findings suggest that success is more attributed to internal factors such as learners' own effort and ability than is to

external factors such as task difficulty or luck. Regression studies demonstrated certain attributions as strong predictors of achievement and strong self-efficacy (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008).

In the field of listening, Graham (2007, 2008) examined the effect of strategy instruction on L2 low-intermediate listeners' self-efficacy by translating the context-bound nature of the self-efficacy (Bandura, 1993) construct into a more specified construct that better represents tasks and demands in L2 listening comprehension by separately measuring four major skills considered important in L2 listening comprehension: understanding the gist, details, speaker's opinions and inferencing the meaning of unknown words. The findings suggested that strategy instruction reinforced by scaffolding in the form of the instructor's feedback showed significant effect on the listeners' comprehension. Graham (2006) sought to identify what successful listeners attribute their success or lack of it to using both quantitative data source of questionnaire as well as open-ended questions. Major findings from the study were that many learners see themselves as less successful in listening than in other areas and that most learners attribute their difficulties to their perceived low ability in the skill and to the difficulty of the tasks and texts. Therefore, there seems to be a strong need to take a step further by looking at how the development of self-efficacy affects changes in attributions that constitute listeners' fundamental self-efficacy.

III. Methodology

1. Context and Participants

This mixed study involves a total of 80 female high-intermediate learners enrolled in a listening class at a university language institution. Data was collected from 6 intact classes over three semesters between spring 2012 and spring 2013, due to the classroom-based design of the study and the small size of samples assigned to each class per semester. Each semester lasted for 12 weeks with 3.5 hours of instruction per week. None of the participants had explicit listening strategy instruction in their previous learning experiences of listening. Researcher of the study instructed all 6 classes to minimize the effect of instructor variable on the results. All the participants were assigned to high-intermediate level through an in-house placement test and further tested for homogeneity in listening comprehension skills using the test developed by the researcher and two other experienced listening instructors. 6 classes were randomly assigned to one of high interaction (HIG), low interaction (LIG) and comparison group (CG). All 6 classes showed no significant differences in the mean scores (HIG =32.30, LIG =31.38, CG =30.71, $p=0.64$).

2. Data Collection Instruments

Quantitative data was collected from listening comprehension tests, self-efficacy and attribution questionnaires at two time points (Time 1 & 2). First, two sets of listening comprehension test were developed and were first reviewed for content validity by the researchers and two other experienced instructors. Two sets of tests were administering to 45 other comparable level of students who did not participate in the study. Self-efficacy instrument was developed so that learners to rate their confidence on a scale of 0 to 100 of certainty. Another instrument that was used to measure specifically the construct of self-efficacy in listening comprehension that subdivided self-efficacy into major demands of understanding the gist, details, inferencing unknown or missing words and identifying the speaker's opinion or attitudes (Graham & Macaro, 2008). Items on task and text type-specific self-efficacy were added to further examine specific construct of self-efficacy involved in listening comprehension to better translate the definition of the construct into the instrument. The instrument for attributions was designed based on the Causal Dimension Scale II (CDS II) developed by McAuley, Duncan, and Russell (1992) and the Language Achievement Attribution Scale (LAAS) by Hsieh and Schallert (2008). In this study, items on attributions that caused changes in self-efficacy were added to examine the effect of the components of the interactive strategy instruction in a blended learning environment on changes in attributions.

3. Procedure

Classes were run over 12 week period in a blended learning environment that combines online and offline sessions. Due to its ideal setting where peer interactions and multiple levels of scaffoldings can be timely implemented. Learners in all groups had an average of 3.5 hours of offline listening instruction and the same authentic materials appropriate for the level were selected and used for instruction. The cycle of the instruction starts in offline classroom where learners are divided into groups of three or four. The procedure followed

Vandergrift's learning cycle (2010) with modification of incorporating multiple strategic scaffoldings of explicit modeling of strategy use and group collaboration. Offline session was followed by online session where high interaction group went through an individual listening followed by confirming and sharing feedback on their comprehension and strategic approach through chat-based collaboration, with the help of the instructor's hard scaffolding on possible problem areas. Low interaction group went through the same procedure as that of high interaction group but did not receive group specific offline scaffolding from the instructor. In an online environment, low interaction group shared feedback with no group chatting to collaborate through, nor hard scaffolding. Table 1 briefs major components of the intervention in each group.

Table 1
Descriptions of interventions in three groups

Variables	Environment	High interaction Group (HIG)	Low interaction group (LIG)	Control group (CG)
Degrees of interaction	Offline	Group collaboration on comprehension and strategies	Learner collaboration on comprehension and strategies	Offline strategy instruction with no online/offline interactions & scaffoldings
	Online	Providing feedback on comprehension and strategies through ASCMC (BBS) & learner collaboration through SCMC (Chat program)	Providing feedback on comprehension and strategies through ASCMC (BBS)	
Levels of scaffolding	Offline	Hard scaffolding: strategic modeling & whole class reflection Soft-scaffolding- group-specific strategic scaffolding	Hard-scaffolding- strategic modeling & whole class reflection No soft-scaffolding	
	Online	Hard-scaffolding: strategic tips on possible problem areas Soft scaffolding- peer feedback	No hard-scaffolding Soft-scaffolding- peer feedback	

*BBS: Bulletin Board System, SCMC: Synchronous computer-mediated communication, ASCMC: Asynchronous computer-mediated communication

4. Data Analysis

The first research question on the effect of interactive strategy instruction on the development of listening comprehension was addressed by analyzing test administered at Time 1 and 2 using ANOVA and follow-up post-hoc *t*-test. Self-efficacy questionnaire were first quantitatively analyzed to see the development over the period using paired *t*-test for each group and then analyzed by comparing three groups using ANOVA followed by between-group post-hoc *t*-test. Attributions were analyzed in terms of three dimensions of locus controllability and stability with the same analysis method used for self-efficacy.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Interactive Listening Strategy Instruction and Comprehension

The three groups had no significant differences in the test scores at Time 1 ($F=0.475$, $df\ 1=2$, $df\ 2=65$, $p=0.64$), proving the homogeneity among all groups. Within-group analysis of each group showed significant gains in comprehension (CG $t=4.30$, $p=0.000$; LIG $t=10.27$, $p=0.000$; HIG $t=11.81$, $p=0.000$) as shown in Table 2. Univariate analysis of variance on the test scores of the three groups at Time 2 indicated that there was a significant difference among groups ($F=9.034$, $df\ 1=2$, $df\ 2=65$, $p=0.000$). The follow-up pair-wise comparisons post-hoc test indicated that there was a significant difference between the comparison group and both low and high interaction groups but the mean score difference between two experimental groups was not statistically significant (CG-LIG=-4.1905, $p=0.010$; CG-HIG=-5.8064, $p=0.000$; LIG-HIG=-1.6159, $p=0.463$). The results seem to indicate that although strategy instruction with no interaction and scaffolding had a significant impact on the comprehension progress as seen in comparison group, the significant gain that two experimental group showed over comparison group appear to strengthen the impact of the two components.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Time 1 and 2 Test Scores (Max. Score: 51)

Groups	Time 1			Time 2		
	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
High interaction	30.71	5.02	21	32.98	4.12	21
Low interaction	31.38	6.35	24	37.17	5.32	24
Comparison	32.30	4.75	23	38.78	4.35	23
Total	31.46	5.37	68	36.31	4.60	68

2. Interactive Strategy Instruction and Self-efficacy

Univariate analysis of variance showed that there was no significant difference among groups in self-efficacy for comprehension at Time 1 ($F=1.474$, $df\ 1=2$, $df\ 2=65$, $p=0.237$). Table 3 summarizes self-efficacy measures at both Time 1 and 2. While within group analysis showed significant gains for both low and high interaction groups, comparison group did not indicate any significant difference between Time 1 and 2 (CG $t=-3.827$, $p=0.001$; LIG $t=-6.862$, $p=0.000$; HIG $t=-8.860$, $p=0.000$). The same analysis on self-efficacy measure at Time 2 indicated a significant difference among groups ($F=8.667$, $df\ 1=2$, $df\ 2=65$, $p=0.000$). The follow-up Pair-wise comparisons post-hoc test indicated that there was a significant difference between the comparison group and both low and high interaction groups but the mean score difference between two experimental groups was not statistically different (CG-LIG=-10.892, $p=0.045$; CG-HIG=-18.7371, $p=0.000$; LIG-HIG=-7.8442, $p=0.178$). The results resonate with those in the previous studies (Graham & Macaro, 2008), showing that interactive strategy instruction had a positive impact on boosting self-efficacy.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Self-efficacy Measures (Max. Score: 100)

Groups	Time 1			Time 2		
	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
High interaction	50.44	4.00	23	78.26	12.30	23
Low interaction	50.83	3.74	24	70.42	13.98	24
Comparison	42.38	3.82	21	59.52	18.30	21
Total	47.88	3.85	68	69.40	14.86	68

3. Interactive Strategy Instruction and Attributions

Results for research question 3 will be presented in terms of the patterns in changes that occurred in terms of each dimension. As the causal dimension of locus showed increase in all three groups with the biggest gain in high interaction group. This means that learners in this group showed change from locating outside factors for their competence to more internal factors such as ability or effort. In terms of controllability, all three groups increased in measure of perceiving their self-efficacy in listening as a skill controllable by themselves with high interaction group showing the largest mean gain of 2.00. In terms of stability, the means in all three groups decreased showing a positive aspect of change, perceiving their listening skills is likely to change rather than remaining stable. High interaction group again showed the biggest drop in the mean of 1.69. Overall pattern from the analysis seems to confirm positive changes with locus turning more inwards from outside factors, increase in controllability and decrease in the view that their listening ability is not likely to change.

Table 4
Quantitative Analysis of Causal Dimensions of Locus, Controllability, and Stability

Groups	N	Locus		Controllability		Stability	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
HIG	23	2.78/3.78	1.09/0.80	2.52/4.52	1.25/0.73	2.39/0.70	1.56/0.88
LIG	24	3.54/3.71	0.66/1.12	3.25/4.13	0.99/0.74	2.13/1.38	1.45/1.17
CG	21	2.71/3.43	1.23/1.21	3.09/3.24	1.04/1.00	1.81/1.29	1.29/1.01
Total	68	3.01/3.64	1.06/0.99	2.95/3.96	1.09/0.82	2.11/1.12	1.43/1.02

V. Conclusions

The purposes are to investigate the effect of strategy instruction reinforced by learner collaboration and hard and soft scaffoldings for strategy use provided in blended learning environments on the development of listening comprehension, self-efficacy and changes in attributions. The results of main parts of the research questions were presented in this paper. First, listening strategy instruction reinforced by learners' interaction and multiple scaffoldings had significant effect on learners' comprehension. Second, learners' self-efficacy showed significant gains through the reinforced strategy instruction. Third, learners' attributions for their self-efficacy showed constructive changes with positive gains in locus and controllability and negative gains for stability. The pedagogical implications are that L2 listening strategy instruction needs to be designed with more attention to creating an optimal environment. In addition, collaborative interaction may enable listeners to be providers as well as recipients of various scaffoldings, through which more autonomous employment of strategy use can be encouraged in the long term. This environmental consideration is in turn expected to contribute to boosting listeners' self-efficacy as shown in this study.

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BIODATA

Jinyoung Lee is a Ph.D candidate of Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. Main areas of interest include L2 listening comprehension, strategy instruction, blended learning.

Email: jinyounggb@hotmail.com

Phone: (02) 970-5321/H.P: 010-6216-0352

Effects of Peer Feedback and Reflection on Learning Writing in the Korean Context

Younghwa Lee (Sun Moon University)

I. Introduction

Two forms of feedback recommended frequently by process advocates are peer feedback and face-to-face writing conferences between teacher and student. Studies of peer feedback and of one-to-one writing conferences (Carson & Nelson, 1996; Patthey-Chavez & Ferris, 1997) have utilized precise and systematic analytic methods and have contributed important insights about these two important pedagogical techniques. Peer feedback refers to a process whereby students evaluate, or are evaluated by, their peers, and it aims at self-directed and collaborative learning (Van Zundert, Sluijismans, & Van Merriënboer, 2010). According to Van Zundert et al., self-directed learning implies that learners are actively involved in shaping their own learning processes, and collaborative learning implies joint effort in carrying out tasks. Several types of peer feedback exist, such as grading a peer's writing task, providing qualitative commentary on a classmate's product, or evaluating a peer's piece of writing.

Peer feedback has more different purposes and effects than feedback from an expert or authority; teacher-student conferences, because they involve primarily spoken interaction, operate under different dynamics and constraints than written teacher feedback does. The impact of peer feedback on learning is widely voiced so far. For instance, some researchers engaged in studies on students' feedback content (Prins, Sluijismans, & Kirschner, 2006; Strijbos, Narciss, & Dünnebier, 2010), and some examined students' perspectives on peer feedback (Lundstorm & Baker, 2009; Tsui & Ng, 2000). However, there exists a total absence of research on the combination of students' feedback content and students' perspectives on peer feedback with ideal types of feedback. This situation seems to reflect that many existing studies simply focus on a single aspect of peer feedback rather than combining more than two aspects together and seems to be resulted in the underdevelopment of efficient feedback in writing classrooms.

Since the writing practices and needs of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writers are different from those of native English-speaking writers (Lee, 2003), research is needed to examine both students' feedback content and perspectives on peer feedback in an EFL context. In the practice of writing, peer feedback can be applied to many different educational settings in particular in the EFL writing classrooms in which peer feedback might be more effective than teacher feedback because of a large number of students. This can be an effort to find useful insights on ESL/EFL writing instruction to move to a process approach that would teach students not only how to edit but also to develop strategies to generate ideas, compose multiple drafts, deal with feedback, and revise their written work on all levels (Paulus, 1999). If research can determine the effectiveness of feedback in the context of a large size of classroom, it can influence the way that teachers incorporate the practice of teaching writing into their classrooms. The present study is aiming to investigate the content of peer feedback and students' perspectives about peer feedback in two EFL writing classrooms at a Korean university.

II. Literature Review

Second language writing researchers have addressed issues concerning language functions of peer utterances, reader stances, and group dynamics (Lockhart & Ng, 1995; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996). For instance, Lockhart and Ng (1995) analyzed transcript of 27 L2 feedback dyads and identified four types of reader stances during peer feedback; authoritative, interpretive, probing, and collaborative. Some studies (Mangelsdorf, 1992; Nelson & Murphy, 1993) have examined that students may not feel their peers are qualified enough to critique their work and may distrust their recommendations. For this reason, students may prefer teacher feedback to peer feedback (Nelson & Carson, 1998; Zhang, 1995), but this does not mean students find peer review a waste of time. Mendonca and Johnson (1994) investigated that all the students in their study found peer review helped them in regard to audience perspective and idea development.

In examining students' revisions in terms of peer feedback, Stanley (1992) found that students made a number

of revisions when they were advised in effective peer review tactics. Mendonca and Johnson (1994) found that 53% of revisions shown in students' writing were a result of peer comments being incorporated into the writing. Lundstrom and Baker (2009) examined the benefit of peer feedback with ninety-one students in nine writing classes and determined that students at the lower proficiency level made more gains than those at higher proficiency levels when they gave feedback rather than received.

Even though the above review provides a preliminary understanding of peer feedback in general, there are still difficulties in assuming that these aspects on peer feedback would be similar in EFL writing classrooms, where language and culture may add unanticipated challenges. The question of which feedback content is the most efficient has received much attention in prior feedback research. In this line of research, the issue of how students perceive feedback content, and how the perceptions relate to ideal types of feedback have not been addressed explicitly. Several studies, however, have focused on the mindful processing of feedback as a critical factor for feedback efficiency (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Narciss, 2008; Poulos & Mahony, 2008). The results of a large body of feedback research are mixed. Only some studies support the commonsense assumption that elaborated and specific feedback are effective and positive than concise general feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Narciss, 2008; Shute, 2008).

The studies on feedback content adopted interviews and questionnaire on writing instructions. These methods need to be elaborated with a deep reflective way to increase transparency of the peer review process and learning outcomes. In order to do this, students' opinion writing on peer feedback was adopted as a new method in this study.

So far, some studies suggest that peer feedback is valuable, but some report negative effects on student attitudes to particular conditions. However, these studies do not address the strengths and weaknesses of peer feedback, and expectations of students. To compensate this gap, this study deals with the nature of positive and negative aspects of peer feedback with the ideal feedback, which can be helpful to understand how writing teachers can maximize the benefits of peer feedback.

III. The Study

1. Method

The participants were sixty-five students in the two classrooms. Out of them, nineteen students were juniors and the rest were seniors in the English department. One classroom consisted of thirty-four students, nineteen males and fifteen females, and the other thirty-four, seventeen males and fourteen females. Out of the sixty-five, ten were from foreign countries, i.e., five from Japan, two from China, and one from Venezuela, Senegal, and India, respectively. Students' background was varied in terms of age, i.e., 20 to 27.

The data comprise the students' opinion writing and their written comments about others' writing products. Students were required to write their opinions about peer feedback within 500 words in length. In order to analyze the data, two frameworks were adopted in this study. The first framework is Stanley's (1992) response analysis for the analysis of feedback content: advice, alternative, questions, quick fixes, statement, praise, criticism, and request. The second one is Narciss's (2008) elaborated feedback components for students' opinion writing. The categories of the elaborated components address five aspects: knowledge on task constraints, knowledge about concepts, knowledge about mistakes, knowledge on procedure, and knowledge on metacognition .

2. Findings

Students' feedback content included mainly 'statements' and 'praises' with significant high scores. A total of 811 comments were established, and the categories 'statements' and 'praises' were the majority of the responses, reaching to 37% and 29%, respectively. This indicates that students tend to respond by providing implicit descriptions instead of indication of errors or insufficient elements. That is, their comments have little impact on peers' subsequent writing.

In respect of the strengths of peer feedback, the students suggested 'knowledge about concepts' as the most

useful aspect obtained from peer feedback. The second advantage they obtained was ‘knowledge about mistakes.’ That is, students could gain ideas and useful experience from their peers and recognize their own problems at grammar-level through their peers’ work. These findings indicate that the students are continuously interested in generating ideas for their writing and in producing successful pieces of work with few mistakes in grammar-level.

On the other hand, with respect to the weaknesses of peer feedback, students felt their peers were not qualified to revise the grammatical aspects in others’ writing and tended to distrust their peers’ recommendations. Nevertheless, students preferred peer feedback which includes a high degree of anonymity of assessors as an ideal type of feedback to teacher feedback, because peer feedback could provide them with continuous insights in generating ideas through peers’ writing.

Four types of feedback were suggested as ideal by the students: (a) peer feedback, (b) teacher feedback, (c) combination of peer and teacher feedback, and (d) self-evaluation. Students are likely to understand that teacher feedback to all students’ work might be a heavy burden in large size EFL classrooms, and they welcome peer feedback with different assessors to ensure critical responses. Students also preferred anonymity so as not to reveal their privacy or weak language proficiency.

IV. Conclusion

The findings in this study show the importance of choosing not only what ways of peer feedback are effective in a situated educational context, but what effect the selected way might have on the overall improvement of students’ writing. The importance of peer feedback is that, during the process of peer assessment, the students continuously gain formative feedback from peers. The highest percentage of ‘statements’ in students’ comments supports this. Furthermore, students are more prone to be inspired to learn when they get praise or positive reinforcement from others. The ‘praises’ and high scores - 73% of the evaluation sheets gave the full score 10 - are the evidence of this. The strengths and weaknesses of peer feedback revealed in this study support the idea that reviewing other students’ papers is a viable and important activity to improve one’s own writing, and these findings can benefit students on several levels (Bell, 1991; Paulus, 1999).

Students’ major concern in evaluating their peers’ draft was grammar rather than the meaning level such as content, organization, coherence, and vocabulary. Thus, writing teachers should provide students with explicit guidelines and criteria on peer feedback so that students are able to revise on both the surface and meaning levels. With the implementation of an effective anonymous peer feedback as the ideal one suggested by the students, it is believed that the feedback load could be somewhat reduced for teachers in a large size writing classroom.

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BIODATA

Younghwa Lee is an assistant professor in the Department of English at Sun Moon University, Republic of Korea. She obtained her Ph.D. from Lancaster University, UK. Her research area mainly includes EFL writing which focuses on the theory of social practices and classroom language teaching and learning from socio-cultural perspectives. She is currently working on writing practices and writer identity.

Email: yhlee831@sunmoon.ac.kr

Phone: (041) 530-2432/H.P: 010-8580-3705

Day 2

Concurrent Session 3: The Use of ICT in Language Teaching

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The Approaches to Teaching NEAT Writing Section Level 2 at Public English Education

Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil University)

I. Introduction

The Korea Institute for Curriculum and Education (KICE, 2011) announced a new English assessment entitled as the National English Ability Test (NEAT) since the trends and issues in teaching English as a second or foreign language require the necessities of teaching and assessing second language (L2) writing. However, various obstacles in Korean situations such as lack of appropriate teaching methodologies and curriculum, assessment system, appropriate writing instructors and professionals, and washback effects resulted in further discussion about implementation. One of the most important reasons of the postponing this assessment may be associated with the lack of well-developed curriculum and methodologies applicable for Korean learners of English (Cheong, 2012).

II. The Purpose of Study

While considering upcoming needs of teaching writing sections for the Korean learners of English, this study purports to develop appropriate methodologies and curriculums that respect Korean learners' characteristics and classroom environments. Additionally, this study aims to seek the way that these methodologies and curriculums can be easily modified and applied *for and from* the viewpoints of English teachers at public school settings. In fact, as opposed to the needs of writing classes of the learners, English teachers at public school settings have no sufficient training of teaching English writing section. Whether they are native speaking teachers (NS) or nonnative speaking teachers (NNS), the lack of sufficient teaching methodologies and curriculums have become the obstacles of teaching L2 writing for most public English teachers. Therefore, the present study tends to design the appropriate teaching methodologies and curriculums applicable for public English settings with the following focuses:

- (1) Would the teaching methods of using portfolio assignments play a positive role in teaching L2 (English) writing?
- (2) If so, to what extent this method could be applied to improving teaching L2 writing in the public school settings in Korea?

III. Methods

1. Participants

For six months, the 110 high school students in Gyeonggi, Korea, learned English-essay writing from a nonnative English teacher who speaks Korean as a L1 with the method of portfolio assignment. Before and after the instruction, 110 participants were asked to compose a five-paragraph persuasive essay in accordance with the essay prompt given by NEAT. The earned-score achieved at the after instruction was defined as the improvement and was analyzed by t-test. Moreover, students' degree of satisfaction was analyzed by open-ended interview questionnaire.

IV. Implications

As Matsuda (2003) claimed, English teachers as well as learners at public English settings are exposed to fulfill the needs of speakers who use English as World English (WE) and English as an international language (McKay, 2002). In these trends, both the teachers and learners will be free from the burden of a simple classification between native speakers versus nonnative speakers (Medgyes, 1992). As far as the English learners obtain full success in L2 communication (Field, 2005) for the writing section, the users may achieve their desired intelligibility (Smith & Rafiqzad, 1979) and comprehensibility of writing English. Therefore, investigating the effectiveness of portfolio assignment methodology will be beneficial for enhancing L2 users writing.

Furthermore, since this methodology is conducive for NNS teachers to teach L2 writing, those who want to teach L2 writing can efficiently apply this method for their actual writing classes.

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BIODATA

Sung Hui Cheong is an assistant professor at the Division of General Education (Baird College) in Soongsil University, Seoul. Her teaching career includes as an English reading, debate, composition, SAT, and professional academic writing professor at Duk Sung Women's University, Korean MinJok Leadership Academy and Hankuk Academy of Foreign Studies. After earning a doctoral degree at the Department of Foreign and Second Language Education at the Ohio State University in 2007, she has conducted various studies focusing on socio-cultural theories, second language literacy, contrastive rhetoric, teaching methodologies and assessment in L2 argumentative writing, teacher education, and NES vs NNES issues.
Email: butigirl94@ssu.ac.kr, kateprogram2013@gmail.com
Phone: 02-828-7211

Corpus-based Teaching and Learning Vocabulary to Use ICT

Kunihiko Miura (The University of Shimane)

I. Introduction

Currently it seems that corpus research is becoming more familiar through the development of computers and corpus analyzing tools. Certainly, we have more opportunities than before to learn about the uses of corpus linguistics in different types of research, such as the comparative study of vocabulary, grammar, stylistic and English education. However, it might also be said that the number of corpus-based teaching and learning projects is not yet common in the English education field yet. This study, thus, focuses on a corpus-based teaching, especially on the teaching of important collocations in an intermediate reading class for sophomore students.

II. Literature Review

McCarthy (2006) mentioned about collocations as follows: “Collocation are not absolute or one hundred percent deterministic, but are the probabilistic outcomes of repeated combinations created and experienced by language users.” His opinion would suggest the need to focus on the most frequent collocation patters and would indicate the great value for learners to learn how to use the collocations of native speakers. Johns (1991) discusses the effectiveness of data-driven learning, writing that “learners should be guided to discover the foreign language, much in the same corpus linguistics discover facts of their own language that had previously gone unnoticed.” This study adopts these concepts of collocations and data-driven learning as a part of corpus-based teaching as a given.

III. Methodology

This research is concerned with what collocation patters we can see in the reading sections of English textbooks and whether different collocation patterns can be seen than those which native speakers are shown in the British National Corpus (BNC) to use the most frequently. If we can see different types of collocation patterns between English textbook reading passages and the BNC, then we can assume that using corpus-based teaching and self-study to teach certain of the collocation patterns in the BNC would be of use to learners and would serve to increase their vocabulary.

This study used 60 sophomore students in an intermediate English reading class from the beginning of May to the middle of May for about two weeks in 2013. Before doing practice to learn collocations which were chosen by analyzing BNC, learners had a pre-test in which 50 collocations were tested, together with translations from Japanese to English. There were 10 different textbook collocation patterns for which the five most frequent co-occurring vocabulary items in each case were chosen from the BNC. After doing the pre-test, training to study these collocations was conducted in the class, using, corpus-based teaching which focused on these collocations by using concordance analysis as a means of data driven learning and learning these collocations through ICT as a means of self-study.

IV. Making the Teaching Material and Self-study for Learners

1. Analyzing and Using Most 5 Frequent Collocation Patterns in BNC as Teaching Material

This study chose and analyzed 10 collocation patters in the textbook as follows: (i) low + noun, (ii) variety of + noun, (iii) sell their + noun, (iv) efficient + noun, (v) go + preposition, (vi) noun + company, (vii) adjective + economy, (viii) buy + noun, (ix) lose a lot of + noun, (x) become + adjective. This study then focused on analyzing most 5 frequent collocations occurring in the BNC for each collocation pattern found in the students' textbook. Collocation analysis showed the following: (i) *low + prices* in the textbook, but *level, income, cost, pay* and *profile* in the BNC, (ii) *variety of + products* in the textbook, but *ways, reasons, sources, forms, factors*

in the BNC, (iii) *sell their + products* in the textbook, but *shares, products, wares, goods, land* in the BNC, (iv) *efficient + franchise system* in the textbook, but *use, way, allocation, method, service* in the BNC, (v) *go + through* in the textbook, but *to, into, through, beyond, on* in the BNC, (vi) *the one hundred shop + company* in the textbook, but *insurance, record, parent, oil, target* in the BNC, (vii) *Japanese + economy* in the textbook, but *British, National, political, mixed, rural* in the BNC, (viii) *buy expensive + products* in the textbook, but *shares, food, tickets, presents, goods* in the BNC, (ix) *lose a lot of + money* in the textbook, but *weight, credibility, money, friends, self-confidence* in the BNC, (x) *become + stuck* in the textbook, but *aware, involved, apparent, accustomed, available* in the BNC.

The result of the analysis of the above collocation patterns show only three collocations being shared between the textbook and BNC among the most frequent five collocations of the BNC corpus, these being the selling of *products, and going through* and *losing a lot of money*. This study attempts to explore teaching the five most frequent collocations each in BNC by using them as corpus-based teaching material.

2. Corpus-based Teaching by Use of a Concordance as Data Driven Learning

Work sheet: the worksheets, being based on the result of collocation patterns used in the BNC web, show concordance lines in which learners should fill in the blanks after thinking of suitable collocations when focusing on reading concordance lines. Teaching Procedure: (1) an explanation how to do data-driven learning and giving and showing the worksheets which are focused on the five most common collocation patterns in the BNC which are related to the textbook usage. (2) Individual work: each learner focuses on filling in the blanks while reading concordance lines (3) Group work: each learner in each group of four shares his or her idea of what collocation pattern should be used in each concordance line (4) Class work: each group shares ideas and the checking of answers in the class.

3. Learning Efficiency of the Most Frequent Five Collocation Patterns by Means of Self-study through ICT

In this study, we used “Quizlet” which is a free software and which also provides a service at a price as an ICT tool. Before using this tool in class, as learners needed to know how to install and to use it, we used a lesson to introduce this tool, consisting of the following steps: Step 1: how to access, register and install “Quizlet” of the web, using a free version in class, Step 2: how to make flash cards and practice using them, and Step 3: how to use different sections and modes, being the (1) Study section consisting of the (a) Speller mode, (b) Learn mode, (c) Test mode and the (2) Games section, consisting of the (a) Scatter mode, and (b) Space Race mode.

VI. Results

Learners had a pre-test in which there were 50 collocation questions, which required them to translate Japanese into English and they also had a post-test after two days of the pre-test. The accuracy rate of correct answers for each collocation in the post-test was more than 90% for 26 collocations consisting of *low level, low income, low pay, variety of ways, sell their products, sell their goods, sell their land, efficient use, go to, go into, go through, go on, record company, parent company, oil company, target company, British economy, national economy, buy shares, buy food, buy tickets, buy presents, buy goods, lose a lot of weight, lose a lot of money, and a lot of friends*. It was more than 80% for another 14 collocations which were *low profile, variety of reasons, variety of sources, variety of forms, sell their wares, efficient method, efficient service, go beyond, insurance company, official economy, mixed economy, rural economy, and become aware of*. It was more than 70% for seven collocations, *being low cost, variety of factors, efficient allocation, become involved, become apparent, become accustomed, and lose a lot of self-confidence* and for the two collocations, *become available* and *lose a lot of credibility*, it was more than 60%. Moreover, a two-sided t-test shows a significance level of 5 % regarding the certainty of whether we can see a significant difference in the average between the pre-test and the post-test, where $t(60)=38.08$, $p<0.1$. From this result, it can be concluded that corpus-based teaching and learning vocabulary which uses ICT is an efficient means for learners to learn collocations.

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BIODATA

Kunihiko Miura is a professor in the Faculty of Foreign Policy Studies at the University of Shimane. His research interest is Corpus Linguistics, especially Learner Corpus and TESL.

Email address: k-miura@u-shimane.ac.jp

A Way of Workshop Design for ELT Materials Development

Hae-Dong Kim (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

I. Introduction

This presentation aims to outline a way of conducting a workshop for materials development for pre-service or in-service English teachers. Materials development studies have been a somehow neglected area compared to those on materials evaluation or analysis. However, it has always been accepted as an important area in teacher training (Tomlinson, 2012), because the workshop on materials design may contribute to broadening teacher-trainee's perspectives on ELT materials. This presentation will compare two different materials writing projects. The first project involves those who will work at secondary schools and the latter project involves those who will work at private institutions within the context of Korea. This comparison may provide insights for designing an appropriate way for ELT materials design practice, especially for teacher trainers.

II. Literature Review

Studies on materials development can be divided into three types. The first type deals with proposals for developing innovative or effective materials for language learners. This type of study presents numerous suggestions for designing materials, such as designing appropriate materials for specific skills (Byrd, 1995), using authentic materials (McGrath, 2002) or adapting principles of or findings from SLA (Tomlinson, 2012). The second type handles a particular materials development project. For example, Brunei and British teachers cooperating on a textbook development project (Leburn, 1991), the Namibian textbook project (Hopkins, 1994), and the Rumanian textbook project (Popovici & Bolitho, 2003). Richard (2001), additionally, specifically mentions textbook writing procedures for *Spring Board*. The third type illustrates ways of doing of materials development. For example, Block (1991), proposes a way of developing materials within a single institution as a cooperative work. Fletcher (1994), Waters (1994), O'Dell, (1995), and Prowse (1998) describe how materials writers develop ELT materials. Among these different types, this presenter will focus on the third type as an appropriate way of how writing ELT materials can work toward teacher development (Canniveng & Matinez, 2003).

III. Design of the Study

There are two different groups involved in this presentation. The first group consists of 19 pre-service teacher-trainees. They were asked to write one chapter of secondary English textbook as a part of an assignment for a course titled *ELT materials and methods*. They chose their group members; three or four members were assigned as one group. The amount of time for writing the materials was one month. They submitted one textbook, one workbook and one teacher's guide. The results were evaluated by this presenter. The second group has 26 graduate students involved in an on-line TESOL MA degree. They were also asked to write one chapter, but they had the freedom to choose one chapter of any ELT book. Grouping method, the length of materials writing, the items to submit and the way of evaluating the results were roughly equal. To check their preferences and actual procedures for materials writing, interviews were carried out by this presenter. The first group focused on the national curriculum for secondary school students in Korea, whereas the second group focused on the task-design for materials. The first group could refer to the published secondary textbooks as a reference for the materials design, but the second group had no particular reference materials. As a preliminary step for materials writing, the ideas and practices related to materials analysis, selection, evaluation and adaptation were taught over ten weeks.

IV. Results

The similarities between the two groups are as follow: 1) both groups had difficulty in choosing the topic for the reading part, as the topic-content took a key role in integrating four language skills. 2) They had challenges in grading the difficulty of vocabulary, i.e. selection of new vocabulary, and grammar, i.e. presentation of new

grammar items, as they were asked to write one chapter only. 3) They mentioned that they were well aware of the importance of using authentic materials and writing an appropriate task for generating target consumers' motivation. Overall procedures for materials writing were about the same between the two. They set up an Internet blog and used email and mobile phones for exchanging ideas and feedback. They chose the group leader to be the organizer and editor for the final draft. They gathered and discussed the following questions: What is the name or title of materials? What class is it intended for (learners' age and English level)? Which aspect of the materials do you like to propose (or dislike most)? What would the learners like (or dislike) about the materials? How and why were the materials designed for the learners? What other supplementary materials (teachers' guide and workbook) are required?

The differences between these two groups were mainly due to the type of materials they made. The first (teacher-trainee) group was asked to write a secondary textbook, so they were focusing on the national curriculum and syllabus type. They were concerned about the order of presenting the four language skills. They were keen at adapting the current secondary textbook, rather than creating a new textbook. The second group was specific about the details of the materials development project, such as market, levels, extent, colors, trim, starting point and ending point, components, distinguishing features, illustrations, balance of skills, syllabus, lengths of units, activities per page, listening per lesson, number amount of total lessons, time per lesson, intended teacher, possibility of piloting and so on. Interestingly, as the second group had freedom of choice for own materials development, three different tendencies among the groups were noticed. First, some groups chose relatively low-level learners as a target audience, because the amount of language required for one chapter could be less. Second, some groups agreed to write what they immediately could use after materials writing. Most of these group members were currently practicing teachers. Third, some groups decided to develop very creative and innovative materials as the materials writing workshop opened up an opportunity for them to use their imagination.

V. Conclusion

On the basis of the findings, it can be suggested that a workshop for ELT materials development may contribute to understanding the specifications of ELT materials, and so will be useful for teacher trainees to use materials in an appropriate manner. To be more helpful for teacher-trainees, teacher trainers should set up an appropriate task for teacher-trainees. As Richard (2001) mentions, materials writing workshops include differences in scope and dimension, such as assigning group members, planning the number of stages involved, identifying reviewers, planning the writing schedule, piloting the materials, and design and production. Prowse (1998) also indicates that materials writing workshops need to consider the issues of working with peer writers, a publisher, designer and illustrators, technology and so on. What is most important for a teacher trainer who is planning to construct a materials development workshop is to identify target trainees and provide an appropriate workshop project. It will make the teacher-trainee experience in that workshop for ELT materials development extremely rewarding.

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BIODATA

Hae-dong Kim is a professor of Graduate School of Education at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. He received his MA and PhD in ELT from Essex University in UK. His current research interest includes evaluation on learners, teachers and materials in ELT.

Email: khd@hufs.ac.kr

Phone: (02) 2173-3017/H.P: 010-8448-3715.

Exploring the Types of Vocabulary in English Textbooks for Japanese Junior High Schools

Maiko Kimura (Mukogawa Women's University)
Hiroko Arao (Mie University)

I. Introduction

In EFL situations like those found in Japan, it's not easy for students to find opportunities to use English outside of school. As a result, expectations are low for them to encounter or acquire new words naturally. First a general outline of Japanese textbooks for junior high school students is introduced in this paper in order to identify whether they are communication-oriented, grammar-focused or the emphasis is on vocabulary. Second, two different types of textbooks for each grade (six books in total) are reviewed, in order to analyze the tendencies of Japanese English education in junior high levels in terms of vocabulary.

According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan, one of the main goals of English education for junior high school students is deepening students' understanding of cultures and languages. To fulfill the goal, it is inevitable that they must acquire a certain amount of vocabulary in the target language. In terms of vocabulary, how do the textbooks elaborate? How do the texts plan for the students to master their vocabulary? Ludwig (1984) pointed out that learners have a tendency to master positive words more than negative ones. There are many other vocabulary myths. In this paper, some of them are picked up, and each case is closely examined.

II. Research Procedure

- (1) Take a general look at the Japanese English texts for junior high schools students to see what strategies are taken in terms of both communication and vocabulary.
- (2) Themes which appear in the texts are categorized into several groups.
- (3) Use 'Range', a software produced by I.S.P Nation (2001), to categorize the vocabulary found in the texts into frequency level (comparing with GWL: General Word List). The whole number of words and token are also shown in the list.
- (4) Pick up low-frequency words and do a closer analysis to find out their tendency.
- (5) Determine the number of times each word is used, and arrange them in order from the most used, to the least used.
- (6) Compare the word-list with Dolch List widely used as a vocabulary guide in elementary schools in the States. In Japan, English education was introduced officially in elementary schools in 2011. 5th and 6th graders are required to take English lessons at school. Currently, however, there are no tests and no grammar-study. In that sense, in Japan, junior high schools are the first stage of English learning for the students. Therefore, the comparison between the Dolch List and Japanese textbooks for junior high school levels should be reasonable.

III. Discussion

According to the Japanese Education Ministry, 1,200 words should be taught during the junior high school years. However, the word list is only partially provided, and the whole list cannot be seen even on the MEXT website. That means the words which should be included all depend on the printing companies. (Japanese textbooks are all authorized by the MEXT, not approved by the central government.) Unlike Korea or Taiwan, vocabulary analysis is not so common in Japan. As we already mentioned, vocabulary acquisition, an inevitable stage in the process of mastering English, should be focused upon more in classrooms settings. Vocabulary acquisition seems to dominate a large part of language learning, therefore, words should be treated independently and separately from other necessary items such as grammar. On the contrary, for the past few decades, in foreign language education, word-list study has been belittled partly because language learning has been focused on communication.

IV. Conclusion

In English education, it is not doubtful that the final goal for the learners is to master it as a communication tool. Speaking, listening, writing and reading are of course the main four pillars for the foreign language education. To use those abilities practically in communication, vocabulary building is necessary. Starting with English learning at junior high schools, proper word lists should be indicated to the learners, and they should be encouraged to master them either by themselves or with the support of teachers. As a result, vocabulary selection in textbooks may have a great influence on students. Is it a students' responsibility to promote vocabulary learning and acquisition? Should teachers appropriately prepare for English lessons in classroom settings? The answers to the above two questions are both 'Yes'.

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BIODATA

Maiko Kimura teaches English and presentation strategies in Japanese at Mukogawa Women's University, Japan. Her academic papers have mainly concentrated on teaching English as a foreign language.

Email: maiko290@mukogawa-u.ac.jp

Phone: +81-798-45-9813

Hiroko Arao is an associate professor at Mie University, Japan. Her field is English education in Japan and her special academic interest is affective factors in learning English.

Email: arao@edu.mie-u.ac.jp

Phone: +81-59-232-1211

Effects of the Use of Authentic Materials for Remedial English Classes in Japan

Kanako Yamaoka (Kinki University)

I. Introduction

English remedial education is one of the most frequently implemented in Japanese university settings. A large amount of research concerning learners' attitudes toward English learning has been conducted (e.g. Kiyota 2009) and different kinds of effective practical teaching, for example the use of e-learning or CALL (Nakajo & Nishigaki 2007), have been considered. In this report, the use of authentic materials is examined.

II. Literature Review

1. Previous Studies

The possibilities of the use of authentic materials for students who are at low level have already been discussed. Kilickaya (2004) stated that we may conclude that learners feel better with authentic materials helping involve them in the 'real' language as long as we, as teachers, provide them with pedagogical support. In order to achieve this, we have a wide range of choices. Shepherd (2004) suggested specific teaching methods using authentic materials for upper, middle, and low levels of learners. However, there are few practical reports and there is little literature which examines authentic materials for Japanese students in remedial classes. Although they investigate usefulness of authentic materials, their use of the material in each classroom seems limited in terms of its period of implementation and its time. But even this limited use of authentic materials implies that authentic materials could be effective teaching tools for Japanese students even in remedial classes.

Moreover, Saito, Sugimori & Taguchi (2012) stated nature of remedial education as 'supplementary education' for higher education is to select necessary subjects from various learning areas and these subjects are required to be presented in an actual context. They also noted its goal: through such education, if students could discover interests in their weak learning field, the remedial education might lead to lifelong learning. This statement of Saito, Sugimori & Taguchi (2012) can be understood to suggest that if materials are presented in a meaningful context, students would be motivated and might become autonomous learners. Brinton et.al. (2003) pointed out that authentic materials could be one good way to contextualize language lessons (p.1). Therefore the use of authentic materials could be one of the approaches to achieve goals mentioned above by Saito, Sugimori & Taguchi (2012).

2. Definition of Authentic Materials

Harmer (2007) describes authentic material as "language where no concessions are made to foreign speakers. It is normal, natural language used by native or competent speakers of a language. This is what our students encounter (or will encounter) in real life if they come into contact with target-language speakers, and precisely because it is authentic, it is unlikely to be simplified or spoken slowly" (p.273). Nunan (1989) states that "A rule-of-thumb definition for 'authentic' here is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching" (p.54). On the basis of the brief summary of definitions of authentic materials above, the definition of authentic materials in this paper is defined as everything which is produced by the act of communication from actual senders of the content to actual receivers, and authentic materials are not made systematically based on language acquisition.

III. Method

1. Objectives

The objectives of this paper are the following two points:

- (1) To examine how Japanese students' attitudes in remedial classes toward English learning change if authentic materials were used as a main teaching material for one academic year.
- (2) To investigate if the use of authentic materials influences upon students' motivation or learner autonomy in remedial classes.

2. Classroom Activities

Various types of authentic materials were used, such as commercials, music, the titles of news or articles, movies, trailers and comics. They were carefully selected based on the easiness and familiarity of the contents and also were presented with the explanation of grammar and vocabulary. After explanations of grammar and confirmation of unfamiliar vocabulary, questions were asked to students in Japanese to promote their understanding of the materials. Understanding of the content is important, so students were seldom asked to translate English materials into Japanese.

3. Participants

The participants in this study were 83 medical university students from two classes (class A; 40 participants, class B; 43 participants) in the Kansai area. They were freshmen and there is only one English class which is taught by the author in this university. 60 to 70 percent of them entered the university by means of some kind of recommendation application system which doesn't require examination of their English ability.

4. Procedure

At the end of fall semester of the 2012 school year, a questionnaire with 6 questions which are assessed by 5-point scales and one open-ended question was distributed. As for the 6 questions, the items were made based on questionnaire by Nakai (2008) and Hino (2012). According to the comments from the open-ended question, 3 students were chosen for interview which was conducted in February 2013. Interview data was analyzed qualitatively and coded.

IV. Results

1. Questionnaire

Two variables with three items each were elicited; 1) Perceived skills of English and 2) Motivation and learning strategies. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alphas for variables in the questionnaire. As for motivation and learning strategies, it could be said that results show some kind of positive attitudes toward autonomous learning through the use of authentic materials.

Table1.
Results of a questionnaire in class A and class B

	Class A (n=40)		α	Class B (n=43)		α
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD	
Perceived skills of English	3.96	0.96	0.86	4.15	0.75	0.49
Motivation and learning strategies	4.08	0.88	0.75	3.98	0.72	0.58

2. Interview

Three informants (two from Class A; one from Class B) were selected based on their comments on an open-ended questionnaire which indicates that their attitudes toward English or English learning had changed from strongly negative to favorable. Through the interview, it has become clear that students began to have negative feelings towards English learning when memorization of vocabulary started to be emphasized. They commonly said that after they lost interest in English, positive feelings about English or English learning have never occurred to them. However the use of authentic materials helped them learn autonomously and classroom

activities focused on listening to the materials seemed to be useful for students, according to comments from the interview.

V. Discussion

Through one-year-long practical research on the use of authentic materials in remedial classes, it has been found that authentic materials could change negative attitudes of low level students into more favorable ones and help involve them in English learning without resistance.

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BIODATA

Kanako Yamaoka is a part-time lecturer of Kinki University and other universities. Areas of academic interest are remedial education for Japanese learners of English, inclusive education and ESP.

Email: kanakoy0627@gmail.com

Day 2

Concurrent Session 4: The Use of ICT in Language Teaching

Morning Sessions / International Conference Room		
Session Chair: Daehyeon Nam (UNIST)		
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Assessing Writing Quality of Korean High School EFL Learners Through Automatic Text Analyzer Tools and Its Pedagogical Implications

Junghee Byun (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

Traditionally, assessing writing quality through human scoring is the most common approach to identify individual qualities of a text (i.e., content, vocabulary, grammar and organization). However, automatic assessment of written texts has gradually taken its place as a viable alternative to human rating in many testing situations in L1 and L2 (Mellor, 2009; Crossley, Weston, Sullivan & McNamara, 2011). Particularly, the benefits of practical automatic assessment are so much appealing as time and cost effective, addressing low reliability of human judges. Use of automatic writing assessment does not make need to concern inter-rater reliability in small-scale such as classroom setting and thus teachers can more bring writing skill into their class. This, in fact, can contribute to the enormous change of English education in Korea to bring attention to productive skills (writing and speaking) in a way to foster students' communicative competence. In this sense, it is meaningful to investigate students' writing quality by analyzing written texts of students in secondary school level by means of useful automated analyzing tools. Therefore, this study intends first to explore the linguistic features (vocabulary, syntax and text cohesion) of written texts of high school (12th grade) students in the exit-level with automatic text analyzer tools such as Coh-Metrix and others. It also intends to infer from the text analysis the achievement degree to which students meet the writing standards stipulated by the national curriculum of high school English. Lastly, pedagogical implications will be made for writing instruction to address the challenges identified in the present study.

II. Literature Review

1. Measuring Writing Quality

A common approach to assessing writing quality is through the analysis of linguistic features that characterize proficient writing (Crossley, Weston, Sullivan & McNamara, 2011). It presupposes that the quality of written text can be explained to a large part and can be measured in a quantitative way by its linguistic features. These linguistic measures include simply the number of words in a text to more complex measures such as text cohesion and word concreteness. In the meantime, recent developments in computational algorithms have afforded researchers the opportunity to assess large corpora of graded essays to examine overall writing quality (Crossley, Weston, Sullivan & McNamara, 2011). An example of this was a study by McNamara et al.(2010), which used the computational tool, Coh-Metrix to distinguish between high- and low- level essays written by native English speakers of college freshmen. The result indicated that higher quality essays were associated with syntactically complex, and contained more lexical diversity and used more infrequent words. Interestingly, no linguistic indices related to text cohesion were predictive of essay quality.

2. Automatic Text Analyzer Tools in Use

1) Coh-Metrix

It is a computational tool, developed by the University of Memphis. It produces indices of the linguistic and the discourse representations of a text including cohesion and coherence which still leave a lot of debate in definition. The limited free version of Coh-Metrix, named Text Easability Assessor can be available online at the webpage (<http://141.225.42.101/cohmetrixgates/Home.aspx>) by simple registration. The webpage offers percentile scores on five characteristics of text including Narrativity, Syntactic simplicity, Word concreteness, Referential cohesion and Deep cohesion. Descriptions of the categories are as follow. Narrativity is a measure of the degree to which a text is story-like. It is an indicator of easy and low quality of writing. Word concreteness is a measure of the degree to which a text has precise and specific words, referring to an object, a person or material rather than abstract and general words with broad meaning. The text with high concreteness is an indicator of high quality of writing. Syntactic simplicity an indicator of easy and low quality of writing, facilitating text readability. Referential cohesion is a measure of the degree to which a text has effective overlaps of content words, ideas between sentences to connect two sentences. They support readers by referring to ideas

introduced earlier, helping make connections the author intended. It is generally an indicator of high quality of writing. Deep cohesion is a measure of the degree to which a text has effective use of connective words to help clarify the relationships between events, ideas, and information.

2) Synlex

It is the web-based text analyzer designed by Xiaofei Lu, an associate professor of Applied Linguistics in the Pennsylvania State University. It is designed to automate lexical and syntactic complexity analysis, using fourteen different measures proposed in the second language development literature. In comparison with Coh-Metrix, Synlex limits its analysis scope to lexical and syntactic measures. It has two webpages - one for lexical complexity analysis and the other for syntactic complexity analysis (www.aihayang.com/synlex/lexical and www.aihayang.com/synlex/syntactic respectively). One strength of analysis by Synlex is the function to enter two texts in input boxes and compare their complexity by various measures.

3) Frequency Level Checker

The online website, 'Frequency level checker' (<http://language.tiu.ad.jp/index.html>) affords English teachers to check word frequency level of students' writings by four levels. The feature of this website is color-coding for levels of words in a text as well as their numbers. The present study will be an experimental application, combining the three online text analyzers in order to explore usefulness of automatic writing text analysis and make pedagogical implications into English writing instruction in Korean secondary school level. As such, research questions for this study are:

- (1) What can the automatic text analyzer tools reveal about the three linguistic (lexical, syntactic and text cohesion) aspects in students' writings?
- (2) How much different or similar will the results be between human rating and automatic rating?
- (3) Is there any correlation among the linguistic features in analysis and among them, what are the strong predictors of their writing scores?
- (4) What do the findings in the present study suggest about the national curriculum of high school English and English writing instruction?

III. Method

Participants are forty students of the exit-level of the high school where I worked. Also, to solve Research Question 3, one ESL native speaker and three non-native speakers participate in comparative study between automatic and human writing scoring. For discussion on validity and reliability of the automatic writing assessment, writing scores rated by two experienced Korean English teachers were put into use. The inter-rater reliability was moderately secured between the two raters ($r = .58 \sim .83, p < .01$). The revised 7th national curriculum of high school English in Korea is also used to compare the findings derived from text analysis with expected learning goals about several linguistic features that it established at their grade level. Based on this comparison, pedagogical implications will be made.

IV. Results and Discussion

In Table 1, they wrote 68 words in 6 sentences, which signals deficiency in written production and urgent need to writing fluency exercise. 80% of their words they used came from the group of the most frequently used 1000 words, with moderate degree of lexical diversity. Their writings were slightly more expository than narrative, which features the type of genre of the given topic. The students texts were mainly made up of simple sentence with frequent use of cohesive devices. It is assumed that they are best understood to native speakers of Grade 7 (age 12-13).

Table 1
The Linguistic Analysis on All Participants' Written Texts

N	W/n	S/n	Av/S/L	Frequency			T/T	Conc	Narr	Syn sim	T-unit	T/S	Ref/c	Dp/c	Flesch Kincaid grade
				W3	W2	W1									
	Num	Num	Num	%	%	%	%	%	%	Num	Num	%	%		
40	68.25	6.38	11.09	5.56	6.50	80.00	66.92	54.45	48.55	68.88	7.05	1.13	70.78	76.90	7.39

Note: W/n, S/n, Av/S/L indicates averages of word number, sentence number and average sentence length(by words) respectively. W3, W2, W1 /S indicates word frequency level 3, 2, and 1 respectively. T/T, Conc, Narr indicates Type/Token ratio, Word Concreteness,

Narrativity respectively. Syn sim, T/S indicates Syntactic simplicity, T-Unit per sentence respectively. Ref/c, Dp/c indicates reference cohesion and deep cohesion respectively.

Table 2
The Comparative Analysis on Linguistic Features in Three Writing Proficiency Levels (N=40)

Level (num)	Write				Read	W/n	S/n	Av S/L	Frequency			T/T	Conc	Narr	Syn Sim	T-unit	T/S	Ref/c	Dp/c
	Org	Gra	Voc	Sum					W 3	W 2	W 1								
	5	5	5	15	100	num	Num	Num	%	%	%	%	%	%	num	num	%	%	
H(10)	4.60	4.20	4.80	13.60	77.50	73.50	6.60	11.67	6.05	5.77	81.33	74.98	57.10	47.30	61.10	7.30	1.15	57.30	71.10
M(16)	4.19	3.06	4.19	11.44	54.31	77.13	7.19	11.06	5.29	5.58	80.28	65.33	55.94	53.06	65.25	7.81	1.08	83.19	76.75
L(14)	3.43	2.36	3.64	9.43	51.64	54.36	5.29	10.72	5.52	8.06	78.74	67.66	50.86	44.29	78.57	6.00	1.18	66.21	81.21

Note: H, M, L indicates high, intermediate and low levels decided upon writing test scores. Read, Org, Gra, Voc, Sum indicate average score of reading test and writing test of which categories were organization, grammar and vocabulary.

Table 3
Summary of Linear Regression Analysis on Scoring Variables

Variable	B	T	P	Variable	B	T	p
W.num	-3.42**	-3.30	.00	W.Con	0.01	0.07	.95
S.num	-1.35	-1.38	.20	Narrativity	-0.37	-1.98	.06
Num.d.w	3.48**	4.01	.01	Syn sim	-0.08	-0.30	.77
Type/Token	-1.12*	-2.56	.02	Ref.Coh	0.32	1.45	.16
T-Unit	1.79	1.33	.20	Deep.Coh	-0.12	-0.82	.42

Note 1: β refers to standardized coefficient beta. $R^2 = .64$ for these variables to predict the sum scores of the writing test.

Note 2: W.num, S.num, W.Con, Num d.w, Syn sim, Ref. Coh, Deep. Coh indicates respectively word numbers, sentence numbers, word concreteness, number of different words, syntactic simplicity, reference cohesion and deep cohesion.

In Table 2, the group of high writing proficiency level, who also proved to be advanced readers among the three groups, wrote the highest average sentence length (Av/S/L) despite less number of total words and sentences than the intermediate group. Interestingly, they also showed the least use of cohesive devices among three groups. Crossley et al. (2011) argued that more cohesive texts are produced by less skilled writers as they make texts more readable but they are assessed to be of lower quality. One prominent feature of the intermediate group was the highest use of referential cohesive devices. The result may support the claim that the explicit use of cohesive devices may not lead to high quality of writing and hints at the interconnectedness between reading and writing.

In response to Research Question 2, the degree of the machine rater's compatibility with human raters remained indecisive, leaving room for further study. Agreement was made in Narrativity and Syntactic simplicity whereas discrepancy became wider in the categories where semantic considerations are involved in assessing writing quality, such as Word concreteness and Deep cohesions.

Concerning Research Question 3, Table 3 reveals that the strongest predictor of their writing scores was the number of different words. Also, it was proved that the number of different words is correlated with the writing scale categories ($r = .43\sim.52$, $p < .01$). In line with Research Question 2, the comparison study between two kinds of raters in the five measures of writing quality found out that none of them could predict students' writing scores except marginal predictability of Narrativity ($\beta = -0.37$, $p = .06$). In fact, the two parties between the machine rater and the human raters saw perfect match only in one feature, which is Narrativity. Thus, the effort is significant to increase the agreement of machine scoring with that of human in order to make the former predictive of students' writing proficiency.

Related to the findings from the present study, the features of the 7th national curriculum of High school English composition (2008) can be summarized as over-emphasis on controlled writing and insufficient practice and instruction of paragraph-level. The curriculum introduces paragraph-level free writing in Grade 12, the exit-level of high school. The recommendations in the national curriculum of English writing are using various types of classroom assessment, integrating writing skill with other language skills and accommodating English textbooks to the interest and needs of English learners.

For Research Question 4, one characteristic of the current national curriculum of high school English writing is over-reliance on controlled writing. This tendency obviously prevents learners from writing with fluency and retrieving their linguistic knowledge in their memory and making use of it to express their thoughts and experiences. The statistics of Research Question 3 that they could write only 70 words and 6 sentences for 25 minutes about a familiar topic can be well-understood by highly limited writing practice for language use in the national curriculum. More concerning thing is that participants for the present study used about 80 % of vocabulary from the most frequently used 1000 words despite the fact that they had already learned 2300 basic vocabulary by Grade 11. Another finding about the curriculum is that paragraph-level writing is not introduced until Grade 11. It is too late and short to familiarize basic writing styles and genres. Moreover, the curriculum recommends free writing exercise in paragraph level in Grade 12, the exit-level of high school. It may later pose a serious academic burden upon most of high school students who will go to colleges without English writing experiences.

V. Conclusion

Analysis of the linguistic features of participants' writings can be summarized as follows. Basically, their text length was too short to develop the given topic and support their opinions enough. Their texts mostly contained high frequency words and simple sentence structures. They tended to explicitly and purposefully use many cohesive devices and connective words, too, which is indicative of the basic writing stage. Particularly, the number of different words made strong positive correlation with reading and writing scores and further, turned out to be most predictive of students' writing scores. Writing fluency and lexical diversity through vocabulary study may give an insight to improve the quality of Korean students' writings. Another implication of the present study is to take advantage of interconnectedness between two skills, reading and writing, driven by the positive correlations of several linguistic features of participants' written texts with reading scores among the findings of Research Question 1 and 3. Strength of integrating language skills has already been approved.

What make a teacher feel frustrated in writing class is a large size of class and lack of time to give feedback to all students in each writing stage. One way to ease this burden may be sharing responsibility with their class by peer response activities, peer editing workshop, self-assessment or the whole-class based grammar review so that students can feel engaged in so-called writing community and have a balanced view on fluency and accuracy. So far, too much reliance on controlled writing has solely lent itself to grammatical review. Now, the need is increasing for teachers to collaborate locally or in school unit to design and implement a long-term practical writing curriculum characterized by substantial and organized sequence and scope to facilitate written communication of English learners.

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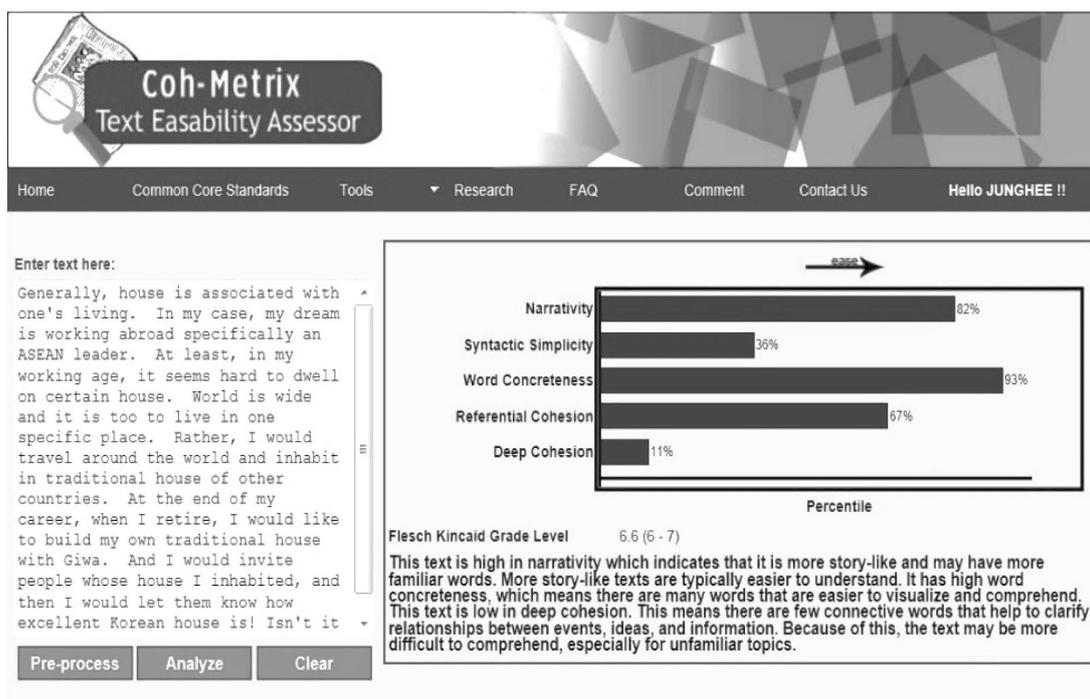
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APPENDIX

The Grading Report Sample



BIODATA

Junghee Byun is currently a doctoral student of the department of English language and literature, Seoul National University. She acquired her master degree in the TESOL program of New York University in 2013. Back home, she continues her study on the leave of absence from the school she worked for in Kyungsangnamdo. With 12 years of teaching experiences, she has been involved in the committee of monitoring academic assessment of high schools in her province for two years. She also joined many teacher-training programs including the Japanese government scholarship program for teachers overseas in Tsukuba University, Japan from 2008 to 2010, where she conducted research on scale development and validation of English writing test. Areas of academic interest are language testing, writing assessment in ESL/EFL context, teaching English in secondary schools and second language acquisition.

Email: jhb363@gmail.com

H.P: 010-4545-2904

Is the Error-Coder Training Erroneous?

Jun-Shik Kim (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)
Seok-Chae Rhee (Yonsei University)

I. Introduction

In the field of SLA, language teaching & learning, language testing, and corpus linguistics, research on the errors of learner language conducted so far shows that a researcher is the only one who not only identifies errors but also decides a type of errors. In some cases, native speakers of a target language were asked to be a referee or an assistant in identifying errors and assigning an error code to a problematic language item. In a situation where we have to deal with such a huge data as the Cambridge Learner Corpus, the *International Corpus of Learner English*, and Yonsei English Learner Corpus, however, one single researcher or a native speaker cannot afford to handle this problem. The easy and effective option to resolve the problem would be hiring some native speakers of a target language to code errors. But the question is ‘are the native speakers accurate and consistent in identifying errors and assigning error codes?’ Unfortunately, only a few studies have dealt with the reliability of the error-coding practice of native speakers (e.g., Hwang, 2012; Kim, 1998; Nicholls, 2003). To answer this question, it is necessary to understand the perception and behavior of the native speakers in error-coding processes. This study intends to investigate a) what problems do the error-coders encounter in identifying errors and assigning codes corresponding to errors?; b) why do they think it is problematic?; and c) how do we deal with problems?

II. The Study

Four Native speakers of English were hired as error-coders, who have one- to two-year teaching experience in Korea and none of them have language-related academic backgrounds. The scripts used to train the coders were 96 written scripts extracted from YELC 2012

¹, which is a million-word learner corpus constructed from the placement test of Yonsei University for the freshmen. The codeset used for the training was a simplified version of the error tagging manual (Dagneaux, Denness, Granger, & Meunier, 1996) and an error-tagging software, *Error Editor* (Hutchinson, 1997) was used to ease the time and effort to put in the coding process. A series of sessions were held to train the coders of native speakers of English: introduction, workshop, feedback, and discussion. A survey on background information of each participant, the training sessions, the codeset, and the coding process was conducted after the third session and a group interview was also conducted after the fourth training session.

III. The Analysis

To answer a) what problems do the error-coders encounter in identifying errors and assigning codes corresponding to errors and b) why do they think it is problematic, we turned to look closely at the work they had done at each training session and listen to the voices of native speakers at the group interview session. The first problem seems to be from the misconception of each code. The coders seemed to be confused what code to use or what code not to use and overgeneralize the rule as one of the coders expressed: “I would use that GNUC ... because of the way it was defined ... just as noun errors. I would use that ... do it as a catch for a noun error.”

The second problem arose during the first session: the coders tended to eagerly change everything they think unacceptable expressions as well as grammatically incorrect ones, which would often completely alter what students wrote. The coders seemed to allocate an error code based on what they want to see, not on what they actually see. This suggests it is necessary for error coders to keep in mind that “we are not attempting to rewrite the scripts into perfect English or to interpret the text” (Nicholls, 2003, p. 576).

The third problem is concerned with multiple errors, which seemed to make the coders completely bewildered.

¹ We used 96 scripts for training purposes, but the agreement and accuracy measures were calculated with 15 scripts.

Multiple errors were the case where two or more errors exist in one language item and one of the coders expressed this problem: “I had a problem with, for example, they spelled the word wrong but it’s also the wrong verb tense, which one do you use?” There is another multiple error case called chain reaction, where correction of one error triggers another one as expressed by a coder: “if I correct it using this and changes it, now I need to put another code because of my correction. ... if I do that, then that means two or three more things are going to need to change ...” The third multiple error case is completely opposite to the second case as one of the coders expressed: “the whole sentence’s wrong. ... But if you fix one, and then the other ... errors ... are not necessary ... do I still put the code because it’s disappearing with the ... correction?”

The analysis of the coding practices and group interview suggests the coders tend to over-code by overgeneralizing the concept of each code given. The tendency, however, does not seem to be useful enough to answer the third question (i.e., how do we deal with problems?) since we do not know what specific codes are problematic in coding processes. The specific problems the error-coders encounter in the error-coding practice were identified by utilizing the measures of accuracy (i.e., Target-Like Use) (Pica, 1983) and of the under- and over-used item (i.e., Used in Obligatory Context) (Master, 1987). In this study, the obligatory contexts were the sum of the cases where a coder correctly supplied an error code and the cases where coders failed to supply a correct code in contexts. The non-obligatory contexts are those cases where coders supplied an error code to an inadequate context.

The most problematic error coding practices were identified through the accuracy measures of each code gathered from three error-coders participated in the fourth session¹. Overall the least inaccurate codes used across the coders were LS (i.e., collocational and conceptual errors in a single word), GVNF (i.e., errors of to-infinitives and -ing), GV (i.e., missing or redundant verbs), GVT (i.e., verb tense errors), LA (i.e., a phrase or sentence which is grammatically correct, but has inappropriate or odd meaning), and preposition related errors, (e.g., GNDP, GVDP, GADP, & GSP) (See, Table 1).

Table 1
Accuracy Ratio

Error Code*	Coder E	Coder R	Coder M
GA	0.82	0.71	0.60
GNN	0.50	0.70	0.77
GP	0.50	1.00	0.25
GV	0.40	0.18	0.20
GVAUX	0.25	0.50	0.13
GVN	0.60	0.33	1.00
GVNF	0.25	0.17	0.14
GVT	0.38	0.33	0.17
LA	0.21	0.45	0.17
LS	0.44	0.14	0.13
Prep	0.31	0.47	0.25
Mean	0.47	0.43	0.37

* See Appendix

Except the code GVT, the accuracy ratios of the codes mentioned above were expected to be low. For example, the coders appeared to be confused in telling the difference between the code LA and LS and between the code GNDP (noun dependent preposition, e.g., *thirst for*), GVDP (verb dependent preposition, e.g., *pay for*), GADP (adjective dependent preposition, e.g., *representative of*), and GSP (simple preposition phrase, e.g., *in the morning*). The accuracy score of each code by individual coder was not good enough across coders. The coder M seems to be the worst coder and desperately needs training especially with GP, GV, GVAUX, GVNF, GVT, LA, LS, and Prep which scored less than .50. The coder E also appears to need more training, especially with such codes as GV, GVAUX, GVNF, GVT, LA, LS, and Prep while the coder R needs to train such codes as GV, GVNF, GVT, and LS.

The characteristics of each coder behavior were also identified by examining each code which was under- and over-used by each coder (See, Table 2). Overall, the coder M tends to highly overuse such error codes as GP, GV,

¹ We decided to measure the accuracy ratios of what we gathered from the fourth session, where we thought some degree of accuracy would emerge from the coders. The coder D, however, submitted wrong scripts, which have no comparability to the scripts from the other three coders and we decided to drop it from the dataset for accuracy measures.

and Prep while underusing LS. The coder E overused GVT while underusing GVAUX and LA. The coder R relatively highly overused GV. In addition, GP (i.e., pronoun errors), GV, GVNF, and preposition related codes were relatively highly overused by two coders while the codes extremely underused by more than two do not seem to exist.

Table 2
Under- & Over-use of Error Code

Error Code	Coder E	Coder R	Coder M
GA	0.92	0.76	0.73
GNN	0.50	0.79	1.05
GP	2.00	1.00	4.00
GV	0.75	2.25	2.00
GVAUX	0.25	1.25	1.25
GVN	0.60	0.60	1.00
GVNF	0.67	1.33	1.67
GVT	1.75	1.00	0.75
LA	0.28	0.78	1.28
LS	0.86	1.29	0.29
Prep	0.89	1.44	1.78
Mean	0.86	1.07	1.30

We also measured agreement ratios among coders by utilizing Cohen's kappa (See, Table 3). Note that the score of the second and third session resulted from a group work, where two coders in each group consulted each other to reach agreement in what code to use or not to use. The score of the fourth session, however, was based on the independent work of each coder. Considering this, the training sessions did work well as far as agreement is concerned.

Table 3
Agreement Ratio (Cohen's kappa)

Error Code	2 nd Session*	3 rd Session		4 th Session**	
	ER-JM***	ER-JM	E-R	M-R	E-M
GA	0.85	0.42	0.94	0.96	0.89
GDAP	****	-	-	0.39	0.39
GDNP	1.00	1.00	-	0.00	0.00
GDVP	0.38	0.66	0.92	0.91	0.83
GNN	0.81	0.64	0.73	0.84	0.59
GSP	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	-
GV	0.00	1.00	0.48	0.94	0.53
GVAUX	-	0.00	0.33	1.00	0.33
GVN	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.74	0.74
GVNF	-	1.00	0.66	0.89	0.56
GVT	0.85	0.66	0.72	0.85	0.59
LA	0.48	0.48	0.50	0.73	0.32
LS	-	0.00	0.79	0.35	0.49
Mean	0.45	0.36	0.46	0.42	0.42

*Agreement ratios in the 2nd and 3rd Session was the result of comparison between two groups (i.e., ER and JM); ** Agreement ratios from comparison between individuals; *** The coder E and R was in the first group and the coder J and M was in the second group; **** '-' indicates no occurrence

IV. Conclusion

The findings seem to shed light on the error-coder training though the number of participants and scripts involved in this research were small. Firstly, we need to pay more attention to clarify the each code: provide the codeset with rich examples in the training sessions for each coder to facilitate understanding of each code. In addition, we need to offer some basic rules of coding practice for the coders to facilitate making decisions in

coding practices (e.g., focus on grammar, do not alter what is written as far as possible, etc.). Secondly, the TLU, UOC, and Cohen's kappa were useful enough to pick out the error codes problematic to a particular coder. This means we can give feedback tailored to each coder's need, which would improve the quality of error-coding.

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APPENDIX

The Error Codes

Form and Lexical Errors		Grammar Errors					
		Article and Noun		Preposition		Verb	
FMN	wrong morphemes to form nouns	GA	misuse, missing or redundant articles	GDAP	wrong or missing adjective dependent preposition	GV	missing or redundant verb
FS	spelling errors	GP	misuse, missing or redundant pronouns	GDNP	wrong or missing noun dependent preposition	GVAUX	misuse, missing or redundant auxiliary
LA	awkward expressions	GNN	wrong noun number	GDVP	wrong or missing verb dependent preposition	GVN	Wrong S-V agreement
LS	collocational or conceptual			GSP	wrong simple preposition	GVNF	misuse, missing, redundant to-infinitive or -ing
						GVT	wrong verb tense

BIODATA

Jun-Shik Kim is assistant research fellow of Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. His research interests include Language Testing, Language Teaching & Learning, Second Language Acquisition, and Corpus Linguistics.

Email: ambcarpet@gmail.com

Phone: (02) 3794-3921

Seok-Chae Rhee is currently professor of the Department of English Language and Literature at Yonsei University. He is also the Director of the Institute of Language Research and Education, Yonsei University and Professor-in-Charge of the Department of English Education, Graduate School of Education, Yonsei University. He is now in charge of the English Corpus Lab, Yonsei University. His main research areas include Phonetics, Phonology, Language Corpus, Linguistics, Informatics.

Email: scrhee@yonsei.ac.kr

Phone: (02) 2123-4483.

Implementing Glossing in Mobile-assisted Language Learning Environments: Directions and Outlook

Hansol Lee (Korea Military Academy)

I. Introduction

In 2006, Chinnery predicted that an area of future language learning research would include mobile-assisted language learning (MALL). Initially developed from computer-assisted language learning (CALL), MALL immediately seized the attention of language education researchers and has been recognized as different from CALL in many respects, due to its “anytime, anywhere” principle (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008). Kukulska-Hulme (2009) notes that “mobile technology can assist learners at the point of need and in ways that fit in with their mobile lifestyles” (p. 162). Stockwell (2007) holds that studying MALL is a natural path of computer-based learning research in light of the current situation in which “technologies themselves are becoming more pervasive, and the number of students who own mobile technologies ... is increasing at an impressive rate” (p. 366).

While mobile technology is making inroads into classroom environments and our daily lives at a fast pace (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009), research into MALL has not kept up with the speed of technological development (Ballance, 2012). What is worse, in my view, is that most teachers and researchers interested in MALL themes are largely ignorant of how to build and tailor mobile-based learning materials for their students and participants. As a result, to adapt technology, they are highly reliant on computer experts who may not prioritize concerns regarding language teaching and learning. Although some may argue that equipping oneself with knowledge of computer languages and programs would be rather burdensome, I suggest otherwise. It is only after those directly concerned with language teaching and learning begin to grasp how mobile technology operates that MALL will become fully integrated into the process of language teaching and learning. This will require that language teachers micro-tailor their materials to the requirements of the curriculum and needs of learners, and that researchers take a much greater role in adjusting materials to their research focus. For example, in the case of glossing, teachers may be able to put the definition of a target word in learners’ mother tongue (L1) or any other information they find useful for their learners (e.g., using concordance data for target words). Thus, I believe that it would be a useful undertaking for these two groups to start getting their feet on the expanding ground of MALL.

To this end, I attempt to present here succinct, useful directions for building web-based reading materials integrated with electronic glossing for target language teachers and researchers without much knowledge of computer language. The present paper provides directions for creating materials that can interface with a wide range of smart-phones, especially as glossing has been shown to be effective for language learning (Abraham, 2008).

II. Directions on How to Implement Glossing

In this section, I would like to introduce two distinct formats of electronic glossing that can be built into web pages. As will be made clear below, the suggested two methods of glossing are meant to operate properly in mobile device environments (not only in PC settings). In order for readers to build their own version of these methods, they may simply modify my HTML source according to their purposes, and doing so will help readers implement the suggested glossing formats. The details for specific directions on this section are omitted due to space constraints

1. Hyperlinks to Target iframe

To divide a web page into multiple sections so that several items can be loaded to different parts of the screen on a single window simultaneously, a normal HTML frame can be used. For example, one can easily find a vertically divided web page with menus located on the left hand side and main contents on the right. In the case of designing a computer-based reading text, you may split your screen horizontally, which allows you to use the

upper part of the window to load the reading text and secure an additional space on the bottom to provide some extra information on target words.

In terms of framing, unfortunately, web pages with framed divisions on the PC may not be displayed in the same way in most mobile web browsers (e.g., the mobile version of Safari for Apple's iPhone and ICS Stock Android Browser for Samsung's Galaxy). In particular, the differences may occur when the contents overflow the frame. In web browsers for PC settings, in which each frame carries scroll function (you can designate the attribute of automatic scrolling when setting the frames) and the frame size is set to the screen, the scrollbar appears on the right side so that you can scroll up and down to see the whole text within the frame. In the mobile web browsers, however, the framed window does not have scrollbar function and the frame size varies according to the size of the contents. Thus the framed part is expanded to the size of its content, extending beyond the visible screen. This means that the bottom frame containing glossary information of the target words will literally appear at the very bottom of the reading text, and thus readers need to scroll laboriously to the end of the web page using their fingers to see the glossary information they are looking for. This is to say, on mobile devices, one cannot simultaneously have the text, a target word, and its glossary information in a single glance (Al-Seghayer's, 2003).

2. Tooltips by Touching

According to Al-Seghayer (2003), glossing should provide relevant information at the closest place from target words without interrupting the flow of one's reading by blocking the portion of the text his or her eyes are moving to. The *tooltip* function, which you can experience in several computer programs, could be a suitable option in this regard. In some commercial computer programs (e.g., Microsoft Word, and Internet Explorer), you can activate this tooltip function when you move your mouse cursor over a range of menus or buttons in the program interface. This function provides descriptive information about the menus or buttons that your mouse cursor is pointing at before you actually click and initiate certain commands; literally, it provides tips for the tool. The next format of electronic glossing I introduce is the one that applies the HTML tooltip. To put it simply, the tooltip would provide glossary information for target vocabulary as a form of tooltip when you move your mouse cursor over a word.

In PC environments, there are two simple ways to present the tooltip function using HTML. First, using *abbreviation* tags, which are basically used to provide the full version of the abbreviation or acronym when you move the mouse over the abbreviation element, is the easiest way to implement tooltips although this tag, in its default setting, only presents the glossary information briefly (shorter than three seconds) when you move the cursor on it. Second, adding only a few lines of CSS tags to the simple HTML code can supply customized tooltips to users for several actions of the mouse.

In touch-based devices, however, these two methods would not work properly according to developers' intention unless thoroughly designed considering unique properties of mobile devices. The reason for this is that the finger touching input system of these devices does not have a mouse cursor. Consequently, it cannot recognize the mouse cursor's movements on the screens, except for clicks on clickable objects or hovers on the objects that are customized by certain codes. Especially for the iPhone, your action of touching the screen would almost always be regarded as being done with the intention of scrolling the page up and down or left and right, not as the action of clicking. As a result, you cannot use the *abbreviation* tags in the default setting in mobile settings. Moreover, your mobile device does not recognize the action of the cursor moving out of a target word, meaning that when you try to use customized tooltips set by simple CSS tags, as mentioned above, the glossary information would remain visible even if you do not want it to be. In addition, this customized method cannot prevent tooltips from being cut off by the border lines of the screen, especially when it comes to the small and fixed screen size of smart-phones.

III. Conclusion and Outlook

In this paper, I have provided directions for implementing two useful types of electronic glossing on the net: (a) hyperlinks to target iframe and (b) tooltips by touching. I hope that illustration here has not scared researchers and teachers away from using technology-based materials, but that I have shown that they are manageable and even enjoyable. I also hope that the present work will entice readers who suffer from technophobia to undertake their own projects. I would like to reiterate that researchers and teachers who are about to introduce and share

technology with their learners should not remain in ignorance of how it works. If they have some basic knowledge of building web sites and writing HTML codes, they may be able to micro-tailor mobile-based learning materials so that they work most effectively for their own learners. I expect that more diverse types of web learning materials will be developed following this path. In this way, researchers and language teachers will be able to keep up with growing technology with no insurmountable obstacles, and infuse more pedagogically-oriented ideas based on education theory, practical teaching experience, and insiders' knowledge of learners and contexts into the development of MALL.

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BIODATA

Hansol Lee is an assistant professor in the Department of English at Korea Military Academy. His research interests include computer- and mobile-assisted language learning, corpus linguistics, and language assessment.
Email: hansol6461@gmail.com
Phone: (02) 2197-2792

How to Employ an E-textbook in Teaching English Methodology Class

Yunjoo Park (Korea National Open University)
Hyojung Jung (Dankook University)

I. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of using an e-textbook on English major college students' learning English methodologies. As smartphones and smartpads become part of textbook materials in the technology-embedded class, a digital e-textbook becomes an alternative tool for assisting the class with various functions that analogue paper-based textbooks cannot provide. An ebook is commonly defined as "an electronic version of a printed book that can be read on a computer or handheld designed specifically for this purpose" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2013). Wikipedia also describes that an ebook is "a book-length publication on in digital form, consisting of text, images, or both, and produced on published through, and readable on computer or other electronic devices" (2013). Ebook publications are, specifically, more in demand since we expect them to be One Source Multi Use (OSMU) in contents and produce the added value.

There are several advantages of publishing ebooks in education: first, the production cost is relatively low so it takes a little time to plan, design, edit, publish, and sell ebooks through the Internet. Furthermore, enormous information can be uploaded on the device including dynamic multimedia functions. In terms of accessibility, even the blind is able to listen and learn the contents of ebooks.

There were efforts to develop digital textbooks and analyze the effectiveness of using them for primary and secondary school students in Korea. Nevertheless, not much research was found to investigate the developments and usefulness of the digital textbook at the tertiary level of education. This paper investigates how an e-textbook is employed to teach English methodology for the students in the department of English language and literature at a mega open university and suggests how to utilize digital textbooks at higher education to promote students' independent learning in order to contend with distance education.

II. Literature Review

According to Book, Conley, Lazzaro, and Woodbook (2010), students in 7 colleges including Princeton and University of Virginia in US participated in a pilot study aiming to show the efficacy of Kindle DX by Amazon in 2009. The research revealed that the participating students were not satisfied with the quality of keyboard touch and complained about the unstable connection of the device to the contents. The survey of Student Public Interest Research Groups in 2010 also showed that 75% of participants prefer printed books to ebooks.

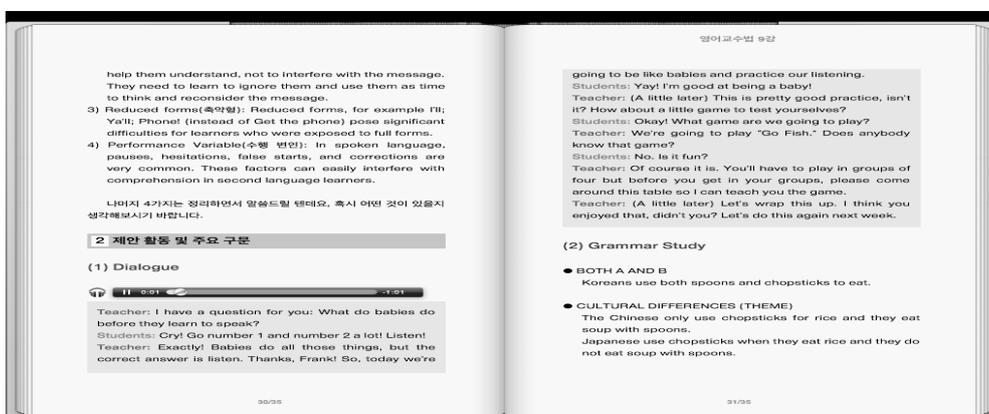
However, digital books draw attentions and become popular in not only the publication markets but also the education fields. The Apple created ibooks contents, and InKling and CourseSmart produced electronic textbook applications for iPads in 2012. The CourseSmart conducted a survey on 500 US college students about using e-textbooks in 2011 and the research revealed positive responses were common on e-textbooks. 48% of participants in survey responded that they often used digital textbooks and 63% of participants had used them at least once. 69% of participants preferred to carry digital books to printed books, and 61% of participants saved their time to study because of browsing function in digital textbooks. Another 60% participants thought ebooks were cheaper than paper books.

Even though the purpose of developing and using the digital textbooks is mainly to explore the potentials of a new medium of more effective instruction-education, it is also possible to make education more convenient and to change the learning experiences through the digital textbooks. The two main design principles to develop the digital textbooks in education are as follows: First, the digital textbooks are supposed to provide prosperous learning experiences with various multimedia functions in contrast with the printed textbooks. Second, the contents and structures of ebooks are expected to be user-friendly, since there are a variety of learners in ages, genders, and characteristics.

III. Methodology

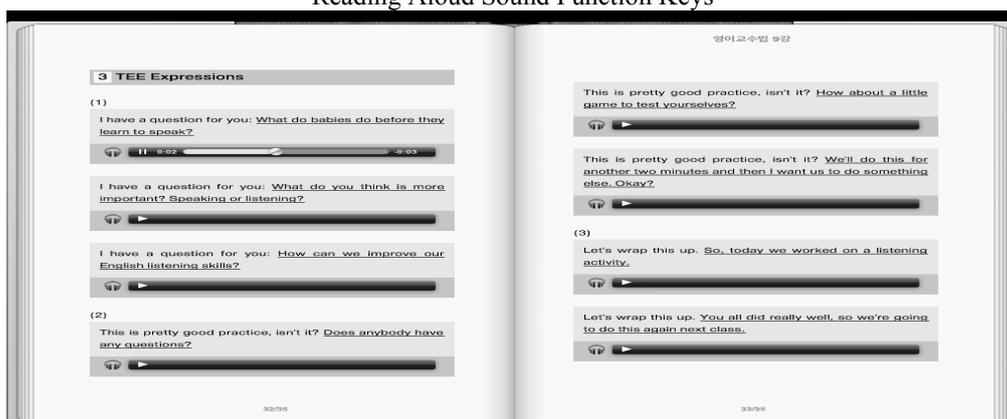
This study is primarily based on a survey of 262 Korean English major students who took English methodology online class, which is mandatory for juniors who pursue their bachelor's degree in the department of English language and literature at an open university. Based on needs analysis of participating 262 students, an e-textbook 'English Methodology' was created by ePub 3.0 and the students were asked to use it with iBooks. Data includes 262 students survey, five (5) students oral interviews, observations, and their cognitive load usability test results. Content area specialists, an instructional designer, a developer, and two researchers collaboratively participated in the process of developing the digital 'English Methodology' e-textbook. The process of developing the ebook follows four stages such as analysis, design, development, and evaluation. An analysis aims to analyze the contents of a target textbook and similar textbooks, and to set the appropriate strategies to develop the ebook. Under the developing process, the storyboards of the ebook are created according to instruction-education scenarios for each lesson.

Figure 1
English Methodology Ebook



Certain pages contain reading aloud sound function keys for the students to read and listen the lectures together as shown below.

Figure 2
Reading Aloud Sound Function Keys



Contents are categorized by the order of the original textbook and online lectures. User manuals and guidelines are created. The content specialists and participating students evaluate the contents, design, and usability of the 'English Methodology' ebook.

VI. Results and Discussions

Based on survey, interviews, and observations with the participating students, it seems that they rather enjoyed using the English methodology ebook than the researchers originally expected, though they were forced to adjust to a new instructional environment of eBooks and digital education. Furthermore, they were expected to enhance their self-directed management skills to survive in this flexible learning environment. Due to lack of English language ability and knowledge about methodology, students initially revealed their frustrations in expressing their thoughts, although they confirmed that they had comprehended the academic subject matter. Nevertheless, the participants of this study became accustomed to not only the contents but also the practices of digital learning in order to maximize the advantages of the online learning course with the digital textbook.

Figure 3
English Methodology Online Lecture (1) (vertical view)

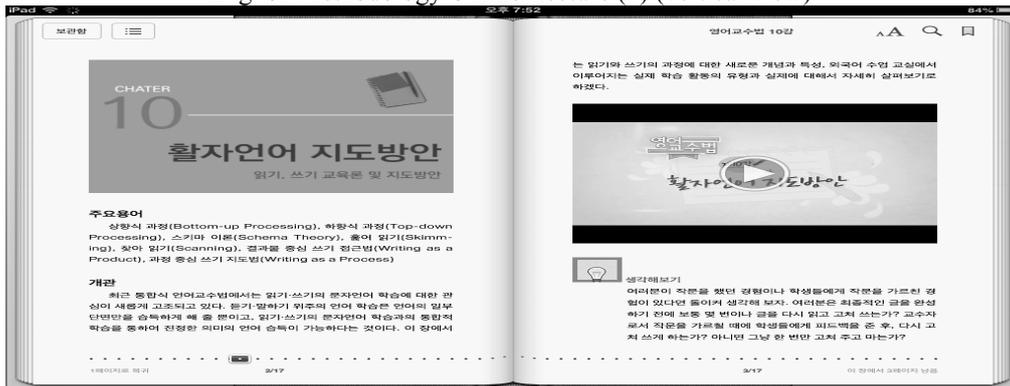
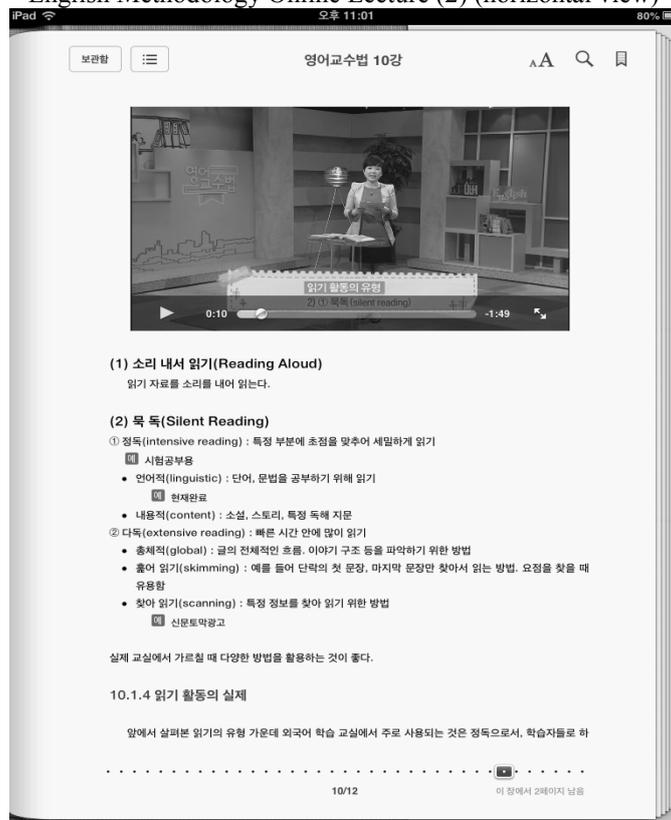


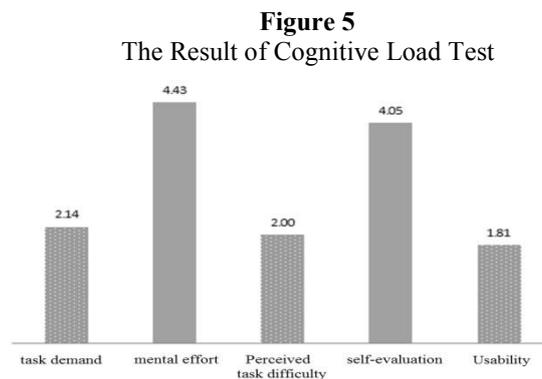
Figure 4
English Methodology Online Lecture (2) (horizontal view)



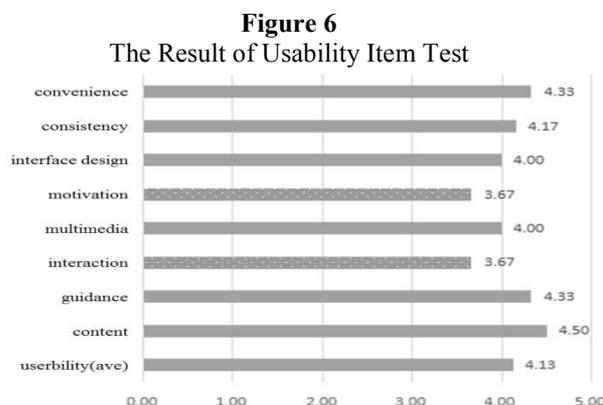
The participants evaluated the important factors in using the digital textbook through their survey. The results revealed that interactivity was ranked the most important and multimedia functions, font and screen followed after.

After the initial survey, the researchers conveyed two oral interviews with target group students. First, they were asked to share their thoughts and experiences of using the digital textbook while they took the class and interactively participated in developing procedure. The interview results mainly indicated that VOD lectures, notes, and supplementary materials that were intertwined in digital textbooks helped students to easily comprehend the lectures. The students were glad that the ebook was handy and convenient to use. The participants who had used an iBooks application did not seem to find any inconvenience.

In the second oral interview, the students were asked to take a simple test after reading a textbook and to answer the questions in order to be like real learning situations. After reading books, the students took a cognitive load test similar to the test in the Ryu (2011) research reflecting their previous learning experiences with the digital textbook. The cognitive load test modified from the Ryu (2011) included 1) task demand, 2) mental effort, 3) perceived task difficulty, 4) self-evaluation, and 5) usability of the learning materials. As a result, cognitive overload has not been found since intrinsic cognitive load was about 2.0 and task difficulty and instructional design relating to extraneous cognitive load also seemed to low.



Although usability-related items were as high as 4, motivation and interaction were relatively lower than the other areas.



The interviewees revealed that they were able to easily access to digital textbooks which are time-wise and place-wise free. Learners were also involved in self-management. Since they felt using ebooks was fresh and new, they might have a 'hawthorne effect' (the participants in research might show a better result than expected since they knew they were spotted on). Nevertheless, the students were able to actively participate in and interact with others and have the benefit of various audiovisual aids in the ebook.

V. Conclusion

The main purpose of developing and using the digital textbooks in this research is to explore the potentials of a new medium in more effective instruction-education. Based on surveys, interviews and observations with the participating students, it seems that they have the benefit of using the English methodology ebook, although

they are forced to adjust to a new instructional environment of eBooks and digital education. Moreover, they are able to enhance their self-directed management skills to survive in this flexible learning environment. Both qualitative and quantitative analysis of data reveal that the students are satisfied with audiovisual aids, lecture notes and supplementary materials that only the e-textbook provided with and they feel an e-textbook handy. In this context, participating students need to assume more responsibility in discovering learning objectives, developing awareness of the learning process and exploring their learning environments. This study provides useful insights into how an e-textbook may be a part of crucial part of the learning experience.

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BIODATA

Yunjoon Park is an associate professor in the department of English Language and Literature at Korea National Open University. She received her Ph.D. in Language Education, specializing in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Indiana University, Bloomington. Her teaching and research interests mainly include: Blended Learning, Teacher Training, and Materials Development.

Email: yjpark1115@knou.ac.kr

Phone: (02) 3668-4569

Hyujung Jung is a teaching assistant professor in the department of General Education Center at Dankook University. She received her Ph.D. in Educational Technology, specializing in Instructional Design and E-learning from Hanyang University. Her teaching and research interests mainly include: Cognitive Load Theory, Computer Supported Collaborative Learning, Materials Development, and Human Resource Development.

Email: hyojung.jung@gmail.com

Phone: (031) 8005-3972

The Effects of Corpus-Based Investigation on Formulaic Language to Improve Automaticity of L2 Writing Process

Hyeyoung Cho (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

I. Introduction

Unlike speaking which involves simultaneous processing of input analysis, planning for production, and verbal articulation, writing is a highly recursive process of several overlapping stages. The most common process of writing consisted of three stages: planning (brainstorming and outlining), translating for converting ideas into words, and revision for review (evaluation) and error correction (e.g. Flower & Hayes 1980; Kellogg, 1996). Efficiency of the writing process has been traditionally measured by writing fluency, usually indexed as word per minute (WPM). With recent cognitive approach to understand writing process, measurement of writing fluency has developed from simple speed-up to changes made to the text (Knoch, 2007), text quantity (Baba, 2009), composing rate (Sasaki, 2000), the sentence length (Johnson et al., 2012), and the mean length of translating episodes (Abdel Latif, 2009). However, considering that the writing is the interplay of multiple dimensions of cognitive efforts involved in highly recursive process, the measurement of writing process should go beyond the investigation of single dimension such as speed, quantity, and pausing behavior. Given that, this study proposes the concept of automaticity (i.e. procedural activation of declarative knowledge) as a measurement of cognitive efficiency of L2 writing process. In addition, this study employs three characteristics of automaticity to assess benefits of learners' corpus consultation on formulaic language, the knowledge of which is the foundation for enhancement of automatic language processing.

II. Literature Review

1. Automaticity and Formulaic Language

The concept of automaticity was originally developed in behaviorism and the audio-lingual method, which assumed that automaticity can be achieved through over-learning and habit formation. However, the understanding of automaticity has been significantly changed in information processing theories. Segalowitz (2003, as cited in Ortega, 2009, p. 85) defined automaticity as "automatic performance that draws on implicit-procedural knowledge and is reflected in fluent comprehension and production and in lower neural activation patterns." DeKeyser (2007:3) referred the automaticity as the whole process of knowledge development from declarative knowledge on rules of language to "the fully spontaneous, effortless, fast, and errorless use of that rule." A number of studies reported multiple dimensions of the automaticity including quantitative and qualitative change in cognitive processing (e.g. Logan, 1988; 2002; Hulstijn, 2002; Segalowitz & Hulstijn, 2005; Lee, 2004). Based on major findings, Dörnyei (2009) suggested four meanings/dimensions of automatization i.e. speed of processing, availability of relevant procedural memory, absence of attentional control, and ballistic (i.e. unstoppable) processing.

In information processing theories in which the automaticity is deeply rooted, the role of memorized formulaic expressions is crucial to achieve automatic language processing. In terms of L2 learning, compilations of formulaic languages enable learners to process language faster and more accurate, just like native speakers do who unconsciously and consciously tap into pools of prefabricated chunks of language. Thus, as Pawley and Syder (1983) famously put it, 'native-like selection and native-like fluency' can be attained by the use of memorized sentences and lexicalized sentence stems. By the same token, Gatbonton (2005) indicated the automatization of formulaic chunks is the fundamental step in early L2 learning.

2. Learners' Corpus Consultation on Formulaic Language

In order to exploit the benefits of formulaic expressions in language processing, various instructional efforts have been made. In particular, enhancing the notice of formulaic sequences through instruction (Boers et al., 2006), a CLT/dialogue-based model (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988; 2005), and text memorization (Ding, 2007;

Dai & Ding, 2010) have proven to be effective in learning formulaic language. Also, more than one instructional approach can be used in combination as Taguchi (2007) presented an example of CLT-based approach with dialogue memorization in chunk learning. More recently, Flowerdew (2012) showed an example of students' corpus consultation on formulaic language, which seems to be an effective instructional method to enhance awareness on formulas to promote the language processing.

Benefits of direct use of corpus data in language instruction have been reported by a number of empirical researches (e.g. Yoon & Hirvela, 2004; Chambers & O'Sullivan, 2004; Lee & Swales, 2006; Yoon, 2008). They collectively suggested that the direct use of corpus data heightens the students' lexico-grammatical awareness by extensive exposure to typical patterns in concordance lines. Students can identify patterns and forms of language which may not be obvious enough in traditional language learning resources such as grammar books and dictionaries. In addition, concordance examples show the functions of words in different contexts and genres, which raises learners' contextual and linguistic genre awareness. Furthermore, learners' corpus consultation can foster learning autonomy as the students can look up the usage of expressions in corpus data whenever they have enquiries. Based on the benefits of direct use of corpus data, this study employs learners' corpus consultation to teach formulaic language, the pedagogic benefits of which would be examined in terms of the influence on cognitive efficiency (i.e. automaticity) of writing process. Based on several characteristics of automatic processing of language (see Dörnyei, 2009), this study attempts to investigate three following research questions to examine benefits of corpus consultation on formulaic language to promote automaticity of L2 writing process:

- (1) Does the learners' corpus consultation on formulaic language increase the writing speed (or speed of processing)?
- (2) Does the learners' corpus consultation on formulaic language increase the ballistic processing of writing?
- (3) Does the learners' corpus consultation on formulaic language increase availability of procedural memory during writing process?

III. The study

1. Participants

Through an official community website of a local university, this study recruited 22 Korean students and chose 17 of them for the experiment in consideration of their age, English proficiency level (TOEIC score), and major. They received three hours of corpus-based treatment and took four writing tests (two pre tests and two post tests). At the end of the session, they were rewarded about 25,000 won for participation.

2. Instruments and Procedure

The students took two pre tests on two conditions (i.e., cognitive load and no load condition) to examine the availability of procedural memory in writing. The cognitive load was created by background music during the writing based on the findings of Ransdell and Gilroy's study (2001). In order to record writing process, Inputlog 5.1, a keystroke logging program, was installed on the computers used by the participants. The program recorded all the writing behaviors and provided information on correction and pausing behavior during writing. The pre tests were followed by introductory session of corpus consultation and pre interview. During three hours of treatment session, students investigated typical usage of 30 selected formulaic expressions on Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). After the treatment, students took two post tests on the same condition as the pre-tests, followed by post interview. For statistical analysis, SPSS 16.0 was used to examine the significance of relation between pre and post tests.

3. Data Analysis

The speed of processing was measured by word per minute (WPM), which was the traditional measure for writing speed. The ballistic processing was assessed by breakdown fluency (pause frequency, pause duration, and pause location) and repair fluency (total number of words a writer reformulated). The availability of procedural memory was calculated by comparing the results of WPM, breakdown/repair fluency, and writing

quality (which was graded holistically by two raters) between cognitive and no cognitive load conditions of pre and post tests. The gap between the two conditions would be interpreted as the amount of procedural memory consumed by background music. Finally, each test result was subjected to t-test to examine the significance of relation between pre and post tests.

IV. Results and Discussion

The results of this experiment evidenced benefits of students' corpus consultation on formulaic language to improve automaticity of writing process. The students showed significant improvement in WMP and breakdown fluency (pause frequency and location in particular) in post tests. However, interestingly enough, the students did not seem to notice the benefit of corpus consultation activity on the subsequent writing tests. During the post interview, most of the students claimed that they did not feel any difference in processing efficiency between pre and post tests mainly due to limited amount of treatment time. They noted that corpus consultation seemed to be good learning exercise, but three hours were not long enough to affect their writing process. However, with significant improvement in WMP and breakdown fluency in post tests, it seemed that the students' corpus consultation on formulaic language (even for as short as three hours) could enhance language processing on unconscious level, the change of which may be undetected by the students.

Another noteworthy finding of this study was unexpected positive effect of background music in writing process, which ran counter the findings of Ransdell and Gilroy's (2001) study. The results of availability of procedural memory between two conditions (cognitive load and no load) showed no significant difference, because some students outperformed under cognitive load condition i.e. writing with background music. The positive effect of background music became more obvious in post interview that majority of students experienced relaxing effects of music in highly intense cognitive process of writing.

Despite some limitation, this study shed light on the need for investigation of cognitive efficiency of writing process, apart from smoothness (or fluency) of the process. In addition, this study suggested the value of learners' corpus consultation on formulaic language to improve the automaticity of L2 writing process.

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BIODATA

Hyeyoung Cho is a doctoral student in TESOL at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies. Her research interests include corpus linguistics, cognitive linguistics, and L2 writing.

Email: junjungh7@naver.com

Phone: 010-8515-0828.

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Academic Writing Practices of Graduate Engineering Students in Korea: A Case Study

Ji-Yeon Chang (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

Despite serious criticism of the destructive power that the English language wields in the academic community (Ammon, 2000; Haberland, 1989; Swales, 1997), this language has been established as the universal language in the fields of science and engineering (Tardy, 2004; Wood, 2001). It is a common practice that science and engineering students write and publish papers in English for an international readership (Cho, 2009; Flowerdew, 1999; Shin, 2010). Due to the rapid expansion of international graduate students, research on their writing practices has started early in ESL settings (Casanave & Hubbard, 1992; Dong, 1998; Jenkins, Jordan, & Weiland, 1993). On the other hand, relatively little is known about those of graduate students in Korea. Cho (2009) and Shin (2010) pioneered this research area by providing quantitative or qualitative data about Korean science and engineering graduate students in a Korean EFL setting.

However, most of the data in previous studies, including Korean ones, were mainly collected through limited interviews or questionnaires. In order to enlarge an understanding of the academic life and writing practices of graduate students in Korea, it is necessary to do longitudinal research up-close-and-personal. This study was designed to fulfill this research gap. The research questions which guided the present study are as follows:

- (1) What English writing difficulties do Korean EFL graduate engineering students have?
- (2) What strategies do Korean EFL graduate engineering students use to overcome their English writing difficulties?
- (3) What have Korean EFL graduate engineering students done to increase their academic English writing skills?

II. Method

1. Participants and Setting

The data of the present study were collected via initial surveys and weekly interviews. Ten graduate engineering students, including 5 master's and 5 doctoral students, participated in this study. Only one of them was a female student. All of them belonged to the same computer engineering lab at a research university in Seoul, Korea. Two of them had overseas learning experiences of less than one year. The participants' English proficiency levels ranged from mid-intermediate (3+) to near-native (1) levels according to TEPS scores which nine students submitted. One student's TOEFL score was converted to TEPS score. The researcher worked as a writing instructor in the participants' lab.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

As part of a larger research project, this study was done as a preliminary study to understand the participants' academic life and writing practices. The initial survey was distributed to students on January 28, 2010, and it consisted of both closed and open questions. Interviews were conducted every week with those students who had written in English that week. They were asked semi-structured questions about English writing difficulties and strategies along with their prior education. Interviews lasted 3 to 30 minutes, and all of them were recorded. Since the participants and the researcher shared the same mother tongue, interviews were done in Korean, and their recordings were transcribed in Korean as well. The participants' responses to the research questions were separately collected and used as primary data for this study. All participants voluntarily signed an informed consent form. The collected data were analyzed with a grounded theory approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2008), using MAXQDA (Version 11), computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS).

III. Results and Discussion

Difficulties the participants had in English writing can be divided into three levels: macro, micro, and situational levels. At the macro level, the participants experienced difficulty with providing detailed explanations or developing their ideas logically in English. They also complained that they sometimes did not know what to write at all in English. As for the organization of the research article, they had trouble with introduction, motivation, and method sections. One student particularly said that it was somewhat difficult for him to start each section. At the micro level, a variety of categories were found. The participants wondered if their expressions were correct, were used a lot (by other people), or were grammatical. They also worried about their repetitive or monotonous expressions. They wanted to acquire various expressions or find appropriate expressions. They were confused about noun forms (i.e., singular/plural), proper nouns, the tense, to-infinitives, prepositions, collocations, and articles. To some of the participants, even completing a sentence was difficult. Others commented that their sentences were not concise. At the situational level, writing on a new unfamiliar research topic was not easy even for experienced doctoral students who had to write a research proposal for the lab or, as secondary authors, had to help master's students submit papers. One of the frequent complaints was that they did not have enough time they could spend on writing.

The first strategy they employed was replacement. They replaced difficult expressions with what they already knew. Secondly, they sought help from other people such as professors and language professionals. They also consulted non-human references including Google/Google Scholar, bilingual dictionaries, monolingual dictionaries, other papers, previous papers of their own, Google News, and Wikipedia. However, the interview data show that they were not well aware of the importance of paraphrasing and summarizing in using outside sources. Finally, some students resorted to their mother tongue, translating Korean into English.

Lastly, while the participants took English 101 (e.g., College English), attended private English institutes, or watched American dramas to increase their general English skills, they did not have enough experience of receiving systematic training on academic or technical English writing. According to the doctoral students, the lab professor, who deeply worried about his students' lack of English proficiency, invited an instructor at the language institute of the same university a few years ago to teach technical English writing for one month. One master's student (M2) took a foreign professor's undergraduate EMI/CBI major course before. However, he said that he had not received any language-related feedback from him (Kang & Park, 2005). Except for one-month technical writing instructions which doctoral students received a few years ago, there was no effort made to increase the students' academic or technical English writing skills before the researcher was hired. Although there are several English courses for undergraduate engineering students at this university, one master's student (M1) indicated that those courses were not popular among his Korean classmates.

IV. Conclusion and Implications

Findings show that, although the participants had various types of difficulties at macro, micro, and situational levels, the sources of help they relied on seem to be limited and can cause serious danger in combination with the lack of appropriate academic English writing skills and ethics (Park, Chang, & Lee, 2013). It is thus necessary to find efficient measures to provide systematic EAP instructions for graduate science and engineering students in Korea, considering not only their language difficulties but also their situational constraints.

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BIODATA

Ji-Yeon Chang is a visiting researcher at Education Research Institute at Seoul National University, where she earned her doctoral degree in foreign language education. She is also a lecturer at Myongji University, Sungkyunkwan University, and Korea National Open University. Her research interests include academic English writing, corpus linguistics, and English teacher education.

Email: jchang200@gmail.com

Phone: (02) 880-7615

Prospective Middle School Students' Reflections and Expectations on Public English Education

Wooyoung Park (Hanyang University)

I. Introduction

In Korea, every second week of February sees about 400,000 6th grade elementary students singing the Graduation Song in their school while reflecting the past six years and expecting the upcoming days of middle school education. As a former elementary English school teacher with 12 years of teaching career, the researcher had had a question in mind which talks silently within his mind, "*Congrats, folks. How was your elementary English class for the last four years? And how do you expect your middle school English?*" Because no else around had ever asked such questions until then, the researcher considered to say the question aloud to the graduating elementary students about their feelings about the public English education for the first time in his career. Finally the thought turned into an action that actually took place this spring.

In fact, the researcher who previously taught 6th graders English for ten years had never asked his former students of how they got along with their middle school English education. According to the former students, middle school English teachers never asked about their experience of elementary English. Moreover, 6th grade teachers do not know at all how their former students struggle with their upgrade English and 7th grade teachers do not think about their current students' past experience, i.e. initial needs analysis.

This preliminary study investigates how prospective middle school students perceive and expect on their public English education. The significance of this study was to answer the following two questions. How do prospective middle school students perceive their elementary school English education? What are the general perceptions about the expectations on their middle school English educations?

II. Literature Review

1. Learner Needs Analysis

Nunan (1999) stated that courses have to be designed for learners, not having them fit in the course in order for the authentic communicative language teaching to take place. He suggests that content needs as well as process needs analysis be administered by the language education stakeholders. Process needs analysis refers to the initial, ongoing, and post-periodic investigation that is carried out before, during, and after a curriculum, course, syllabus is implemented. Especially when considering the connection between elementary and secondary English education, post-periodic examination of the course or curriculum should be carefully conducted so that the learners in the transitional period will not have many difficulties in adapting to the level of English education. Unfortunately no study has been conducted with this regard to how graduating elementary learners of English evaluate their four years of public English education.

2. Lack of Collaboration between Elementary and Secondary English Education Stakeholders

Unfortunately there are little information or previous research findings on the exact gap between grade 6 and grade 7 English. However, Table 1 shows there exists some significant gap between elementary and secondary English education. By the time students become 6th graders, about 66 per cent learners' overall English proficiency reaches high level. In three years, only 25 per cent learners' proficiency reaches high. Moreover, basic and low level students increase almost twice. This means that, unlike elementary English education, more proportion of learners are likely to have trouble in catching up with secondary English. Boo et al. (2003) pointed out that once the elementary school students advance to middle school their attitudes are more likely to be negatively influenced by increased amount of written English and grammar in learning materials and methods. Boo et al. further more stated that by the time students graduate from elementary school most learners have had very positive attitude toward their English learning but this abruptly changes after they enter middle school.

Table 1
Distribution of 2010 NAEA English Test Achievement Level

Achievement Level	Grade 6		Grade 9	
	N	%	N	%
High	399,169	66.1	166,909	25.4
Intermediate	103,222	17.1	279,403	42.4
Basic	89,127	14.7	185,975	28.3
Low	12,824	2.1	25,958	3.9

Source from Kim (2011)

III. Methodology

205 graduating elementary students (112 boys and 93 girls) in Seoul and Gyeonggi-Province were selected and asked to answer a questionnaire. The survey was conducted in three public elementary schools in Seoul and four public elementary schools in Gyeonggi Province from February 4th to February 8th, 2013. The questionnaire consisted of 20 questions in total: three items about personal backgrounds, ten items about elementary English education, and seven items about the expectations of middle school English. The researcher informed the subjects about the reason this survey was conducted to themselves and the subjects were given the questionnaire to answer about one week before they had the commencement. After they finished answering the questionnaire, all the questionnaires were returned to the researcher. The results of the questionnaire were analyzed with SPSS Version 20.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Reflections on Elementary School English Education

The results of the survey questions on personal reflections on elementary school English education are as follows. First, 104 (51.5%) students replied that they did not have any difficulties with elementary English education. Second, 110 (53.9%) students answered that the vocabulary size of elementary school English was affordable, whereas 28 (13.7%) students answered that the vocabulary size was challenging. Third, 57 (27.8%) students ranked “writing” as the most challenging field in their elementary English education, and speaking (18.4%), vocabulary (15.9%), listening (12.4%), reading (2.5%), communication with native speaker English teachers (0.5%) followed in order. Fourth, 127 (62%) students replied that the most interesting part in English class was playing games or activities whereas the least interesting part was doing projects at the end of each lesson (6%). Finally, 68 (33.2%) students replied that native speaker English teachers helped improve their English, whereas 75 (36.6%) students said that native speaker English teachers were not very helpful in improving their English.

From these results, it is found that the overall level of elementary English is considered quite easy. However, the expressive skills such as writing and speaking are more challenging than receptive skills in their learning. What is interesting above is that the contribution of native speaker English teachers is not evaluated as high as expected from the researcher’s perspective. Further study is needed to find out more about this issue.

2. Expectations on Middle School English Education

The results of the survey questions on the expectations on middle school English education are as follows. First, 70 (35%) students replied that their experience of task-based elementary English would not be helpful very much when they study middle school English. Second, 123 (60.6%) students replied that there would exist a difference between middle and elementary English especially when it comes to increased portion of grammar and written English. Third, 91 (45%) students replied that spoken-based English education in elementary would have an influence on their middle school English. Fourth, 80 (39.2%) students replied that the priority of their middle school English is studying more vocabulary and grammar, and reading comprehension practice of more complicated sentences (21.6%) followed in priority. Finally, 102 (50.3%) students replied that they expect to learn English from native speaker English teachers in middle school.

The results above indicate that the prospective recipients of middle school English education do not have

sufficient information about what kind of contents they will learn and which part will be more challenging in comparison to elementary English education.

V. Conclusion

The results demonstrate that more than half the students graduating from elementary schools perceive their first public English education as relatively easy to deal with and that they seem to be quite satisfied with activity-based spoken approach to their elementary school English education. The results also show that prospective middle school students seem to be concerned about middle school English since there may be some differences between elementary and middle school English education and that experience of elementary school English education would not be supportive to middle school English education in that they believe elementary English is spoken and activity-oriented whereas secondary English is such as opposite case.

However, the limitations of this research suggest that wider scale of further investigations have to be implemented about how middle school learners of English perceive the difference and whether this trend is related to the contrastive fall of their academic achievement rate in comparison to their elementary days. Along with this, the examination of what factors in middle school English curriculum make new learners of middle school English frustrated and unmotivated should be carefully conducted.

This study provides implications that there should be needs analysis before and after a certain curriculum is carried out to reflect the recipients' opinions of public education and improve the quality English education. In order for this to be successfully implemented, there needs collaboration between elementary and secondary level English education stakeholders.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

Questions
1 What is your gender?
2 Have you ever received extra-learning after school from <i>hagwon</i> , private tutoring, etc.?
3 If you answer 'yes' above, how long have you received extra-learning after school?
4 Compared to 5 th Grade English, how was 6 th Grade English?
5 How was vocabulary level in elementary English?
6 How much helpful were such activities as games, songs, chants, role-play, etc.?
7 Which part was the most challenging if any?
8 How much did native speaker English teacher help improve your English?
9 Which part was the most interesting in elementary English?
10 How much do you think the experience in elementary English will be helpful for to learn secondary English?
11 How hard do you think will the secondary English be?
12 How do you think about the influence of spoken-based elementary English on your secondary English learning?
13 Will such activity-based methods as games, songs, chants, role-playing be helpful to your secondary English learning?
14 Do you think that secondary English will be very different from elementary English?
15 If there's any difference, which part will be most different?
16 Which part in secondary English will be most challenging?
17 Are you currently doing anything for secondary English preparation?
18 How are you preparing for secondary English?

- 19 What kind of effort do you think you need most to improve your English when you go to middle school?
20 Do you think native speaker English teacher will be helpful to your secondary English learning?
-

BIODATA

Wooyoung Park, a former primary school teacher for 12 years, is a doctoral student of Hanyang University. His academic interests include discourse analysis, CALL, literacy education, children's literature and teacher education. Currently he is working on his dissertation about non-native English teachers' classroom discourse.

Email: eduranger@hanyang.ac.kr

Phone: (02)2220-1140

A Study on English Writing Teaching Anxiety of Korean Secondary School Teachers: Scale Development and Validation

Kyung Eun Lee (Sinseo High school)

I. Introduction

Learning how to write in second/foreign languages is one of the most challenging aspects of second/foreign language learning. Writing is a complicated process that involves choosing appropriate language and materials, recognizing and monitoring of expected readers' feedback and it needs to be systematically learned with more effort in longer period than any other skill does (Byrne, 1988; Hedge, 1988; Raimes, 1983). In reality, however, the actual practice of English writing teaching and learning cannot keep up with the learners' demand. In light of the reality that underestimates the English writing education, the public education area has no great solution with high anxiety. Furthermore, similar to TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), as the development of NEAT (National English Ability Test) in Korea is expected to replace K-SAT, four skills including English writing are expected to be evenly assessed. In this context, secondary English writing education in Korea means a lot more than a mere part of the whole curriculum.

Accordingly, it is undeniable that the English writing teaching expertise of Korean secondary school teachers is one of the most important factors in public English education in Korea. As Horwitz (1996) mentioned, most nonnative L2 teachers have L2 teaching anxiety which can negatively influence the instruction. However, a great body of research has been devoted to examine the role of anxiety mostly in L2 learning or the overall teaching anxiety, not specifically in writing. The study of English writing teaching anxiety of Korean secondary school teachers will be meaningful for establishing more appropriate direction for L2 writing instruction in this transitional period of English assessment in Korea.

II. Literature Review

1. Second/foreign Language Teaching Anxiety

The concept of anxiety is, as Scovel (1978) mentioned, 'not a simple, unitary construct that can be comfortably quantified.' As a matter of fact, the early studies on the relationship between anxiety and achievement in L2 yielded contradictory and confusing results, because of the inconsistency of the numerous instruments used to measure the construct. Finally, Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) developed FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Scale) and a great body of studies followed to figure out the relationship between anxiety and the L2 learning. However, the limitation was there in respect to the point that the studies were more focused on the speaking constructs other than other skills.

Compared to the studies on the learning anxiety, the studies on language teaching anxiety are relatively scant. Horwitz (1992, 1993, 1996) explored the relationship between the L2 teacher's anxiety and the preferred method of teaching. The researcher concluded that the L2 teacher's anxiety limits the use of the target language, and therefore, made them teach in more reserved way. With this in mind, Kim & Kim (2004) developed FLTAS (Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety) considering the EFL environment and tried to find out the characteristics of L2 teaching anxiety.

2. Second/foreign Language Writing Anxiety

In the last few years, anxiety research has increasingly focused on identifying and examining skill-specific foreign language anxiety including second language writing anxiety. Daly & Miller (1975) recognized the generally existing writing anxiety and developed the WAT (Writing Apprehension Test) and then SLWAT (the Second Language version of Writing Apprehension Test) has been developed and mainly used to study L2 writing anxiety. To overcome the limitation of SLWAT, Cheng (2002) developed SLWAI (Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory) and Atay & Kurt (2006), and Kurt & Atay (2007) utilized the inventory and

concluded that more than half participants experienced high level of writing anxiety and using SLWAI enabled writers to recognize their errors and reduce the level of writing anxiety.

Analyzing the prior studies, it was found that there is almost no research on writing teaching anxiety. Moreover, there is almost no development of the scale of writing teaching anxiety taking account of Korean L2 writing teaching environment. Therefore, this study aims to identify the constructs of English writing teaching anxiety perceived by Korean secondary school teachers, to develop and validate the English writing teaching anxiety scale suitable for Korean teaching environment, and to suggest how nonnative English teachers should alleviate the anxiety, taking account of their difficulties in teaching English writing.

III. Method

The preliminary scale was developed based on the focus group interview with five high school teachers and five middle school teachers. Following conducting the preliminary test, item analysis and exploratory factor analysis were employed to determine the final make-up of the English writing teaching anxiety scale that consists of thirty-one items within eight constructs: teacher-intrinsic, teacher-extrinsic, teaching-environmental, shortage of time, assessing writing, teaching writing, work overload, and learner-related factors. A total of 103 nonnative secondary school English teachers responded to the final questionnaire with multiple responses and open-ended questions.

IV. Findings

The findings are as follows.

First, among the eight constructs of English writing teaching anxiety, the major anxiety-provoking factors were 1) overloaded work, 2) shortage of time, and 3) the level difference in learner-related factors. This is noticeable in that most previous studies put the teacher-related factors as most anxiety-provoking. Second, the English writing teaching anxiety scale of Korean secondary school teachers was found valid, showing good reliability and adequate validity by means of correlation and factor analysis. Third, the analysis of internal variables showed the difference in levels of anxiety among groups. Teachers in small and medium-sized cities feel more anxiety due to teacher-intrinsic factors than teachers in Seoul do. In addition, teachers who work for the school with six to ten classes in one grade have greater anxiety for overloaded work than teachers in school with no more than five classes in one grade do. In terms of language ability, the teachers whose English writing ability they thought was intermediate have greater anxiety related to teacher-intrinsic and extrinsic factors, whereas the teachers who believed that they have advanced English writing ability have relatively less teacher-related anxiety.

V. Discussion and conclusion

Based on the result of the study, these suggestions are made to alleviate English writing teaching anxiety: First, the practical measures should be taken in order to lessen the number of students in one classroom and the burden of overloaded administrative work. Second, to reduce the gap between the learners' English writing ability, the portion of English writing should be systematically increased, and the sequential learning of English writing should be established from the middle school curriculum. Third, clearly defined scoring English writing criteria should be developed. Fourth, the development of beneficial in-service teachers' training programs is required. Fifth, appropriate consulting with applicable English writing teaching methods should be provided by measuring English teachers' writing ability and anxiety on a regular basis.

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APPENDIX

English Writing Teaching Anxiety Scale for Korean Secondary School Teachers

Constructs	Item	
Teacher-intrinsic	7	I am not confident about my English writing ability.
	8	I feel anxiety when I correct my students' writing during class.
	9	I feel anxiety when I correct my students' writing outcome because I am not sure if I am correcting right.
	11	I am afraid that I would be compared to other colleagues.
	12	I am afraid of the situation itself that teaching writing becomes compulsory.
	14	I feel anxiety because I did not get appropriate in-service teacher training related to teaching English writing.
	17	I feel anxiety due to the lack of knowledge about theories and methods of teaching English writing.
	23	I feel anxiety due to the lack of knowledge about theories and methods of assessing English writing.
Teacher-extrinsic	10	I am worried about the discrepancies of opinions between colleagues.
	13	I am worried that my English writing teaching class is not compatible with my head teachers' or vice principals' demand.
	15	I am anxious that I would not cooperate well with native teachers when teaching English writing.
Teaching-environmental	21	I am worried about the low motivation for writing English among learners.
	22	I am worried about the class time for teaching English writing.
	27	I am worried that teaching English writing would widen the gap between learners.
	28	I am worried that there are no tools or facilities for English writing education.
	29	I am anxious that there is no national or social objective for English writing education.
	31	I am worried that teaching English writing might increase the students' dependence on private education.
Shortage of time	5	I am worried about the lack of time for preparing English writing class.
	6	I am worried about the lack of time for assessing English writing.
Assessing writing	24	I am anxious that the scoring criteria would be unclear when assessing English writing.
	25	I am anxious that I would be too subjective when scoring English writing.
Teaching writing	26	I am anxious that students and parents might complain after assessing English writing.
	18	I am anxious that there are no appropriate materials or teacher's guide for English writing.
	19	I am anxious that there are no appropriate materials or teacher's guide for English writing.

	20	I am worried that the current textbook I am using is not appropriate for English writing instruction.
Work overload	1	I am worried that the number of students per class is too high.
	2	I am worried that the number of English writing outcomes to assess is too high.
	3	I am worried that the overall level of students' English ability is too low.
Learner-related	4	I am worried about the huge gap of English writing ability between students.
	16	I am worried that writing in English is too hard for students.
	30	I am worried that students lack thinking ability for English writing.

BIODATA

Kyung Eun Lee received Master of Education in English Education from the Graduate School of Education, Yonsei University, Seoul, Korea. She is currently working as a regular English teacher at the department of the liberal arts and language at Sinseo High School, Seoul, Korea. Her research interests include second/foreign language writing, learning strategies in learning English, and teachers' perception.

Email: shelly17@hanmail.net

Perceptions on Punctuation: University Students' Views and Voices

David E. Shaffer (Chosun University, Korea)

I. Introduction

Punctuation is an often overlooked area of ESL/EFL writing and learning. Research on punctuation is minimal and tends to look at ways in which punctuation can be taught. Very little is available on how EFL students actually feel about using English punctuation, other than that it is necessary to use it if one is writing in English. They may have different notions about how English punctuation functions, often based on its use in their L1 and often based on encounters with it when reading. The relative absence of research on punctuation may in part be due to confusion over where it fits into language teaching. It has a strong association with writing, but some (e.g., Araman & Wiggin, 1997) have noted its impact on reading comprehension and therefore suggest a need to address it in reading instruction. Also, punctuation's functions are apparently grammatical in nature. Where it should be taught in an English program is quite unclear: in a general English or grammar class, a writing course, or a reading course?

Given that the functions of punctuation are grammatical in nature, it might seem to be part of the grammar family. However, even the most popular grammar books do not give a separate section for the treatment of grammar (e.g., Azar, 1989; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Cowan, 2008; Thornbury & Watson, 2007). McCourt (2003) goes as far as to distance punctuation from grammar. This ambiguity as to the positioning of punctuation within the English curriculum, and its subsequent lack of treatment, has consequences not only for instructional practices, but also for assessment.

This paper reports on a study of university students' attitudes toward English punctuation as a first step toward generating a deeper understanding of Korean students' use of punctuation. The attitudinal statements in the survey are in the areas of ease of understanding rules, L1 transfer and interference in L2 punctuation use, ability to identify errors, confidence in using punctuation, focus on punctuation in essay drafts and less formal academic writing, and ease of using and importance of each type of punctuation. The results suggest that students are generally somewhat positive and confident about their use of English punctuation, varying their use of punctuation somewhat depending on the context of the writing.

To complement the survey, a set of tasks were set in which the university student participants were asked to punctuate a text and several short strings to give specified meanings to these texts. In an additional task, they were asked to produce text including examples of specified punctuation marks. The results of these tasks reveal that the participants' views of punctuation and their actual performance are at times quite dissimilar. The results of this study have considerable implications for English pedagogy, both in receptive and productive skills, and recommendations are made for tailoring English teaching of punctuation to the present Korean context.

II. Literature Review

Early on, Fowler and Fowler (1931) indicated that punctuation served to show the relation between parts of written language as well as to regulate pace and provide emphasis. Crystal (1987) added to this an indication of the rhythm and color of speech. This idea that punctuation functions to separate parts of a sentence is also supported by Dawkins (1995) as well as Mann (2003), who adds that it serves to give an indication of what is to come next. Carey (1978) states that the function of punctuation is to remove ambiguity and make the relation of words "perfectly clear" (p. 15). To this Truss (2003) agrees, stating that without punctuation "there is no reliable way of communicating meaning" (p. 20). Dawkins (1995) agrees that the punctuation of a good writer is "meaning-dependent, not grammar-dependent" (p. 422).

Mann (2003) indicates that there is a problem of learnability associated with punctuation. Second language learners need to know the function of punctuation marks not present in the written form of their L1 and also the fundamental reason why punctuation is necessary. This is compounded by differences in writing systems and culture differences (see Salem & Lawless, 2011). Without the presence of a unified notion of punctuation, or

even the sentence, it is easy to imagine that second language learners of different linguistic and cultural background will experience difficulty in properly punctuating sentences. This study attempts to develop an understanding of EFL students' punctuation practices and attitudes toward punctuation in order to provide insights into the teaching and learning of English punctuation.

III. Research Method

1. Participants

A total of 113 university students participated in the study. Of these, 92 (81%) were juniors and senior English majors in a large Korean university. The remaining 21 were freshman and sophomores. Their mean age was 22. Eighty one (72%) had taken a university-level composition course previously.

2. Instruments

1) Beliefs and Practices Survey

One instrument for this study was an online survey created in SurveyMonkey. In addition to biographical data on the participants, the survey questionnaire consisted of three parts, adapted from Hirvela, Nussbaum, & Pierson (2012). The first part contained 17 items, focusing on how often participants engaged in various punctuation-related practices and to what extent they felt confident about their practices. This part used a Likert scale featuring choices from (1) "never" to (5) "always." The second part contained 16 items looking at the participants attitudes toward punctuation by asking for their level of agreement with various statements, using a six-point Likert scale with choices from (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." The third part featured two items with several parts to each item. For the first of these items, participants were asked to self-rate their ease of use of various types of punctuation (period/full stop, comma, colon, semicolon, quotation mark, question mark, exclamation point, apostrophe, hyphen) using a five-point Likert scale, with choices from (1) "easy" to (5) "difficult." The final item asked the participants to rate the importance of the same types of punctuation for writing academic essays in English, with five Likert-scale choices from (1) "very important" to (5) "not important."

2) Text Punctuation Tasks

The second instrument administered in this study was a set of two punctuation tasks (N = 88). The first task, a letter text punctuation task, consisted of an unpunctuated, 62-word text in the form of a letter. If punctuated one way, it would read as a love letter, but punctuated another way, it would read as a break-up letter (see Appendix). The second task, a two-way sentence punctuation task, consisted of an unpunctuated seven-word sentence that if punctuated one way would depict women in a bad light, and if punctuated another way, would portray women as being very important (see Appendix).

3) Sentence Punctuation Task

The third instrument administered in this study was a task that required the participants (N = 72) to produce sentences as examples of the proper usage of specified punctuation marks. The participants were asked to produce sentences exemplifying the use of the period/full stop, question mark, exclamation point, semicolon, hyphen, comma, colon, quotation marks, apostrophe, and parentheses.

3. Procedure

The online survey created in SurveyMonkey was open to respondents for four weeks to complete the survey. The students were first given the survey's internet address on paper in class and the students were asked to complete the survey in their free time. Afterwards, verbal reminders were given intermittently, and after 10 and 20 days, text messages containing the survey URL were also sent out to remind the students to complete the survey. The punctuation tasks were administered concurrently as a pencil-and-paper procedure. The participants were instructed to punctuate the letter text in the paragraph punctuation task so that it would read as a break-up letter. For the two-way sentence task, the participants were instructed to punctuate the first string of given text to depict women negatively and to punctuate the second string of text to depict women positively. They were given about 20 minutes to complete the two tasks. The participants were asked to produce on paper one sentence each exemplifying the use of the period/full stop, question mark, exclamation point, semicolon, and hyphen, and two

sentences each exemplifying two different usages of the comma, colon, quotation marks, apostrophe, and parentheses. They were given 20 minutes to complete the task.

IV. Results and Discussion

1. Beliefs and Practices Survey

On the survey of students' punctuation-related practices and confidence, the most common response will be mentioned here for the most significant items in the beliefs and practices survey (due to space limitations), while the percentages for the responses appear in the tables below. The percentage of respondents selecting a response item will appear in parentheses, e.g., "(36.3)." Respondents indicated a general lack of confidence in the correctness of their punctuation. They are only sometimes confident in writing academic essays (36.3), in messages to teachers (41.6). The respondents only sometimes ask friends and relatives for punctuation help (42.5), and ask teachers for help (46.9). This indicates a lack of interaction with others for expertise or opinions on punctuation correctness. Also, their frequency of making corrections is not high. They fairly often make corrections or changes in writing academic essays (30.1), but only sometimes make corrections or changes when posting online (38.1).

Respondents sometimes pay attention to punctuation in writing an academic essay's first draft (29.2), and fairly often do so on the final draft (28.3). They think that L1 interference only sometimes causes them to make punctuation errors (34.5), but very importantly, think that their high school teachers never taught them the rules of English punctuation (43.4). If this is a correct characterization of the present state of affairs for punctuation instruction, it is obvious that corrective action needs to be taken.

On the survey of the respondents' attitudes toward punctuation, the respondents moderately agree that English punctuation rules are easy to learn (35.4) and that knowledge of English punctuation is important for a good score on the TOEFL essay (28.3). They moderately disagree that it is easy to identify their own punctuation errors when revising their English writing (44.2). As to the importance of correct punctuation, the respondents agree that it is necessary to create a good academic essay in English (36.3). They moderately disagree that it is more important than correct grammar (37.2), but they moderately agree that English teachers should spend more time teaching punctuation (43.4). They also moderately agree that teachers should pay close attention to punctuation when reading and grading essays (38.1). Significantly, the respondents strongly disagree that they had good punctuation in high school (38.9), which again suggests that a change in instructional practice is called for.

The respondents were asked how easy it is for them to use each of the nine most common types of punctuation (period/full-stop, comma, colon, semicolon, quotation marks, question mark, exclamation point, apostrophe, and hyphen). They indicated that all but three were easy – the period, comma, quotation marks, question mark, exclamation point, and apostrophe. The colon was considered moderately difficult to use (32.7%), the hyphen somewhat difficult (33.6%), and the semicolon also somewhat difficult to use (41.6%).

The respondents were also asked how important each of the nine types of punctuation was in English essay writing. They indicated that five were very important – the period, comma, question mark, exclamation point, and apostrophe. Quotation marks were considered to be somewhat important (41.6%), while the colon (55.8%), the semicolon (54.0%), and the hyphen (46.0%) were considered to be only moderately important.

2. Text Punctuation Tasks

1) Letter Text Punctuation Task

Properly punctuated, the letter text in the paragraph punctuation task (see Appendix) contains 13-15 punctuation nodes (2 commas are optional). For only 5 of the 15 punctuation nodes did the participants provide the correct punctuation mark over 50% of the time (range: 51.1-72.7). These punctuation marks consisted of 3 commas and 2 periods. One punctuation node was punctuated with an incorrect punctuation mark over 50% of the time (61.3%) – an optional comma node. An additional comma node was incorrectly punctuated more often (43.2%) than correctly punctuated (14.8%) or left unpunctuated (42.0%). Overall, the 15 punctuation nodes were correctly punctuated 28.0% of the time, incorrectly punctuated 16.2% of the time, and not punctuated 55.8% of the time. It is also worthy of note that in both cases where the plurality of responses was incorrect punctuation, a comma was involved – a punctuation mark for which the plurality of respondents labeled it a "very important" punctuation mark. This low percentage of correct punctuation suggests a very limited knowledge of the rules for

correct punctuation among the participants. The much higher absence of punctuation in comparison with incorrect punctuation suggests that rather than learning or being taught punctuation usage incorrectly, there is a serious lack of knowledge of proper punctuation usage.

2) Two-Way Sentence Punctuation Task

In this task, the participants were asked to punctuate the given sentence (a woman without her man is nothing) two different ways: first to mean that women are unimportant, and second to mean that women are very important. Each sentence contained three punctuation nodes, the third node in both cases being a period at the end of the sentence. For the first and second punctuation nodes of sentence 1, the absence of punctuation was the most common response, (63.6%) and (70.5%), respectively. Responses were correct only 25.0% and 22.7% of the time in this sentence containing only basic punctuation (A woman, without her man, is nothing.), and thereby assumed to be easy to punctuate. For the first and second punctuation nodes of sentence 2, the absence of punctuation was again the most common response, (60.2%) and (63.6%), respectively.

Responses were correct only 8.0% and 28.4% of the time in sentence 2, containing somewhat less common punctuation at the first punctuation node (A woman:--/! without her, man is nothing.). At the first punctuation node, either a colon, a dash, or an exclamation point was considered as acceptable. It is very important to note that although a period at the end of a declarative sentence is generally considered to be the most basic and most commonly used punctuation, only about half of the participants correctly placed a period at the end of either sentence – 54.4% for sentence 1 and only 41.0% for sentence 2. This is most clearly an indication that the participants (a) lack knowledge of even the most basic of punctuation rules, and/or (b) lack a sense of importance for correct punctuation, and or (c) were careless in completing this punctuation task.

3) Sentence Production Task

On the sentence production task, participants performed well on the sentence-final punctuation marks of period, question mark and exclamation point with 100%, 98.6%, and 100% correct sentence examples, respectively (see Table 7). However, for the comma and hyphen, the produces only 22.2% and 12.5% correct examples, respectively. Of the six punctuation marks for which the participants were asked to produce two usage examples, more than 50% of the participants produced two correct sentences in only one instance (comma; 63.9%). This was followed by 33.8% and 33.3% of the participants producing two correct sentences for the apostrophe and quotation marks, respectively. However, a high percentage of 58.3%, 48.6%, and 44.5% of the participants could produce no correct examples of the usages of the colon, parentheses, and the dash, respectively. The context for this task was free; it would not be expected that correct usage percentages would be greater in a context-specific situation, which writing generally is.

V. Conclusions

From the survey results, we find that the respondents tend not to feel confident about the correctness of their punctuation, tend not to check their punctuation, and tend not to make changes to their punctuation. This quite likely stems from the fact that they feel that they were never taught about punctuation in high school. The respondents consider correct punctuation to be important, but concede that they have difficulty recognizing errors in its use and consider other aspects of writing to carry more importance than punctuation. Colons, semicolons, and hyphens are considered the most difficult punctuation marks to use, and it is precisely these punctuation marks that are least often used. What is most noteworthy is how strongly the respondents indicated that they were not taught about punctuation rules in high school and were not taught good instruction in punctuation use (two questions).

The task results confirm the survey results in which the respondents indicated that they did not feel confident about the correctness of their punctuation. Indeed correct responses were often very low and the omission of punctuation was often very high. The punctuation tasks demonstrate a limited knowledge of correct punctuation usage among the participants. This limited knowledge will constrain learners' written production to less complex and shorter sentence constructions.

These survey results easily lead to the conclusion that satisfactory instruction in English punctuation is lacking in the Korean public school system. In addition, punctuation usage rules are often not intuitive. As Shaw (1993) points out, they are often illogical, like grammar rules, and therefore quite confusing and difficult to learn. It is

therefore suggested that more emphasis be placed on English punctuation, as well as on writing, in both middle and high school, and also in pre-service teacher training programs. Additionally, it is suggested that in-service training programs also include a component on English punctuation, as it would not be surprising for a study similar to this one on English teachers to produce results similar to those found here for university students.

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BIODATA

David Shaffer is an associate professor in the English Language Department at Chosun University, teaching in the graduate and undergraduate programs. His master's and doctoral training was in theoretical linguistics, and he also holds advanced postgraduate certificates in TESOL/TEYL. Dr. Shaffer's academic interests include professional development, and young learner and extensive reading research, as well as English-to-Korean loanwords, conceptual metaphor, and the application of cognitive linguistic concepts to effective teaching techniques. He is also the author of several books on learning English as well as on Korean language, customs, and poetry. Dr. Shaffer is active in numerous ELT associations in Korea and regularly presents at their conferences.

Email: disin@chosun.ac.kr

Office Phone: (062) 230-6917 / Mobile: 010-5068-9179

A Study of Changes in Korean Secondary School Students' English Learning Motivation: Focusing on Retrospective Qualitative Methods

Yu-Jin Lee (Chung-Ang University)

I. Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the changes in four participants' English learning motivation over 5 months. Most previous studies on English learning motivation conducted in Korea to date (Lee, 1996; Im, Park, & Kang, 2009) have focused on determining the factors contributing to English learning motivation or how English learning motivation can be changed by new learning methods. These researches have been conducted mainly using questionnaires. Kim (2005) suggests that it is quite difficult to measure the variation in English learning motivation using questionnaires alone. Therefore, this study focuses on how the participants changed their English learning motivation, and why they underwent this change by using interviews and diaries. The postulated research questions for this study are as follows:

- (1) How has the English learning motivation of the participants changed over 5 months?
- (2) What are the individual differences in the change of participants' English learning motivation?

II. Literature Review

Gardner (2001) presented socio-educational model. In this model, two terms were mostly used in the research of English learning motivation: integrativeness and instrumentality. Integrativeness refers to desire of learning L2 in order to assimilate target community. On the other hand, instrumentality refers to desire of using L2 as a tool for passing exams or career enhancement. Later, Dörnyei (2009) introduced ideal L2 self, which means that learners think of ideal self using L2, and ought-to L2 self, which represents that learners study L2 in order to avoid their negative future. These two concepts were able to relate to instrumentality. According to him, instrumentality can be divided into two different types: instrumentality (promotion) and instrumentality (prevention). Instrumentality (promotion) concerns with achievements and hopes for the future, considered as ideal L2 self. On the other hand, ought-to L2 self can be considered as instrumentality (prevention), which deals with worry of negative outcomes.

III. Methodology

1. Participants

A total of 10 students participated in this study. They were recruited by snowballing sampling. When they first participated in January 2013, they were 6th grade (5 students) and 9th grade (5 students). Currently, they are 7th grade and 10th grade. The reason why I chose 6th grade and 9th grade as the participants of this study was that they had probabilities to undergo quite drastic changes in English learning motivation due to changing school lives. All of the participants live in Seoul or Gyeonggi-do. Most of the participants have never been to another country and only one participant had experienced an overseas trip, though it was for less than a month. Most of the students had studied English at least for about 4 or 7 years. Among 10 participants of this study, I present core 4 participants.

Table 1
The Participants' Background

Name(pseudonym)	Gender	Grade	
Kyung	Female	Middle school 1 st grade	Kyung has never attended English hakwon. She has learned English through formal lessons at school and after school programs. Her father is a school teacher and is good at English. Thus, she has been learning English from her father twice or three times a week.
Hyun	Male	Middle school 1 st grade	Hyun previously attended English hakwon, but does not currently. However, his math teacher at hakwon helps him study English through

			DVDs.
Han	Male	High school 1 st grade	Until 7 th grade Han had regularly attended English hakwon. Upon leaving hakwon, his English proficiency decreased sharply. He worries about his decreasing English proficiency, and thinks it may be due to his decision to leave hakwon.
Seok	Male	High school 1 st grade	Seok has attended English hakwon before, but does not currently. Since entering a technical high school, he has had to stay late at school and sometimes go to school at weekends. This is because he was accepted into an intensive learning program. Thus, he had to frequently miss formal lessons at school.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

According to Croker (2009), gathering data through a variety of methods can increase the reliability of a study's results. Accordingly, I adopt various methods such as pre-interviews, diaries, phone interviews, face-to-face interviews and parent interviews. The data were collected over a period of five months in 2013. Before starting the study, 10-minute pre-interviews were conducted to find out the participants' English learning attitudes. In the first half of 2013, all the participants wrote their English learning diaries every other week, and both phone interviews and face-to-face interviews were conducted once a month. Additionally, parent interviews were conducted twice during the data collection period. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. For the data analysis, reiterative reading method guided by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Grounded Theory approach by Corbin and Strauss (2008) were employed.

IV. Results

1. Middle School 1st Grade Students: Kyung and Hyun

1) Changes in Kyung's and Hyun's English Learning Motivation

In the second month of this study, Kyung felt learning English was enjoyable because she could learn new things through reading. However, at the same time, she still felt that English was tough because of translation difficulties. After she became a middle school student, she told me that she found English more enjoyable than before and understood why she should study English. She reported that her friends positively affected her English learning motivation. Unlike Kyung, Hyun's English learning motivation remained weak during the data collection period. His reason for learning English was to be able to communicate with foreigners, but he did not get much encouragement from his family or friends.

2) Differences in English Learning Motivation Between Kyung and Hyun

According to Kyung's diaries and interviews, Kyung was positively affected by her surroundings, such as a new school environment, friends, and family. On the other hand, Hyun seemed to have weak English learning motivation. Based on the analysis, I determined the reason for Kyung's and Hyun's differing levels of motivation to be related to their future dreams. Kyung's dream job is to be a physical education teacher. She clearly set her goal and what route she could take to achieve it. After entering middle school, she was actually able to see how the physical education teachers taught students. She also started to think what kinds of abilities a physical education teacher needed, and realized that knowing how to speak English was very important. This was because some of her classmates had lived in overseas before entering middle school, so sometimes they talked to teachers in English unconsciously.

On the other hand, Hyun did not have any specific thoughts about his future, though he also wanted to be a physical education teacher. Hyun stated that he wanted to study English so he could freely communicate with foreigners in English, but he did not believe that English was necessary in order to become a physical education teacher. Although Kyung and Hyun both wanted to become physical education teachers, their English learning motivation was affected by how much they thought about their future jobs. Therefore, I suggest that the specific consideration of one's future career is important for English learning motivation.

2. High School 1st Grade Students: Han and Seok

1) Changes in Han's and Seok's English Learning Motivation

Han and Seok both felt that studying English was necessary and both of them tried to do well. After entering high school, their goals for the future were more specific, and they both said that studying English was mandatory for their future. That is, studying English was a tool to help them make better choices.

2) Differences in English Learning Motivation Between Han and Seok

According to Han's and Seok's diaries and interviews, both of them realized the importance of learning English. However, their attitudes towards English were different. Han believes that learning English was necessary only to maintain his decreasing English proficiency and for him to obtain high scores on school exams, which would definitely help him get in to his preferred university. Although he recognized that English was needed for his future, he was stressed by studying English because of its difficulty. On the other hand, Seok considered that learning English would be useful to earn fast promotions in his future company. That was why he really wanted to study English, and why he always tried to participate in English class. He was even sorry that he had to miss formal English class, even though he was busy for preparing a technical competition. Therefore, it is assumed that Han's English learning motivation was focused on instrumentality (prevention), which involved him thinking about an unpleasant future if he couldn't attain high English proficiency. However, Seok's English learning motivation was focused on instrumentality (promotion): he had a bright outlook on the future which was related to high English proficiency.

V. Summary and Implications

This study focuses on four participants' English learning motivation changes using interviews and diaries. According to the results of this study, although Kyung and Hyun had same future jobs, their English learning motivation was totally different. The difference depended on how much they considered their future careers. In the case of Han and Seok, both of them studied English hard, so their English learning motivation was quite high. However, the reason for studying English was different. Han studied English in order to maintain his English proficiency, but Seok studied English as a tool for fast promotions in his future company. Based on the results, there are two implications. First, students need specific career plans to increase their English learning motivation. Second, teachers or parents should guide students to form positive English learning motivation, not by giving them burden of studying but by giving specific advice for their future.

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BIODATA

Yu-Jin Lee is working towards a master's degree at Chung-Ang University. She is interested in the research of English learning motivation and demotivation.

Email: cici0001@naver.com

A Practical English Debate Curriculum: Debate as an L2 Learning Device in an EFL Context

Hyo-Jin Lee (International Graduate School of English)

I. Introduction

Debate classes are gaining in popularity in Korea as awareness of their benefit to effective learner-centered curriculums increases. Debate is an excellent activity for language learning as it engages learners in a range of cognitive and linguistic ways (Krieger, 2005). Debate engages learners both cognitively and linguistically by requiring them to develop logical arguments, deliver them effectively, and draw concrete conclusions at the end. There are many studies that show the effectiveness of debate. Beltran and Lowrie (as cited in Jung, 2006) noted that a lot of listening and speaking skills are needed to conduct a successful debate, and debate has been considered by school teachers to be an effective means of encouraging confidence in language use. Pleisch and Stewart (1998) also emphasized that debate contributes to the development of academic language skills and skill in public speaking. In addition, debate helps ESL/EFL students prepare for effective academic study through teamwork and cooperation, while encouraging critical thinking.

However, practical L2 debate curriculums are still uncommon. Jung (2006) claims that debate has been rarely used in EFL situations due to the belief that debate is a high level technique that non-native English speakers may not handle well. Even if it is strongly believed that debate is an advanced technique, it can still play an effective role as one type of activity in EFL classes. Lee (1999) argued that debate is better than just simple free discussion because it gives learners a goal in talking to one another, so that they can have more active and meaningful interaction. The largest benefits of debate, however, are based on its related activities. Jung (2006) argued that it was through the activities created to help students construct their arguments and present them to the group that students developed not only their academic language skills, but also teamwork and cooperation, skills which served to create even more interaction among group members.

This paper presents a practical class curriculum that utilizes debate as an L2 learning device. It focuses on how to bring the advantages of debate into EFL classrooms. The framework is based on an extra-curricular debate class conducted in a public high, which included fluency practice in L2 speaking along with integrated skills work, combining speaking, listening, reading, and writing.

II. Overall Sequence

Table 1 shows the overall scope and sequence of the debate curriculum. Each class is arranged by topic and sequenced by related activities. Topics should be carefully chosen. Students may be overly familiar with common debate topics such as the death penalty and abortion, and lack interest in debate as a result their inclusion. Class work follows the natural flow of preparatory activities that precedes debate in real-life contexts. Similar to structured or guided discussions (Green, Christopher, & Lam, 1997), the curriculum provides a framework within which learners operate, guiding them through predetermined steps and leading them to the final debate and discussion.

Table 1
Debate Curriculum Scope and Sequence

	Logical thinking	Reading	Critical thinking	Research	Interview	Mind-mapping	Debate	Writing essays
1. School (Regulation)	1) Logical	1) Reading text	1) Issues to think about from the given topic	1) Key words/ Web pages sources	1) Presentation of research results	1) Organizing ideas for debate	1) Debate	1) Writing
2. Media (Privacy)	fallacy							
3. Internet (File-sharing)		2)				(Pros VS Cons)		

4. Sports (National sports)	CQ for background knowledge	2)	2)
5. Society (Employment)		A basic paragraph with	Summary
6. Entertainment (TV programs)		different perspective	3) Opinion
7. Teens (Teen culture)			
8. Literature (Analyzing characters)			
9. Economy (SSM)			

III. Activities and Language Skills

Table 2
Language Skills Related to Activities

	Logical thinking	Reading	Critical thinking	Research	Interview	Mind- mapping	Debate	Writing essays
Language Skills	Listening Speaking	Reading	Reading	Reading Writing	Listening Speaking Writing	Listening Speaking Writing	Listening Speaking	Writing

IV. Debate Format

Debate activity in the proposed curriculum follows the Public Forum Debate format. "It focuses on not only logical, but research based arguments" ("Public Forum Debate," 2013, "Overview," paragraph 1), including different types of argumentation such as the Crossfire Session. It aims to persuade with logical arguments intended to be accessible to a wide audience, and has been a popular type of debate, as it is strongly related to the real-world ("Public forum Debate," 2013). Furthermore, the format is flexible and can be easily scaled to suit real-world classroom contexts which often differ according to student numbers and time constraints.

Table 3
A general Public Forum Debate Format

Team A: First Speaker: Constructive Speech	4 minutes
Team B: First Speaker: Constructive Speech	4 minutes
Crossfire (between first speakers)	3 minutes
Team A: Second Speaker: Rebuttal	4 minutes
Team B: Second Speaker: Rebuttal	4 minutes
Crossfire (between second speakers)	3 minutes
Team A: First Speaker: Summary	2 minutes
Team B: First Speaker: Summary	2 minutes
Grand Crossfire (all speakers)	3 minutes
Team A: Second Speaker: Final Focus/Last Shot	2 minutes
Team B: Second Speaker: Final Focus/Last Shot	2 minutes

V. Conclusion

The framework presented in this paper includes a general outline as well as procedural activities for a final successful debate activity. As Pleisch and Stewart (1998) observed, debate effectively improves both language skills and academic skills for EFL students. I hope debate will be more fully exploited as an effective language learning device in future EFL classes.

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BIODATA

Hyo-Jin Lee is a student at the International Graduate School of English. She runs the JEJU Debate Club, which holds workshops in June. She is interested in language curriculum development for secondary schools and in developing curriculums and activities focused on cooperative and collaborative learning, including debate. Email: hj_lee0201@gmail.com
Phone: 010 5758 4170

Day 2

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EFL Students' Discourse Strategies in an English-medium Undergraduate Seminar

Jungyeon Koo (Seoul National University)

I. Introduction

The current study examines the discourse strategies used in English-medium debate class within the framework of Conversation Analysis framework. The debate is one of the conflict talks whose main activities are agreements and disagreements, and it has been studied by some scholars so far mainly focusing on the bi-party interaction between a teacher and a student, or one student and the other student. Thus far, the discourse strategies in debate class have rarely studied. Compared to the previous studies, this study especially investigates the discourse strategies among students and a professor in an EFL classroom setting. The study also treats multi-party interactions focusing on how students show disagreements in terms of the discourse patterns holding the interactional perspectives.

II. Literature Review

1. Disagreements

Disagreements are defined as "communication of an opinion or belief contrary to the view expressed by another speaker" (Edstrom, 2004: 1499) or as an act which "involves the negation of a stated or implied proposition" (Kakava, 2002: 1539). Therefore, disagreements can be achieved in several different turn designs and have various functions.

1) Turn Designs

Disagreements are the main activity in conflict talk (Grimshaw, 1990). Therefore, some studies on conflict talk have focused on "how speakers disagree with each other." Moreover, as debates are one variety of conflict talk (Yoon, 2009: 9), disagreements are also the primary action in debates. Disagreements can be performed in several different turn shapes and have various functions. Previous studies have examined disagreement expressions and turn-shapes based on their strength, overtness, and function. Another study observed in an institutional setting by Kotthoff (1993) is in the same vein of Greatbath (1992). Kotthoff (1993) shows how the preference structure changes as the argument starts, and how this affects speakers' talk.

The data in this study were from the conversations during the professor's consulting hours between German and Anglo-American students and professors. Here, when the discussion starts, disagreement is produced with a format of a dispreferred action. That is, initially disagreement uses downgrading expressions such as "yeah", "well," "I mean," "I think" and an agreement first strategy using "yes, but" strategy. After the a few turns, however, the use of the dispreference markers decreases and disagreement becomes preferred and even aggravated in its turn shape lexically, e.g., *not of all*, *really* and intonationally, i.e., using loud voice or emphasizing. In other words, disagreements in disputes are dispreferred in the beginning and gradually changes into being preferred.

2) Studies on ESL/EFL

Some studies deal with disagreements in light of interlanguage (IL, hereafter), pragmatics, the participation in group discussion, designing college preparation courses and the lists of functions or expressions in disagreement and other functions (e.g., agree and request clarification) and the way to disagree in the field of EAP. Baldovi-Harlig & Salsbury (2004) displays the features of L2 learners' disagreements in audio-recorded interview data, which are a part of a program connecting ESL students with graduate students. This study is a longitudinal one which lasts for a year. This research examines disagreements in IL pragmatics in terms of three arenas: turn organization, general oral expression, and topic selection. They find that turn organization has increased as time passed and earlier disagreements did not include agreement elements, but strong disagreement may include downgraders based on the time length. This study has a contribution to EAP as the following: (1) it suggests the improvement of disagreement and the developmental patterns of learners' disagreement expressions in IL, and

(2) it shows the value of studying speaking in IL pragmatics studies.

Pearson (1984) deals with 900 minutes of normal everyday chat type conversation and shows that half of the students in an EFL setting at a Japanese university are either not expressing agreements/disagreements when they could/should have done so, or they are expressing it explicitly with the forms such as “*I agree*” or “*I disagree*.” On the other hand, the native speakers in her data disagree with each other much less often than they agree by comparing the frequency of the use of agreements to that of disagreements tokens. She points out that ESL/EFL textbooks often provide equal emphasis to agreement and disagreement and then suggests that English L2 learners are incorrectly led to believe that native English speakers use disagreements as frequently as they express agreement.

Yoon (2009) demonstrates how Korean students disagree with each other in light of the disagreement expressions and the preference structure in an ESL classroom setting. She finds four different types of disagreement expressions used by Korean EFL learners. Yoon also provides the developmental stages of L2 learners’ use of disagreement expressions, i.e., the tendency of partial agreements/disagreements by advanced learners, and overt disagreements by intermediate (or less fluent) learners. Her study provides pedagogically meaningful implications in that very few studies have investigated NNSs’ disagreements in debates before and that her study demonstrates what actually happens in Korean students’ debates in an ESL classroom.

In sum, disagreements are the main activity in debates and some studies about turn designs and disagreements or debates/discussions in EAP areas are reviewed so far. The previous studies are significant because most ESL/EFL students feel difficulty in disagreeing. For that reason, the disagreements are regarded as great challenges by English learners.

2. Discourse Strategies

Here, I will review Waring’s (2000) study mainly in terms of the discourse strategies she used to analyze her data. Her study is based on a graduate students’ seminar course in the U.S., where a small group of native speakers and highly advanced nonnative speakers discuss and debate over various TESL-related topics. In her study, Discourse Strategies (hereafter, DS) are deployed in order to explain various types of participation and discourse management patterns. Since classification of DSs in Waring’s (2000) study is adopted for current study, I will review the concept of DS and detailed classification of it used in Waring (2000).

Following Tannen’s (1984) definition, Waring (2000: 47) uses the term “strategy” in the broad sense as a conversational device that gets things done with no implication of “deliberate planning.” She extends the definition to her own strategies and provides three different types of them: First, conversational management strategies are ways of speaking that manage the floor during each discussion, next, topic management strategies are ways of speaking aimed at the development of understanding, lastly, social management strategies are ways of speaking that maintain the social relations among participants.

1) Dimensions of Discourse Strategies

The types of DSs in Waring’s study are based on the studies on social dimensions versus task dimensions, which mean that it is necessary to consider these dimensions of Discourse Strategies as well. The social dimensions and task dimensions are originally suggested in Bales’ (1970) and cited in Labov & Fanchel (1977). According to them, there are two crucial dimensions of group interaction which have been reiteratively foregrounded in group communication research: task dimension and social dimension (cf. Arends & Arends, 1977; Hanson 1981; Jacques, 1984; Barker et al., 1987; Arnett, 1992; Tracy, 1997, cited in Waring, 2000). The task dimension directly relates to the group’s purpose. The social dimension, in contrast, attends to consolidating the relationships among members of the group.

Waring (2000) also finds that these two dimensions dominate group interaction in her seminar discussion data. That means that participants come together to achieve a task in order to get things done (e.g., devise a plan, solve a problem, or advance ideas) in task dimension.

In the meantime, participants share interests in attending to the group’s social-emotional needs, i.e., maintaining relationships and developing community; this is the affective dimension of group communication.

The task dimension has an inclination to involve “structuring activities, i.e., shifting topics, ending a discussion, and managing manipulative tasks” (Barnes & Todd, 1995: 79, recited in Wong, 2000: 7) and “information-based

exchanges” (e.g., information seeking, information giving, opinion giving, clarifying, elaborating, coordination, orienting, testing, and summarizing (Jaques, 1984: 29, recited in Wong, 2000: 7).

The specific activities concerning the social dimension of group communication consist of “showing solidarity, showing tension release and agreeing” (Bale cited in Labov & Fanshel, 1977: 16, recited in Waring 2000:8). Encouraging, mediating, gatekeeping, and relieving tensions are also believed to perform the social “maintenance” roles (Jaques, 1984: 28-29). Moreover, Barnes and Todd’s (1995: 46-50) research illustrates that supportive behavior constitutes “formal expressions of agreement”, “naming”, “reference back”, “explicit praise” and “expressions of shared feeling”. Tracy (1997) finds in his study on colloquia that conversational practices which mark “friendliness and trust” constitute: idea-crediting, speaking for another, think-aloud speech, humorous remarks, and making the connection between one’s ideas here and now and conversations with other group members outside the event.

2) Types of Discourse Strategies

Waring (2000) divides DSs used in a graduate seminar class into three categories: Conversational Management Strategies, Topic Management Strategies, and Social Management Strategies. Each strategy includes a few types and subtypes. Table 1 below shows how they are organized.

III. Method

The data analyzed in this study consists of nine English-medium classes, which is audio-recorded then transcribed. The class is an English-mediated discussion seminar class, which includes two students’ presentations and a group debate. It is one of mandatory courses for the students who are going to major/minor in the social science in the department of College of Liberal Studies at one of the Universities in Seoul. Each class lasts for 75 minutes and nine classes are collected. The participants are twenty-two Korean students who study in various majors, and two exchange students, who come from Canada and Hong Kong.

IV. Results

Three discourse strategies are used, that is, conversational management strategies, topic management strategies, and social strategies. Before investigating each strategy in three respects, I showed the turn distribution in two folds: (1) students’ turn distribution as the professor’s topic proffer, and (2) overall turn distribution. To be specific, the former, that is, the turn distribution after the professor’s topic proffer has reviewed that both in the very beginning of the class and in his intervention, the professor often interrupts and provides a new topic when there is a topic caveat or the students do not appear to continue the prior topic.

Participations in these positions appear difficult in that the students’ first turn have a tendency to direct the discussion and that on hearing it and that other students join without opposed arguments and disagreements. So, the result shows a skewing pattern in terms of turn distribution. The latter, the overall turn distribution, has observed that limited number of the students participate via the whole classes. The number of the students who have very high frequencies of turn-taking are five (S1, S2, S6, S8, and S10) and these frequencies display a big gap among participants. The skewing is even greater in overall distribution than in the distribution in the former.

Table 1
Students’ Turn Distribution after the Professor’s Topic Proffer

Frequency Participants	After the initial topic proffer	After intervening topic proffers	Total
S1	1	3	4
S2	1	2	3
S6	0	2	2
S7	0	1	1
S8	5	4	9
S9	1	1	2
Total	8	13	21

Table 2
Overall Turn Distribution

Day Participants	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	Total
Professor	24	11	20	17	28	29	20	53	17	219
S1	21	18	16	32	30	34	37	35	14	236
S2	21	13	38	24	12	28	9	7	6	163
S3	3	0	0	2	1	2	1	0	3	12
S4	5	11	0	4	8	3	4	8	10	53
S5	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
S6	10	9	6	13	9	11	17	13	14	99
S7	5	2	0	8	1	0	10	9	0	35
S8	9	7	4	6	5	9	3	12	7	61
S9	7	1	1	7	6	2	2	11	4	41
S10	1	13	18	1	8	11	15	20	3	90
Total	106	85	103	114	108	130	118	169	78	556

To begin with, the conversational management strategies include: (1) the strategy of linking to prior turn with “*adding to X*” or “*add to one’s point*,” and (2) the strategy of making early entries. The two subtype strategies are related to the turn-taking. As for the strategy of linking to prior turn with “*adding to X*” or “*add to one’s point*,” it is employed for relating one’s opinion to the prior talk and connecting the previous points to those by the current speaker in the light of turn-taking. What looks interesting is the current speaker tries to link to the point of the other speaker’s which is situated a few turns before. Concerning the strategy of making early entries, the strategy reflects the current speaker’s projectability for the purpose of making one’s turn by taking in the position before TRP and of showing one’s disagreement.

Next, the topic management strategies encompass the following: (1) three types of disagreement strategies: first, direct disagreement prefaced with “*no*” and “*but*,” second, indirect disagreement prefaced with “*Yeah but*” or “*Yeah X but*,” “*It is true X but*” and “*I agree with X but*,” third, disagreement with questions (yes-no type and Wh-type questions in my data), (2) reformulation prefaced with “*So you’re saying*” and “*You said that*,” and (3) repair whose type is self-initiated and other-completed one such as “*water*” and “*forty-five*” which have lexical TCU whose construction is shown as “*forty-five*” and “*water*.” As for the strategy of reformulation, it displays not only the current speaker’s understanding but also making the speaker’s understanding more explicitly, or in a more “*exposed*” manner (Gonzales, 1996: 189). In addition, the strategy foregrounds a speaker’s understanding bringing it to the conversational table and is inherently related to disagreements in my data because of the nature of the setting, debate. As for the repair, in my data, its TCU consists of a component of repetition and it is answered with hesitation (pause) along with qualified expansions, which give a detailed explanation of the topic that is discussed. The repletion in this excerpt functions as a word-search so that the speaker can continue to expand his turn.

Finally, the social strategies have mitigating strategies which consist of two types: (1) the strategy of vulnerability acknowledging non-understanding, and (2) the strategy of vulnerability for avoiding conflict. The vulnerability-showing strategies are used when the speaker does not have enough knowledge about the topic or the point of argument in the previous turn, and are expressed with the phrases, “*I don’t know*” or “*I don’t remember*” or “*I’m not sure*.” The strategy of avoiding conflict is demonstrated with the citation form prefaced with “*According to X*” when the current speaker admits others’ opinions but wants to speak his/her opinion to mitigate conflict to an opposed participant in a different regard.

V. Conclusions and Pedagogical Implications

The main characteristics in this study are as follows: First, the research data lacks the diversity and intensity of non-native English speakers in the debates. The reason is that the main participation of NNS in the debate sessions was very limited (see Table 1 and Table 2) since the number of main participants in each debate session was 10 out of 24 students and the frequency of the overall turn distribution by NNS participants (S3 to S10, eight students in total) is lower than that of NS students. Consequently, second, the current study has not been able to robustly capture the NNS-NNS interaction as expected. It is assumed that the main reason for the lack of this participation might be assumed to be lack of English speaking fluency combined with the lack of confidence,

or other factors such as not knowing the precision timing to jump in the conversation, or losing the speakership due to irrelevance to the prior talk, and the like.

The current study has an importance in EAP arena in two regards: 1) the class has NS and NNS as the participants, and 2) it is a content-based and an English-medium one. Because of the characteristics of the two features of the class setting, students strongly need to participate in the class and they use specific strategies to join the debate and discussion. In this respect, this study also has a special contribution in EAP studies. This study has some contributions to the understanding of interaction in debate talk. Compared to the previous study, the current study shows multi-party interaction in an English-medium undergraduate Social Science seminar. This study also tries to find the discourse patterns by NNS students. In addition, the present study contributes to the field of EAP at college English level by discussing the strategies and expressions which students use during discussing in an English-medium class.

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BIODATA

Jung-yeon Koo is a Ph.D. student at the department of English Language and Literature in Seoul National University. She is interested in the field of Conversation Analysis, Second Language Acquisition, and Corpus Linguistics.

Email: 9christy@gmail.com

Phone: 82-10-7178-7028

An English Native Speaker Teacher's Development in Teacher Identity and Teaching Skills in Korea

Ju A Hwang (Georgia State University)

I. Introduction

My broad interest in researching on native speaker teachers (NSTs)¹ in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context based on my working experience with NSTs in Korea. Through the two years of teaching experience in Korea as a non-NST of English, I had continuous interaction with NSTs. As a coworker, I was able to observe how these NSTs view their teaching profession and improve teaching skills as well as how much effort they make in developing their teacher identity. Of course, not all of them considered their profession as a permanent career. Some non-NSTs looked down on these NSTs, referring them as 'EFL backpackers' whose primary goal to come to Korea was earning money easily for traveling by teaching English as NSTs without much preparation (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). In my opinion, this skewed perception is regrettable because some of the devoted NSTs are misunderstood by the bias due to the EFL Backpackers. A better understanding of these devoted NSTs could bring a synergy effect for both NSTs and non-NSTs. Unlike some studies focusing on comparing NSTs and non-NSTs in the EFL context (Ma, 2012) or on non-NST in an EFL context (Shin, 2012; Xu, 2012), there are only a handful of studies focusing on NSTs teaching in an EFL context (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). It is an irony considering the numerous NSTs currently working at educational institutes in EFL contexts. Therefore, the present study used a case study approach to shed light on this underresearched area with more detailed descriptions on what kinds of factors have affected 1) teacher identity establishment, 2) teaching skills improvement, and 3) teaching styles changes of an in-service NST with no TESOL and pedagogical majors background. In addition, how these factors affected the NST would be described, if there are any.

II. Literature Review

1. The Native Speaker Norm

There is an ongoing argument in using the terms, native speaker and non-native speaker, in the second language acquisition (SLA) field. Some researchers are against using the term 'native speaker' because it connotes that non-native speakers would never achieve their L2 proficiency like native speakers'. However, even though it is a rare case, there are bilingual and multilingual speakers who can speak nearly like native speakers (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Therefore, these researchers coined other expressions to replace the term (e.g., Edge, 1988; Kachru, 1985, 1992; Rampton, 1990) as well as not to neglect bilingual and multilingual speakers (Belze, 2002; Birdshong, 2004, 2006; Blyth, 1995; Cook 1991, 1999). Nevertheless, these dichotomous expressions, native and non-native speakers, have been used continuously (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Then who are native speakers of a language? According to Bloomfield (1933), people have to learn how to speak a language as their first language to be considered as native speakers (Bloomfield, 1933 as cited in Ahn, 2011). Stern (1983) and Davies (2004) characterized native speakers in a number of ways in their research respectively, and some of them overlap. Both of the researchers mentioned that compared to non-native speakers, native speakers have better subconscious knowledge of syntactic rules and communicative skills in social settings other than classroom settings. However, as other researchers pointed it out, no matter how much an authentic language they can use, it should not be regarded as their ability to teach the language well (Ma, 2012; Schaw, 1979; Seidlhofer, 1999).

2. Advantages and Disadvantages of NSTs as English Language Teachers

There are some common advantages and disadvantages in NSTs' teaching skills according to studies done in EFL contexts. The first advantages are NSTs' competence and proficiency in their first language (L1), English. Compared to non-NSTs, their abilities to use standard and colloquial expressions, idioms, and phrasal verbs in various contexts are considered as an advantage in their classes (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Students insisted that these also motivated their usage of English, especially when NSTs' could not speak or understand their L1,

¹ The term native speaker teachers (NSTs) in this study indicates the native speakers of English.

which forced them to use English (Ma, 2012). At the same time, however, the lack of knowledge in students' L1 is considered as a disadvantage because some students had difficulties in understanding what NSTs were saying or even worse, some of them were anxious in communicating with their NSTs. In addition, this also means that NSTs have difficulties in understanding the students' questions which will be resulted in difficulties in explaining mistakes that students made (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). The second advantage is that NSTs are humorous and use various activities in classes which create relaxing learning atmosphere. Researchers found this based on classroom observation (Árva & Medgyes, 2000) and interview with students (Ma, 2012). Although many students perceived it as one of the advantages that they were able to experience in NSTs classes, some of non-NSTs thought that such NSTs' behavior was unprofessional and the relaxing atmosphere might have given a wrong signal to students to relax too much, i.e., insouciance (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). The last common advantage is that NSTs can increase students' motivation in learning English by promoting the students' understanding in the culture of the target language, some of which are difficult for non-NSTs to provide to their students. Of course, there are more advantages of NSTs as language teachers. However, as illustrated so far, some of these advantages are often considered as disadvantages by students and non-NSTs. Therefore, thorough perceiving these advantages and the issues raised by students and non-NSTs, how NSTs work on improving their teacher identity, teaching styles and teaching skills. Through the better understanding of NSTs' improvement process, non-native teachers should put their bias toward NSTs aside and be supportive to the NSTs who are committed to enhance their students' learning outcomes (Árva & Medgyes, 2000).

3. NSTs' Teacher Identity

Many researchers agreed on identity as changeable, multidimensional, and complex phenomena rather than fixed and unitary ones (Gergen, 1991; Kelchtermans & Vandenberghe, 1994; Norton Peirce, 1995; Sarup, 1996). Moreover, Caldron & Smith (1999) insisted that teacher identities should be considered within the social context the teachers are in because teacher identities are not just given but also have to be achieved by NSTs. Their assertion parallels with Johnston, Pawan, and Mahan-Taylor's (2005) argument that it is difficult to understand the development of NSTs' teacher identity in an EFL context without considering the sociocultural (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Johnston, 1999) and sociopolitical impact of host countries. In addition, Johnston, et al (2005) described a) teacher identity as one of the four factors consist of teacher professional development along with b) teachers' life stories, c) teachers' belief and knowledge in teaching, which affect their teaching style, and d) continuous professional development. They argued that all these four factors are all interrelated in developing teacher professionalism; therefore, teacher professional development cannot be explained without considering the effects these four factors have on each other. Among these four factors, however I am particularly interested in how NSTs perceive their teaching as a profession and relate it to developing their teacher identity. It is related to the ongoing debate on whether teaching in ESL or EFL context is perceived as profession by the teachers (Edstam, 2001; Johnston, 1997). Through this study, I want to describe how a full-time NST thinks about this issue and how it affects his teacher identity. In other words, if he considers his job as a profession, I want to investigate what kind of efforts he makes, and how he overcomes 'perceived (assigned)' identity and 'claimed (felt)' identity (Johnston et al, 2005) while developing their teacher and profession identities, if there are any. The 'perceived (assigned)' identity here means "those identities attributed to her by other people, especially those in the host society" (p. 60) and the 'claimed (felt)' identity means "those identities that NSTs acknowledges or wishes to take for themselves" (p. 60).

III. Method

1. The Participant

John is an American assistant professor in the English Language and Literature department at a university in the southern part of Korea. According to the interviews and his curriculum vitae, he had some teaching experience before coming to Korea. During the interview, however, John pointed out that even though he had jobs in teaching field in the US, teaching had never been his primary job. He usually worked as a car salesman or a ground keeper. In the present study, however, even though he had some teaching experience before going to Korea, it is found that the different language background of his students in the US (English as L1) and Korea (English as L2) affect his teacher identity, teaching style, and teaching skills.

2. Data Collection and Analysis

For the in-depth data collection, a total of two ninety-minute long interviews were conducted with a two week time interval. Before the interview, a set of core and peripheral questions based on the literature on NSTs were prepared as a semistructured guideline. These questions were not asked in a particular order, but asked only if the participant did not initiate any stories based on his experience. The interviews were transcribed in a verbatim manner, and these two yielded three concepts after coding and categorizing process which are teacher identity establishment, teaching style changes, and teaching skills development. In addition, the participant's teaching materials, e.g., syllabi, handouts, presentations, and his written feedback on students' compositions were shared via e-mail. The participant also gave me the access to his e-mail account which is used for receiving his students' composition assignments and giving feedback. Among these sources, I selected three sets of data to triangulate with the interviews: a) the syllabi of his conversation and composition classes, b) conversation midterm instructions and its rubric, and c) one of students writing sample and John's written feedback.

IV. Results

1. Teacher Identity

During the first interview and the beginning of the second interview for some follow up questions, John was explicitly asked about his teacher identity. However, most of the time, he revealed his thoughts on his teacher identity embedded in the stories he was describing through the interviews. From the interviews, his teacher identity was able to categorized in three different ways: (a) how he differentiate himself from other non-NSTs, (b) how his students treat him as a teacher, and (c) how his job status is different from the US.

2. Teaching Skills

John is an NST without any education background in TESOL or any kinds of pedagogy but with teaching experience in the ESL context. Thus, how he has developed his teaching skills to teach Korean students was one of the main aspects investigated regarding to NSTs' professional development in the present study. From the interviews, it is found that John develops his teaching skills based on (a) reflecting his own teaching experience and (b) observing his coworkers.

3. Teaching Styles

According to Korean students' learner personality and English proficiency level John modified his teaching style. In John's perspective, Korean students' reluctance in making errors and mistakes in learning process not only hinders his effort in creating a learning community in his classes but also their own learning. While teaching in Korea, he came to understand why his students are so quiet in classes. Losing a face was the reason. Therefore, in his both conversation and composition classes, especially in the conversation classes, he emphasized the importance of making mistakes in the learning process. In addition, he speaks slowly or use less complex sentences in his classes, especially in conversation classes, due to the low or intermediate proficiency level of his students.

V. Conclusion

The primary goal of this study was to investigate how an inexperienced NST, teaching in a university level, works on his teacher professional development to overcome his lack of professional education and trainings for teaching in an EFL context, Korea. As conducting the study, I expected to come up with positive findings that would present non-NSTs chances to reconsider their bias toward NSTs due to the negative experience from EFL backpackers (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Based on the analysis of the two interviews and various documents from his classes, it was possible to categorize the participant's efforts in various ways, including the three factors I expected: teacher identity development, teaching skills improvement, and teaching style modification. All of these three factors also had sub-factors that made such development, improvement, and modification possible. Based on the present study, I would like to draw a better understanding of NSTs in Korea. With the understanding, non-NSTs can help NSTs provide high quality learning experience to Korean students. Moreover, based on the mutual understanding, both NSTs and non-NSTs can help each group improve their teaching skills. Specifically, I would like to focus on NSTs teaching composition courses in universities so that they can help

non-NSTs of secondary schools in preparing teaching English writing for a new kind of English test called, National English Ability Test (NEAT). Moreover, the non-NSTs can also help NSTs in how to teach or explain English grammar to Korean students. If such plan is possible through further studies, it would benefit the students, NSTs, and non-NSTs. in Korea.

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BIODATA

Ju A Hwang is a graduate student in the Department of Applied Linguistics and ESL at Georgia State University (GSU). She holds an MA degree in Second Language Studies from the University of Hawaii at Manoa. Currently, she teaches English in the Intensive English Program at GSU as a teaching assistant and work for the Georgia State Test of English Proficiency (GSTEP) as a lap assistant. Before joining GSU, she taught various levels of students in universities, private institutes, and a middle school in Korea and Thailand. The areas of her academic interest include second language (L2) pedagogy, L2 writing assessment, and teacher education.

Email: jhwang15@student.gsu.edu

Phone: 070-7571-4391/H.P:+1 (404) 416-1465

Introducing the NEAT Levels 2 and 3 Speaking Section

Chae Kwan Jung (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

I. Introduction

National English Ability Test (NEAT) Levels 2 and 3 have been developed by Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE) and Ministry of Education (MOE) since 2008. The NEAT is an Internet-Based Test (IBT) that assesses Korean students' English proficiency levels on all four skills, namely Speaking, Writing, Listening, and Reading. The NEAT is directly linked to the National Curriculum and it is expected to improve Korean students' speaking and writing abilities that have been under-developed for many years. It is also believed that the NEAT will enhance the quality of public English education by bringing a fundamental change to the English curriculum in Korea.

II. The NEAT Levels 2 and 3 Speaking Section

The NEAT is classified according to career path and needs.

- Level 2(Basic academic English skills): For those in need of basic academic English skills when applying to post-secondary institutions that require Level 2 scores
- Level 3 (Practical English skills): For those in need of practical English skills when applying to post-secondary institutions that require Level 3 scores.

Table 1
Required Skills and Topics in the NEAT Levels 2 and 3: Speaking

	Level 2	Level 3
Skills	- Understand and utilize information relevant to basic academic topic - Describe the academic topic and situation	- Understand and utilize information relevant to practical language used in everyday life - Describe everyday life situations appropriately
Topics in Each Section	- Academic (70%): Humanities, social studies, economics, etc. - Practical (30%): Everyday life, travel, leisure, etc.	Practical (100%): Everyday life, travel, leisure, etc.
Vocabulary	Approximately 3,000 basic words selected from the secondary education curriculum	Approximately 2,000 basic words selected from the secondary education curriculum

Table 2
Description of NEAT Levels 2 and 3: Speaking

	Tasks	Number of Questions (Sub Questions)	Time (Preparation Time)
Level 2	- Answering four questions	1(4)	20 sec each (5 sec prep time)
	- Describing six pictures	1	1 min (1 min prep)
	- Describing and comparing graphs, charts, or tables	1	1 min (1 min prep)
	- Solving a problem	1	1 min (1 min prep)
Level 3	- Answering questions about three pictures	1 (3)	15 sec each (10 sec prep)
	- Answering four questions	1 (4)	15 sec each (5 sec prep)
	- Describing six pictures	1	1 min (1 min prep)
	- Solving a problem	1	1 min (1 min prep)

III. Scoring

Speaking section is scored by certified raters using the following procedure.

- (1) One answer is independently scored by two raters
- (2) If the difference between the two scores is greater than the specified criteria, a third rater scores the answer
- (3) The average score of the two (or three) independent scores is reported as the final score

Table 3
Scoring Domains for Speaking

	Description
Task Completion	- Completion of given tasks - Completion of sub-questions - Appropriateness of the response to the given situation
Fluency	- Speed of speaking - Maintenance of natural speaking without hesitation
Use of Language	- Accuracy of expression - Appropriateness of words
Organization	- Logical connection of spoken words - Consistency and coherence of content
Pronunciation	- Clarity - Intelligibility - Specific English accents or native-like pronunciation is not preferred

BIODATA

Chae Kwan Jung is Associated Research Fellow at Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE). He studied and conducted research in the field of Engineering, Effective Online Tutoring, Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching at the universities of Birmingham, Oxford, and Warwick in the UK respectively. He is the author of *Effective Technical Writing for Korean Scientists and Engineers* (2007) and the co-author of *Corpus Linguistics* (2012). His research interests include Corpus Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Language Testing, Academic and Professional Writing.

Email: ckjung@kice.re.kr

Phone: (02) 3704-5992.

Introducing the Writing Section of the NEAT

Hoky Min (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

Abstract

The writing section of the NEAT is composed of six items for level 2 and level 3. The items for level 2 include “Writing about daily lives,” where the test takers describe their personal experience about a given event or an object and “Expressing one’s own opinion,” where the test takers discuss pros or cons about a given particular issue. The items for level 3, on the other hand, include “Selective picture description with given words.” In this item, the test takers choose one among the three given situations and describe it using given words. In “One-picture description,” they describe the actions or behaviors of the people in a picture. In “Letter writing,” the test takers write an email or a letter based on given an advertisement. Lastly, in “Two-picture description and inference” the test takers describe two given pictures and make an inference about the following situation.

The rating domains of the writing sections are basically content, organization, language use, and task completion. The definition of each of the rating domains is carefully constructed. In the content domain, the main idea in student’s response must be clearly and deeply discussed, providing adequate supporting details. The organization domain tests whether the writing is logical and consistent in cohesion and coherence, thereby increasing the efficiency of the delivery of the information. Language use is the domain which evaluates whether the structure of the sentences, and the usage of grammar and the spelling are accurate. The usage of various expressions and vocabulary must be in accordance with the situation. The flow of the writing should be natural in its various forms, genre, and situations. Finally, the task completion examines whether the given conditions are completed with proper and appropriate sentences, thereby increasing the probability of general comprehension. Here, the rater must eliminate the evaluation of values or truth. The test takers’ written responses are scored by the group of English teachers who have been trained for the online KICE rater training program. The chief raters grade the samples which will be used during the online training in order to compare the trainees' scores for the first and second pilot ratings with their own scores. The trainees are certified by passing the final rating test at the end of the online program. In the 2012-2013 NEAT administrations, the certified raters showed significantly reliable results.

BIODATA

Hoky Min is an associate research scientist at the KICE. He received a PhD in applied linguistics from UCLA. The areas of academic interest include language assessment and language acquisition.

Email: hoky@kice.re.kr

Phone: (02) 3704-5914/H.P: 010-2556-3488

Overview of the National English Ability Test: With Focus on the Listening Section

Tae-joon Park (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

I. Background

The Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology announced innovative plans for English education in November, 2006. Among them, a plan to develop a new national English ability test was publicly reported in July, 2007 as an assessment reform effort to improve students' English ability in speaking and writing. The National English Ability Test (NEAT) consists of three levels according to the purposes and difficulty of testing. Level 2 and Level 3 are based on the national curriculum, and Level 1 is designed for those who need business English test scores. All of them assess the four language skills (Listening, Reading, Speaking, and Writing) in a balanced manner. In this presentation, Levels 2 and 3 of the NEAT are dealt with in detail. Emphasizing practical English skills, the NEAT is designed to replace the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) mainly because the CSAT does not assess speaking and writing skills.

II. Goals and Development directions

Students will acquire basic communicative English skills through school English education. In addition, students will select either NEAT Level 2 or Level 3 based on their aptitude and future career. Level 2 of the NEAT assesses essentially basic academic English, while Level 3 deals with more practical English. The contents of both are aligned with the national curriculum in order to reform school English education. Teacher training programs have been provided that focus on item development, scoring, and instruction with regard to the NEAT.

III. Test Specifications

1. Key Characteristics

Level 2 of the NEAT requires English proficiency necessary for a college or university education. Level 3 focuses on basic and practical English abilities.

Level 2		Level 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Require the degree of English proficiency necessary for a college or university education 	Objective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus on basic and practical English abilities.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No grammar items Focus on communicative skills Topics on Basic Academic English 	Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No grammar items Focus on communicative skills Topics on Practical English: everyday life, work, etc.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3000 words 	Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2000 words
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> English I & II, English reading comprehension & writing, Advanced English conversation 	Alignment with curriculum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> General English, and Practical English conversation

2. Format

Anchor items for test equating are included in the listening and reading domains.

Test Domains	Number of Items & Test period		
	Level 2	Level 3	Test period
Listening	35	35	40min
Reading	35	35	50min
Speaking	4	4	15min
Writing	2	4	35min
Total	76	78	140min

3. Topics: Practical English

Topics	Subtopics	
Practical English	1	Everyday life: transportation, telecommunication, shopping, housing, restaurants, hospitals, beauty , etc.
	2	Travel & leisure: reservations, transportation, concerts, exhibitions, sports, hobbies, cooking, hotels, public places
	3	Family & school life: classes, friends, birthday parties, graduation, counseling, homework, class schedules, examinations, library, test scores
	4	Work related: forms, documents, employment, salaries, marketing, announcements, notices, advertisements, manuals,

4. Topics: Basic Academic English

Topics	subtopics	
Basic Academic English	1	Humanities, sociology, politics, economy, history, education
	2	Science, technology, computer science, information & communication, space, oceans, environment, expeditions
	3	Art, literature, anthropology, philosophy
	4	Labor, job, career, gender equality, aging society, social welfare, population, juvenile problems
	5	Culture, public morality, public order, civil life, voluntary service, cooperation

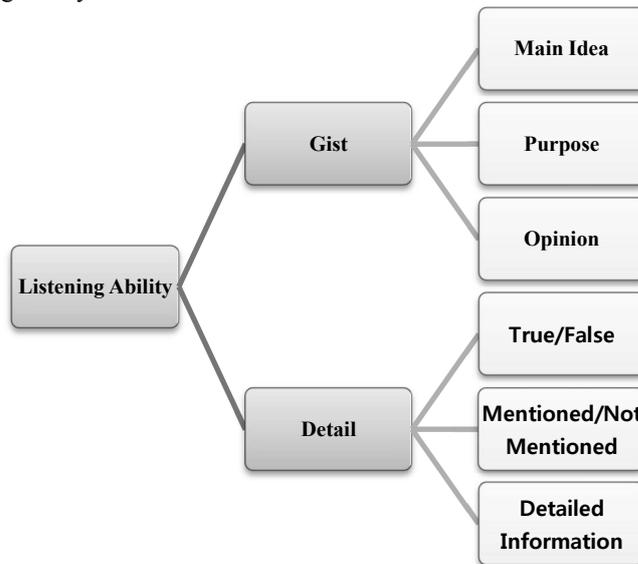
5. Behavioral Domain: Reading & Listening

Inferential and comprehensive understanding items are assessed more in Level 2 than in Level 3. The opposite is true for the literal understanding items.

Section	Behavioral skill	Level 2	Level 3
Listening	Literal understanding	60%	68%
	Inferential understanding	40%	32%
Reading	Literal understanding	32%	44%
	Inferential understanding	56%	48%
	Comprehensive Understanding	12%	8%

6. Listening Framework

The development of test items in the listening comprehension section was based on the following working framework of listening ability.



7. Score Report

Examinees are given a performance level (A, B, C, or D) and its description (performance level description, PLD) for the listening section. The NEAT is a criterion-referenced test using test equating.

1) Criterion-referenced test

- A(Excellent), B(Average), C(Basic), and D(Below Basic)
- Standard Setting (Bookmark Method)

2) Test equating

- Students' scores on different tests are equated
- Non-equivalent group design with external anchor items

1) Item Analysis

Test items were analyzed with procedures from Classical Test Theory (CTT) and Item Response Theory (IRT) approaches. Test items are psychometrically analyzed to determine possible issues with the items. Item statistics are used in standard-setting studies and the test form assembly process later.

2) Equating

Both item and test statistics are referenced for test equating. Multiple test forms will be administered and need to be equated for scores because the minimum number of examinees in one year is expected to be 1,200,000. The test is to be administered twenty-four times per year, while the maximum number of examinees at one test administration is 50,000. "Equating is a statistical process that is used to adjust scores on test forms so that scores on the forms can be used interchangeably. Equating adjusts for differences in difficulty among forms that are built to be similar in difficulty and content." (Kolen, M. J., & Brennan, R. L. (2004). *Test equating, scaling, and linking*. New York, NY: Springer)



Scores on common items indicate how the performances of Group 1 and Group 2 differ. The common items must be the same in Form X and Form Y. A set of common items is a 'mini version' of the test form and proportionally represents the test content. Each common item is located in a similar place (item number) and is exactly the same (no wording changes or rearranging of alternatives) no matter what the form of the test may be.

3) Standard Setting

Instead of giving scores to the examinees, the NEAT provides a performance level (A, B, C, or D) and its description (performance level description, PLD) for each of the listening, reading, speaking, and writing sections by employing Standard-setting procedures. Standard setting is the process by which performance cut points (cut scores) are established for an assessment. "Standard setters (panels) evaluated specially formatted test booklets and placed bookmarks at points where the difficulty of items appeared to change in ways that differentiated between adjacent performance levels." [Mitzel, H.C., Lewis, D.M., Patz, R.J., & Green, D.R. (2001) *The bookmark procedure: Psychological perspectives*. In G.J. Cizek (Ed), *Setting performance standards: Concepts, methods, and perspectives* (pp. 249-281). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Assoc.] As for NEAT standard setting, twenty panels of faculty, administrators, and teachers participate in the standard setting process for each language skill section. Panels select the most difficult item which a borderline student would be likely to answer correctly, and place a 'bookmark' at that location.

NEAT Reading Test Item Specifications: A Comparison of Level 2 and Level 3

Su Yon Yim, Yonghyo Park, Bokyung Cho, & Jun-Shik Kim
(Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

I. Introduction

National English Ability Test (NEAT) is an internet-based test designed for measuring practical and academic English abilities. It measures productive (speaking/writing) as well as receptive (listening/reading) abilities. While three NEAT levels have been developed for different uses, in this paper we focus on Levels 2 and 3. Level 2 was designed mainly for assessing academic English ability, whereas Level 3 was designed for assessing basic and practical English abilities. Both can be used as a college/university entrance exam in Korea. NEAT will be administered twice a year at schools or qualified testing centers in a cloud computer system over the Internet.

A main goal of the development of NEAT is to reduce the level of dependency of test takers in Korea on foreign standardized English tests such as TOEFL and TOEIC and also eliminate the added costs of these tests. The other is to improve students' communicative competence including speaking and writing proficiency through the washback effect of the test. The test specifications of NEAT were developed to achieve those goals. The present paper aims to provide the reading test item specifications of NEAT and furthermore compare characteristics of the test item specifications of reading level 2 and level 3.

II. Reading Test Item Specifications

Test items in reading section of NEAT are constructed following several steps. First, the test items were developed based on an analysis of the achievement standards specified in the national English curriculum. This is to align the tests with the national curriculum. Next, scholastic aptitude tests, which are available locally as well as internationally, were thoroughly reviewed so that test items reflect the main constructs of current reading tests. Table 1 shows differences between Neat Level 2 and Level 3.

Table 1
Overall Comparison of NEAT Level 2 and Level 3

Areas	Level 2	Level 3
Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understand and utilize information relevant to basic academic topics Describe the academic topic and situation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understand and utilize information relevant to practical language used in everyday life Describe everyday life situations appropriately
Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No grammar items Focus on communicative skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No grammar items Focus on communicative skills
Selected Topics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Humanities, social studies, economics, science, environment, culture, etc. Everyday life, travel, leisure, family and school 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Everyday life, travel, documents, advertisements, etc. Answering questions, writing e-mails, etc.
Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approximately 3,000 basic words selected from the secondary education curriculum 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approximately 2,000 basic words selected from the secondary education curriculum

As shown in Table 1, grammar items were excluded in NEAT's reading tests, which is in stark contrast from the current college entrance exam. The initial test items created by professors or teachers go through a number of steps before they are moved to the test item bank. First, the item is examined whether it has been used in past exams or workbooks. An automated system is used to identify the degree of similarity between created test items and past exam items. The next step is to examine the quality of reading passage. If the passage contains strong language or inappropriate content such as suicide, the item is rejected. Once the reading passage is accepted, the item stem and options are examined. The item stem is clearly specified so that students should

know what is being asked. The option choices should be carefully constructed to avoid multiple answers or no answer. If the initial test items pass the steps mentioned above, they will be moved into the test item bank to be used for tests.

BIODATA

Su Yon Yim is an associate research fellow at National English Test Division, KICE.

Email: edu1syy@kice.re.kr

Yonghyo Park is an associate research fellow at National English Test Division, KICE.

Email: yhpark@@kice.re.kr

Bokyoung Cho is an associate research fellow at National English Test Division, KICE.

Email: buc106@kice.re.kr

Jun-Shik Kim is an associate research fellow at National English Test Division, KICE.

Email: junskim@kice.re.kr

Day 2

Concurrent Session 7: Teaching Young Learners

Morning Sessions / Minerva Complex B2-20		
Session Chair: Session Chair: Hye-young Kim (Chung-Ang Univ.)		
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10:00 - 10:30	The relationship of learning strategies and styles on language learning Seunghyun Roh (Seohyun Middle School)	364
Afternoon Sessions / Graduate School Room 502		
Session Chair: Haewon Pyo (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
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14:30 - 15:00	The effects of reading assistant program on reading fluency and learners' perception changes for Korean elementary school students Hyang-Mi Lee & Hye-Jin Kim (International Graduate School of English)	369
15:00 - 15:30	Creating dialogic spaces using children's literature in elementary English classroom Hyunhee Cho (Daegu Nat'l Univ. of Education)	373
15:30 - 16:00	Affective teacher training modules for teachers in a country Shaheena Bakhshov (British Council)	N/A
16:00 - 16:30	Practical applications of concordancing programs Seamus Murphy (British Council)	N/A

The Latent Structure of L2 Literacy Ability and Intercultural Sensitivity of Korean EFL Students

Jiyoung Bae (Yeonji Elementary School)

I. Introduction

Under the view of CLT and literacy education, language learning and culture are inextricably bound together. By enhancing students' intercultural awareness and promoting positive cultural attitudes in regards to both their own and the target language's cultures, teachers are able to extend their teaching of cross-cultural contents via their language instruction based on CLT and the literacy approach. Based on the interwoven relationship between language and culture, it is possible to hypothesize that learners' cross-cultural knowledge and positive attitudes toward people who speak a target language can be developed through L2 literacy instruction. In light of the findings on (a) the importance of teaching diverse cultural content in English classes and (b) the necessity of connecting diverse cultures to literacy education in English classes in EFL, it is important to investigate the relationship between literacy abilities and intercultural sensitivity. In response to these needs, the purpose of this study is to understand the relationships between L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity, one part of intercultural competence, with Korean students who are English language learners from late elementary to early middle school in Korea. Three main research questions are presented below:

- (1) What is the latent structure of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity of Korean late elementary to early middle school students?
- (2) What are the indicators of each latent factor of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity?
- (3) Which literacy ability has the strongest relationship to intercultural sensitivity for Korean late elementary to early middle school students?

II. Literature Review

1. Bringing Cultural Content into L2 Literacy Learning

Most L2 literacy research studies show that linguistic factors influence second language literacy development, and the results emphasize the importance of language knowledge on many levels of L2 literacy development, especially lower-level reading processes: phonemic awareness, phonological awareness, orthographic awareness, and fluency. However, previous research about higher-level reading processes, such as vocabulary, reading comprehension, and writing, has proved that higher-level reading processes demands not only linguistic knowledge but also cognitive and metacognitive processes, sociocultural factors, and educational factors. Bernhardt (2000) indicates that readers must deal with a variety of knowledge, such as lexical knowledge (vocabulary), semantic knowledge (meaning), syntactic knowledge (language structure), background and textual knowledge, as well as individual affective factors in order to comprehend text.

Kantor, Miller, and Fernie (1992) defined literacy in cultural terms so that children can become literate within the cultures of their communities. Perez (1998) insists that literacy cannot be considered to be content-free or context-free because it is always socially and culturally situated; that is, literacy is not just the multifaceted act of reading, writing, and thinking, but involves constructing meaning from a printed text within a sociocultural context (p. 4). These sociocultural perspectives of literacy make it possible to bring cultural content into L2 literacy learning. In this study, higher-level reading processes in the part of literacy skills are important variables, so we need a broad term of literacy including the sociocultural perspective.

2. Intercultural Sensitivity

Chen and Starosta (1996) proposed a model of intercultural communication competence, and this model includes three conceptual dimensions that are interdependent with one another for effective communication: intercultural sensitivity, intercultural awareness, and intercultural adroitness. It shows that intercultural competence is a broader term than intercultural sensitivity; that is, it seems that intercultural sensitivity is one component of intercultural competence. Under this conceptual structure, Chen and Starosta (1996) developed their intercultural sensitivity model with four personal elements: self-concept, open-mindedness, nonjudgmental

attitudes, and social relaxation. Later, Chen and Starosta (1997) added two more personal attributes: self-monitoring and empathy. Finally, Chen and Starosta (2000) completed an instrument to explore the concept of intercultural sensitivity with 24 items each rated on a 5-point Likert scale. With this model, Fritz, Möllenberg, and Chen (2002) studied German participants' responses on the intercultural sensitivity scale. According to their result of the factor analysis, intercultural sensitivity had five subcomponents: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness.

III. Methodology

1. Research Design

The present study employs a non-experimental design. The dependent variables were categorized by two latent variables: general English literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity. General English literacy ability includes four different dependent variables: fluency, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and writing. Intercultural sensitivity involves interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. The possible causal links among these nine dependent variables were investigated with a set of data drawn from the participants.

2. Participants

122 students at A elementary school and B middle school participated in this pilot study. The number of 5th grade students was 35 (17 females, 18 males), and the number of 6th grade students was 34 (16 females, 18 males). 69 participants attended an English camp in A elementary school in Busan during the winter vacation in January, 2011. The number of 7th grade students was 26 (12 females, 14 males), and the number of 8th grade students was 27 (14 females, 13 males). Both 7th and 8th grade participants were students who attended an English camp in B middle school in Ulsan for winter vacation. 262 Korean students from 5th to 8th grade were selected in this study from the same two schools as the pilot study. Participants came from two different schools; 122 participants in 5th and 6th grades came from A elementary school, and 140 participants in 7th and 8th grades were recruited from B middle school. Their age range is 12 to 15 years old.

3. Instruments and Data Analysis

Instruments for this study measure four literacy development processes: fluency, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and writing. In addition, intercultural sensitivity was measured by the questionnaire with a 5-point Likert scale. This study used quantitative data analysis procedures: structural equation modeling (SEM) and analyze confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

IV. Results

1. The Initial Test and Model Development in CFA

A CFA was performed on the full 122 participants' results of the pilot test. The general literacy factor consisted of indicators measuring word reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and writing abilities. In addition, the intercultural sensitivity factor consisted of indicators related to the level of interaction engagement, respect of cultural differences, interaction confidence, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. To assess this initial model, five indices of goodness of fit were used. These indices of model fit indicated a poor fit of the data with the initial measurement model; hence, it suggests the need to modify this initial model through the model development.

Modifications in the model development process were made to the measurement model to improve its fit; elimination of indicators not loading at .40 or higher could be a way of solving this problem. According to the initial model, the interaction enjoyment was not highly correlated to the intercultural sensitivity factor; the factor loading was .14. The interaction enjoyment element was removed from intercultural sensitivity. The fit indices for this measurement model indicated model fit was adequate; χ^2 was 39.829 with 19 degrees of freedom ($p < .003$), GFI = .924, TLI = .948, CFI = .965, with RMSEA = .095, it was still above .09. Changes in the fit indices as the above changes were implemented are provided in Table 1 below.

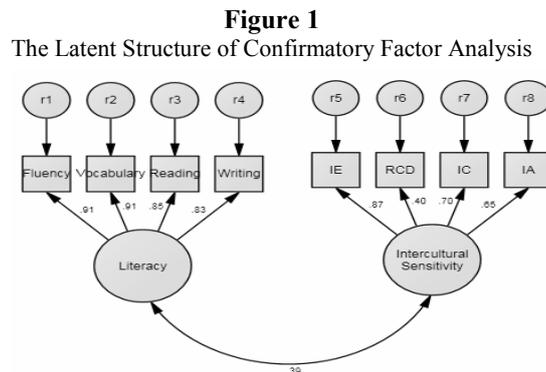
Table 1
Comparison of Fit Indices from Initial to Final Measurement Model

Fit Index	Initial Measurement Model	Final Measurement Model
χ^2	62.515	39.829
Degree of Freedom	26	19
P Level	< .05	<.05
GFI	.898	.924
TLI	.940	.948
CFI	.916	.965
RMSEA	.108	.095
(90% CI)	(.074 - .142)	(.053 - .137)

The fact that χ^2 decreased from 62.515 to 39.829 indicates a much better fit with the data once modification was completed. GFI rose from .898 to .924 -- above .90 which marks the lowest point of “adequate fit,” and TLI rose from .940 to .948. Moreover, CFI increased from .916 to .965 - higher than the .90 required for adequate fit. Finally, RMSEA dropped from .108 to .095, but it was not close to .08, thereby indicating an “adequate fit.” Even though RMSEA did not qualify at the “adequate fit” cutoff, according to Hu and Bentler’s (1999) two-index presentation strategy, if two of any indices: TLI, CFI, incremental fit index, and RMSEA, were over cutoffs then it is considered a good fit. Thus, this model represents the latent structure of L2 literacy abilities and intercultural sensitivity through the model specification process for this study.

3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with the Results of the Present Study

With the final measurement model for L2 literacy abilities and intercultural sensitivity, pre-test results of the present study with 262 participants, including all participants from both the control and the treatment groups, were analyzed in this model via CFA. Figure 1 presents the result of this model.



To assess this CFA model, five indices of goodness of fit were also used. The chi-square for this model was 49.234, with 19 degrees of freedom ($p < .000$), and it was statistically significant. GFI was .952 – over the .95 which marks the cutoff of “good fit” (Keith, 2005, p. 269). Furthermore, CFI was .974, and the TLI was .961; both are higher than the .95 required for good fit (Keith, 2005). Finally, the RMSEA was .078, and it was well above the .05 indicating a “close fit,” but below .08 indicating an “adequate fit” according to Keith (2005). These indices of model fit indicated a good fit of the data in the CFA measurement model; hence, this CFA model is the latent structure of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity of Korean late elementary to early middle school students. Moreover, the first sub-question of the research question sought to identify the indicators of each latent factor of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity.

Table 2
Individual Indicators and the Relationships of Each Indicator in the CFA model

Indicator	Equated Estimates		Loading ^a	Standardized	R ²
	Loading (SE)	Intercept (SE)		Theta	
Fluency	1.000	46.637**	.907	58.515**	.823
Vocabulary	1.398** (.062)	65.901**	.907	114.900**	.823
Reading	1.215** (.062)	59.443**	.851	152.831**	.724
Writing	1.362** (.073)	36.260**	.833	222.040**	.694

IE	1.000	3.031**	.865	.093**	.748
RCD	.0420** (.070)	3.527**	.401	.256**	.161
IC	.991** (.098)	2.959**	.700	.284**	.490
IA	.757** (.079)	2.986**	.651	.216**	.424

^aCommon metric completely standardized solution. *Theta* – each indicator's error variance. ** significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

For each indicator in the model, Table 2 shows the respective loading and intercept, the standardized loading, along with the unique residual and R^2 values. Correlations for the CFA model with the test data of the present study are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Correlation Matrix for the CFA Model

	Fluency	Voca	Read	Write	IE	RCD	IC	IA
Fluency	1							
Voca	.848**	1						
Read	.751**	.754**	1					
Write	.733**	.733**	.774**	1				
IE	.293**	.255**	.322**	.333**	1			
RCD	.106	.077	.125*	.123*	.353**	1		
IC	.276**	.286**	.309**	.366**	.600**	.275**	1	
IA	.204**	.178**	.199**	.153*	.571**	.266**	.451**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

V. Discussions

This study demonstrated the positive correlation between L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity, and identified strong indicators of each latent structure in the measurement model; word reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and writing abilities, as well as the observed variables of intercultural sensitivity: interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction confidence, and interaction attentiveness. This result suggested that “interaction enjoyment” was not an indicator of intercultural sensitivity for the case of younger students, such as an elementary or secondary level student in an EFL context.

The present findings have implications for L2 literacy instruction for EFL elementary and secondary learners. Given the fundamental relationship of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity, both factors should be considered as important skills in L2 learning. Bennett (2001) insists that programs in intercultural competence should pursue culture-general information before providing culture-specific information. Most previous studies in Korea placed emphasis on the importance of connecting cultural content to L2 learning, based on the target culture; recently, the perspective of multicultural education has placed emphasis on “diversity,” rather than “culture-general” content. Thus, the present study suggests the critical role of intercultural sensitivity in L2 learning, and its applicability for measuring intercultural sensitivity would be easily used by teachers and researchers in this field.

Teachers need to be aware that L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity are not independent of each other through the measurement model in this study; accordingly, L2 literacy instruction should be built on the recognition of the core relationships between L2 literacy ability and the intercultural sensitivity domains. Because there is no assessment of measuring intercultural sensitivity for younger students in the L2 field, the interpretation version of the intercultural sensitivity with age-appropriate words would be a useful tool allowing teachers to understand the meaning of intercultural sensitivity and apply it to their students directly. In addition, based on this study's proven relationship between literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity, teachers can use reading multicultural and intercultural literature in their English literacy instruction in order to grow students' intercultural sensitivity.

One area of future research relates to the measurement model used in this study. The two latent factors model of L2 literacy ability and intercultural sensitivity was selected as a model that would best represent the underlying trait structures of Korean EFL learners' literacy and intercultural sensitivity. However, there may be other models that would be better representative of L2 learners' relationships between literacy ability and intercultural

sensitivity with other populations. It is also important that future research continues to develop self-determined forms of intercultural sensitivity for younger students. Generally, the targets for most measurement of intercultural competence are college students or adults, and these instruments do not definitively measure younger students' intercultural competence, including intercultural sensitivity. It is necessary to include students' background information, such as their ages, socio-economic status, experiences, and L1 proficiencies, and so on, in order to evaluate any causal factor relationships among the variables used in the measurement model of this study.

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BIODATA

Jiyoung Bae is an elementary school teacher and got the Ph.D degree in Curriculum and Instruction from the University of Kansas, USA, in 2012. Her research area is second language literacy instruction, reading multicultural literature, and intercultural communication.

Email: jbae423@gmail.com

Phone: (070) 4713-6160/H.P: 010-9304-9338

The Relationship of Learning Strategies and Styles on Language Learning

Seunghyun Roh (Seohyun Middle School)

I. Introduction

It has been widely known that various factors including personal characteristics, topical knowledge, affective schemata have an effect on learners' linguistic performance. Not only simple command of vocabulary or grammatical competence, but other factors such as age, gender, native language and motivation cannot be ignored in discussing the important variables which influence the linguistic competence. Those factors have been studied in great detail to clarify the ways to improve the learners' achievements in language learning. Especially, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) pointed out that such factors as learners' age, gender, motivation, attitudes, learning strategies, learning styles, and educational background are the critical factors influencing language acquisition.

It is not until quite lately that learning styles in second language learning have been studied by a lot of researchers. Ehrman and Oxford (1995) claimed that learning styles like learning strategies are the critical variables influencing language learning. Then, what do we mean by learning styles? Even though learning styles, cognitive styles, and learner characteristics are confused in meaning and usage, the definition used by Garger and Guild (1984), that is to say, "the characteristics that a learner consistently shows through the interaction between his personality and behavior in accomplishing learning tasks" is widely known. Keefe (1979) also said that learning styles are the combination of learners' cognitive, affective, and biological styles.

There may be an important correlations between learning strategies and learning styles, but the studies on the interrelationship among learning strategies, learning styles and learner variables have not been clarified. Ehrman and Oxford (1995) reported that learners are influenced by their learning styles in applying learning strategies. Rossi-Le (1995) also found that what kind of learning styles a learner prefers has a direct relation with the use of learning strategies and also with the success of learning. This study, therefore, will explain the different kinds of learning strategies and learning styles, their relations with learner variables. It will also examine the appropriate learning material, resources and tools which can be used by learners with different learning strategies and styles to help language teachers and instructors to choose the appropriate learning material for their students who have different learning strategies and styles.

II. Different Factors Influencing Language Ability

1. Learner Characteristics

There are some categories of variables associated with second language acquisition. These variables focus on individual differences of language learners that could influence the extent to which he or she learns the second language. Differences in these variables and interactions between them and the individual difference variables could have a profound effect on individual levels of proficiency (Gardner, 1990). The first category to be considered is that of *affective variables*. This category refers to those emotional or predispositional characteristics of individuals that influence their perceptions and impressions of the language learning context and thus their reactions to it, and their views of the language itself. Examples of affective variables would be various personality traits, such as, anxiety, sociability, and empathy; attitudinal and motivational attributes; and some types of language learning styles and strategies will be considered in later part of this study.

The second category of relevant variables is that of *cognitive variables*. This category refers to those intellectual and verbal skills that individuals bring with them to the language learning situation that facilitate the acquisition and retention of language material. Examples of cognitive variables would be intelligence, language aptitude, and proficiency in the native language. There are, surprisingly relatively few studies that have considered the relationship between personality variables and achievement in a second language. One variable that has been considered in a number of studies is that of field dependence/independence. Field dependent individuals presumably are influenced by their environment and tend to be sensitive and interested in others. Field independent individuals, on the other hand, distinguish between figure and ground, and tend to be self-sufficient

and analytical. Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978) proposed that field-independent individuals would be successful language learners because they would distinguish between important elements to be learned and other less relevant background factors. In support of this, they found positive correlations between field independence and measures of French oral production and listening comprehension among university language students.

Another personality variable to be considered is that of *anxiety*. In his review of research, Scovel (1978) concluded that the findings concerning any relationship between anxiety and second language learning were very inconsistent. This conclusion was based largely on his review of four studies. In two of them (Swain & Burnaby, 1976; Tucker, Hamayan, & Genesee, 1976), significant negative correlations were obtained between indices of anxiety and some measures of second language proficiency, but correlations with other measures of achievement were not significant. There are some researches implemented in Korea. Kim (2000), on a study which examined language learning anxiety and goal orientation both in a traditional classroom setting and in a communicative setting, found that the relationship between anxiety and goal orientation, and the relationship between goal orientation and achievement differed across contexts. However, the relationship between anxiety and achievement was consistently negative, regardless of contexts.

Another research concerning the role of personality type of a language learner conducted by Ehrman (1990) reported that the question whether certain types are better language learners is difficult to answer without overgeneralization and that the 'best' learners are able to maximize the benefits from the strategies associated with their preferences and also access some that are associated with non-preferred processes. That is, the best learners had a degree of versatility that less able ones did not.

2. Learning Strategies

McGroarty and Oxford (1990) summarized the importance of the use of learning strategies in language learning as follows; first, the use of appropriate learning strategies is closely related to successful language learning. Second, a learner assumes more responsibility for his or her own learning by using an appropriate learning strategy. Third, learning strategies, unlike other variables which influence language learning, cannot be taught. Fourth, teachers and students can play more critical role in learning process by incorporating learning strategies. In conclusion, the use of effective learning strategies is critical in improving language ability.

A lot of studies have been conducted concerning learning strategies. They attempted to find out the effective learning strategies by clarifying their relationship with the achievement in language learning. According to the findings, an effective learning strategy means the strategy used by a successful language learner. Kim (1998), in her study on language learning strategies, reported that there is a difference between boys and girls in using strategies and that boys use affective and metacognitive strategies most and girls use compensation and cognitive strategies in addition to affective and metacognitive strategies. She also claimed that the use of strategies should be trained from the early stage of learning in a systematic way so that learners can manage and control their learning on their own and presented an integrated model for teaching English and strategies at middle school level (CALLA) and a sample lesson.

Brown summarized 10 skills for training strategies in the classroom as follows;

- (1) To lower inhibitions; Teachers can use guessing game, or other games, songs and role play and also group work or pair work.
- (2) To encourage risk-taking; Teachers encourage and praise learners to speak and write in a foreign language and do not correct the mistakes that they make. Also teachers can give students homework assignments so that students can use the language outside the classroom.
- (3) To build students' self-confidence; Teachers show faith in students' improvement and language ability.
- (4) To help them develop intrinsic motivation; Teachers make students aware of the rewards that students can get through language learning.
- (5) To promote cooperative learning; Teachers encourage students to be involved in group work so that students can share their knowledge.
- (6) To encourage them to use right-brain processing; Teachers use audio-visual aids such as tapes and movies and make use of reading, free writing and other activities.
- (7) To promote ambiguity tolerance; Teachers allow students to ask questions whenever they don't understand and explain the rule of games as simply as possible.
- (8) To help them use their intuition; Teachers encourage students to guess wisely and explain the errors that students commit in a simple and concise way

- (9) To get students to make their mistakes work for them; Students can be aware of their own mistakes.
- (10) To get students to set their own goals; Teachers can give students extra tasks that students can perform after class.

3. Learning Styles

According to Oxford (1990), learning style, the learner's preferred mode of dealing with new information, includes a construct known as cognitive style. Learners' actions to enhance their own learning are known as learning strategies. Learning strategies usually reflect the learners' typical learning style, but not always. A good deal of foreign language education research has been conducted on styles, but this research has tended to concentrate on only a few style aspects, most notably field independence-dependence, competitiveness-cooperativeness-independence, and reflection-impulsivity.

Recently, researchers have looked at the field independence(FI)-field dependence(FD) phenomenon in reference to social behavior, finding that field dependent people were more accepting of social influence and more competent and self-confident in interpersonal relations than field independent people. However, contrary to popular belief, individuals are not fixed in their field independence or dependence (Willing, 1988). Field independent people shift more often and more naturally to a field dependent approach than FD people switch to a FI approach. Specific training has been shown to affect FI-FD style. Sex differences and cultural variations have been found for FI-FD style. As adolescents and adults, males perform somewhat more field independently than do females.

Some studies have shown that FI and FD individuals do not differ on tests of vocabulary and comprehension (Goodenough & Karp, 1961). Other studies have found that FI individuals are superior on tests that measure speech perception, sentence disambiguation, and grammatical transformation (Witkin & Goodenough, 1977). These mixed findings have generally been attributed to differences in the degree of analytic skill required by the task. Vocabulary and comprehension tests might require less analytic ability than speech perception, sentence disambiguation, and grammatical transformation.

Style Analysis Survey (SAS) developed by Oxford (1993) is one of the most recent and frequently used inventory. It is invented based on learners' psychological characteristics; 1) based on sensory preference-visual, auditory, hands-on styles, 2) based on social relations-extroverted, introverted styles, 3) based on the ways to confront the possibility-intuitive, concrete-sequential styles, 4) based on the ways to solve the tasks-closure-oriented, open styles, 5) based on the ways to express their thinking-global, analytic styles.

In her study on learning strategies and styles of university students, Park (1999b) reported that students' major, language proficiency, and previous L2 experiences had significant effects on their use of learning strategies, while no significant difference existed regarding gender. With respect to learning styles, learner variables made a significant difference in some dimensions of learning styles. The students' choice of learning strategies was significantly affected by some dimensions in learning style preferences. The findings confirmed that learning styles are considerably affected by the students' educational background and closely related to their strategy use.

4. The Connections for the Learning Materials

Nowadays, a great deal of learning materials are being used in the classroom. Apart from the traditional way of teaching using only textbooks, a lot of audio-visual aids are being used. However, as individual differences influence the use of language learning strategies and styles and as the use of those strategies and styles have relations with the success of language learning, so learner variables cannot be ignored in selecting the appropriate learning material. For example, computers have been playing a critical role in language learning. However, some learners may feel uncomfortable with and not confident in using computers Lui (1993) studied on the effect of hypermedia assisted instruction on second language learning. The results of the study on students' achievement, computer anxiety and attitude, learning patterns and other considerations showed that even though overall students' achievement level increased significantly, computer anxiety and attitudes are important factors in computer-based instruction. The findings also include that supporting the fact that the field-dependent and field-independent people employ the different learning strategies, different learning tools are needed for people with different learning characteristics. She also confirmed that a realistic learning environment is a key factor for language learning and students should discover the most suitable ways of learning for successful learning.

III. Conclusion and Suggestions

So far, this study considered the different language learning strategies and learning styles and their connections for language learning. It also reported on the selection of the different learning material based on learner variables. The consistent result cannot be obtained through these studies. The reason for this may be that first, the agreement on the definition of learning strategies and styles should have been reached. Second, the variables used in the studies were not same. When each study uses different variables, age group, gender, the findings could be different. In addition, these findings did not provide any meaningful educational implications. That is because it is almost impossible for teachers to manipulate the classroom situation to change the students' cognitive style or gender or other learner variables.

In this context, this study reached a conclusion as follows; first, certain personality variables such as high motivation and language aptitude help language learners achieve better in language classrooms. Second, individual student uses different learning strategies and styles in the classroom and when he or she uses effective learning strategy and style, his or her learning is more successful. Third, the use of effective learning strategy and style can be trained and encouraged in the classroom by teachers. Fourth, the choice of learning material and resources and other tools should be decided appropriately according to the students' learning strategies so that language learning can be more effective and successful. The computer-assisted language learning is a good example.

In addition, this study makes some suggestions for further research to better apply language strategies to language classrooms. First, because the studies on learning strategies have not reached an agreement that their use is definitely effective for the successful language learning, more systematic and empirical research should be conducted. Second, the research on the effect of various learning material and tools should be implemented so that teachers can choose appropriate learning resources for their students with different learning strategies.

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BIODATA

Seunghyun Roh is an English teacher of Seohyun middle school. She has been studying mainly on the curriculum and the evaluation. Also she has concerns about the students' psychology.

Email: smartroh69@gmail.com

Phone: (031) 709-1995 / H.P: 010-5519-0349

The Effects of Reading Assistant Program on Reading Fluency and Learners' Perception Changes for Korean Elementary School Students

Hyang-Mi Lee & Hye-Jin Kim (International Graduate School of English)

I. Introduction

Reading assistant (RA), an on-line individualized reading program, was developed by Scientific Learning Corporation. This program is based on a report by the National Reading Panel (NRP) which was established by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development in the U.S. The report was the product of research into effective teaching methods for reading. It has been used in 2,000 public schools in America, and it was brought to the Korean EFL context as a mean of improving learners' reading fluency. RA program designed for customized learning.

II. Literature Review

1. Reading Fluency

Language learning can occur when all four skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—are developed together in an integrated way. Among the skills, reading can improve linguistic ability as it facilitates the other skills (Krashen, 2004). Researches have been conducted to find out the most efficient method of teaching reading. According to the NRP report, phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension were found to be the most crucial elements for fluent reading. Fluency contains the elements of accuracy, speed, and expression; thus, fluent reading means reading accurately at an appropriate speed and with intonation. If the learners can read fluently, they can comprehend the content more easily (LaBerge & Samuel, 1974). Reading aloud is an essential and important activity for literacy development (Bredenkamp, Copple, & Neuman, 2000). The NRP report noted that guided-repeated oral reading is more effective for improving reading fluency than independent silent reading.

2. Prior Studies

Some studies have shown the effectiveness of RA program for improving reading fluency in Korea. They were conducted using a blended approach: on-line RA program and off-line classroom teaching. Elementary school students in Jeonbuk province, who had little chance of studying English except school classes, participated in the RA program. They showed improvement in reading fluency along with improvement on the National Achievement Assessment (Lee, 2010). Kim (2011) reported that RA program was effective in increasing reading fluency and the confidence of middle school students after 1 year of implementation. Lee (2011) also found that a “gifted” English class of students in elementary school showed progress in reading fluency and were motivated for further reading. This study aims to investigate the effectiveness of RA program for beginning readers in on-line based circumstances only: on-line RA program and on-line one-on-one coaching class. This paper will show that if there are any improvement in reading fluency and changes of learners' perceptions about on-line based learning.

II. Method

1. Participants

Eight 4th grade elementary school students in P school in Gwangju who volunteered took part in this research. Four were female, and four were male students.

2. Materials

1) Reading Progress Indicator (RPI) Test

RPI test was conducted as pre- and post-test for each student. RPI is an assessment tool for measuring students' reading ability, which was developed by Scientific Learning Company which designed RA program. It consists of four categories: phonemic awareness, decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension. The test provides two results. One is the student's National Percentile Score among Korean students. The other is the Grade Equivalent Score, which indicates the student's level compared to American students.

2) Questionnaire

To collect learners' background information about their English learning experiences and changes of in perception about reading English books based on internet learning, pre- and post-surveys were conducted.

3) RA program

Each participant had own individual ID and password for RA program. The on-line books in RA program were chosen among 4 bands—K-3, 4-5, 6-8, and 9-12—according to their RPI test results. In RA program there are 5 phases: book library, step 1, step 2, step 3, and report section. In book library, students can see covers of books that were distributed according to their levels. Depending on learning schedule on the supplement material, they choose books in order. In step 1, students listen to a native speaker's recorded reading voice and guess the meanings of words and sentences in context. Glossary functions as an English dictionary along with pictures help their understanding. Students answer simple concept checking questions and are encouraged to read silently with native speaker's voice. In step 2, students record their reading. The voice recognition technology recognizes the students' pronunciation, intonation, and speed if it is appropriate. When recording is finished, each word is changed into three colors: green ones mean good job, blue ones refer to try again, and red ones indicate needs work. In step 3, students take quizzes to check comprehension of the whole text. Last phase is the report. Here, students can check the goal score of Words Correct Per Minute (WCPM) of each book and their actual WCPM in fluency report. WCPM is shown in bar graph so that student can compare with the goal WCPM. The results of comprehension checking quiz are contained in selection report.

4) Skype

Skype, an online video chatting program, is used to have classes in cyber space. Before start classes, individual IDs and passwords are distributed to participants.

5) Supplemental material

Students had books which were made especially for their levels as a supplement studying material. It provides several sections: self-checking for progress, contents of on-line books, building words, and quizzes.

Figure 1
Screen of Book Library in RA Program

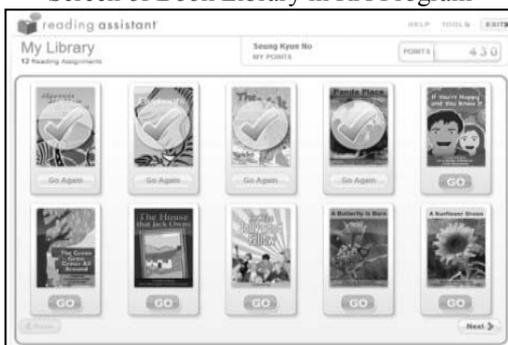


Figure 2
Screen of Step 1 in RA Program



Figure 3
Screen of Step 2 in RA Program

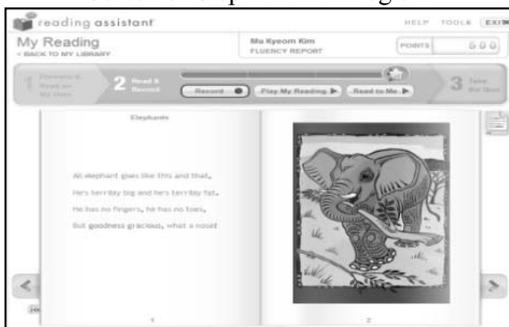


Figure 4
Screen of Step 3 in RA Program

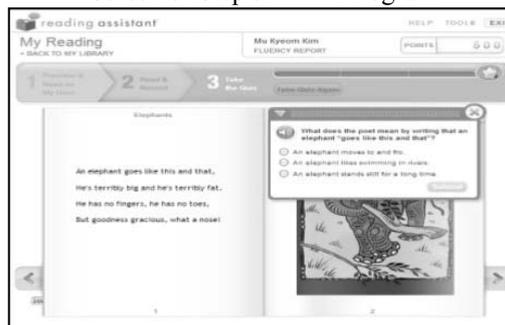


Figure 5
Screen of Fluency Report in RA Program

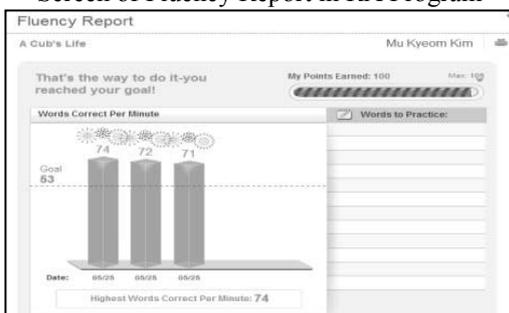
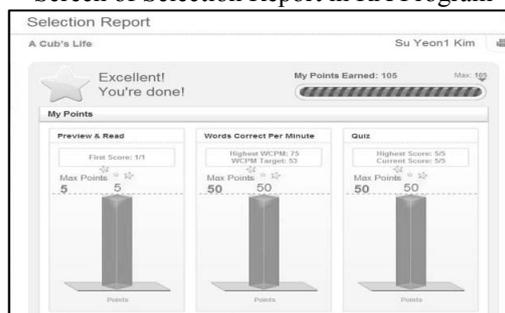


Figure 6
Screen of Selection Report in RA Program



3. Procedure

Before starting RA program, to investigate participants' English proficiency and distribute the appropriate books, pre-test and pre-survey were conducted. Each participant had 12 electronic books in RA program and studied those five days a week. They listened, read, recorded, and solved problems for each book and recorded their progresses in the supplemental materials. This RA learning was carried out for seven weeks; thus, each book was planned to finish in three days. The subjects had online classes with coach teachers individually on Skype once a week for fifteen minutes. Two coach teachers managed four students each. They motivated them, checked their progresses, explained difficult words or sentences, and encouraged them to read. After finishing RA program, post-test and post-survey were conducted.

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BIODATA

Lee Hyang-mi is a graduate student studying English language teaching in International Graduate School of English (IGSE). She is an elementary school teacher and has taught over 6 years. Her interests are individualized learning, self-access, CLIL, and extensive reading.

Email: quan11@igse.ac.kr

Phone: 010-7942-7959

Kim Hye-jin is a graduate student studying English language teaching in International Graduate School of English (IGSE). She has worked as an elementary school teacher for 8 years. She is interested in reading instruction.

Email: wisedome@igse.ac.kr

Phone: 010-8311-8592

Creating Dialogic Spaces Using Children's Literature in Elementary English Classroom

Hyunhee Cho (Daegu National University of Education)

I. Introduction

The elementary English curriculum in Korea emphasizes developing students' communicative ability through engaging them in meaningful tasks and activities. However, current practices of teaching English are based on behavioristic and cognitivistic paradigms of language teaching and learning that are prone to limit English instruction to a series of repetitive practice. The same can be mentioned about practices of reading instruction in elementary schools. Although reading instruction is gaining an increasing attention of recent, it tends to limit its purpose to learning the vocabulary and the forms of language. The primary goal of using children's literary texts in the English classroom should be developing students' ability not only to read and comprehend the text but also to interpret it by making dialogic interactions with the text and also with other readers. Being aware of the discrepancy between what needs to be taught and what is being taught in reading lessons in elementary English classrooms, this study examines the current reading instruction practices and suggests ways to involve more dialogues in the lesson. By doing so, this study aims at envisioning a classroom where dialogues around the literary text enrich both language and literacy ability in English.

II. Theoretical Background

Bakhtin's(1981) theory of language and discourse sheds an alternative light on the approach to reading instruction in elementary English classrooms today in Korea. Bakhtin's theory emphasizes sociocultural and political contexts of meaning embedded in language. He pointed that language is appropriated by the intention of the speaker and the listener and takes up meanings shaped by the time and space in which it is uttered. According to Bakhtin utterances are not to be dominated by one voice or fixed by one meaning but open to responses. His notion of heteroglossia illustrates the multiplicity of meaning in language. He warned against the dominance of monologue and the authoritative discourse that oppress people's individual voice and argued for the balance between centrifugal power and centripetal power. Applying Bakhtin's theory in the language classroom can support students for better learning by enabling them to capitalize on dialogic interaction with the teacher and other students. Engaging in dialogic learning will eventually aid learners in building an ownership of English.

Bakhtin's theory can also be employed to explain the process of reading. The traditional explanation of the interactive processes of reading(Rumelhart, 1994) includes sociocultural and ideological nature of language only to a limited degree, identifying it as readers' knowledge of the world or background knowledge. Bakhtin also extends Rosenblatt's view of reading by including the complex sociocultural, political, and historical dimensions surrounding the reader and the text(Dressman, 2004). Dominant approach to reading instruction in an elementary level tends to look over the process of how learners construct meaning out of the text. Helping learners weave meaning by making dialogues with the text will not only promote their understanding of the text but also build critical reading ability that is a prerequisite for reading higher level texts in the long run.

III. Data Collection and Analysis

This study is based on the analysis of video-recorded English lessons in different classrooms. All the twelve classes that used a literary text as a main teaching resource were chosen from the lessons posted on an educational website as outstanding examples of elementary English instruction. All the lessons were transcribed except for the talk among students during group tasks and activities. Teacher and student utterances were categorized either as dialogic or monologic: The verbal interactions that were open to students' voices were identified as dialogic. The speech turns that adhered to the third voice(Cheyne & Tarulli, 1999) or authoritative discourse(Bakhtin, 1981) were marked as monologic. The relationship between the discourse types and the lesson events was further examined to discover if there was any recursiveness in the use of a discourse type in a lesson event.

IV. Discovery and Discussion

The prevailing type of discourse in an English classroom using children's literary text was the traditional IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) pattern. There was also a series of teacher questions followed by pupil responses, which were defined as a typical discourse structure of a drill type lesson (Brown, 1975). This discourse structure seemed to result from the fact that the lessons were focused more on teaching the language than on teaching how to interact and make meanings out of the text.

Overall, there were a lot more monologic interactions than dialogic interactions in all the lessons. Teachers' directions and display questions far outnumbered reference questions as reported in a few studies (Jung & Ko, 2010; Kwon, 2006; Park, 2005). This indicates the dominance of the authoritative discourse. The authoritative discourse played a role of centrifugal power and appeared to judge the legitimacy of the utterances in most parts of the lesson, based on which the teacher and students seemed to determine what to say and what not to say.

On the other hand, dialogic interactions appeared in a few parts of the lesson. Teachers' brief talk at warm-up and introduction of the day's lesson tended to invite students' voice either as a collective group or as an individual and thus encourage dialogic interactions with the learning material. Other dialogic spaces were created at the time when the teachers did a story telling or read a book aloud. In these parts of the lesson, teachers gave their ideas about the story or asked students of their reactions, to which students responded with their own voice. The dialogic interactions were made not only through verbal speech forms but also through distinct speech styles and nonverbal communications. Although students' utterances were limited to one word or simple formulaic expressions, teachers' invitation of students' voice in the lessons seemed to go one step closer towards creating a dialogic space in the classroom.

V. Conclusion

The reading instructions observed in this study were well-structured and systematic with clear teaching focus at every phase of the lesson, but it didn't include students' dialogic interaction with the text as much as it could. The purposes of reading instruction should lie not simply in developing students' ability to read and understand the words and linguistic forms of the text but also in developing the ability to construct meaning out of the text. Creating a space in which students connect their ideas and feelings to the text in the classroom will lead them to become an able reader of English in the long run. Those involved in English education including teachers and researchers need to work on developing curricula and teaching methods to be able to create the space.

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BIODATA

Hyunhee Cho is an associate professor of the department of English education at Daegu National University of Education. She is interested in sociocultural approaches to language teaching and learning, literacy instruction, and qualitative research methodology, and is teaching and writing about these topics.

Email: choh718@naver.com

Phone: (053) 620-1422/H.P: 010-7767-9565

Day 2

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Bicultural Identity Construction: A Case Study of Korean Short-Term Resident Children in the United States

Ki-il Lee (Korea University)

I. Introduction

It is plausible that living in a country where English is spoken as a first language is the best way to learn and practice the language (Miller & Ginsberg, 1995). The young are usually better than their elders at learning languages, but also at adapting to new environments. Besides, English acquisition at an early age is likely to affect the sense of linguistic and social/cultural identity. Norton (2000) defined social identity as “how a person understands his or her relationship to the social world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (p. 5). Cultural identity includes the manifestation of past social/cultural development, and in the case of children who are visiting as students there is the expectation of non-permanent social involvement, which alters their interaction in the present. Thus, the cultural identities of temporary residents are created in unique circumstances for the ‘returnees in the future’ and should therefore be considered different from those of immigrants who will maintain permanent residency.

II. Literature Review

Identity is the individual’s interpretation of the self within his/her inner group and the larger society. It is reflective self-images constructed, experienced, and communicated by individuals within the context of a particular interaction (Gee, 1996; Miller, 2000; Ochs, 1993; Stryker, 2000; Tajfel, 1982; Ting-Toomey, 1999). As a critical factor of identity, language is generally the major resource for socializing with others, enacting social identity and displaying membership of social groups. Speakers identify themselves and others through use of language; they view their language as a symbol of their social identity (Kramsch, 1998). In this concept of language, second language learning is viewed as a relational activity that occurs between specific speakers situated in a specific sociocultural context.

Drawing on Bourdieu’s view of socio-linguistics, Norton Peirce (1995) emphasizes that some social groups have more power and prestige than others and claims “power relations play a crucial role in social interactions between language learners and target language speakers” (p.12). A number of researchers have reported that ESL learners in North America are often socially constructed as inferior to the dominant group and do not easily gain access to the communities of practice. English Language learners (ELLs) are not always free to interact with whom they chose, since they are often constrained by power imbalances and shifting notions of identity. A learner’s ability to speak is also affected by relations of power between speakers. Consequently, ELLs make an investment when acquiring a second language and expect a good return such as access to resources that are otherwise unavailable for them (Norton, 1997, 2000; Norton Peirce, 1995). According to Norton Peirce (1995) emphasized that the notion of investment perceived a language learner as having a complex social identity and multiple desires.

III. Methodology

Settings and Participants: The four participant children were recruited based on snowball sampling.

Table 1
Families in the Study

Name (gender)	Age	Family members	No. of months in the U.S. ^a	Language spoken at home ^b	STAR ^c
Jinsoo (boy)	11	Father*, Mother, Older brother	26	Korean	Below average
Song-yeon (girl)	9	Father*, Mother, Older brother	22	Korean/English	Above average

Minji (girl)	9	Father, Mother, Younger sister	22	Korean/ English	Above average
Soojong (boy)	11	Father*, Mother, Older sister, Younger sister	16	Korean/ English	Average

Note. Father*: stays in Korea in order to support his wife and children in the U.S. a,b and c: were set by the time of last interview/observation. c: STAR (Standardized Testing and Reporting) grading was given in order to indicate children's English language proficiency level.

2. Data Collection Techniques

The study employed longitudinal observations and interviews with the participant children, their parents and schoolteachers and has lengthened contact with the participants for six months. Data from the three sources (the interviews, the observations, and the supplementary data) were triangulated to establish validity and to ensure that the data is consistent throughout.

IV. Findings

1. Language Uses

English fluency is the most important tool when attempting to cope with problems they face, such as misunderstanding, discrimination and bullying. Language indeed plays an important role, as Soojong pointed out: *It depends on the level of my English. If I spoke good English, I would not be considered as an outsider. They say that everyone is equal in the U.S. but I am still discriminated against by the amount of English I can speak.* After becoming more fluent in English, they established friendships with English speaking children to the extent of being included in activities and being invited to various social events. Coincidentally, their reformed identities as academic achievers and the accompanying increase in self-confidence assisted them in compensating for feelings of exclusion and helped them to overcome the problems that had burdened them in the past.

A family's background, including parents' attitudes and the length of sojourning time, is a major determinant of language ideology. The participant families belonged to the middle class-elite stratum in Korea and this social attribution resulted in academic emphasis for their children. The parents and the children placed English in an exalted position as a symbol and the means to success. Their endeavors towards English improvement became apparent throughout this study: receiving English tutoring, avoiding company with other Koreans, using English names, enrolling in after school programs and constant exposure to English speaking environments. In accordance with their efforts on English enhancement, the children's English language proficiency has increased fast enough to satisfy themselves. Sibling interaction was especially characterized by frequent code mixing and code switching of both Korean and English.

In terms of bilingualism, short-term resident children are usually more grounded in their L1 than immigrant students in general as some cases show in the study of Konno (2003). It is reasonable that they need to maintain their home language proficiency in order to prepare themselves for future re-entry into the home country. Contradictory to Japanese students in Konno's study, the four Korean short-term resident families did not pay much attention to their children's L1 improvement. They did not mind their loss of Korean language proficiency. This statement applies less aptly to Korean immigrant families who are actively seeking opportunities to maintain ties with the culture of their home country. It is explained that the firm grounding in L1 generally meant a lack of opportunities to use L2 for the short-term residents. They were pressed for time to improve their English language skills. Their sojourning goals (learning English) were obviously detrimental to their progress in the native language.

2. Social Adjustment: Investment and Power

The three participant children enrolled into school using their English nicknames. They were pleased with widely using their English names at every activity. In contrast, Kim (2007) provided examples that Korean immigrants were reluctant to change their own names to English names, because they thought that their own names held their identities. However, the participant children were willing to have English names and it should

be understood as one of the investments which help them to establish a common ground within their peer network.

Soojong described his status improvement among his peers; *First time I came here, I was quiet and little bit shy because I don't know English. My classmates seemed to ignore me... Now I am okay. At least they don't consider me a dumb.* These changes increased their sense of belonging, self-respect and further self-actualization. From the standpoint of institutional observation, although Minji was a top student in her class, and her language proficiency improved enough to communicate with her classmates, she still situated herself behind others in her school life. That is, despite the students' persistent efforts, which granted them top ranks in academic proficiency, they could not match their peers in regards to communicative proficiency. At the beginning of their stays in the United States, the focal children experienced feelings of isolation and asymmetric power relations between minority and mainstream language users. When minority language children sit in playgroup among dominant language speakers, they are apt to give up expressing their own opinions. Soojong stated: *when I played with them, I just watched them for a while...Because I had to be nice. Sometimes I wanted to join into their conversation and assert my opinion, but I stopped.* The power relations and unconscious emotional or affective factors interfered with their social adjustment. At the time of this study's last interview, however, all four children agreed that their social power had improved a little more than before.

3. Self-Defined Bicultural Identities

In an attempt to persuade the children to share their views in bicultural identity, three questions of which cultures the focal children most closely identified with can be summed up succinctly in the linear diagrams. 'Korean' was placed on the left end and 'American' was on the right end of a 20-centimeter line. In order to record the most truthful answer, the original questionnaires were not marked with numbers. Upon answering, for data analysis purposes, the lines were scaled and numbers were approximated on a scale of 0 to 10 (0 being Korean and 10 being American)

Table 2
Self-defined Cultural Identity

Time Children	Past	Present	Future
Jinsoo	1.0	3.5→4.0	5.0
Song-yee	2.5	5.0→5.5	7.5
Minji	2.0	4.5→4.5	5.0
Soojong	1.5	4.0→4.5.	5.5

Interestingly, all four children placed themselves around the 1.0~2.5 range, instead of the very starting point (0.0), for their initial sense of self-defined cultural identity. They pointed out several reasons; they had already learned English, seen Hollywood movies, tried American food, and had thus become familiar with Western culture even before they came to the United States.

The questionnaires were given to the children at the beginning of the six-month interview period. At the end of the six months, they were given the option to change their marking for their 'present' cultural identities. Three of the four children's identities shifted slightly, modifying their present cultural identity approximately one centimeter (0.5 point) towards an American identity. It is important to note that the three children's self-expected future cultural identities are positioned around the middle (5.0~5.5) of the scale. Jinsoo, Minji and Soojong all shared a similar opposition to losing their Korean cultural identity and asserted that they would not go further than the halfway point even if they lived in the U.S for a long time. In the case of these short-term residents, they seem to have rooted a strong sense of Korean identity that has created an edge or psychological barrier. Consequently, the students were reluctant to mark past a certain point.

V. Conclusion

This study brought to light some particular features of Korean short-term resident families; the major characteristic of the participants comes under that their aspects toward L1 maintenance is opposed to those in

most research on bilingualism and L1 maintenance of immigrant families. That is, the families focused only on English language improvement and took all advantages of linguistic and cultural environments rather than tried to keep their L1 proficiency.

Another finding noteworthy was that this study provides insight into how Korean short term resident children view themselves within the context of their two languages and cultures. Based on the interviews and observations with the four participating children, they constantly showed their efforts (investments) to adapt to both American and Korean environments, developing a bicultural identity. It seems that the children were vulnerable to the stress of competing forces (power relation). As their English language proficiency grew, they were strongly influenced by their new environments and this social context changed their conceptions of their cultural identities as an outcome. The children's identity development showed a gradual shift from their home cultures to the target culture. When they reached a balance between the two languages and cultures, they continuously attempted to keep this position, which seemed an advantageous and secure ground for them. These findings are significant in the sense that they imply clear evidence for the relations of language and cultural identity; language and identity are mutually constitutive and linguistic resources serve the language users to index their identities.

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BIODATA

Ki-II Lee earned a master degree in TESOL from Oklahoma City Univ. and completed Ph. D course work in applied linguistics & cultural studies at Korea Univ. She is interested in socio-linguistics, specifically language, culture and identity.

Email: kay2711@yahoo.com

Phone: (031) 970-7901/C.P: 010-2369-7901

Primary School Teachers' Blues in Teaching English

Su Yon Yim (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)

I. Introduction

This paper explores primary school teachers' anxiety in teaching English to young learners. A majority of anxiety studies have been conducted with language learners whereas teachers' anxiety has received limited attention in the literature (Kim & Kim, 2004). However, teachers' anxiety has been considered as one of the most important elements which influence teaching practices (Horwitz, 1996; Kim & Kim, 2004). For example, Horwitz (1996) argues that teachers' anxiety will lead to limited use of the target language. The current study aims to investigate the underlying constructs of primary school teachers' anxiety in teaching English to young learners and correlations between teachers' beliefs and anxiety. In particular, this study explores teachers' beliefs concerning the importance of correctness in learning English, whether teachers have erroneous or unrealistic beliefs and such beliefs, and if so, whether such beliefs provoke more anxiety amongst teachers.

II. Methodology

The data was collected from 233 teachers (16 males and 217 females) who were working in 52 different primary schools in Seoul, Korea. The questionnaire consists of three sections: background information, the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz (1985) and the Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS) by Kim and Kim (2004). Several statistics were used to analyze the collected data: descriptive statistics were used to provide a summary of participant background information and levels of teachers' anxiety and, inferential statistics were employed to identify the underlying constructs of teachers' anxiety and investigate correlations between teachers' beliefs and anxiety.

III. Findings

The participants perceived reading as their strongest area and speaking as the weakest amongst the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. Table 1 summarizes teachers' beliefs about importance of correctness in learning English.

Table 1
Importance of Correctness (IC)

Item	Belief	Agree or strongly agree (%)	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree or strongly disagree
1	It is important to speak English with excellent pronunciation.	33.5	34.8	31.8
2	You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	3.0	1.7	95.3
3	It's okay to guess if you don't know a word in English.	77.6	17.6	4.7
4	It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	90.5	8.6	0.9
5	If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	4.3	13.7	82.0
6	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.	4.7	24.0	71.2

It is noticeable that the majority of participants (more than 90 percent) valued repetitive practice in learning English and more than 30 percent of primary school teachers think that good pronunciation is a very important factor in having a strong command of English. Meanwhile, more than 70 percent of teachers disagreed with the grammar favoured statement (No. 6). Given that grammar-translation method has been one of dominant methods of teaching English in Korea (Jeon, 2009), it is promising that Korean primary school teachers do not hold the grammar-favoured belief. Table 2 summarizes the model fit of this three-factor anxiety model.

Table 2
Model Fit of Teachers' Anxiety

CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
41.01	32	0.132	1.28	0.99	0.99	0.035

The anxiety model was assessed according to five types of fit statistics: model χ^2 , the normed chi-square (NC), TLI, AGFI, CFI, and RMSEA. As shown in Table 2, the fit of the model shows that three-anxiety model fits the data well, indicating that teachers' anxiety consists of three underlying factors: Communication Apprehension (CA), Fear of Negative Evaluation (FNE), and Anxiety of Teaching English (ATE). Table 3 shows the results of the correlation analysis of the variables.

Table 3
Correlations of Study Variables

	IC	CA	FNE	ATE
IC	1			
CA	.110	1		
FNE	0.15*	0.65***	1	
ATE	.077	0.80***	0.69***	1

All three anxiety constructs shows significant correlation with each other. On the while, a belief variable, importance of correctness (IC), was significantly correlated with only one anxiety variable, fear of negative evaluation. This result suggests that if teachers focus on correct English, they are more likely to develop anxiety relating to negative evaluation from others.

IV. Discussion and Conclusion

The result of this study shows that teachers' beliefs are related to their anxiety in teaching English. The pedagogic implication for teacher education is that teachers need to view English as an instrument to communicate with others rather than an object to be studied and tested.

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BIODATA

Su Yon Yim has a PhD in TESOL for young learners from the University of Leeds and is currently working as a researcher at the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE) in South Korea. Her research interests are teacher education, language assessment and language policy.

Email: edu1syy@kice.re.kr

Phone: (02) 3704-5994

Factors Influencing Perceptions of the Accentedness of Second Language Speech: The Role of Speech Rate

Mi Sun Park (Teachers College, Columbia University)

I. Introduction

It has been widely observed that late second language (L2) learners exhibit some degree of foreign accent while producing L2 speech. The present study aimed to take account of native listeners' perceptions of the L2 learners' accentedness in relation to speech rate, a suprasegmental feature, which has been reported to play a controversial role in determining judgments of accentedness.

II. Literature Review

Although there is no comprehensive definition of *foreign accent*, the term has been widely used to refer to "the degree to which the listener believes an utterance differs phonetically from native-speaker utterances" (Munro & Derwing, 2001, p. 454). In previous research, the perceived degree of foreign accent, or accentedness, has been assessed qualitatively and/or quantitatively. The qualitative way, probably the most widely used way, requires raters who evaluate the speech sample on an *n*-point scale that ranges from 'very strong foreign accent' to 'no foreign accent (i.e. nativelike).' Researchers, however, have pointed out the problems regarding the validity and reliability of native listener judgment since perception of accentedness may vary due to raters' experience, rating scales and procedures, and the type and nature of L2 speech, to list a few. The quantitative assessment can be made by carrying out instrumental-phonetic analyses of different sub-dimensions of the L2 speech and by comparing them to native speech. Such analysis methods have been rare and are still in need of more reliable and systematic descriptions of L2 speech and native speech (Gut, 2009; Kang, Rubin, & Pickering, 2010).

Previous studies have investigated various factors that seem to influence accentedness, focusing on phonetic factors (e.g. Kang et al., 2010) as well as individual factors such as age of L2 learning (e.g. Flege, Birdsong, Bialystock, Mack, Sung, & Tsukada, 2005), amount of native language (or first language, L1) use (e.g. Piske, MacKay, & Flege, 2001), language learning aptitude (e.g. Thompson, 1991), and motivation (Moyer, 1999). Among the individual, non-linguistic factors, age of L2 learning appears to be the most important predictor of degree of foreign accent: many studies have indicated that earlier exposure to L2 is associated with lesser degree of foreign accent. But it has also been noted that these individual variables need more thorough, in-depth analyses which involve adequate experimental controls and minimize effects of confounding variables (Piske et al., *ibid.*).

Some phonetic characteristics of the L2 speech are also associated with perceived accentedness. Manner of L2 consonant articulation, for example, has been considered in some L2 speech studies: e.g., the voice onset time of stop consonants can influence the degree of perceived accentedness in some controlled contexts (Gonzalez-Bueno, 1997); the accuracy of the Japanese learners' production of English liquids /l/ and /r/ was significantly correlated with accentedness rating (Riney, Takada, & Ota, 2000). In addition, suprasegmental measures, such as intonation, have been found important (e.g. Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson, Koehler, 1992; Kang et al., 2010).

Speech rate, or speaking rate, is one of the prosodic measures that have been frequently touched upon in the studies of foreign accent. It is generally known that late L2 learners tend to produce slower speech than early learners, and at the same time, they tend to be judged as sounding more accented than early learners (Munro & Derwing, 2001). According to Munro and Derwing, who have carried out extensive research on this topic, the English speech of native speakers of Mandarin was judged to be more accented when slowed (1998), and speech that was slightly speeded was correlated with improved foreign accent (2001). However, such correlation between the speech rate and accentedness rating has not been found consistent in other studies (e.g. Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson, & Koehler, 1988) possibly due to the fact that suprasegmental measures cannot be clearly distinguished from segmental features. Munro and Derwing (1998, 2001) have also hypothesized curvilinear effect of speaking rate on listeners' judgments, suggesting the need for extensive research.

III. Objective and Research Questions

The present study aimed to investigate native listeners' perceptions of the L2 English learners' accentedness in relation to speech rate by examining the speech data gathered from adult English learners at high-advanced level. This study aimed to explore the following research question:

- (1) What is the relationship between the perceived degree of foreign accent and L2 speech rate?

IV. Method

1. Participants

An intact group of ESL learners participated in the present study ($n=12$; two males, ten females; age range: 20s-50s). The participants were from a high-advanced class in the Community English Program offered by Teachers College. The participants were of diverse L1: Korean, Japanese, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Croatian, Latvian, and Sanskrit. The present study also had four raters (one female, three males; age range: 30s-40s), whose native language is English. All of the raters were experienced ESL/EFL instructors.

2. Materials

A short passage (176 words) was given to the ESL students to read aloud. The raters were given a 9-point scale to assess accentedness (1: very heavy foreign accent; 3: heavy foreign accent; 5: moderate foreign accent; 7: slight, negligible foreign accent; 9: no foreign accent).

3. Procedures

The students read aloud the given passage, and their speech was saved using a sound recorder program. Four sentences were extracted from the passage and then rated for accentedness. Thus, each student participant was given four scores for each of the four sentences that they read aloud. The mean score for each sentence was computed for statistical analyses. The students' speech rates were also computed (duration/# of syllables).

V. Results

The overall inter-rater reliability for the accentedness ratings of the read sentences revealed moderate inter-rater agreement, with the Pearson(r) value of .66. The value was not high yet acceptable, considering that the listeners, although they were experienced English instructors, had not received any prior training on the rating tasks and that they were judging the degrees of foreign accent from the sentences produced by diverse L1 backgrounds. The Pearson's correlation coefficients between means of rated accentedness scores and speech rates were of no or little significance, indicating that the two measures are not strongly related. Among the four extracted sentences, only one sentence, which was relatively longer (16 words) than the other sentences (11-12 words), showed a slightly higher, yet still non-significant correlation ($r [12]= .388, p > .05$). Neither linear nor curvilinear relationship was found from the data.

VI. Discussion

The results of this study provide several points to consider:

- Statistical analyses revealed no significant correlations between the speech rates and accentedness ratings, suggesting that speech rate may not be counted as a strong contributor to perceptions of the degree of foreign accent. There was, in fact, neither linear nor curvilinear relationship found from the data, and this point will reflect an answer to the research question: independent contribution of speech rate to listeners' assessment of accentedness could not be determined from these data.
- The range of speech rates (min: 2.928 syl/sec; max: 4.193 syl/sec) was not as wide as what had been reported in previous research, and the speech rates of the participants were quite low (e.g. Munro and Derwing (2001) reported the optimal rate for accent was estimated at 4.76 syllables per second). Such problems may have resulted from the fact that the participants were from an intact group and at similar

English proficiency level. Since the data had a rather narrow range of naturally produced speech rates, the data may not have been suitable for a correlation analysis.

- As pointed out in previous research (e.g. Piske et al., 2001), there could have been confounding factors, such as segmental errors, that affected raters' judgments as well as students' sentence production. The extracted sentences did not contain any vocabulary that may challenge English learners at an advanced level, but certain segments (e.g. the <th> sound or /z/) and/or syllable structures may have contributed to slower speech rates.
- The extracted sentences were of similar length (containing 11 to 12 words), except for one that had 16 words. The effect of stimulus length has not been discussed in previous research. Studies that use a variety of sentence lengths may provide insights to our understanding of the perceived degrees of accent and speech rates.
- The relationship between speech rate and accentedness still remains as an interesting topic for future research and curriculum development: in addition to providing lessons on segments and features, instructors may encourage students to try speaking at different rates to find the optimal speed that can reduce their foreign accent.

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BIODATA

Mi Sun Park is currently a doctoral student and instructor in the TESOL program at Teachers College, Columbia University in the City of New York. Her research interests include acquisition of second language phonology, phonetics, speech, and the impacts of phonological awareness, working memory, and input.

Email: mSP2136@tc.columbia.edu

Phone: +1-646-472-6338

Consonant Accommodation by Korean Learners of English in Interlanguage Talk in the UK Context

Hyunsong Chung (Korea National University of Education)

I. Introduction

Consonantal features of the lingua franca core (LFC) of Korean learners of English in the UK and their phonological accommodation in discourse with other speakers of English with different language backgrounds (L1) were investigated in this study. Jenkins (2000) suggests that in interlanguage talk (ILT) where English speakers with different L1s use English as a lingua franca, the interlocutors develop accommodation skills to improve intelligibility in their utterances. Based on her empirical data, she proposed the LFC, a list of pronunciation features which could improve intelligibility in ILT. Although the phonological features of the LFC of English in ASEAN countries has well been investigated as found in such studies as Kirkpatrick (2004), and Low & Brown (2005); conversely, similar studies were rarely conducted on the LFC of Korean speakers of English. In order to ascertain the LFC of Korean learners of English, authentic conversational data are necessary. In the data, non-canonical forms of English pronunciation should be investigated and intelligibility of the non-canonical forms should be examined. Provided that the non-canonical forms do not lead to communication breakdown, or after they undergo phonological accommodation, they could be included in the LFC. Thus, conversational data of Korean learners of English in ILT settings were collected and the consonantal features of the LFC were investigated in this study.

II. Speech Material

Twenty Korean speakers of English, 10 inner-circle English speakers and 10 expanding-circle English speakers, in London, England, participated in several conversations on different topics, which produced 50 recordings of conversational data in ILT settings. Each conversation continued for 10 minutes, and included such topics as “packing a weekend bag,” “the story of my life,” “language learning,” “travel,” and “getting to know you.” Recordings were conducted in a sound-proof booth in a university in London.

III. Analysis

The period where non-canonical forms of pronunciation were found in the speech data was demarcated and transcribed. Subsequently, the intelligibility of the non-canonical forms was examined. It is shown in Table 1 a list of non-canonical forms of English pronunciation produced by Korean learners of English in the speech data which are still deemed intelligible in ILT.

Table 1
Non-canonical Forms of Pronunciation which are Intelligible in ILT

Canonical	Non-canonical	Example
[t], [d]	[t ^h ɪ], [dɪ]	student [stjʊdɪnt ^h ɪ], and [ɛndɪ]
[m]	[m:]	grammar [græm:ɚ]
[p ^h], [p]	[f]	people [fi:fl]
[tʃ], [θ]	[tsi], [θi]	beach [bitsi], months [mʌnθiz]
[f], [θ]	[p ^h], [t]	café [k ^h ap ^h e], filthy [fɪlti]
[s]	[θ]	scene [θin]

Certain non-canonical forms can be found in the following conversation between a Korean speaker (K01) and an Italian speaker (NES01).

(K01_NES01, 8:35)

K01: Busan is, er, has a lot of beach [bitsi], beach [bitsi].

NES01: Uhm, Uhm.

K01: But there are, there are a lot of scene [θin] for beautiful woman.

In this interaction, in addition to the non-canonical pronunciation of an affricate, K01 inserted a vowel at the end of a word, as this kind of habit prevails among many Korean speakers of English regarding a word-final affricate. She, K01, also replaced an alveolar fricative [s] with a dental fricative, which is quite interesting. If we adopt the contrastive analysis hypothesis, there should not be any problem in producing [s] for Korean speakers of English because alveolar fricatives exist in the Korean language while dental fricatives do not. Yet, these non-canonical forms did not hinder the communication.

It may be found in Table 2 a list of non-canonical forms of English pronunciation which are not intelligible in ILT.

Table 2
Non-canonical Forms of Pronunciation which are Not Intelligible in ILT

Canonical	Non-canonical	Example
[kw], [gw]	[k], [g]	square [skeə], languages [lɛŋgiziz]
[t], [d]	[ɹ]	sweating [swɛɹiŋ], boarding [bɔɹiŋ]
[dʒ]	[z]	cottage [k ^h ɒtiz], languages [lɛŋgiziz]
[θ]	[s]	three [sɹi]
[l]	[r]	Leicester [restə]
[ɹ]	[l]	raise [leɪz]

In the following dialogue, phonological accommodation is found in some non-canonical forms of pronunciation.

(K06_ES03, 6:36-7:00)

K6: So you can speak three [sɹi], three [sɹi] language [lɛŋgiziz]?

ES03: Uh, speak ...?

K6: Three languages [sɹi lɛŋgiziz]? Three languages [sɹi lɛŋgiziz], three [θɹi] language [lɛŋgiziz].

ES03: Um ... Three ...

K6: Languages [lɛŋgwidʒiz].

ES03: Yeah, just about it. Just about, I can speak three languages and reading and writing.

The dialogue above between a Korean speaker (K06) and a native-English speaker (ES03) shows obvious evidence that the substitution of a dental fricative [θ] with an alveolar fricative [s], and that of a palato-alveolar affricate [dʒ] with an alveolar fricative [z] do cause serious communication breakdown here. He, K06, produced three non-canonical pronunciations in the phrase “three languages.” He pronounced “three” as [sɹi] and “languages” as [lɛŋgiziz]. ES03 also failed to identify the whole phrase initially and even then the word “languages” after identifying “three.” This was caused by the non-canonical pronunciations of [θ] and [dʒ], as well as the failure of lip rounding in producing [gw]. Interestingly, K06 showed the typical phonological accommodation process while interacting with E03. He tried to accommodate his pronunciation to be understood by ES03; consequently he was successful at the end of the dialogue. ES03 finally understood what K06 said when phonological accommodation took place. For example, non-canonical pronunciations of [s], [g], and [z] changed to canonical forms of [θ], [gw], and [dʒ] during the interaction. Therefore, this may also be evidence that phonological accommodation could take place in ILT as suggested by Jenkins (2000). Similar to these examples, most of the Korean speakers who produced non-canonical forms of English liquids failed to accommodate their pronunciation during discourse; conversely, successful phonological accommodation of obstruents improved intelligibility. Finally, Korean speakers of English in the data pool failed to use vowel length difference before voiced and voiceless obstruents.

IV. Conclusion

It is suggested that while ILT learning environments would work well for phonological accommodation of certain consonants, more varied analytic and explicit approaches may be necessary to improve the intelligibility of English liquids and voicing of post-vocalic obstruents pronounced by Korean speakers of English.

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BIODATA

Hyunsong Chung is an associate professor of the Department of English Education at Korea National University of Education. He earned his BA and MA degrees in English from Hankuk University of Foreign Studies and a PhD in experimental phonetics from UCL (University College London). He has researched the analysis of the lingua franca core of English speakers, prosody implementation of Korean and English for text-to-speech systems, the analysis of English pronunciation by Korean learners of English, the development of an automatic evaluation system for English pronunciation, and the development of English pronunciation teaching methods for Korean learners of English.

Email: hchung@knue.ac.kr

Phone in Korea: (043) 230-3554

Phone outside Korea: +82-43-230-3554

Epistemic Stance Work in Providing an Assessment

Younhee Kim (National Institute of Education, NTU)

I. Introduction

Providing an assessment is one of the most prevalent recipient actions in conversation. By providing an assessment, recipient demonstrates his/her understanding of the prior speaker's turn or story. Furthermore, the way that an assessment is designed reveals the extent to which the recipient is engaged in the story, which can vary from a position of a mere commentator to a vicarious experiencer. Delivered in an appropriate epistemic modality, an assessment can also serve as an index of epistemic stance such as sympathy (e.g., I bet it'd be difficult). The recipient's stance in regard to the story is marked through various resources, including linguistic and other semiotic marking of modality. The current study looks into such epistemic stance indexed in assessment turns in conversations between one Korean ESL learner, *Chungho* and his conversation partner, Tom (a native speaker of English).

II. Literature Review

1. Different Types of Assessments as Appear in the Previous Literature

1) Assessment as a recipient response (concerns preceding turn/story)

i) short sequence closing third

[Feb13]

1 T: so, you're all finished
2 C: °yeah°
3 T: **nice**

ii) at the end of story telling sequence (self or other)

[May8]

1 T: some of my students, in china, they wanted sneakers like
2 nike sneakers, () and they have certain nike that are
3 not sold in china. they're made for America. so they get
4 those sneakers. they're made in china, and sent to
5 America and then they try to buy from America and bring
6 it back [so even if it's made in=
7 Y: [hah hah hah
8 T: =the same town, they can't get it without it going to
9 America and coming back, en paying, maybe two hundred
10 dollars
11 ()
12 T: **stu[pid** heh heh heh
13 Y: [**that's ridiculous**

2) Assessment as an activity (assessing movie, cars, etc.)

[May8]

1 T: eh heh heh heh heh heh heh 'at was a **great movie** heh heh you
2 didn't [like it?
3 Y: [hm heh heh
4 (3.6)
5 C: [**I like the sto:ry but** (0.4) **the** (2.5) **some visual=**
6 Y: [xxxxxx
7 C: **=scenes were very disgusting**

3) Assessment as part of stance marking in presenting an opinion

[May8]

1902 C: **it's interesting** that y'know pee es two has the
memory
1903 card, the data storage, but the arcade game also
has the
1904 data storage () here's hard something like that
()
1905 this is () something like memory card

*In the current study, only type 1 and 2 were included.

III. Methods

1. A first set of analysis: identify relevant assessment sequences, focus on linguistic resources deployed in Chunggho's and Tom's contribution
2. A second set of analysis: Conversation analysis which enables to investigate the Interactional Competence as "the construction of a shared mental context" (Young, 2011)

IV. Result

1. Analysis of Linguistic Repertoire

1) Comparative analysis between Tom's and Chunggho's assessment turns

Table 1
Frequency of assessment turns

	Tom	Chunggho
Sept19	9	2
Oct17	13	3
Nov7	35	3
Nov21	17	0
Dec5	4	1
Jan16	41	5
Jan30	17	5
Feb13	29	4
Feb27	35	9
Mar13	46	5
April17	24	7
May8	26	3

Apparently, Chunggho's assessment turns appear much less frequently than Tom's. Plus, assessment as a recipient response appears in Jan30 session for the first time. Those that appear before Jan30 are either ones that are elicited by Tom's question (e.g. in response to Tom's question on Chunggho's recent trip to a neighbor island, "is it really beautiful?") or ones provided at the end of telling his own experience (e.g. "I have been to Pearl City one time. We could watch sunset and ocean. It was pretty nice.")

Table 2
Types of Linguistic resources used in assessment turns

	Tom	Chunggho
Exclamation	<i>Wo:w, wa /oh my gosh /oh man/ oh my go:d /oh no</i>	Wa:
Adjective	<i>Coo:l / nice</i>	So so / terrible/ good
Present form of 'be' verb	<i>It's (that's) crazy/ cool/tough/ interesting..</i>	That's good
Past form of 'be' verb	<i>It was okay /just crazy</i>	It was pretty nice
Present perfect form of 'be'	<i>These guys have been crazy today</i>	

verb		
Sucks/sucked	<i>It sucks</i>	
Seems	<i>Seems kind of strange</i>	
Must be	<i>It must be really crowded, too</i>	
must have been	<i>It must've been so noisy</i>	
I think/I don't think	<i>I don't think it's been a really good one</i>	I think (0.6) it will be okay (0.4), I mean better than Korean things
Would be	<i>That would be really cool to see</i>	
Sounds like /seems like	<i>Sounds like addiction</i>	
Can be	<i>Can be disturbing</i>	
'll be	<i>That'll be cool</i>	
S'pposed to be	<i>S'pposed to be really funny</i>	
Should be	<i>Seems like they should be pretty heavy</i>	
Could be	<i>That could be fun</i>	
I bet it's be	<i>I bet it'd be difficult</i>	

Whereas Tom's assessment turns show deployment of a variety of linguistic resources to index different kinds of epistemic stance, Chungho's assessment turns show a limited types of modality, i.e., exclamation/ adjective alone/present form of 'be' verb/ past form of 'be' verb.

2) Is there any sign that indicates development /learning?

In terms of linguistic resources that index modality, there does not seem to be any indication for development. Nine months might be too short to expect a development in the learner's ability to fine-tune epistemic stance in delivering assessment turns. However, in terms of the type of adjective (e.g. good, so so, gross, etc) that were used in Chungho's assessment turns, evidence was found that indicate Chungho's development.

Ex) April 17 session shows that Chungho appropriates the adjective 'gross' that were used in Tom's preceding assessment turns. One minor interesting point is that Chungho does not use or appropriate the adjective 'cool' at all despite it being the most frequently used assessment word in Tom's assessment turns. It might have to do with Chungho's perception of the target word being associated to projecting a particular type of identity.

2. Sequential Analysis

[April 3]

14 T: =so (0.6) **it's** [**really kind of cool** hah hah
 15 Y: [it should be fu(h)n heh heh
 16 (2.2)
 17 C:→ but (0.5) it **should be** (.) kind of embarrassing
 18 (0.9)
 19 T: y↑ea:h maybe: (.) it's also: [I think you get over the=
 20 Y: [unless you're gonna be on tee vee
 21 T: =embarrassment when you start collecting the money. heh heh

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BIODATA

Younhee Kim is an Assistant Professor in English Language and Literature Academic Group in National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, where she teaches courses in second language acquisition, pragmatics, conversation analysis. She did her Ph D in the department of Second Language Studies at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. Her research interests include CA- for-SLA, particularly, the development of interactional competence, interlanguage /intercultural pragmatics, and teacher development.

Email: younhee.kim@nie.edu.sg

Phone: (65) 6790.3391

Intercultural Learning via Videoconferencing and the Zone of Proximal Identity Development (ZPID) in English Education

Hyun-joo Lee (Kyonggi University)

I. Introduction

We are living in the age of globalization, which gives rise to a greatly increasing number of intercultural communications. It requires mutual understanding of each other, including conversation that extends between nations, communities, and individuals. Recent technological innovations enhance new integration of intercultural understanding in English education. Because of CMC potential, recent studies of intercultural learning supported by technologies in foreign language education have paid considerable attention to telecollaboration. However, most empirical studies on internet-mediated technologies that support the development of intercultural learning in language education involve written interactions such as e-mail exchanges, discussion boards, and text-based chats. There are only few studies investigating the use of internet-mediated videoconferencing that supports oral-visual interaction for intercultural learning (O'Dowd, 2007; Wang, 2007). Internet-mediated multimodal videoconferencing creates a new learning environment in terms of providing multiple channels for language learners to communicate with partners and to stimulate their interactions via oral, visual, and text-based supports. Thus, it is important to explore how internet-mediated multimodal videoconferencing affects to students' new development of identity through intercultural communication in L2 education.

II. Literature Review

1. The Use of Technology in L2 Education from a Sociocultural Perspective

From a sociocultural perspective, the use of technologies in L2 education is a cultural artifact that mediates human activity (language learning in this case). Computer-mediated communication tools and discourse created in the CMC settings are mediational tools that affect human activity. Through technological mediation, it is possible to engage in new and previously impossible communicative practices. In particular, members of the digital generation who have grown up using computers and computer-mediated communication tools in their everyday lives are increasingly involved in participation in social and academic development through technology such as internet-mediated video communication (Skype or MSN live messenger), online social networks (Myspace or Facebook), blogs, and video-aided mobile telephones (Presky, 2001; Thorne & Payne, 2005).

Vygotsky (1978) proposes a concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which suggests the importance of social interactions in development. Social and dialogic mediation supported through interaction can bring about productive changes of learning and developmental processes. Interaction can take place at the level of the individual and the collective, with culturally constructed artifacts. Vygotsky's concept of ZPD presents the potential of future development through interactions enhanced by artifacts used in the learning environment. Although Vygotsky defines an assistance as being help provided by more capable people, such as teachers, parents, and more advanced peers, this current research has demonstrated that the concept of assistance needs to be broadened, including peer interaction that occurs within the same developmental level, human-computer interaction, and environmental interaction in an immersion settings of language learning (Engeström & Middleton, 1996; Swain & Lapkin, 1998).

Educational technologies and CMC communication tools as mediational artifacts affect students' interactions in language learning. Thorne (2003)'s empirical study demonstrates the effect of mediational artifacts in technical-supported language classrooms. Thorne shows that different types of CMC tools (e-mails and instant text messaging) can promote and/or limit the process of communication, the quality and quantity of interaction, relationship building, and language development.

In addition, the meanings of interactions need to be interpreted in their given social and cultural contexts (Gánem Gutiérrez, 2006; Kramsch & Anderson, 1999; Warschauer, 2005). Considering the fact that language implies cultural elements, internet-mediated telecollaborative videoconferencing, which is able to establish a direct connection with a native speaker of the target culture and language, can also provide a path to experience authentic culture and a living language being used in the target culture. From this view point, the sociocultural theory established by Vygotsky considers internet-mediated technology and language use in the electronic context as cultural artifacts that mediate language learning. Therefore, this study investigates how the artifacts that create a new learning environment influence the development of intercultural learning in L2 education.

2. Intercultural Learning in Internet-mediated L2 Education

Scholars in language education have proposed the integration of culture into language (e.g., Brooks, 1997; Byram & Zarate, 1997; Byram, Nichols, & Stevens, 2001; Kramsch, 1993). Kramsch (1993) claims that traditional approaches to culture in language education are limited in terms of dealing with the transmission of general information of the target culture and people. She points out that an intercultural approach to teaching culture in the language classroom can be possible in the interpersonal process that facilitates understanding of 'otherness.' She presents the idea of cultural reality and imagination that takes place in the teaching of language and culture. The reality of a learner's native culture (C1) and the target culture (C2) can be different from what can be seen on the outside – public consciousness. This cultural imagination can include the image of C1 that is represented in C2, a self-perception of the learner's native culture, and the image of the target culture through the insider's perspective. In teaching language and culture, she urges finding a 'third place' that understands learners' home culture and the target culture via a new perspective that takes into account a "dialogic view" of both cultures. By understanding otherness and reevaluating the self, learners can see themselves in the eyes of others and are able to respect each other. In other words, they can find a 'third place' where one is not considered more superior than the other.

According to Byram (1997), intercultural competence consists of several components. Intercultural speakers need to have attitudes of openness and knowledge of their own culture as well as of the other culture. This includes cultural-specific knowledge and cultural-general knowledge representing a general understanding of the nature of culture that can transfer across cultures. Byram lists skills of intercultural competence that are related to the ability to interpret cultural elements from the other's perspectives, and to build new knowledge and perspectives in order to maintain meaningful interaction with people from other cultural backgrounds. With these attitudes, skills, and this type of knowledge, intercultural speakers are able to evaluate their own culture critically and establish respectful relationships with others. The purpose of development of intercultural learning is not to assimilate the target culture or to imitate it. It rather promotes critical self-awareness and increases mutual understanding of different cultures. Intercultural learning helps re-conceptualize the self and facilitates respect of others. Therefore, the direction of this research has broadened since the arrival of computer-mediated technologies in the language classroom.

3. Discussion and Results

The empirical study relies on a case study that precisely describes internet-mediated discourse and interaction of one second year high school student learning English in a one-to-one videoconferencing setting. The participant named Chul-soo (a pseudonym) studied English through multimodal videoconferencing for about three and a half months. The participant's process of intercultural communication is carefully analyzed in three steps: initial development, mid-point development, and final outcomes.

During his initial development, Chul-soo shows patterns of simple repetitions and minimal responses that do not provide detailed information to Mr. Johnson, the teacher. Mr. Johnson and Chul-soo also use an adjacency question-answer pair in which Mr. Johnson initiates a question for Chul-soo, and Chul-soo responds. Throughout their interactions, the teacher takes the initiative, and Chul-soo attempts to provide answers to the teacher's questions. In spite of using a full sentence when responding to Mr. Johnson, Chul-soo uses simple negative echoes of Mr. Johnson's initial question in many turns. Also, the structure of Chul-soo's answers show repetition and minor grammatical modification of what Mr. Johnson says. In some cases, Chul-soo's interest in cultural learning is demonstrated by the changes in his intonation and non-verbal behavior, but his interest in intercultural development is mostly concealed at this stage.

Chul-soo's mid-point development of intercultural communication is analyzed in two sections. The first section discusses Chul-soo's topic preference regarding American ways of celebrating a major holiday. It reveals his curiosity for cultural practices and products related to the holiday as it is celebrated by the target culture. The second section consists of three separate parts that analyze changes in Chul-soo's interaction patterns, the effect of visual supports, and compares cultural practices of the home and target culture. In the mid-point development, Chul-soo gradually increases his knowledge of the target culture by discussing Mr. Johnson's and Chul-soo's own traditions regarding the celebration of the holiday, functioning as a way to talk about both countries' cultural practices. The visual support made possible by videoconferencing particularly stimulates Chul-soo's cultural communication for a more detailed discussion.

In the final stage, Chul-soo's intercultural communication greatly increases to the discussion about an American economic problem by presenting critical evaluations on the issue. He uses several sentences to describe the process, background and causes of the economic crisis, though he makes grammatical errors and stalls. He explicitly presents his own perception of the crisis in relation to global financial issues. This refers to his explicit perspective on the economic issues affecting the target culture. Chul-soo also presents his own critical evaluation that does not conform with Mr. Johnson's ideas. Therefore, in this stage, Chul-soo demonstrates that his cultural learning greatly develops through multimodal videoconferencing.

Overall, Chul-soo has shown significant development in his intercultural communication through the interaction supported by videoconferencing. He has shown a noticeable progress in developing intercultural communication, developing from the stage of having a general curiosity for the target culture to providing an evaluative account of economic issues that refer to a specific perspective. Consequently, multimodal videoconferencing facilitates Chul-soo's intercultural process by stimulating his interest in the target culture in various ways and by providing effective learning and communication tools that allow for suitable alternatives in order to fit his particular learning context.

4. Conclusion: Theoretical Considerations

Vygotsky defines ZPD as the difference between the individual's present ability when he/she works alone and his/her potential achievement with assistance of others and cultural artifacts. The broader scope of the ZPD includes not only the interaction between experts and novices but also peer-to-peer interaction at the same level. Moreover, interaction enhanced by technology in the technology-mediated learning environment is another aspect of ZPD to be considered in the mediation process.

In addition, social interaction supported by internet-mediated multimodal videoconferencing facilitates the development of new identities through critical awareness of the self and the other and a deep understanding of one's home culture (C1) and the target culture (C2). This implies that the broader scope of ZPD needs to include interactions through internet-mediated videoconferencing, and it brings about the expansion of the concept of ZPD to "*the zone of proximal identity development (ZPID)*." This is the gap between the learner's present self-identity in one's home culture and the person's new identity based on critical awareness and deep understanding of both cultures, C1 and C2, with interactions through inter-mediated videoconferencing in intercultural learning. Throughout the process of intercultural learning supported by videoconferencing, L2 learners can move away from 'cultural imagination' and move into the 'cultural reality' of the target and home culture. While having a more authentic experience and knowledge of the target culture, learners can develop a deep understanding of the target culture. This leads to changes in attitudes towards and perceptions of the target and to accept otherness. Furthermore, interactions supported by videoconferencing help learners objectify their own culture with a balanced viewpoint and promote them to re-discover about themselves. In other words, by re-assessing the self and others from a new standpoint and by pursuing a third place where the two different people and cultures are meaningful, L2 learners can establish new identities that can give new standards of values and beliefs to the third(new) place and culture (C3).

Shaules (2007) states that intercultural speakers are those who "develop a sense of identity or change their values," even with only a short visit of the target culture, such as 'going local,' not staying or living there for a long time (p.20). He also addresses the issue that their intercultural experiences can encourage them to reconstruct the "sojourner's existing internal cultural competences" through critical awareness of cultural differences (p.22). Being aware of cultural difference, L2 learners can develop a new sense of identity in

intercultural learning that influences their value systems and perspectives of the world. Therefore, by reframing the self and others and the situations they are involved in, interactions supported by internet-mediated videoconferencing in L2 education can develop new identities that become a part of the third place. In other words, the concept of ZPD, which is content-based, expands to identity development in the ZIPD through interactions enhanced by videoconferencing.

By facilitating meaningful interactions, videoconferencing can be a connecting factor for L2 learners, enabling them to become cosmopolitan citizens of the new world. To illustrate this issue with precision, I ask you to consider one Korean proverbial expression that contains reflective connotations in it: “the frog in a well.” This proverbial expression means that the frog (a metaphor for the person) is sitting in a small world, surrounded by a wall, like a well, and has a very narrow perspective of the self and the world. Although the frog is proud of itself, this attitude results from its narrow-minded perspective and its lack of knowledge of the outside world. As the frog does not really know who he is, he swaggers around in his world. Thus, the “frog in a well” needs to connect with the big world in order to open its eyes about itself and to realize that his world is just one of many others. Through this process, the frog can become a cosmopolitan person that has a new identity and equips with the needs in the new world. Consequently, internet-mediated videoconferencing can work to establish this connection with the outside world. At the same time, it can be a mediator that makes the frog not only rethink its self and the world it is in, but also develop a new identity that belongs to the third place. This helps the frog become a cosmopolitan person.

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BIODATA

Hyun-joo Lee is an assistant professor of Kyonggi University(the Graduate School of Education). Her research interests focus on discourse analysis, intercultural learning in language teaching, and the use of technology in L2 education.

Email: bright1353@gmail.com

Phone: (031) 249-9294/ H.P: 010-5135-2878

Day 2

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Korean Middle School Students' Perceptions toward *Native Speakerism*

Hannah Kim (Ewha Womans University)

I. Introduction

Since great emphasis was placed on school curricula for the students' improved communicative competence, many native speaker English teachers have been recruited both in the public and in the private sector in the Korean ELT context (Kwon, 2000). Consequently, Korean middle school students are assumed to have far more exposure to native English speakers (NES) than earlier generations, resulting in their different perceptions on native speakerism. Many existing studies were conducted with adult learners, focusing on inequalities based on native speakerism, but studies examining middle or high school students' perceptions toward native speakerism have been rare in Korea. The purpose of this study is to analyze how Korean middle school students perceive the notion of native speakerism and consider implications for English language education in Korea.

II. Literature Review

1. Native English Speakers (NESs)

In general, although NESs are regarded as the model in English language learning with a high level of credibility by non-native English speakers (NNESs) (Holliday, 2005), abilities the NESs are assumed to have are questioned by many scholars. For instance, Rampton (1990) argues "being born into a group does not mean that you automatically speak its language well (p.98)." Despite its theoretical shortcomings, the native speaker paradigm serves important functions in L2 context. Teachers of English whose mother tongue is English are far more preferred by employers despite their *unanalyzed* experience (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy, 2001), and they have positive influence on L2 learners (Ma, 2012).

2. Native Speakerism as an Ideology

Shuck (2006) maintains native and non-native speakers of language are mutually exclusive, uncontested, identifiable groups, and people develop iconic links between language-related categories: e.g. being Caucasian English is owned by White monolingual English speakers. Such group categorization for NESs naturally leads to group stereotypes as a product of cognitive processes, which aims at enabling the perceiver to arrive at a sense of "group reality" (Waters, 2007); that is, since NESs have greater political power than their NNESs, they are engaged in the exercise of hegemony over them. Similarly, Holliday (2006) states that native teachers represent a Western culture, and this ideal plays a widespread and complex iconic role outside as well as inside the English-speaking West (p. 385).

In a similar vein, native speakerism in Korea has recently been studied from ideological perspectives. Park (2012) links linguistic investment in *jogi yuhak* (early study abroad) phenomenon to the dominant order of the global linguistic market, where "native" English accents of the West are considered more valuable than "non-native" ones. Kim (2011) argues the hegemonic ideology of the NES vs. NNES dichotomy is found in CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) as a political response to globalization, and this ideology has promoted the NES superiority to Korean English teachers despite no clear and their little distribution to the regular curricular.

3. New Paradigms for Native Speakerism

Raised awareness that NS is not linguistically based but socially present has prompted new paradigms for native speakerism. Based on EFL learners' attitudes throughout linguistics as well as in the field of phonology, Jenkins suggests MES (Monolingual English Speaker) for native speakers, and BES (Bilingual English Speakers) for non-native speakers (cited in Butcher, 2005). Focusing on communicative aspect of language, Rampton (1990) proposes *expert* for accomplished users instead of *native speaker*. The notion of expert shifts the emphasis from 'who you are' to 'what to know' (p.99)

Through reconceptualizing native speakerism, some non-native varieties of English, referred to as *world Englishes* began to be recognized as variants of English, and at the same time, the aspiration for the standard English has been arising (Tokumoto and Shibata, 2011). Bruthiaux (2003) argues that English is exonormative by looking to American or British models for standard for linguistic norms, but recently its varieties become increasingly endonormative local standard. Similarly, despite the popular belief that Koreans learn American English, a *codified variety of Korean English* was learned through the process of education and testing, which now serve as the endonormative standard for English education in Korea (Shim, 1999). In general, although the need for standard English is expected to be meager by accepting non-native varieties of English, learners in EFL context still consider standard English as the best understandable one, and the definition of ‘being understood’ is congruent with standard English (Wu and Ke, 2009).

III. Methodology

1. Methods & Participants

With intent to investigate Korean middle school students’ perception on native speakerism in Korean EFL settings, this study employed 3 methods (a survey, interviews and reflective journal) so as to triangulate the data. The survey was conducted throughout February 2013 either at a middle school classroom located in a suburban city of Seoul or at the researcher’s residence. The respondents consisted of 20 boys and 24 girls, whose age ranged from 13 to 14. A pilot version was given to two students, and modifications based on problems and feedbacks were made before the survey. In order to facilitate the elicitation of the students, a 5-point Likert scale was adopted for each item in the questionnaire, and for the students’ open-ended comments about some questions some space was made at the end of some items. All of the 44 questionnaires were assumed to be valid, because the students filled them out in presence of the researcher, who helped the respondents’ clarification for the questionnaire.

For semi-structured interviews, five students (3 boys & 2 girls / 3 were 13 years old & 2 were 14 years old) out of those who had responded to the survey participated. Each of the interviews was face-to-face, lasting for about 40 minutes. The researcher worked out a set of questions in advance, but was flexible in using those questions depending on the initial answers given by the interviewees. Lastly, four journal entries were collected from one respondent, who had also participated in the survey. While being taught in a private English institution by three native English speaker teachers, she was asked to write about any experiences with those teachers during the classes without knowing the researcher’s intention.

2. Data Analysis

Data collected from the survey was averaged by each item, and the results of an open-ended question asking the students’ opinions were categorized thematically. Each interview was audio recorded while the researcher took notes on notable comments. The interviews were then transcribed verbatim. Only one of the journal entries was adopted for this study because it was considered to have relevance to the topic of the research. The data collected and presented in this paper were translated into English from Korean.

3. Research Questions

The current study addressed two research questions:

- (1) How do Korean middle school students define NESs?
- (2) How do Korean middle school students perceive *native speakerism* within the Korean EFL context?

III. Findings

1. Factors in Determining NES

The students’ perception toward accent was the most significant determinant in defining a NES (average 3.8). The American accent was the most preferred (80%), followed by the British accent (20%). It was interesting that the students prioritized using *accentless* English as the most important quality of a NES, which accounted for valuing the American accent as having high status, although the participants were aware of the many different types of accents even among the American English. The students’ strong endorsement of American English

seemed to result from their familiarity with American English mediated through education and exposure to media such as American TV dramas and movies.

Although the second most important criterion was English speakers' nationality (average 3.3), the participants showed great tolerance toward NES's nationalities by broadening the scope of them even to South Africa and the Philippines on the condition that the speakers use *accentless* English. Whereas NESs' inborn features like skin color and a lineage (e.g. White & Anglo) were not very important (average 2.7), the students perceived the significance of English as a mother tongue (average 3.1). This perception was closely linked to their uncertainty of the inclusion of the *kyopo* (the 1.5 or 2nd generation of Korean American) within the boundary of NESs, as seen in interviews and the journal entry.

2. Dual Attitudes toward Native Speakers

The students had dual views on the NESs as instructors and as NESs. While their increasing contacts with the NES teachers positively affected their attitudes toward them as teachers, the students' transnational experiences were seen to play a key role in perceiving NESs. In general, the participants placed a high value on the NES teachers by using favorable words (e.g. friendliness, trust), expecting not only efficient instruction in speaking and writing, but learning their culture from them (average 3.6). In particular, the extent of such valuation seemed to draw on their communication abilities. In a journal entry, a participant, who was able to communicate in English, described her classes taught by the NES teachers as "amusing because of their relaxed attitude" and "beneficial because of cultures learned from them". In contrast, another student stated in an interview that he did not appreciate the NES teacher in his school, as he is "not helpful in the Korean test-oriented setting" and "available only for those who have high proficiency of English", mainly caused by his limited ability to communicate with the teacher. Thus, his evaluation of the NES teacher was not as positive as the girl's one as illustrated above.

On the other hand, they placed a relatively lower value on English-speaking countries: for example, an average score of 2.8 was found for survey items such as "English-speaking nations are rich and democracy is well-established." Two of the interviewees, who once attended schools in the U.S. and Singapore respectively, emphasized that there are few differences in the quality of daily lives between English-speaking countries and Korea. Moreover, negative news the students had encountered (e.g. gun spree killings and drug abuse) toward the advanced English-speaking countries had made them questionable about the established images of those countries. In this way, increased transnationalism obtained through not only direct experiences of international education but also negative international news about those countries seemed to contribute to a weaker distinction of the binary opposition of the Self (Koreans) and the Other (the NESs) by making the border line between them ambiguous. Additionally, it was noticed that this result was likely to be incongruent with the simple, dichotomous categorization of the West and the Orient made by the Neocolonial discourse during Korea's colonial and post-war period: while the U.S.A. (the West) was constructed as powerful, advanced, and beautiful, Koreans (the Orient) were understood in its mirror image such as weak, backwards, and inferior (Park, 2012).

3. Mutual Intelligibility

The students were already aware that mutual intelligibility is far more important than having the ability to speak like a native speaker (average 3.7), and they had heard it from teachers and mass media (85%). Interestingly, they applied double standard on local varieties of English based on its geographical location. On the one hand, they tended to depreciate Asian varieties of English like Indian English because of unintelligibility due to its strong accent and borrowing of words from a local language, but on the other hand, they considered European varieties much more acceptable. As for the possible reason for their discriminatory perception of such varieties, one of the interviewees explained the latter sounded more like "flowing water", which accounted for his association of it with English. His metaphoric expression was understood as *accentless* English considering his other additive comments about it. Thus, the students appear to be caught in the discourse of *accentless* English even in discussing the other issues involved in native speakerism.

4. Korean National Identity and English Language Competence

The students displayed strong national identity by prioritizing the importance of Korean language use over English in the Korean society. For example, an average score of 2.5 was found on the survey item, "I think it is better for one to speak English fluently although his/her Korean is a little bit shaky"; and "I assume those who

speak English fluently have high living standard” (average 2.7). These interviewees considered the Korean language as an essential component of Korean identity by repeating the words, “Koreanness” and “as a Korean” several times.

Though the influence of English appeared to outweigh the Korean language when the interviewees discussed English in the context of globalization, they showed a higher concern for losing their Korean national identity instead of gaining linguistic competence in English. As linguistic homogeneity is seen as a natural and fundamental basis for the definition of identity in a monolingual society like Korea (Park & Wee, 2008), the students were likely to wish to gain global membership through competence in English as long as it added onto their Korean national identity without impairing the Korean language. This view shared the notion of *elite bilingualism* since they chose to have a bilingual context in order to enhance social status (Mills, 2001, p.387) (global membership can be a goal to achieve through it).

5. Need for Standard English

Although the students did not greatly feel the necessity for standard English to the extent of its official adoption in Korea (67%), they, in the interviews, restated that possible instructional varieties of English should be one of the varieties of the inner circle countries, where the traditional monolingual native speakers of English are located (e.g. the U.S.A., the U.K., New Zealand, Australia, and Canada).

IV. Conclusion

The current study has examined Korean middle school students’ perceptions toward native speakerism. There are three significant implications in this study: 1) the students’ perceptions toward English accent is an essential issue not only in defining NESs, but also in fostering mutual intelligibility in communicating in English; 2) in order to mitigate the students’ sensitivity to the *accentless* English, more exposure to local varieties of English is crucial in Korean ELT; 3) the students displayed strong national identity despite the current English fever in Korea. Admitting that this study is limited in generalizing its results due to the size of the subjects and the short-term research period, I hope the findings to be the starting point in studying Koreans students’ complicated attitudes toward native speakerism.

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BIODATA

Hannah Kim received MA in TESOL from Ewha Womans University, Seoul, Korea in 2013. She is interested in sociocultural perspective in ELT.

Email: hannah7011@gmail.com

Mobile Phone: 010 5298 4246

What Do World Englishes Mean to Teachers?: Korean English Teachers vs. Native English Teachers

Jongmin Song (Kyung Hee University)

I. Introduction and Background

Since the 1980's the notion of 'World Englishes (WE)' has been emerged and it serves as an "umbrella label" which covers all varieties of English worldwide but, in a narrower sense, it refers to the so-called new Englishes in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean (Kachru's *outer circle*) (Bolton, 2004; Kachru, 1985). Regardless what it refers to, the notion of WE embraces the variety of English including localized pronunciation, vocabulary, code-mixing and cultural and pragmatic norms (Kirkpatrick, 2010). In the 1990's its notion has been empowered as English has used as a lingua franca, a contact language between people who do not share a common native tongue. The language learning goal becomes being able to use English successfully in multilingual contexts and it has influenced the choice of English language model and target culture for the language classroom (Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010). As a result, English language teachers (especially those in Kachru's *outer- and expanding-circle* countries) today face the challenge to develop contextual pedagogies for English language teaching and determine learners' needs based on the local context (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Pennycook, 1999). Against this background, this study is designed to investigate Korean non-native English speaking (NNES) teachers' and native English speaking (NES) teachers' understanding of WE and its application in English teaching.

II. Research Questions

The research questions of this study are as follows:

- (1) To what extent do the understanding of World Englishes of Korean non-native English speaking teachers and native English speaking teachers differ?
- (2) How do they perceive the relationship between World Englishes, English language teaching, and their roles?
- (3) To what extent does their understanding of World Englishes influence their teaching performances?

III. Data

This study was carried out with a questionnaire consisting of 35 questions. Respondents of the questionnaire were a total of 140 teachers, 96 Korean NNES teachers and 44 NES teachers. Their teaching experiences varied between less than three years and more than 20 years, and their main teaching levels also varied from pre-school kids to adults. Their teaching contexts were either mono-cultural or multicultural classroom contexts.

IV. Results

1. Teachers' Understanding of English as an International Language (EIL) and WE

The Korean NNES and NES teachers showed similar ideas about their understanding about English language and WE. In average, 82.9% of them agreed that English plays powerful roles in education and the economy in their country and 92.9% of the teachers said that WE refers to every variation of English used as a first, second or foreign language including standardized English and localised English. More than 73% of them further agreed that English needs to be understood not only in the context where English is mainly used by native English speakers but also in international contexts. These reflect that both groups of teachers' understanding of EIL and WE. Still, it is interesting to find out that 66.4 % of them considered that standardized English is more highly valued while only 10.7% agreed that localised English is more highly valued.

2. WE and English Language Teaching

Unlike their similar perspectives on EIL and WE, the two groups of teachers had different opinions about WE

and English language teaching. A half the Korean NNEST teachers supported the idea that in order to acquire communicative competence in English, learners need to learn many different cultures including those where English is used as a second/foreign language, whereas 27.3 % of the NES teachers agreed. In addition, while 31.3% of the Korean teachers thought that they needed to teach a high level of Standardized English so the learners will be able to communicate with both native and non-native English speakers, 70.5% of the NES teachers agreed. These results indicated that NES teachers thought that teaching the language and cultures of leading English speaking countries are more appropriate for English language learners. In a similar vein, while more than 53 % of the Korean teachers agreed that the ideal model in English class is a speaker of English as an International Language, only 25 % of the NES teachers agreed to it.

3. WE and Its Impact on Teaching

The teachers' opinions about whether their understanding of World Englishes has influence their teaching performances showed differences between the two groups too, as 74 % of the Korean teachers answered yes while 47.7% of the NES teachers said yes. In a multi-choice question about which variation of English they taught at the time of data collection, 90 % of the Korean NNEST teachers taught American English and 25 % taught British English, while 70.5% of the NES teachers taught American and 50% British English in their class. With the question that whether they would teach other variation of English including localized English if they were allowed to choose, only 14.6% of the Korean teachers and 2.3% of the NES teachers answered positive. Finally, both the two groups of teachers said that a lack of appropriate resources might hinder applying the teaching approach of EIL and WE in class.

V. Conclusions

The Korean English teachers and the native English teachers shared similar understanding of EIL and WE. However, the two groups of teachers showed different opinions about English language teaching with regard to WE. Native English teachers more highly valued Standardized English, native English speakers as an ideal model and their culture in teaching English than Korean English teachers did. A higher number of Korean English teachers compared to native English teachers considered that WE has influenced their teaching practice in class. These results refer that, in comparison with the NES teachers, the Korean NNEST teachers were more aware of the recent status of WE and its impact on English language teaching. Still, the majority of the teachers taught either American or British English and they preferred to teach standardised English. This implies that teachers' role in determining which English they teach in class seems negligible as there are many other factors to be considered. Furthermore, it can be argued that the practical impact of WE on English language education is still questionable.

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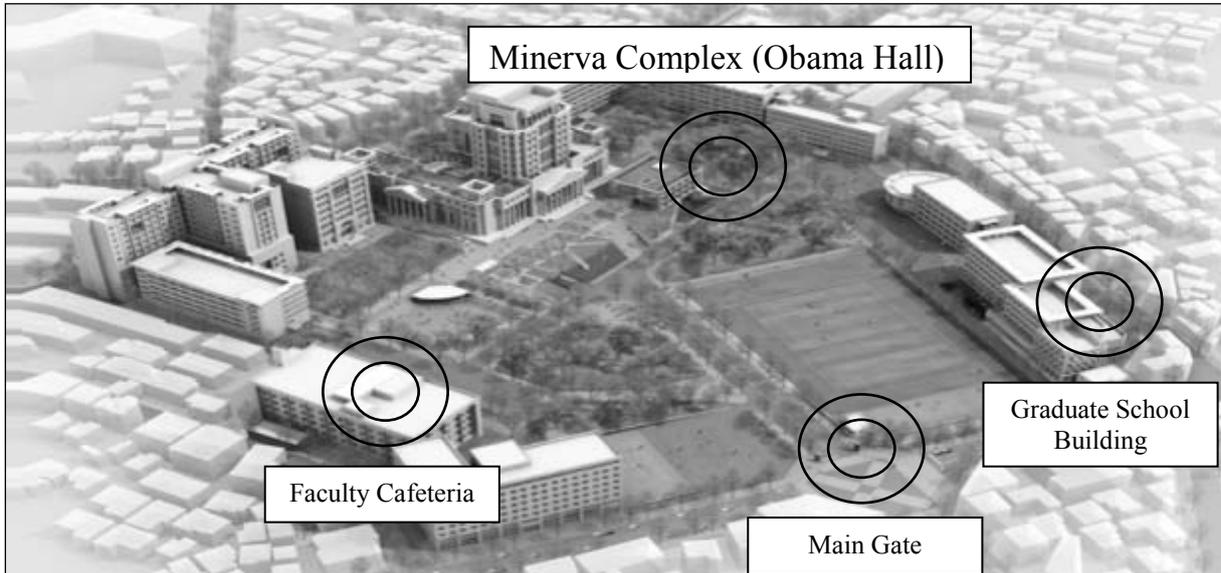
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BIODATA

Jongmin Song is currently a part-time lecturer. She received the PhD degree from the University of Manchester and was a lecturer for three years in TESOL of the School of Education at Queen's University Belfast in UK. Her research interests broadly lie in the spoken and written English of EFL learners and its linguistic analysis. Email: jongminsong92@gmail.com

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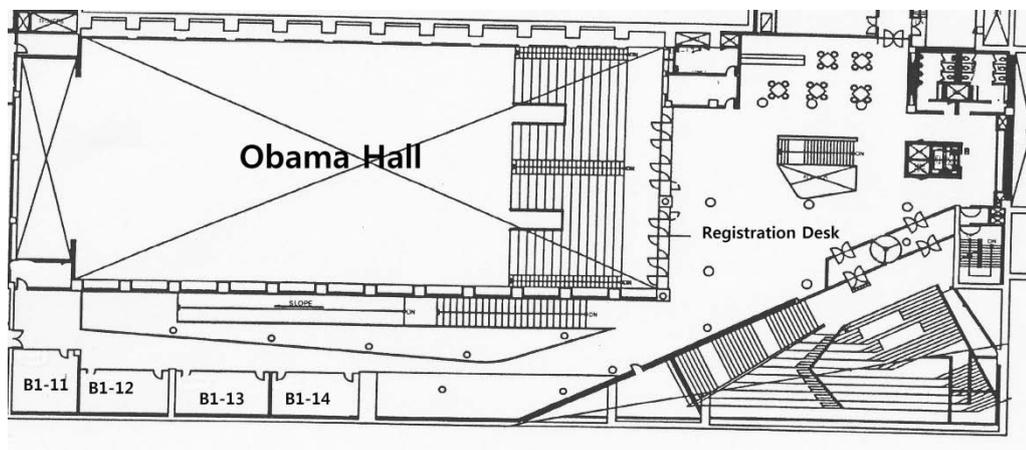
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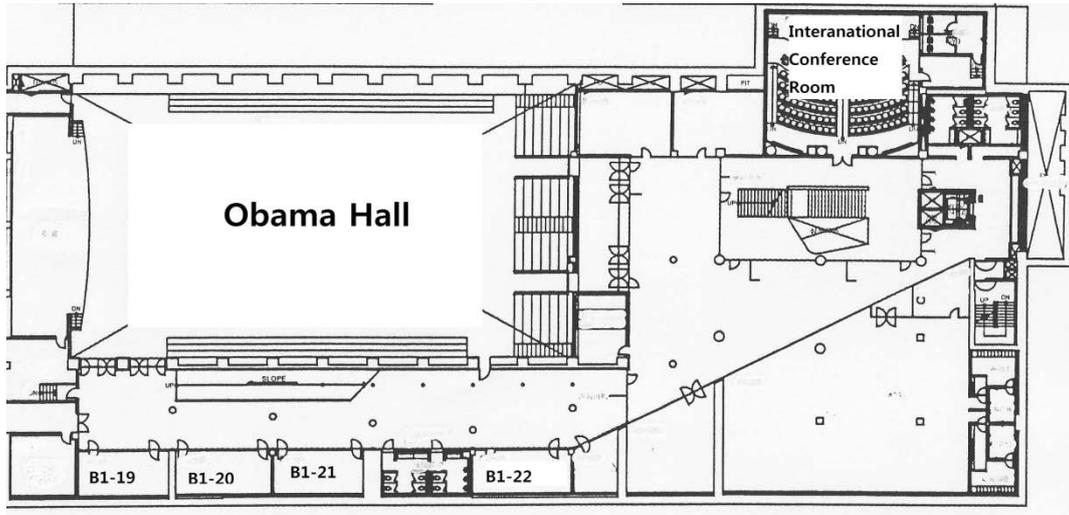
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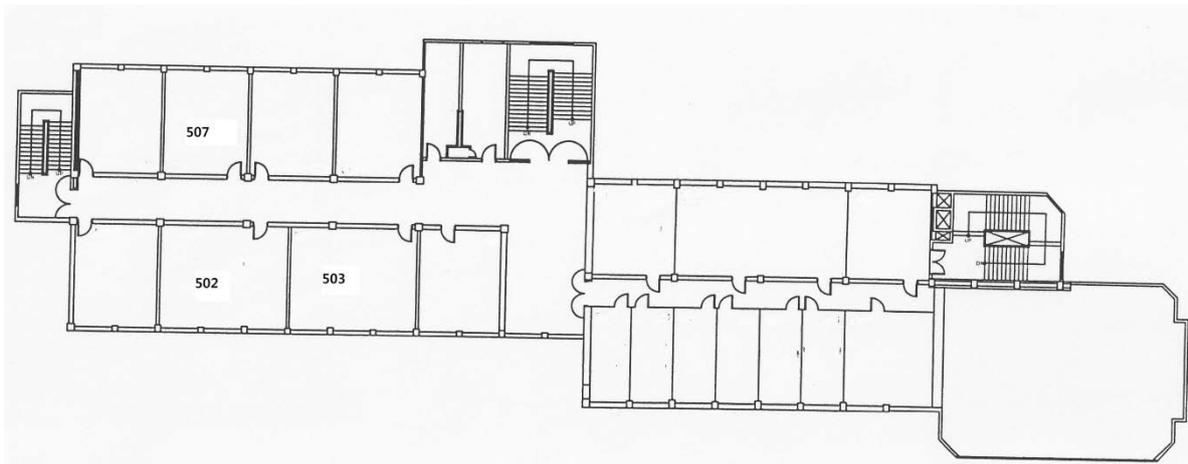
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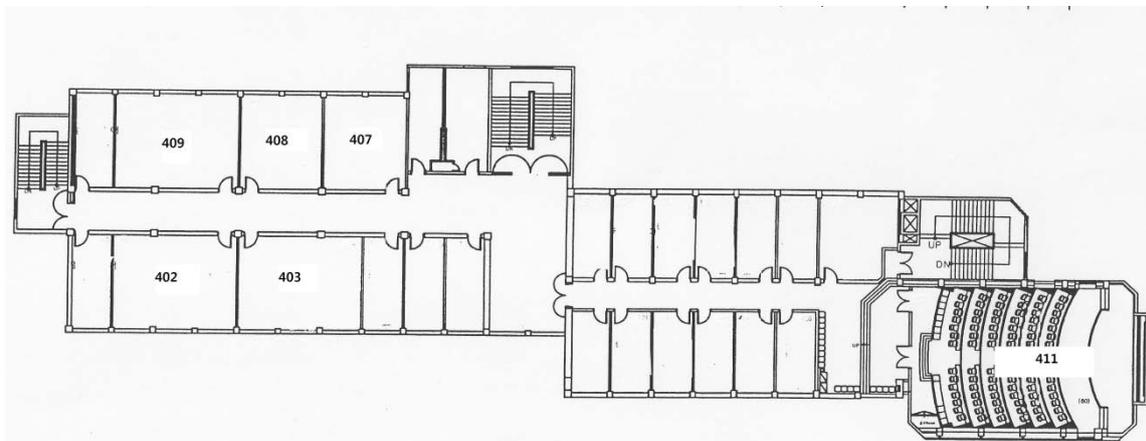
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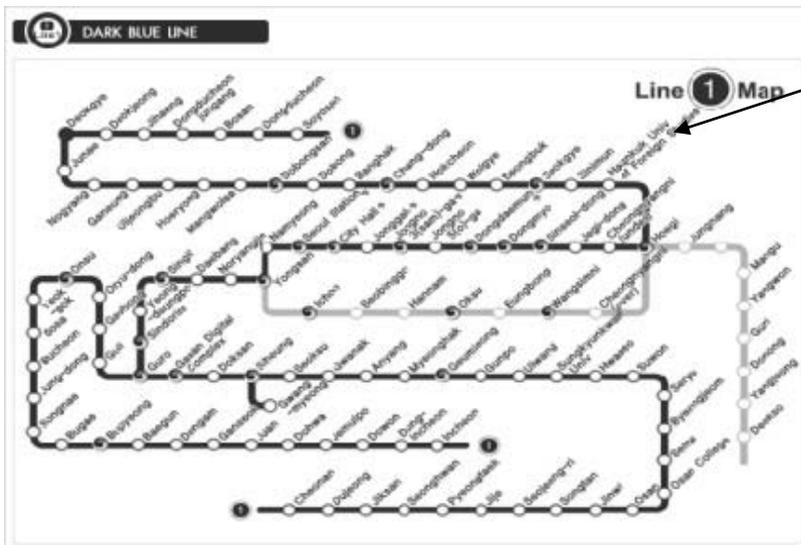


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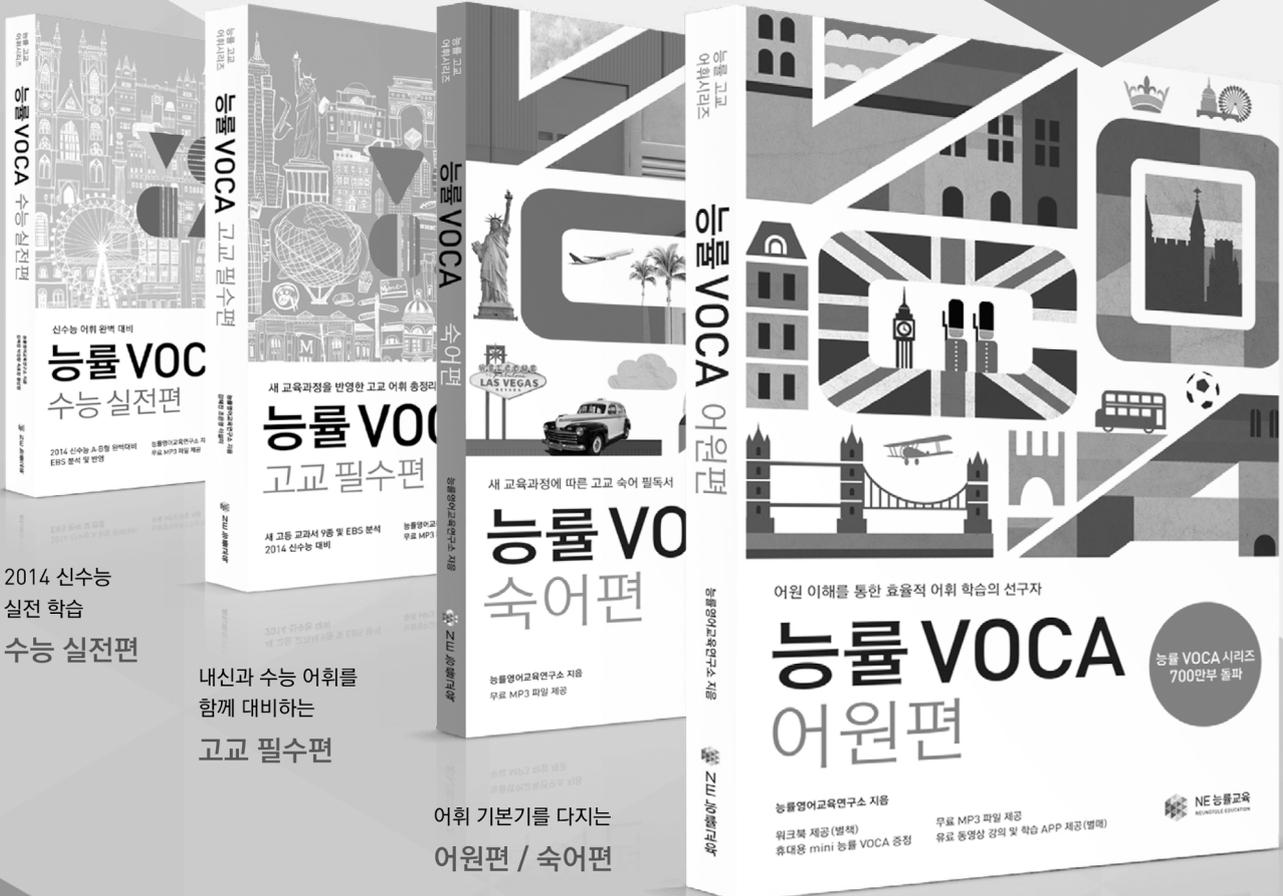
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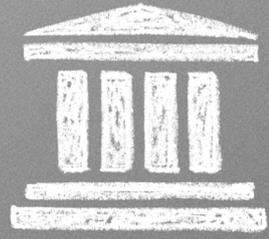
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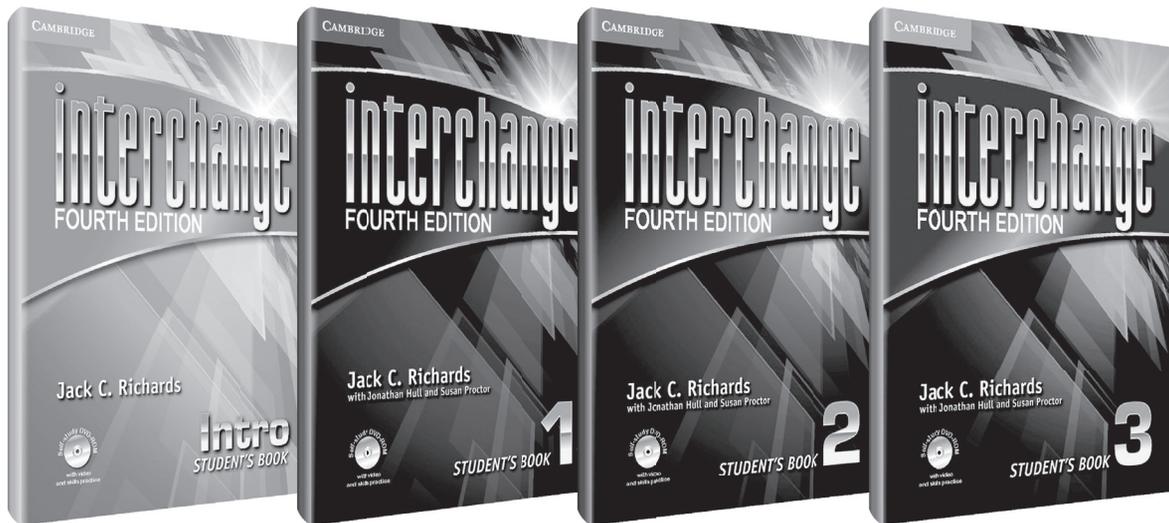
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