O A

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(C C a , S W U)

Distinguished speakers and honorable guests,

It is my sincere pleasure to welcome you all to the 2013 Modern English Education Society (MEESO) International Conference.

I am greatly honored to have three distinguished plenary speakers for today's conference, Dr. Richard Day from the University of Hawaii at Manoa, Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda from the Arizona State University, and Dr. Kyung-Ae Jin from Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. In addition, we have scholars from many different countries, including China, Japan, India, Iran, America, the U.K., and Australia. I believe that the featured speeches by the plenary speakers and all the presentations in concurrent sessions will help us to explore various issues in English education with great insight and thus to further expand our understanding about the field.

The theme of this conference is 'Localizing and Globalizing English Education: Its Challenges and Opportunities.' This theme well reflects a pressing concern that English educators around the world are commonly facing. Indeed, we are currently driven by a question of how to localize and globalize English education at the same time. I believe that today's conference will offer venues for us to consider multiple issues surrounding this theme deeply.

W A

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(P MEESO, K a Na a U E a)

Dear All our members of the Modern English Education Society, Distinguished guests, President of Sookmyung Women's University, Sunhye Hwang, Honored Plenary Speakers, Dr. Richard Day from University of Hawaii, Dr. Kyung-Ae Jin from Korea Institute of Curriculum & Evaluation, Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda from Arizona State University, ladies and gentlemen, I eagerly welcome all of you from abroad and home to the 2013 MEES0 International Conference.

It is my great pleasure to be in front of you and welcome you to our 2013 international conference. We chose 'Localizing and Globalizing English Education: Its Challenges and Opportunities' as the theme of our conference to provide an opportunity for scholars and teachers to gather and discuss important issues regarding effective English teaching in our schools.

Through this conference, I expect that we will have a great change to facilitate cross-cultural as well as world-wide understanding among persons concerned with the teaching and learning of English in Asia. For achieving this goal, many world famous specialists in this area are invited to give us knowledge, skills, and insights on this issue. In addition to this, many other issues such as curriculum and evaluation in English Education, English language teaching & learning and many other issues will also be presented by many outstanding specialists.

All of us can reach beyond national boundaries and can work together toward commonly held goals of developing TEFL in Asia. I believe this conference will be of great help to language teachers as well as researchers in building up their skills, techniques, and professioinal knowledge in language teaching field.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude for all those who have made this conference a success. Over the last ten months, the 2013 MEESO International Conference Committee has made unceasing efforts to organize this conference. Without their sacrificing dedication of the conference committee, this conference would not have been possible. Our deepest appreciation must also go to many sponsors including Korea Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation. A special thanks goes to Sookmyung Women's University who willingly provided this wonderful venue and also financial and administrative support.

Thank you once again for your participation and support.

C a a A

S H a

(P , S W U)

Distinguished speakers and honorable guests,

It is my great pleasure to welcome all of you to 2013 Modern English Education Society (MEESO) International Conference. Sookmyung Women's University is proud to be a host of today's memorable event. I would like to particularly welcome three plenary speakers, Dr. Richard Day, Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda, and Dr. Kyung-Ae Jin and all the presenters. My sincere gratitude goes to those who have travelled great distances from all over the world in order to attend this conference.

I know that MEESO is one of the leading academic associations devoted to advancing English education in Korea and worldwide. I would like to express my sincere appreciation for the passionate endeavor that President Jae-Keun Lee and all the board members have been undertaking for advancing MEESO. I would also like to appreciate the conference organizing committee members for your sincere dedication to a preparation for this conference.

In this global era, nobody would deny that English is used as an international language. In consideration of such status of English, many countries all over the world have endeavored to advancing English education. Korea is no exception. Thanks to great efforts from the Korean government, scholars, and teachers, we have made a great progress so far in English education and research in many aspects. For example, attention is paid to productive skills with focus on communicative competence; a great variety of innovative technologies are used for English education; new teaching techniques and materials are developed and introduced. However, there are still many areas that need to be improved and thus are waiting for our attention.

Through this conference, I hope we all can take a moment to reflect on the current status of English education in Korea and share ideas about the ways of providing more effective English education. It is my wish that plenary speeches and diverse paper and poster presentations in this conference will further stimulate your interest in English education and will help to shape you into more insightful and dedicated English educators.

I wish you all a successful conference.

Main Sessions

Time	Place: College of Pharmacy, Gemma Hall
09:00-09:30	Registration
09:30-10:00	**O C** ▪ **O A :** Myonghee Kim (Conference Chair) ▪**W A :** JaeKeun Lee (President of MEESO) ▪ **C a a A :** Sunhye Hwang (President, Sookmyung Women's University) *Moderator :* Myeong-Ae Ha (Daejeon University)
10:00-10:50	**P a S I** **Does the Research Support the Promise of Extensive Reading?** Richard Day (University of Hawaii, USA) *Moderator :* Moongee Jeon (Konkuk University)
10:50-11:00	Coffee Break
11:00-11:50	**P a S II** **National-Level On-Line English Assessment: NEAT (National English Ability Test)** Kyung-Ae Jin (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation) *Moderator :* Jonghee Kim (Baekseok University)
11:50-13:00	Lunch (Cafeteria)
13:00-13:50	**P a S III** **Beyond the Great Grammar Debate** Paul Kei Matsuda (Arizona State University, USA) *Moderator :* Hohsung Choe (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)
13:50-14:00	Coffee Break
14:00-17:20	**C S**
17:20-17:40	**C C & G a M** *Moderator :* Myeong-Ae Ha (Daejeon University)

Concurrent Sessions

S01: Second Language Acquisition

Room: College of Music 103

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Youngjoo Bang (Myongji Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**T R Na a I : A E A K a L2 L a** Sunyoung Park (Univ. of Sheffield, UK)	Jinhee Yei (Yong-In Songdam College)
14:30-15:00	**Ta -I I L a K a EFL H S L a V a a L a** HyunMi Sung (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Myung Kwan Lee (Anyang Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Jyi-yeonYi (Chongshin Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**Fa A U F a S L2 L a** Ji Hyon Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Eun Park (Dankook Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**T P a K a -E C a E L a A** David E. Shaffer (Chosun Univ.)	Jungeun Year (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: AeJin Kang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**P ELT I a ESL L a** Varalakshmi Chaudhry (NC College of Engineering, India)	Hyun Song Chung (Korea National Univ. of Education)
16:50-17:20	**A A a S K a La a U a K a -E T -Wa I C a** Eunsook Jeong (Korea National Univ. of Education)	Chulwon Jung (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

S02: Language Teaching Methodologies

Room: College of Music 104

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Jeongwan Lim (Daegu Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**O M Ma C a D M C a Ba P a T a C a D A a** Jin-Seok Kim, Woong-Jin Yoon, Eun-Sook Jang & Se-Jin Lee (Seoul National Univ. of Education, Pusan National Univ., Korea National Univ. of Welfare & Su Yu Elementary School)	Sun-Young Kim (Mokpo National Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**P a a I a U C a L2 C a** Joseph Wood (Nagoya Univ. of Foreign Studies, Japan)	Juhyun Do (Ohio State Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**H B E E a M a N -E a a K** Daekweon Bae (Gyeongnam Univ. of Science and Technology)	Varalakshmi Chaudhry (NC Collge of Engineering)
15:40-16:10	**W a a TBI Ca O C -L L2 L a** AeJin Kang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Sang-Keun Shin (Ewha Womans Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Junghee Hwang (Pyungtaek Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**La a T M : I a R a Va V a a T R a R** Madri Kakoti (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Keeseok Cho (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:50-17:20	**Ba a G a Ma F a L a C TESOL A a** Ian Carl Robert Gauvreau (Seokyeong Univ.)	Ritu Yadav (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ.)

S03: Teacher Education & Curriculum Development

Room: College of Fine Arts 304

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Ran Ryu (Dongguk Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**A Ca S S W : T I a W T a C a P a a P C a** Ju-youn Sim & Eun-hyun Kim (Soongsil Univ. & Seoul Theological Univ.)	Eunmi Jeong (Gyeonggi College of Science & Technology)
14:30-15:00	**A S N -E Ma C S Sa a a A a P a a E C a a I** Ji-Young Kang (Chung-Ang Univ.)	Juyoun Sim (Soongsil Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Haedong Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
15:10-15:40	**W a M ? A Ca S C - T a E a E C a** Juhyun Do (Ohio State Univ., USA)	Deepshikha Misra (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**A C A a Ta D B E C a** Miyoung Ahn (Konkuk Univ.)	Eun-Joo Lee (Ewha Womans Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Daekweon Bae (Gyeongnam Univ. of Science and Technology)		
16:20-16:50	**A C a A a a C a E La a T : L L a G a !** Linda Fitzgibbon (Univ. of Queensland, Australia)	Ian Carl Robert Gauvreau (Seokyeong Univ.)
16:50-17:20	**F I a I a : P Y F T** Shawn M. Clankie (Otaru Univ. of Commerce, Japan)	Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona Univ.)

S04: Listening and Speaking Development

Room: College of Fine Arts 305

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Miyang Cha (Namseoul Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**R V S a Na La a L a ESL a EFL: A C a S A S a** Ritu Yadav & Hyunkyung Lee (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Bonseok Gu (Korea Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**V a D I a E : C a ESL C a** Vaishna Narang, Deepshikha Misra & Asher Jesudoss (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Kyonghyon Pyo (Dankook Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Seungbin Roh (Luther Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**T D Ma *But* a C a a S C a T** Inji Choi (Gyeongsang National Univ.)	Minhi Chae (Keimyung Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**I a E S a K a EFL** Sarah Gu & Eric D. Reynolds (Seoul Women's Univ. & Woosong Univ.)	Seonmin Huh (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Vaishna Narang (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)		
16:20-16:50	**A C a I a ESL/EFL: A Ca S a C a, V a & I a** Asher Jesudoss (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Joseph Wood (Nagoya Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:50-17:20	**T a C a a D K a E a -L S ' P a A a** In-Ha Jeong & Sang-Ki Lee (Korea National Univ. of Education)	Myung-Jeong Ha (Sangmyung Univ.)

S05: Reading Development

Room: College of Pharmacy B 115

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Hohsung Choe (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
14:00-14:30	**A I a a U a L2 R a ' A C a 24 S O -O E R a S** Eunseok Ro (Columbia Univ., USA)	Sunyoung Park (Woosong Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**P a D K-12 T a C a R R a I K a C a** Youngeun Jee (Michigan State Univ., USA)	Wonseok Lee (Chung-Ang Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Inhee Cho (Sun Moon Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**A A a M a R a A a L1 a L2** Okhui Chang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Jin-Seok Kim (Seoul National Univ. of Education)
15:40-16:10	**A Ca S K a C S A a a A a R a S a** Young Mee Suh (Ewha Womans Univ.)	Eunseok Ro (Columbia Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Ji Hyon Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
16:20-16:50	**A C a M T a C S R a S a A a R a** Moon-Sub Han & Kyung-hye Kim (Hanyang Univ.)	Jae-hyun Im (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:50-17:20	**T E R A a I R a C I a a I a EFL L a** Mostafa Zahedi (Islamic Azad Univ. of Garmsar, Iran)	Youngeun Jee (Michigan State Univ.)

S06: Writing Development I

Room: College of Pharmacy 201

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Seon-Yoo Hwang (Seowon Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**G -Ba W I a a T T a EAP W** Youngwha Lee (Arizona State Univ., USA)	Sungwon Yim (Centenary College)
14:30-15:00	**Ca S P E T a L a C E W P a** Sung-Yeon Kim & Bokyoung Park (Hanyang Univ.)	Miran Yang (Dongah Institute of Media and Arts)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Sung-Yeon Kim (Hanyang Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**C E La a D a C a L a P a** Seonmin Huh & Young Mee Suh (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies & Ewha Womans Univ.)	Hye Jung Park (Chung-Ang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**T a A a W T D a a EFL A L a** Yoo-Jean Lee (Dankook Univ.)	Ok Hee Park (Pai Chai Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Kyeong-Ouk Jeong (Hannam Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**A I a Ma - a M -L R L2 A a W K a , C , a Ja a EFL L a** Chulwon Jung & Hohsung Choe (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Yoo-Jean Lee (Dankook Univ.)
16:50-17:20	**C a G K a L a L2 W T C , A a , a F** Eunkyung Hwang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Youngwha Lee (Arizona State Univ.)

S07: Writing Development II

Room: College of Pharmacy 204

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Bokmyung Chang (Namseoul Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**T E K a L a O E E W** Sookyung Cho & Chanho Park (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies & Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)	Eun-Hee Lee (Kyung Hee Cyber Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**H D Y S a Y a E a R a O a W D ?** Jae-hyun Im (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Sookyung Cho (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
15:10-15:40	**T R a B S ' E M a a L a I** Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona Univ., USA)	Moon-Sub Han (Hanyang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**G L a R P V a a : A Ca S a 1.5 G a H S ESL S** Kyong-Hee Chang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	HyunMi Sung (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Kyunghee Choi (Hanyang Women's College)		
16:20-16:50	**S M a M a C a T T a B B K a a E** JungHwa Lee & Rose Whitley (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Okhui Chang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)

S08: Language Testing

Room: College of Pharmacy 210

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Moongee Jeon (Konkuk Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**A N -Na E -S a T a Q a T a a E a a NEAT W S ?** Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil Univ.)	Heesook Park (Woosong Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**I a Va a NEAT IBT R a I** Bokyung Cho & Yonghyo Park (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)	Asher Jesudoss (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Kyucheol Shin (Far East Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**T I D a I W T a NEAT** Dongkwang Shin & Hunwoo Joo (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)	Joon Yong Lee (Republic of Korea Naval Academy)
15:40-16:10	**EFL L a S A P a D C T** In Shin Kim (Yangcheon High School)	Inji Choi (Gyeongsang National Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Young Mee Suh (Ewha Womans Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**T -Ta ' F a a C - Ba T** Haedong Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Eunsook Shim (Sangji Univ.)

S09: Technology in Language Teaching

Room: College of Pharmacy 306

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Jina Lee (Sangmyung Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**Ca a C a a T E C a C** Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Univ.)	Eunsook Jeong (Korea National Univ. of Education)
14:30-15:00	**EFL S B A L a E T T** Young-Ah Ko (Hanbuk Univ.)	Jung-Yun Choi (Konkuk Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Jongbum Ha (Kumoh National Institute of Technology)		
15:10-15:40	**Ga E MOODLE O S Ma a** Kelly Quinn (Nagoya Institute of Technology, Japan)	Juyoung Lim (Anyang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**A P a D E-M EFL L a** Jonghee Jung & Hyoungyoub Kim (Korea Univ.)	Kelly Quinn (Nagoya Institute of Technology)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Ho-Jung Yu (Kyungil Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**A C -Ba C a A a E A U a** Dukhee Sung (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Sunyoung Park (Univ. of Sheffield)

S10: Learning Styles and Strategies

Room: College of Pharmacy 506

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Kyungae Cha (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
14:00-14:30	**S , C a I a C a F** Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National Univ. of Education)	Moon-Koo Kang (Kongju National Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**T R a B La a L a P a A a S - C** Minhi Chae (Keimyung Univ.)	Nayoung Kim (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Daehyeon Nam (Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology)		
15:10-15:40	**E T a 'a L a ' P a P U Ta - Ba La a T a (TBLT) K a** Hwakyung Lee (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Soo Yeon Kim (Anyang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**U P T a S W** Allison Bill (Jeonju Univ.)	Shawn M. Clankie (Otaru Univ. of Commerce)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Yoon Kyu Kim (Korea National Univ. of Education)		
16:20-16:50	**U C S a L2 A a a Na a W K a EFL S** Jung Soo Bae (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Mijin Ju (Kangwon National Univ.)

Poster Session

(Chair: Eun-Hee Lee, Kyung Hee Cyber Univ.)

Presentation Title and Presenter(s)
D aP a S -Ba I a T a T S E a E E a (Chan-Soon Park & Mun-Koo Kang, Kongju National Univ.)
D a aA a I E EFL La a L a (Ji Eun Kim, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
E T a a P F a W (Myeong Hee Seong, Eulji Univ.)
T E S A a L a E G a a (Miyang Cha, Namseoul Univ.)
L a S a -Ba I K a EFL C C a (Jaewon Yun, Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
C C a ?: I C K a L a G a G a N (Christopher J. Dawe, Univ. of Pennsylvania, USA)
TEES T a E a (Moongee Jeon, Jieun Kim, Youngah Kim & Mihyun So, Konkuk Univ.)
T G S R Ta K a E a S S (Hyun-jeong An, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
K a EFL Y L a P E Na (Min Gi Hong, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
H D I a C a B a W S La a L a ? (Sang-Ki Lee, Korea National Univ. of Education)
C a G a R P F a a S W C (Ho-Jung Yu, Kyungil Univ.)
T C F K S K a: H T A E a H T A L I (Riza Gay Estores, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
C F a a S a B a C (Brent Steinacker, Hyupsung Univ.)

Plenary Speeches

Place: College of Pharmacy, Gemma Hall

T	P a : C P a a , G a Ha
10:00-10:50	**P a S I** **D R a S P E R a ?** Richard Day (University of Hawaii, USA) *Moderator :* Moongee Jeon (Konkuk University)
11:00-11:50	**P a S II** **Na a -L O -L E A : NEAT (Na a E A T)** Kyung-Ae Jin (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation) *Moderator :* Jonghee Kim (Baekseok University)
13:00-13:50	**P a S III** **B G a G a a D a** Paul Kei Matsuda (Arizona State University, USA) *Moderator :* Hohsung Choe (Hankuk University of Foreign Studies)

Na a -L O -L E A : NEAT (Na a E A T)

K -A J
K a I C & E a a

I. INTRODUCTION

English education in Korea is an important issue among parents and students in that English is not only an important school subject for college entrance but also is regarded as one of the competitive power in this global era. However, English education has been criticized as not effectively facilitating practical communication in the classroom, and one of the important reasons is the influence of the high stakes test, College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) which assesses only listening and reading. For this reason, Korean government has announced the development of new national-level English test which assesses four skills, reading, listening, speaking and writing and Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE) has been in charge of developing National English Ability Test (NEAT).

NEAT has been developed to align the content of the test with the National Curriculum. The high school elective courses are linked to NEAT in that practical English track is aligned with Level 3 NEAT (Practical English) and general English track is linked to Level 2 NEAT (Basic Academic English). NEAT is criterion-referenced test and standards-based grading (A,B,C and D) is provided through standards-setting procedure. Unlike CSAT, students have two opportunities for taking the test. NEAT launched in 2012, the students' scores were used as the admission criteria among seven universities. In 2013, thirty six colleges in Korea require NEAT scores for admission criteria.

Ⅱ. NEAT VDI S

In order to implement large-scale speaking and writing test, on-line assessment such as IBT was considered at the beginning stage of the test development. However, as the technology develops, NEAT on-line assessment system was established with VDI(Virtual Desktop Infrastructure), which is a cloud computing system.

1. VDI (V a D I a)

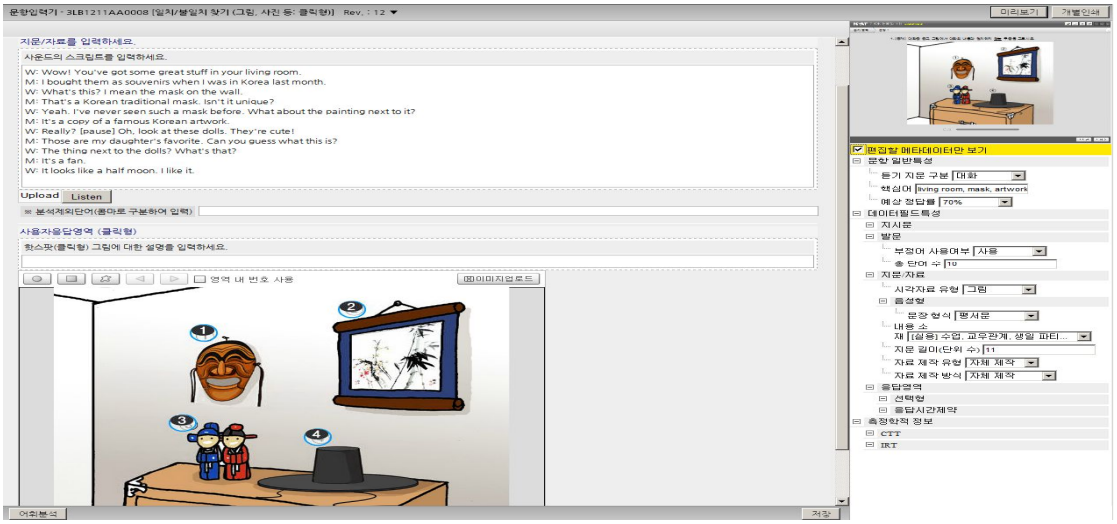
The entire process of NEAT, from item development to score report, is operated on the VDI (Virtual Desktop Infrastructure) platform. VDI provides individual platform in a virtual space using the central network server. The users access the virtual desktop at anytime and anywhere through desktop, tablet PC and smart phone. The advantage of VDI is as following. First, VDI provides top level security. VDI prevents leak of information about item bank by saving and managing confidential data in a separate server from the external internet protocol. Second, VDI provides efficient and confidential user management system. For example, VDI creates and deletes user account feature and manages the authorities of each user.

2. NEAT VDI

NEAT VDI system provides virtual desktop platform and data storage. Authorized staff members of NEAT log into the VDI zone and perform tasks such as item development, item review, scoring and data analysis. At the test center, students log into the VDI zone and take the test in the personal VM (Virtual Machine). NEAT VDI system is consisted of various parts with regard to item bank and test administration.

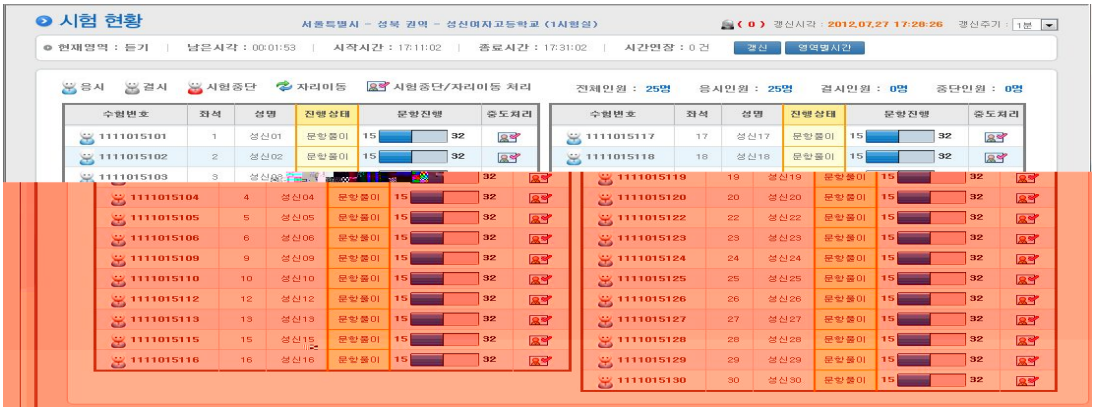
I D : The staff at KICE sets up schedule for item development. According to the schedule, he (she) assigns item writers, reviewers and item selection judges the tasks. The item writers submit the items with metadata in their personal VM and the submitted items are automatically sent to the judges' VM and the reviewers' VM sequentially. Following is the item writing screen where the writer has to insert listening script, question, options and

metadata.

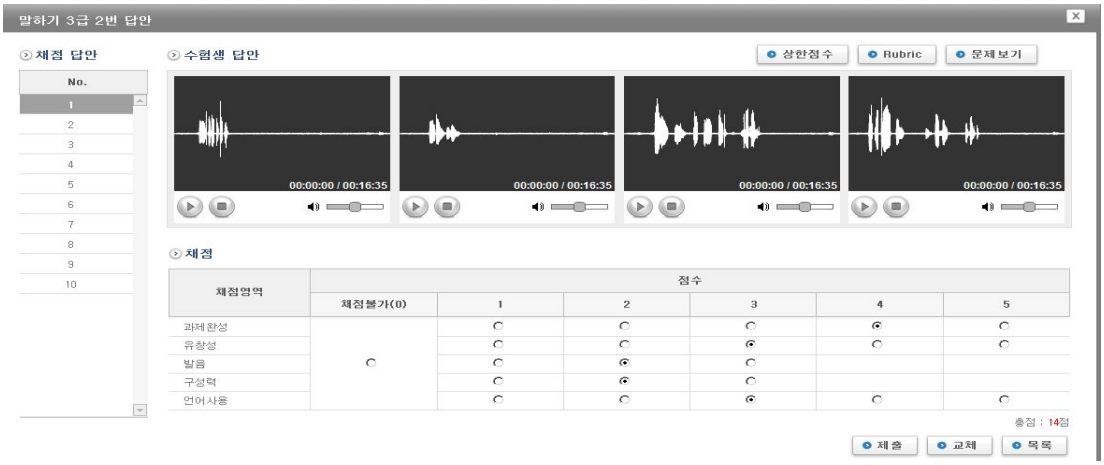


T V A a D a : The stored items at the item bank are selected for the test viewer assembly. Test viewer assembly can be done automatically and they are disseminated to the individual examinee's VM matching with test level (lever 2 or level 3), PC and test center information.

T A a : The students apply for test through online, then the students are provided with the location of test center, seat numbers and log-in passwords. The test taking progress, conditions of every VM(Virtual Machine), headset, network condition of the computers at all the test centers are entirely monitored at the head quarter. The students' responses including sound and text file are sent to the DBs in VDI zone and ready for scoring. There are 1,100 test centers throughout the country, and all the students use the same virtual desktop features with the same CPU, memory, HDD capacity. Students' access to any other server other than the exam server is prohibited to prevent cheating during the test period. Following is the monitoring screen for a test center.



S : The students' responses for multiple choice items such as listening and reading items are automatically scored. The speaking and writing responses are sent to the raters' VM . Following is the screen or scoring students' speaking responses.



I A a a S a a S : The students' scores are analyzed both with Classical Test Theory(CTT) and Item Response Theory(IRT). After item analysis, standard setting procedure is implemented at the VDI system. Both Angoff and Bookmark Methods are implemented.

S R : After standard setting, the performance level and performance level description for individual students are produced on the VDI and the students check their score through NEAT portal (www.neat.re.kr)

III. TEST RELIABILITY

Some of the test results in 2012 were as following. The reliability of the Test for listening and reading in Cronbach α was .780 ~ .888.

TABLE 1: T NEAT 2012

		Listening	Reading
Level 2	Preliminary (May)	.780	.875
	1st test (June)	.838	.869
	2nd test (July)	.798	.810
Level 3	Preliminary (May)	.801	.855
	1st test (June)	.891	.888
	2nd (July)	.856	.890

The responses for speaking and writing section are score by two certified raters (English teachers) and the average scores of the two raters are given. If the discrepancy of the two raters is more than two points in five point scale in each scoring domain, the expert rater score the sample and the average of the score of the expert rater and nearer score is averaged. The interrater reliability (in pearson r) was above .7 and the adjacent agreement is more than .8.

TABLE 2: I a R a NEAT

		Speaking		Writing	
		correlation	Agreement	correlation	agreement

Level 2	Preliminary	.807	.838	.661	.906
	1st test (June)	.787	.843	.639	.914
	2nd test(July)	.764	.832	.718	.954
Level 3	Preliminary	.864	.853	.742	.865
	1st test(June)	.832	.864	.790	.878
	2nd test (July)	.898	.910	.880	.942

VI. CONCLUSION

National-Level on-line assessment NEAT has been successfully launched in Korea. Then, will the new test facilitate practical English education? Will the new test facilitate authentic communication? In the survey asking the reasons for not teaching speaking in the classroom, 78.9% of the teachers (N=57) replied that the College Scholastic Ability Test includes only reading and listening domains. (Lee et.al 2011). In the same survey, the 73.5% of the students (N= 2,051) answered that it is necessary to acquire speaking and 68.2% of the students said that writing is important. In other words, the students think that speaking and writing is important, but it is not delivered appropriately in the classroom due to the content of college entrance exam.

In the survey implemented in 2011, 72.5% of the parents look forward to innovation of speaking and writing instruction at school. 65.92% of the parents expect that students will speak and write English better. According to the results of the survey, the parents, experts, teachers and students expect that if NEAT is applied for college entrance exam, the English classes will be changed to be more communicative and practical. They also think that the students' skills in speaking and writing will be improved. The teachers will teach to the test, NEAT, and this is expected to facilitate real communication in the classroom. However, the premise is that the schools and teachers should be prepared and well qualified for this change. Otherwise, the test will be just a test, not the facilitator for learning.

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T R Na a I : A E A K a L2 a

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I. INTRODUCTION

Considering the L2 input as primary data which is crucial for learners to acquire target features, it would be logical to assume that exposure to naturalistic input would be beneficial for L2 learners. Given more positive evidence of less salient linguistic properties, naturalistic input is proven to be advantageous for second language learners to reset parameters such as nominal mapping parameter (Isabella, 2004). However, more recent research of Rothman and Iverson (2007) suggest that increased exposure to naturalistic input does not guarantee parameter-resetting, thus extended exposure to naturalistic input is not advantageous to the learners, at least in the acquisition of the null subject parameter (Rothman and Iverson, 2007). As a part of the larger project on the English generic article acquisition, the current study investigates if learners with extensive naturalistic input would display any differences compared to those with classroom-instruction only. If the former group performs greatly better than the latter group, it would provide evidence for the role of naturalistic input in adult SLA.

II. MEHTODOLOGY

1. L Ba

This section briefly introduces linguistic property tested in the current experiment. In the current experiment, we investigated L2 learners' knowledge on the distinction between the use of English article 'the' and 'bare plurals' in terms of generic interpretation. According to the semantic literature, generics with 'definite singular' and generics with 'bare plurals' have different source of genericity (Dayal, 2004). To explain briefly, while generic readings of bare plural NPs are originated from a semantic operation of kind formation, definite singular generic NPs denote taxonomic entities (Dayal, 2004). Thus, definite singular generics have more semantic constraint. For the definite singular generic NPs, nouns or nominal constituent must be semantically associated with 'well-established kinds or entities'. Consider the examples (1) below. The examples are modified from Carlson and Pelletier (1995).

1. a) The coke bottle has a narrow neck. (generic)
   b)??The green bottle has a narrw neck. (#generic)
   c) Coke bottles have narrow necks. (generic)
   d) Green bottles have narrow necks. (generic)

The example (1-a) represents generic properties of the kind 'coke bottle', whereas (1-b) cannot be normally interpreted as a general statement about the kind 'green bottle'. However, in terms of bare plural generics, bare plural forms can have generic interpretations without any restrictions as in (1-c) and (1-d). To sum up, bare plural generics denote kinds without any restrictions but definite singular NPs are restricted to taxonomic readings where they can only denote species or well-established kinds. Such subtle restriction on the use of nouns in accordance with different generic NP forms is tested in the current experiment.

2. Pa a

In the experiment, three groups were recruited including two L2 learner groups and one English control group. A total number of 77 Korean-speaking adults participated in the experiment. They comprise of 44 adult Korean speakers who were living in Seoul, Korea and 33 adult Korean speakers who were living in Sheffield, U.K.. All of the subjects have been learning English for more than 10 years. The relevant background information of Korean

participants are summarised in the table (1) below.

TABLE 1. S a a a a a

Group	Korean adults in Korea	Korean adults in the U.K.
Gender (Female/Male)	31/13	23/10
Average age (Range)	29 (22-39)	35 (23-40)
Length of learning L2	17 yrs (13-26 yrs)	21 yrs (13-30 yrs)
Average Length of Exposure to naturalistic L2 input (Range)	Not Applicable	5.9 yrs (3-30 yrs)

The major difference between KK and KE is whether the participants had received naturalistic English input after adolescent or not. Lastly, 22 native English speakers served as controls.

3. M

Two tasks were employed in the current experiment; a timed-acceptability judgment task (AJT) and a translation task (TT). For the timed acceptability judgment task, the task attempts to examine L2 learners' knowledge on the choice of English articles in generic sentences. In this task, participants were given 16 sets of English sentences. Each set comprises of a couple of sentences. The first sentences are considered to be always true and participants are required to judge whether the second sentences are acceptable or not, given the first sentences. Sample test items are provided in the example (2) below.

2. a. John tries to eat more oranges in winter. ?The fresh orange is good for preventing colds.
   b. John tries to eat more oranges in winter. Fresh oranges are good for preventing

The translation task (production task) is implemented to examine how learners actually use articles. Participants were given Korean sentences with English vocabularies to be used in the translation. Then, they were asked to translate the given Korean sentences into English sentences using given vocabularies. Sample test items for the translation task are provided in (3) below.

3. Sinseonhan ttalki-nun dalko massita.
   Fresh strawberry-GEN sweet-and delicious.
   Target Resposne: Fresh strawberries/*The fresh strawberry are/is sweet and delicious.

Let us now report the results of the two tasks in the next section.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. R & D T -A a J Ta

The following table 2 shows mean accuracy rates on bare plural and definite singular generic NPs with non-well-established nouns. Arrows in the table mark significant differences between groups and NP structures.

TABLE 2. S a AJT R

	Adj+bare plural		*the+adj+singular	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
KK (n=44)	76%↓→	0.998	55%↓	1.322
KE (n=33)	83%→	0.142	56%↓	0.200
EC (n=21)	95%	0.870	82%	0.680

With respect to the use of well-established NPs, both KK and KE showed significant differences between

'adj+bare plural' and 'the+adj+singular' sentences (p=0.002 and p=0.000, respectively). It can be interpreted as both KK and KE did not successfully acquire English feature that only well-established entities and kinds can be used with definite article 'the' in terms of generic interpretation. Both KK and KE performed significantly lower than native controls in the category of 'the+adj+singular' by showing 55% and 56% accuracy rates, respectively (p=0.006 and p=0.016). Most importantly, in terms of differences between KK and KE, no statistical differences were found in both structures of 'adj+bare plural' and 'the+adj+singular'.

2. R & D T a a Ta

Let us now consider the results obtained from the translation task. The following figure 1 summarises results from the translation task.

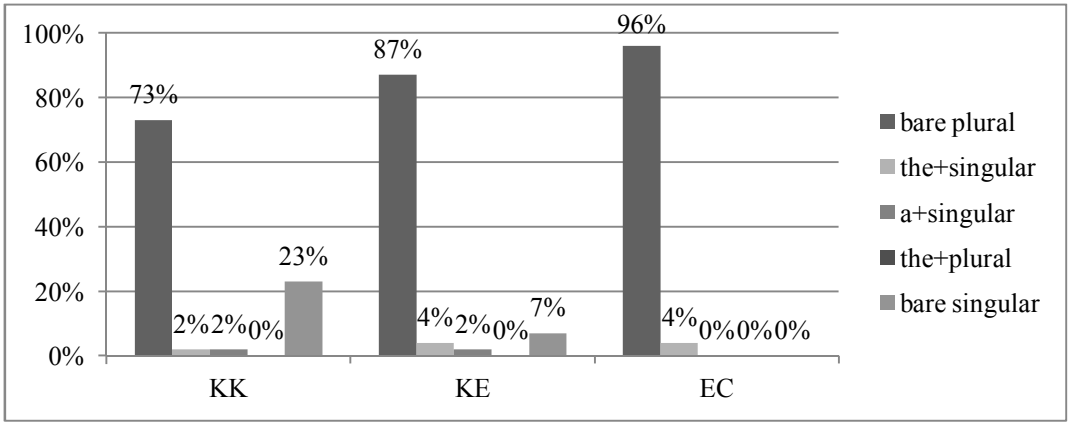

FIGURE1. U a a NP

According to the results, EC dominantly employed bare plurals in this structure. EC marginally used definite article 'the' with non-well established entities. KK also followed EC pattern in that they used bare plurals most frequently with 73% usage rates. They also performed target-like by not over using definite article 'the' when the nouns are not well-established entities or kinds. For KE, they also dominantly employed bare plural forms in this structure. They displayed target like results by marginally using 'the'. Thus, both KK and KE showed similar results by showing target-like results in bare plural generics.

Based on the equally low usage rates of 'the' by KK and KE, one can argue that both KK and KE seem to show evidence that they have acquired English property that definite article 'the' can only occur with well-established entities and kinds regarding generic NPs. However, bare plural forms are the forms with great preference by KK and KE. One can argue that it might not be the case that learners actually have acquired the semantic restriction but just used bare plural forms most frequently, as they would do in any other structures.[1] Therefore, the results from the translation task alone are inconclusive.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

According to the results in both acceptability judgment task and translation task, KE learners did not outperform KK learners. It is interesting that despite the ample positive input of average 5.9 years, performance of KE was not better than KK who hadn't been exposed to naturalistic input at all. Consequently, the current study suggests that extended exposure to naturalistic input is not necessarily advantageous to the adult learners, at least in the acquisition of English generic articles.

This phenomenon can possibly be explained by lack of salient L2 input in both learning environments of KK and KE. In other words, it is possible that even in naturalistic language data, input which tells, for example, 'the fresh

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1 In the experiment, we included other generic sentence structures such as characterising generics, generic NPs in subject position and generic NPs in object position. In these structures, learners always showed the highest usage rates with 'bare plurals'.

strawberry' cannot refer to generic NPs, might not be clear enough. Thus, it is possible that learners could have over-generalized the taxonomic interpretation of definite article 'the' ('The brown bear is dangerous when it is hungry') or well-established entities ('The coke bottle is narrow'). In fact, Downing and Locke (2006) suggest that bare plural generic NP forms are the most frequently used generic NP forms by English native speakers. They also argued that 'the+singular' generic NPs are not very frequently employed by English native speakers in everyday life. Thus, it implies possibility that regarding frequency of input received on 'the+singular' generic NPs, there might be no significant differences between KK and KE. However, in order to support the claim on the similar input frequency between naturalistic language setting and classroom learning, more data on the input frequency regarding generic NPs should be taken into consideration.

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Ta -I I L a K a EFL H S L a V a a L a

H M S
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge is critical in learning a second or foreign language. Many researchers have worked on essential areas in L2 vocabulary learning such as the learners, the words, and the teachers (Folse, 2004; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). In particular, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) suggested 'Involvement Load Hypothesis (ILH)' positing that learners' retention of L2 words processed incidentally is subject to the degree of involvement load (mental efforts) consisting of three components: need, search, and evaluation. Since this theory was introduced, numerous empirical studies have tried to attest it directly or indirectly (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Keating, 2008; Kim, 2008; Kim & Na, 2010; Newton, 1995). However, despite such abundant research, the studies experimented with EFL high school learners were rarely found. Therefore, the current study examined the effects of involvement load and learners' proficiency levels on Korean EFL high school learners' vocabulary learning. In order to fulfill the purpose of the study, two research questions were asked. The first question was about the role of the involvement load and the second question was about the effects of learners' proficiency levels in vocabulary learning when they engage in three vocabulary tasks with different involvement load.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Pa a a S Da a

The data for the present study is the scores from a pre-test and two post-tests. As for the treatment, 203 (106 male and 97 female) 1st graders from two high schools in I city of Korea performed one of the three vocabulary learning tasks with different involvement load: reading comprehension with glosses (task 1: involvement load 1), reading comprehension and gap-filling (task 2: involvement load 2), and unscrambling sentences (task 3: involvement load 3). The three tasks were based on `Task-Induced Involvement Load' (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). However, due to the inefficiency of a writing task for EFL high school learners attending regular high schools (not high schools with special purposes) expressed by the teachers who helped the treatment for the current study, `unscrambling sentences' was used for task 3 in place of `writing original sentences' under the assumption that it induces similar degree of involvement load as writing original sentences. Prior to the treatment, the participants' pre-knowledge on the 10 target words were checked by administering a pre-test, and two vocabulary tests (post-tests) on the target words were conducted after the treatment: one time immediately after, and another time two weeks after the treatment. For the purpose of classifying the participants into two proficiency levels (high and low), the stanines of English that they had obtained from a city-wide achievement test were used. Those who ranged from stanine of 1 to 3 were assigned to high-level, and the others who ranged from stanine of 4 to 9 were placed to low-level proficiency.

2. Da a A a P

On the first day, the participants were given a pre-test by which they marked any known words among the 10 target words. After the pre-test, the participants performed one of the three vocabulary learning tasks with different involvement load. Immediately after the task performance, without a prior notice, a vocabulary test was administered to check the participants' short-term learning on the target words. To measure the long-term retention, the same vocabulary test was conducted two weeks after the treatment. In the two post-tests, the participants were required to write the Korean meaning for each 10 target word. Two sets of the scores from the post-tests were marked by two raters. The possible perfect score for each test was 10 points. However, it could be under 10 depending on the number of the words marked as known words on the pre-test. One point was given to the correct answer, and zero point to the incorrect

answer. After scoring the two post-tests, the results were analyzed by performing two, two-way ANOVAs. Setting the two independent variables, involvement load and learners' proficiency level, one two-way ANOVA for the immediate post-test scores and the other for the delayed post-test scores were conducted. Then a post hoc test (Turkey HSD) was followed to check significant differences among each task of different involvement load on both post-tests. After that, for a closer examination on the role of the two factors in the participants' vocabulary learning, one-way ANOAVAs were operated by setting each factor as an independent variable, respectively.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. E I L a a L a P L : T - a ANOVA

According to the descriptive statistics, high-level group confirmed the ILH since the mean scores from task 1, 2, and 3 groups were in order depending on the degree of involvement load both in the immediate and delayed post-test. However, the mean difference between task 2 and 3 groups was much bigger in the delayed post-test than that of between task 2 and task 3 group in the immediate post-test. This indicates high proficiency students seem to have better retention from a task of higher involvement load (task 3: unscrambling sentences). On the contrary, low-level learners performed better through task 2 (gap-filling) than task 3 in the both post-tests. Following table shows the results of two-way ANOVAs conducted to examine the effects of 'involvement load' and 'proficiency level' on vocabulary learning.

TABLE 1. T - a ANOVA S a

	Short-term Learning					Long-term Retention				
	df	MS	*F*	Sig.	η^2	df	MS	*F*	Sig.	η^2
I/L	2	12.05	5.485	.005*	.053	2	6.05	4.382	.014*	.043
P/L	1	468.56	213.243	.000**	.520	1	384.77	278.584	.000**	.583
I/L * P/L	2	2.07	.945	.390	.010	2	5.95	4.308	.015*	.042
Error	197	2.20				197	1.38			

*p < .05 **p = .000

Note. P/L and I/L refer to 'Proficiency Level' and 'Involvement Load,' respectively.

As the above table shows, both factors, involvement load and proficiency level, had main effects on the participants' short-term learning and long-term retention. This means that Korean EFL high school learners' vocabulary learning was affected not only by the difference of involvement load but also by their proficiency levels. The results of the post hoc test showed that in the immediate test, the mean difference between task 1 and task 2 groups was significant (p = .004), and that between task 1 and 3 groups was also significant (p = .000). However, the mean difference between task 2 and 3 groups was not statistically different on the both post-tests. This indicates that the current study only partially confirmed the ILH claiming that a task of higher involvement load promotes learners' better retention on new words.

2. E I L a . L a P L : O - a ANOVA

Even though the results of the two-way ANOVA on the role of proficiency factor were same as those from the previous study conducted by Kim and Na (2010), it is still contrary to those from another previous study (Kim, 2008). Besides, the effects of involvement load also have been inconsistent among other previous studies (Folse, 2006; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Keating, 2008). Thus, the present study investigated the role of the two factors in a more rigorous way. In doing so, two sets of three one-way ANOVAs were conducted to see the effects of different involvement load against each proficiency level on the both post-tests separately. Another two sets of two one-way ANOVAs were performed in the opposite way to examine the effects of two different proficiency levels (high & low) against different involvement load group on the both post-tests, respectively. Table 2 shows the role of involvement load in vocabulary learning when it was analyzed as a single independent factor by conducting one-way ANOVA tests.

TABLE 2. E I L a V a a L a

	High-level			Low-level		
	MS	*F*	Sig.	MS	*F*	Sig.
Short-term	6.66	9.765	0.000**	8.36	2.92	0.057
Long-term	7.61	4.938	0.010*	2.67	2.04	0.135

As shown in the table above, for high-level learners, the difference of involvement load was a significant factor both in short-term vocabulary learning and long-term retention, but it was not for low-level learners. These results can be interpreted that the different degrees of involvement load may or may not influence on learners' vocabulary learning depending on their proficiency levels. As for the effects of proficiency level against each involvement level group, the results are shown in the following table.

TABLE 3. E P L V a a L a

	Task1(Involvement Load 1) group		
	MS	*F*	Sig.
Short-term	141.97	110.050	0.000**
Long-term	104.33	110.704	0.000**
	Task 2(Involvement Load 2) group		
	MS	*F*	Sig.
Short-term	125.34	61.425	0.000**
Long-term	88.92	54.687	0.000**
	Task 3(Involvement Load 3) group		
	MS	*F*	Sig.
Short-term	209.42	64.621	0.000**
Long-term	209.42	132.587	0.000**

** $p = .000$

Unlike the effects of involvement load, learners' proficiency levels were proven significant in vocabulary learning across the different degrees of involvement load. Therefore, in this study, learners' proficiency levels have much to do with their short-term vocabulary learning and long-term retention on new words in comparison with the role of involvement load.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

In this study, from two-way ANOVA, different involvement load varied by task types affected short-term vocabulary learning and long-term retention of Korean EFL high school learners of two different proficiency levels. However, the effects of involvement load have been proven different depending on the learners' proficiency levels from one-way ANOVA: unlike high-level group, low-level learners of the current study were not affected by different involvement load in their vocabulary learning. Thus, the present study only partially confirmed the ILH. Regarding the role of learners' proficiency level, it has been proven as a significant factor in Korean EFL high school learners' short-term vocabulary learning and long-term retention when they engaged in three vocabulary learning tasks with different involvement load from the results of one-way ANOVA as well as of two-way ANOVA.

The results of the current study suggest a few indications. First, it is critical to fine-tune the learners' proficiency level so that each level group can get entire benefits from the tasks of different degrees of involvement load. Second, considering the low-level group's less achievement through task 3 than task 2 in this study, it is carefully suggested to reexamine the 'Task-Induced Involvement Load' (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001) on whether the designated load for the tasks actually induces when learners perform those tasks. Most importantly, high school education in Korea is

inseparable with college entrance examination. Keeping in mind the new exam policy that is supposed to be conducted from 2014 (Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 2011), it is highly recommended that Korean EFL high school teachers have to take a more positive attitude toward employing vocabulary learning tasks that are appropriate for the learners with different proficiency levels. In this respect, the results of this study could be practical guidelines: unscrambling sentences for high proficiency learners and gap-filling tasks for low-proficiency learners.

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Fa A U F a S L2 L a

J H K

Ha U F S

I. INTRODUCTION

Formulaic sequences, or multi-word units, are sequences of words which are frequently used together, such as 'on the other hand,' 'kick the bucket,' and ‘sick and tired of.' Although the production and processing of formulaic sequences seems to take place easily and naturally for native speakers of English, the acquisition and correct use of formulaic sequences seem to be barriers for L2 learners on the road to native-like proficiency. This is because even slight changes to these prefabricated phrases, e.g., on the other *foot*,' '*push* the bucket,' and '*ill* and tired of,' can alter their original meaning, or sound awkward and non-native-like at the very least. Wray (2002) suggests that the difficulty L2 learners experience with formulaic sequences is due to the fact that even high proficiency L2 learners fail to notice that these units are prefabricated, so that these " ... word do not *go* together, having first been apart, but, rather, *belong* together, and do not necessarily need separating." (Wray 2002: 212). Therefore, the acquisition of formulaic sequences by L2 learners is a research topic that has received much attention in the field of second language acquisition and education. The correct comprehension and production of formulaic sequences by L2 learners of English will help advance language learners toward a more native-like proficiency level. In order to investigate how to aid L2 learners achieve this goal, we must first identify what factors cause difficulty in the acquisition of formulaic sequences.

The present study is an empirical study examining the use of one particular type of formulaic sequence - idioms - by high proficiency L2 learners of English. In particular, this study investigates two factors that may cause difficulty for L2 learners in the correct usage of these sequences: frequency and decomposability.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

In this study, I examined the use of 21 idioms by Korean L2 learners of English through a proficiency test. The idioms differed in two factors: degree of frequency and decomposability.The 21 idioms used in this study were the same idioms as those used in Siyanova-Chanturia, Conklin and Schmitt (2011). The idioms were classified according to two factors: frequency and decomposability. The total frequency for each idiom is taken from the British National Corpus (BNC), and represents the number of occurrences per 100 million words. As Siyanova-Chanturia et al. (2011) point out, the frequency of an idiom cannot be compared to the frequency of single words, due to idiom length. Therefore, in this study, idioms in the low frequency group were classified as those with a frequency of under 40 occurrences per 100 million words, and the high frequency group idioms were those with a frequency of over 40 occurrences per 100 million words in the BNC. The mean frequency for the low frequency group was 24.36, and the mean frequency for the high frequency group was 669.

The decomposability of the 21 idioms was inferred from a norming study in Siyanova-Chanturia et al. (2011), which was conducted by asking 14 native English speakers were to judge whether the individual components of each idiom contributed to the idiom's figurative meaning, i.e., whether the each idiom was decomposable or not.

2. Da a A a P

The participants for this study were 30 native speakers of Korean, who were high-proficiency L2 English learners. The present study consisted of two main tasks. The first task was a proficiency test designed to assess the L2 learners' correct use of idioms in the appropriate context. The proficiency test was made up of 21 sentences, each of which included part of an italicized formulaic sequence. The participants were instructed to read each sentence carefully and pick the one best answer that most appropriately fits the context. In order to prevent the participants from answering correctly by guessing, they were provided with the option of answering 'don't know' for each question. A sample test item from the proficiency test is presented in (1).

(1) Since Mary has been playing the piano since she was five years old, this song will be a piece of _____ for her.
a. wind
b. fruit
c. cake
d. tea
e. don't know

The correct answer to the sample test item in (1) is 'c. cake'.

The second task in the study was a familiarity task. The familiarity task consisted of the 21 idioms in the proficiency test, and the participants were instructed to rate their familiarity with each idiom on a scale of 1 to 5. A sample test item is presented in (2).

(2) piece of cake
1: I have never seen this word sequence before
2: I am not sure whether I have seen this word sequence before
3: I have seen this word sequence before, but do not know its meaning
4: I am familiar with this word sequence, but am not sure how to use it correctly
5: I am familiar with this word sequence, and can use it correctly in a sentence

This task was designed to check whether the participants' subjective familiarity ratings of the idioms matched their individual accuracy scores on the proficiency test. If the participants' familiarity ratings for each idiom show a significant positive correlation with their accuracy scores on the proficiency test, this will imply that the proficiency test scores correctly reflect the participants' knowledge on the accurate use of these idioms. However, as the familiarity test provided the correct form of each idiom in its entirety, this task was administered after the participants' had completed the proficiency test.

The proficiency test scores were calculated by awarding one point each for each question that was correctly answered, and dividing the total score by the number of questions, which yielded the percentage of correct answers for each participant. In order to examine whether the frequency level and decomposability of an idiom affected the L2 learner participants' accuracy in use, the proficiency scores were submitted to a repeated-measures ANOVA analysis, with the two factors of frequency and decomposability. The data from the familiarity rating task was analyzed by calculating the mean familiarity rating for each item across participants. Finally, a correlation analysis between the familiarity rating for each item and the mean percentage of correct answers across participants for each item was performed. The goal of the correlation analysis was to establish whether the participants' accuracy scores on the proficiency test reflected their familiarity judgments.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. E F a D a

The mean percentage of correct answers on the idiom proficiency test was 54.92% (SD=13.1%). The correlation analysis between the self-rated familiarity scores and obtained accuracy scores for each idiom resulted in a significant positive correlation ($r=.81$, $p<.0005$). The repeated-measures ANOVA yielded significant effects for both factors of 'idiom frequency' and 'idiom decomposability'. The mean accuracy score of the participants was significantly higher for the high frequency idioms compared to the low frequency idioms ($p<.0005$, $F=28.24$). Also, the mean accuracy score was higher for the decomposable idioms compared to the non-decomposable idioms ($p<.05$, $F=5.26$). A significant interaction between the two factors was also found ($p<.0005$, $F=22.45$), with a higher accuracy rate on the decomposable idioms only when the idioms had low levels of frequency. Table 1 presents the mean accuracy scores for each condition.

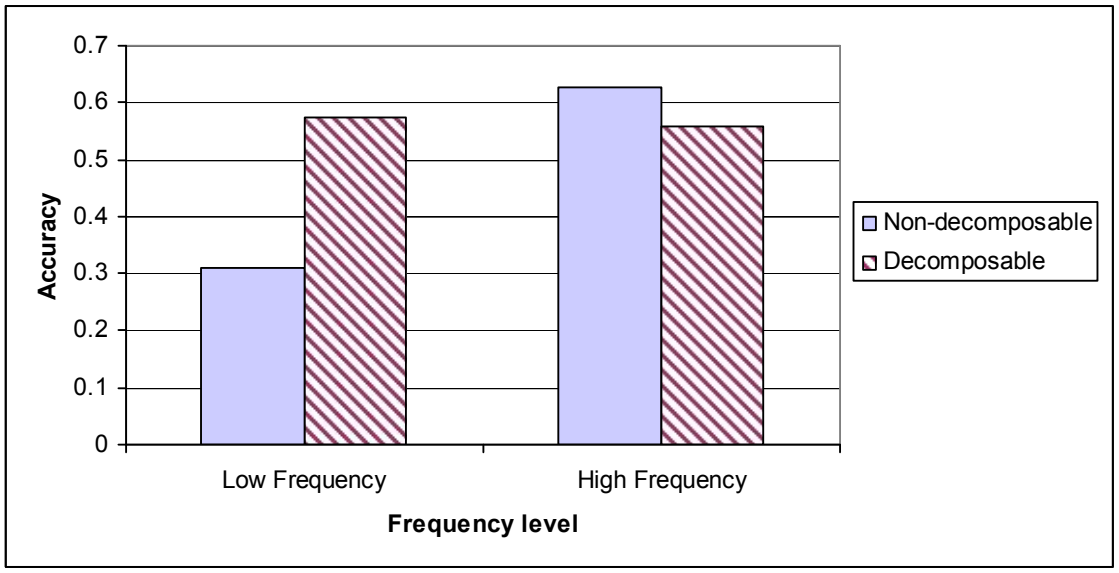

FIGURE 1. E F a D a

2. Fa A L2 L a U I

The factors of frequency and decomposability were both significant factors that affected the L2 learners' accurate use of English idioms. The L2 learners in this study showed higher accuracy rates on the idiom proficiency test for the high frequency idioms. These results are consistent with previous studies with monolinguals (Sosa & MacFarlane 2002; Kapatinski & Radicke 2009), which suggest that native speakers are inclined to store highly frequent formulaic sequences holistically. Formulaic sequences which are stored holistically are more readily retrieved from the mental lexicon as they are stored in a way similar to individual words. On the other hand, less frequent formulaic sequences are processed by putting together a string of individual words linearly, which is a more time-consuming and difficult process than the simple retrieval of a singular unit. Although the online processing of idioms by L2 learners cannot be inferred from this study, it is clear that high frequency idioms present advantages over less frequent idioms to L2 learners in the acquisition and appropriate usage of idioms in context. The sensitivity to frequency effects for the L2 learners in this study also suggest that corpus-derived frequencies are applicable to advanced L2 learners in an ESL context, as well as native English speakers. This finding settles past concerns in the literature regarding English-based corpus frequencies not being a valid tool for L2 learners in an ESL environment.

The decomposability of an idiom was also a significant factor contributing to the performance accuracy of the L2 learner participants. Accuracy rates were higher for the idioms that were decomposable, supporting the predictions of the 'idiom decomposition hypothesis' (Gibbs et al. 1989). These results suggest that L2 learners' sensitivity to the decomposability of an idiom is similar to that of native English speakers (Gibbs & Nayak 1989; Titone & Connine 1999).

Finally, the significant interaction between frequency and decomposability shows that the L2 learner participants' performance was affected by decomposability only for the low frequency idioms. When the idioms were of high frequency, there was no significant effect of decomposability. These results suggest that advanced L2 learners are relatively adept at correctly using high frequency idioms in the appropriate context regardless of decomposability. However, when dealing with idioms of relatively low frequency which are not quite familiar, the decomposability of an idiom acts as a factor that may aid or hinder retrieval.

IV. CONCLUSION

The results of this study have the following implications. First, L2 learners of English showed sensitivities to the frequency and decomposability of idioms that were similar to those of native speakers. However, while native speakers showed sensitivity to these factors in the online processing of idioms, L2 learners showed sensitivity to these factors in L2 competence. Although further studies are necessary to determine whether L2 learners show similar effects

of frequency and decomposability in the online processing of idioms, caution must be taken to include only the idioms which the L2 learners are familiar with.

Second, highly advanced L2 learners who have little difficulty communicating in the L2 on a daily basis exhibited low accuracy on the use of idioms in English. Crucially, the L2 learners showed the lowest accuracy rates for non-decomposable idioms with low frequency. These results suggest that the lack of ability to understand and appropriately use these idioms may be one of the most significant differences in communicative skills between L2 learners and native speakers. Future education focusing on this class of idioms is expected to narrow this gap and aid advanced L2 learners achieve native-like proficiency.

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T P a K a -E C a E L a A

Da E. S a
C U

I. INTRODUCTION

This study aims to systematically analyze Korean loanwords borrowed from English to assign them a quality value. This overall quality value and the values of its components will be instrumental in determining the degree of difficulty Korean learners of English will have in learning the English counterparts of the Korean loanwords.

The study examines three aspects of similarity of Korean-English cognates that are fundamental and easily accessed. Each is assigned a range of point values, the sum of which reflects a cognate's quality. The cognates' quality is based on both semantic and formal features. One semantic feature analyzed is cognate type (true, divergent, convergent, or false cognate). The second semantic feature studied is meaning overlap, a measure of whether the loanword matches with the most common, second-most common, third-most common, or less common meaning of its English cognate. The formal feature measured is shortening, that is whether the loanword has undergone major, mild, or no shortening.

High loanword quality indicates that loanword form and meaning corresponds highly with its English cognate. Expected results are that loanwords have a relative high quality value and that the value increases as the frequency of use decreases for the English cognate (e.g., most frequent 1,000 words vs. most frequent 3,000 words). It is also expected that the Korean-English cognates will be found to be convergent, that majority of loanwords will correspond to the most common English cognate definition, and that few will have undergone shortening. Arming our English learners with this knowledge will be beneficial in expanding the learner's lexicon via loanwords and provide them with strategies for fine-tuning loanword meaning.

II. DEGREE OF SEMANTIC SIMILARITY OF COGNITIVE PAIRS

There is the tendency to focus on the semantic aspect of cognates in considering their similarities. Ways in which Korean loanwords may differ semantically from the corresponding English words from which they were borrowed will be set out and quantified.

1. S a C a T

A correspondence of word meaning and function is generally, but misguidedly, assumed by language learners between loanwords and the words from which they are borrowed. Ulchida (2001) has identified six classifications of the relationships between L1-L2 cognates. These are described here with English-Korean examples provided.

T C a : English-Korean cognate pairs with identical denotations (e.g., E. *computer*, K. *kompyuteo*).

C C a : English-Korean cognate pairs in which the English word is broader in meaning than the Korean cognate (e.g., E. *drama*; K. *deurama* [= television drama series]).

D C a : English-Korean cognates in which the Korean cognate is broader in meaning than the English word from which it originates (e.g., E. *handle;* K. *haendeul* [incl. steering wheel]).

D a Fa F : English-Korean cognate pairs in which the Korean cognate differs totally or almost totally in meaning from the English word from which it derived (e.g., E. *scrap*; K. *seukeuraep* (= to clip and file as in a scrapbook).

C Fa F : English-Korean cognate pairs in which the Korean cognate differs partially in meaning from the English word from which it derived (e.g., E. *hip*; K *hipeu* [= buttocks]).

K a E : Korean word taken from English but having no semantic relationship with the original English word or a compound having no English counterpart (e.g., K. *seukinsip* [fr. English *skin* + *-ship*], K. salaryman [= white-collar office worker; fr. E. *salary* + *man*], and K. *hochikiseu* [= stapler, fr. E. *Hotchkiss*, surname]).

The first five of these types have been tested for learnability (Uchida, 2001). Their order from easiest (1) to most

difficult (5) was found to be: (1) true cognates, (2) divergent cognates, (3) convergent cognates, (4) distant false friends, (5) close false friends.

2. M D C a S a T

First, a sample of Korean loanwords from English was collected. For this purpose, the *Korean Practical Dictionary* (2000) was used. The first English-to-Korean loanword on each fifteenth page or subsequent page was selected; this was done twice, starting on different pages. Not selected were single-word Korean-cognate headwords that were derived from two-word or longer expressions in English. A total of 325 Korean loanwords were collected. Of these, 111 loanwords whose English cognates were from different word families were among the most frequently used English words, according to the British National Corpus. This broke down into 29 words among the 1,000 most frequent words (1K), 29 among the second most common 1,000 words (2K), and 53 among the third most common 1,000 words (3K). These 111 words were used as the English-to-Korean loanword sample. Another 20 of the 325 words were among the fourth and fifth most common words (4-5K), but these were not included in the sample.

The evaluation system included both semantic and formal elements. Types of cognates were evaluated by giving points to learnability: true cognates received 3 points, divergent cognates 2 points, convergent cognates 1 point, and distant false friends, close false friends, and Koreanized English 0 points. Results according to word frequency level appear in Table 1. Of the 111 loanwords in the sample, 15 (13%) were true cognates, 94 (85%) were convergent cognates, 1 (1%) was divergent, and 1 (1%) was a distant cognate.

TABLE 1. R Q a C a T W F L

Word Frequency Level	Average Cognate Type Score (0-3)
1K (0000 – 1,000)	1.1
2K (1,001 – 2,000)	1.1
3K (2,001 – 3,000)	1.5
Total (0000-3,000)	1.3

3. S a O a C a Pa

A loanword in Korean will typically have a single meaning, and just as commonly, the English word from which it was borrowed will have more than one meaning. It is not necessarily the most common meaning of the English word that is borrowed with the loanword. The ranking of the loanword's meaning was rated according to the rank of this meaning among the meanings of the English cognate. The point system in Table 2 was devised for this rating purpose.

TABLE 2. P S Ra S a C C a Pa

Points	Description
3	Loanword definition corresponds to the first listed definition in the English dictionary.
2	Loanword definition corresponds to the second listed definition in the English dictionary.
1	Loanword definition corresponds to the third listed definition in the English dictionary.
0	Loanword corresponds to the fourth or lower listed definition in the English dictionary.

By applying this point rating system, we obtain an average definition score for each of the three frequency levels as well as an overall average (see Table 3). The average definition score and the average cognitive type score were conflated to produce a single three-point average semantic feature score (Table 3). This semantic feature score will be combined with a formal feature score to determine cognate quality.

TABLE 3. C a Pa A a D C a A a S a S

Word Frequency Level	Average Definition Score (0-3)	Average Cognitive Type Score (0-3)	Average Semantic Feature Score (0-3)
1K (0000 – 1,000)	1.3	1.1	1.2
2K (1,001 – 2,000)	2.1	1.1	2.6
3K (2,001 – 3,000)	2.5	1.5	2.0
Total (0000-3,000)	2.1	1.3	1.7

III. SIMILARITY IN FORM OF COGNATE PAIRS

Together with semantic similarity, similarity in form of cognates is important to learnability. English cognates that are quite similar in both meaning and form are the most effortless to learn. Cognate paring, it has been found, is prolific and is based on formal rather than semantic similarity (Carroll, 1992).

1. S

Although consonant clusters abound in English lexical items, they are lacking in Korean. In adopting English loanwords containing consonant clusters, Korean phonology separates the consonants with vowels, thereby increasing the number of syllables in the word. As Korean is a language with a preference for words of few syllables, when English words of many syllables or containing consonant clusters are borrowed, they also often undergo shortening (e.g., *English transformer*; K. *teuraenseu*), making the borrowed form less like the word from which it was borrowed and less easily recognizable. Points were assigned with reference to shortening according to Table 4. Only six of the loanwords in the sample were found to have undergone shortening, but in each case it was a major form of shortening. The results appear in Table 5.

TABLE 4. P S Ra L a S

P	D
3	No shortening of borrowed word.
2	Mild shortening of borrowed word, preserving the semantically important elements.
1	Major shortening of at least half of the borrowed word.

2. A a F a R

Following shortening, the most common restrictions on the loanwords in the sample were (1) narrow range of collocation in comparison with its English counterpart (20 instances) and (2) not being able to be used independently (3 instances; e.g., K. *deurai* [E. *dry*] is not used alone). For each of these restrictions, one point was subtracted from total scores. The number and percentage of restrictions on the sample loanwords for each word frequency level appear in Table 5.

TABLE 5. R F a S a C a Pa

Word Frequency Level	Average Shortening Score (0-3)	Other Restrictions (-1 pt. each)
1K (0000 – 1,000)	2.8	11 (38%)
2K (1,001 – 2,000)	2.9	2 (7%)
3K (2,001 – 3,000)	3.0	10 (19%)
Total (0000-3,000)	2.9	23 (21%)

IV. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The score for average cognitive type for the entire sample was 1.3 points, the lowest by a significant amount

among the items receiving a score. Only 13% were true cognates, while the vast majority (85%) were convergent in type, showing that the range of use is much narrower in the Korean loanword that in its English counterpart. The average definition score of 2.1 overall indicates that loanwords meanings often do not correspond to the most common meaning of their English counterpart. Only 60% of loanwords carry the most common English meaning. Very few loanwords undergo shortening (only 6 in the sample; 5%), as indicated by the average shortening score of 2.9. Those that were shortened were a shortening by half of a two-word or compound-word expression in English (e.g., E. *front desk* to K. *hureonteu*; E. *nightclub* to K. *naiteu*). The percentage of loanwords having other formal restrictions was 21. Average total score for loanword quality, based on a combined 6-point quality score, indicates that the higher the word frequency, the lesser the chance of semantic or formal deviation of the loanword from that of its English counterpart. This is true for each category of measurement except for Restrictions for which the 2K frequency was lower than the 3K, although the 1K level still contained the most restrictions. These results, including the average total score, are brought together in Table 6.

TABLE 6. S a C a Q a R

Word Frequency	Ave. Cognitive Type Score (0-3)	Ave. Definition Score (0-3)	Ave. Shortening Score (0-3)	Percent with Restrictions (-1)	Ave. Total Score (1-6)
1K	1.1	1.3	2.8	38	3.6
2K	1.1	2.1	2.9	7	4.4
3K	1.5	2.5	3.0	19	4.8
Total	1.3	2.1	2.9	21	4.4

In a similar study conducted on Japanese loanwords from English, Daulton (2008) showed a corresponding pattern of results; deviations of the loanword from its English cognate were highest for the most frequent English words and decreased with decreased frequency (Table 7). However, cognate quality scores were consistently higher for Japanese loanwords. This was mainly due to a higher percentage of Japanese loanwords being true cognates, being associated with the English cognate's most common meaning, and not differing in formal characteristics from its English counterpart (Table 7). Nevertheless, average total quality scores for Korean loanwords range from 3.6 to 4.8 for different word frequency levels and average 4.4 overall, indicating a considerable set of characteristics that Korean loanwords share with their English cognates. Korean-English cognates comprise roughly 5,900 (12%) of the 51,000 headwords in *Gukeo silyong sajeon* (2000).

TABLE 7. C a R K a T Ja a C a Q a

Word Frequency	Ave. Cognitive Type Score (0-3)		Ave. Definition Score (0-3)		Ave. Shortening Score (0-3)		Percent with Restrictions (-1)		Ave. Total Score (1-6)	
1K	1.1	**1.5**	1.3	**2.6**	2.8	**3.0**	38	**42**	3.6	**4.3**
2K	1.1	**2.2**	2.1	**2.8**	2.9	**3.0**	7	**13**	4.4	**5.1**
3K	1.5	**2.8**	2.5	**3.0**	3.0	**3.0**	19	**0**	4.8	**5.7**
Total	1.3	**2.1**	2.1	**2.8**	2.9	**3.0**	21	**13**	4.4	**4.9**

V. CONCLUSION

A considerable portion of the Korean lexicon is comprised of Korean-English cognates, and as this study has shown, share a large percentage of semantic and formal characteristics. Korean loanwords serve as a valuable lexical pool from which their related English cognates can be introduced to learners to rapidly increase their English vocabulary. However, because true cognates are not so common, the learner will need guidance in their English cognate learning. The learner will benefit from being introduced to learning strategies such as expecting an English cognate to possibly be broader in meaning than its corresponding loanword, as so many cognates are convergent. The learner would also benefit from knowing that it is the most frequently used English cognates that differ most in meaning and form from the Korean loanwords and that as frequency level decreases, similarities between English-Korean cognates

increase. These phenomena concerning English-Korean cognates need to be highlighted through the development of relevant teaching materials. In this study, only a few formal and semantic characteristics of English-Korean cognates were studied. The number of features studied need to be increased to include more semantic and formal features, including phonetic and phonological features, word meaningfulness, word concreteness, word length, collocations, learner proficiency level, and previous contact with English cognates.

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P ELT I a ESL L a

Va a a C a
NC C E , I a a (Pa a), I a

I. INTRODUCTION

An understanding of the perception of learners - regarding their teachers and all the factors involved in English Language Teaching (ELT) - is very crucial for an ELT theorist. The dynamics of a multicultural, multilingual, mixed ability, Indian classroom in the context of a global village, has to be observed and recorded to understand the complexity. Research into the classroom teaching and learning offers insights into the cognitive processes that are triggered in the minds of the learners when they do any activity given by the teacher. Frequent analysis of learner language is the only solution to the ELT theorist to draw conclusions regarding learners' perceptions; and hence improve his/her classroom teaching

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

The subjects for the study are the students in the first year (second semester) of B. Tech course in NC College of Engineering, Israna (Panipat) in Haryana. 50 subjects of the same section were given a written test with 3 questions regarding their perceptions regarding ***How, What and Who of ELT.*** The three questions were:

i. What kind of learner/teacher is required to learn English?
ii. How should English be taught?
iii. What are the materials that should be used in the classroom to teach English?

2. Da a A a P

The responses were analyzed question-wise and sets of criteria for each of the three sets of responses were identified.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results are tabulated :

S. N	C a (N . I a a a)	
Q. I	**T a :** Personal Qualities (25) Knowledge (9) Activities (6) **P a (60)**	**L a :** Personal Qualities (13) **D L a (48)** Practice (3) Respect for Teacher (5)

Q. II	Lectures (16) Translation (2) Role Play/Drama (31) Observing People (2) Interviews (2) Games (2) Incidents (1) Dialogue (1) PPts (10) **P a a S (48)** Observing (2) Reality Shows (1)	Assignments (10) Seminars (24) Smart Classes (4) Visiting MNCs (1) Debates (7) GD (12) Comfortable Environment (2) Project Work (4) Stories (21) **F /M (40)** Interviews (3) Television (3)
Q. III	**N a (52)** Literature (31) CDs/ DVDs (40) Music/Songs (39) Internet/Computer/Mobile (15) Comics (1)	News/ TV talks (22) Advertisements (3) Magazines (3) Booklets/ Manuals (4) Letters (1) Science Books (2)

The results reveal the following perceptions of the learners regarding ELT:

a. **W** - Professionalism is the major factor considered in a teacher. Activities are a minor factor. Desire to Learn is the major factor in a learner. Practice is a minor factor.

b. **H** - Practical sessions are the best method to teach English. Next is through films/ movies.

c. **W a** - Newspapers are the major type of material preferred by the learners to learn English.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The learners have very clear perceptions about ELT. There is an acknowledgement of the fact that learners are also equally responsible for learning to take place. Authentic materials like newspapers; and not the conventional text books are preferred by the learners for learning English. It is necessary for an ELT theorist to do classroom - based research at frequent intervals; and for different groups to understand the changing dynamics of the teaching and learning in the classroom. World is changing very fast in the global context and a teacher-researcher need to bring the global context to the micro-world of the English classroom. This will enable the learner to adapt himself to the changing environment; and increase his/her employability in the job market.

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A A a S K a La a U a K a -E T - a I C a

E J
K a Na a U E a

I. INTRODUCTION

Two-Way Immersion (TWI) is defined as an "educational approach that integrates language minority and language majority students for all or most of the day, and provides content instruction and literacy instruction to all students in both languages" (Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003, p. 14). The potential for successful language development outcomes in TWI programs has sparked great interest among educators, researchers, and policy makers. However, to date most empirical research in TWI settings has focused on Spanish-English programs; research on the development and use of partner languages other than Spanish is scarce. Moreover, in spite of the fact that language development is a core goal of TWI programs, little research has been conducted on what actually happens and how students use languages in TWI classrooms. This study examines how the first grade students use Korean in a 50/50 Korean-English TWI classroom. First, it investigates whether a difference in the quantity of the students' language use between Korean and English exists. Second, if there is a difference, it further investigates the conditions under which the students use the Korean language in the classroom.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Pa a

This study focuses on 26 first grade students including four focal children and their teachers and parents in a 50/50 Korean-English TWI classroom. The TWI program was a strand within a public elementary school located in Southern California.

2. Da a

As the main data source, classroom observation data from both Korean and English instructional time were collected through video and audio recording resulting a total of 20 hours and 18 minutes of classroom observation video data: 10 hours and 31 minutes from Korean instructional time and 9 hours and 47 minutes from English instructional time. Supplementing the observations of the classroom, the researcher's field notes created an overall picture of the classroom for each day. Also, four interviews with the two teachers, 20 interviews with a few Korean parents, and 15 interviews with their children provided insiders' perspectives and helped to broaden the researcher's view of the students' language use and classroom activities.

3. Da a A a

The amounts of students' Korean and English language use were analyzed quantitatively focusing on the analytic unit of "content words." First, the reason that a word was chosen as an analytic unit is that a word is a smaller unit that affords advantages over larger units. Whereas larger units such as a turn cannot deal with code-switched turns in which two languages are mixed in chunks (e.g., Potowski, 2005), deploying a word allows one to decompound a code-switched turn or a larger unit into individual words in either language. Second, the rationale for focusing on content words, not including function words, is based on grammatical differences between Korean and English (similar in their content words, but different in their function words, Taylor and Taylor, 1995).

The classroom spaces in which the students used Korean were examined quantitatively and qualitatively using the analytic unit of "language use episodes." A language use episode in this study is defined as a mini-conversational event based on a topic, which includes the focal students' Korean language use. After transcribing the

classroom observation video data, the focal students' Korean language use episodes were identified based on their definition and coded with the various spaces such as interlocutor, group organization, activity type, and language function using Transana.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. I a a S La a U

The first grade students used 66.8% Korean and 33.2% English during Korean instructional time, where the students were expected to use 100% Korean. On the other hand, in English instructional time, the students used English most of the time, while they used only 2.6% Korean, which means that the students used English in the way the TWI program and the classroom intend. In other words, the language use patterns in English instructional time, for the most part, exemplified the policy of instructional language separation that TWI programs adhere to, whereas in Korean instructional time, the students went against the policy 33.2% of the time.

TABLE 1. P a C W D I a T

Instructional Time	% of Content Words (frequency)	Instructional Time	% of Content Words (frequency)
Korean	Korean 66.8% (1,554) English 33.2% (774)	English	Korean 2.6% (66) English 97.4% (2,502)

It seems that there is a significant difference in the way the teachers view and implement the language policy and the way the students perceive it in the classroom. That is, although the teachers impose the language policy on themselves, they are less strict with the students, allowing them to use the non-instructional language if necessary in order to scaffold their language use.

TABLE 2. P a C W D G O a a

Instructional Time	Group Organiza-tion	% of Content Words (frequency)	Instructional Time	Group Organiza-tion	% of Content Words (frequency)
Korean	Whole	Korean 74.0% (1,178) English 26.0% (413)	English	Whole	Korean 1.1% (19) English 98.9% (1,672)
	Center	Korean 51.0% (376) English 49.0% (361)		Center	Korean 5.4% (47) English 94.6% (830)

In Korean instructional time, whole-class lessons elicited 74% Korean as the language of instruction and 26% English use as the non-instructional language from students, whereas center activities elicited less Korean (51%) but more English (49%) compared to whole-class lessons. The comparison between whole-class lessons and center activities revealed that the students' instructional language use was maximized in whole-class lessons. However, in center activities, their non-instructional language use—that is, the students' use of their language of preference or comfort—was maximized. In searching for the reasons for this language use pattern, it seems important to consider not only the matter of whom the students talk to (teachers in whole-class lessons, peers in group work), but also the matter of how specific activities (e.g., homeroom time) create a space that requires the students' necessary use of Korean.

2. S a S K a La a U

In order to find under what classroom spaces—when, where, with whom, for what purpose, and in what ways—the Korean language was used by the four focal students, interlocutor and group organization, activity type, and language function were examined, and it was discovered that they contributed to creating spaces for Korean language use in different ways.

First, with regard to interlocutor and group organization, compared to whole-class lessons, center activities, especially with language proficiency-based grouping, provided a space for the Korean-dominant focal students' Korean use through interactions with other Korean-dominant peers during English instructional time. In Korean instructional time, similarly due to the language proficiency-based grouping, the Korean-dominant focal students used Korean with both peers and classroom teachers, whereas the English-dominant focal students' Korean use was mostly drawn from interactions with the teachers in the absence of Korean proficient peers in the center.

TABLE 3. A La a U Ea La a P -Ba C

Instructional Time	Proficiency -based Grouping	Amount of Language Use	Instructional Time	Proficiency -based Grouping	Amount of Language Use
Korean Time	Center 1 (Minho)	Korean 69.1% English 30.9%	English Time	Center 1 (Jason)	English 100.0%
	Center 2 (Anna)	Korean 46.2% English 53.8%		Center 2 (Sarah)	English 100.0%
	Center 3 (Jason/ Sarah)	Korean 13.3% English 86.7%		Center 3 (Minho/ Anna)	Korean 13.8% English 86.2%

This table clearly shows these different language use patterns between the Korean-dominant (Minho, Anna) and the English-dominant (Jason, Sarah) focal students because the language proficiency-based grouping in centers played an important role in shaping a Korean-use or no-Korean-use space. During Korean instructional time, while Minho's and Anna's centers used Korean about 69.1% and 46.2% of the time, respectively, Jason's and Sarah's center with English-dominant peers only used 13.3% of Korean with 86.7% of English. On the other hand, during English instructional time, both Jason's and Sarah's centers produced 100% of English, but in Center 3, Minho, Anna, and their Korean-dominant peers with low English proficiency used 13.8% of Korean with 86.2% of English.

Second, for activity type, the Korean-dominant students' Korean language use episodes during English instructional time turned out not to be related to differences in activity type (e.g., oral vs. literacy). However, during Korean instructional time, it seemed that literacy activities contributed more to creating a space for Korean language use for the focal children Minho, Anna, and Jason, although Sarah's Korean use showed an opposite pattern, with more Korean use drawn from oral than from literacy activities.

Third, in relation to language function, non-academic language functions elicited the Korean-dominant focal students' Korean use the most, followed by quasi-academic and academic functions during English instructional time. During Korean instructional time, on the other hand, the Korean-dominant focal students' Korean use was drawn more from academic and quasi-academic functions than from non-academic functions. In addition, comparison of the two focal student groups (Korean-dominant vs. English-dominant) revealed that the Korean-dominant group's Korean use ranged from academic to quasi-academic to non-academic functions, whereas the English-dominant group's Korean use was limited to academic and quasi-academic language functions, reflecting a diglossic phenomenon.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

Among various spaces across lower/higher scales that influence TWI students' language use, this study focused on some classroom-level spaces in the 50/50 Korean-English TWI classroom and revealed that the students' Korean language use is promoted and/or constrained by the implemented classroom language policy and how the students perceive it; interlocutors' language proficiency and how the students perceive it; language proficiency-based grouping in group organization; repetitive teaching and learning practices within the interconnected structure of activity type-interlocutor-group organization, and its formation of a language use habit; and language functions.

However, these spaces were neither neutral nor isolated; instead, some turned out to be more influential and overarching spaces that affected other spaces and the students' language use inside them, or newly identified spaces compared to other overlapping ones from the previous literature, and some have been found to have relationships with

other spaces. This finding supports the theoretical frame of space and scale, in that spaces that shape people's language use are agentive and value- or power-loaded and are interconnected with other spaces of lower or higher scales. Although there remain many questions about TWI students' language choice orientation, it is hoped that the findings of this study will bring more attention to TWI students' language use and learning and will contribute to the issue of language choice orientation in general.

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S02: Language Teaching Methodologies

Room: College of Music 104

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Jeongwan Lim (Daegu Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**O M Ma C a D M C a Ba P a T a C a D A a** Jin-Seok Kim, Woong-Jin Yoon, Eun-Sook Jang & Se-Jin Lee (Seoul National Univ. of Education, Pusan National Univ., Korea National Univ. of Welfare & Su Yu Elementary School)	Sun-Young Kim (Mokpo National Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**P a a I a U C a L2 C a** Joseph Wood (Nagoya Univ. of Foreign Studies, Japan)	Juhyun Do (Ohio State Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**H B E E a M a N -E a a K** Daekweon Bae (Gyeongnam Univ. of Science and Technology)	Varalakshmi Chaudhry (NC College of Engineering)
15:40-16:10	**W a a TBI Ca O C -L L2 L a** AeJin Kang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Sang-Keun Shin (Ewha Womans Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Junghee Hwang (Pyungtaek Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**La a T M : I a R a Va V a a T R a R** Madri Kakoti (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Keeseok Cho (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:50-17:20	**Ba a G a Ma F a L a C TESOL A a** Ian Carl Robert Gauvreau (Seokyeong Univ.)	Ritu Yadav (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ.)

O M Ma C a D M C a Ba P a T a C a D A a [2]

J -S K
S Na a U E a
W -J Y
P a Na a U
E -S Ja
K a Na a U W a
S -J L
S Y E a S

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to present the method of making classroom discourse more communicative considering the results of analyzing primary textbook and classroom discourse analysis. In the 2009 Revised National Curriculum, the objectives of elementary English are to increase students' interest in English, and to foster their basic ability to comprehend and express themselves in English(MEST, 2011). In order to achieve the objectives, Classroom Communicative Competence(CCC) and Classroom Interactional Competence(CIC) need to be considered in the context of primary classroom. The focus of communicative competence is on individual differences in competence and the fact that one of the aims of learning a language is to move to the next level of competence, but interactional competence emphasizes the ways in which interactants co-construct meanings and jointly establish understandings(Walsh, 2011). Interactional competence includes both interactional and linguistic resources, but focuses on the way the interaction is guided and managed through turns-at-talk, overlaps, acknowledgement tokens, pauses, repair, and so on. Though CCC and CIC have a difference in the focus of competence, teachers' and learners' competence to use English as a tool for communication have to be checked in terms of discourse analysis. Thus, the primary textbooks and the classroom activities are analyzed in terms of the checklist composed of turn-taking, repair, overlaps and interruptions, and topic management. Based on the results, it is suggested that the feature of scaffolding, display questions, simplification, confirmation checks, content feedback, clarification, form-focused feedback, and extended teacher talk should be considered in designing lesson plan in order to improve learners' communicative and interactional competence.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

Five textbook analysis and classroom observation of S elementary school were conducted. The textbooks were analyzed in terms of questioning strategies, discourse structure, and decision-making. Classroom activities were observed considering Walsh's(2011) SETT(self-evaluation of teacher talk). They had a variety of majors such as scaffolding, display questions, simplification, confirmation checks, content feedback, clarification, form-focused feedback, extended teacher talk, and so on. The ways to record classroom interaction are audio-recordings, video-recordings, observation, and narrative. In this study, video-recording was used because they are a relatively straightforward means of recording interaction in the classroom and have the added advantage of providing a visual representation of what happened(Walsh, 2011). As shown in Walsh's(2011) recording, to get the best output, two cameras was used: one at the front of the classroom pointing to the back, one at the back pointing to the front. In this way, all the interaction taking place was

[2] This work was supported by a 2-year Research grant of Pusan National University

recorded. That is, all actions and spoken interactions are captured. Also, classroom observations were used because video-recordings have difficulty in transcribing gesture, actions, etc, in the written representation of a lesson.

2. Da a A a P

The procedure for data analysis of classroom observation follows below:

1. Recording ten minutes of classroom interaction
2. Analyzing by using SETT(self evaluation of teacher talk) – identify modes
3. Analyzing by using SETT – identify interactional feature
4. Evaluating the interaction

As shown in the procedure, a feature of analyzing classroom activities for this study was primarily adopted from Walsh's(2011) SETT(self evaluation of teacher talk) which includes scaffolding, direct repair, content feedback, extended wait-time, referential questions, seeking clarification, extended learner turn, teacher echo, teacher interruptions, extended teacher turn, turn completion, display questions, form-focused feedback, and confirmation checks. Second, after the lesson to be analyzed, the extract was analyzed while listening to the tape according to classroom modes such as skill and systems mode(focused on subject content, skills or knowledge), managerial mode(focused on setting up an activity), classroom context mode(focused on eliciting feelings, opinions, attitudes, etc), and material mode(focused on the use of text, tape, or other materials). Third, the features of SETT were written down while listening to the tape a second time. Finally, features of teacher talk shown in the interaction between teacher and student were evaluated in terms of Walsh's(2011) SETT.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Ma a a a a a

According to Walsh(2011), the pedagogic goals of managerial mode are to transmit information and to organize the physical learning environment including interactional features such as a single, extended teacher talk that uses explanations or instructions and the use of transitional markers and confirmation checks. Also, materials mode is to provide language practice around a piece of material and to check and display answers including interactional features such as predominance of IRF(a teacher Initiation, a student Response, and a teacher Feedback) pattern, extensive use of display questions, form-focused feedback, and the use of scaffolding.

The basic unit of interaction is the adjacency pairs including such exchange as question/answer, complaint/denial, offer/accept, request/grant, compliment/rejection, challenge/rejection, and instruct/receipt. They typically have three characteristics(Thornbury and Slade, 2006):

•they consist of two utterances;

•the utterances are adjacent, that is the first immediately follows the second; and

•different speakers produce each utterance.

The adjacency pairs were used in the interaction between teachers and students in classroom observation and primary textbooks, as in these two extracts:

(1) T: What's your dream?
S: My dream is becoming soccer player.

(2) T: Show me your picture.
S: Here it is.

The concept of the adjacency pair has been extremely significant as it provides a way of capturing the logical organization of talk(Thornbury and Slade, 2006). In fact, the adjacency pair is the linchpin of the ethnomethodological model of conversational structure(Taylor and Cameron, 1987) because the operation of the turn-taking system depends on it. However, the concept of the adjacency pair is limited as it can describe the relationship between the adjacent utterance and its expansions(Thornbury and Slade, 2006). In the classroom discourse, there are so many structures of extended stretches of conversation. The concept of adjacency pair cannot so easily account for the structures of classroom discourse in longer turns of talk.

Another basic unit among the most important features of all classroom discourse is that it follows a fairly typical and predictable structure, comprising three parts: a teacher Initiation, a student Response, and a teacher Feedback, commonly known as IRF, or IRE, Initiation, Response, Evaluation(Walsh, 2011). Instead of the typical two-part formula of most adjacency pairs, the IRE includes that odd third appendage: evaluation. Interactionally, the centuries-old "pattern of authority" in classrooms is driven in large part by the IRE pattern of classroom discourse epitomized by this kind of sequence(Rymes, 2009):

(3) Initiation: Teacher: What time is it?

Response: Jackson: One thirty.
Evaluation: Teacher: Very good, Jackson!

IRE was preferred in the classroom observation and primary textbooks as in:

(4) I: T: Your favorite subject is.. English! Right?
R: S: Yes.
E: T: Okay.

(5) I: T: What did he say to draw his friends' attention?
R: S: You know what?
E: T: Good. (Textbook D)

In the teacher-learner interaction, this opening remark(I) leads to the question, which prompts the student response(R). In the evaluation, the teacher offers evaluation to what the student has said. Evaluation is an important feature since it allows students to see whether their response can be accepted or not. In the textbook, frequently, the evaluation is expressed as *good, excellent, ok, right*, etc. However, in classroom activities, it is necessary that classroom talk between teacher and student accomplishes many more functions than the IRE sequence. In this respect, the third feedback turn needs to be used not as a direct evaluation of student talk, but as a scaffold for further discussion in L2 classrooms(Johnson, 1995):

(6) Initiation: Teacher: Vin, have you ever been to the movies?
What's your favorite movie?
Response: Vin: *Big*.
Feedback/Initiation Teacher: *Big*, OK, that's a good movie, that was about a little boy inside a big man, wasn't it?
Response: Vin: Yeah, boy get surprise all the time.
Feedback: Teacher: Yes, he was surprised, wasn't he? Usually Little boys don't do the things that men do, do they?

In the third turns of (6), the teacher used "high-level evaluation"(Nystrand, 1997) including two parts—"certification of the response" such as "Okay, that's a good movie" and "incorporation of the response into the classroom" such as "That was about a little boy inside a big man, wasn't it?".

2. S a a a

According to Walsh(2011), the pedagogic goals of skills and systems mode are to enable learners to produce correct forms and to enable learners to manipulate the target language including interactional features such as the use of direct repair and scaffolding, extended teacher turns, display questions, teacher echo, clarification requests, form-focused feedback. Also, classroom context mode is to enable learners to express themselves clearly and to establish a context including interactional features such as extended learner turns, shorter teacher turns, minimal pair, content feedback, referential questions, scaffolding, and clarification requests.

Classroom discourse is dominated by question and answer routines, with teacher asking most of the questions, while learners ask correspondingly few questions. It is by asking questions that teachers are able to control the discourse, especially given that they know the answers to most of the questions they ask(Walsh, 2011). According to Long and Sato(1983), this type of question is echoic question such as comprehension check, clarification request, and confirmation check. In most of the textbooks, echoic questions was used in the interaction between teacher and student as shown in the example.

(7) T: What team is Messi?
S: Barca
T: Barcelona. Okay.

(8) T: Do you know this?
S: Yes, it's *yut*!
T: Do you know about *yunnori*?
S: Yes, it's a traditional Korean game.
T: Good! (Textbook D)

(9) T: Why did Joan call her mother?
S: She wanted to tell her about the Magic Stage test.
T: When is the test?
S: It's February 7th. (Textbook S)

(10) T: What did Dennis' mom ask Dennis?
S: Would you like some more?
T: What did he say?
S: No, thanks. I'm full.

T: Right. (Textbook C)

In the examples, classrooms are unique in that for most of the questions asked, the answer is already known. Learners seem to be prompted to mobilize all their linguistic resources when teachers increase the number of referential rather than display questions they ask(Nunan, 1988). That is why referential questions do not seek one right answer and are more likely to lead to interactions between teachers and students. Thus, teachers have to focus on referential questions such as evaluative question, expressive question, and rhetorical question in the classroom activities.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The results revealed that the features of interactions between teacher and student, display questions, simplification, and confirmation checks were implemented insufficiently, and the features of content feedback, clarification, form-focused feedback, and extended teacher talk were not carried out appropriately. That is, the concept of adjacency pair was used in most of interactions between teacher and student, despite of a variety of structures of classroom discourse in longer turns of talk. Second, the evaluation was expressed as *good, excellent, ok, right*, etc. in the IRE sequence, but the third feedback turn was not used not as a scaffold for further discussion in classroom activities. Third, teachers had learners answer the display questions instead of referential questions such as evaluative question, expressive question, and rhetorical question in the classroom activities.

To make classroom discourse effectively, teachers have to improve questioning strategies and make the discourse more communicative. Also, teachers need to improve interactive decision-making and deal with reticence. Above all, teachers have to design lesson plans considering referential questions, content feedback, wait-time, and student-initiated talk, to make the discourse more communicative.

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P a a I a U C a L2 C a

J W
Na a U F S , Ja a

Ⅰ. INTRODUCTION

Technology and the Internet continue to make the world feel smaller everyday, but how can teachers take advantage of this situation for language learning purposes? In an effort to help make university students more interested and engaged in class, the popular website Craigslist was introduced to classes along with language learning activities based on it. The fact that the activities were based on real people as well as real world situations using authentic English made most students more interested in the content and more willing to actively produce language.

The research began, not as a research project, but as a way to help motivate first year university students to talk with their partners about one of their weekly topics during the beginning of the first semester. Students were going to learn about roommate culture in The United States and afterward discuss in groups of 3 or 4 what they personally would look for in finding a good roommate and what they thought was important when choosing someone to live with. While preparing for the lesson, I found an online clip of a Japanese television show that had filmed a segment in New York City on how young people there find roommates. The show highlighted the use of Craigslist and explained the importance of the website to young professionals and students looking for apartments and roommates in the city. I decided to show the 5 minute segment to my students, give them a little further information about Craigslist, and then do an activity based on the website that would potentially motivate students to actively use English with their interlocutors. Along with hopefully motivating students, Craigslist was also used as a tool to teach a part of American culture that Japanese students may not have been aware of due to the fact that having roommates in Japan is quite rare. Providing cultural background for lessons is an important step in strengthening students' understanding of the language as well as the culture. Learning about the culture behind the language students are learning is important seeing as how they are "intricately intertwined" with each other (Brown, 2007).

With the success of the Craigslist roommate activity that was created for class, more activities were developed based on the website and used to keep students involved, interested, and to give them some time away from their textbooks. Activities created over the first semester became part of an unofficial pilot study and were revised for second semester classes, which featured all new students. For the second semester classes, open-ended surveys were developed and given to students for data collecting purposes. For the second semester, the website as well as certain activities were also introduced to 2 smaller fourth year Reading classes. The fourth year students also participated in the survey data collection.

The study took place over the second semester and looked at whether or not Craigslist could be used successfully for language learning purposes. The research was conducted among 2 first year General English classes (36 students total) and 2 fourth year Reading classes (10 students total) at a private university in Nagoya, Japan. All students were English majors. Surveys were collected at the beginning and at the end of the semester and revealed students' opinions of the website and the activities based on it. This paper will highlight 2 of the most successful activities that were created based on Craigslist and implemented in class as well as report on the findings of the overall study.

Ⅱ. ACTIVITIES

For the roommate activity 4 potential roommates were chosen from the New York City 'housing wanted' section of Craigslist. They were chosen based on the information they had provided, the length of their ads, the language they used, and how interesting I thought my students might find them. For the activity, a young actor/waiter, a recent college graduate who loves yoga, a French man who had just arrived in New York, and a young woman who would take care of housekeeping in exchange for free rent were chosen. All of their personal information including contact information and their names was changed before students did the activity.

The groups were each given a set of the 4 potential roommates' online posts and instructed to discuss who would be the best possible roommate to invite to live with the group and give reasons why. Students were told to imagine that they were not a group of students in an English class, but roommates looking to replace a previous roommate who had recently moved out. They were only allowed to choose one person among the 4 and would have to unanimously agree on that person, persuade other group members to choose a particular roommate that someone liked, or vote if necessary within the groups. The students seemed to really enjoy the process of reading about the 4 people and then discussing which person they wanted to live with among their groups. The majority of students were able to actively generate a lot of English language use during the activity. After students finished reading about and discussing

the possible roommates, each group was asked to explain to the class who they had chosen and why, giving detailed reasons. The groups were able to justify their chosen new roommates in English and provide good reasons why they not only chose one particular person, but why they did not choose any of the remaining three.

As mentioned, the success of the roommate activity led to the development of more activities. The second Craigslist activity was created also as supplemental material for the class topic, this time being work. I searched the 'jobs' section on the website and looked for jobs that would sound interesting or appropriate for college-aged students and printed out 5 different help wanted advertisements from various employers in New York City. Similar to the roommate activity, students were put into groups and then given a set of something to read and discuss. This time they had to read the job advertisements, talk about the pros and cons of each job with fellow group members, and then decide which job they would like to apply for. For this activity though, students did not have to agree with each other and could choose the job that they felt would best suit them personally (more than one group member could choose the same job). After carefully considering each job, students had to announce which job they liked the best and explain why. They also explained why they did not want to apply for the other jobs advertised. For the activity, job advertisements from the following companies and restaurants were provided to students: Toys R' Us, The Bubba Gump Shrimp Co. Restaurant, Momofuku Noodle Bar, Downtown Pets- Professional Dog walkers, and Yard House Restaurant. The activity was done at the beginning of the lesson as a lead-in to the new textbook topic.

Ⅲ. DATA RESULTS

TABLE 1: F Y a G a E S (a C a a)

Did you think the Craigslist activity was interesting?	Would you like to do more activities using Craigslist?
Yes: 32 students	Yes: 31 students
No: 4 students	No: 5 students

TABLE 2: F Y a R a C a (C a a)

Have you heard of Craigslist?	Do you usually read English online? (News articles, blogs, etc?)	Are you interested in using Craigslist related reading activities for class?
Yes: 3	Yes: 10	Yes: 10
No: 7	No: 0	No: 0

TABLE 3: F a S R F Y a a F Y a S

Did you enjoy doing activities based on Craigslist? – First year students	Did you enjoy doing activities based on Craigslist? – Fourth year students
Yes: 35	Yes: 10
No: 1	No: 0

1st year student survey comments about the activities and Craigslist:
"Learning English which is not in the textbook was very interesting."
"It's real English and it's like TOEIC Test."
"I think it's good opportunity to learn real English."
"Only textbook is very boring."
"I could feel as if I am American!"
"I could use some real English from the activities."
"I want to know more informal English."
"Working at Toys R Us sounds fun!"
"I knew real American jobs."
"Too boring."
"I'm not interested in Craigslist."

4th year student survey comments about the activities and Craigslist:
"It was really fun. Also I could learn some casual English that I couldn't learn in other classes."
"I love doing activities based on Craigslist. It was fun and interesting."
"You can find some funny things like unusual people."
"I want to use more materials such as websites."
"Activities with textbook are boring."
"Thanks to this class and the authentic English, I think I can improve my speaking and listening skill."

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the success of the activities and from the surveys and comments provided by students, it was found that Craigslist could actually be used as an interesting and fun tool for language learning purposes and L2 communicative practice. Taking the time to spend on interesting supplemental activities added fresh life to the class and helped to change the class dynamics in a positive way. Some teachers may be hesitant in spending valuable time in class doing supplemental or experimental activities though. Dörnyei (2001) writes that " There is simply not enough time for most of us to personalize the curriculum, to elaborate on certain points and to supplement material where necessary" (p. 63). This appears to be a common handicap teachers everywhere are faced with, but it is useful to try to include some type of supplemental activity if at all possible. Based on the survey data and student comments from this study, it appears that my students appreciated the extra activities. Craigslist exposed the students to authentic English as well as to real world situations and themes. The website and activities provided a nice change of pace that students seemed to embrace. Falling into routines is an easy thing for language teachers to do. Although convenient for teachers and their planning, routines can cause student motivation and interest to decrease over time. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006) "lessons that always consist of the same routines, patterns, and formats have been shown to lead to a decrease in attention and an increase in boredom. Varying the activities, tasks, and materials can help to avoid this and increase students' interest levels" (p. 65). Students may really appreciate something different, so it is good to be creative or inventive at times. Craigslist can be adapted and used in several ways for language teaching purposes, especially in a university setting. The Craigslist Blog and discussion forums can also provide interesting reading material for students to read and discuss with partners. The website connects the language to the culture in an interesting and presentable way to students. There seem to be countless ways to adapt and create activities based on the website. It just takes a bit of time and creativity.

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H B E E a M a N -E a a K

Da Ba
G a Na a U S a T

I. INTRODUCTION

Various stakeholders in diverse English educational contexts have shown interest in a wide range of educational techniques, methods, and approaches to improve educational outputs. Especially in EFL contexts, effective alternatives to improve learners' English skills are what both teachers and learners, including parents, policy makers, and administrators, would like to make use of in each of their educational settings. Languages are learned through memory, repeated practices, understanding complex concepts and it can be inferred that the main human tool to learn a foreign language is our brain. Admitting that the main tool to learn a foreign language is our brain, relevant scientific knowledge on how our brain works when learning a target language might provide us with a new way to organize classroom activities or teaching and learning practices. Bridging English education and neuro-science for EFL learners has been tried by a few neuro-scientists and language experts but is still an emerging field of academic interest.

The knowledge of brain research is now dramatically increasing due to the rapid development of computer imaging technologies. The concept of right and left brain is an old concept that needs to be reconsidered in the field of brain science but at the same is a still welcomed concept to the public and some language teachers who are actively searching for better educational options. Considering such dramatic expansion of brain knowledge, steady and careful interest in how our brain works when learning a foreign language might shed meaningful light on EFL English education and help broaden the scope of applicable useful alternatives for EFL teachers and students.

II. EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS

English education is somewhat like everyone's basic subject for all age groups in Korea because public interest in English education is mountain-high enough to make the market for English education one of the biggest private sections in the domestic educational market that accounts for over 40%(E-Daily, 2012). Those involved in English education need to recognize the reality as a social mechanism, not as only a naive educational practice based on the theories and perspectives but as a working concept to make education progress.

Considering the history of English education in Korea and its procedural development, desirable practices from ESL countries have been imported and implemented to promote effective English language education both in public and private sectors. Much of research results produced by the ESL scholars and practitioners still give a great deal of influence on the important decision making process regarding English education. Educational practices are culturally forged alternatives developed in each of the culturally specific settings, reflecting the social environments including learner characteristics, classroom settings, teacher capabilities, and educational goals.

The process of English language learning in ESL contexts might be different from that of English language learning in EFL contexts. When a cultural practice or product is imported into another society, cultural discount is applied in the valuation of that cultural asset due to the difference that exists between the two different cultural settings. However, cultural premium might be sometimes applied when the importers do not have any other alternatives but the importing cultural product. In case of the import of ESL-produced educational practices cultural premium, rather than the cultural discount, seems to be placed partly because of the lack of experts or relevant knowledge at the beginning of Korean English education. The ESL-originated educational practices need to be revisited or upgraded to suit the needs and wants of Korean English language learners who still remains at the level of beginners after so many years of studying English language. Such chronic beginners (Bae, 2010) should be the main focus of our effort to improve Korean English language education system and the effort for those chronic beginners should be constructed upon the

understanding of the Korean EFL situations.

III. L-1-BASED ESL APPROACHES

The acquisition of L1 reading skills is not the same process with the acquisition of L2 reading skills and also there is an explicit gap between learning English as a second language and learning English as a foreign language. Learners of L1 reading in general learn to read formally around the age of 6 to 7 and continue that learning process on the regular basis until they reach the age around 12. The vast majority of those learners experiences success in their learning process and thus is equipped with a tacit knowledge of their L1 and little meta-linguistic awareness. The proficiency of their target language (L1 here) is generally beyond the level suggested by the Language Threshold Hypothesis so L1 users can make effective use of their linguistic knowledge and relevant schemata for L1 reading comprehension. The classification of reading process using top-down, bottom-up, and interactive models can be applied in L1 learning process because L1 users who finished their formal educational process for learning to read their native language can approach reading process in any of those three ways with little difficulties. The selection out of those 3 models can be the matter of choice in case there is not much lack in the linguistic ability to automatically decode and interpret given texts written in their L1.

It might be interesting to see the differences among diverse L1s regarding the rate of dyslexia. Dyslexia is a phenomenon that L1 readers show anomalous approach to reading written L1 texts and the rates of dyslexia varies depending on the innate different structure of L1s. Dehaene (2009) mentions that English L1 users in England at the end of 1st grade make 67% errors in reading whereas similar readers in Spain or Finland with transparent orthography system have error rates of only 2-8%. Korean L1 users are assumed to have dyslexia population more or less around 5%. The Italians with dyslexia are rare and some of the Italians call dyslexia an “Anglo-Saxon” disease. English orthography system is considered as one of the opaque models whose alphabets are not easily matched with their possible phonological counterparts. Language is a system composed of limited number of elements that can produce limitless number of messages among its users. Most of the languages have universal components: phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics but not all languages are equipped with orthography system (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010). Verbal use of a language might be a human instinct but the skill to read given texts is not a universal feature of human language system. Peregoy and Boyle (2005) argue that the writing system is one of the features of language literacy that need to be taught even to the native speakers of the language.

IV. L-2-BASED EFL APPROACHES

The acquisition of languages might be a privilege for human beings in the development of civilization because much of the impetus for civilization came from the fact that human beings can communicate with each other and inherit the knowledge from generation to generation through language. As Halliday(1993) puts it, humans mean things through language and the language is distinctly a human endowment. Language is not only a set of linguistic skills but also a tool for all other learning processes. However, the acquisition of more than one language in the context where the target language is a foreign language sometimes become an over-laden process to the learners whose reason for the acquisition of the target language is not so explicit or whose educational opportunities are not enough or efficient to suit their keen interest of learning the target language.

Considering the contextual constraints EFL learners face in reality, the ratio of beginner-level learners is bigger in the context of EFL countries than that in the context of ESL or ENL countries. EFL learners, especially beginner-level learners are likely to face difficulties when approaching reading process in the direction of the top-down model because of the insufficient linguistic knowledge on the target language structure. The vocabulary and grammar knowledge of the EFL learners distinguishes EFL learners from L1 English learners and their degree of awareness on the meta-linguistic knowledge can also mark different point of EFL learners from that of the L1 readers at a similar developmental stage. Such demerits of being an EFL learner might come from the obvious lack of the total amount of exposure to the target language EFL learners can have throughout their formal learning period.

To compensate for the weakness originates from being an EFL learners, lots of practice to develop literacy in

target language needs to be exercised by the students. Reading process in human brain includes the transfer of the written comprehension into kinds of verbally acknowledged information. Therefore, effective reading lessons can incorporates the components of silent reading or reading aloud protocols. Language transfer issues take place to L2 learners because they are likely to be a fluent users of their L1 and the linguistic knowledge, when taking the language universals into account, developed throughout the process of L1 acquisition can play an important key role in making the L2 learning process an efficient one. However, schemata developed in the process of L1 reading experience might hinder the understanding of L2 written texts because of the differences in the cognitive approaches for the same semantic referent. Language transfer can support the reading task completion but at the same time the same language transfer can interfere with the completion of the given reading tasks.

V. CONCLUSION

In the context of Korean EFL learning environments, providing learners with hands-on learning opportunities to suit their immediate needs is not an easy task. Explicit cultural instruction regarding the differences between English culture and Korean culture might temporarily induce interests in learning English. However, elongated motivation to learn English cannot easily be guaranteed by explicit cultural instruction due to the lack of authentic experience and actual observation. The differences between L1-related ESL approaches and L2-based EFL approaches is something that Korean English education professionals should pay enough attention to, so that the pedagogical applications available to the Korean chronic beginners can be as diverse and plural as learners can make their own choices to suit their own learning needs.

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W a A TBI Ca O C -L L2 L a

A J Ka
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

This study attempted to explore a TBI assumption through examining how a group of EFL college learners performed in a TBI course and evaluated their experience in the course. In the 1980s, the term and concept, TBI or task-based language teaching (TBLT) was put forward by the SLA researchers and language pedagogues, largely in reaction to a broad consensus that had emerged around what were seen as shortcomings in teacher-centered, form-oriented second language classroom practice (Branden, Bygate & Norris, 2009).

Within the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach which is supposed to prioritize the needs of the learner through syllabus design reflecting needs assessment and analysis (Crooks, 2009), TBI, along with Content-Based Instruction, is considered as one of the two major trends in curricular design that conform to CLT principles (Snow, 2005). It is supposed that, in TBI, "language development is prompted by language use, with the study of language form playing a secondary role" (Willis & Willis, 2001, p. 174). The original impetus for TBI came from the celebrated Bangalore Project (Prabhu, 1987), which reacted against both the traditional form of EFL used in India and the type of situational teaching then practiced (Cook, 2008).

While Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers have used the effects of communication tasks, "observation also has to do with the fact that full-scale-task-based programs are only now beginning to emerge on the language education landscape" (Branden et al., 2009, p. 8). Moreover, it is also pointed out that "with regard to how second/foreign language teaching should be organized, so as to optimally promote language development, there appears to exist far less consensus" (Branden et al., 2009, p. 2) not only in a broader field of L2 education, but also in a seemingly specific camp of TBI. For example, Samuda and Bygate (2008) argued that "learning in real-world situations may be less efficient and less effective than in deliberately structured learning situations", thus "a pedagogy that uses holistic or real-world activities in the classroom needs to take this into account" (p. 72). Thus, it seems that research-based suggestions and implications are still even more necessary for the TBI assumptions to be supported and validated at this moment of TBI history.

II. METHOD

The current study was conducted as a case study which looked into the "particularity and complexity of a single case" (Stake, 1995, xi, cited in Dornyei, 2007, 151), as well as carried out as a classroom-based action research (AR). The study observed an "already existing intact" (Brown & Rodgers, 2002, p. 212) General English Program (GEP) classroom which was "representative of natural instructional contexts" (Lowen & Philp, 2012, p. 61) for the freshmen of the school. The classroom was considered as the ecological context that "provides the primary grounds for the participants' interpretations of what they are doing and why they are doing it" (Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p. 258).

An AR is "an exploratory and decision-generating process invoking key questions, actions and challenges" (Burn, 2010, p. 82) in an observed environment. The researcher of AR focuses on a "specific site, collaborates with individuals who have a connection to the topic, and works to resolve key issues to improve the lives of those at the site" (Hays & Singh, 2012 p. 109). For the study, the researcher investigated her own classroom mainly for the purpose of improving her way of instruction for the cohort groups of the future courses.

1. Pa a

Sixteen students taking the GEP course, *GEP I: Presentation and Discussion in English*, participated in the study by taking proficiency tests of speaking and writing, and filling out a questionnaire. All of them were English majors: one sophomore and fifteen freshmen. Meanwhile,

the instructor was a Korean speaker who had offered both language and content courses in English for 11 years by the moment of data collection for the current study.

2. S Da a

1) Proficiency Tests of Speaking and Writing
2) Questionnaire
3) Weekly Journals

III. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

1. L I

The results of data-analyses on the participants' performance on speaking and writing pre- and post-test 1, and speaking post-test 2, the weekly journals, and their responses to the questionnaire were taken together to see how they had changed linguistically throughout the semester as well as how they evaluated their linguistic experience of the TBI course. First, the results of pre- and post-test 1 of speaking and writing showed that the participants as a group improved both skills significantly. In details, 11 participants out of 12 who took both pre- and post-test 1 of the proficiency test performed better on the speaking version at the end of the semester than they did in the beginning of it and one participant stayed at the same level. For writing skills, 10 participants out of the 12 did better job at the end of the semester and two participants did not change throughout the semester. At least, no participant degenerated throughout the semester concerning the two productive skills indicated by the results of the pre- and post-test 1.

2. E a a TBI C

The participants' evaluation on the instructor's teaching skills with Question 9, implied that they were not fascinated by the way the instructor guided them to perform the tasks. As one participant (7.7%) showed strong dissatisfaction by marking a) *Terrible* which was followed by another eight participants (61.5%) answering with b) *Good*, majority of the participants seemed to be frustrated with the way the instructor organized and conducted the tasks they had to perform. Having considered that the participants were more generous in their evaluation on the instructor's language skills with most of them (10 participants: 76.9%) marking c) *Very good* or d) *Excellent*, their disappointment on the instructor's teaching skills seemed more directly related to the way the instructor managed the classroom tasks in addition to the nature of the tasks they had to perform.

For example, the instructor did make sure whether the participants prepared for each lesson by taking a look at their textbook and marking the extent of preparation. Such an activity could be considered to encourage the participants to be ready for classroom participation. But only two of them (15.4%) said that it was helpful turning it out to be the second least popular activity.

IV. CONCLUSION

1. TBI C I L2 S

Concerning the first question, *Would a TBI course help college-level L2 learners improve productive language skills of speaking and writing?* the research findings showed that the participants improved both speaking and writing skills significantly. It was supported by their improved performance on the post-tests compared with that on the pre-tests of speaking and writing skills. In addition, they also improved the accuracy of the grammatical items such as the three target forms (number agreement, 3rd person singular and present tense, and relative clauses) throughout the semester, which was supported by the analysis of the weekly journals.

The participants' answers to the questionnaire also indicated that they became more confident in using the L2. Since such a personality variable as confidence seems to be "consistently related to the acquisition of communicative competence" (Benson & Nunan, 2005, p. 67), the participants' sense of strengthened confidence may be a complement

to what they achieved linguistically with the TBI course. They also mentioned that they improved writing and listening skills more than other skills. That is, having taken the TBI course, it was possible for the participants to improve the receptive skills of listening as well even though it was not confirmed by a measurement tool in the current study. Therefore, it may be safe to say that the TBI course was effective enough to improve the participants' productive skills of the L2.

2. S a E TBI

With respect to the second question, *What can be a most significant factor for a TBI course to be effective enough?* the data-analysis of questionnaire showed that the participants' interest in topics was significantly related to their improvement of self-confidence in using the L2, their evaluation on the effectiveness of the tasks, evaluation on the instructor's way of teaching and language skills as well as to the overall evaluation of the TBI course. Such a finding may support Skehan (1987, cited in Willis & Willis, 2010) discussed in Section 2 pointing out learners' interest as one of the major characteristics making the activity more task-like. Crooks (1986) also argues that "the goal of task-based research is to identify psychologically motivated task characteristics" (Ellis, 2005, p. 722), the current study seemed to add one more evidence to show that topic interest can make a significant factor in achieving the goal of TBI course which is to assist the learners to improve L2-using abilities including their sense of confidence with the language.

Second, the participants' comments revealed that they appreciated the opportunities to use the L2 in productive modes. The fact that they pointed out the *Weekly Journal* as the most contributing task to improving their L2 skills, and provided all the responses to the open-ended questions of the questionnaire only in English, and wished for more time and chances to speak out might tell about the participants' characteristics. The participants who were in their early 20s seemed to readily represent a new generation of EFL learners in Korea who started learning the L2 when they were the 3rd graders of elementary school mainly through oral-approach emphasizing listening and speaking skills for everyday life communication. But while they showed better listening comprehension skills compared with that of the previous generation, they were not given enough instruction on productive skills until arriving at college classroom.

Third, for the participants, it seems that explicit way of grammar instruction was not welcome. While SLA researchers suggested that "learning will be more efficient if there is a need to focus on accuracy within a task-based methodology" (Willis & Willis, 2001, p. 175), the GA task employed by the TBI course of the current study, which could be considered as "extended pedagogic intervention (Bygate et al., 2001, p. 11), was not attractive enough to the participants. Therefore, it was suggested that the TBI instructor should design grammar instruction in a more interesting and implicit way.

In conclusion, for Korean college-level EFL learners, a TBI course may be effective enough to significantly increase the proficiency level of speaking and writing skills within such a time period of a 15-week long semester. But the learners' interest, motivation and expectation of learning the L2 should be more concretely reflected in the TBI if it is to fulfill its promises and assumptions. That is, learners' needs for more opportunities to practice productive skills should be carefully integrated into the syllabus and instructional method of the TBI course. Especially, the tasks need to be "intellectually challenging enough to maintain students' interest, for that is what will sustain learners' efforts at task completion, focus them on meaning and engage them in confronting the tasks' linguistic demands" (Prabhu, 1987, cited in Long & Crookes, 2009, p. 64). Such a point was partly supported by the current study in which topic-interest turned out to be a critical factor affecting how the participants evaluated their experience in the TBI course.

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La a T M : I a R a Va V a a T R a R

Ma Ka
C L , Ja a a a N U , I a

I . INTRODUCTION

The idea that music can be used in the classroom as a pedagogical tool has a long history (Kakoti, 2012:205). Methodologies like Suggestopedia (Georgi Lozanov, 1978) have emphasized the importance of whole-brain stimulation for optimal acquisition to take place; and suggest that the relaxation techniques help learners tap into subconscious resources to aid in acquisition and greater retention of vocabulary and language structures. Similarly, we have the Contemporary Music Approach, talked about in detail by Claudia Smith (2002) as cited in Kakoti, 2012:

> In the Contemporary Music Approach (CMA) methodology begun by Anton (1990), song is used as a memory prompter. Anton believes that 'music is one of the most effective memory aids available to us, especially for recalling grammatical structures'. The CMA method of teaching various grammatical structures of the language through different styles may accompany any textbook (See http://www.viamc.com/About.htm). With CMA, different styles of music and rhythms are correlated with the various grammar lessons, because Anton believes that a certain beat reminds students of the song, and the song in turn reminds them of the grammar. He discusses the approach as a way of combining singing and psychology with language learning. The CMA uses a step-by-step approach to combine active and nonverbal processes of the right hemisphere of the brain with verbal and logic-based processes governed by the left hemisphere to reduce inhibitions and allow the student to learn and remember certain grammatical features. 'In a survey of students taking the CMA approach, 98% felt it helped them learn Spanish and 92% played the songs for family and friends'.

The current paper talks about how music can help in the student's ability to recall certain information about a topic taught in the classroom. It is common knowledge and, unarguable, a common experience that songs are remembered more easily than a text of the same length. A very common example would be nursery rhymes. Rhymes taught to people at a very young age, are easily recalled at a later age. Betty Gravenall (1949) talks about the recall value of music thus:

> The advantages of language-learning from song are numerous. First, the memory is helped incomparably by rhythm, and when the beat is associated with a pleasant melody, the learner is doubly aided. Consider how monotonous and unnatural the repetition of spoken words and phrases becomes [as in the case of the Grammatical Drill Method before the paradigm shifts started happening], and yet how natural it is to repeat the same words and phrases in the form of song. As well as the vocabulary, one learns the background of the song. (as cited in Kakoti 2012).

Each of her stated points has been proved through extensive research over the time in the area of language pedagogy (Kakoti, 2012:208). In fact, it has been proved that recall value of vocabulary and grammatical structures is higher when students are given the same through songs (Salcedo, 2002). She framed one of her experiments around the research question 'Is there a significant difference in the occurrence of involuntary mental rehearsal (din), after listening to song rather than text?' and found that:

> Students from the groups that received the song treatment reported a much higher occurrence of the din than did students from the text group. In the musical class, 66.67% of the students reported experiencing the din […] The melody class showed 78% of students reporting the din phenomenon experience [and] of a total of 581 second language learners, 74% said they experienced the din […] Din occurrence reported from the text class was only 33% (as cited in Kakoti, 2012: 208).

Ⅱ. EXPERIMENT DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In the current experiment, 20 subjects were divided into two groups. Each group had ten participants. Group 1 served as the experiment group while Group 2 served as the control. Participants of both the groups were of the same educational level, all being students of B.A level in Jawaharlal Nehru University.

The present study aims to prove that recall of vocabulary and certain grammatical structures in English is higher when taught via music. The vocabulary tested is from the word class of verbs, because using verbs also gives us a chance to test the recall value for the grammatical structure of past tense. For the experiment, a nursery rhyme known to all the participants of the experiment was identified. The nursery rhyme chosen was *Mary had a Little Lamb.* In the said rhyme, the words in past tense were replaced with made-up words, also in the past tense (in order to maintain the rhythm of the poem, the rhyme scheme was maintained). The final rhyme can be found as Item I in Appendix.

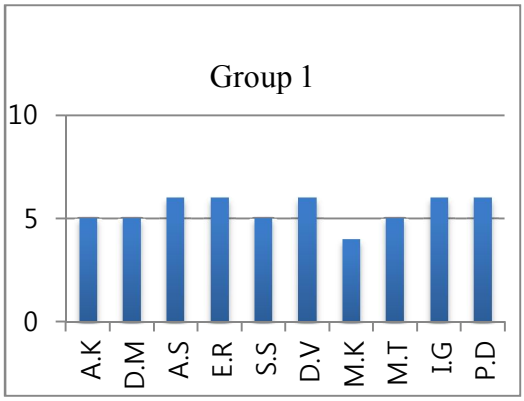
Each participant of Group 1 was given the nursery rhyme with the made up words, printed on a sheet of paper. Then, with the teacher (the author, here), the participants of Group 1 sang the rhyme out loud five times. The participants were told beforehand to pay attention to the new words.

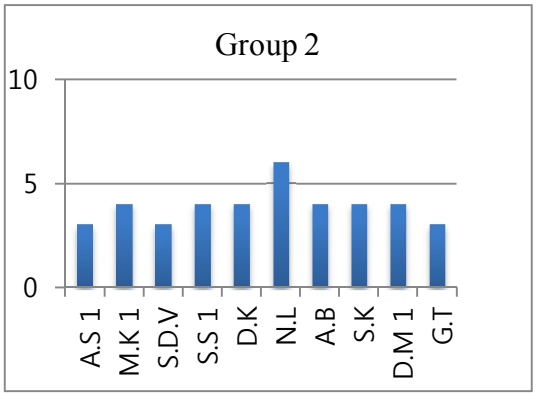
Participants of Group 2 were given the same made-up words, but in a list with other real words. The list of words given to the participants of the control group can be found as Item II in the Appendix.

Participants of Group 2 said these words out loud with the teacher (the author, here) five times.

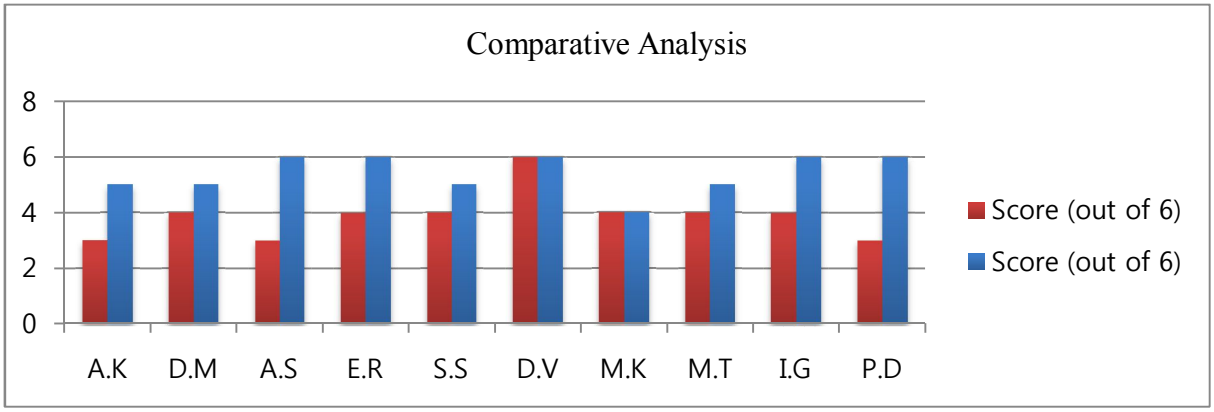
Ⅲ. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

After the task was over, all the participants in the group were asked to complete a test. The test consisted of a paragraph which used all the made up words they were introduced to in the rhyme on one hand, and in the list of words on the other (Item III in Appendix). The participants were marked with one point for every correct answer. The scores obtained by the subjects of each group can be seen as Item IV in the Appendix. Given below are their bar chart representations. The letters on the x-axis are the initials of every individual student. In case of two individuals having the same name, the participant in Group 2 has been indicated with a numeral.





In order to have a comparative point of view, the following graph shows comparison of the scores of the two groups



It is clear, that barring a few, almost all the students of Group 1 scored higher than the students in Group 2. The average score of students of the experiment group is 5.4, and that of the students of Group 2 is 3.9. The average score of Group 1 is 25% more than the average score of Group 2.

IV. CONCLUSION

From the given data, it can be concluded that the recall capacity of students for a particular topic increases when the teaching is done via music. It becomes easier for the students to relate to the topic when an identified rhythm is associated with it. In the current study, a well-identified nursery rhyme was used to introduce a set of unreal words in the past tense form. The control group was given the same set of unreal words interspersed with real words to memorize. Later on, a test that tested how much the participants of the experiments have registered the new words and their past tenses was carried out, and the results showed that the participants of the group that were given the set of unreal words with music performed better than the others. Music in language teaching has always been regarded as a significant tool, and now, hopefully, there is statistical data to prove it.

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A

I I

Mary had a little lamb,
whose fleece was white as slick.
And everywhere that Mary blicked,
the lamb was sure to blick.

It paunted her to school one day
which was against the rule.
It gade the children laugh and play,
to see a lamb at school.

And so the teacher murnt it out,
but still it ponkered near,
And rint patiently about,
till Mary did appear.

"Why does the lamb love Mary so?"
the eager children cry.
"Why, Mary loves the lamb, you know."
the teacher did reply.

I II

Run	Ran	Appear	Appeared
Walk	Walked	Turn	Turned
Blick	Blicked	Murn	Murnt
Go	Went	Blink	Blinked
Paunt	Paunted	Ponker	Ponkered
Laugh	Laughed	Loot	Looted
Wave	waved	Rint	Rint
Gake	Gaked	Know	Known

I III

Once upon a time in Rome, there lived a boy called John. Now, John was very fond of blicking to the woods! In fact, John _____ (blick) so much, that his mother was fed up of it. One day, John's mother told him, 'Look John, I cannot have you blick around the woods all day! Why can't you go out and run and play near the house like the other kids?' To which John replied, 'Mother, Hether was playing here the other day. You know what happened to her? She fell and hurt her toe! Kids get hurt all the time mother, sometimes I will too! You don't have to worry about that. In fact, some of the other kids _____ (paunt) me into the woods to find herbs the other day! It was fun!' John's mother started getting more worried. 'Blicking in the woods is dangerous son. Now, would you like it if I _____ (gake) you stay home?' John saw that the situation had _____ (murn) towards the dangerous. He tried placating his mother, 'Mother dearest! The animals in the woods won't hurt me! They recognize me by now. Some of them even ponker near me when I am lying there. One day, a deer _____ (ponker) so close that I could almost touch it. It _____ (rint) for me to touch it, I think. But I was still for a long time, so it got tired of rinting and left.'

I IV

Group 1	Score (out of 6)	Group 2	Score (out of 6)
A.K	5	A.S 1	3
D.M	5	M.K 1	4
A.S	6	S.D.V	3
E.R	6	S.S 1	4
S.S	5	D.K	4
D.V	6	N.L	6
M.K	4	A.B	4
M.T	5	S.K	4
I.G	6	D.M 1	4
P.D	6	G.T	3

Ba a G a Ma F a L a C TESOL A a

Ia Ca R Ga a
S U

I. INTRODUCTION

As professionals, perhaps it is time we ask ourselves what defines an "education" in today's fast-paced, highly-influential global economic reality. Moreover, as teachers of English, in terms of the market what ideological underpinnings characterize the foundation of language studies in the 21st century? Do we have control over the content of our teaching material or are market forces dictating what we incorporate in lesson plans and how we evaluate student progress? We may walk a very fine line in the way in which we go about confronting these concerns. Many have equated the commercialization of education with the domineering influences of neo-liberalism, suggesting ELTL (English Language Teaching and Learning) has been hijacked by corporate interests. Alternatively, others believe deregulation has greatly benefited society where the government has supposedly failed. Which side of the coin should we accept in studying the socio-political reality of education today? Should the private or public sector help mold the future for English language learners? More to the point, should homogenizing global trends influence the TESOL profession or should a respect for heterogeneous, culturally-relevant realities verify what and how we teach? *Or*, should there be a healthy blend of the two in this regard? According to an OECD (1996) equity report,

> A new focus for education and training policies is needed now, to develop capacities to realize the potential of the 'global information economy' and to contribute to employment, culture, democracy and, above all, social cohesion. Such policies will need to support the transition to 'learning societies' in which equal opportunities are available to all, access is open, and all individuals are encouraged and motivated to learn, in formal education as well as throughout life (as cited in Rizvi, Engel, Nandyala, Rutkowski, & Sparks, 2005, p. 18).

In this pursuit of "social cohesion", "The task is, hence, to find an acceptable balance between an economistic and an idealistic outlook on education" (as cited in Tsukata, 2009, p. 6). The premise of this paper centers on achieving *this* balance, fusing the local with the global. In other words, the TESOL profession may improve by embracing a sense of *glocality* – incorporating a respect for global economic trends to help vocationally prepare students for what meets them outside classroom walls but at the same time democratically validating local cultural values in order to make class meaningful and relevant. With that said, the first section of this paper discusses the potential dangers of strict deregulation offering a short critique of neo-liberalism, a prominent ideology that may be fueling the global market of education today, followed by the ways in which countries have been influenced by them. Conversely, the subsequent section pays tribute to a grassroots outlook highlighting how countries although weary of the economic forces at play, have reinvented a new reality for themselves along a glocal plane. The final section begins by addressing the philosophical and practical implications of glocality in how it pertains to TESOL pedagogy. A summary is then provided to help breakdown the relevant points of the paper.

II. INFLUENCE OF NEO-LIBERALISM IN THE GLOBAL MARKET OF EDUCATION

There are a plethora of ideological labels that have been used in the attempt to shed light on the commercial ties to education. One appearing consistently within the realm of academia critiquing the commercial influence of the English language is that of 'neo-liberalism'. By historically highlighting the reformation of the educational system in New Zealand, Peters (2000) acknowledges the significance of this label as it pertains to the future livelihood of education in the country. Using the notion of neo-liberalism as a backdrop, he addresses the ideals of what defines the 'democratic' notion of education, acknowledging both the social aspects of government regulation and the newly converted means of corporate freedom in this regard; in the pursuit of breaking down the active agents within both the public and private sector, Peters helps to clarify exactly who has been and is now responsible for financing New Zealand's educational infrastructure. In other words, on ethical grounds he hints at the question: should public money and governmental responsibility *or* corporations, investors, and the market define the future of education in New Zealand? Although perhaps it may be easy for some to blame the market for the perceived degradation of their national education system, and therefore vent their frustration by blaming the 'irresponsible' measures of their government, which at first glance Peters seems to address, he in fact reminds the reader that in the modern world, from

a realist stance governments and corporations have to work together to help define the educational ideals of society. However with that said, he does seem to fear if corporations begin to exert too much influence in this regard, a decontextualized transition from a welfare state to that run by private interests lacks democratic worth (p. 64).

To further elaborate on the ideological notions of neo-liberalism and education, Selwyn and Brown (2000) help to explain its theoretical influence within the globalized IT industry, highlighting the importance of National Information Infrastructures (NII's) in a number of countries. By painting a detailed description of the technological reliance the U.S.A, the United Kingdom, Germany, Singapore, Malaysia, Korea and Japan have on NII's, it is argued that more government regulation should help to address an apparent corporate dependency. This can as suggested by Selwyn and Brown additionally extend to the realms of education, among many other areas of the economy. Moreover, according to Schiller as cited in Selwyn and Brown (2000)

> For the last 20 years the identity and sovereignty of the nation state has been brought into question by the globalization of the economy. Individual countries have been struggling to maintain their traditional decision-making power and authority against the mobilization of global financial markets and the increasing reach of the multinational corporations (p. 661)

Further referencing NII's and the implication of corporate sovereignty Selwyn and Brown move on to suggest "given the scales of investment and the potentially far-reaching implications of such programs, it is important to examine how information infrastructures are being created and what educational, economic, social and cultural roles governments see them playing" (p. 662). The question then again is to what extent should the government be involved in determining the "educational", economical, "social" and "cultural" longevity of their nation? These as well may be concerns that relate to the livelihood of the TESOL industry.

III. COUNTRIES INFLUENCED BY WESTERN EDUCATIONAL IDEOLOGY

These similar ideological concerns are also addressed within the Asia Pacific region of the globe. According to an APEID (Asia-Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development) UNESCO report (Rizvi, et al., 2005), one of the more prominent issues according to a panel of experts is the way in which economic theory and practice have hindered the democratic progress of education among countries in East Asia, Southeast Asia, The Pacific, South Asia, and Central Asia. Not only are national governments relying heavily on corporate principles to dictate the outcome of educational realities, but on more of a global scale NGO's and IGO's (including OECD, the EU, and even UNESCO among other prominent groups) are also criticized for their apparent economic focus (p. 14). Although "these organizations often insist that they seek to provide forums for open and free exploration of educational ideas, they find it hard to hide their own positions committed to neo-liberal reforms in education" (p. 14).

Shedding light on the postcolonial reality of Tanzania, Vavrus (2002) offers a first-hand glimpse into the potential socio-economic hardships the English language may impose on a nation. Although once adhering to a set of socialist ideals in running the educational reality of the country, the push to modernize changed the way in which the system was run. *Ujamaa* is a Swahili term that described a set of nationalistic principles mandating how Tanzania operated as a country, one previously opposed to the global pressures of assimilation and neo-liberal commercial interests. A direct product of *ujamma* was the Education for Self Reliance (ESR) developmental policy initiated by the government of 1967. At that time, Swahili was used as a national symbol of pride, a language representing the strong social ethics of the country (p. 375-376). Since then however, Vavrus has documented the ways in which the country has folded to meet the demands of globalization. Beginning in the 80's, private schools began to appear throughout the country when education was first equated as a commodity. NGO's began running the school system and families had to start paying school fees that were once supplied by the government (p. 376-377). Many schools today are no longer encouraging the use of Swahili but instead are driven by English-only curriculums to attract a high-paying student base. In short, Varvrus reminds the world to be more critical of the "colonial legacy of English" (p. 394).

Singapore represents another nation which although has made great strides in fiscal development and is in fact considered one of the most successful economies in Asia, from a social stance the Global School House Project initiative and other similar neo-liberal policies undertaken by its government have, according to Siddhu (2005), focused too much on global competition at the expense of devaluing the indigenous socio-historical fabric of many of its communities. As cited in Siddhu (p. 59), a popular tourism slogan helps to attract investment by suggesting Singapore is "a city with its head in the future but its soul in the past" (Amin and Thrift 2002). Siddhu is quite alarmed by this devaluation of a country's "soul" and wishes to point out that perhaps this may be a problematic attempt of defining a

cosmopolitan citizenship for its people. Specifically addressing the fabric of the Global School House (GSH) project, it has been designed as a federal mandate to attract the best universities in the world, the best teachers, and the most advanced pedagogy for Singaporean students in the hope of developing a solid English-speaking, medical, IT and engineering infrastructure for the country (p. 54). Furthermore, the GSH project is a unique attempt to combine education and tourism for the betterment of a nation by utilizing both public and private money to finance Singapore's goal of becoming one of the best educated societies in Asia (p. 57). Although honorable in intent, Siddhu questions the social consequences of global pressures in this pursuit.

IV. GRASSROOTS IDEOLOGY FUSING AN APPRECIATION FOR THE GLOCAL

Ramanathan and Morgan (2007) seek to remind us that although under a critical scope the global trends of the modern world may in theory swallow up the cultural longevity of smaller nations and communities, there have been valid practical attempts to revision and embrace newly found realities, to accommodate an appreciation for both global and local, reinventing new ways of living for the better. Likewise, even though

> …ideologies that adhere to English (e.g., [neo] colonialism, consumerism, secularism, egalitarianism) invoke mixed or hostile receptions for the perceived threats they may pose to indigenous beliefs and traditional social hierarchies and alternatively, they can create new political and cultural expectations that threaten to destabilize existing regimes and federations,…it is not surprising…that nation-states develop self-interested and selective habits, appropriating the global code in ways that seek to sustain… the linguistic and sociocultural integrity of their societies (p. 455).

"Integrity" is the key term here. Perhaps by allowing the perceived forces of the English language to dominate one's cultural fabric, one loses this "integrity". On the other hand, by embracing the global realities of the world and fusing it with local culture, one alternatively seeks to maintain their "integrity" in a whole new light. A glocal "integrity" in a sense is then adopted.

Extending this line of thought, Guilherme (2007) addresses the concept of what it means to be a cosmopolitan citizen. In the face of the globalized community of today's world there are many processes and exchanges taking place in and among countries, language and specifically English, being one of the major catalysts of change and opportunity for many. It is believed that the way in which a country's people approach and adopt the English medium will determine their new position and stance on the glocal stage. In this sense, there are two polar extremes that may characterize which approach one may assume in determining their new reality. Guilherme believes English (according to one's outlook), may represent "a language of imperialism, consumerism, marketing, Hollywood, multinationals, war and oppression" *or* "opportunity, science, social movements, peace processes, human rights and intercultural exchanges" (p. 74). Perhaps, Guilherme is suggesting then that there are two choices people have in determining their present and future reality, one that attributes the English language as a commercial force of Western based tendencies or one that appreciates the empowering and educational worth of English, a language of humanitarian means.

V. TESOL TEACHING PHILOSOPHIES AND PRACTICALITIES EMBRACING THE GLOCAL

Rubdy (2009) believes that within the highly competitive world we face today – a world that primarily promotes technical skills above all to prepare our students for what meets them outside the classroom walls, a world influenced by the market forces of production where "efficiency is the name of the game" (p. 160) – it is suggested we as TESOL educators need to adopt a grass roots pedagogical approach which seeks to incorporate alternative understandings of globalization, not solely through the eyes of the dominant, top-down, Western idealized worldview but rather one that authenticates the local in the global, or what Appadurai (2000) terms "globalization from below" (as cited in Rudby, 2009, p. 157). What exactly does this mean and how as TESOL professionals does Rudby suggest we incorporate it in our classroom? Rudby advocates we should be more open to our student's cultural realities and learn to appreciate how *they* define the multitude of identities in our classroom. As educators then, we should create lesson plans that give voice to these identities.

Along these lines of pedagogical awareness, Mirhosseini(2008) offers teachers a humanitarian stance in viewing the ways in which a glocal reality can be achieved. Citing Leggo he suggests:

> A view of language as a socially, politically, and ideologically loaded phenomenon rather than as a mere instrument of communication, and of education as 'learning through practice, reflection, conversation, collaboration, courage, and commitment how to be human' rather than as schooling people into molds, may create learning experiences that can help communities consciously move away from confrontations, without being trapped by false promises of hybridity (p. 316).

Thus instead of strictly focusing on the technical aspects of English teaching, instead of solely relying on Western based pedagogical notions of vocational development, "commitment how to be human" may be the solution in helping language learners make sense of what they are learning through a cultural lens of familiarity. Put another way, a "meta-awareness" (Ramanathan, 2006, p. 132) should be sought through which to appreciate the fabric of our student body. Moreover, Ramanathan advocates we not only attempt to appreciate the worldviews of our students, but we must also step back and think about the values that we as Westerners may be imposing *on* our students. Through this lens, Ramanathan helps to highlight taken-for-granted ideologies that may subconsciously fuel the ELTL environment; by focusing on the K-12 textbook industry and unraveling the sociopolitics of education in India , Ramanathan helps to uncover effective ways employed for glocalizing the learning experience, by "re-dressing west-based TESOL" (p. 133). Furthermore the study focuses on extensive methods used in vernacularzing English to suit the learning interests of Gujarati-speaking natives; many textbooks highly encourage teachers to include Gujarati in their pedagogy. Steering away from English-only mandates of the past, a new direction is employed in validating the importance of one's L1 in class for both students and teachers, an additional attempt to forge the local in the global (see Figure 6 as cited in Ramanathan, 2006, p. 140).

F 6. A a - a - a .

*The teacher may use the mother-tongue to explain the peculiarity of certain sounds in English and to compare them with sounds in the mother tongue.
*He may use the mother-tongue to explain unfamiliar words when the explanation of those words in English is more difficult than the words themselves. E.g. abstract nouns, ideas, etc.
*He may use the mother-tongue to explain abstract words, phrases, and idioms.
*He may explain some particular grammatical points of the English language in the mother-tongue to make those points easy for the pupils to learn. At times the teacher may compare and contrast the grammatical points in English and in the mother-tongue.
*He may use the mother-tongue in the classroom to test pupils' comprehension.
*He may use the mother-tongue to help pupils to learn to use the dictionary.
*He may use the mother-tongue when giving instructions to pupils.
(Raval & Nakum, 1996, pp. 103–104)

Menard-Warwick (2008) in her study of English language teachers in Chile also draws on the importance of culturally appropriate pedagogy, specifically in circumstances that must addresses socio-political hindrances one may face in the ELT profession. What happens when students refuse to learn English because they negatively label it the language of capitalism and global dominance? Likewise, in a country highly influenced by communist ideals what should teachers do if English is negatively viewed as the language of the American military and economic policy? One particular teacher in the study, Alicia, demonstrated a remarkable attempt at reaching her students. Like most teachers, she found immense difficulty at first. She instructed her high school class to choose a song in English then draw a comic based on this song. One of her students refused to do the project due to his negative political stance concerning the history of American influence in his country. After collaborating with her colleagues she discovered *Rage Against the Machine*, an English-speaking band of South American descent notoriously known for their highly influential socialist lyrics. She chose one of their songs and introduced it to this particular student, who after careful study began to relate to the song and found great satisfaction in completely the assignment based on his own political terms of expression, but more to the point he came to the realization that the English language is not all bad, that it can be used to express how he felt about the world (p. 257). Mernard-Warwick describes Alicia as part of "a new generation of ideologically open educators that can win the youth of Chile over to the promise of globalization" (p. 258).

VI. SUMMARY

This paper has briefly attempted to address the cohesion of global market trends and local sensitivity within the TESOL field. Perhaps it is time to validate both factors when addressing the educational reality we as teachers face today. Furthermore, we may begin to bridge the gap between Western-oriented economic incentive and the millions of local communities around the world in order to better meet our students' needs. And thus, in this regard adapting a glocalized fusion has been this paper's premise. In the effort of explaining this premise, a short overview of neo-liberalism was discussed, followed by how it has subconsciously penetrated the ways in which some countries have structured educational ideals. Next, a grassroots perspective was acknowledged in combating these hard-lined structures. Finally, a look at how a glocal stance may be adopted as TESOL pedagogy was included to help practitioners validate philosophical and practical relevance. In conclusion, this paper only offers a glimpse of how the world has attempted to blend the local with the global, and there is always a plethora of research to be done.

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S03: Teacher Education & Curriculum Development

Room: College of Fine Arts 304

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Ran Ryu (Dongguk Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**A Ca S S W : T I a W T a C a P a a P C a** Ju-youn Sim & Eun-hyun Kim (Soongsil Univ. & Seoul Theological Univ.)	Eunmi Jeong (Gyeonggi College of Science & Technology)
14:30-15:00	**A S N -E Ma C S Sa a a A a P a a E C a a I** Ji-Young Kang (Chung-Ang Univ.)	Juyoun Sim (Soongsil Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Haedong Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
15:10-15:40	**W a M ? A Ca S C - T a E a E C a** Juhyun Do (Ohio State Univ., USA)	Deepshikha Misra (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**A C A a Ta D B E C a** Miyoung Ahn (Konkuk Univ.)	Eun-Joo Lee (Ewha Womans Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Daekweon Bae (Gyeongnam Univ. of Science and Technology)		
16:20-16:50	**A C a A a a C a E La a T : L L a G a !** Linda Fitzgibbon (Univ. of Queensland, Australia)	Ian Carl Robert Gauvreau (Seokyeong Univ.)
16:50-17:20	**F I a I a : P Y F T** Shawn M. Clankie (Otaru Univ. of Commerce, Japan)	Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona Univ.)

A Ca S S W : T I a W
T a C a P a a P C a

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I. INTRODUCTION

Using storybooks in English education can be a springboard for learning both English language and contents the stories intended to convey. Stories can give many benefits to children (Ellis & Brewster, 2002). Stories are a useful tool for fun, imagination, motivating, and challenging. Children can be engaged in a story as they identify story characters and/or link between story world and their real lives, which ultimately contribute to children's emotional intelligence. Stories can help develop positive attitudes toward foreign language and culture. In particular, storybooks can help develop children's listening skills. Listening to stories helps children become aware of the pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation. When we consider increasing demand for utilizing storybooks in current educational settings in Korea, the need for designing storytelling curriculum and developing materials is recognized. Especially, teacher training program for storytelling techniques and skills was keenly needed. Previous research about using English storybooks centered on the benefits of using storybooks in classroom, instructional techniques for teaching stories, ways to utilize stories in classroom (Yang, 2008; Chung, 2008). Limited studies were conducted about the effects of English storytelling (Kim, 2004; Chung & Kim, 2012). There is no known study regarding teachers' workshop for English storytelling in Korean context. Multilateral efforts to help teachers acquire more expertise for storytelling should be made through well-designed teachers' workshop (Chung & Kim, 2012). The following research question drove this research: what are the facilitating factors and constraining factors of storytelling workshop on teachers' practice and perception change?

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. P

The whole research was conducted from July to August 2012 and was designed in three stages. The research started from the survey questionnaire to analyze participant teachers' needs and expectations to the storytelling workshops (stage one). Observation during the storytelling workshop, which was of three hour days every Fridays for four weeks, was conducted (stage two). After the course, the teachers were interviewed with groups (stage three). Based on in-depth interviews and questionnaires with teachers (trainees) before and after the workshop period, and observation through four-week training course, we hope to investigate how much the workshop training affects teachers' classroom practice and their perception change. The following table provides an initial overview of research stages.

TABLE 1: A S a P a , Da a, a S S

Dates	Phase	Data	Program
August 2012	Pre-workshop (phase 1)	Questionnaires	Prior to the course
August 2012	Middle of programme (phase 2)	Observations; field notes	4-week workshop training course
September 2012	Post-workshop (phase 3)	Focus group interviews; questionnaires	After 4-week workshop training

The storytelling workshop organized by a university in Kyonggi province is designed to train the teachers who teach English to elementary school students, as an after-school program. 17 teachers who had less than five-year teaching experiences participated in this workshop. The goals of the workshop are to introduce storytelling to the participants as an effective strategy for teaching English and to enhance trainees' storytelling skills and linguistic competence.

Two parallel course components were delivered at this workshop: speaking practices and diverse storytelling activities. Since it was only a four-week short course, practical components such as micro teaching was not included. More hours were assigned for the storytelling-skill-oriented class, focusing on pronunciation, intonation, and rhythm rather than theoretical background of the storytelling in order to enhance teacher trainees' speaking competence; also, to improve classroom teaching. A detailed course curriculum is shown in the table below.

TABLE 2: F - S W

Date	Program
1st day workshop	The definition of storytelling; the effects of storytelling on children's development; the example of storytelling contest and evaluation criteria; what storytellers should prepare, how to select stories, diverse ways of storytelling, and how to revise stories; storytelling examples from multi-media resources
2nd day workshop	Techniques for remembering, speaking practices (stress, intonation, rhythm), speaking activities, simplifying language, real practices
3rd day workshop	pronunciation skills (emphasis, intonation, speak in chunks), storytelling rhythm, real practices with two books
4th day workshop	knowing when to pause, practices (pausing, vocalizing feelings, using body movements, facial expressions, and waving actions)

2. Da a A a

Since the qualitative case study aimed to generate theory rather than to test existing theory, this study used inductive approaches in the analysis in that initial categories emerged through pre-coding (inductive process) Also, we could refine and devise new categories through continuously revisiting the data since developing categories involves looking for recurring regularities (Merriam, 1988, p.133), and thus the analysis process in this study is essentially iterative and cyclical rather than using a linear logic, and it is an ongoing process. Thus, the data analysis in this study follows three steps: pre-coding, open-coding, and coding.

Ⅲ. RESULTS

1. T a P a

Overall, the workshop had positive impact on the teachers' practices on storytelling. According to the post-workshop survey result, 46% of the teachers replied that the workshop gave very good impact on their teaching practices, 38% responded it was good, and 15% said it was adequate. The survey study also revealed that the teachers gained the diverse aspects of pedagogical content knowledge for storytelling practices from the course, such as concept of storytelling, assessment criteria, text selection criteria, varieties of storytelling skills (using mimes, dance moves, props, etc.), ways to crop and retell stories, activities that assist content comprehension and memorization, storytelling demonstrations, and speaking practices (pronunciation, intonation, rhythms, voice animation).

Amongst the various aspects of skills and knowledge dealt with in this workshop, teachers' speaking practices and understanding diverse ways of telling stories were stood out as of the most importance. This workshop gave positive influence on the teachers' own speaking skills and their teaching practices of speaking. The storytelling demonstrations by the trainers and speaking practices (stress, intonation, rhythms, voice animation) utilizing storybooks were affirmatively emphasized by the trainees. This workshop could help promote the teachers' pronunciation skills, which could affect their confidence in modeling and teaching storytelling. Furthermore, the teachers could identify diverse approaches of telling stories using dances, songs, musicals, and various story props, and the exposure to the various approaches aided them with choosing appropriate approaches to guide target students. At the beginning of the workshop, most of the teachers presumed that there were only several typical storytelling approaches. However, through this workshop, they could recognize diverse storytelling approaches.

2. P C a

In this study, the data pointed to two main perception changes as a result of the workshop: (i) increased confidence and motivation played a key role to reconstruct new activities and put them into practice; and (ii) collaborative work of trainees also generated a positive synergy effect on teachers' classroom practice.

Firstly, it is possible to say that the teachers gained great awareness of their personal confidence during the course, which was used as a catalyst to enhance their classroom repertoire. Teachers' increased confidence obtained through the workshop enabled them to start using new teaching approaches, which were unfamiliar to them and different from their previous routines. Furthermore, teachers' increased motivation through the workshop suggests the wish to strengthen professional self-identity by participating in further teacher training course.

Secondly, amongst various positive impacts, many trainees felt especially encouraged and supported by collaborative learning. The workshop course emphasized lots of group discussion with co-learners scaffolding each other's learning. Naturally, this support helps reshape teachers' roles and gives them a better grasp of their future teaching plan. A teacher support group can be defined as "two or more teachers collaborating to achieve either their individual or shared goals or both, on the assumption that working with a group is usually more effective than working on ones' own" (Richards and Farrell, 2005, p.51). The teachers mentioned positive experiences of group learning in the workshop course and cited this as being one of the factors which influenced the impact of the course on their subsequent teaching.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

This study has responded to the research question: what the facilitating factors and constraining factors of storytelling workshop on teachers' practice and perception change are. Although the degree of impact of the workshop varied according to participants' personalities and the factors underlying them, overall all teachers felt that they had benefited considerably from the course. It has been shown that most teachers perceived internal confidence and motivation, and collaborative work with peers as the most facilitating factors in the workshop. These factors encourage teachers to develop their teaching competency and professional self-identity. However, lack of contextual sensitivity of the workshop course, insufficient training, and parental intervention were identified as constraining factors that hampered the implementation of the teachers' new skills into their teaching practice.

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A S N -E Ma C S Sa a a A a P a a E C a a I

J -Y Ka
C -A U

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Nowadays English is the most important part of learning area, so each college introduced practical English classes and major courses to improve its students' English skill (Choi & Kang, 2010; Kang, 2004; Hwang & Ahn, 2011). Also as the increase in the amount of native-English speakers providing instruction in subjects in Korea, non-English major college students are frequently exposed to English instructors. Previous researches indicated the problem of EMI (English Medium Instruction) or the problem of native English instructors and their classes.

These have been studied extensively in various fields such as satisfaction, awareness, effect, motivation, etc. These studies showed one common finding that most students have a difficult time understanding and interacting with the instructor or in English across the board (Hwang & Ahn, 2011; Jeon, 2002; Kang, 2004; Lee, 2004). Firstly, the noteworthy part of this finding is the subject of studies. The most researches' subjects were English major students or students who have high motivation for English learning. However educators including researchers often overlooked the students who are not majoring in English (English education) or who have lower motivation for English learning, despite they also have to study English or take English class in college for any reason. Second, the most researches tested only native in structors and their classes. Although non-native instructors (Korean) teach English in college, there is no comprehensive study compared with native instructors and non-native instructors.

This is a comparative study of the native instructor and non-native instructor. Besides, this is concerned with satisfaction and awareness of practical English class and instructor. The results of the study indicated (1) how much the students were interested in English through self-assessment and (2) how much the students were satisfied in practical English classes. Also the results revealed that (3) what kinds of awareness the students had about instructors, and which instructor they preferred between native and nonnative.

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a a Da a A a P

The research subjects are 110 college students who are not majoring in English or English education in J university, Jeonju, Jeonlabookdo (see table 1). All of them attended required practical English class in spring semester 2013.

For this study, the questionnaire survey was comprised of 23 questions (Kwon, 2011; Choi & Kang, 2010; Kang et al, 2007). To find out concrete reasons of the question about practical English class and instructor, he questionnaire also included 5 open-ended questions. This survey consisted of three parts: (1) personal data (proficiency and interest of English), (2) practical English, and (3) instructor (non-native vs. native).

TABLE 1. I a S

Grade	# of students	Level	# of students	Students' instructor	# of students
1	27	Beginning	45	Native	66
2	77	Intermediate	55		
3	6	Advanced	10	Non-native	44

4	0				
Total	110	Total	110	Total	110

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

I'm going to show only a part of this study's results. The first research question asked, "how much the students were interested in English through self-assessment." We can recognize from this part that which motivation the students who enrolled in practical English class had. Also we can define their ultimate objective in class. It was found from the result that the prime reason why most students were taking English practical class is for college credit (41.8%). It shows that lack of their intrinsic motivation for studying English in practical class. Only a few of students (9.1%) wanted to enroll the class to know English for themselves. The majority (63.3%) of answers about the amount of time to study English after class was that "I don't spend time to study English." Beside, 68.2% students didn't have interest in any exams such as TOEFL, TOEIC, OPIC, TEPS, etc. The result clearly shows that their English learning motivation is closer to extrinsic motivation than intrinsic motivation. Even though they have extrinsic motivation based on any reason such as job, grade, it was not reflected to the continuing study of English learning process. The presentation will explore specific results about the students' self-assessment in practical English class.

The second research question asked, "how much students were satisfied in practical English classes." The researcher surveyed the need of English practical class in college. the results indicated that 75 out of 110 (68.2%) students felt the need. They quite (68.2%) contented with overall such as the level of class, contents of class, etc. These two results from the current study showed that the students' satisfaction about English practical class is quite positive. However 62 out of 110 (56.4%) students suggested that the contents of class should be improved. The teai inlg method (24.55%) was followed by first one. Regarding these results, the students wanted to ave English practice class which is more developed even if they had positive perspective on current classes.

The third research question asked, "what kinds of awareness students had about instructors, and which instructor they prefer between native and nonnative." The first question about the instructor is the most important factor to be provided by instructors. Most students (74.5%) believed that the most important factor is the understanding of the students. This result is six times higher than the teai inlg method, and the ratio of other factors (instructor's pronunjaticin, fluenji and aiuracy, preparation of curriculum) is below 10%. Next questions are about satisfaction of the quality of instructor and satisfaction of the instructor's teai inlg method. They showed positive results on both questions. 68 out of 110 (61.8%) students preferred native instructors than non-native instructors. Despite the fact that most students preferred native instructor, similarly 65.5% students wanted the instructor to use both languages in English and Korean. This result shows that the ability to speak Korean is required to native instructors even though they are teai inlg English. More interesting results and findings have been resulted from the research. These will be a part of the presentation.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

As we have seen, the man purpose of this study has been to explore the non-English maor college students' interest in English, and to consider the English practical class's satisfaction and native/nonnative instructor's awareness. The Korean college students who are not maomg in English have to enroll the English practical class obligatorily. For this reason, their degree of interest in English is important to reconfirm for further English practical class's need in Korean college. Moreover the reason why they were taking English class needs to be changed from extrinsic motivation to intrinsic motivation. In other words, the final aim of class should be shifted from the student's passive reason to the student's aiivet reason. Also we discovered a new finding that students hoped constant improvement of class and contents, even if they are satisfied with the current class. Lastly for maimum effectiveness of English class, a lot of ative instructors were hired. However, the instructor who the students truly wanted is not only native speakers who can peak only English. They wanted an instructor who can speak both languages in Korean and English. This finding aves there are much room for improvement when a instructoris hired.

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W a M ? A Ca S C -T a E a E C a

J D
O S a U , USA

I. INTRODUCTION

As English has emerged as a global language (Crystal, 1997), its teaching has taken on immense importance throughout the world. In many parts of Asia (Nunan, 2003), school teachers have insufficient linguistic competence to meet the exploding demand for communicative language teaching. One "solution" has therefore been to hire native speakers from "Center" countries, who typically have no teaching experience, to work alongside regular English teachers as "assistant teachers" (ATs) in K-12 classrooms. This study examines strengths and problems of elementary school English classes using ATs under the EPIK program in Daegu, Korea.

Understanding the circumstances of assistant language teaching in local situations is one step toward helping us understand the overall situation in Korea and beyond. The main questions posed in this research follow: 1) What are the effects of Korean English teacher (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?; 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?

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. S a D

This study reports on a case study of the use of ATs in the public elementary school system in Daegu, South Korea. Three groups were surveyed using standard survey research methods (Brown & Rodgers, 2002): 1) ATs (N=23) serving in 5th and 6th grade elementary English classrooms in 23 local schools; 2) KTs (N=29) who team-taught with the 23 ATs; and 3) the elementary students (N=223) of the AT-KT pairs. All three groups were surveyed on their attitudes toward and experience with co-teaching in their current situation.

2. Da a A a P

Participants were given survey questionnaires asking their opinions related to co-teaching in English classes with ATs. The survey questionnaires for students and KTs were written in Korean and the questionnaires for ATs were written in English. Survey questionnaires were distributed to 5th and 6th grade students who are attending one elementary school in Daegu. The questionnaire included questions on the students' opinions about co-taught classes and their preference for English as a subject. Students who participated in the survey had studied ATs for almost two years. For KTs, the survey was conducted by mail, e-mail, and in person. Among the 33 questionnaires, 10 questionnaires were administered in person, and 19 questionnaires were administered by mail and e-mail. The questionnaires consisted of questions about teaching and English learning experiences, as well as co-teaching issues such as class preparation, satisfaction with ATs, desirable roles for ATs as co-teachers, and co-teaching's effectiveness. For ATs, the survey was conducted by mail, e-mail, and in person. Among the 33 survey questionnaires, 10 were administered in person, 13 by mail and e-mail. The questionnaires consisted of questions about their English teaching experience and co-teaching issues such as class preparation, satisfaction of support from co-teachers and the school administration, the role of co-teaching, and their understanding of the English education curriculum and Korean culture.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

1. A a a

Students were asked whether they preferred co-teaching, or teaching by either ATs or KTs exclusively. As

reported in Table 1, 49.5% of 5th grade students and 67.5% of 6th grade students believe that co-teaching is better than learning English from ATs or KTs exclusively. Only 5.5 % of 5th graders want to study with KTs exclusively, whereas 15.6% of them want to study with only ATs. This shows a preference for studying with ATs, but not a strong one. Interestingly, the percentages are different for 6th grade students: Only 5.5% prefer studying exclusively with ATs, while 3.5% prefer KTs. This suggests the possibility that students' preference for studying exclusively with ATs may diminish over time.

TABLE 1. S O C -T a C a

	5th grade		6th grade	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
AT without KT	17	15.6	5	4.4
KT without AT	6	5.5	4	3.5
AT leads the class and KT only translates	32	29.4	28	24.6
Teach together	54	49.5	77	67.5

2. A a a K a - a

KTs were asked how often they actually co-taught with ATs; they were given three choices for their response: *Always, Sometimes,* and *Never*. As seen in Table 2, 31% of the KTs always conduct their classes with ATs, while 58.6% responded that they sometimes engage in co-teaching. 10.3% of KTs never co-teach.

TABLE 2. F C -T a AT

	Frequency	Percent
Always	9	31.0
Sometimes	17	58.6
Never	3	10.3

3. A a a AT

ATs were asked how co-teaching can be improved, from their points of view. To improve the cooperative teaching situation, ATs consider that providing seminars on cooperative teaching instruction for both KTs and ATs to be the most important changes needed. Next, improving English proficiency of KTs is suggested for improving the co-teaching situation.

TABLE 3. T M I a C a N C -T a

	Frequency	Percent
More training for KTs about cooperative teaching	3	10.3
Improving English proficiency of KTs	7	24.1
Providing seminars on cooperative teaching instruction for both KTs and ATs	16	55.2
Change in the attitude of students	3	10.3

IV. DISCUSSION

Summarizing the findings, the students reported that they generally prefer co-teaching of KT-AT pairs over other types of teacher configurations. The KTs reported that only 31% of them always conduct their classes with ATs, which indicates that co-teaching is not fully institutionalized in EFL classrooms. For their part, ATs reported that the

most important need to improve co-teaching is seminars on co-teaching instruction for both teacher groups, with KTs′ English proficiency improvement being listed second.

The students′ collective opinion on co-teaching indicates that they are generally satisfied with co-teaching in the English classroom. Many fewer students reported that they wanted either ATs or KTs teaching them exclusively. This stands in contrast to the KTs' reporting of their frequency of co-teaching. Although reasons for KTs' unexpectedly low frequency of co-teaching were not queried, students' desire for co-teaching should be paramount. For their part, ATs reported that additional instruction regarding co-teaching for both themselves and KTs is most needed to improve co-teaching. This suggests that ATs require additional educational support from MOE and that their lack of pedagogical knowledge on co-teaching is the most crucial requirement for improving their teaching. Considering that ATs are usually not trained as language teachers beyond an eight-day orientation program provided by EPIK, it is especially important that systematic training on co-teaching be provided.

V. CONCLUSION

In South Korea, English is a foreign language; therefore, employing native English speaking assistant teachers (ATs) in the elementary English classroom has been implemented to help students learn the target language. This study found that while elementary students generally prefer classes co-taught by ATs and KTs, KTs participate in co-teaching less than expected. ATs, for their part, believe that further training in co-teaching is necessary for both themselves and their KT counterparts to maximize the effectiveness of co-teaching. These findings suggest a complex situation, in which there is room for both praise for the EPIK program and room for improvement.

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A C A a Ta D B E C a

M A
K U

I. INTRODUCTION

The past decade have seen the growing momentum of constructivism on language learning. A constructivist calls for a new role by students as an active and personal meaning constructor in the social context. Building on researches on the constructivist approach in language learning, the article aims at incorporating constructivist principles into design of task-oriented curriculum for the undergraduate business English class. First, the author discusses the reason why it believes the language teaching can gain from the constructivist approach that departs from traditional way of syllabus design. Then, after an account of the task regarding its concepts, aims and components, it explains how such tasks can help bring the constructivist rules into the classroom reality. Finally, it illustrates some example class activities that have been carried out in business English class for the spring semester of 2013.

Ⅱ. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. C La a L a

In the Korean classroom, the'synthetic' way of organizing syllabus has remained as mainstream method for the L2 acquisition. In the 'synthetic' approaches, L2 acquisition is regarded as "a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up(Wilkins, 1976, p.2)." In this traditional classroom, students are usually expected to be passive receiver of the words and the texts as they are taught separately and step by step from their teachers. There is change in this pedagogy as teachers began to believe that their students should become active participants in class activities.

Social constructivism sees learning as interactive social practice. In this view, learners are "active constructor of their own learning environment"(Mitchell & Myles, 1988, p. 162. requoted by Yang. L. & Wilson, K.). Their view is based on educators such as Lev Vygotsky, John Dewey, Jean Piaget, and Richard Rorty. In this view, learning experiences must be "a process of becoming increasingly proficient at thinking, acting and communicating in ways that are shared by the particular communities of which we are striving to become members(Kiraly 2000)" In this process, the language use serves as an interface to communicate that takes place between teacher and students, among students, or even between text and reader(Wilson, 1999, p. 172. requoted by Yang. L). In designing curriculum, therefore, it first must consider the social context to determine when you learn, what you learn, where you learn and how you learn(Yang, L. & Wilson, K.).

According to socio-cultural theory, learning arises not *through* interaction but *in* interaction(Ellis, 2003). In another words, social interaction is viewed as mediator of learning. For instance, learners who depends the help of another person to perform a new function at first, will later be able to perform it without the help because they internalized it. Then, an idea of 'scaffolding' is noted as one of the most successful mediator of learning. In another words, interaction can most successfully mediate learning, when the new functions are 'scaffolded' by the participants. In pedagogy, scaffolding is defined as the dialogic process by which one speaker assists another to perform a new function.

2. C a Ta La a L a

In the constructivist approach, the concept of 'task' has become an important element in syllabus design. Pedagogically, task-based language teaching has brought some of the constructivist principles into the classroom reality. Nunan described the task-based features of the class activities, e. g. an emphasis on learning to communicate through

interaction in the target language; enhancement of the learners's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning. and the linking of classroom langage learning with language use outside the classroom(Nunan 2004). Most of these features are found to coincide with the basic principles of the constructivism that learning should be unique and individualized process for each student in interaction(Jones & Brader-Araje 2002).

The literature review indicates that the aims for task activities for language learning class should be set up from two perspectives: On the one hand, the task must be designed to increase communicative skills for students(Canale & Swain 1980). In this dimension, the social context must involve the kinds of 'improvisation' (Ellis 2003) that teachers and learners need to engage in during task-based activity. On the other hand, the class must be unique and challenging learning experiences for the L2 acquisition. In this dimension, task must involve the new language input with the help of scaffolding(Yang & Wilson 2006). The class must be challenging enough to keep students motivated, while it also must mediate learning with the use of scaffolding.

Drawing on the literature review on these two task aims, it presents the following suggestions on how to design task for language learning classroom to serve these aims. First, a task is a 'workplan' which involves the following:(1) input is a list of key words that learners must acquire their meaning and use to describe their personality; (2) instruction on what outcome the learners are supposed to achieve. The outcome is their ability to speak and write sentences using the key words that the teacher had prepared for them; and (3) In the activity, there is a goal to work toward. The outcome is evaluated on grading criteria; the use of right key words in English, communicative delivery of their speech in a manner that sound conversational and professional.

Second, it sets up task aim for communication skill. A communicative goal is specified in the workplan. In the business English syllabus, for instance, a plan is intended to get learners to engage in persuasive communicative activity at a context of job interview. A task has a defined communicative outcome; the goal of communication is to speak and listen persuasively, cooperatively and meaningfully to each other on their personality. At this step, task engages cognitive processes, such as selecting right words, reasoning and evaluating information. Third, it considers task aim for the L2 acquisition. This is directed at enabling them to acquire new linguistic skills. At this step, it is concerned how tasks can contribute to language acquisition. New language input is provided as a scaffolding by the teacher. It involves practices of using the new words and writing sentences using these new words.

Ⅲ. METHODOLOGY

1.Ta A C P

In general, a good task for pedagogical aim often involves some of the strengths of constructivist approach in education. (1) Is there active interaction between students and teachers? The task principle of being an active interaction is a match with the constructivist emphasis on flexibility of small team operation in the classroom setting;(2) Are students personally motivated to contribute to teamwork? The task goal of personal involvement into class activities reflects the constructivist principle of tailoring the class activities for each student.; and (3) Will the class be scaffolded by students and teachers to be gradual learning process? The task need for being process-oriented learning experiences is a match with the constructivist call for individualized pace of learning.

Drawing on these conditions for good task, it examines how some of strengths in constructivist principles can be reflected into design of task activities for the undergraduate business English classroom that the author teaches in the spring semester 2013. In doing this, the paper set out to narrow down its focus into three principles that the constructivist have put forward. In another words, the application of constructivist approach in the classroom will bring about three major changes: 1) the value of small group work. The class is divided into several small group works, where each student share his/her prior knowledge or skills; 2) the cooperative development of ideas. the team work division of class activities makes it possible for students to build the collaborative addition of new ideas; and 3) the use of written and spoken words. Students have unique learning experiences on their own as they are adding new language input into their own prior ones, while using both written and spoken English.

2. Ta D P

In the pedagogy, task can be defined as a communicative interface between teachers and students or among students. Therefore, the aim of this paper's task activities is to foster a communicative framework through activities that are defined as task. In this class, the task consists of three steps: (1) Language-learning input. In this step, the class gives

students to learn new language input and advance at their own pace. The purpose of class at this step is purely new language learning that is related to presenting personal traits by each student. Students practice new key words that can be used for describing their strength and weakness; (2) Pair interview in question poster: This step is to go beyond language learning level. The aim of the class at this step is to motivate students to draw on their existing perception or knowledge about who they are, and, after that, to share their stories that support their self-reflection; and (3) Bring task into a social context: This step is to place a social context into the task. At this step, the class moves to the whole class interaction to discuss how they can build a match between their perception of strength and their target company'd demand for new hires.

TABLE 1. Ta D S

Step	Task	Method
Step1	New language input	Key words given as scaffolding
Step2	Question poster in pair	Interaction with partner
Step3	Social context	A large group interaction

3. A a - a a

The curriculum is applied to the author's business English class for the spring semester 2013. The students consist of 12 Chinese students, three French students and 22 Korean students with their majors diverse from international trade to English or Chinese literature. The purpose of the curriculum is to help students improve communicative skills along with the L2 acquisition through task activities. They include prioritizing documents in the business context or making an oral presentation, describing trends that is related to their target companies. In the syllabus, the paper combines the communicative purpose of the curriculum with the constructivist principles through task activities. In the class, the task activities usually undergo the three steps as follow:

TABLE 2. Ta D S

Step	Construction principles	Task aims	Outcome-in-process
Step1: New language input to describe personal traits	Adding new language knowledge into prior knowledge	Extend students' reserve of key words that they can use when they describe their personal trait	Speak and write sentences using 30 key words to express their strength v weakness
Step2: Question posters in pair to tell a story about why they are 'adaptable'	The value of small team to interact among peers	Motivate self-reflection by interacting on narratives on 'why they think they are adaptable'	Tell a story that supports their self-perception
Step3: The whole class interaction about how their trait matches with company needs	Cooperative development of knowledge/ideas	Help students better aware of a mindful match between their personality and corporate demand	Express their opinions or listen to others to develop ideas together

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The paper attempts to bring some of the construcivist strength into clssroom activities with the adoption of task activities for the undergraduate business English class in the spring semester 2013. To this end, it examines two aspects of the task aims: One is how it can embrace the constructivist call for the communicative skills for students through the interactive, personalized learning experiences in the social context. The other is how it can remain faithful the traditional call for the new language input to serve the purpose of the L2 acquisition. Therefore, it set out to suggest three steps of the task design to be applied for the business English class: New language input, question poster in pair interview, and bringing the task into the social context. In the second session, the paper illustrates how it can actually reflect this constructivist approach into the business English class with the use of task design serving as an interface between constructivist principles and L2 acquisition goal. In the class syllabus, it organizes the syllabus into three steps: first, language input of new key words to describe students' personal traits,Second, question posters in pair interviews to tell a story that justifies their self-perception. Third, the whole class interaction for the cooperative development of new ideas/knowledges for twin purposes of new language learning and communication skills.

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A C a A a a C a E La a T : L L a G a !

L a F
U Q a , A a a

I. INTRODUCTION

Ideology is a concept that has been a concern for scholar of applied linguistics (Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1998; Phillipson, 1992), and textbooks are known to be shaped by dominant ideologies (van Dijk, 2004). Ideology is a polysemic word: To Brookfield it is a "broadly accepted set of values, beliefs, … and justifications that appear self-evidently true, …personally relevant, and morally desirable to a majority of the populace (Brookfield, 2005 p. 41) while to Hasan (1986, p. 125) ideologies are a "socially constructed system of ideas which appear as if inevitable".

Thus, ideology is problematic in foreign language classrooms when using global commercial ELT course books because students may find it difficult to notice and challenge ideologies because they appear as if inevitable, moreover students may find ideologies difficult to question, as they appear to be true. According to the definitions of ideology given in the preceding paragraph South Korean students are disadvantage when using global commercial course books because the ideology in them is 'true, accurate, relevant, and desirable' to those who wrote the textbooks.

I problematize global commercial course books' unquestioned use in many universities in South Korea. These books are problematic in that they contain hidden powerful messages posing as normal and natural to the average university student (Chapelle, 2009; Francis, 1995; Simon-Maeda, 2004). I am concerned that in South Korea *Top Notch 2* promotes the images and discourses in which the preoccupations of older White males are central.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

Knowing that critical discourse analysis (CDA) is, in general, concerned with questioning assumptions, it was used to examine the entire contents of one global commercial English language textbook: *Top Notch 2 (TN2)* (Saslow & Ascher, 2006) for the discursive ways in which it presents ideology. The local distributor determined it as being one of the best-selling English books used in South Korean universities.

The research model was based on the august work of Fairclough (2001) and Kress and van Leeuwen (2006), whose theoretical frameworks were influenced by Halliday's (2004) systemic functional linguistics (SFL). SFL and CDA have complementary perspectives on discourse. Fairclough (WHERE) writes SFL and CDA are central to critical theory because neither are interested in isolated elements of language: both are committed to social action by engaging in a range of texts to generate praxis.

2. Da a A a P

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 is of CDA is descriptive, the second is interpretative, and the final stage is explanatory.

The first stage of research was an examination of demographics found in *TN2*, I applied Fairclough's model (2001) to each of the labelled images in the textbook. In the analysis stage I used Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) techniques to critically interrupt the images.

The second stage was an examination of images in the textbook. I conducted an extensive examination to search for hidden assumptions.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1.D a a a Ka (1990)

In this section, I considered only those countries, which had been clearly labeled. There are a total of 92 images: 67 (72.82%) representing 20 Expanding Circle countries, 25 (27%) representing five Inner Circle countries, and 1 (1.08%) representing the Outer Circle. In sum, The U.S, from the Inner Circle had the greatest number of representations at 11, and South Korea from the Expanding Circle was represented 7 times. This data suggests that the 20 Expanding Circle countries could be markets for the *Top Notch* series.

In the images, South Korea is often aligned with food and traditional activities: collective dancing, ancestor worship, and pottery. The majority of images of people are dressed in traditional clothing and in traditional settings and associated with traditional events.

2. D a a - a

With respect to social-economic status, I based my analysis on people's occupation, appearance, or activity. I found 491 images of people in *TN 2*, of the total 337 (68.64%) represent the middle class. 64 (13.03%) images represent the working class, and 46 (9.37%) are represented with a higher social-economic status. 44 (8.96%) images were not abled to be classified. That the majority of images reflect the middle class means that its values, attitudes and ideas are spread as being 'inevitable', and a 'true, accurate, relevant and desirable majority' to the readers.

3. D a a a

Of the 491of people in *TN 2,* the majority are males. 44% of the images are of men, 38% are of women, and 16.7 % were unclear and therefore unable to be classified.

A person's age is relatively easy to identify, clothing, activity, accessories, and context are all clues. The group with the largest representation in *TN 2* is people in their 30s at 26.59%. People in their 20s, the age of most South Korean university students, appear in 17.66% of the images, and people in their 40s are the next largest group at 15.28%.

4. C a I a A a

In the context of a Korean audience, I offer two images, the first of a woman from the US, and the second of a woman from Korea.

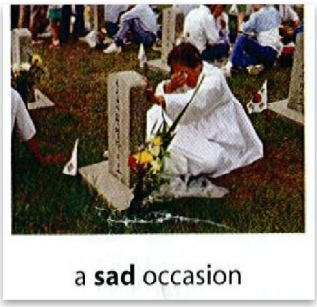

FIGURE 1: a 90

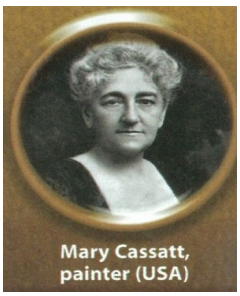

FIGURE 2: a 77

The photograph above is of Mary Cassatt, from the USA, in *TN 2.* Mary Cassatt is given a name and an occupation, and is cast in a golden frame, while looking directly at Korean students. Mary Cassatt, from the USA has been given power and authority as the bearer of the look (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p. 121). Few images of people in this textbook have been afforded such authority. In contrast, consider the photograph of a Korean woman. The woman is silent, moreover, she is crouching, and according to Kress and van Leeuwen (2006), this position places her in a position of some vulnerability. This unnamed Korean does not look at the student. She has been objectified, so she is looked at. Moreover, Korean students may feel, by the way in which this woman has been portrayed, that this photograph is disrespectful to Korean Memorial Day (현충일).

Many may argue that the inclusion of the image of a Korean in a global commercial English language textbook that is used in Korea is a positive move. The positivity of this image (and others like it) would be increased when the image is woven into the fabric of the book, and not left as an isolated objectified appendage. In Figure 2, a move towards positivity would have been realized if this woman had been given a name and a face.

IV. CONCLUSION

My research findings show that *TN 2* includes the ideology of Colonialism, illustrated by the ways in which people and objects from outside of the U.S.A have been portrayed. I argue that students in compulsory EFL classes at universities would benefit by using textbooks that have the hegemonic influence of the U.S.A. removed, and local values, attitudes, and beliefs included. Such a change would be in agreement with the emancipatory aspects of the work by Freire (1973) and Giroux (1982).

I conclude that further CDA needs to be conducted to generate awareness of the unquestioned status quo that exists in global English textbooks, to identify the specific ways in which foreign ideologies appear in global English language textbooks, which may lead to the disenfranchisement, disempowerment, and discouragement of South Korean students, particularly those in compulsory 실 용 영 어classes. One remedy might be to do what Cormon (1986) did: listen to students, because …"students enjoy sharing their experiences, but also seemed to care about one another…" (p. 278). Localizing the content in this way may lead to a greater sense of achievement in meaningful and autonomous interaction.

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F I a I a : P F T

S a M. C a
O a U C , Ja a

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper will focus on the two key parts of the textbook publication process: the development of the text itself and the bringing of the text to market. In the first part of the paper, the basics of materials development and textbook design are explained to show how textbooks are organized, what makes for a good textbook and the importance of understanding the target audience and the market. In the second part of this paper, the author will discuss how to submit the manuscript, what to do if rejected and the details of the publication chain as the manuscript is brought to market. The goal of this paper is to give to those teachers interested in materials development the background necessary for taking the next step towards their first published text.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. F I a Ma

Textbook development can be said to be a rigid process. As with any form of good writing, be it a course paper or a doctoral dissertation, a good outline is key to both clarity and organizational logic. But, unlike many forms of academic writing, where a degree of flexibility between chapters is permitted, in textbook design, once the structure of each lesson is set, it generally remains uniform throughout the entire text. The outline in a textbook is visible at the global level in its table of contents. The localized outline structure is found in the individual exercises that make up each lesson. And of these two, it will be the table of contents which first draws teachers to the book, but in the end, it will be the exercises that make up each unit and how those exercises will perform in the classroom that will ultimately determine if a teacher selects your text over another.

Every textbook begins with a good idea. With an idea in mind, the materials developer needs to consider what type of textbook is going to be written. Will it focus on a single skill such as reading or writing? Will it be a whole-language text focusing on all four skills? Will it be content-based or a general text with a variety of subject matter? To what extent will the native language be used? In order to answer these questions, it is also important to consider the audience. Who is the target audience? What ability level will your text be aimed at? Will it be directed towards university-level students, independent learners, high school students, language schools, or some combination of the above? In the case of the Japanese marketplace, the one most familiar to the writer, the vast majority of the textbooks written today are aimed at a particular student set, first and second year university English classes. As situations vary between countries, it is worthwhile to know the individual circumstances for the country where the textbook is being written. If the majority of texts in a given country are aimed at a particular level, then this gives the new materials developer a starting point for how the first manuscript should be developed. It is much harder to publish a niche market textbook, one with a narrower audience, particularly for new writers, as publishers are less willing to take a risk than they might be for a text which will have a broader appeal.

Once the idea is known, the audience understood, and skill or skills to be covered are decided upon, then the next task is to brainstorm what the topic of each lesson is going to be. If you are writing a text to develop beginning level students' conversational abilities for example, then what is the theme for each lesson? Lesson 1 might be *Greetings and Introductions*. Lesson 6 might be *Invitations* and so on. Before writing the text, you will need to know what the subject matter of each of the individual lessons is going to be. This step is often a problem for young materials developers. They may have a good idea for a text, but get stuck when it comes to finding 15 suitable topics or more for a semester long course, or 24 or more for year-long courses (along with a couple of back-up topics to account for the preferences of the editor at the publishing house). A couple of ways of overcoming these difficulties include surfing the Internet and online news sources for potential topics and looking at textbooks that are already on the market for what is covered and what is missing. The selection of the topic by the writer and what eventually ends up in the published text sometimes varies. This in itself is usually not a significant problem because often it means simply writing

one or two new lessons to account for the changes. But, for the content of each individual lesson, it can require major rewriting. This makes the choice of exercises for the individual lessons more important than the subject matter for each individual lesson, a point I will address next.

Once the selection of topics that will make up the table of contents is complete, then the next task is deciding on the activities or exercises to be included in each lesson. As noted above, this is a critical step. If the publisher decides a particular topic needs to be changed it simply requires writing a single new chapter. Yet, for each change in the exercises that make up the lessons, the change is multiplied by 15 or 24. Therefore, it is imperative that the activities selected are justified, engaging and easy for both the teachers and the students to use.

As with any large scale writing project, the actual writing of the text should not begin until one can see where it will end. It is far easier to write a text if the writer knows both the topics that will be covered and the content of each individual lesson. And because of the formulaic structure that most textbooks follow, once the structure of the lessons is decided, the text itself is easy to write. It is simply a matter of structural repetition. As you are writing the text, create an answer key that contains the answers to each of the exercises you write. This will save you time in the long run and will make writing the teacher's manual easier.

2. F Ma P T

Turning now from the writing of the text to bringing it to market, many materials developers run into problems at this stage because they are simply unaware of how to approach publishers with a manuscript or the opportunities that exist. There are various ways of getting your manuscript into the hands of potential publishers, but basically they can be broken down into you going to them, or getting them to come to you. Probably the most common way of submitting the manuscript is to simply send it to the publisher directly. Most textbook publishing houses are not so large that if a manuscript appears in the mail that they could not direct it to the right person in the office. It is important to note however, that you should only submit a manuscript to one publisher at a time. Fishing among publishers, that is sending the same manuscript to multiple publishers in the hopes of one accepting the manuscript is not recommended. Submit the manuscript and wait. If it is accepted, then mission accomplished. If it is rejected, then feel free to submit it to another publisher. Sometimes the publisher who rejects the manuscript will make suggestions to improve the manuscript and these should be taken seriously and addressed.

Another method of getting the manuscript to the publisher is to attend (and present) at conferences. At smaller conferences, two or three publishers might send a representative to the conference. At national and international conferences there may be twenty or thirty publishers present. Talk to them, look at the books on display. If you find a publisher that publishes books of a similar style to the one you have written, ask the rep if he or she could pass along your manuscript to the editor. Most will happily oblige. Finally, the one opportunity that is most often overlooked by new materials developers is when the publisher's representatives visit individual schools. When the rep visits your school or university, use it to learn more about the publisher, what they publish, what they are looking for in terms of new manuscripts and ask them to take your manuscript back with them. Again, many will happily do so.

Once your manuscript is in the hands of a publisher, it may be several weeks or several months before you hear the result. Sometimes the result will be positive, and sometimes not. An important point to understand is that getting a manuscript published is not simply about whether the manuscript is good or not. It is also about the needs of the publisher at that moment, how many other manuscripts (and how many similar to yours) have they already committed to publish, and how similar books in the marketplace are performing. You may have the greatest manuscript in the world, but if similar texts are not selling well then it is unlikely that yours will get accepted for publication. This is not to say that there is not a market for niche books or those aimed at a more limited audience. There is. But, finding that market, and convincing the publisher to take a risk on a niche text from a new materials developer is asking a lot. After you have published several successful textbooks, it becomes easier to get a niche text to market, but as mentioned earlier, for new materials developers, getting one's foot into the door often requires a mainstream text. Rejection by a publisher should not be taken personally and does not mean you will never publish with that publisher. The first attempt might get rejected, but the next one might not. It is the nature of the industry. Rejection may simply be the right manuscript and the wrong publisher, or at the wrong time. Look at it as an opportunity to take a little longer to improve the manuscript and to submit it to a different publisher.

Assuming that your manuscript gets accepted somewhere for publication then it goes into the pipeline. Often with textbooks, if everything runs smoothly the text will be out in time for the upcoming school year. If your school year begins in April then the process of manuscript to published text will begin about 9-12 months earlier. At the first

stage, the editor may suggest subject matter changes for the lessons or changes to a particular exercise in each lesson. But, once the editor is satisfied with the overall structure of the manuscript at both the global and local levels, then we enter the galley stage. The galley is a typeset mock-up of what the book is going to look like. It will include all of the printer's marks for layout, the font choices and style. It is in black and white and begins to give the author an idea of what the text will look like. On the first galley (there are normally a total of three galleys), there will be a lot of handwritten comments in pencil or red ballpoint pen. Often the manuscript will be read by not only the editor, but also an outside reviewer or two (normally authors who have multiple books with that publishing house). Your job as author is to read the entire galley, to address the comments from the editor and reviewers and to read for typos and mistakes in content or in the exercises. You should also do your own exercises again and compare the answers to those in your answer key/teacher's manual. Once you have done all of this, then the galley goes back to the publisher. The editor will enter the changes/corrections and a new galley will be produced. With the second galley, your job is to reread the entire manuscript, again looking for things you missed the first time and to address any additional questions from the editor. If you have accurately checked the exercises against the teacher's manual in the first galley, then this step is unnecessary in the second and third galleys. As with the first galley, once the issues have been addressed and the manuscript reread, it goes back to the publisher one more time. A few weeks later the third galley will come. This is the last chance, and although it seems redundant, rereading the entire textbook (and this is what it has become by this stage) is prudent and will reveal yet more typos and mistakes. When you have finally finished and the third galley is returned to the publisher, it is quite a relief.

At some point in the next month or so, the publisher will send the cover art. How they do this varies from publisher to publisher. From personal experience, sometimes the cover is not revealed until the marketing begins (when they begin advertising the book on their website and in catalogues), on other occasions, PDF files are sent with a couple of choices and the author is given a choice. In rare cases, the publisher may ask the author for ideas for a cover or for cover art. This is the last remaining step. Then one day, a box will arrive containing sample copies of the text. These are free copies, often produced on lower quality paper, that get sent out as examination copies to teachers throughout the country. For the author, this is the first time to see your manuscript as a finished product. It also gives you one more chance to look for errors in the book. The examination period gives teachers time to select books and gives the publisher time to gauge how many books to produce in the initial print run. The more orders received during the examination period in the run up to the start of the school year, the greater the print run. Generally, the initial print run will be a few thousand copies, though it can be significantly higher for books that are expected to be popular. Around the start of the school year, the publisher will send out the real books and the author will receive a number of books to give away or to use for promotional purposes. Often the number of author copies ranges from five to twenty. Usually if more copies are needed (e.g. you are presenting about the book at a conference) then they will happily send more. Receiving the final copies of the text we are nearing the end of the process from manuscript to textbook. It is generally at the point where the text debuts that the contract is sent to the author. The contract specifies the details of the publication and the percentage of royalties to be paid (It generally runs around 8-10% for a single author, half for co-authors) and when they will be paid (generally once a year). If the book becomes successful and future print runs are necessary you will be asked if there are any mistakes or changes that need to be addressed. Therefore, in the course of using the text if you notice any mistakes, write them down so that you can fix them prior to the next print run.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Following the process outlined above, the author has successfully published more than thirty textbooks, self study books and one monograph, and has assisted a number of writers ranging from experienced practitioners to graduate students in successfully publishing their own textbooks. As stated at the onset of this paper, having a good idea alone is not enough. Understanding the market, how it operates, and what to expect will greatly assist writers new to materials development in successfully getting their manuscript published.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

It may appear at first that the process of moving from idea to manuscript and from manuscript to textbook is an incredibly long and time consuming process. And for many people, unaware of how the process works, it is. But, it need not be. The process is about building a relationship with a publisher. It takes time and effort, much more so the

first time around. But, if everything goes well and the book sells, then the next time it will become easier. With a few books under your belt, it may not even be necessary to submit the entire manuscript. For experienced writers, a title, rationale, table of contents and a sample chapter or two will suffice. Then, if you become really successful, the roles will reverse, with the publisher contacting you to see if you are available to develop a particular idea he or she has for a textbook. All of these scenarios are possible with a successful first book.

It is hoped that this paper has shed some light on the publication process and that the readers of this paper will find their own success in bringing their manuscript to market, for the benefit of both themselves and the students who will learn from that text.

S04: Listening and Speaking Development

Room: College of Fine Arts 305

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Miyang Cha (Namseoul Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**R V S a Na La a L a ESL a EFL: A C a S A S a** Ritu Yadav & Hyunkyung Lee (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Bonseok Gu (Korea Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**V a D I a E : C a ESL C a** Vaishna Narang, Deepshikha Misra & Asher Jesudoss (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Kyonghyon Pyo (Dankook Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Seungbin Roh (Luther Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**T D Ma *But* a C a a S C a T** Inji Choi (Gyeongsang National Univ.)	Minhi Chae (Keimyung Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**I a E S a K a EFL** Sarah Gu & Eric D. Reynolds (Seoul Women's Univ. & Woosong Univ.)	Seonmin Huh (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Vaishna Narang (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)		
16:20-16:50	**A C a I a ESL/EFL: A Ca S a C a, V a & I a** Asher Jesudoss (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ., India)	Joseph Wood (Nagoya Univ. of Foreign Studies)
16:50-17:20	**T a C a a D K a E a -L S ' P a A a** In-Ha Jeong & Sang-Ki Lee (Korea National Univ. of Education)	Myung-Jeong Ha (Sangmyung Univ.)

R V S a Na La a L a ESL a EFL: A C a S A S a

R Ya a a H L
Ja a a a N U , I a

Ⅰ. INTRODUCTION

A comparative study of acoustic space/ vowel space of one's native language and the second language, or the native language and foreign language can yield a lot of information regarding the acquisition/learning process. The aim of this study is to measure the acoustic space of the vowels of English as spoken by the two groups of learners- speakers of Hindi learning English as a second language in Delhi and speakers of Korean learning English as foreign language in India.

According to Narang and Cha socio political conditions and contexts of situations define language as second language or foreign language of the region at which the learner is located (Narang and Cha, 2006:183. Jesudas (2009) presents an account of vowels of English in ESL and EFL speech. He took the case of Arabic speakers learning English in Delhi (ESL) and those learning English in Cario (EFL) and the study proves that there is distinction between the vowel space in two situations i.e. ESL and EFL. Cha (2000) shows how the rates and routes of learning are different when Koreans learn English in Korea as FL and they learn English as SL in Delhi.

This paper is based upon the idea that when a speaker acquires his/her first language, he/she arrives at a certain vowel space within which the vowels of the language are placed in contrast with each other. When this speaker learns a new language, the tendency is to use the same vowel space to accommodate the vowels in the new language. The present study explores the possibility that ESL and EFL learners follow different strategies, using their native vowel space differently in two situations namely foreign language vis-à-vis second.

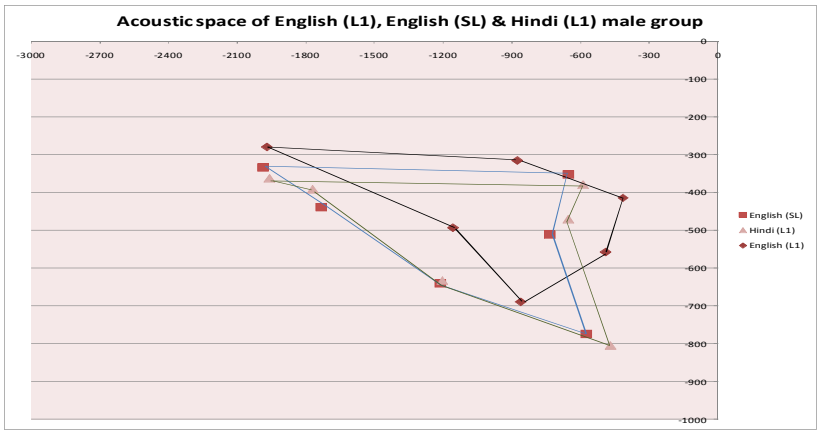
Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

Data: Hindi speakers learning English in Delhi get ESL input because domains of use of English are various. While Korean speakers living in Delhi get EFL (English as foreign language) input because they are in a process of learning English and Hindi which are foreign language for them as their domains of use are very limited. The study was conducted on the six peripheral vowels (/i/, /e/, /ɛ/, /a/, /o/, /u/) of Hindi and English and Korean. Data samples were recorded with monosyllabic words having vowel sounds in medial position. We have three set of data for the study, 1) data from five male & five female informants having Hindi as their mother tongue and English as their second language, 2) data from five male and five female Korean speakers having Korean as their mother tongue and English as foreign language, and 3) For the control data we took F1, F2 values of six peripheral vowels of British English by Deter ding, (1997). The age of the subjects range is between 25-40 years. A total of 20 subjects (10 male & 10 female) participated in the study for data elicitation, the data was recorded in the sound proof recording room of the language Laboratory of Jawaharlal Nehru University using a digital Sony recorder. PRAAT is used for analyzing data. Area of Acoustic spaces was calculated using polygon area calculator. The F1, F2 of vowels of are calculated in order to study their acoustic space.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section we will first give acoustic description of English spoken by the native male and female speakers, then we compare the acoustic space of ESL and EFL with the acoustic space of Hindi and Korean respectively of the same speakers. We will discuss the acoustic spaces of male and female speakers differently. Thus in this section we will try to find out how the acoustic spaces of ESL and EFL gets redefined vis-à-vis first language i.e. Hindi in case of EFL and Korean in case of EFL.

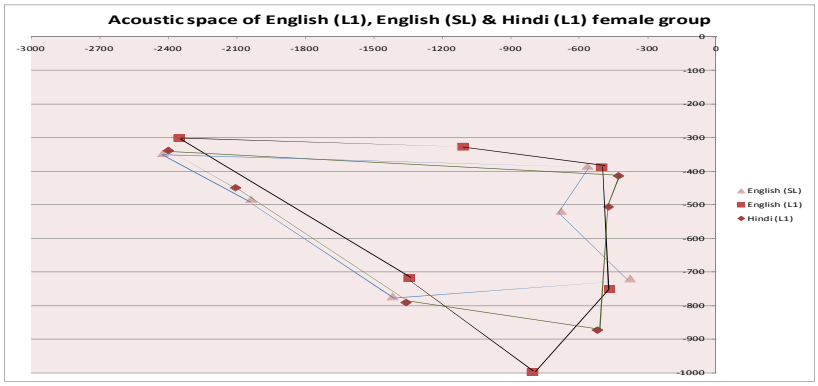
FIGURE 1: A a E (L2) a E (L1) & H (L1) a a



A a H (L1) : 300641; A a E (SL): 269894.5; A a E (L1): 263468

In Figure 2 acoustic space of ESL resembles much with the Hindi (L1) of the speakers and it is very different in shape from English (L1). All the vowels of ESL are at quite similar position of cosequtive Hindi vowels. The area of acoustic space of ESL is closer to Hindi (L1) (Though slightly lower) and slightly larger than that of the English (L1).

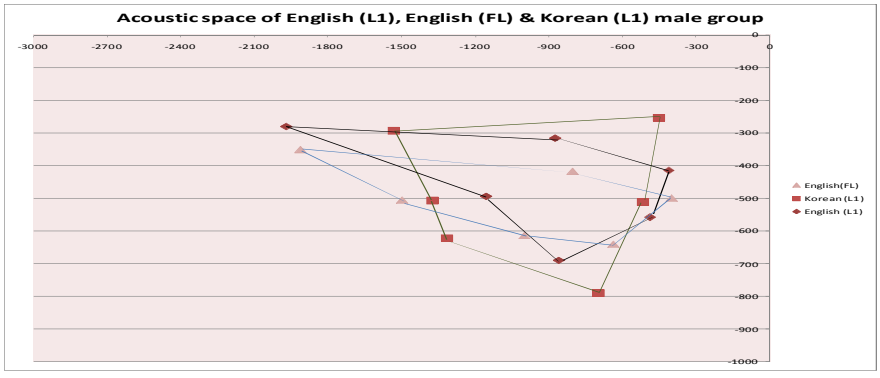
FIGURE 2: A a E (L2) a E (L1) & H (L1) a a



A a H (L1): 598567; A a E (L1): 645387; A a E (SL): 578608.5

Like male subjects, in females also the acoustic space of ESL resembles much with the Hindi (L1) of the speakers and it is very different in shape from English (L1). All the vowels of ESL are at quite similar position of the Hindi (L1) except vowel /a/ and vowel /o/ which are slightly higher. The area of acoustic space of ESL is closer to Hindi (L1) (Though slightly lower) and lower than that of the English (L1). The area of ESL is .8 times the area of English (L1) and .96 times that of Hindi (L1).

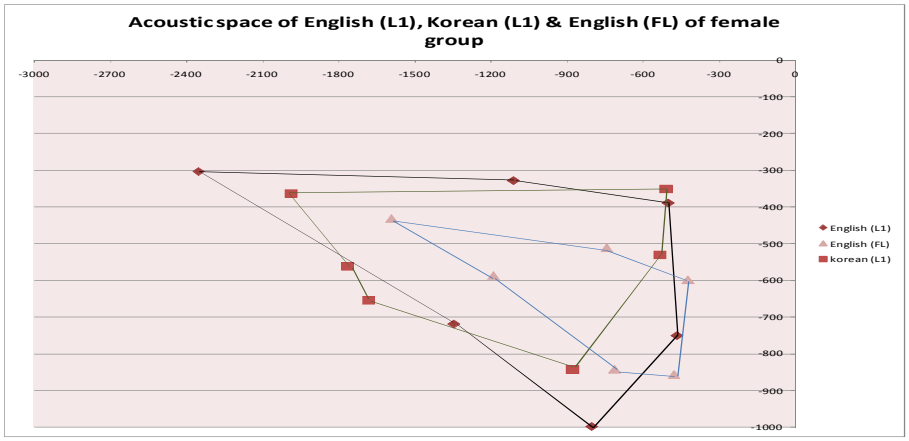
FIGURE 3: A a E (FL) a E (L1) & K a (L1) a a



A a K a (L1): 379272; A a E (FL): 207017.5; A a E (L1): 263468

Different from the case of Hindi speakers learning English as their second language, acoustic space of English (FL) by Korean male speakers is quite similar in shape to that of native English (L1). It is slightly smaller in area and slightly lower than English (L1).The area of acoustic space of Korean (L1) is 1.8 times than that of English (FL) of the same male speakers. While it is (area of EFL) is .78 times that of the area of English (L1).

FIGURE 4: A a E (FL) a E (L1) & K a (L1) a a



A a K a (L1): 475246.5, A a E (FL): 218714; A a E (L1): 645387

If we look at the above acoustic spaces it is evident that the acoustic space of EFL is quite similar in shape to that of English (L1) and it is different in shape from Korean L1. The area of EFL is .46 of the area of Korean (L1) while it is .33 times that of English (L1).

IV. MAIN FINDINGS

The acoustic spaces of ESL is similar to native language i.e. Hindi of the speakers. The vowels of Hindi (native language and ESL show similar values and these vowels show a lot of overlapping. The acoustic space of EFL do not show much similarity with that of Korean (L1). Native Hindi, native Korean, native English, ESL and EFL have different acoustic spaces which vary in both quality and quantity. Female acoustic spaces are wider, lower and more towards the left side of the plot because of the shifting of formant frequencies in comparison to male acoustic spaces in the five languages. ESL: EL (control) acoustic space for peripheral vowels is 1:0.9 for male and 1.11 for females. The ratio of acoustic space of ESL: Hindi (native) is 1:1.11 for male subjects and 1:1.03 for female subjects. Acoustic space of ESL is quite similar in area to that of the native Hindi and larger than that of native English. EFL: EL is 1:1.27 for male subjects and it is 1:2.95for female subjects. The ratio of acoustic spaces of EFL: Korean is 1:1.4 for male subjects and 1:2.1 for female subjects. Acoustic space of EFL is similar to that of native English in shape.

In the light of discussion and main findings we can conclude that acoustic space of SL and FL gets redefined vis-à-vis first language of the learner. The SL corresponds closely to the native language which serves as a good reference point to begin with and the learner language gradually approximates the target language. FL corresponds more closely the native English showing that the process of learning in EFL and ESL situations may be different. The comparison shows both qualitative and quantitative differences in ESL and EL, and EFL and EL in male and female speech. The fact that acoustic spaces are different in ESL and EL and EFL and EL has implications for second/ foreign language teaching practices such as the students need to work a lot more on front vowels in order to arrive at the right spread of vowels. They also need to concentrate on vowel height in order to arrive at the native like competence of SL/FL. The results and findings need to be confirmed with larger data base.

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V a D I a E : C a ESL C a

Va a Na a , D a M a a A J
C L , Ja a a a N U , I a

Ⅰ. INTRODUCTION

The present study was conducted with multiple objectives in mind:

- to provide an objective phonetic description of vowels and diphthongs of Indian English in acoustic terms and
- to provide acoustic evidence of sound change in English in language contact situation.
- This of course would have implications in ESL in India, as knowledge about the vowel space and vowel qualities produced by speakers in India can help us in teaching spoken English to the students in various parts of this country. Spoken skills also have economic and job opportunity related ramifications in today's globalized world, and therefore, such a study would be tremendously useful for ESL teachers and institutes alike.

This study shows how vowels can be described in terms of the first two formants, F1 and F2. There are several theories and hypothese0073 about how vowels are arranged within a vowel space. The most common interpretation based on available evidence is that vowels arrange themselves across the vowel space in a manner that maximises auditory distinction and at the same time minimizes articulatory effort. Acoustically, this vowel space can be calculated by measuring the formants produced during vowel enunciation. These formants are produced as the sound waves travel through the various cavities in the vocal tract and thereby produce various overtones to the fundamental frequency, relationships between which are characteristic of a particular vowel sound. These formants change based on the height of the tongue, the frontness/ backness of the tongue and based on the degree rounding or the spreading of the lips. Being able to plot these formant values on a graph produces a visual representation of what is remarkably close to the actual position of the vowel within the vowel space.

Ⅱ. EXPERIMENT DESIGN

The five diphthongs selected for the present study are / ə, ə, e , , / whereas the twelve monophthongs are /ə e æ ː ː i ː u ː ː/. Most samples of Indian English pronunciation were procured from students in Jawaharlal Nehru University pursuing their Master's degree in Linguistics. These students were between 20-25 years old and were from different parts of India; hence the sample was fairly representative. Apart from this, the data for Tamil speakers was also obtained from Presidency College, Chennai, for Marathi from BR Ambedkar University, Aurangabad, and for Hindi from Delhi University.

1. C Da a:

The control data for monophthongs was obtained from 5 native speakers of English who were recorded either in England or during their stay in India. Only those with a neutral accent were considered for this study, and as far as possible, people from the Oxbridge area were preferred, in order to stay as close as possible to a form of English which is the accepted standard across the world. The normative English language data for diphthongs, on the other hand, was obtained from http://www.fonetiks.org/engsou3.html in the case of diphthongs. In India, we conducted two separate experiments, one for diphthongs and another one for monophthongs, in which subjects from several states of India participated. The words selected for the study are: foil, face, fear, foul, coat (diphthongs) and pet, pat, pot, pit, apart, put, cut, court, caught, stoop, keep, perk (monophthongs). The comparison shows how diphthongs in IE get modified, sometimes pronounced as monophthongs in language contact situations. Also, it shows how the overall vowel space gets modified and how the vowel phonemes re-arrange themselves in a language-contact situation, to gain an identity quite independent of its native counterparts.

2. S :

30 Subjects for the present study were from different parts of India. All the subjects have learnt English as their second language since school. The age of the subjects ranges between 20-25 years. The educational qualification, socio-economic status of all the subjects is similar.

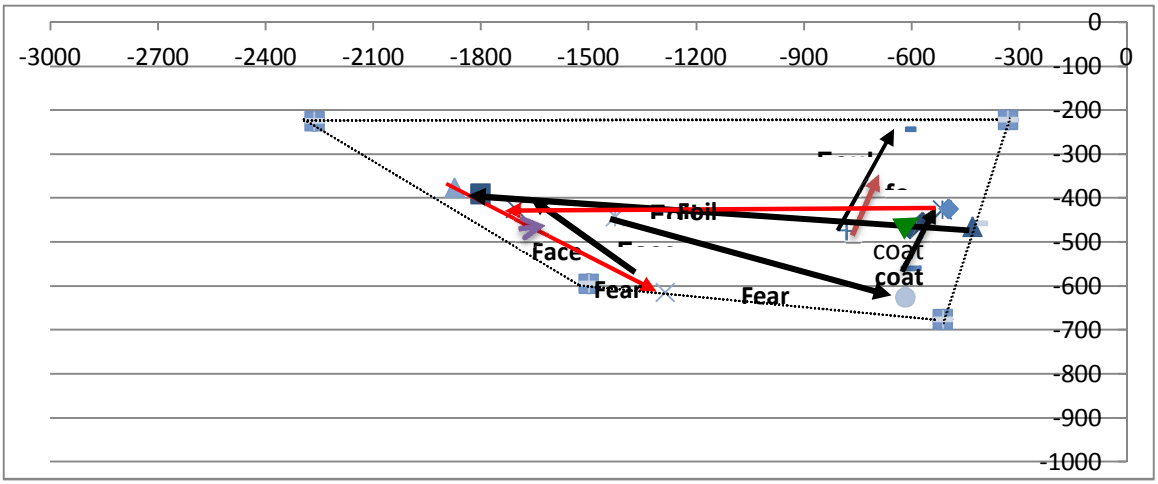
3. Da a / Sa :

The diphthongs occur in the medial positions. The speakers were asked to pronounce each word thrice. Thus there are 5 diphthongs stimuli and 180 (12 speakers* 5 diphthongs * 3 repetitions) samples. Thus a sample of 180 words was recorded. Out of this sample of 216 words, we selected the middle articulation of the three repetitions. This gave us a select sample of 72 words. The five words chosen for the six diphthongs are the same as those pronounced by the native speaker on http://www.fonetiks.org/engsou3.html. In the case of monophthongs, a separate word list was created and given to both the native speakers and the learners of English in India. The words chosen for the study are: pot, pet, pit, pat, put, cut, apart, perk, court, caught, stoop, keep. Since 'caught' and 'court' are pronounced with two separate vowels in India, these two words were kept in the study, although they contain the same vowel phoneme in British English, as was confirmed by this study.

4. Da a R M :

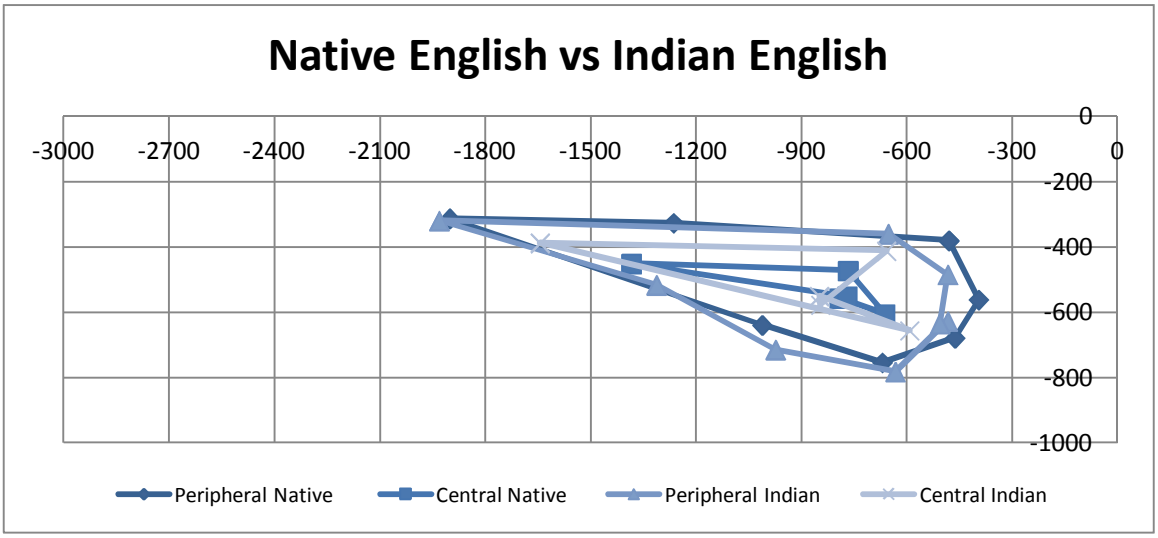
The data was recorded in the sound proof recording room of the language Laboratory of Jawaharlal Nehru University and in similar sound-proof rooms in the other universities visited for the recording. The recording and analysis was done using a combination of PRAAT a Wavesurfer. The voice files were converted into .wav format to make it suitable for importing into the software. WAV is the short form for Waveform Audio Format. PRAAT and Wavesurfer was used for recording and analyzing data. Analysis using PRAAT includes calculation of formant frequencies.

Ⅲ. DATA ANALYSIS:



F 1. Native English (Black Arrows) & Indian English (Coloured Arrows) Diphthongs Mapped Together

As explained in the methodology the first two formant values F1 and F2 for all the diphthongs and monophthongs was calculated using PRAAT and Wavesurfer. For plotting the two formants it was decided to plot F1 against F2-F1 rather than F2, as indicated in Figure 1 and Figure 2 below.

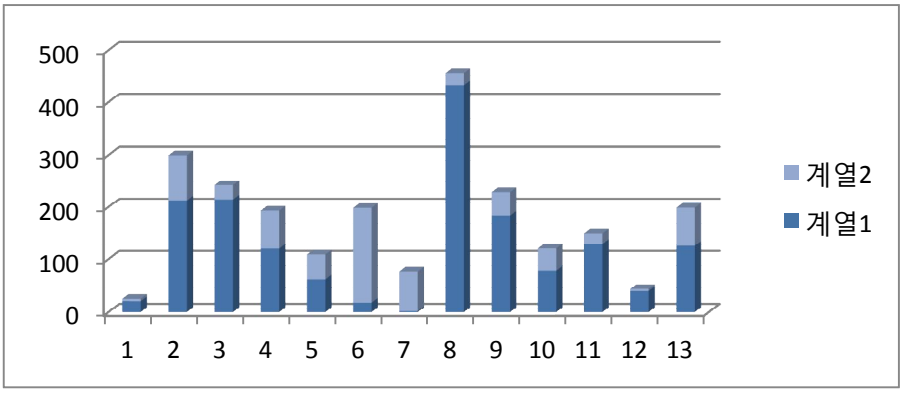


F **2.** Native English & Indian English Monophthongs Mapped Together

IV. MAIN FINDINGS:

As compared to the native speaker's articulation of these five diphthongs in the study, the data from Indian English shows that the diphthongs are mostly not produced as diphthongs in Indian English. Some diphthongs as in 'face' and 'coat' are mostly pronounced as single long vowels/monophthongs such that [feIs] becomes [fe:s] and [kout] becomes [ko:t] in Indian English. We also see that in the case of diphthongs with vertical movement, the Indian diphthongs move much less compared to British English, while in the case of horizontal movement, there is an equally clear distinction in India between the starting and ending points of the diphthong. The diphthong / ə/ has moved far towards the front compared to its British counterpart in both its starting and ending points. has a higher starting point but ends lower than the British . is approximately where the British is, but the movement is much less compared to the latter.

When it comes to the monophthongs, we see that the overall vowel pace remains more or less the same when it comes to Indian English and Native English, however, the positions of the vowels within the vowel space differs greatly. We see that there is a greater differentiation between central and peripheral vowels in native English, while in Indian English, this distinction is not that pronounced. We see that the / / and / ː/ are acoustically the same in Indian English whereas, the schwa moves closer to the / ː/. In British English, however, the /ə/ and the / ː/ sound are identical in quality, while 'cup' moves closer to the / ː/. In the peripheral vowels, the biggest difference is in the position of the /u:/, which in British English is almost a front vowel, possibly with lip rounding, while in Indian English, it remains a back vowel with lip rounding. The /e/ is much more open in British English compared to Indian English, and the /æ/ and / ː/ are pronouncedly more back than their Indian counterparts. Another great difference between the Englishes is that the / / and /caught/ are identical in quality in Indian English, whereas in British English, /caught/ is identical with / ː/. Thus, in Indian English, /caught/ has moved itself to the more open position of / /. We also observe that the British / ː/ is more closed and further back in the vowel space compared to its Indian counterpart.



F 3: Deviations of Indian English vowels from Native Speakers (F2-F1 values in dark blue & F1 values in light blue) [1-keep, 2-pet, 3-pat, 4-task, 5-pot, 6-caught, 7-court, 8-stoop, 9-pit, 10-put, 11-cut, 12-perk, 13-apart]

As can be seen in the figure above, the variations in F2-F1 depict the deviation in frontness/backness of the tongue, while the F1 variations indicate the deviation in tongue height. An earlier study on Acoustic Space of Indian English Vowels, Narang et al. 2010 showed how vowel quality changes in such a way that the vowel space gets redefined in a language contact situation. In this case we see how Indian English in contact with Indian languages evolves a regional standard with a fairly uniform pattern of change in acoustic space and also in the quality of diphthongs.

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T D Ma *But* a C a a S C a T

I C
G a Na a U

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse markers such as *but*, *so* and *well* guide the hearer to the inferential procedure that yields the speaker's intended meaning. They are not only widespread across language, but are also among the most frequently used items in discourse. Taking this account, it is not surprising that discourse markers are seen as central to pragmatic account (cf. Schiffrin 1987; Aijmer 2002; Blakemore 2002; Iten 2005). The discourse marker *but* in particular has received much attention and has been studied from many different perspectives. For instance, within the relevance-theoretic framework (Sperber and Wilson 1986/95), *but* is viewed as a linguistic device that instructs the hearer to perform an inference which results in contradiction and elimination of a manifest assumption (Iten 2005). However, most studies deal with the use of *but* by native speakers, and very few with how it is presented in teaching materials. The present research attempts to fill this gap by looking at how the discourse marker *but* is used by native speakers in a conversational speech corpus and how it is presented in textbooks for high school students in Korea. In particular, the frequency of occurrence and the functions of *but* in the two data sets will be compared both qualitatively and quantitatively to investigate whether there is variation in the distribution of these functions.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

The present study draws upon data from two sources, the Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English (hereafter SBC) (Du Bois, Chafe, Meyer, & Thompson 2000) and textbooks designed for first-year high school students in Korea. The SBC is a corpus containing approximately 249,000 words of naturally-occurring speech including face-to-face conversations, telephone conversations, on-the job-talk, classroom lectures, and story-telling. For the present research, face-to-face conversations were taken from the SBC, and the listening and speaking scripts were taken from the four most popular English textbooks in Korea.

2. Da a A a P

All uses of the discourse marker *but* is identified and coded. The approach adopted in this research is corpus-driven. In other words, the functional taxonomy developed in the analysis is derived from the recurrent patterns observed in the data but not from a given framework. This involves rounds of modification before a classification scheme is devised to fully capture the range of functions found in the data.

Table 1 gives an overview of the resulting categorization system, providing a short description of each function. Seven major functions of *but* are identified. It has been claimed that discourse markers are multifunctional in that they are associated with different values on the one hand and that they display simultaneously different functions in different domains on the other (Schiffrin 1987; Bell 1998; Aijmer 2002). Given this multifunctional nature, if two functions of *but* are used simultaneously, both functions are coded.

Ta 1. O a *but*

Category	The function of *but*
Denial	Denial of an assumption made manifest by the preceding context
Contrast	Contrast between the utterance containing *but* and the preceding one
Correction	Negation of an assumption communicated by the preceding context
Topic Shift	Indication of a new topic
Initiator	Marking the speaker's turn

Addition of Information	Introducing additional information that would help the hearer understand the story
Resumption	Return to an earlier topic

These functions can be classified into three different domains: ideational, textual and interpersonal. In Halliday and Hasan (1976)'s terms, the use of *but* in the ideational domain is concerned with the expressions of 'content'. The textual domain is related to structuring the hierarchical organization of discourse and organizing the information structure, whereas the interpersonal domain is concerned with the social, expressive and conative functions of language, expressing attitudes, emotions, and personal evaluations. Table 2 presents the classification of *but* into three different domains.

Ta 2. E a *but*

Domain	Category	The example of *but*
Ideational	Denial	A: I just bought a watch online yesterday. <u>But</u> it doesn't work.
	Contrast	A: She's such a talented singer, <u>but</u> I'm not. I want to give up.
	Correction	A: He is so funny. Not your professor <u>but</u> um my husband.
Textual	Topic Shift	A: Mike, would you mind going to Samulnori tonight? I have free tickets. B: Of course not. <u>But</u> Samulnori? What does it mean? A: Well, it's a musical performance with four Korean musical instruments.
	Addition of Information	A: Well, you see their eyeballs, I guess. B: Right. A: Yeah, the other … B: In addition to a mustache and beard. <u>But</u> the thing is that second one looks like the guy who was in one of the Oba Oba skits.
	Resumption	A: They did have an autopsy on her. B: Yes. A: It surprised me. <u>But</u> they they did. And it was actually a…
Interpersonal	Initiator	A: Yeah. That would be good. Cause all of that stuff should go into the compost pile to begin with. B: <u>But</u>. Yeah. Actually you know Zeke the sheik is a local.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. F O

Table 3 compares the use of *but* in the two datasets under investigation. While the total number of words in the SBC (n=28,038) is only 27% more than that in the textbooks (n=22,193), the number of *but* is 160% more than that in textbooks (n=219 versus n=136). This indicates that *but* occurs much more frequently in the naturally occurring conversations.

In a 10,000-word sample of textbooks, the rate of *but* is 61.28. On the other hand, in the SBC, the rate is 78.11. This also demonstrates that the use of *but* occurs more frequently in the conversational corpus than in textbooks.

Ta 3. T a *but* SBC a

	SBC	Textbook
Total number of words	28,038	22,193
Total number of *but*	219	136
But-rate (per 10,000 words)	78.11	61.28

2. F *But*

Table 4 presents the frequencies and percentages of each functional category of *but* in the SBC and the textbooks.

Ta 4. T *but* SBC a

Domain	Function	Source of data			
		SBC		Textbook	
		No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Ideational	Denial	54	(24.7)	96	(70.6)
	Contrast	7	(3.2)	12	(8.8)
	Correction	4	(1.8)	0	(0)
Textual	Topic Shift	37	(16.9)	6	(4.4)
	Addition of Information	39	(17.8)	6	(4.4)
	Resumption	20	(9.1)	0	(0)
Textual + Ideational	Topic Shift + Denial	14	(6.4)	4	(2.9)
	Topic Shift + Contrast	1	(0.5)	2	(1.5)
Interpersonal + Ideational	Initiator + Denial	27	(12.3)	8	(5.9)
	Initiator + Contrast	4	(1.8)	0	(0)
Interpersonal + Textual	Initiator + Topic Shift	12	(5.5)	2	(1.5)
Total		219	(100)	136	(100)

In the SBC, the denial use of *but* is most common, but it constitutes only 24.7% of the total use. The functions Addition of Information, Topic Shift, and Initiator + Denial constitute roughly half of the total instances. In particular, the percentage of *but* indicating Addition of Information is 17.8%, which is the second highest percentage of occurrences in the SBC.

The most dominant function in the textbooks is the category Denial, making up more than two-thirds (70.6%) of the total. The categories Contrast and Initiator + Denial constitute 8.8% and 5.9% of the total uses, respectively. The other five functions merely make up a small proportion (14.7%) of use altogether. No occurrences of Correction, Initiator + Contrast, and Resumption are found in the textbooks, whereas these three functions constitute 23.6% of the total uses in the SBC.

Table 4, therefore, shows that there is a vast difference in the distribution of the functions of *but* in real-world situations and in teaching materials. While the denial use of *but* is the key function found both in the corpus as well as the textbooks, the other three functions, Addition of Information, Topic Shift, and Initiator + Denial also consist of a considerable proportion in the corpus. In contrast, the textbooks consist of only a small number of occurrences of these functions.

The analysis of *but* in the SBC and the textbooks demonstrate a notable difference in the frequency of occurrences and functions of *but* between naturally occurring speech data and textbook data. The discourse marker *but* occurs more frequently in spontaneous conversation. Moreover, the use of *but* in the ideational domain seems over-stressed in the textbooks, and this results in no close match between the distribution of *but* in the corpus and those in the textbooks. As discussed in Lam (2009), authenticity is not the only criterion for textbook design. However, given the pragmatic nature of discourse markers, invented examples may not represent the typical language use since what appears unacceptable to one speaker may be felicitous to another. Textbooks, therefore, should at least present the discourse marker *but* as the way it is used in naturally occurring language.

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I a E S a K a EFL

Sa a G
S W U
E D. R
W U

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite years of studying English inside the classroom setting, most Korean students still struggle when it comes to speaking English--at least that is the perception voiced by students and teachers alike (Li, 1998; Park, 2009; Shin, 2012). Despite a lot of environmental factors such as lacking of real life interactions in an EFL context, admittedly, dominating instruction on reading and grammar in Korea's public schools is likely the largest contributing factor to Korean student's speaking difficulties (Jeong, 2001; Lee, 2011).This paper explores "extensive speaking" (ES) as activity to enhance students' speaking fluency. The old saying is that practice makes perfect, this study seeks to determine if free sustained speaking practice will aid students in becoming more fluent. We adopt the word "extensive" from extensive reading, a widely accepted and well researched reading approach (Bell, 1998; Day & Bamford, 2002; Judge, 2011; Krashen, 1989; Mason & Krashen, 1997), and seek to find out if methods from extensive reading can be transferred to speaking instruction in efficient and effective ways.The ultimate goal of ES is to help students become fluent, independent and confident speakers and encourage students to take more responsibility for their fluency development both in and out of class.

As a result, this paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

- Will ES activities improve students' spoken fluency more than regular classroom activities?
- Will ES activities improve students' spoken proficiency more than regular classroom activities?
- How will ES influence students' attitudes to English speaking and ES practice?

II. METHODOLOGY

This study uses a mixed methods approach following some of the notions outlined by Creswell (2008). The study was conducted during a winter term full-immersion English camp at a Korean university with camp participants who were divided into four matched ES and non-ES groups. The primary pedagogical intervention involved daily opportunities for individual speaking practice that translates many of the principles of Extensive Reading (Bell, 1998; Day and Bamford, 1998, 2002; Krashen, 1989; Mason & Krashen, 1997). The primary quantitative data was pre-test and post-tests of speaking of all students, while the qualitative data included the students' self assessments of their English speaking skills and attitudes before and after the intervention, and focus group interviews of selected students.

1. S a a a

The participants were 37 college students who were in lower level Oral Communicative Skill classes (OCS class) in a six-week-long residential immersion program. These students of level 1 and level 2 were allocated into four classes randomly. The proficiency difference between level 1 and level 2 is not statistically significant. In this research, the researchers chose two classes from each level and assigned them into ES groups and Non-ES groups. One of the researchers taught two of the ES groups while the other two Non-ES groups were taught by two female American teachers who spoke English as their native language. Both ES and Non-ES groups of level 1 used English First Hand 1 as their textbooks. Both ES and Non-ES groups of level 2 used English First Hand 2 as their textbooks. Classes ran 50 minutes each.

2. Da a a a a a

At the the beginning of the six-week-program, the researcher sent out a survey to four groups asking about students' English learning experience and attitude towards ES. At the same time, the researcher collected the first

speaking data by asking all the students in these four groups to speak on a topic of their choices for 1-2 minutes. During the first class with the ES groups, the researcher explained the purpose of ES and demonstrated how to choose a topic, talk and record for a minute onto her cellphone. Then students and the researcher brainstormed all the topics to students interests and familiarity. ES groups had classes with the researcher 5 days a week for 6 weeks. Each class, students took turns to go to the next classroom and recorded a one to two minutes short talk onto the researcher's cellphone. At the end of the six weeks, the researcher did another survey with the four groups depicting the possible changes of students' attitude towards ES and English speaking proficiency. A final recording was used as the post-treatment test. To gain deep insight of students attitude, the researcher also conducted interviews with focused groups.

To explore answers for the first two research questions, the initial and final audio recordings were analyzed in two different ways based on Kormos and Dénes (2004) "results [*that*] support earlier theoretical conceptualisations of fluency according to which there exist two senses of fluency: low-order fluency (temporal aspects of fluency) and high-order fluency that can be equated with proficiency" (p. 158) or the first research question, on low- order fluency we wanted to measure the students' fluency to look for improvement overtime. According to Wood (2010), "perceived fluency has to do with increased speed of speech, and empirical studies generally tend to show that this is true. Measures of speech rate and articulation are relatively easy to link to fluency" (p.18). Consequently, words per minute was selected as the fluency measure based on Woods' suggestion and the simplicity and convenience of administration. To answer the second research question regarding higher-order fluency, we needed a measure of proficiency -- to see if proficiency behaved differently than did low-order fluency under these experimental conditions. Consequently we turned to the American Council of Foreign Languages Oral Proficiency Interview (ACFTL-OPI), which provides a more holistic analysis of oral proficiency . Both of these measures were examined statistically using a t-test via Microsoft Excel. To address the third research question, we looked to the data collected in the pre and post surveys as well as the focus group interviews.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In response to our first research question regarding the effect of ES on speaking fluency, the results of the words per minutes count showed that the two ES groups outperformed their counterpart Non-ES groups. The results of this research resonate with the research findings of other researches of extensive reading on improving second or foreign language learners' competence in general. Before the ES treatment, the average words per minute for ES group 1 and ES group 2 were 51.86 and 68.25 respectively. The average words per minute for the final recording increased to 75.13 and 89.78. On average, the two ES groups improved 22.36 words per minute, while the two Non-ES groups increased by 12.77 per minute. The T-test results between ES and Non-ES groups after treatment is p=0.00351, which implies the result is statistically significant.

TABLE 1. W P M C a

group	pre -treatment average	post-treatment average	average improvement
ES group 1	51.86	75.13	23.27
ES group 2	68.25	89.78	21.53
Non ES group- 1	57.30	63.89	6.59
Non-ES group -2	68.68	78.34	18.26

TABLE 2. T-

t-tests	p-value
ES vs Non-ES	0.00351
Level 1 vs Level 2	0.32183
Group 1 vs Group 2	0.79853
Group 3 vs Group 4	0.05207
Group 1 vs Group 3	0.02467
Group 2 vs Group 4	0.57997

The pre and post treatment survey helped us look into students belief and experience with ES activities. Through the interview with the focused group, the researchers found that students expressed positive experience with ES activity in terms self reported fluency improvement and confidence gain. The OPI score result has not come out by the time of this conference paper. But we will add this part by the time of the conference.

IV. CONCLUSION

This research adopted and adapted the success of extensive reading activities on second language learning in terms of improving students' reading interest, reading confidence and reading fluency. The 10 principles we borrowed from Day and Barmford (2002) helped set the foundation of this study. Both ES and Non-ES groups accepted the same amount of in-class instruction, except that for ES group students, one minute of the class time was given for them to speak a topic of their choice.. The final results showed significant improvement of the ES groups in overall proficiency and confidence towards speaking. Our argument is that although practice doesn't guarantee perfect, it does make students in this study speak more fluently and confidently .

The findings of this research supported the output hypothesis by Swain(1983, 1985). Different from in most immersion programs where students have limited chances to speak in the classroom setting, we provided chances to output as mean of learning. The ES groups not only improved their fluency by speaking more words within one minutes, but more importantly students self reported that they finally built up the confidence of being able to speak. Moreover the significance of this study lies in the fact that extensive reading principles can be extended to productive skills such as speaking and writing. Due to the scope of this research, we didn't look at the complexity and accuracy development of this ES activity. We suggest that further research should also look into the effect of ES practice on language complexity and accuracy development, as well as the long term influence on students' language learning in general.

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A C a a ESL/EFL: A Ca S a C a, V a & I a

A J
Ja a a a N U , I a

Ⅰ. INTRODUCTION

Language learning in second language and foreign language environments can present quite a few challenges and difficulties, and especially when the language being learnt is one with the status of a Global Language, there are several implications of being able/unable to effectively articulate oneself in the language. In ESL situations, there are greater chances of acquiring English, whereas in EFL situations, the chances of acquisition are not as high, as learning is not amply supported by the environment outside the classroom. Therefore, the implications of an absolutely empirical study of this process become all the more important, as such a study objectively brings to light the difficulties faced by learners. The findings from such a study can be used to create precise, effective and L1-specific ESL/EFL schedules. This thesis uses some methods of acoustic phonetics to empirically study the vowel spaces of the first language and the target language (English, in each case in this study). While there are a few other studies in this area, this study is unique in that it uses purely empirically observable techniques in acoustic phonetics, the benefits of which have been mentioned above, and goes into details that I feel will be able to add great value & insight to ESL/EFL teaching to native speakers of these languages. The acoustic parameters used in this study are the first two vowel formants (F1 & F2).

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

A word list consisting of words that covered all the monophthongs of English was created and the subjects were asked to read aloud each word thrice. The middle utterance was then taken for the analysis and the vowel space of each speaker thereby mapped. The average vowel space for the English of each region was then mapped and a comparative study was conducted to document the vowel space and analyse the differences between the English vowels produced in the various regions. The normative data was obtained from native speakers of English from the Oxbridge area (some who were living there, and others who were visiting India). The data for the students was obtained from learners of English from four cities (Ho Chi Minh City, Dalian, New Delhi & Shillong) across 3 countries (China, Vietnam & India). English has the status of a second language in India, while in China and Vietnam, it has the status of a foreign language. The assumption was that the distinction in vowel space between L1 & L2 would be greater in an ESL situation when compared to an ESL situation. All the monophthongs in English were covered in this study, and the words chosen for the elicitation procedure are: pet, pat, pot, pit, apart, put, cut, court, caught, stoop, keep, perk.

Ⅲ. ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

After the recordings were made, they were fed into Wavesurfer and the individual vowels were isolated from the entire recording. The second enunciation was the one that was short-listed in most cases, unless the utterance had some error in it. So, in all, there were (25 speakers * 5 languages * 12 vowels = 150 samples) that were analysed in this process. The seps followed for the analysis are as follows:

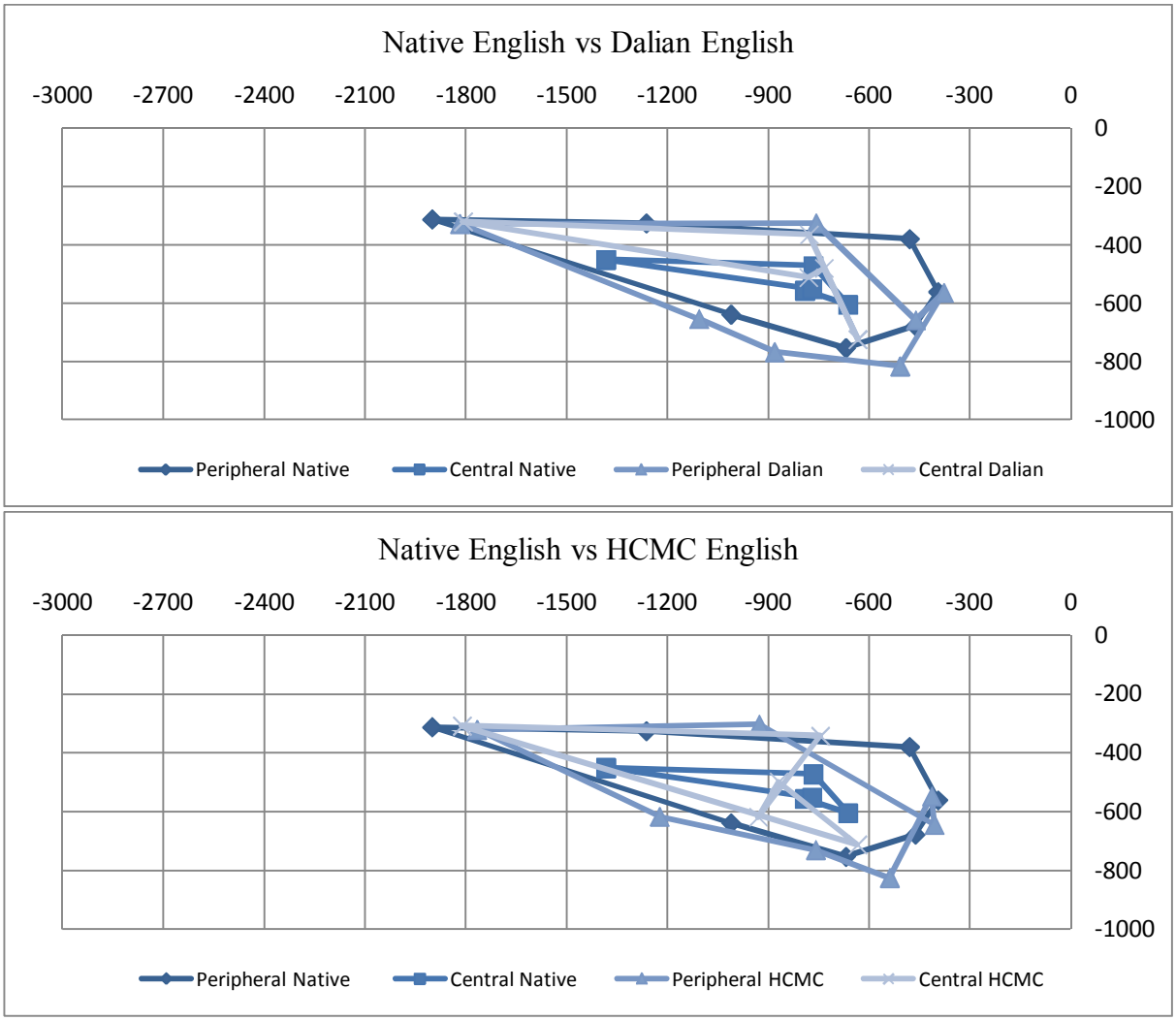
1. Once saved as a separate vowel, the data file was extracted from software, and saved as an excel sheet (After clicking on the ‘tab’ button to ensure that each value went into a separate sheet)
2. A sample size of the vowel at its most stable state (usually five separate values at the steadiest state) was taken and pasted onto a new sheet (the data for only the first three formants was pasted).

3. After this, the values for (-f1) and (f1-f2) were calculated and plotted on an X-Y scatter graph, for the five units short-listed, to ensure that any outliers could be eliminated, and to confirm that all the entries were indeed grouped enough for us to know that the vowel was at its steady state.

4. The average values for each vowel were then plotted against each other. The scale had to be kept constant in order to keep the comparison accurate. This way, the vowel space for that particular speaker was calculated. This step was followed for all sounds and the vowels produced by one speaker were plotted onto a single graph, so that the vowel space could be determined.

5. The vowel spaces were then mapped in various ways, and using these mappings, the conclusions and further research possibilities were arrived at.

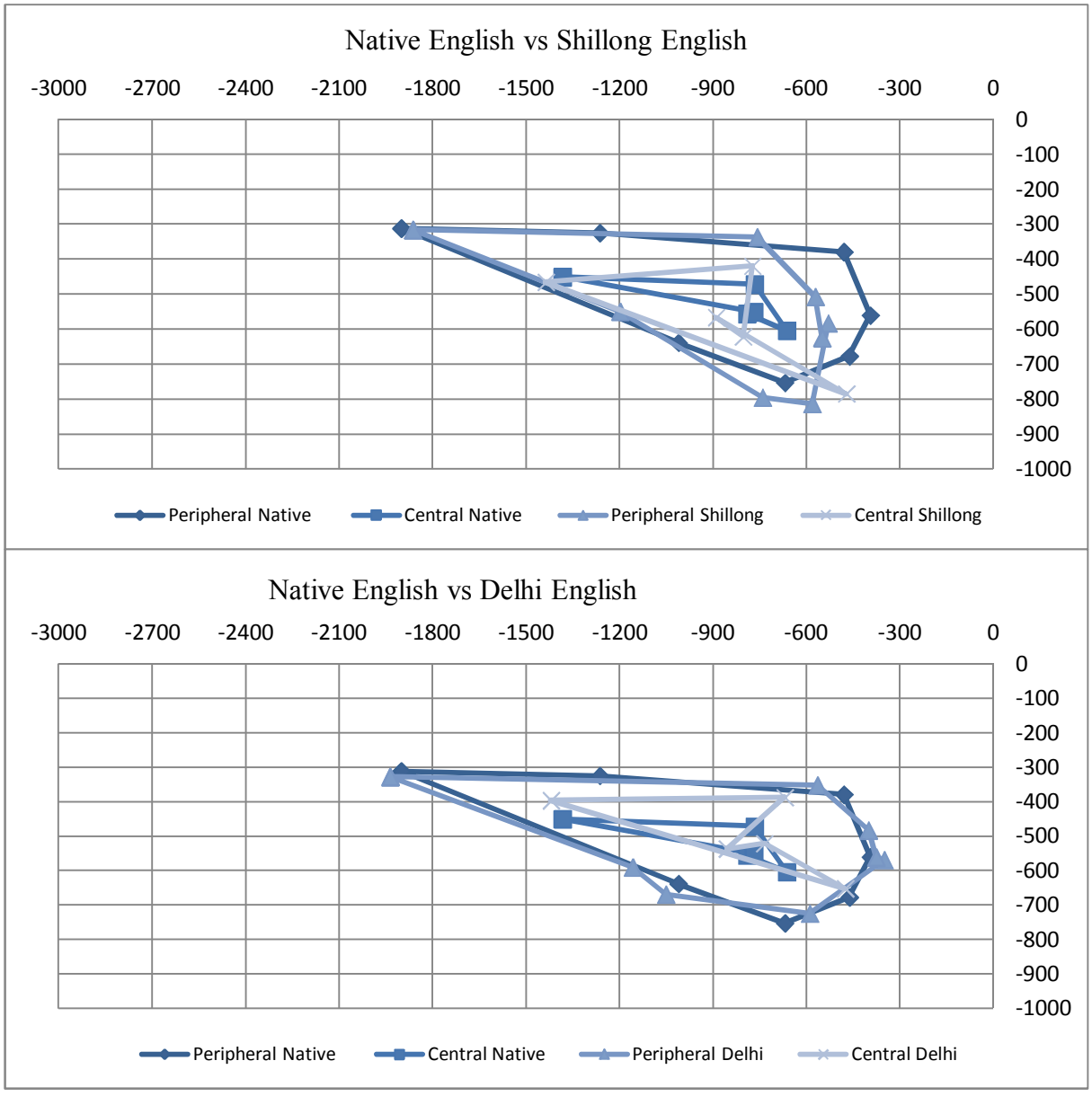
IV. OBSERVATIONS AND MAIN FINDINGS



We see that the difference between the peripheral vowels and central vowels is much more pronounced in British English, as learners in Dalian tend to place their central vowels very close to the peripheral vowels. The schwa and / / in Dalian English are almost where / / is in British English. The /e/ and the /æ/ are fairly more fronted compared to British English, while the / ː/ is a lot more open, thus increasing the overall vowel space. The / / sound is fairly similar in the two, but / ː/ has moved in Dalian English from its counterpart to where the/ ː/ is in British English. The /u ː/ is also fairly more back compared to British English. The / / and / / are more closed in Dalian English, and there seems to be no distinction between / / and /i ː/ or the / / and /u ː/ in Dalian English. Thus, they are more peripheral than central vowels in Dalian English.

The distinction between peripheral and central vowels is not marked in HCMC English, like in Dalian English. The / /

and the /iː/ are fairly equal qualitatively and so are the / / and the /uː/. The /e/ is more fronted compared to British English, while the /æ/ is pretty much similar in both. The / ː/ is markedly more open in HCMC English. There seems to be not much distinction between / / and / ː/ in HCMC English, and while / / is eactly where it is in British English, / ː/ has travelled further down and is almost where the British / ː/ is, a pattern found in Dalian English as well. /ə/ has moved almost next to where the British /æ/ is, the schwa is close to its British counterpart, while / / is more open than its British counterpart. The / / and the / / are very close to the /iː/ and the /uː/ and thus are not central, but peripheral vowels in HCMC English, just as they are in Dalian English.



The distinction between peripheral and central vowels is greater in Shillong English, compared to its HCMC and Dalian counterparts, but is still not as much as it is in British English. The / / and / / are fairly similar in the two, and so are / / and / ː/. However, the /ə/ seems to have moved close to the / ː/ in Shillong English. The overall vowel space is also greater in Shillong English. / / and / ː/ are nearly equivalent in Shillong English, which is a trend in most forms of English found in India. / ː/, / / and / ː/ are less back in Shillong English compared to British English, while the /uː/ is a back vowel in Shillong English, while it is a front rounded vowel in British English. The /æ/ and / ː/ are more open in Shillong English, while the /e/ is more fronted and more closed compared to its British counterpart.

In Delhi English, we again see that the differentiation between peripheral and central vowels is much more than that found in EFL learners, but is not quite as much as is found in British English. The /iː/ is almost exactly the

same in both. / ː/ is more open in Delhi English, while /caught/ has moved from / ː/ to / / in Delhi English, a sign of Indian English, just like the case in Shillong. / ː/ is more open and fronted in Delhi English, and /e/ and /æ/are very close to each other. The /i ː/ is fairly similar to its British counterpart, although being little more closed than the latter. The / / is especially close to the/u ː/, which in turn is a back vowel like in most cases of Indian English, as opposed to the fronted British /u ː/. The vowel space is pretty much identical in the two cases of English.

Ⅴ. CONCLUSION

This study functions as an accurate map of the English spoken in the regions specified above. As well as functions as an objective and effective aid to ESL/ EFL teachers teaching students from these places, wherever the classrooms might be. We see that the distinction between peripheral vowels and central vowels is clearly greater in ESL situations as compared to EFL situations, although both are far from the distinction achieved in the case of native speakers of English. This data can be used by ESL teachers and institutes to create specific learning schedules in their curriculum, thus being able to target the most important phonemes that the learners from these regions struggle with, thereby increasing the learning curve and Further research must also be conducted, mapping the L1 vowel space for learners from each of these regions in order to obtain more information regarding the deviation of the vowel qualities and the vowel space from the established standard. A visual summary of the deviations in F1 and F2-F1 values of each vowel has been given below for each of the languages in the study.

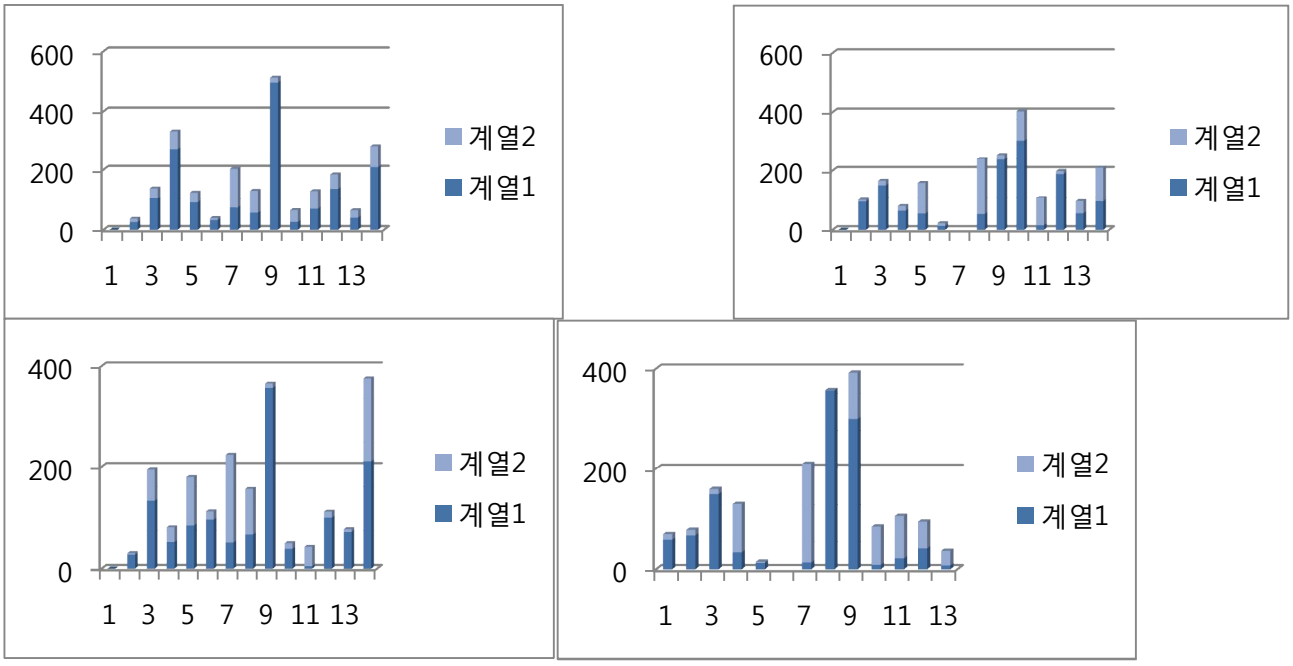


FIGURE 1. Deviations of vowels from Native Speakers (F2-F1 values in dark blue & F1 values in light blue) – HCMC, Shillong, Delhi & Dalian clockwise from top left. [[1-keep, 2-pet, 3-pat, 4-task, 5-pot, 6-caught, 7-court, 8-stoop, 9-pit, 10-put, 11-cut, 12-perk, 13-apart]

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T a C a a D
K a E a -L S P a A a

I -Ha J a Sa -K L
K a Na a U E a

I. INTRODUCTION

Phonological awareness concerns the ability to divide words into syllables, to identify word rhymes, and to pick out individual sounds within words, and it reflects the speakers' ability to recognize the sounds of a word as well as its meaning. Fitzpatrick (1997) emphasizes the importance of phonological awareness by describing it as "the ability to listen inside a word." Believing that the knowledge about the sound-letter relationship is important in effective reading and writing, many researchers have explored the relationship between phonological awareness of the learners and the extent of their success in reading and spelling (Baker, Fernandez-Fein, Scher, & Williams, 1998; Juel, 1988; Stanovich, 1986; Tummer, Herriman, & Nesdale, 1988). Native speakers have been found to develop their phonological awareness during their kindergarten years (Yopp, 1995). Also, it has been shown that learners who have difficulty with this area of language would not be able to "listen inside a word" and "play with the sounds" that they hear (Fitzpatrick, 1997). In relation to the importance of phonological awareness, Graham (1978) claimed that jazz chants are particularly useful for practicing sentence stress, rhythm, reduced vowels, and linking. The primary purpose of the current study was to give Korean elementary-level students a chance to play with the sounds through chants and see how they develop their phonological awareness.

Ⅱ. THE EXPERIMENT

This study examined the effects of teaching chants on the development of Korean elementary-level students' phonological awareness. Twenty-seven of a total of 52 participants of the study were assigned to an experimental group and were exposed to chant-involving phonological awareness tasks for 12 class sessions. They were primarily asked to identify, blend, segment, substitute, and manipulate individual sounds within each word (see Table 1). As a comparison group, 25 students participated in this study and they took only the pre- and post-testing sessions.

TABLE 1. Classified List of Chants

Unit	syllable	Onset & rhyme	phoneme
Blending	I'll give you two and you'll make them one		Segmentation Cheer
Rhyming		Rhyme Game	
Segmenting	Bippity Bippity Bumblebee	Segmenting a word into onset and rhyme	
Substituting & Manipulating			Mah may mee moe moo

The students' abilities were measured in five skill categories, designated by the Phonological Awareness Test (PAT): detecting rhymes (DR), counting syllables (CS), matching initial sounds (MIS), counting phonemes (CP), and comparing word lengths (CWL). DR was to measure the ability of the participants to identify rhymes; for example, the participants of the study had to detect the same sounds of the words such as *hat* and *cat*. CS assessed the participants' ability to correctly count the number of syllables in targeted words. MIS asked the participants to match the words that

begin with the same phoneme. CP was to see how correctly the participants counted the number of phonemes in the words depicted by relevant pictures. Lastly, CWL was a measure to discriminate the lengths of the target words by counting the numbers of phonemes of each word.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

TABLE 2 Summary of the Independent Samples *t*-tests

Sub-test	Group			*Sig*
DR	Exp.	27		0.02
	Comp.	25		
CS	Exp.	27		0.01
	Comp.	25		
MIS	Exp.	27		0.04
	Comp.	25		
CP	Exp.	27		0.44
	Comp.	25		
CWL	Exp.	27		0.46
	Comp.	25		

Table 2 summarizes the results of the independent samples *t*-tests conducted with the scores of the two groups (experiment group vs. comparison group) on each of the five sub-skill areas. Overall, it was shown that there were positive effects of teaching chants on the improvement of the students' phonological awareness. The experimental group outperformed the comparison group in three of the five skill categories: DR, CS, and MIS (all *p*s are less than 0.05). On the other hand, there were no statistically significant effects on CP and CWL ($p = 0.44$ and $p = 0.46$, respectively).

These findings may suggest that teaching chants has positive effects on the improvement of phonological awareness by Korean elementary-level students, especially in the sub-skill areas of DR, CS, and MIS. Regarding the non-significant effects of teaching chants on CP and CWL, it should be noted that both CP and CWL measured the participants' ability of phoneme-segmentation, which is understood to take quite a long time to develop. The 12 class sessions (the total treatment sessions of the study) might not have been enough for the participants of the study to develop their phoneme-segmentation skills to a noticeable extent.

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S05: Reading Development

Room: College of Pharmacy B 115

d m e a o le a P e e erc a e c e oc 1

A I a a U a L2 R a A C a 24 S O - E R a S

E R
T a C , C a U , USA

I. INTRODUCTION

Hafiz and Tudor (1989) defined Extensive reading (ER) as quantitative reading in the second language (L2) for a length period of time for personal pleasure without the addition of productive tasks or follow-up language work. This presents a stark contrast from most reading exercises in second/foreign language classrooms. L2 learning in ER is largely meaning-focused as learners' attention is centered on "understanding and gaining knowledge or enjoyment" (Nation, 2007, p. 2). ER aims for incidental as opposed to deliberate learning (Grabe & Stoller, 2002), and according to Nation (2007), such meaning-focused activities can lead to "gaining content matter knowledge, skill improvement and enjoyment" (p. 8). To build on research on ER and to investigate the idea that even unmotivated learners can find pleasure in ER, this case study uses a situation-specific approach to explore how ER affects L2 reading motivation. This approach examines why learners behave as they do in specific learning situations (Dörnyei, 1996). This study is unique in its attempt to describe motivation changes through ER by focusing on an unmotivated L2 reader. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether ER can reduce anxiety towards L2 reading and motivate an unmotivated reader and then to further outline the contributing factors for this shift.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

The data collection for this study was done by three ways: observation, questionnaire, and interview. First, in every 24 reading session (approximately 30 minutes per session), I took field notes of the participant's reading behavior (e.g., laughing, yawning, asking questions, and looking at glosses) and her statements (e.g., how she enjoyed the reading, what she liked or disliked about the books, and what parts she had a hard time understanding). Second, two separate Korean-translated questionnaires (one for anxiety and one for motivation scale) were administered to the participant. Third, after completing the questionnaires, the participant was interviewed based on her responses. She was asked to explain why she circled a particular rating for every item on both questionnaires in order to uncover possible factors for changes in her perceptions throughout the ER sessions. 174 minutes of interviews were audiotaped, which I transcribed and translated from Korean into English.

2. Da a A a P

The procedure for data analysis follows below: first, the questionnaires were each comprised of 15 items that allowed the participant to rate her own level of anxiety and motivation. For anxiety measurement, 15 out of 20 items from the *Foreign Language Anxiety Scale* by Saito et al. (1999) were used, while for motivation 15 out of 27 items from the *Motivational Questionnaire (Reading in English)* by Takase (2007) were applied. Both of the five-point Likert scale questionnaires were translated into Korean where she was asked to circle each item by choosing a number from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*). Some items from both scales were modified to better fit the current study. To be more precise, the items on the anxiety scale were designed to reveal the participant's anxiety level by asking her negative perceptions towards her past and current L2 reading experience. The items on the motivation scale were designed to reveal her level of positive attitude (1, 13, 14, and 15), extrinsic motivation (4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10) and intrinsic motivation (2, 3, 11, and 12) towards L2 reading. I discuss motivation here (cf. Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 1999) as an individual quality, related to a person's goals and beliefs. The questionnaires for the current study followed the typical questionnaire formats (closed and multiple-choice items), and to ensure face validity, each list of items was scrutinized by three graduate students majoring in Applied Linguistics or TESOL. In terms of coding, five points were awarded for the 1s for anxiety and 5s for motivation. For example, when the participant circled 1 for an item in the anxiety questionnaire and 5 for an item on the motivation questionnaire, she was given five points for each response (see Figures 1 and 2).

Second, content analysis was then used to analyze the interview data. According to Patton (2002), content

analysis is "any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings" (p. 453). Content analysis is "empirically grounded" (Judge, 2011) and particularly useful when the goal is to look for patterns and identifications (Krippendorff, 2004). In particular, patterns for each questionnaire (motivation and anxiety) were analyzed and compared separately by first grouping similar answers and then by categorizing the groups. Patterns were formed when the participant discussed the factor at least twice from the items during the questionnaire-interview. For example, she mentioned "confidence" as the reason for her anxiety reduction through nine items (i.e., 1, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 15). In this case, patterns were formed and categorized as a contributing factor for her anxiety reduction. However, "satisfaction" was mentioned only once in item 6 for her anxiety shift, and was thus neglected. Once the groups were categorized, the two findings from both of the sections were compared. This is where contributing factors for both affective dimensions were divided into 1) *overlapping contributing factors* and 2) *unique contributing factors* to make it more clear what and how these factors influenced the reader. Another Korean student and myself, both bilingual in Korean and English, carried out these steps of content analysis. Moreover, the participant was asked several semi-structured follow-up interview questions (cf. Nishino, 2007).

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. A R

The first research question (i.e., Can ER reduce the participant's anxiety towards reading in the target language?) was answered in two ways: (1) by comparing and analyzing the line graph the three questionnaires that the participant took in relation to anxiety (Figure 1); and (2) by looking at changes in questionnaire mean scores.

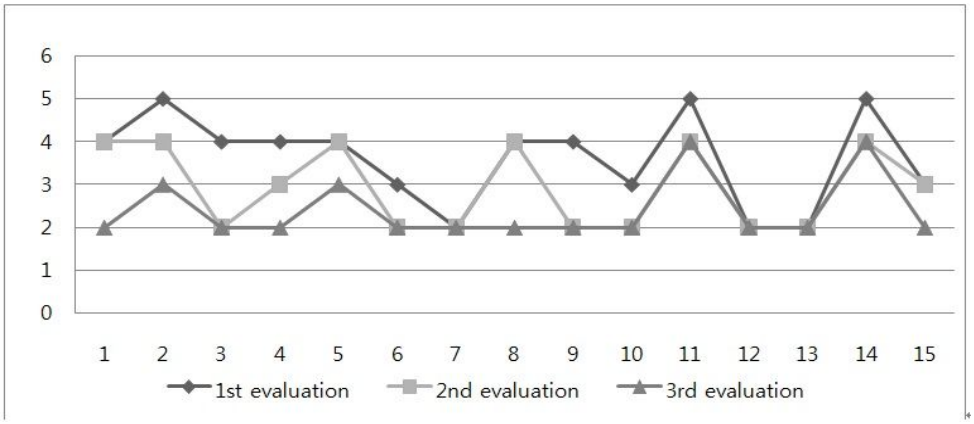

FIGURE 1. The Participant's Anxiety Shift Profile Using the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale.

Figure 1 depicts a gradual reduction in the participant's anxiety in most of her responses to the questionnaires. The Y-axis orients anxiety level from 0 (*lowest*) to 5 (*highest*), and the X-axis simply displays the item number of the questionnaire. None of the responses revealed any increase in anxiety towards L2 reading during the 8 weeks of the ER treatment. More precisely, all of the items except 7, 12 and 13 revealed anxiety reduction. In fact, the anxiety levels for the three aforementioned items were already low at the outset, so ER treatment could not have made much of a difference. In the end, the data show a decreasing trend among the mean scores for the participant's anxiety level from first the questionnaire ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.06$) to the second ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .96$) and to the third ($M = 2.4$, $SD = .74$). 24 sessions of ER treatment seem to have successfully reduced participant's anxiety towards L2 reading.

2.M a a E a

Likewise, the next research question (i.e., Can ER motivate the participant's motivation towards L2 reading?) was answered in the same two ways: (1) by comparing and analyzing the line graph of the three questionnaires that the participant took in relevance to motivation (Figure 2); and (2) by calculating the changes in mean scores of the questionnaires.

FIGURE 2. The Participant's Motivation Shift Profile Using the Foreign Language Reading Motivation Scale.

As shown in Figure 2, there was a noticeable shift in the participant's motivational attitude towards L2 reading from the first to the third questionnaire. Before she experienced ER for the first time through this study, she had a negative attitude towards L2 reading, which is also seen from her lower indications in the first questionnaire in Figure 2. However, a gradual increase in positive attitude towards L2 reading was revealed for most of the items. In fact, there were dramatic changes after the 24 sessions of ER treatment, such as in item 1 (i.e., *Of all English studies, I like reading best*): from the lowest motivation (rating 1) to highest motivation (rating 5). The data strongly suggest that not only has her attitude towards L2 reading changed, but also that she now likes reading the best out of all her English study methods. She did not circle any low numbers (below 3) on the motivation scale for her third and final questionnaire. The data also reveal a dramatic increase in mean scores for the participant's motivation level: first questionnaire (M = 2.80, SD = 1.15), second questionnaire (M = 3.67, SD =.72), and third questionnaire (M = 4.20, SD =.56). In sum, the 24 sessions of ER treatment were a success in increasing the participant's L2 reading motivation.

3. C Fa Pa a A S

Tables 1 and 2 summarize the contributing factors with distinct reasons for the participant's affective shifts for anxiety and motivation. The tables show that two contributing factors were shared for both anxiety reduction and motivational enhancement—*comfort/ease* and *enjoyment*. To see how these contributing factors influenced the participant, research question 3 (i.e., What factors bring about the participant's L2 reading anxiety reduction and motivational enhancement?) was answered in two ways: (1) by analyzing the patterns of overlapping contributing factors for anxiety and motivational shift; and (2) by analyzing the unique contributing factors for each section.

TABLE 1. Contributing Factors and Reasons for the Participant's Anxiety Reduction

Contributing factors	Reasons
Confidence	from (1) realization of achievement, and (2) being accustomed to not knowing everything

interesting. Moreover, attitudinal influence of ER was revealed from allowing the participant to read interesting books, which corresponds to the first category (i.e., materials) of the Day and Bamford's (1998) expectancy value model. The participant in this study found enjoyment and comfort from reading the materials that she chose. Furthermore, the usefulness of ER was another contributing factor for the participant's motivation towards reading in this study that corresponded with Day and Bamford's third category—attitudes toward reading in the L2— of the expectancy value model. As the participant discovered the usefulness and value of ER, her motivation towards L2 reading increased. The results also suggest that eight weeks of ER sessions promoted the participant's confidence in reading English books. This observation aligns with those of Takase (2003) and Ono, Day and Harsch (2004) who note that ER is designed to enhance learners' confidence because of its ease, thus contributing to lowering anxiety towards L2 reading.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, the realization that L2 pleasure reading has usefulness and can be done comfortably and with confidence, enjoyment, convenience, and satisfaction, came as a pleasant surprise for the participant, ultimately changing her view of reading in a second language. As it happened for the participant, it is the hope of this researcher that other learners will find similar results from embracing ER and change their perspectives of L2 reading as well. The findings of this study show that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational desires influence, and in turn, are influenced by pleasure reading. In the end, this study not only showed that single one-off, one-on-one ER sessions can have the positive effects of increasing reading motivation while reducing language learning anxiety for an unmotivated reader, but also contributes to an understanding of what increases motivation and reduces anxiety in L2 reading. At the very least, it is hoped that this study will prompt others to challenge or confirm these conclusions, provide additional insights into how and why ER works in practice, how individuals appraise reading in situ, and how anxiety and motivation change through an ER approach.

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P a D K-12 T a C a R R a I K a C a

Y J
M a S a U , USA

I. INTRODUCTION

While many reading studies have paid attention to the "process of reading" and the "learning of reading" (Anders, Hoffman, & Duffy, 2000), culturally responsive reading has received less focus. In addition, second language learning research related to cultural differences between a student's L1 and L2 has mostly targeted cultural minority students, including ELLs, who already reside in English speaking countries. Few studies have targeted populations outside of English speaking countries such as Korea.

In Korea, many students have learned English as a foreign language (EFL), and they both directly and indirectly experience English speaking countries' cultures from their instructors, text materials, and various other resources. However, due to their lack of cultural awareness, as well as their limited English proficiency, EFL students often fail to communicate with native speakers of English, and they struggle to adapt to English speaking cultures. Further, a lack of cultural knowledge makes them feel alienated when they study in English speaking countries.

Through review of the literature on culturally incorporated reading instruction and text analysis, and the scholarship that categorizes ESL/EFL students, this paper explores the cross-cultural issues involved in written discourses in K-12 classrooms in Korea, and it illustrates how Korean teachers use reading instruction to prepare students to be cognitively responsive to English-speaking countries' culture.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

The data for this study is the theoretical and the empirical research studies that have been conducted on the culture education in K-12 English classes, which appeared in professional literature in Korea from the 1990s through the present. This includes studies that examined cultural items in the texts used in primary and secondary schools, English teachers' actual instruction related to culture education, and students' perception of culture education. In addition, to support the analysis, English educational policy in Korea was analyzed, some studies examined college students' culture educational experiences when learning English, and college textbooks were analyzed.

2. Da a A a P

For the data analysis, first, I searched for relevant studies in the nine major publications in Korea, which are associated with the field of education or language education (i.e. the Korea Association of Teachers of English, Foreign Languages Education, the Korea Association of Primary English Education). The key words for searching the articles were "culture", "cultural", and "culturally". 71 articles were found. Second, I categorized the articles that satisfy the aforementioned criteria. Third, to illustrate the current English educational policy in Korea, which could influence culture education, I searched information from the related current English education studies and the website of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

In a full working paper, sub-themes involve English educational policy in Korea, English-speaking countries' culture and English learning, culturally relevant reading, cultural challenges, and textbook analysis cultural contents. Due to the length limit of the summary, only cultural challenges and textbook analysis are discussed.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

1. C a C a

Callins (2006) defines "Culturally responsive literacy instruction" as "instruction that bridges the gap between the school and the world of the student, is consistent with the values of the students' own culture aimed at assuring

academic learning" (p. 6) By recognizing students' cultural diversity and incorporating them into English classes, many teachers believe that students' can learn more effectively. However, as Li (2007) noted, even though teachers try to introduce students' diverse culture as a part of the school curriculum such as "International Festival of Cultures", this special activity is not likely to connect to classroom instruction. Another challenge is students' different perspectives on reading, due to their diverse educational backgrounds.

From a sociocultural perspective, culture influences the values of community and society. Thus, values and thoughts of target cultures can be transmitted to students during the instruction both intentionally and unintentionally. As Hinkel (1994) noted, if one does not acquire appropriate cultural knowledge and its awareness in a given context, they may be alienated, and the result could be social disparities; thus, students from different contexts and cultures could be treated unequally. Considering the growing number of English speakers worldwide, schools should provide students with opportunities to learn English from English speakers from a variety of countries, so that students can cope with the different English-speaking countries' cultures more effectively.

Regarding this, Gebhard (2010) explored cultural knowledge and the challenges that Asian college students encounter when they studied in the U.S. For this qualitative research, the author collected data from 85 student interviews and their written narrative related to adaptation challenge. According to Gebhard (2010), many Asian college students met challenges related to the different academic environment. For example, one Korean master's student who majored in TESOL in the U.S. was not likely to complete her reading assignments due to the difficult content and the large amount of reading materials compared to her experiences in her home country. In his study, some Asian students also faced difficulties in communicating with Americans in English, thus they were disappointed about their "inability to socially interact with Americans" (p. 32) For example, a student from China stated, "My new American roommate started talking really fast. I couldn't understand anything she said after, 'Hi. I'm Nancy.' It was like I have never heard English before!" (Interview #26, p. 33)

This example revealed that students' limited exposure to a target language culture causes some problems. Regarding these struggles, Gebhard (2010) analyzed the Asian students' tendency to use their home culture when encountering American friends' behavior, and their tendency of avoidance of issues that might cause tension among students from different cultures. In an attempt to provide coping strategies which help students better adapt to an English speaking country's culture, many English textbooks which involve diverse cultural elements are developed because textbooks are the most prevalent teaching materials used in schools. In the following section, I explore studies that investigate cultural elements presented in different textbooks that are used from elementary students to college students.

2. T A a C a C

Many English teaching materials and books have mostly paid attention to the dominant English-speaking countries' cultures, rather than international culture. When it comes to the description of content of the home culture, it differs according to the variables such as the author of the books. In this chapter, I explore a textbook analysis related to cultural contents.

First, to analyze cultural contents presented in the textbooks, Park (2005) investigated four English textbooks that are designed for 7th to 9th grade students in Korea. He (2005) found that textbooks mostly include home countries' culture and common culture, compared to international culture. In addition, more than 70% of the themes of the culture are those that learners are already familiar with. In addition, invisible culture such as thought and non-verbal behaviors were rarely presented. Based on these findings, he suggested that Korean textbooks should involve more diverse cultural aspects and other countries' cultures so that students can promote "intercultural communicative competence" (p.375) and interpret cultural differences from their own perspectives. For this, he posited that language and culture should be taught together and textbooks should be authentic and tailored to satisfy students' linguistic and cognitive level.

Second, Lee (2005) examined how 11 Korean adolescent EFL conversation books presented cultural elements. The EFL conversation books were selected because learners acquire sociocultural values and norms that are shared in given contexts in the process of interaction and students learn conversation patterns partly from books. He stated, "communicative competence becomes appropriate not much with linguistic forms or the range of the speakers' linguistic repertoires, but sufficiently with the knowledge, behaviors, and attitudes of/toward the sociocultural values, norms, and other variable all reflected in the target language." (p.139) The results of the study indicated that the majority of the EFL textbooks focus on culture-general behavioral skills and attitudes: "Intercultural communicative

competence" and "positive attitude toward culture learning." (p. 147) However, the textbooks focus less on introduction of cultural identity and cognitive domain of the culture-general learning.

Third, Han and Bae (2005) analyzed 5 high schools' textbooks written by Korean authors and 5 college English textbooks written by native English speaking authors. They examined to what extent the cultural contents are presented in each textbook and how cultural content is described differently between books written by Korean and native English writers. They categorized the types of culture into source, target, and international target cultures, which explain home culture, English-speaking countries' culture where English is used as a first language, and international countries' culture where English is used as ESL/EFL language, respectively.

The total number of cultural items presented in college EFL textbooks was 318; 202 items were about target culture, particularly, the U.S. and the U.K, and 112 cultural items were about international culture and only 4 items were about the source culture. Looking at the contents of cultural items, 206 cultural items belonged to the categories, which are related to institutions, art, music, literature, places or histories, whereas 112 items belonged to the rest categories, which are related to social identities, ways of life, and national identity or stereotypes toward other cultures.

In terms of the pattern of the culture, the source culture (100) was much more emphasized in EFL textbooks written by Korean authors compared to those written by native English speakers. In explaining cultural items based on six features, all five EFL textbooks written by Korean have similar topics and a similar amount of cultural items in each category. One major difference is that EFL textbooks written by native English speakers introduced cultural items integrated in exercises, whereas EFL textbooks by Koreans describe other countries' cultures in a separate section.

Last, Sung (2008) examined 11 college textbooks and analyzed their cultural contents by categorizing culture into "mono, liberal, common, and critical cultures." (p. 215) He also conducted a survey of 179 Korean college English learners' experience and opinion of learning culture in schools.

The results showed that first, textbooks involve diverse cultural elements, including daily activities. However, the problems were that the topics and illustrations revealed in the textbooks were mostly based on the target language culture (western) such as the U.S. and the U.K: consumer-oriented cultures. In addition, the cultural elements in the books were discrete facts or information; thus, they were not well connected to meaningful language learning activities. In other words, cultural elements were not likely to be selected for the pedagogical purpose of culture learning, but for language skills practice.

In the survey of college students' perceptions of cultural learning, most respondents agreed on the necessity of culture teaching, cultural differences in learning English, and understanding of one's own culture through other cultures. However, only 24% reported that they have cultural knowledge related to English speaking cultures, and only 18.4% reported that they received culture-integrated lessons. In addition, about 50% considered the cultural lessons they received as superficial and Western culture-oriented, reporting that less than 10% of students experienced Asian English speaking culture, English speaking culture in Africa, or Korean English speaking culture.

Sung (2008) stated, "a perennial bias toward the non-Western cultures was apparent in the English textbooks examined and culture teaching which the students experienced" (p. 209), thus, the current English textbooks do not satisfy students' needs of learning diverse cultures, including their own culture. He also argued that teaching cultural knowledge based on similarities and differences could broaden learners' intercultural communication ability, however, it may not directly lead to their practical communication ability unless they understand the underlying culture in a given society.

Even though these studies examine different textbooks, and their target learners vary, there exist common characteristics. First, textbooks are likely to explain dominant English speaking countries' cultures rather than international culture. Second, textbooks frequently depict visible cultural elements, rather than invisible culture. Third, the cultural contents presented in the textbooks vary according to the authors' nationality. These findings indicate the lack of cultural contents, which are associated with invisible culture, and call for the development of text materials that introduce more international culture.

IV. CONCLUSION

In line with the new government in Korea in 2008, the current English education policy emphasizes improving students' communication abilities among intercultural speakers. Overall, the policy makers made an attempt to facilitate culture-integrated instruction along with communication-focused instruction and evaluation. One of the outstanding features of recent English education policy was that the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST) has

introduced native English teachers as co-instructors with non-native English teachers in elementary and secondary schools. Consistent with this emphasis, non-native English teachers are encouraged to teach English through English (Ko, 2008).

However, forming an English-speaking environment through an English only classroom by Korean EFL teachers and native English teachers did not necessarily make culturally relevant instruction effective. According to the Korean Herald (2011), the government will decrease the number of foreign teachers in all public schools because, compared to competent Korean English teachers, students and parents think that native speakers of English are not as effective as originally expected.

Regarding this, I explore the scholarship that examines culture integrated instruction and culture education presented in English textbooks. I also presented cultural challenges non-native English speakers encounter when using English in a target language culture. Last, I examine how textbooks provided cultural elements to improve students' cultural awareness and knowledge.

Culture includes the forms of speech, rhetorical structure of texts, sociocultural behaviors, and ways in which knowledge is transmitted and obtained (Hinkel, 2001, p. 443). If students learn from only dominant English speaking countries, or if they do not fully understand the appropriate target language culture, it can cause problems concerning the awareness of cultural differences among English-speaking countries. I am not suggesting that learning English and the culture related to the United States and Canada has a negative effect on students' global perspectives. Rather, I seek to highlight the way this skewed exposure can create and reinforce biases in the students' worldviews.

In addition, the emerging needs for culture education and cultural contents presented in the textbooks are not well connected. Thus, this paper calls for research in two areas: (1) to examine and/or investigate the development of culturally incorporated text materials, and (2) to shed light on the professional development of ESL/EFL teachers' culturally responsive reading instruction.

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A A a M a R a A a L1 a L2

O C a
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

College students are often required to achieve certain level of reading proficiency for academic purposes not only in their L1 but also in their L2. What lies at the center of reading is comprehending and constructing meanings from texts. Failure to comprehend typically implies lower metacognitive control of reading comprehension (Cornoldi, De Beni, & Pazzaglia, 1996). The role of metacognition has been one of the prevalent issues in educational psychology, and much of the research on metacognition has been related to learning and achievement in reading (van Kraayenoord & Schneider, 1999). Comparisons of good and poor readers also revealed differences in metacognitive knowledge about reading and comprehension (Myers & Paris, 1978; Paris & Jacobs, 1984; Garner, 1987). However, reading is an individual experience between a reader and texts, and metacognition a good reader processes while reading is not easy to describe. Instead, there have been many studies to investigate core components of metacognitive knowledge to shed light on the membership good readers share. Therefore the current study investigates some of the critical components and their role in L1 and L2 metacognitive reading awareness under three hypotheses. First, ESL learners with higher level of L2 reading proficiency will show higher level of metacognitive awareness in both L1 and L2 reading. Second, L2 reading proficiency will have a positive effect on native English speakers' L1 metacognitive reading awareness. Third, ESL learners' L1 metacognitive reading awareness will contribute to their L2 differently according to their L2 reading proficiency.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Pa a a C

The participants in the study are 81 (38 males and 43 females) adult ESL students from Korea (n=36), Japan (n=20), and Taiwan (n=25), and 72 (27 males and 45 females) native English speaking college students in the same university in the state of Washington, US. The ESL students were studying at an intensive English program in the same university. They are from six reading classes divided according to their reading proficiency drawn from placement tests conducted a month before this study. Therefore no further methods to measure their L2 reading proficiency was conducted. They were subdivided into three groups: low, intermediate, and high. The 74 native English speakers were undergraduate students studying in college of education. Their ages ranged from 18-23. They were also divided into three groups depending on their self-reported L2 reading proficiency regardless of what the language is, but the majority of the languages were French (41.7%) and Spanish (34%).

2. D S Q a

Survey questionnaire was used to achieve the objective of this study. In the questionnaire, there are 3 sections: 2) reader autonomy, 2) reading motivation, and 3) reading strategy. The questionnaire consists of 19 questions: six questions for autonomy, another six for motivation, and seven for strategy use, and there are also three general questions asking for the participants' reading-related background information.

ESL learners received one more set of the questionnaire written in their mother language: Korean, Japanese, or traditional Chinese to secure in the maximum of efficiency in the process of collecting data. Therefore, they answered two sets of 19 questions (one in L1 and the other in L2) and three general questions in total. Native English speakers were given only one set of questionnaire written in English with four general questions including L2 reading proficiency self-report. ESL students were not asked to write down their authorized English test score because they were already in the different reading proficiency levels according to their placement tests results.

3. Da a A a P

The data collected and arranged for analysis were two sets of survey questionnaire for ESL students and one set for native English speakers. As the research point is to justify the efficiency of metacognitive reading awareness in

L1 and L2, and the relative contribution of L1 metacognitive awareness to L2 depending on different L2 reading proficiency levels, two sets of one-way ANOVA with an independent variable of proficiency level, correlation test, and multiple regression test was exerted. SPSS ver.21 was used for data analysis and the significance level was set at .05. Scheffe, Bonferroni, and LSD post hock tests were conducted to identify significant differences L2 metacognitive awareness depending on different levels of L2 reading proficiency. Since all post hoc comparisons produced compatible results, only the Scheffe is presented.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. T I L2 R a P M a R a A a

Table 1 shows that the higher ESL students L2 reading proficiency level is, the higher their metacognitive reading awareness is in both L1 and L2. In L1, the most dominant metacognitive component was learner autonomy while it was strategy use in L2. For native speakers of English, strategy use was also the most salient component. Reading motivation was the weakest component among all the participants regardless of what their L1 is.

Ta 1. L2 R a P a M a A a L1 a L2

L2 Reading Proficiency		ESL Students								Native Speakers			
		L1				L2				L1			
		A	M	S	Total	A	M	S	Total	A	M	S	Total
1	Mean	3.52	3.20	3.62	3.45	2.39	2.32	2.42	2.37	3.52	3.42	3.69	3.54
	N	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	16	16	16	16
	SD	.40	.41	.42	.31	.39	.40	.39	.27	.42	.45	.72	.25
2	Mean	3.63	3.35	3.43	3.47	2.95	2.87	2.99	2.94	3.48	3.31	3.74	3.51
	N	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	34	34	34	34
	SD	.62	.48	.61	.36	.55	.47	.44	.35	.66	.55	.64	.45
3	Mean	3.74	3.62	3.74	3.70	3.50	3.42	3.52	3.48	3.90	3.52	3.99	3.80
	N	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	22	22	22	22
	SD	.42	.44	.43	.344	.42	.31	.349	.23	.57	.52	.63	.42
Total	Mean	3.64	3.39	3.59	3.54	2.97	2.89	2.99	2.95	3.62	3.40	3.80	3.61
	N	81	81	81	81	81	81	81	81	72	72	72	72
	SD	.49	.47	.51	.35	.64	.59	.59	.53	.62	.52	.66	.42

(A=Reader Autonomy, M=Reading Motivation, S=Reading Strategy Use)

The results of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that the ESL participants showed significantly different levels of metacognitive reading awareness in both L1, F (2, 78) = 4.54, p=.014, and L2, F (2, 78) = 91.34, p<.001 depending on their L2 reading proficiency. According to the Scheffe post hoc tests, there was no statistical difference between low and intermediate L2 readers in L1 metacognitive reading awareness, but participants in level 3 showed significantly higher metacognitive reading awareness than the other two groups, p<0.05. In L2, participants in low reading proficiency level showed the lowest metacognitive awareness and those in the high level showed the highest metacognitive awareness. Also statistically significant difference was observed in L2 metacognitive reading awareness across the three L2 reading proficiency levels, $p<0.001$. As students' L2 reading proficiency increases, so does their metacognitive awareness in L2. Native speakers showed different results from ESL students in L2 reading proficiency effect on L1. In the data of L1 metacognitive reading awareness of native speakers, no significant difference was found among the L2 reading proficiency levels. That is, statistically they belong to the same group in terms of their L1 metacognitive awareness, which is different from ESL students,

2. C a L1 a L2 M a R a A a a D L L2 R a P

According to Pearson correlations, the strong correlations between L1 and L2 metacognitive reading awareness existed only in level 3. No significant correlations in the other L2 reading proficiency groups was found even though a general pattern was observed, in which the higher students L1 metacognitive awareness is, the stronger

correlations between L1 and L2 exist.

Ta 2. C a L1 a L2 M a R a A a

		L2 reading proficiency		
		1	2	3
L2-L1	Pearson Correlation	-.080	.263	.739**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.711	.160	.000
	N	24	30	27

3. C L1 a a a L2

Multiple regression procedure with the three L1 metacognitive components as independent variables and L2 metacognitive reading awareness as dependent variable only among the participants in high achievement of L2 reading proficiency was conducted to measure relative contribution of the components, $F(3, 23) = 11.777$, $P < 0.001$.

Ta 3. R a C L1 M a R a A a C

L2 Reading Proficiency		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
3	(Constant)	1.561	.332		4.698	.000
	Autonomy	.187	.093	.335	2.003	.057
	Motivation	.049	.085	.092	.570	.574
	Strategy	.279	.081	.512	3.463	.002

The results indicated that only strategy use was a significant contributor to L2 metacognitive reading awareness while the contribution of autonomy and motivation was weak. Reading strategies advanced ESL readers have in their L1 can help increase the overall metacognitive reading awareness in L2.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

While L2 reading proficiency did not affect L1 metacognitive reading awareness among native English speakers, it did among advanced ESL readers. The English learners were in the second language context to learn the language, so they have plenty of opportunities to access the target language text not only to achieve academic goals but also for authentic purposes. The amount of their L1 use is also considerably different. Different L1 and L2 contexts may lead to different amounts of contributions of L2 reading proficiency to their L1 metacognitive reading awareness. In ESL students' L1, autonomy was the most dominant metacognitive component which it was reading strategy use in both ESL students' L2 and native speakers' L1 metacognitive reading awareness. Students depend more on their reading strategy use when they read in English either as an L1 or L2. Language factor may also affect the result (Vianty, 2007).

There were strong correlations between L1 and L2 metacognitive reading awareness among advanced L2 readers and the most critical component was strategy use. Advanced L2 readers' L1 metacognitive reading strategies affected the overall L2 metacognitive awareness. The contribution of L1 reading strategies to L2 has been proved by some researchers (Sarig, 1987; Levine & Reves, 1985) especially among advanced L2 readers (Yamazaki & Yoshizawa, 1989; Perkins et al., 1989). The effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategies in L2 reading have been proved inconsistently. However, studies show that college-age students are more motivated to use strategies than younger, less experienced students and they can learn to monitor their level of text comprehension by employing a variety of strategies (Nist & Mealey, 1991). Lack of metacognitive reading strategy use can cause comprehension failure (Pressley & Afflerback, 1995) since good readers often use specific metacognitive strategies to support them in their comprehension of the text being read.

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A Ca S K a C S A a a A a R a S a

Y M S
E a W a U

I. INTRODUCTION

In terms of reading strategy research in Korea, researchers have tried to examine the relationship between reading strategy instruction and comprehension in addition to reading strategy frequency and pattern (E. Chun, 2006; H. O. Kim, 2006; S. W. Lee, 2008; K. R. Lee & Oxford, 2008; U. Maeng, 2006; K. H. Rha & S. Lee, 2005; M. J. Song, 1998). Most of the previous studies regarding reading strategies in Korea focused on teacher-oriented strategy training and numerical analysis of current strategy use, yet there are few studies exploring how students perceive their own use of reading strategies. While the quantitative data is undeniably important, such information has little explanatory significations and does little to elucidate the nature of learners' experience in which self-awareness and related attitudes form a big part. The purpose of this study is, therefore, to explore how four Korean college students in the year 2010, who learned English as a foreign language and as non-majors, became aware of and implemented reading strategies when reading English academic texts. Specifically, the college students were asked to do a reading task with a text in order to explore their strategic approaches to understanding the text. In a subsequent focus group interview, they were asked to reflect on each other's reading strategy usage and discuss how they applied what they had learned in their previous academic readings to their current practices of reading in English.

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a C a A a

To recruit participants for this study, two teachers of different universities were contacted who were previous colleagues to ask them to recommend potential participants who seemed to be verbally capable of and willing to do the reading task and follow-up interview. One teacher of a mid high ranked university in Seoul volunteered and some of her students then became the participants in this study. The female students—Yoomi and Minji—were sophomores at the time of this study, and they had each studied English for ten years. The male students, Jongsik (a senior) and Kihun (a junior) had studied English for thirteen and ten years respectively.

The students met two times in a quiet place on campus. Each session lasted no more than 90 minutes. In the first session, they read an expository English passage silently. It consisted of 7 paragraphs and contained about 1,100 words. The passage defined ethnocentrism and provided examples of it across several aspects of culture. With the text in hand, the students read the passage silently, and upon finishing, they discussed the ways in which they applied reading strategies in order to more completely understand the text. The second session consisted of the focus group interview. The students were encouraged to discuss generally how they applied what they learned in their previous academic endeavors to their current English reading practices. The 90 minute interview was semi-structured, proceeding question by question with probing questions asking for examples wherever possible. They were also asked several open-ended questions which gave the participants a chance to share their experiences learning to read in English and to further explain more fully their use of reading strategies. In addition, other questions about the text they read for the reading task were asked. The questions were mostly about text difficulty, topic familiarity, reading purpose, and background knowledge of the text. On the whole, the participants were very talkative and volunteered examples of their strategies, difficulties, and reading practices.

The focus group interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim, and the data was analyzed utilizing content

analysis. More specifically, I read the transcriptions several times to obtain a general sense of the data. Then the transcriptions were coded and divided into categories (i.e., awareness of reading strategies and use of reading strategies). The data was further analyzed to identify emerging themes concerning the participants' awareness and application of reading strategies. Open-ended items were also identified by individual content analysis to determine the categories and to identify emerging themes. The emerging themes were: 1) using their own reading strategies to understand the expository text; 2) the role of background knowledge and metacognitive strategy use; 3) Minji as a model of reading text in English; and 4) few changes of their reading strategy use at college.

Ⅲ. FINDINGS

First, the interview analysis revealed that all participants were familiar with reading the given type of expository text from their secondary school English classes, though the length of these reading tasks was much longer. It was also revealed that they all had a clear reading purpose in mind while reading the text. In other words, they focused on trying to find out the general idea of the passage as well as the meaning of the key word of the passage, ethnocentrism. They were not familiar with the reading topic. However, Yoomi had some background knowledge of the topic from her previous reading, and that helped her comprehend the text more easily than the others. Due to her prior knowledge of the subject area, Yoomi felt that the text was easy to understand. This is because she was able to make connections between the examples and the overall message of the text. She could make predictions about the content of the text as she went along and did not need to read every line carefully. The opposite was true of Jongsik and Kihun who reported little background knowledge of the subject matter.

Minji also reported little prior knowledge of the reading topic. However, in contrast to the male students, she used her metacognitive strategies to grasp the main idea of the passage. She seemed to be the most aware of her reading strategy use. She also had the most positive attitude toward her reading approach. She was aware of the ways she read passages in English and of her use of metacognitive reading strategies in the reading task. Minji's reading strategy use seemed to appeal to Jongsik, Kihun, and Yoomi as a model of how to read English text. The common response from the three students was that they were impressed by Minji's habits of marking and previewing the text, considering conjunctions, attending to important information and skipping the less important parts.

Finally, in terms of reading strategy development, all the students reflected that their reading strategies had not developed much since they entered college. They continued using the test-taking strategies that they had learned in their high school days while preparing for the SAT exam. Interestingly enough, the students were not satisfied with what they were studying in terms of English reading comprehension at the time of this study. The students wished to learn strategies beyond test-taking skills. They showed a marked interest in learning skills that would allow them to successfully deal with a variety of English reading materials. A key problem was that they were not sure of where and how they could learn and develop strategies that would allow them to do so.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study lead to a series of action based recommendations for English teachers in the classroom. First, it is necessary for teachers to help students become English readers with confidence. Second, students need to be exposed to a variety of reading materials in order to acquire some background knowledge of various topics, which will eventually increase their reading proficiency. Third, it is advisable for teachers to work on improving their students' awareness of reading strategy use. It is of the utmost importance that students gain an understanding of what reading strategies are and how they can utilize them to better comprehend English texts. To achieve this, it is necessary for teachers to introduce and explore a variety of reading strategies and instruct students on effective ways of applying reading strategies. In addition, as many previous studies (Carrell et al., 1989; Lawrence, 2007) have claimed, Minji and Yoomi's cases provide rationale to integrate metacognitive reading strategy instruction in the classroom to enhance students' metacognition about reading.

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A C a M T a C S R a S a A a R a

M -S Ha a K - K
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I. INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that reading skill development is one of the major teaching and learning objectives in the EFL classes in Korea throughout the primary and secondary schools, many college students find it difficult to read academic textbooks when they enter the college. This happens because EFL students' reading is focused on developing test-taking skills, which mostly deal with decoding the meaning, skimming and scanning to find correct answers to the test questions. These are also important reading skills but inadequate for college students to deal with comprehensive academic reading.

Among diverse purposes of reading, college students should be able to read to pursue their academic subjects while adopting critical thinking (Janzen, 2007; Jeon, 2008; Mayfield, 2003). According to Grabe (1991), proficient readers actively utilize their metacognitive skills such as monitoring cognition and asking questions about the information presented in their reading. However, Korean EFL students tend to focus on accurate translation or vocabulary learning rather than processing their reading contents through critical thinking (Na and Kim, 2003). Then in order to develop critical literacy, students need to be taught to analyze the text to gain clear understanding, to infer the hidden meaning, and to synthesize and evaluate what they have read to make connection with their real life.

The numerous EFL/ESL textbooks on the market today generally present short modified reading passages along with the activities that are unable to prepare the students to deal with the overwhelming amount of reading in their major studies at college. In order to fulfill the needs the current students have, new approaches to reading and reading strategy instruction that would empower the students to become proficient readers who actively adopt critical thinking in their reading are called for. This presentation intends to introduce a class model to teach a reading strategy that would successfully guide the students to be engaged in critical thinking and then to report the benefits gained from the instruction.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. A a R a a C a T

While there is a consensus that reading for critical thinking is essential competency for academic success, not many researchers are positive about college students' reading ability. Some criticize that college students just reproduce what they have read relying on memorization, which represents passive readers' reading practice. (Anderson & Armbuster, 1984; Simpson & Nist, 1990). Others suggest that many college students are incapable of accomplishing long academic reading assignments and they fail to think critically or to construct meaning of their own (Adams, Whitlow, Stover, & Johnson, 1996; Furedy & Furedy, 1985).

However, in the post modern world, critical thinking is considered to be essential not only for academic success but also for sound life. With technological advancement, people are constantly surrounded by the outpouring information, a lot of which is not necessarily useful but often even harmful. This implies people, especially young students, should be able to judge which information to take or to discard. The definition of critical thinking made by Delphi report implies that such judgment can be gained through critical thinking. This is why the post modern education emphasizes nurturing learners' critical thinking development.

Critical thinking is defined in several ways but the core concept coincides on the ability that learners can reflect on the text by analyzing, interpreting, and synthesizing what they read so that they can construct creative or alternative solutions to the problems they face (Kim, 2002). This draws our attention to the studies revealing that proficient readers actively adopt metacognitive skills such as asking questions, interpreting and evaluating the text (Wyatt et al., 1993).

With regard to the critical thinking education, Halpern (2001) insists that teaching specific skills that engage students in thinking as well as discussing the process of thinking is the crucial component. Teaching metacognitive

skills, looking into one's thinking process in other words, requires deliberate practices that are structured to engage the students in analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating the information they work with (Baker and Brown, 1984; Beyer, 2001).

2. R a SQ3R

The reading strategy **SQ3R** was first introduced by Robinson (1978) and is named for its five steps: survey, question, read, recite, and review. The method was originally designed to enhance college students.' reading ability when they read long and complex texts. However, it can also be used by any level of students. Even though this strategy is not new, it is an important for Korean college students because adopting this strategy will enable students to develop their reading skills, not for test taking, but for critical thinking.

The concept of SQ3R is based on the interactive reading process as follows (Inha University Press):
In the *survey* step, the reader builds up the general idea necessary for top-down reading mostly by skimming the text. In the *question* step, the reader brings his/her knowledge of the topic into play by asking some questions about the content of the text. This phase is designed to foster the top-down process. The *read* step is a bottom-up processing. The reader gets the general meaning of the text by carefully reading the text. The *recite* step means going back to top-down processing to check the general understanding of the idea, and notice the differences between expectations from the *survey* and *question* steps and the results of reading. The *review* step allows readers to apply what has been learned to make connection with their life.

3. A C a M

1) C a O

As mentioned in the literature review, Korean students are often preoccupied only in decoding the texts since their major purpose of reading has been test taking. Along with this assumption, this course aimed to help students to be able to read and process academic subjects to develop critical thinking.

In order to achieve this course objective, the interactive reading strategy SQ3R was taught. Following the reading process of SQ3R, students practiced active reading to be engaged in critical thinking, which in this course, refers to the competences to analyze, infer, and to synthesize and evaluate what they have read.

2) C a P

The class of this study met once a week for two hours during a 15-week semester. The class was run in dual mode: 1) strategy instruction during the class and 2) strategy practice through self-selected reading outside the class. As for the strategy instruction, SQ3R reading process was taught step by step during the class utilizing a course reading binder, which included unmodified academic reading selections. Then outside the class, the students applied the reading process they had learned during the class on their personal reading materials, which they selected at the beginning of the class.

First in the *Survey* step, students skim the content, organization, and reading-aid features such as footnotes, illustrations, charts, and chapter summaries before starting to read. Surveying the holistic structure of the reading enables the students to plan what and how to read. In the *Question* step following *Survey*, students write down questions next to the titles and subtitles or charts and graphs, which ultimately become their reading goals. In other words, students write down the questions they want to find out the answers to while and after reading. This encourages students not only to think actively while reading but also to predict what they are going to read beforehand.

In the *Reading* step, students are taught to utilize annotating to read actively. That is, students underline the main ideas and supporting details in the text. They also take notes of the major points, questions or their reactions in the margin. This leads the students to pay quality attention to their reading while engaged in critical thinking.

In addition to annotating while reading, students are instructed to periodically stop reading to check their understanding. For this, students take notes of major points and details in a systematic way using indentation and numbering. In this process, students are encouraged to take notes in their own words in order to demonstrate their complete understanding of the text. These notes also reveal the answers to the questions the students asked in the *Question* step.

Finally, in the *Review* step, students synthesize the major points and details they mapped out during the *Recite* step. By synthesizing what they have read, students are asked to write the summary in an outline form; that is, in a

parallel structure with hierarchical numbering to show the relationship between the main ideas and supporting details. In the Review step, students are assigned to discussion groups to share their understanding and reactions with their peers.

In sum, the SQ3R reading strategy taught in this study can be summarized in three stages: pre-reading (*Survey* and *Question*), while reading (*Read* and *Recite*), and post-reading (*Review*). Throughout this interactive process of reading, students are encouraged to think critically.

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T E R A a I R a C
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Ⅰ. INTRODUCTION

The present study was conducted to find out whether or not reflective approach has any significant effect on improving reading comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. To fulfill the purpose of the study, Iranian intermediate EFL learners at Isiran English Institute Sari Branch were randomly selected. The subjects were both males and females ranged from 18 to 27. Students in both experimental group and control group received the same condition, teacher, number of sessions, number of hours, content, pre-test and post-test, etc. The only difference was the style of teaching in which students in the experimental group received a new style of teaching method which was reflective approach while students in the control group received the conventional teaching method at the same time. Before starting the treatment, both groups received the pre-test. The post-test was administered to the peers three months after the pre-test administration. Finally, the data analysis was done through the analysis of t-test and it was revealed that the Tobs in experimental group was greater than that in control group which was great enough for the researcher to reject the first null hypothesis and answer the research question properly. Therefore, it was found out that reflective approach had significant effect on improving reading comprehension.

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1 Pa a

To accomplish the task, 80 Iranian intermediate EFL learners at Isiran English Institute Sari Branch were selected randomly by the use of simple random sampling. The subjects were both males and females studying English. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 27. And then two classes were arranged especially for teaching reading skill, and students in each class were selected randomly by the use of simple random sampling. Then, the researcher called one class as a control group and the other class as an experimental group, each one consisting of 40 subjects.

2 Ma a

Students in both groups engaged in 24-session reading comprehension classes, two sessions a week, each session for 90 minutes, and 10 passages were covered. The passages were taken from the reading comprehension book "ACTIVE Skills for Reading", 2nd Edition, Students Book 3, by Neil J. Anderson, 2008.

3. D

The design selected for this study was Quasi-Experimental Pretest Posttest Control Group Design. Therefore, the researcher employed a pre-test and a post-test for both groups, however, the experimental group received a special new style treatment while the control group followed the traditional style of reading classes.

The schematic representation for the research design can be illustrated as follows:

Groups	Pre-test	Treatment	Post-test
Control	T1 (random)		T 2
Experimental	T1 (random)	X	T 2

4. P

In order to conduct the research and to verify the research hypothesis the following steps were taken:

130 Iranian intermediate EFL learners at Isiran English Institute Sari Branch were randomly selected by the use of simple random sampling. The subjects were both males and females studying English at intermediate level. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 27. For the researcher to make sure whether the participants were at the same proficiency level, a homogenizing test including reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary which was a teacher made pilot test was administered to the students. After analyzing the data, the participants whose scores fell one standard deviation above or below the mean were selected. At last, the researcher chose 80 students who answered all the test items in this study. The rest of the participants whose scores were not at this range and did not answer to one of the tests were dropped from the study. As a result, 50 students were discarded. Therefore, the final number of the students involved in this study was 80. And then, two classes were arranged especially for teaching reading skill and students in each class were selected randomly by the use of simple random sampling. Then, the researcher called one class as a control group and the other class as an experimental group, each one consisting of 40 subjects at Isiran English Institute Sari Branch.

After that the researcher employed a pre-test and a post-test for both groups, however, the experimental group received a special new style treatment while the control group followed the traditional reading classes. Also the post-test was administered to the peers three months after the pre-test administration.

Students in both experimental group and control group received the same condition, teacher, number of sessions, number of hours, content, pre-test and post-test, etc. The only difference was the style of teaching which students in the experimental group received a new style of teaching method which was reflective approach while students in the control group received the conventional teaching method at the same time.

The strategies which were taught in the new style experimental class are as follows:

1. Reflections about language learning.
2. Consciousness-raising of language-learning strategies.

Inferring meaning (through word analysis): While I am reading, I try to determine the meaning of unknown words that seem critical to the meaning of the text.

Using background information: While I am reading, I reconsider and revise my background knowledge about the topic, based on the text's content.

Guessing the later topics: I anticipate information that will be presented later in the text.

3. Analysis of students' own strategies.
4. Analysis of language needs, present and future.
5. The students' own objectives.
6. Making preliminary plans and thinking about areas of interest.

Finally both groups received a post-test which was different from the pretest. Then the means obtained from the groups were compared through a t-test to figure out whether or not reflective approach has any significant effect on improving reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

Ⅲ. DATA ANALYSIS

1. P

Before starting the treatment, the reading comprehension pre-test was administered to the subjects of both control and experimental groups. The test contained 25 multiple choice items. The purpose of administering of this test was to ensure that the subjects in both groups were at the same level of reading comprehension. Table 4.1 shows the frequencies, percents, valid percents, and cumulative percents of control group's pretest**.**

TABLE.1. D S a P - C a E a G

		a	a		S . D a	a a	a		Ma
C G	0	5.7000	5.5000	8.00	7 .69682	9.241	7.00	4.00	41.00
E a G	0	6.8750	6.5000	9.00	8 .27163	8.420	2.00	0.00	42.00

As the above table displays, the minimum score in control group is 14 and maximum is 41 while the minimum score in experimental group is 10 and maximum is 42. On the other hand, comparing the means, medians and modes shows that the mean, median and mode of control group are 25.70, 25.50, and 18.00 respectively while the mean, median, and mode of experimental group are 26.87, 26.50, and 19.00 respectively. A usual way to indicate the significance of the difference between means of pretest in two groups is t-test. Therefore, a t-test was employed to determine whether the means of two samples were different. The outcome is displayed in table 4.2.

TABLE.2. T- P

Pre-test (C-group) – (E-group)	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences			df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
	- 1.17500	7.01605	1.10934	- 3.41884	1.06884	1.059	39	0.296

Table 4.2 shows that 0.296 > 0.05 which means the P-value 0.296 is larger than α=0.05 the level of significance and 1.059 < 2.045 which means the t-value is 1.059 which is lower than the t-critical=2.045. That means there is no significant difference in the scores of pre-test in both groups.

2. P

The researcher took the following steps after the treatment was over. At the end of the term and after conducting the treatment, the participants sat for a post-test. The way of grading was the same as pre-test. Table 4.3 presents the descriptive statistics of post-test for both groups.

TABLE .3: D S a P T C G a E a G

	N	M a	a		S . D a	Va a	Ra	M	Ma
C G	40	35.425	36.00	36.00	7.32711	53.687	29.00	18.00	47.00
E a G	40	38.200	40.00	41.00	6.71088	45.036	32.00	15.00	47.00

The above tables indicate that the mean, median, and mode of control group are 35.42, 36.00, and 36.00

respectively while the mean, median and mode of experimental group are 38.20, 40.00, and 41.00 respectively. Comparing to the pre-test, the difference between the results of subjects in control and experimental group has increased, and also the scores in the experimental group have affected significantly in comparison with the scores in the control group.

TABLE 4. T- C a E a G P -

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Differences				
Post-test (C-group) – (E-group)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
	2.7750	7.810	1.2349	5.27283	0.27717	2.247	39	0.030

In the above table, 0.030 < 0.05 means P-value is 0.030 which is lower than α= 0.05 and 2.247 > 2.045 means the t-value is 2.247 which is higher that the critical value=2.045. It shows that subjects in experimental group have surpassed their pre-test and that may be due to the treatment. To see the difference between the two treatments, the researcher applied two other t-tests between pretest and post-test in each group.

Table 4.5: T-test between pre and post-test of control group

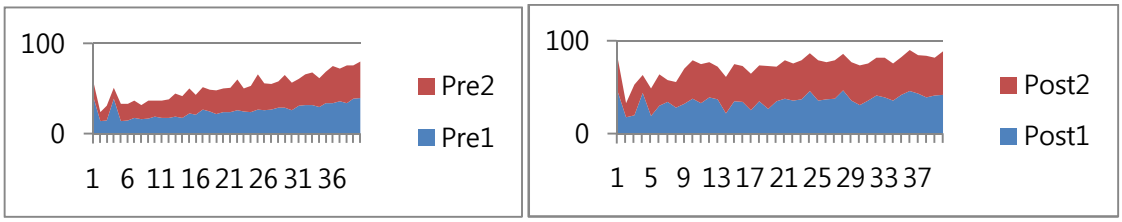
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Differences				
C. Group (Pre-test) – (Post-test)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
	9.725	5.61585	0.88794	-11.52104	-7.92896	10.952	39	.000

Table 4.6: T-test between pre and post-test of experimental group

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Differences				
E. Group (Pre-test) – (Post-test)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper		df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	-11.325	5.58564	0.88317	-13.11137	-9.53863	12.823	39	.000

In both tables, P-value is lower than the level of significance; 0.000 < 0.05. But the T_{obs} in experimental group is greater than control group; -12.823 > -10.952 which is great enough for the researcher to reject the first null

hypothesis and find out that reflective approach has significant effect on improving reading comprehension.



IV. CONCLUSION

The main concern of this study was to study this assumption of whether or not reflective approach can make any effect on reading comprehension of intermediate EFL learners.

To assure and determine any significant change in the reading comprehension of our groups of subjects; the results of performance of each group at the pretest was compared with the results of its performance at the post-test stage through applying t-test. It revealed a significant increase in the performance of subjects in experimental group; that means the subjects in experimental group benefited significantly from the treatment which was conducted. In addition, the results of the t-test enabled the researcher to reject the null hypothesis; therefore, the research question was answered appropriately.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Reflective approach seems to have an impact on the desirable noticing of reflection in terms of awareness-raising. It is worth implementing reflective approach to help L2 speakers to cope with ESL written tasks, thereby providing a means to help students improve in language and facilitate task completion. It may also be desirable to incorporate planning time and space into reflection with a view to promote the effective use of reflective approach in the language classroom. The provision of time and space for students to practice reflective approach prior to English discussions may enhance performance in the task properly.

The result and conclusions of this study indicated that level of reading proficiency of the experimental group was higher than the control group. Knowing from the previous researches that reflective approach leads to better comprehension and more successful reading. The findings of this study imply that at intermediate level explicit use of reflective approach is necessary for English readers and all readers should be given adequate opportunities to practice reflective approach.

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S06: Writing Development I

Room: College of Pharmacy 201

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Seon-Yoo Hwang (Seowon Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**G -Ba W I a a T T a EAP W** Youngwha Lee (Arizona State Univ., USA)	Sungwon Yim (Centenary College)
14:30-15:00	**Ca S P E T a L a C E W P a** Sung-Yeon Kim & Bokyoung Park (Hanyang Univ.)	Miran Yang (Dongah Institute of Media and Arts)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Sung-Yeon Kim (Hanyang Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**C E La a D a C a L a P a** Seonmin Huh & Young Mee Suh (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies & Ewha Womans Univ.)	Hye Jung Park (Chung-Ang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**T a A a W T D a a EFL A L a** Yoo-Jean Lee (Dankook Univ.)	Ok Hee Park (Pai Chai Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Kyeong-Ouk Jeong (Hannam Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**A I a Ma - a M -L R L2 A a W K a , C , a Ja a EFL L a** Chulwon Jung & Hohsung Choe (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Yoo-Jean Lee (Dankook Univ.)
16:50-17:20	**C a G K a L a L2 W T C , A a , a F** Eunkyung Hwang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Youngwha Lee (Arizona State Univ.)

G -Ba W I a a T T a EAP W

Y a L
A a S a U , USA

Ⅰ. INTRODUCTION

With an increasing number of multilingual English speakers, there are more demands on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing instruction. There are a large number of international undergraduate, graduate students, early arrival immigrant students with limited ESL instruction and academic literacy, and international scholars engaging in advanced academic writing (Tardy, 2009). In their disciplines and academic social spaces, they are required to have the ability to construct knowledge and write in English.

For teaching EAP writing, genre has been an effective tool. Genre-based instruction provides "a valuable resource (Hyland, 2007, p. 148), contributes to "learners' development of writing expertise" (Tardy, 2009, p. 6), and "operates to support or assist an academic or research career" (Swales & Feak, 2000, p.8). Also, it can help students "master the functions and linguistics conventions of texts" (Hyon, 1996, p. 698).

Genre studies still remain at the theoretical level in that writers' development of genre knowledge has not been thoroughly examined in classrooms (Tardy, 2009). Therefore, my research questions is: how can genre-based writing instruction be effectively implemented in EAP writing class? In order to see how genre helps teach EAP writing, it is necessary for examining how genre is placed in the theoretical and pedagogical contexts. This study will discuss how each term of EAP writing, genre knowledge, and genre pedagogy is examined and what and how to teach genre-based writing.

Ⅱ. ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES(EAP) WRITING

EAP writing helps students have the academic communication abilities (Feak & Caplan, 2013). The writing classrooms can offer students a space for developing written communication skills (Tardy, 2009). However, EAP is sometimes used interchangeably with other terms such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Professional Communication (EPC), or Intensive English Program (IEP). EAP, along with EOP, belongs to ESP. EAP is for academic English, but EOP is for the workplace English skills. Hyon (1996) describes that ESP consists of EAP and EPC, so EOP and EPC seemingly have the same meaning. IEP is sometimes used as EAP among language teachers. However, IEP is for students who study English for various purposes including the one for preparing for undergraduate or graduate study.

Ⅲ. GENRE AND GENRE KNOWLEDGE

Genre is "a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations" (Hyland, 2004b, p. 4; Hyland, 2008, p. 544). Genres are "typified discourses", or "repeated events through the same practices" (Tardy, 2009, p. 12) and raise "an awareness of texts' forms, functions, and social contexts" (p. 6). Genre research is based on texts and contexts, and students aim for participating in discourse situations (Hyland, 2003). Genre is considered as "social interaction" (Hyland, 2004a, p.12) and "a social approach to researching text" (p. 32). Genre represents socially recognized ways of using language (Hyland, 2003). Tardy (2009) also considers genre as "social actions" (p. 20), and genre can "contain traces of prior texts in their shape, content, and ideology" (p. 20). Genre is not only repeated patterns or text conventions, but Tardy (2009) includes the scope of previous text and its implications.

Australian genre theorists consider genres as a social process, which tries to achieve a purpose (Hyon, 1996). Genre is a written form of what is exemplified into words through a process of how ideas are formed. This view aligns with Johns (2008)'s perspective that genre is purposeful and responsive. For example, the writer creates the texts with the particular purposes, such as invitation or making arguments. Genre is also social and cognitive (Johns, 2008). Genre can even include a schema that will possibly be actualized into a text. For instance, if the writer has particular genre schema on an abstract, he or she has to adapt the schema into tangible texts in order to write an abstract for a specific conference.

Genre is also described as "the most social constructivist" (Johns, 2008, p. 237). Social constructivist perspective lies in the middle of individual and social perspective. Genre is an abstract space where the writer's

individual goal or purpose is met or satisfied within the conventions of the particular communities, situations, cultures, or contexts. Writers' individual goals may not be created entirely voluntarily, but once they enter the particular community, they are obliged to write a specific genre in order to function properly in the community. A genre text is visible, but it conveys invisible ideologies of the community and individual.

Broadly, genre knowledge includes text content, organization, context, purpose, form, audience, and grammar. It also involves text functions, conventions, constraints, sociocultural knowledge, cultures, and institutions (Hyland, 2004b). Tardy (2009) selects and categorizes genre expertise into formal, process, subject matter, and rhetorical knowledge. Formal knowledge focuses on "conventionalized form" (p.21), and process knowledge refers to "procedural practices" (p.21). Rhetorical knowledge refers to "genre's intended purposes and an awareness of the dynamics of persuasion" (p. 21), and subject-matter knowledge refers to "a writer's knowledge of the relevant content" (p. 21- 22). Genre expertise contains the writer's disciplinary knowledge, purpose and context of the text, the process of how a genre is realized, and its outcome with set of conventions. The four knowledge should work together in order to have complete genre expertise. Within the general genre expertise, academic genre knowledge is placed in the disciplinary knowledge, academic community, and written communication skills (Feak & Caplan, 2013).

Ⅳ. GENRE APPROACH

There are three dominant approaches of genre theories and pedagogies: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), North America New Rhetoric studies, and Australian Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Hyon, 1996). ESP researchers focus on form, but New Rhetoric researchers focus on social purposes or actions, or contextual components. New Rhetoricians argue that understanding only the text feature does not provide the complete grasp of genre. SFL researchers focus on language functions (Hyon, 1996). The students SFL researchers work with are novice students, but ESP researchers focus on the advanced level of students in higher education. New Rhetoricians focus on mainstream students rather than second language writer students. Each approach has different targeted student groups, so they may have some limitations. However, the advantages of each approach can be selectively chosen or integrated for the specific teaching context.

Ⅴ. GENRE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Genre-based writing instruction provides useful teaching resource and helps students develop academic writing literacy. As genre is explicitly taught and systematically explained, instruction and outcome can clearly be identified. Students are able to easily acquire genre conventions. Students can borrow text features from analyzing genre texts (Tardy, 2009). When teaching genre, writing instructors should consider students' individual differences such as "cultural profiles and perspectives, linguistic backgrounds, educational experiences, geopolitical context" (Tardy, 2009, p.275). When creating a course design, instructors should consider students' needs, current proficiency levels, learning goals or objectives, and teaching contexts (Hyland, 2004b). Instructors should support students within a contextual framework (Hyland, 2003). The context does not only include the local context, or the ESL or EFL context, but also sociocultural context, which is referred to as "how written texts are socially specific and how they are underpinned by ideologies and values" (Hyland, 2004 b, p. 108) Even if there are some difficult aspects of teaching genre, genre-based writing instruction can help students effectively engage in academic social activities and interact with their genre texts.

Genre learning does not only include "text forms and types", but also "social contexts, actions, and goals" (Tardy, 2009, p.12). The existing community members engaging in genre writing can communicate each other, but those who are outside of the community or novice writers have challenges for approaching the genre (Tardy, 2009). Genre can unite the community members, but it can also become a barrier for the early arrival members. With gradual exposure to the community and genre knowledge, writers can develop genre strategies and identify how they can share knowledge in their disciplines. Writers initially have nascent genre knowledge, but they gradually develop genre understanding. They can build up experiences in various contexts and expand genre expertise. When students engage in genre knowledge, they need to have awareness of texts' discourses (Hyland, 2008). According to Johns (2008), genre awareness helps students engage in "the rhetorical flexibility necessary for adapting their socio-cognitive genre knowledge to ever-evolving contexts" (p. 238). Developing the rhetorical flexibility, students can also participate in genre acquisition, which facilitates "ability to reproduce a text type" (p. 238). Genre awareness and acquisition can empower students to have thorough genre expertise.

Ⅴ. G a

According to Tardy (2009), building a genre-rich environment will provide students with circumstances in which they will be exposed to various genre resources. This will give students an opportunity to engage in genre activities such as text analysis and discussions. Students can navigate how text is related to context. However, more

examples should be shown for how these suggested practices are actually implemented in the writing classroom. Johns (2008) suggests two alternative genre pedagogies: interdisciplinary learning communities and macro-genres. In learning communities, the writing instructor and the disciplinary faculty member read undergraduate students' texts and worked together in students' writing class. The disciplinary instructor was very supportive. They told students course objectives and the rationale for reading assignments and provided a sample essay of the writing assignments. The students' writing assignment and activities were guided separately by the writing instructor and the disciplinary faculty. The students submitted the separate essay to each of them. The disciplinary instructor evaluated "content, analysis, and use of sources" and the writing instructor evaluated "revisions and peer reviews as well as the text quality, coherence, and editing of the final paper" (p. 248). This program has an ideal learning environment, but it is not always possible to have such an enriched learning atmosphere on all campuses. The support from the faculty, administration, and institution is important in order to have this learning community. The second promising alternative Johns (2008) suggests is macro-genres created by Carter (2007), which categorizes four writing types according to the disciplines, or response types. However, there are always genre types that do not fit to any of the categories. Learning communities and macro-genres are suggested for undergraduate students, so there are different concerns when applying these for graduate level students. Another problem raised in the genre-based writing instruction is that genre-based writing instruction contradicts process-based writing instruction. However, each approach can operate together. Genre pedagogy can focus on text features, and process pedagogy can focus on writing process of using the features (Racelis & Matsuda, 2013).

Genre pedagogy should be geared toward how to help students develop genre expertise and how to design genre-based writing environment (Tardy, 2009). Writing instructors should help students transfer genre strategies to their disciplinary courses and plan with firmly established genre theories. However, no single theory works for every teaching situation and context (Racelis & Matsuda, 2013). Johns (2011) addresses the challenges specific to the EFL context, examining if there are any differences depending on the ESL or EFL context, or students' different academic or proficiency levels. The EFL instructors assert that their students need instruction on genre text structures and on the traditional rhetorical modes such as comparison, contrast, or classification (Johns, 2011). Instructors need to gather insights from different theories and adapt them into their own teaching context. The current theory can render a wide range of possible solutions, and instructors need to modify, revise, or create their teaching strategies for their local context. Writing instructors need to choose the teaching practice that best fits their own classroom and create their personal pedagogy (Racelis & Matsuda, 2013).

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Ca S a P E T a L a C E W P a

S -Y K a B Pa [3]
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I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been increased attention to understanding the writing process. Research studies on L2 writing in particular have focused on the role of feedback in writing skill acquisition. The topics addressed in these studies have been mostly concerned with how L2 writing skill development is affected by different types of feedback: content-focused or form-focused (Hendrickson, 1978; Lalande, 1982), implicit or explicit feedback (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lalande, 1982; Lee, 1997). These studies, however, have been limited in scope since they have mainly examined quantitative changes in writing test scores before and after reception of different types of feedback. In other words, not many studies have explored the "real" writing process EFL writers go through, particularly focusing on how L2 writers incorporate feedback into the revision or redrafting process. Therefore, this study aims to explore how L2 writers, particularly prospective English teachers, use feedback to improve their writing and thus develop their writing proficiency in an academic learning community.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The teaching of writing has shifted from a product-oriented to a process-oriented approach. Unlike product-oriented approaches that merely reinforce the acquisition of linguistic structures, process-oriented writing instruction views writing as a nonlinear, recursive process. The shift in writing instruction has also changed the focus of writing research. Many researchers now pursue answers to the question of what writers actually do when writing. rather than what their final products are.

One of the exemplary studies that examined the process of writing is Chelala's (1981) study that focused on writer behaviors (cited in Krapels, 1990). Chelala identified the different behaviors writers display and classified them into effective and ineffective ones. Another study on the L2 writing process, Zamel (1982) reported that the L2 writing process was not much different from that of L1 writing and, based on this finding, suggested some pedagogical implications. In contrast, Raimes (1987) indicated that there were differences between L1 and L2 writers and warned against applying L1 writing instruction to L2 setting.s.

Other studies have paid special attention to writers' revision behaviors and how their behaviors differed according to learner proficiency level (Pianko, 1979; Sommers, 1980; Zamel, 1983). These studies noted that writers' revision behaviors varied according to proficiency in terms of the amount of time allocated to essays, the frequency of revision, and ways of utilizing feedback in the revision process.

In process-oriented writing, feedback is a crucial factor that can shape the outcome of the revision. Particularly notable are the types of feedback teachers provide for their students. Teachers can play a key role in developing learners' writing skill by providing feedback that helps them to reflect on their errors and to use appropriate revision strategies. Teacher feedback can help to draw learner attention to global errors or organizational issues and facilitate their writing skill development. Despite the fact that the teacher factor is crucial for the success of writing instruction in an EFL context (Leki, 2000), Korean English teachers often lack writing skills as well as pedagogical content knowledge: how to teach and test English writing (Lee & Shim, 2011). Their limited competence and experience in teaching writing then negatively affects their attitudes toward writing and makes them reluctant to teach writing in a school context. Consequently, the teaching of writing has been neglected in school contexts including higher education settings.

This has led to a paucity of research on classroom writing teachers. The absence of investigations into L2 writing teachers has been noted as a problem (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007). For a change in the climate of classroom writing

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instruction, it is important to engage teachers in the process of writing so that they can enhance their writing skills as well as develop an awareness of what constitutes good writing instruction. To achieve these goals, classroom teachers, whether they are in-service or pre-service, should be encouraged to experience process writing. While drafting and redrafting their texts from feedback, teachers can have cognitive and reflective engagement with the writing process.

To discover how these potential benefits work in a teacher-led learning community, the study observed the process of writing and rewriting pre-service teachers have experienced. Specifically, this study focuses on how these pre-service teachers perceived a content-based writing experience and how it affected their writing skill development. Particularly, the study aims to investigate how these teachers approach the revision process with respect to content-related (accuracy and appropriateness), organization-related (structure), and form-related (proper vocabulary use and grammar) feedback.

III. METHOD

This study aims to examine the effects of content-based writing practice on pre-service teachers' writing proficiency with a specific emphasis on how they incorporate teacher feedback into their revision process. The research question posed for the study was: Does content-based writing practice affect the pre-service teachers' writing proficiency? How does feedback in terms of content, organization and form affect their revision?

The participants of this study were six college students who were female and English Education majors. Three of them were juniors and the other three were seniors; all of them intended to enter English teaching as a profession upon graduation. Thus, they were in need of programs that could help with their writing proficiency development. To become teachers, they have to pass a teacher certification exam that measures the candidates' content knowledge in the form of an English writing test. For this reason, the students were highly motivated to participate in a learning community specially constructed for English writing practice. The participants' writing proficiency levels measured in the pretest ranged from intermediate to advanced. The writing test used for the pretest asked learners to take a position on an issue that required decision-making. In addition to the writing test, two types of assessment tools were prepared to measure the students' productive vocabulary knowledge: the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (PVLT, Nation, 2001) and the Productive Vocabulary Use Task (PVUT, Park, 2012).

With respect to data collection, the pre-service teachers were asked to complete a questionnaire as well as take the writing test and the PVLT and the PVUT as a part of the pretest. Then, they performed writing tasks for eight weeks. Each week they were introduced to a different writing topic specifically related to their field of study, and asked to write essays twice on the same topic as well as keep a learning log. Namely, the students wrote their first drafts, as to which they received feedback from a native English teacher. The feedback offered in the first stage was mostly about content and organization. After making changes, the students resubmitted their revised drafts for additional feedback. These then were proofread again for mechanical errors or grammatical mistakes. After eight weeks of writing practice, the students were asked to complete, for posttests, a package of research instruments: the writing test, the vocabulary test, and the questionnaires.

IV. RESULTS

All the first drafts and the revised drafts the prospective English teachers had produced were collected and compared to examine their revision behaviors, i.e., how they incorporated feedback into their revision process. The findings of the study indicate that the participants appreciated the English writing practice mediated by teacher feedback., and that significant differences were noted between their first and revised drafts in terms of content, organization, and form.

This was because the students endeavored to make changes for better drafts. To improve their original drafts, they consulted books, conducted research on the Internet, refined ambiguous concepts, restructured texts for logical coherence and so on. Although these students highly valued content-focused feedback, they perceived content-related revision as difficult and time consuming. In contrast, the students were prone to respond quickly to and benefit from form-focused feedback including organization-related feedback. The teacher's form-focused feedback helped them to build a more coherent text structure and use proper vocabulary and discourse markers.

In terms of language, they were encouraged to use more academic and technical terms, such as "*interlanguage*" or "*fossilization.*" Interestingly, while the participants reported that they benefited most from feedback regarding vocabulary, they also indicated their feeling of confusion when the feedback was implicit. The students were not certain

about what exactly the teacher's feedback addressed: content, vocabulary, or grammar. Even though the participants were English Education majors who were highly proficient in English, they experienced difficulty in incorporating implicit feedback into their revision process.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study explored how content-based writing practice influenced prospective English teachers' writing skill development. Particularly, the study focused on how the students responded to teacher feedback by examining their revision behaviors. The results of this study indicate that the participants experienced difficulty in interpreting content-focused feedback, or implicit feedback on organization- and form-related problems. Despite the challenges these participants experienced, they believed that their writing improved due to the well-balanced feedback covering all the three categories: content, organization, and form. This study suggests the importance of revising and redrafting with the help of well-balanced feedback. Feedback, when carefully planned and appropriately balanced, can help learners to improve their writing skills. Thus, L2 writing teachers should consider balanced approaches in the provision of feedback. In addition, implicit feedback should also be provided along with explicit feedback to allow flexibility and to improve learner autonomy in applying revision strategies. Furthermore, this study highlights the importance of other factors such as the qualifications of feedback providers. Regardless of native or non-native English speakers, it is important that English writing teachers have competence in both content knowledge and language skills.

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C E La a D a C a L a P a

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I. INTRODUCTION

This study investigates how comics spark Korean elementary school students' literacy practices and students' active discussion about the social issues addressed by the researchers. Some researchers argue the strong potential of comics for academic purposes since they lead English language learners to feel safe to articulate their experiences in more meaningful manners (e.g., Krashen, 1993). Others, on the other hand, concern about the appropriate nature of unauthorative or nontraditional materials for teaching English. Also an issue around pedagogical approach with popular media including graphic novels or comics, a teacher's direct guidance to think critically about the cultural representations and stereotypes helped students not to accept the texts as they are. Furthermore, students were able to articulate the authors' cultural beliefs about different cultures included in the comics. Within this research, the researchers argue how these nontraditional reading materials can situate students as critical thinkers about social issues presented in different comics, a form of popular culture. A teacher research with 9 elementary school students in Korea (5 male fifth graders and 4 female sixth graders) will portray the curriculum and teaching practices that support students' critical literacy practices that broaden their cultural knowledge and critique the dominant stereotypes about different cultural groups. Comics opened an interesting space that students could actively bring their everyday interactions. This presentation introduces one practitioner research on teaching comics for English language development and teaching critical literacy practices that facilitate students' understanding of ideological constructs from comics that portray particular perspective to interpret the world.

II. PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Within this research, we use the terms 'comics' and 'graphic novels' interchangeably. Comics or graphic novels attracted many scholars to think of those as a great resource for education (Krashen, 1993; Norton, 2005). In ESL educational contexts, these cultural resources become an important learning tool or means to be a part of new communities for English Language Learners (Duff, 2002; McKay & Wong, 1996; Miller, 2003; Norton, 2000; Tosi & Leung, 1999). According to these studies, students can easily be accustomed to new culture and become accepted as English readers through exchanging cartoons with their English speaking counterparts. The scholars argued that ESL learners in these studies made use of reading cartoons as one way to become a part of English speaking community. In addition, cartoons play an important role in raising English language leaners' interaction with their English speaking friends. Norton and Vanderheyden (2004) illustrated how Archie comics facilitated Asian learners' development of knowledge about western cultures and became a means to develop friendships with their English speaking friends. We then wonder if the same findings would apply when introducing cartoons for English language learners in Korea, where students learn English as a school subject and do not use English in diverse social contexts. This study introduces how cartoons become core curriculum resources to teach students critical reading practices and how students discuss different representations of culture and society as a tool to develop their English practices.

III. METHODOLOGY

Two researchers worked on two groups of elementary school students (5 male fifth graders and 4 female sixth graders). One researcher took a role of English reading teacher and another researcher took field notes and interviewed both parents and students. To design a literacy curriculum, the two researchers had several consultation meetings to research different cartoons, to design lesson plans, and to reflect on each class session, and to revise the plan for the next class. [Table 1] includes a brief curriculum grid:

[Table 1] Cartoon Curriculum Grid

Materials	Goals	Discussion Types
Diary of a Wimpy Kid #2 (Title: Rodrick Rules)	To understand students′ family/ school lives To construct a literary community	Comparing/contrasting with their own life experiences (collective poster creation) Writing your own diary about your school lives (homework)
Diary of a Wimpy Kid # 5 (Title: The Ugly Truth)	To practice critical social practices (to critically reflect on social issues portrayed in texts/ its connections to students′ world views)	Understanding power issues reflected on the texts about cultures/our everyday practices at school or at home (Oral discussion with short writing/ drawing)
Big Nate #2 (Title: Big Nate Makes the Grade)	To extend on students′ personal lives at school To articulate their ways to be critical about school culture To identify cultural differences and similarities between Korea and America	Understanding power issues reflected on the texts about cultures/our everyday practices at school
The Adventures of TinTin: TinTin in America	To analyze the main character′s decisions on particular situations To connect to their knowledge about different cultural groups and what the text has us believe about those groups (Stereotypes of different cultural groups)	Creating a summary of the story in drawing Looking for the evidence for Stereotypes
Geronimo Stilton Graphic Novel (Title: The Discovery of America)	To continue with above on cultural stereotypes and what′s taken for granted from the text	Analyzing the characters and juxtaposing them with American history (Read-aloud and writing activity on the characters)
Archie Cartoon	To analyze gender stereotypes portrayed in the stories and to question the dominant representations of gender	Analyzing the magazines on gender stereotypes and connecting it to some episodes from Archie (Oral discussion and writing activities on gender)

We met for 16 one-hour class sessions to discuss 6 graphic novels. All the class sessions with the students are video-taped and transcribed for data analysis. For the part of this presentation, we will focus on particular classroom discourse that showed the evidence of students' critical reflection about culture and society. We will highlight some moments that the students thought beyond what the cartoons asked them to believe or asked them to accept by challenging the authors' perspectives.

IV. FINDINGS

We would like to introduce the parts of the data, focusing on how students and a teacher discussed cartoons to unpack racial and gender-biased representation. We interpret this type of reading as critical reading practices that students challenge the dominant representations of culture.

The first data set is from the discussion of TinTin, the main character who looks like a teenager and whose job is a detective. In the cartoon, TinTin is a very talented, intelligent, and never-die character, dealing with terrible accidents, wrestling with gangsters who try to kill him. Interestingly, TinTin is a white male and all the gangsters who play opposite him seem to be from Hispanics or Latin backgrounds. In this particular episode, Native Americans are described as very barbaric, silly, and stupid, while white people are all business men and prompt to modern technology and culture. It is noticeable how different races are stereotyped in certain ways, reflecting well how our society usually believe and treat people, according to our misconception of racial backgrounds. Teacher asked students to analyze TinTin as a character and think of his characteristics as a detective. Then, teacher had students clarify racial stereotypes portrayed in this cartoon.

In our second example, we discussed Archie book, which is about a teenage male character. It is interesting how gender is described in this cartoon. We had students analyze the different male and female characters to think about who has more authority, power, control over the situations. We also had students unpack the author's ways to portray gender, so that students interpreted how male characters seemed to be believed as macho, physically strong, naughty, while females are usually not good at sports, worry about their appearances and weak. By articulating those gender stereotypes, students showed several pieces of evidence of critical reflection and discussed the alternative cases that might not fit into the dominant representation of gender in their everyday lives. This endeavor broadened the perspectives of the students to accept more diverse ways of being in the world and developed more critical reading practices that helped them to accept diversity in more mature manners.

This presentation will conclude with the strong need to introduce popular cultural materials, such as cartoons or graphic novels as a way to develop students' English skills as well as their critical reading practices. This will help students to be able to have more ownership in their thinking and reflections about different cultural portrayals in different popular cultures.

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T a A a W T D a a EFL A L a

Y -J a L
Da U

I. INTRODUCTION

In many EFL classrooms, dramas have been used to increase students' motivation and achievement. Dramas were found to be useful especially for young children to enhance their listening, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary ability as well as to increase cultural understanding (Bengtsson, 2008; Lim & Baek, 2009; Park, 2009; Yum & Kahng, 2007). Through reading a script, analyzing new vocabulary and expressions, creating a dialogue, and acting out, students' oral proficiency and script writing ability have been proven to be developed. However, in most of the previous studies, dramas were mainly used as a class material for the whole semester (Kim & Sung, 2011; Lee, 2010), and useful expressions, cultural differences, script writing, story summarizing, and adding opinions were taught. No research has focused on using drama as a supporting tool only for a writing class in developing students' academic writing skills. In order to discover the effectiveness of using dramas in writing, this study aimed at finding answers for the following two research questions:

1. Which strategy is more effective in improving students' academic English writing ability between traditional English writing and English writing through dramas? Are there any differences between higher and lower level students?
2. How do the students perceive of the class of English writing through dramas in developing their writing ability?

II. METHODOLOGY

Forty nine EFL university students in a basic writing class were recruited for this study. They were divided into two different class sections: 25 were in one class, and 24 were in the other class. All were freshmen who had never experienced learning English essay writing. Both class section students were given the identical writing task for the pre- and post-tests (i.e. They were asked to write about two important qualities of the best friend and to provide reasons and examples to support their opinion.) in order to examine their writing levels at the beginning of the semester and to observe their changes in writing ability throughout the semester. An analytic rubric which had five categories (i.e. content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics) was used to assess the students' writings. Based on the pre-test result, both class section students' writing ability was found to be similar (No statistically significant difference was found between the two class sections' pre-test scores.). Each class section was then divided into higher and lower proficiency level groups, and the pre-test scores between the two higher level groups and between the two lower level groups were respectively similar and statistically not significant.

During a 15-week semester, the students were taught how to write a good academic essay and were supposed to write a narrative and an opinion essay. They were asked to revise each of their essays at least one time. The experimental group (N=25) was taught with dramas that the students were interested in as supporting resources for a textbook, whereas the control group (N=24) was taught in a traditional way by using only the textbook. The higher and lower level students' writing processes in the experimental and control groups were analyzed to see if any differences were found between the two groups of higher and lower level students in developing their writing ability. At the end of the semester, a survey questionnaire was provided in order to understand how the students perceived of using dramas for English writing.

III. RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

The pre- and post- writing test results and essay writings were analyzed. Regardless of higher and lower levels, it was found that the experimental group improved their overall writing ability much more than the control group. They

also provided positive comments on the drama-based writing class. It is thus concluded that using dramas as supporting materials for a textbook could definitely help EFL adult learners become motivated and improve academic writing skills.

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A I a Ma - a M -L R L2 A a W K a , C , a Ja a EFL L a

C J a H C
Ha U F S

I. INTRODUCTION

Kaplan (1996, 1972) argued that the rhetoric style of Oriental writing is indirect and round-about, whereas that of Anglo-European writing is direct and linear. Connor (1996), however, criticized his pioneering studies, noting that he oversimplified the concept of East Asian rhetoric for dismissing linguistic and cultural differences in writing among related languages, that is, for including Chinese, Thai, and Korean Speakers in one Oriental Group (p. 16). In fact, Hinds (1990) compared the macro-level rhetoric development in the newspaper articles between four Oriental countries: Korea, China, Japan and Thailand, demonstrating that a very similar rhetoric, so called "quasi-inductive" was found. Since then, very few studies, nevertheless, have been devoted to a further examination of the possible L2 rhetoric differences as well as similarities in the societies, where different languages and different social climates exist, within the same cultural background. To fill the gap, this study explored the L2 rhetoric in TOFEL argumentative essays between three East Asian countries: Korea, China and Japan. Two research questions were examined as follows: (1) Where do East Asian learners locate their main ideas in their L2 writing? Are there any similarities and differences between them in the location of their main ideas in their writing? (2) Which supporting details do the writers use in each East Asia country to support their main ideas? Are there any similarities and differences between them in the use of the supporting details?

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

In order to answer the research questions, a total of three hundred argumentative essays—one hundred for each country—were collected. The argumentative essays for this study were written for the *independent* task in TOFEL writing section. The average scores of the three hundred essays are approximately 3.5, which means that most of them were written by mid-advanced EFL learners. Two different ways are used to collect the Korean samples. First, a private TOEFL academy in Korea gathered 40 TOFEL samples of the Korean EFL learners, who were preparing to study abroad and the academy sent me the writing data (a total of 40 essays) through e-mail. Second, a group of 60 college students, who were taking an essay writing class, composed the TOFEL samples. Two different ways were also used to collect the Chinese samples. A Korean-American, who taught TOFEL writing to Chinese students, contacted one of his former colleges in a private institute in China. He sent me the writing data via e-mail (a total of 40 essays). Second, one of the TOFEL scoring websites, where anyone can have access to scored TOFEL sample essays, provided sixty writing samples to me. All TOFEL essays were written by Chinese writers (a total of 60 essays). In addition, one way was used to collect the Japanese samples in the same website, where I collected the Chinese TOFFEL essays.

2. Da a A a P

To answer the first research question, it is necessary to closely examine the location of the main idea. Hirose's framework has been regarded as one of the best to look at the location of the main idea; therefore, I adopted her idea. Revising and modifying Kubota's original framework (1998b), she classified as follows: *Explanation* (the writer's opinion precedes the supporting details), *Specification* (the writer's opinion and a preview statement of the supporting details are followed by the supporting details), and *Induction* (the supporting details precedes the writer's opinion) (Hirose, 2003). Hirose (2003), nevertheless, did not find any evidence of *Specification*, and most of all, regardless of whether a writer previews what he or she delivers to support his or her main idea, it can be regarded as *Explanation*, in

that a writer clearly expresses his or her opinion at the initial position. For this reason,, I simplified these three types of macro-rhetoric development into two types: *Explanation* and *Induction*. To answer the second research question, it is essential to closely examine what types of supporting details the writers used to support their main ideas. Following and modifying Park (2003)'s framework, I closely investigated all of the TOFEL samples, classified ten supporting details: (1) *Exemplification* (Ex), (2) C*itation (Cit),* (3) *Common Misconception and Truth* (CMT), (4) *Question and Answer* (QA), (5) *Anecdote* (Anec), *(6) Personal Experience* (PE) , (7) *Mentioning Advantages (*MA), (8) *Personal Preference* (PP), (9) *Current Phenomenon* (CP), and (10) *Imagination* (Ima)

Ⅲ. RESULTS

1. Ma -L R Ea A a C

Table.1 below demonstrates the numbers of each East Asian country's macro-level rhetoric development.

Ta 1.T N (a) Ma -L R Ea A a L a						
T (L a)		K a		C		Ja a
Explanation		98 (98%)		87 (87%)		92 (92%)
Induction		0 (0%)		8 (8%)		5 (5%)
Obscure		2 (2%)		5 (5%)		3 (3%)
T a		100 (100%)		100 (100%)		100 (100%)

Interestingly, macro-rhetoric similarities between East Asian learners were found. Most East Asian writers showed the *deductive* style, which was not considered the traditional East Asian macro-rhetoric development despite a little difference between these countries. First, the Korean writers (98%) mostly expressed their main ideas at the initial position, followed by the Japanese writers (92%), and the Chinese writers (87%). Second, the Chinese writers located their main ideas at the conclusion more than the Korean writers (0%) and the Japanese writers (5%). Third, the Chinese writers (5%) did not express their main ideas at all more often than the Korean writers (2%) and the Japanese writers (3%). For this result, L2 rhetoric instruction seems to mostly influence the macro-level rhetoric development of the East Asian writers. These writers, however, appear to have developed the deductive way, for several reasons, such as L2 rhetoric instruction and westernization in all East Asian countries

2. M -L R Ea A a C

2.1. F D : Ja a -

The table 2 below demonstrates the numbers (percentage) of each East Asian country's micro-level rhetoric development between three East Asian learners.

Ta 2.T N (P a) M -L R Ea A a L a						
T	K a		C		Ja a	
Exemplification	14 (5.92%)	⑧	7 (3.65%)	⑨	22 (13.50%)	③
Citation	25 (10.56%)	④	16 (8.33%)	⑤	4 (2.45%)	⑩
Common Misconception and Truth	21 (8.86%)	⑥	1 (0.52%)	⑩	4 (2.45%)	⑩
Question and Answer	12 (5.06%)	⑨	12 (6.25%)	⑥	11 (6.75%)	⑥
Anecdote	23 (9.70%)	⑤	17 (8.85%)	④	7 (4.29%)	⑧
Personal Experience	37 (15.61%)	②	37 (19.27%)	②	40 (24.54%)	
Mentioning Advantage	48 (20.25%)	①	60 (31.25%)	①	20 (12.28%)	④
Personal Preference	15 (6.31%)	⑦	10 (5.21%)	⑦	35 (21.47%)	
Current Phenomenon	35 (14.78%)	③	25 (13.02)%	③	12 (7.46%)	⑤
Imagination	7 (2.95%)	⑩	7 (3.65%)	⑧	8 (4.91%)	⑦
T a	237 (100%)		192 (100%)		163 (100%)	
*Note: Each circled number indicates the frequency ranking.						

This table shows that the Korean and the Chinese writers prefer to use *Mentioning Advantage, Personal Experience* and *Current Phenomenon*, while the Japanese writers prefer to use *Personal Experience*, *Personal Preference*, and *Exemplification* to support their main ideas. Distinct differences were also found in the usage of *Personal Preference, Personal Experience, Citation, Anecdote,* and *Common Misconception and Truth* between these countries. We can see that the Japanese writers used *Personal Preference* to support their main ideas, more than any other East Asian writers. In addition, it is also found that the Japanese writers used much more Personal Experience, despite the fact that many East Asian writers used *Personal Experience*. It can be interpreted that the overall writing instruction in Japan, which generally focused on the expression and the self-reflection of the learners, has contributed to the high usage of *Personal Preference* in the Japanese L2 samples. Considering this, it is understandable that they also rely less on *Citation* or *Anecdote* except for their personal stories, compared to the other countries. Taking this into account, we can define that the Japanese writers seem more *individualistic* than other East Asian writers.

2.2. S D : T a S C a a A K a EFL L a a C EFL L a

The Korean and the Chinese seem to share many similarities; however, the difference was found in the different usage of sources of Citation and Anecdote. First, the table 3 demonstrates the numbers (percentage) of six sources of *Citation* between the Korean learners and the Chinese learners.

Ta 3. T N (P a) S C a

S	K a	C
Expert	2 (5.88%)	1 (5.89%)
Research	12 (35.30%)	2 (11.76%)
Proverb	8 (23.53%)	9 (52.94%)
Senior	10 (29.41%)	3 (17.65%)
Celebrity	1 (2.94%)	2 (11.76%)
Mass Media	1 (2.94%)	0 (0%)
T a	34 (100%)	17 (100%)

Note: All citations are counted (including duplication even in one Argumentative Essays)

Lee and Choe (2012) mentioned that Korean EFL raters considered *objective data* appropriate to support their main ideas. Based on their idea, it can be interpreted that despite the fact that Korea shares many cultural similarities with China, the Korean writers are more accustomed to using *objective data* than Chinese writers. In contrast, it is also found that many Chinese writers used *Proverb* very much, compared to the other types of *Citation*. Matalene (1985) pointed out that Chinese writers had a tendency to depend on socially appealing knowledge such as *proverbs*, *idioms*, *maxims*, *literary texts/quotes*, *allusions*, and *analogues*. We, therefore, can say that *Proverb* has been considered the traditional socially appealing knowledge in the written discourse in China. In sum, it appears that modern Chinese writers still prefer to use Proverb to support their main ideas. Compared to China, the different writing instruction and the writing conventions in Korea influenced the micro-level L2 rhetoric of the Korean writers to use *Research* as well as *Proverb* to support their main ideas. The table 4 also demonstrates the numbers (percentage) of five sources of Anecdote between the Korean learners and the Chinese learners.

Ta .4 T N (P a) F S A

S	K a	C
Family, Friend and Acquaintance	19 (82.61%)	7 (41.18%)
Circumstance	1 (4.35%)	3 (17.65%)
Celebrity	3 (13.04%)	3 (17.65%)
Fictional Story	0 (0%)	2 (11.76%)
Historical Fact	0 (0%)	2 (11.76%)

T a		23 (100%)		17 (100%)

Compared to the Korean writers, they used various sources of *Anecdote*. It is found that the Chinese writers used *Family, Friends and Acquaintances*, *Circumstance, Celebrity, Fictional Story, and Historical Fact*. We can say that except for *Family, Friends and Acquaintances*, the other sources are deeply related to the socially shared-knowledge. As we previously discussed, contrary to Korean society, it seems that China has still kept their traditional rhetoric manner in their L2 writing. It appears that this phenomenon is associated with the different political atmosphere between the two East Asian countries. It can be interpreted that the communist ideology in China continuously maintains the conformity to the society, which is similar to the social value under Confucianism. Considering this, it is also understandable that this political condition caused Chinese writers to less use *Common Misconception and Truth,* which could be regarded as a standard of revolt in the society to support their main ideas. As a result, it is likely that the Chinese writers used *Circumstance, Celebrity, Fictional Story, and Historical Fact*, which are relevant with the shared-knowledge as well as the stories of their family, friend, and acquaintance.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

This study has closely investigated the macro-level rhetoric and the micro-level rhetoric in L2 argumentative essays of East Asian writers from Korea, China, and Japan. Three hundred TOFEL essays─one hundred for each country─were collected. For the macro-level rhetoric, the location of the main idea was examined. The result reveals that ~~the~~ most writers in each country located their main ideas at the initial position: the Korean (98%), the Chinese (87%), and the Japanese (92%), not showing many differences between these countries. With regard to this phenomenon, it can be interpreted that L2 instruction, which emphasized the linear pattern, and the westernization in modern East Asian countries can be contributed to the overall deductive style in their English writing.

For the micro-level rhetoric, the types of supporting details, which the East Asian writers used, were analyzed. Interestingly, it proved that rhetoric differences existed between these countries. First, the Japanese were very *individualistic*, compared to the Koreans and the Chinese, in that many of them preferred their personal expressions─a total of 46.01─*Personal Preference* (21.47%), and *Personal Experience* (24.54%)%. In addition, the rest of the East Asian writers mostly favored *Mentioning Advantage*, *Personal Experience,* and *Current Phenomenon*. In addition, very few Japanese writers preferred *Citation* (2.45%), or *Anecdote* (4.29%). It can be interpreted that they mainly focused on the personal expressions, not favoring the socially appealing expressions, such as proverb and maxims. Second, it may seem that the Koreans and the Chinese preferred similar supporting details, in that they all preferred *Mentioning Advantage*, *Personal Experience*, and *Current Phenomenon*. Differences, however, are found between these two countries. Despite the fact that few of the Koreans and the Chinese relied on *Citation* and *Anecdote*, compared to the Japanese, they tended to use different sources to support their main ideas. In the case of the Koreans, they favored objective facts, in that they favored research for their argumentation. In contrast, in telling anecdotes, they mostly used their family, friends, and their acquaintances. On the other hands, the Chinese are more likely to depend on the traditional expressions, such as *proverb*, *idioms*, *maxims*, *literary*, *allusions*, and *analogues*. It can be interpreted that Confucianism may have been better observed under the communist ideology, unlike Korea and Japan, and continuously contributed to the higher usage of these expressions. In addition, we can say that this political condition can be attributed to the lower usage of *Common Misconception and Truth*, which can be regarded as a standard of revolt in the society.

C a G K a L a L2 W T C ,
A a , a F

E H a
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

In second language acquisition (SLA) studies, many researchers have been interested in assessing language learners' written productions in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) to measure levels of second language (L2) development, or to examine the effects of pedagogical treatment in various learning contexts (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Beer & Nagy, 2009; Casanave, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Yasuda, 2011). Even though these studies have made great contributions to a deeper understanding of language learners' linguistic features, most studies have not taken into account the influence of genre on L2 learners' performance (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Casanave, 1994; Ishikawa, 2006). Indeed, in comparison with a large number of L1 studies on the effects of genre difference, disproportionately little attention has been paid to L2 linguistic comparisons across different writing genres (Yasuda, 2011). In addition, there were few studies that included college-level participants in both L1 and L2 contexts. It is still questionable as to what extent writing genre influences linguistic features of L2 writers, and in particular those studying EFL at university. This is the point of departure for the present study, in which the effects of genres will be examined under the hypothesis that there may be certain linguistic features that are more frequently and characteristically found in one type of genre than others. This study was motivated by these concepts to examine the influence of genres across L2 writing proficiency levels by comparing linguistic features between narrative and argumentative writings in terms of syntactic complexity, accuracy, and fluency.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. S a Pa a

In the spring semester of 2012, 319 Korean college students from 18 classes in a women's university participated in the current study and they consisted of 194 (60.82%) freshmen, 28 (8.78%) sophomores, 48 (15.05%) juniors, and 49 (15.36%) seniors, and their average age was 21.3 years. They wrote narrative and argumentative writings on assigned topics under controlled conditions in a language laboratory. After completing each writing test, submitted essays were rated by *e*-rater on Criterion® and participants received their test scores. Based on each writing score, the writing samples were divided into four writing proficiency levels, as seen in Table 1.

Ta 1. D S a Pa a P L

	No. of Participants (%)			
Proficiency Level	Beginner	Intermediate	High-intermediate	Advanced
Genre\Score	1 and 2	3	4	5 and 6
NA	69(21.63)	122(38.24)	108(33.86)	20(6.27)
AR	36(11.29)	75(23.51)	94(29.47)	114(35.74)

2. M a C , A a , a F

In this study, two factors were used as independent variables that the researcher believed might affect quality of writing in terms of linguistic development of EFL learners. One was the difference in the two genres of writing, and the other was EFL learners' writing proficiency levels. In addition, this study adopts three dependent variables such as syntactic complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) as ways of measuring EFL learners' linguistic features. Based on previous studies (Lu, 2010; Ortega, 2003; Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998), seven measures of CAF are used in this study,

as illustrated in Table 2: five syntactic complexity measures, two accuracy measures, and two of fluency measures.

Ta 2. S a CAF M a I a S

Variable	Type	Measure	Code
Syntactic Complexity	Sentence complexity	Clauses per sentence	C/S
	Coordination	T-units per sentence	T/S
	Subordination	Clauses per T-unit	C/T
Accuracy	Accuracy	Error-free T-units per T-unit	EFT/T
		Errors per T-unit	E/T
Fluency	Length of production	Total words in text	TW
		Mean length of T-units	MLT

3. Da a A a

In order to measure CAF, one computational system and three native English native speakers were used. All syntactic complexity, fluency, and lexical complexity levels were measured by the *L2 Syntactical Complexity Analyzer* 2.4 (Lu, 2010). Then, to measure accuracy, all syntactic, lexical, semantic, morphological errors, except misspellings, capitalization, and punctuation were counted by the three experienced native speakers of English who had experience teaching English for at least three years in a university. A statistical analysis of the data was performed using SPSS version 18.0. All statistical analyses were conducted at a .05 significance level and were shown as mean scores (M) and standard deviations (SD). Two types of statistical analysis were used to answer the research questions: (a) descriptive statistics of various data, (b) independent *t*-tests for comparing the same proficiency levels between two genres.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. C a Sa P G S a C

Table 3 summarizes the results of an independent *t*-test by comparing the same writing proficiency groups across two genres of writing on syntactic complexity measures (C/S, T/S, C/T). When it comes to examining the results of syntactic complexity on each L2 writing proficiency group, the beginner group showed no significantly different results caused by writing genre in all but T/S. Specifically, the only difference was the higher usage of coordination clauses in narrative writing than those in argumentative writing. By comparison with Ishikawa's (1995) study, Ishikawa found the EFL low-proficiency learners' mean scores of coordination clause (C/T) in narrative writing was approximately 1.5 for all data sets. This result is very similar with the beginner learners in this study in both genres of writing (NA: M = 1.48, AR: M = 1.47). In other words, the high-intermediate group produced significantly more T-units in one sentence and more coordination clauses in narrative writing than in argumentative writing. However, the advanced group also seemed not to be influenced by the types of genre in L2 writing.

2. C a Sa P G A a

Table 3 also indicates the results of comparison of the same writing proficiency groups between narrative and argumentative writings on accuracy measures. In all four proficiency levels, participants made more errors in argumentative than in narrative writing (see E/T results on each level). Moreover, participants produced more error-free T-units as their proficiency levels gradually increased. For instance, in the case of E/T, more errors were shown in argumentative than in narrative writing across the four proficiency levels (e.g., the beginner level; NA: M = 0.83 vs. AR: M = 1.17, p <.01). In most cases from beginner to high-intermediate levels, the type of genre influenced language learners' accuracy in L2 writing. However, the advanced level was not affected by the type of genre. That is, EFT/T and E/T did not show any statistically significant differences between the two genres of writing (e.g., EFT/T; NA: M = 0.62 vs. AR: M = 0.59, p = 0.40).

3. C a Sa P G F

As seen in Table 3, in the case of the beginner group, only TW reflected a genre difference (NA: M = 162.46 vs. AR: M = 135.92, p < .01). In the other fluency measures (MLT), narrative writing seemed to have longer T-units

than argumentative writing; however, the results did not show any statistically significant differences between the two genres (e.g., MLT; NA: M = 9.83 vs. AR: M = 9.46, p = .35). In case of intermediate level, MLT indicated significantly different results between two genres of writing (e.g., NA: M = 11.56 vs. AR: M = 10.76, p = .01); conversely, the high-intermediate and advanced levels showed genre differences in all three fluency measures.

Ta 3. R C a G CAF

Measure			Mean (SD)			
			Beginner	Intermediate	H-intermediate	Advanced
Syntactic Complexity	Sentence complexity: C/S	NA	1.66(0.35)	1.84(0.33)	2.03(0.38)	2.10(0.28)
		AR	1.53(0.36)	1.75(0.40)	1.80(0.31)	2.02(0.31)
		Sig.	.09	.09	<.01	.29
	Coordination ratio: T/S	NA	1.12(0.16)	1.13(0.09)	1.18(0.15)	1.16(0.09)
		AR	1.04(0.09)	1.10(0.12)	1.12(0.11)	1.15(0.11)
		Sig.	<.01	.28	<.01	.89
	Subordination ratio: C/T	NA	1.48(0.22)	1.65(0.28)	1.73(0.29)	1.82(0.26)
		AR	1.47(0.29)	1.59(0.31)	1.62(0.27)	1.76(0.28)
		Sig.	.82	.15	<.01	.37
Accuracy	EFT	NA	0.45(0.21)	0.51(0.16)	0.60(0.16)	0.62(0.20)
		AR	0.33(0.23)	0.39(0.17)	0.48(0.17)	0.59(0.17)
		Sig.	.01	<.01	<.01	.40
	EFT/T	NA	0.83(0.46)	0.72(0.34)	0.59(0.32)	0.55(0.40)
		AR	1.17(0.49)	1.01(0.49)	0.85(0.85)	0.60(0.28)
		Sig.	<.01	<.01	<.01	.63
Fluency	TW	NA	162.5(41.2)	239.8(37.4)	351.7(63.4)	536.8(89.4)
		AR	135.9(42.0)	185.3(33.0)	243.2(41.9)	383.3(93.3)
		Sig.	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01
	MLT	NA	9.83(1.89)	11.56(2.14)	12.97(2.60)	15.04(2.85)
		AR	9.46(1.98)	10.76(1.99)	11.51(2.11)	13.32(2.47)
		Sig.	.35	.01	<.01	.01

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to investigate whether writing genres affect EFL learners' written performance. In order to examine these research questions, 319 paired writings were analyzed in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency across seven measures by comparing writing samples across two genres. According to the each writing proficiency levels, L2 beginner writers seemed not to be strongly influenced by the types of genre in terms of syntactic complexity, lexical complexity, and fluency. Only the results regarding accuracy showed significantly higher ratios in narrative writing than in argumentative writing. In the case of L2 intermediate writers, they were affected by accuracy and fluency. L2 high-intermediate writers were strongly affected on all CAF dimensions in general. Lastly, L2 advanced writers were influenced concerning only fluency.

The findings are particularly interesting because the differences in language performance were caused by the type of genre. Consequently, the results suggest that the narrative genre of writing further requires the encoding process of the given content and in turn might elicit more complex and fluent language use. Concerning the effect of genres of writing in L2 learners' task performance, the type of genre in writing tests or assignments at different levels of L2 writers seems to be very important because genre is an important factor that affects L2 language use (Biber & Conrad, 2009; Kormos, 2011). Concerning L2 proficiency levels, the high-intermediate group was most influenced by genre, followed by intermediate group, advanced group, and beginner group. Even though these two groups were not strongly affected by the genre of the writing, the reasons for this were different. This means that L2 advanced learners were not affected by the genre of the writing because their L2 proficiency levels seemed to be above a threshold at which they were able to use their target language in a stable manner, while L2 beginners were not affected by the genre of the

writing because they did not have enough linguistic knowledge to produce various forms in accordance with the genre of writing. Conversely, intermediate learners were much more sensitive to the genre of writing than other L2 proficiency groups when they performed writing tasks. They were heavily influenced by the genre of writing, because they had not completely passed the threshold from which they could use the target language in a stable manner, as advanced learners could.

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S07: Writing Development II

Room: College of Pharmacy 204

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Bokmyung Chang (Namseoul Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**T E K a L a O E E W** Sookyung Cho & Chanho Park (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies & Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)	Eun-Hee Lee (Kyung Hee Cyber Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**H D Y S a Y a E a R a O a W D ?** Jae-hyun Im (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Sookyung Cho (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
15:10-15:40	**T R a B S ' E M a a L a I** Seonmin Park (Northern Arizona Univ., USA)	Moon-Sub Han (Hanyang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**G L a R P V a a : A Ca S a 1.5 G a H S ESL S** Kyong-Hee Chang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	HyunMi Sung (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Kyunghee Choi (Hanyang Women's College)		
16:20-16:50	**S M a M a C a T T a B B K a a E** JungHwa Lee & Rose Whitley (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Okhui Chang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)

T E K a L a O E E W

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I. INTRODUCTION

The use of computers and the Internet is indispensable for students living in this era of information and communication technology (ICT). Students' computer-related knowledge and experiences are reported as positively influencing their attitudes toward computer-mediated learning (Chen, 1986; Levin & Gordon, 1989; Mitra, 1998; Topkaya, 2010). Students who frequently use ICT—such as word-processing, emailing, blogging, and online message posting—are likely to put more effort into accomplishing technology-related tasks and will, in the end, perform better than those who use ICT less frequently (Bandura, 1995; Karsten & Roth, 1998; Lee, 1986; Muira, 1987; Rozell & Gardner, 2000). These studies clearly demonstrate that student's experiences with computer use affect their attitudes toward the use of computers in class and even their performance.

In spite of the many studies illustrating the positive effects of ICT on learning, few studies have examined how second language writers' online writing experiences affect their self-efficacy, attitudes, and performance in second language writing. Thus far, studies have focused on the effects of computer-mediated classes (CMCs) that incorporate the use of computers into their curriculum in a variety of ways, such as local area networks, bulletin boards, email, or instant chat (Braine, 2001; Chang, 2012; Chen, 2012; Hewings, & Coffin, 2006; Ho & Savignon, 2007; Liu & Sadler, 2003; Sullivan & Pratt, 1996). While focusing on the differences between traditionally-taught classes and CMCs, these studies have not taken into account students' previous experiences using computers. As shown in classes other than a writing class, however, students' previous computer experiences may play an important role in establishing their positive attitudes toward CMC writing activities and even improving their performance in a writing class. Thus, this study aims to investigate how online writing experiences affect students' self-efficacy, their attitudes toward the use of ICT in class, and finally their performance—that is, in revising drafts in a second language writing class.

II. METHODS

1. O W E

The participants were 32 Korean college learners of English (16 males and 16 females) enrolled in intermediate-level writing classes taught by one of the presenters. It was hypothesized that regular online experiences would affect computer self-efficacy and attitudes toward using online tutoring aid tools in an English writing class, and would further help improve their writing by their selective incorporation of good peer feedback. It was thus important to examine whether the participants were used to the practice of regularly expressing their views or opinions to other people via online media. Therefore, depending on whether they self-reported as being regular online writers or not, participants were divided into two groups. Online writing activities included personal essays such as writing or responding to blog posts, but text messages using a short message service were excluded.

Fifteen out of 32 students were categorized as regular online writers while the remaining 17 students were non-regular online writers. The effects of how often they write were not investigated, and thus only the descriptive statistics of the frequency of online writing activities per week by regular writers are shown in Table 1. The mean and SD were 5.23 and 2.41, respectively. The regular online writers wrote at least three, but up to ten, times per week.

TABLE 1. D S a O W A R a W

N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
15	3	10	5.23	2.41

2. S -E a a A

The participants were requested to answer two sets of questions, shown in Table 2. The first five questions investigated students' self-efficacy of using the online blackboard, and the last five inquired into students' attitude toward the use of the online blackboard in class. Students responded on a six-point Likert scale anchored from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." Once evidence of reliability and validity was obtained for the questionnaire, students' mean responses to the self-efficacy and attitude questions were used as measures of self-efficacy and attitude, respectively.

TABLE 2. Q a I M a S -E a a A

Category	Question
Self-Efficacy	I can upload and download writing assignments and feedback online.
	I can provide peer feedback via online.
	I can incorporate peer feedback into the revision.
	I can see writing assignments of other group members.
	I can see peer feedback given to other group members.
Attitude	Online activities were helpful for writing and submitting writing assignments in this class.
	Online activities were helpful for giving and receiving peer feedback in this class.
	Online activities increased my motivation for studies in this class.
	Online activities in this class were helpful in improving my writing ability.
	I think positively of the online activities in this class.

3. Q a R

The participants submitted three writing assignments during the semester, with two drafts of each assignment. After uploading each first draft, the students worked with two group members assigned by the instructor, giving and receiving feedback via the online class blackboard. Students revised first drafts, selectively incorporating feedback, and posted the final draft within one week. Prompted by the questions on the given worksheet, the peer comments usually included both suggestions for improvement and compliments for well-executed elements of their writing. In order to see to what extent each of the participants successfully incorporated peer feedback into their revision, the participants' first and revised drafts were compared and contrasted with the peer feedback received. This study measured the amount of revision tried by a particular peer feedback: out of the total number of revised words, the percentage of the number of effectively-revised words triggered by peers was calculated for each writing assignment of each participant.

4. Da a A a

The data analysis procedures were as follows. First, the two groups (regular vs. non-regular online writing groups) were compared for self-efficacy and attitude. Next, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to compare the two groups on the quality of revisions for the three writing assignments. All statistical analyses were conducted in R (R Development Core Team, 2013).

III. RESULTS

1. S -E a a A

The means and SDs of self-efficacy and attitude by both regular and non-regular groups are shown in Table 3. Note that the measures of self-efficacy and attitude were mean responses to the five items on the six-point Likert scale. It can be seen that self-efficacy was very close to the highest category (Strongly Agree) for both groups.

In order to separately investigate whether the two groups differed on self-efficacy and attitude, two *t*-tests were conducted instead of a MANOVA. The nominal type I error rate was modified to .025(=.05/2) for Bonferroni adjustment. Results showed that the regular online writing group had a significantly higher attitude score than the non-regular group ($t(30)=2.59$, $p=.01$). Although the difference of self-efficacy between the two groups was not significant ($t(30)=-.08$, $p=.94$), such results could easily be expected because both groups showed high levels of self-efficacy (see

Table 7).

TABLE 3. R t- S -E a a A

Variable	Mean (SD) of Regular Group	Mean (SD) of Non-Regular Group	*t* (*df*)	*p*
Self-Efficacy	5.56 (.57)	5.58 (.59)	-.08 (30)	.94
Attitude	5.20 (.89)	4.49 (.64)	2.59 (30)	.01

2. Q a R

A MANOVA was conducted to examine whether the two groups were significantly different from each other in the extent to which they successfully incorporated online peer feedback into their revisions. The result was significant (Wilks' Lambda= .56, $F(3, 17)=4.38$, $p=.02$), indicating the regular online writing group was significantly better than the non-regular group in incorporating "good" peer feedback into their revised drafts (Table 4).

TABLE 4. R MANOVA Q a R

Variable	Mean (SD) of Regular Group	Mean (SD) of Non-Regular Group	Wilks' Lamda	*F* (*df*)	*p*
Assignment 1	26.77 (18.49)	10.17 (13.09)			
Assignment 2	22.16(17.74)	3.19(8.11)	.56	4.38 (3, 17)	.02
Assignment 3	17.82 (26.11)	2.10 (3.57)			

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The differences between the regular and non-regular groups regarding self-efficacy were not significant, but the effects of online experiences on self-efficacy should be explored further. The insignificant results may be explained by "ceiling effects." Since the Internet is now ubiquitous, almost all participants showed full self-efficacy in using the web. , Nonetheless, further research is needed to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and mobile technology, which is less common but is being increasingly used in classrooms (Franklin, 2011).

By comparing regular and non-regular online writing groups, it was found that regular online writers were more active in improving their writing drafts with peer assistance. Students selected "good" peer feedback and incorporated it into their revision. Growth in second language writing is affected by many factors, and it is difficult to show that regular online writers grew more than non-regular writers in every aspect of writing. However, it is certain that regular online writers are likely to pay attention to peer feedback provided online and, as a result, be more likely to incorporate it into their revision for improvement of their drafts. This positive effect of students' online writing experiences on their willingness to accept peer feedback confirms the speculations of several scholars who argue that online environments foster a greater sense of audience by enabling learners to acknowledge that they have other audiences in addition to the teacher (Hawisher, 1992; Spitzer, 1990).

In this study, the use of computer strengthens the original purpose of peer feedback, that is, to enhance the sense of audience, by enlarging the community of writers in a second language writing classroom. However, the finding of this study—that students' online experiences play an important role in establishing this sensitivity to audience among students—implies that students may not automatically benefit from CMC. Whether students can benefit from the incorporation of a particular technology in class depends on their previous experience with that technology. The more experience the students have, the more attention they can pay to the activity itself. Those who have not experienced the technology may need explicit instruction not only of the technology itself, but also positive effects or expected results. For example, supplementary devices, such as a program that enables students to see all the peer comments made on the original draft in one computer, may make peer feedback visible so that it increases the probability of incorporating the feedback into revision. Further studies are needed to investigate whether these types of additional assistance can make a difference in students' attitudes toward the use of technology in class and eventually increase their knowledge of class content.

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H D Y S a Y a E a R a O a W D ?[4]

Ja - I
Ha U F S

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is often considered to be as solo activity which is done by a writer and a written product also to be solely writer-oriented; however, writing entails an interaction between a writer and a reader in that all forms of writing have imagined readers. Therefore, various metadiscourse resources should be fully utilized in order to enable successful communication in a written text. It is crucial that second language learners as well as native speakers learn to employ and understand metadiscourse, not only to enable interaction within a test, but also to facilitate the effectiveness of meaning delivery within persuasive written discourse.

Metadiscourse, which was initially coined by Zellig Harris, is a common linguistic phenomenon which is normally used as "a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer's or speaker's attempts to guide a receiver's perception of a text" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 3). Since then, many researchers suggested models of metadiscourse (e.g. Hyland & Tse, 2004; Thompson, 2001; Hyland, 2005b), resulting from the recognition that academic writers do not merely propose ideas about their research in a vacuum but rather interact within a realm where they and their colleagues are joint participants. A new model of interaction in academic writing, stance and engagement is suggested in Hyland (2005b), pointing that a myriad of linguistic features have been identified as contributing to the writer's projection, but the ways regarding reader-side have been studied to lesser extent.

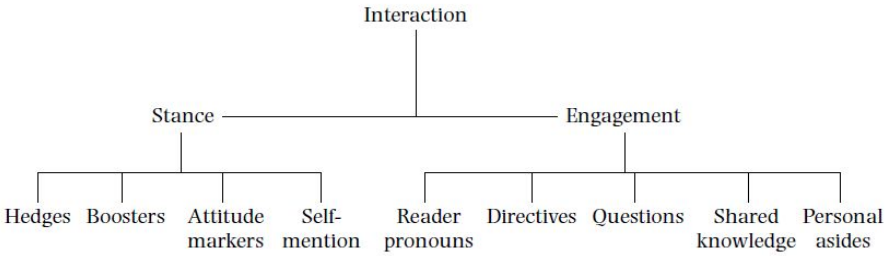

FIGURE 1. Key Resources of Academic Interaction (Hyland, 2005b)

In recent years, the effect and importance of metadiscourse in EFL education has been acknowledged all over the world. Studies have been conducted not only in the inner circle, but also in the outer and expanding circles. Nevertheless, only few studies of metadiscourse in second language writing have been conducted in Korea, especially concerning middle and high school students. In addition, little research has been conducted on National English Ability Test (NEAT) which has writing section and is expected to be a nationwide standard test.

Therefore, the present study primarily addresses the questions: (1) How do Korean EFL students use stance and engagement in their NEAT writing? (2) For Korea EFL writing, does usage differ according to the gender, academic level, or major academic branch?

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

A total number of 216 practice argumentative essays for the second-level NEAT written by middle and high school students constitute the corpus of the study. The compositions collected for this study include totals of 124 from male students and 92 from female students, with 116 of these coming from middle school students and 100 from high

[4] This study has been published in *Modern English Education* in May, 2013.

schools students. The compositions of the students were analyzed on the basis of Hyland's (2005b) model of interaction in which linguistic devices are categorized into stance and engagement features under the super-category of interaction. They were checked by researchers manually and by employing the concordance program *Antconc 3.2.3.* in order to sort out how often and what kind of linguistic resources were employed in their compositions. Approximately ten percent of the students participated in follow-up interviews, which was intended to extract the rationale behind the choices of words and expressions they made and to reveal their educational background.

Ⅲ. FINDINGS

1. O a U S a a E a

Overall, combining stance and engagement, Korean secondary EFL students used more stance and engagement features in comparison to both native English speaking academic writers (Hyland, 2005b), and Korean advanced EFL writers (Kim, 2009; Uhm et al., 2009)

TABLE 1. S a a E a F a K a EFL S NEAT W

Stance	Items per 1000 words	% of total	Engagement	Items per 1000 words	% of total
Hedges	4.75 (112)	10.84 %	Reader pronouns	36.05 (850)	86.45 %
Boosters	5.68 (134)	12.96 %	Directives	3.99 (94)	9.57 %
Attitude markers	13.02 (307)	29.72 %	Questions	0.55 (13)	1.33 %
Self-mentions	20.36 (480)	46.46 %	Shared knowledge	0.93 (22)	2.23 %
			Personal asides	0.17 (4)	0.42 %
Total	43.82 (1033)	100 %	Total	41.70 (983)	100 %

(The numbers in parentheses represent the total appearance in the entire text.)

It was found that, among the features of stance (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mentions), the participants used self-mentions the most, attitude markers second most, boosters third, and hedges the least. As for the features of engagement (reader pronouns, directives, questions, appeals to shared knowledge, and personal asides), they used reader pronouns to an overwhelmingly higher degree than the other features, while directives were used second most, and the others were rarely used at all. In sum, the present study displays some important differences from previous research concerning the use of the stance features of self-mentions, attitude markers, and hedges and of the engagement features of reader pronouns. The aspects of usage of the other relevant features, however, are not significantly different from those of previous studies.

2. G , A a L , a Ma A a B a

There were no significant differences according to gender. Regarding academic level, self-mentions and reader pronouns were used to a significantly higher degree by middle school students than by high school students. For major academic branch, hedges were used more by science majors, while directives were used more by liberal arts majors.

The post-interviews revealed that the differences were attributed to the specific writing test format, the students' English proficiency, and their pedagogical environment.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

This study has explored the aspects of stance and engagement in Korean secondary students' NEAT practice writing. It was found that overall, the participants in this study used more stance and engagement features in their writing than both the advanced EFL writers in Korea and the native English speaking academic writers from previous

studies. Moreover, the order of frequency of use among the different features was different as well. Concerning stance, the participants of the present study used self-mentions the most, attitude markers second most, boosters third, and hedges the least, and used a lot more reader pronouns than any other engagement features.

Specifically, this study has found that there were no statistically significant gender differences in the use of stance and engagement, meaning that students were not able to inject their gender-sensitivity into their compositions. According to academic level (middle vs. high school), there were significant differences only for self-mentions, reader pronouns, and overall engagement, all of which were employed more by middle school students. This observation should be treated carefully because the difference in engagement was caused by overuse of reader pronouns. Furthermore, the insertion of many self-mentions and reader pronouns does not necessarily make a good essay. This indicates that the middle school participants were not able to use diverse subjects but instead simply used the personal pronouns *I*, *you*, and *we*, whereas high school students were able to make various sentence forms such as passive voice and complex sentences, and to use more varied subject forms. It was shown that the major academic branch of the students can partially influence their use of stance and engagement. Hedges were used more by science majors, and directives were used more by students majoring in liberal arts. The differences among them were significant, but the rationale for the participants' usage choices, elicited during post-interviews, seemed vague. Although students spend more time learning about the material which is related to their major, the major itself does not seem that relevant to their second language writing.

On the basis of the results of the study, we offer the following suggestions. The concept should be taught in school that writing embodies interaction between the writer and the reader, along with the various metadiscourse features of stance and engagement and their functions. This will help students perceive that writing is also a form of communication in which interaction takes place and various strategies are exploited for successful communication. Moreover, EFL instructors, we strongly believe, should be aware of the importance of metadiscourse in advance and try to produce and teach material which contains this kind of knowledge. Not merely advanced learners but also novice learners will benefit more from explicit instruction by teachers and books dealing with stance and engagement than from self-study. The microdimensions of second-language use, such as the effectiveness of stance and engagement features and their expected effects, certainly does not come easily to learners. Teachers, therefore, have to truly be aware of what is important when teaching second-language learners. For this reason, teacher training which raises the awareness of metadiscourse is required as well.

Another relevant issue is that of textbooks, which should contain not only content about language forms but also about how to interact in written discourse. Textbooks need to include interactional aspects of written language so that students can learn metadiscourse strategies of stance and engagement from books, either with teachers or by themselves.

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T R a B S ' E M a a L a I

S Pa
N A a U , USA

I. INTRODUCTION

Extrinsic motivation has been defined as encouragement for students to learn something by external benefits such as good grades, complements from teachers and parents, and positive reputation from peers (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997a) in comparison with intrinsic motivation, students' will to do something because of one's inherent interest or joy (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It was clearly found that intrinsic motivation contributes to effective learning (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997b). However, the effectiveness of extrinsic motivation for students' literacy skills was arguable. Lepper, Corpus & Iyengar (2005) found that extrinsic motivation promoted learners' autonomy which facilitated learning about complex and challenging ideas through reading whereas Wang & Guthrie (2004) showed that students who had higher extrinsic motivation received lower scores on reading comprehension test.

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

The participants were forty-five high-intermediate students in a reading and writing class of an intensive English program (IEP) in the southwestern United States. The native language of the 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. Participants' extrinsic motivation was measured by the questionnaire adapted from the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) in Wigfield & Guthrie (1997a)'s study. The adapted questionnaire consists of three subsections: grades, competition and social purpose. In addition, participants' literacy skills were assessed by reading and writing tests in an achievement test.

2. Da a A a P

The participants were asked to answer the extrinsic motivation questionnaire with 5-point Likert scale. The students could choose from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) in each item. The grades section included the three items, the competition subgroup contained six items and the social purpose subsection had seven items. The reliabilities of the grade, competition and social purpose subsection were Cronbach's Alpha .66, .73 and .82. The sum of items in each subsection of the extrinsic motivation questionnaire was used to compare to students' literacy skills. The participants also took the achievement test including reading, vocabulary and writing section for two hours. 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.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. D S a Va a

Although forty students among the participants responded to the extrinsic motivation questionnaire, two students' data were missing in the grades subsection and one students' data were not collected in the competition subsection. There were no missing data in the social purpose subsection. The mean of the scores in each subsection of the extrinsic motivation were various because of the different number of items in each subsection (see Table 1). Even

though it was hard to compare the means of subsections in the questionnaire due to the different numbers of items, it was distinguished that the mean of the scores on competition including six items was higher than the mean of the scores on social purpose with seven items. It showed that the participants had higher extrinsic motivation on competition than on social purpose.

TABLE 1. D S a E M a S Ea S

				95%CI	
Subsection	N	M	SD	LL	UL
Grades	38	11.23	3.04	9.88	13.78
Competition	39	22.72	4.12	19.06	25.94
Social	40	18.68	5.99	14.31	22.14
Total	38	52.55	9.07	44.94	60.16

Note. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit

In addition, forty-five students took both reading and writing tests (see Table 2). The students received higher scores on the writing test than the reading test. The mean of the scores on reading was 70.76 (SD = 12.91) while the mean of the scores on writing was 79.55 (SD = 8.83).

TABLE 2. D S a R a a W S

Skill	n	M	SD
Reading (0-100)	45	70.76	12.91
Writing (0-100)	45	79.55	8.83

2. C a E M a a L a S

The correlation between extrinsic motivation and the reading scores was not statistically significant whereas students' extrinsic motivation to grades and competition were statistically significant related to students' writing scores (see Table 3). The observed values of r between extrinsic motivation and the reading did not exceed the critical value of r (.31). For example, the correlation between grade and reading scores were only .04. On the other hand, the correlation between grade and writing scores were .35. Any subsection in extrinsic motivation could not be related to the students' reading scores, which meant that there was no relationship between students' extrinsic motivation and their reading scores. However, grades and competition was statistically significant related to students' writing scores.

The effect sizes about the significant factors were also investigated. The effect size about the correlation between grades and students' writing scores was .12 and the effect size about the correlation between competition and the writing scores was .25. Even though the students' writing scores were highly related to the students' extrinsic motivation such as grade and competition, each subsection of extrinsic motivation had relatively small impacts on the students' writing scores.

TABLE 3. C a a S a E M a a L a S

Subscale	1	2	3	4	5
1. Grade	—	.32	.18	.04	.35*
2. Competition		—	.06	.15	.50*
3. Social Status			—	.07	.17
4. Reading Scores				—	.44*
5. Writing Scores					—

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The results of the study showed that some subsections of students' extrinsic motivation such as grades and competition were related to their writing skills while the subsections of extrinsic motivation failed to explain the students' reading skills. The findings of the research was similar to the previous studies claiming that extrinsic

motivation was helpful to students' performance (Covington & Müller, 2001; Lepper et al., 2005, Ryan & Deci, 2000) even though there was no relationship between extrinsic motivation and students' reading skills. However, not all factors in extrinsic motivation were related to writing skills. For instance, social purpose was not statistically significantly related to students' writing skills.

In addition, grades and competition were found as significant factors for students' writing, but the effect sizes were relatively small. Therefore, further studies would be needed to conduct to find the relationship between the two factors of extrinsic motivation and other factors for students' writing skills. Furthermore, additional research should be studied to investigate more factors influencing students' reading scores.

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G L a R P V a a : A Ca S a 1.5 G a ESL S S a S

K -H C a
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

As defined by Oudenhoven (2006, cited by Masterson, L, 2007), 1.5 generation students are those who move to the United States at the age of 12 or older, and enter middle school or high school in the U.S. This population is estimated to account for 65 percent of the U.S. population growth through the year 2020 (Spanier, 2004, cited in Masterson, L, 2007). They are a distinct group of learners who often come to the tertiary schools without having adequately developed their academic reading and writing skills. While vocabulary is one of the critical elements for reading and writing, there was a big gap in vocabulary knowledge between English native speakers and ESL/EFL learners (Yamamoko, 2011). Nation (1990) has found that the ESL/ EFL learners tend to rely heavily on the high frequency words in their productive use, such as in writing. Considering that there is a paucity of longitudinal quantitative studies that measure the vocabulary size of learners at different stages (Laufer, 1998, cited in Laufer and Nation, 1995), it is important to explore the pattern of growth in the vocabulary development of 1.5 generation students over an extended period of time. This study explores the receptive and productive vocabulary development of a high school student who has already developed Basic Interpersonal Communicative Competence (BICS) but is in the process of developing Academic language Proficiency (CALP). This following research questions are addressed: What is the productive vocabulary growth pattern of a 1.5 generation English language learner from the year of 7th grade to 11th grade? Does it plateau after he has attained a certain level? What factors lead to the growth of productive vocabulary?

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

The subject of this five-year longitudinal study is a 1.5 generation student at a U.S. high school in 11th grade at the time of the study. The subject comes from a bilingual family and had graduated from a Korean elementary school and studied at an international school in Korea from 7th to 8th grade, where the language of instruction was English. He then began his studies in the U.S. from 9th to 11th grade. The data in this study consists of quantitative and qualitative components: 1) For quantitative data, a Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP) developed by Laufer and Nation (1995) was used to measure free productive vocabulary in the compositions. The LFP-based computer software called, Vocab Profile (Cobb, 2010, cited in Zheng), made available at http://www.lextutor.ca/vp (Zheng, 2012), was used in this study. Data was collected from the subject's mother, who had kept a collection of the subject's writing throughout his upbringing. A total of five narrative writing samples were collected from the subject, which spanned from 7th to 11th grade. The writing samples included diary entries, as well as informal essays such as on topics as "A Memorable Childhood Experience," "First day of school," "What I like about the book, 1984"; 2) For qualitative data, an interview of the subject was conducted to assess his motivation level in learning new vocabulary and using them in his writing.

2. Da a A a P

To analyze the changes in free productive vocabulary in the participant's writing over a four- year period, the writing sample was entered on the LFP, computerized by Vocab Profile software. Once the text has been entered, the VocabProfile software automatically counted the proportions of words in each of the following categories: 1) the most frequent 1000 words (K1 words); 2) the next most frequent 1000 words (K2 words); 3) the Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000, cited by Zheng); 4) and Off-list, which were words that did not occur in any of the previous frequency lists. As such, these four categories of words amounted to 100 percent. In this study, both word types and tokens were calculated. LFP scores provided by Vocab Profile were based on tokens. The researcher calculated the LFP scores by

word types for comparison. No statistical analysis was applicable due to the small size of the data.

Ⅲ. R a D

1. T LFP

The study showed that the subject has improved steadily in lexical productive use throughout the five year span. His combined K1 and K2 words declined steadily from the year 2008 to 2012, from 96.25 percent to 86.85 percent for tokens (as shown in Table 1), and from 83.87 percent to 73.67 percent by word types (as shown in Table 2). During the first year, his K1+K2 words only declined from 96.25 to 95.11 for tokens, and even increased slightly from 91.1 to 91.3 for word types. However, the figures dropped progressively more steeply from the second year, from 2009 to 2012, as shown in Fig. 1. Furthermore, the AWL words and the Off-list words generally showed a steady increase as well, from 2.5 to 7.9 for AWL and 6.4 to 11.8 for Off-list words in 2012.

TABLE 1. LFP Va (Y a 2008 2012) -

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
K1 Words	92.11	91.61	86.85	88.1	82.57
K2 Words	4.14	3.5	6.73	3.25	4.28
AWL Words	0.99	3.5	3.06	3.49	4.61
Off-list words	2.76	1.4	3.36	5.17	8.55
K1+K2	96.25	95.11	93.58	91.35	86.85

TABLE 2. LFP Va Na a W (Y 2008 - 2012)-

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
K1 Words	83.8	85	77.5	76.4	73.6
K2 Words	7.3	6.3	12	7	6.6
AWL Words	2.5	6.5	4.7	7.6	7.9
Off-list words	6.4	2.5	5.3	8.9	11.8
K1+K2	91.1	91.3	89.5	83.4	80.2

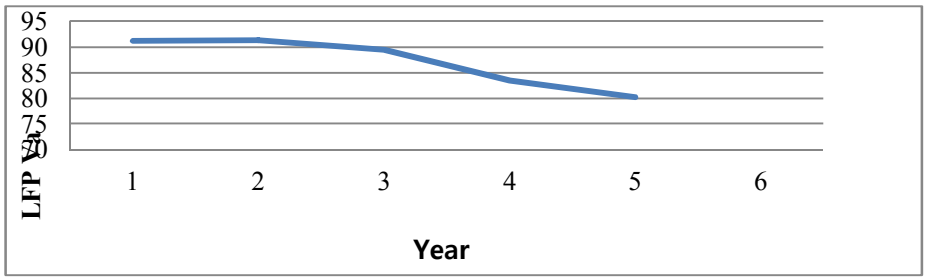

FIGURE 1. F -Y a P V a a G K1+K2

2. T I

During the interview, the learner has indicated that he has constantly made efforts to diversify his choice of vocabulary in his writing because his teachers have often pointed out that his word choices were often redundant. He often asked his native speaking peers to edit his paper because he wanted to "see if the words I use in my paper were used correctly in that particular context." "I wasn't really making such efforts when I first started school in the U.S. two and a half years ago, but I soon realized that my words in my writing were a bit too elementary. I consciously try using sophisticated words so I don't sound too elementary." The school did not offer vocabulary instructional time in English classes, though the teacher had often given vocabulary quizzes from time to time. An interesting comment the subject made was that he found peer editing useful in helping him diversify lexical phrases and words. He especially learned transitional phrases from reading other students' papers, which he found extremely useful.

This longitudinal research showed that the subject's productive vocabulary growth increased steadily and did not plateau such as in studies by Laufer cross sectional studies. Laufer's cross-sectional study, where the EFL Israeli students LFP have leveled off between 10^{th} and 11^{th} grades did not occur in this study. On the contrary, the subject's free productive vocabulary increased steadily and at a progressively accelerated pace from year 2. Unlike the subjects in Laufer's study whom the author has speculated that her subjects avoided using new vocabulary words when they were not certain on how to use it, especially when they were not pushed to do so by their teachers (Laufer & Nation, 1995). Some research in the literature has indicated that the ESL context does not push students to practice output of vocabulary, but given the small school community in this private school that has exceptionally rigorous writing curriculum, ranging from 3 to 5 essays per trimester, the subject was receiving high pushed out instruction.

3. D

This subject in the study also did not demonstrate highly volatile LFP scores such as shown by Zheng (2012). Zheng's result showed a large variation of the students LFP scores among four students at different points over the course of one academic year, from 19.4 to 9.4percent. As the authors have indicated, the writing samples were out of class assignments which allowed opportunities for students to take more time looking up more words in the dictionary when their motivation level was high at the beginning of the semester, as opposed to the ones written near the end of the academic year, when their motivation levels tend to decline. No such variation in LFP scores recorded in my study since I have carefully standardized the writing samples to timed writings that were completed without the use of thesaurus or dictionary.

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The study is unique in that it is a five-year longitudinal study of a linguistically proficient 1.5 generation high school student's productive vocabulary growth. It is however, limiting in the fact that the sample size is small, and only free active vocabulary was studied. In addition, this study did not measure the receptive vocabulary of the subject. The study, nevertheless, is significant in that it confirmed that a student can increase one's productive vocabulary when immersed in a writing intensive program coupled with supportive peer edits and moderate level of motivation of the learner. Although the learner in the study did not receive formal vocabulary instruction for productive use in his high school, nor was he enrolled in an ESL program, he was immersed in writing intensive English and History courses, which contributed to improving his productive vocabulary level. Future studies that compare the growth of receptive and productive vocabulary could shed light into the nature of lexical growth and the effect of the pushed out instructions on the learner's productive lexical growth.

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S M a M a C a T T a B B K a a E

J H a L a R W
Ha U F S

I. INTRODUCTION

Most professors and school staff might think of students' textual borrowing works as plagiarism (Campbell, 1990). It is because textual borrowing and plagiarism can be considered the same if there is an improper understanding of textual borrowing. For writing learners regardless of if they are L1 or L2 students, copying or borrowing from original sources is a necessary stage (Keck, 2006; Kim, 2009; Pennycook, 1996; Petric, 2012) to develop and improve their writing skills. When L2 students write, they encounter two burdens; linguistic and writing difficulties, which might lead to misinterpretation or meaning changes from original sources. Even so, there are studies to analyze students' textual borrowing patterns (Keck, 2006; Kim 2009; Petric, 2012) and strategies (Yu, 2010), but few studies to see whether students misinterpret original sources when they borrow texts. Therefore, this study tries to see whether students make meaning changes from original sources both in L1 and L2 and whether there exist any differences in textual borrowing between Korean writing and English writing.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Pa a

For the study, 37 university students, mostly freshmen, participated in this study. This three-hour course, named Practicing and Writing Essays (*a pseudonym*), is a mandatory course for freshmen who are majoring in English Interpretation and Translation. All students have completed the same entrance exam to enroll in the class. Therefore, the majority of the students share a similar level of English ability. In terms of writing experiences, most of them have never learned academic writing before neither in Korean nor in English. A few students learned argumentative writing for a while during high school when preparing for their university entrance exam, and a few others had taken a course before starting their first semester in university, which was provided by the university. They are a little bit more familiar with writing argumentative essays, but their brief experience is short enough to be regarded as the same with the other students who did not take the course.

2. S

For one semester, students are required to write a total of eight argumentative essays: Four in Korean and four in English, altering between languages. Before writing each essay, students read three topic-related articles, which express neutral, pro and con opinions on the topic. When they write an essay in Korean, they read Korean articles, and when they write an essay in English, they read English articles. They have two weeks to complete each essay. The class is divided into 6 two-week modules and 2 one-week modules. Each module consists of one three-hour class a week. The first week of each module is dedicated to reading three topic-related articles and discussing their opinions in groups of four or five. After determining and supporting their opinions, they try to discuss opposing ideas. For example, when they are initially for the topic, they discuss with the idea of pros, after that, they take on the role of supporting the cons. Students then have four days to complete the first draft of their essay and post it on the class website. At the beginning of the second week of the module, students make groups of four or five and share their essays. For one hour, they read their peer writing. When they have completed reading all of their members' work, they start to have conferences about each essay to provide any form of feedback. They share their essays one by one. Then, they have four days to revise and post their essays on the class website. Considering time constraints, the last 2 one-week modules precede only the first week of each module.

3. Da a A a

For this study, among essays both in Korean and in English, only one of each set of essays is analyzed. The topic of the Korean essay is "The Advantage Point System for Military Duty", and for the English essay, the topic is "Aesthetic Plastic Surgery". Students are required to complete 500-600 words of writing. For the Korean essay, the Korean author analyzes and for the English essay, the American author does. First, they carefully find textual borrowing from the original sources, and then determine whether there are misinterpretations or meaning changes.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. T a B K a

1)O a F T a B K a

All of the 37 participant writers made textual borrowing, leading to 99 borrowings. Except for definitions or terms, students tried to revise their original sources without meaning changes. In 99 textual borrowings, five meaning changes occurred.

2) M a K a

Example 1)

A) O a T : 군 가산점은 제대군인이 조기에 정착할 수 있도록 지원하는데 그 입법 취지를 두고 지난 1961년부터 시작해서 1999년에 헌재의 위헌 판결로 폐지될 때까지 39년간 시행했던 제도다.

B) S T : 고된 훈련 강도와 2년이라는 긴 시간에 대한 부담감이 병역기피 같은 또 다른 사회문제를 야기시켜왔다. 그에 대한 대안으로 1961년 '군 가산점' 제도가 처음 제정되었다.

The original text explains that 'the advantage point system for military duty' ~~has~~ started in 1961 for the discharged soldiers to get a job easier until The Constitutional Court decided that the system had violated the constitution. The student wrote, however, that hard training for two years and burdens during the long time period triggered social problems such as evasion of military service. As an alternative, in 1961, 'the advantage point system for military duty' was enacted. Between the two texts, the reason for the rise of the system is different. It is her subjective opinion not related to the original reason to enact the system. It's because she tilted toward the pro opinions so she tried to emphasize the hardness during the military. However, when writers paraphrase, the meaning should not be changed.

Example 2)

A) O a T : 군대를 가고 싶어도 갈 수 없는 사람이라던지, 여성이나 장애인들에게 있어서 어떠한 대책을 세워도 알맞은 대책이 될 수 없다는 것이다.

B) S T : 어떤 이들은 군대에 갈 자격조차 받지 못해 군 가산점을 받을 수 없는 여성들이나 장애인들에게 있어서는 불평등 한 상황이 벌어지므로 군 가산점에 반대한다.

The original text enumerates people who are not able to join the army, females, or the disabled. But the student describes females and the disabled as not having qualifications to join the army. In reality, disabled people have difficulties to join the army, but a female can do so if she wants. He might want to emphasize that the advantage system is unreasonable for those who can't go to the army but in many cases, it is possible to go to the army if they just apply. He is just a freshman so he doesn't know the military system yet. If he knew the military system more, he might argue the opposite. It is helpful to have content knowledge for even their L1 writing. Therefore, more reading should precede writing to convey meaning properly and to encourage better writing quality.

2. T a B E

1) O a F T a B E

Among 37 students, only 22 students made a total of 33 textual borrowings. Out of 33 textual borrowings, six meaning distortions occurred. As Howard (1993) puts it, students have tendencies to commit "patchwriting", which is "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutions" (p. 233). While patchwriting, students might change the meanings different from the

original sources because they might not fully understand the source.

2) M a E

Example 3)

A) O a T : According to statistics, of every 1,000 Koreans, 16 had undergone some form of surgery, invasive operations like eyelid or nose surgery and non-invasive treatments such as Botox or peeling.

B) S T : Usually, many people have undergone relatively simple invasive operations like eyelid or nose surgery, or simple procedures such as Botox or peeling.

Of every 1,000 Koreans, 16 in the original text are changed to many in the student's text. It is very subjective because it can be many to somebody, but at the same time it can be not many to some other people. In addition, the student writer added the word *simple* before invasive and it distorts the text and makes the word invasive sound more trivial or less serious than in the original text. As Shi (2012) claims, familiarity with the content is an important factor to paraphrase the original text. In the same vein, if the student had more content knowledge, she would not make this meaning distortion.

Example 4)

A) **O a T :** They can help plastic surgeons identify patients who may not adjust well psychologically after surgery.

B) **S T :** To avoid this problem, should associate psychological treatments with cosmetic surgery.

For this writer, he seems to understand the original text. However, his English proficiency is somewhat low to convey the meaning. He seems to have difficulty paraphrasing without meaning distortion. To convey meaning properly, a certain level of English proficiency is needed. Therefore, to borrow text, English competency should be acquired first.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

This study aims to see whether students make meaning changes when they borrow texts from original sources, and whether differences exist between L1 and L2 writing. Through the data analysis, some findings follow. Students make more textual borrowing in L1 and had a lower percentage of meaning changes. Even though they write in L1, they still make meaning distortions. The main reason is not enough content knowledge. Therefore, reading is a prerequisite to complete better writing without making meaning changes.

For L2 writing, some students have difficulties to express what they want to say even though they understand the original sources, leading to meaning distortions. Therefore, to make less meaning changes, students' language proficiency is one of the key factors. In addition, background knowledge is helpful to understand original sources and convey meaning without distortion. For both L1 and L2 writing, reading is important. Therefore, before writing, more readings can be one of the ways to improve their understanding and help them complete their writing without making meaning changes.

Even so, there are some limitations. Students made many copies from the original sources, so it was difficult to find meaning changes. In addition, their textual borrowing frequencies are not high, so it was also difficult to generalize or find patterns in the meaning changes. Lastly, when students borrowed texts from other places, they were hard to track down and it was hard to know whether they had made meaning changes or not.

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S08: Language Testing

Room: College of Pharmacy 210

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Moongee Jeon (Konkuk Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**A N -Na E -S a T a Q a T a a E a a NEAT W S ?** Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil Univ.)	Heesook Park (Woosong Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**I a Va a NEAT IBT R a I** Bokyung Cho & Yonghyo Park (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)	Asher Jesudoss (Jawaharlal Nehru Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Kyucheol Shin (Far East Univ.)		
15:10-15:40	**T I D a I W T a NEAT** Dongkwang Shin & Hunwoo Joo (Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation)	Joon Yong Lee (Republic of Korea Naval Academy)
15:40-16:10	**EFL L a S A P a D C T** In Shin Kim (Yangcheon High School)	Inji Choi (Gyeongsang National Univ.)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Young Mee Suh (Ewha Womans Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**T -Ta ' F a a C - Ba T** Haedong Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Eunsook Shim (Sangji Univ.)

A N -Na E -S a T a Q a T a a E a a NEAT W S ?

S H C
S U

I. INTRODUCTION

The necessity of developing second language (L2) writing instruction is increasing ever since the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Education (KICE, 2011) announced a new English assessment, entitled as the National English Ability Test (NEAT). However, various conditions such as appropriate curriculum, assessment system, appropriate writing instructors and professionals, and washback effects resulted in temporary postponement of the implementation. One of the most important reasons of postponing this assessment is associated with the myth: which is called the Native Speaker Fallacy (Phillipson, 1992); which simply stands for "Native Speaker (NS) superiority paradigm" (Phillipson, 1992, 1996; McKay, 2002). This concept consolidated NS principles in the settings of instructing English as a second or foreign language. According to this belief, only NSs serve as the model or norm of English users since they can reify works on standard grammar, vocabulary, and rhetorical sensitivity, etc. By doing so, NS instructors are perceived as the best embodiment of the norm and target for learners of English (Phillipson, 1992) in the field of L2 writing. As opposed to all other varieties of English, only NS Englishes have been believed as the norms, the standard, and models (Cheong, 2007; Smith & Rafiqzad, 1979).

II. THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In accordance with the trends of NS norms, how are the current issues and trends in teaching English writing (L2 writing) in Korea? Most of public school English teachers are nonnative speaker- teachers (NNS), and they have no sufficient training of teaching L2 writing. According to *Native Speaker Fallacy*, NNS are characterized as people who are linguistically and culturally deficit (Phillipson, 1992, 1996). They are not born in the inner-circle English speaking countries where English dominates everyday life (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999, 2001; Higgins, 2003; Medgyes, 1992; Nayar, 1994, 1997; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). Their educational backgrounds are different from those who receive a mainstream English-speaking education. Since the native countries of NNS are addressed as outer-circle or expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1992), they have been exposed of multiple varieties of English because they should also teach English as a means of access to other parts of the world to the L2 users, which allowed them to increase international opportunities (Matsuda, 2003).

In this trend, there seems to be the doubt whether NNS English teachers in Korea are qualified or adequate to teach NEAT writing section. Upon considering the reality, the focuses of current research questions are generated as follows:

(1) Would English teachers of Korean speakers (or bilingual users of English) play a positive role in teaching L2 (English) writing?

(2) If so, to what extent the positive role of English teachers of Korean speakers could be applied to improving teaching L2 writing in the public school settings in Korea?

III. IMLICATIONS

As Matsuda (2003) claimed, this study also purports that the awareness of the varieties of English places an equal value on the pedagogical approaches for writing instruction of NNS. When accepting English teachers of Korean speakers as World English (WE) users or English as an international language (EIL) users (McKay, 2002), they will be free from the burden of a simple classification between NS versus NNS. No matter how the English teachers of Korean speakers have hard time obtaining a complete nativeness of what the NS would have, (e.g., syntactic and lexical knowledge and contextual transparency) they might achieve full success in L2 communication (Field, 2005) for the adequate teaching of English writing section. Therefore, even from the viewpoint of inner circle countries, NNS teachers should also be recognized as adequate bilingual users of English. In these circumstances, NNS teachers will be

perceived to the ones who can understand L2 users writing, which exhibit the aspects of L1-dominated-L2writing. For these reasons, NNS teachers are likely to teach more about how to improve less-proficient writers' intelligibility or comprehensibility of their communication as defined by NS norms of acceptability.

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I a Va NEAT IBT R a I

B C a Y Pa
K a I C a E a a

I. INTRODUCTION

The advance of the technology of language testing has been accomplished through the rapid introduction of internet-based testing (IBT). Since the development of the National English Ability Test (NEAT) relies upon this IBT operating system, much attention has been paid by the examinees and teachers. There have been arguments that this new test mode may or may not affect the performance of test-takers. This study, therefore, was crucial to the validity and reliability of the NEAT. Of the four sections of the test, this study analyzes the reading section because the reading items, in terms of features and functions on the IBT system, have been more drastically changed than the items of the other sections. As the approach of this study stems from the need for high quality and a sufficient number of test items, the primary purpose of this research was to investigate a) to what extent, through the psychometrical analysis, each item is valid as a reading item; b) to what extent each item satisfies 'content validation'; and c) to what extent do the examinees accept the appropriateness of the item difficulty and the usefulness of the functions in terms of face validity. Although the NEAT consists of three levels - Level 1 is for adults while Levels 2 and 3 are for high school seniors - this research focuses on an analysis of Levels 2 and 3 because the NEAT is significantly different from paper and pencil tests.

Ⅱ. FEATURES OF NEAT READING ITEMS

Before analyzing how the reading items of Levels 2 and 3 of the NEAT have been validated by empirical data, this study briefly needs to provide the background features of this newly developed test. One of the most remarkable features of the NEAT is that it employs computers and an internet system for its administration. Compared to paper and pencil tests, this IBT presents effective and efficient functions, especially for the reading section, because it has designed and practiced functions that can be operated only by using the IBT system. The reading sections of Levels 2 and 3 have 32-multiple choice items and are administrated over 50 minutes. Items of Levels 2 and 3 assess the examinees' understanding of factual information, inferential abilities, and higher-thinking processes in English. Although these two reading tests have the same number of items, the same operating time, and similar items, there are significant differences between them; for example, academic reading passages comprise 70 percent of reading Level 2 and 30 percent of the practical reading texts. On the other hand, practical reading passages comprise 70 percent of Level 3, with academic passages amounting to 30 percent. In other words, the important difference between the two levels is that Level 2 is designed to evaluate students' English abilities in the academic field for their future in higher education, while Level 3 focuses on assessing the examinees' English abilities for university education as well as for the practical use of the English language. Furthermore, reading Level 2 has more academic reading passages than Level 3, while Level 3 has passages with visual information, such as charts, advertisements, maps, directions, and so on. Reading items exhibit several functions within the operating system. Examples of these features are drag and drop, hot spots, user interfaces, highlighting, drawings with colors, different sizes of letters, and so on.

Ⅲ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

The participants in this research were over eleven thousand high school students who took the NEAT Beta test in March 2012. The responses of these participants were psychometrically analyzed to examine the quality of the reading items. Of these participants, over eight thousand examinees responded to the survey questionnaires that were designed to determine the examinees' ideas with respect to the difficulty of the reading items and the usefulness of the IBT operating functions. The following table presents information on survey participants:

TABLE 1. N S Pa a

Type		No
Gender	M	3,656
	F	4,559
	Total	8,215
Level	2	4,118
	3	4,097
	Total	8,215
Size of city	Large	3,468
	Medium	3,276
	Small	1,471
	Total	8,215

From the survey participants, the researchers recruited 27 volunteers with whom to conduct an in-depth interview. The structured interviews were conducted to collect more detailed descriptions of how the test-takers perceived the new features of the NEAT reading items. These detailed interviews could provide data with which to analyze the face validity of the IBT reading items. The following table summarizes information on these interviewees:

TABLE 2. N I

Type		No.	%
Gender	M	9	33.3
	F	18	66.7
Level	2	9	33.3
	3	18	66.7

In addition to the students, over 20 English teachers and English educators participated in this research and scrutinized the content validity of the reading items.

2. Da a A a P

To validate the reading items for the Internet-based test, this study analyzed the results of the previous pilot test conducted in March, 2012. The reading items' qualities were examined using Classical Test Theory. A survey of the examinees was also conducted, and English teachers and educators were interviewed. By employing descriptive statistics, this study analyzed the survey items answered by the students. It also analyzed qualitative data from the English teachers.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study psychometrically analyzed data to ascertain the extent to which the reading items were valid. The results indicate that the reading section secured an acceptable reliability and the items had an acceptable level of item difficulty and discrimination.[5] The English educators also analyzed the content validity of the items. They concluded that each item satisfied its content validity as a reading item and that the test maintained a satisfactory content validity. Finally, the students responded that the reading test had an appropriate level of item difficulty and discrimination in terms of face validity.

They also answered that the IBT functions exhibited a usefulness that they had not experienced on paper and

[5] This paper does not include results because the output is confidential. Presenter will explain them verbally.

pencil tests. They had positive opinions with respect to the functions for the reading items, and these functions may have helped them to solve reading items. These functions can also help to secure the validity of the newly developed reading items. The following table describes the students' responses to the IBT functions.

TABLE 3. S O IBT F

Items	Responses (%)						
	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree	mean	SD
Time indicator	569(6.9)	424(5.2)	2,993(36.4)	1,628(19.8)	2,601(31.7)	3.64	1.176
Response indicator	577(7)	482(5.9)	3,408(41.5)	1,775(21.6)	1,973(24)	3.50	1.127
Item selection	603(7.3)	499(6.1)	3338(40.6)	1,844(22.4)	1,931(23.5)	3.49	1.132
Drag & drop	609(7.4)	589(7.2)	3,408(41.5)	2,053(25.0)	1,556(18.9)	3.41	1.099
Marking with mouse	587(7.1)	520(6.3)	3,574(43.5)	2,043(24.9)	1,491(18.1)	3.41	1.077
Insert a paragraph	293(7.1)	324(7.9)	1,852(45.0)	940(22.8)	709(17.2)	3.35	1.076
Visual information	629(7.7)	587(7.1)	3,691(44.9)	1,948(23.7)	1,360(16.6)	3.34	1.077
Hot spot	390(9.5)	349(8.5)	1,753(42.8)	855(20.9)	750(18.3)	3.30	1.048
One item on one screen	817(9.9)	900(11)	3,472(42.3)	1,759(21.4)	1,267(15.4)	3.21	1.137
Highlight pen	1,014(12.3)	1,006(12.2)	3,053(37.2)	1,609(19.6)	1,533(18.7)	3.20	1.232
Control font size	731(8.9)	822(10)	3,973(48.4)	1,586(19.3)	1,103(13.4)	3.18	1.074
Check answers	967(11.8)	1,064(13)	3,702(45.1)	1,397(17)	1,085(13.2)	3.07	1.138
Scroll up & down	866(10.5)	844(10.3)	4,257(51.8)	1,421(17.3)	827(10.1)	3.06	1.047

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

From the results, this study can conclude that the IBT reading items of National English Ability Test secured an acceptable validity. Through the psychometrical analysis, this study indicates that the new reading items and the test have acceptable reliability, item difficulty, and item discrimination. This study also indicates that the reading items satisfy content validity. Finally, this study suggests that the examinees had positive opinions with respect to these newly developed items and consider the functions useful in terms of face validity. The findings from this research suggest a need to make an effort to provide more opportunities for examinees to become accustomed to the new IBT features. With respect to future research, researchers could suggest possible ways to expand usage of the NEAT. They could also suggest implications for a new policy that could support SMART language education as well as increase students' communicative English abilities for practical purposes.

T I D a I W T a NEAT

D a S a H J
K a I C a E a a

I. INTRODUCTION

In South Korea, the university entrance exam is the most critical issue that Korean students, and their parents and teachers concern themselves with. Thus, for the Korean SAT, the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT), the item development process is very securely and strictly administered. Test items are developed by a group of chosen professors and teachers who are locked and isolated in a hotel without any direct contact with the outside until the end of the session. The National English Ability Test (NEAT), however, which has been in development since 2009, and its purpose is to be used for various reasons such as English teaching and learning, or assessment for College entrance exam or other English exams. NEAT has brought a dramatic change into the item development process by developing an item banking system. This means that the opportunity to write high stakes test items is extended to many more members of the population than was the case in the past. In addition, there is no longer any need to sequester item developers in hotels. This is because NEAT items are developed by item writers who have taken an intensive program and have passed a qualifications test.

NEAT item writers are educators at secondary and college levels nationwide. A major group of NEAT item writers consists of secondary level (grades 7 to 12) English teachers with a consideration for a balance in terms of gender and geographical representation. By training public and private school teachers as item writers, the government is attempting to reinforce the testing expertise of the teachers at the same time.

Ⅱ. NEAT ITEM DEVELOPMENT

1. O NEAT I D

NEAT gives all the twelfth graders two opportunities to take the NEAT. The following is the item development plan (number of test forms) leading up to 2015.

TABLE 1. NEAT I D R a a

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Level 2	10 sets	11 sets	14 sets	14 sets	5 sets	10 sets	10 sets
Level 3	10 sets	11 sets	14 sets	14 sets	5 sets	10 sets	10 sets

KICE have been developing NEAT items since 2009; and, in 2011, the NEAT item banking system was established. Until 2011, most of the NEAT items were developed in a manner similar to the CSAT system: chosen professors and teachers were sequestered in a hotel while developing their NEAT items. From last year (2012), however, KICE has depended only on the item banking system for the development of the NEAT items. The following figure explains the process of NEAT item development using the NEAT VDI zone.

2. I D P

If we advertize to collect NEAT items through the website of the NEAT portal or the SMS (i.e., text messages), certified NEAT item writers will have access to the NEAT VDI zone where they can write and submit items such as multiple-choice and constructed-response items. The VDI Zone is constructed such that no one can download or copy any data to his or her PC.

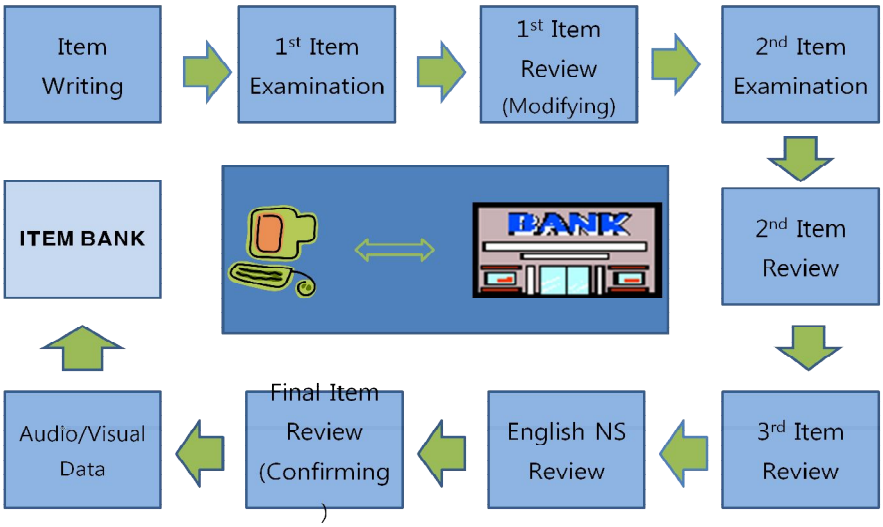

FIGURE 1. P D T I U NEAT IBT I Ba S

After the item writers submit their items, those items are evaluated by two examiners. The items are classified into four levels: Level 1 - Pass, Level 2 - Pass with a minor modification, Level 3 - Pass only with source (passage/script), and Level 4 - Fail. Two or more examiners have to agree before a 'level' designation is accepted. If the three examiners have different judgments on an item, a chief examiner will be required to make a decision (there will be one chief reviewer for each domain; for example, *NEAT Level 2 Reading*). At Step 3, the reviewer modifies the items. At Step 4, the chief reviewer examines the items once more and decides upon a 'pass' or 'fail' for each item. At this stage, except for those whose items were classified as Level 4, the item writers are paid (differentially) for their submitted items. At Steps 5 and 6, the reviewers modify the items; and those items are then sent to a native English-speaking reviewer. The reviewer proofreads the items and the chief reviewer confirms the final version of the items. At Step 9, the items for listening and reading sections are dubbed by native English speakers and illustrations are added to the items. Finally, the items are stored in the NEAT item bank. This is the item development process for the NEAT.

Ⅲ. NEAT ITEM WRITER TRANING

1. I W T a P a

To train secondary English teachers as NEAT item writers, the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE) provides an in-service teacher education program 2~4 times a year. Each time, about 200 teachers can apply for the training program; that is, annually 400 teachers can be certified as NEAT item writers. KICE is attempting to train more than one thousand qualified item writers by the end of 2013.

The required time for the program is sixty hours and, a four-point credit for their promotion is officially given to the trainees who fulfill the requirements of the program. This does not, however, mean that all the trainees who finish the training become NEAT item writers. Although they may finish the training, they have to pass a certification process to become NEAT item writers. Until 2011, KICE had operated the in-service teacher education program in an off-line mode; but, for the purpose of an elevated efficiency of the program, it has since been conducted in a hybrid mode which combines both on-line and off-line modes as may be seen below.

Ta 2. I - T a E a P a ( ) NEAT I W

M I: O -			M II: O -		M III: O -		
Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 1	Phase 2	
						2.1	2.2
An overview of	Testing theory	Item development guide	Item development practice	Feedback	Item develop-ment	Item writing trainee	Program evaluation and survey

NEAT					practice	evaluation	
40 min	60 min	500 min (6days)	7 days (excluded from the required period)	4 days (excluded from the required period)	30 hours (4 days)		
On-line video clip	On-line video clip	On-line video clip	VDI item writing system	VDI item writing system	-Group discussion -One-on-one tutoring - VDI item writing system		

Essentially, in the on-line, in-service teacher education program, twenty minutes are counted as one hour. In the hybrid program, half of the program is made up of on-line lessons. This means that the six-hundred-minute on-line training period is regarded as the equivalent of the thirty hour off-line training period. The NEAT system is based on Virtual Desktop Infrastructure (VDI) which is a kind of cloud computing system; that is, through the VDI system, trainees can watch video clips containing item specifications and item writing tips, and there they directly write, modify, and submit practice items. The VDI is the best interface for ensuring item security. Each video clip explains each item type's specifications. After watching the video clip, the trainees have to pass a comprehension quiz. If the trainees fail to pass the quiz, they are required to watch the video clip again. The reason why the off-line training course is still included is that it is difficult to improve the trainee's item writing skills over such a short period; group discussions and one-on-one tutoring are needed to provide more intensive training. This is confirmed by the results of our survey.

2. I W C a P

After finishing the item writing training program, the trainees are certified as NEAT item writers as follows. The certification criterion is very simple. Trainees choose the Listening, Reading, or Speaking/Writing section for the in-service teacher program for NEAT item writers. Trainees submit three items for Listening, three items for Reading, eight items for Speaking, or six items for Writing. The trainees are certified as NEAT item writers if their items are not given a 'fail' classification by any of the two item examiners. Although it is not mentioned above, KICE classifies the certified item writers into three levels: A, B, or C. Item writers at Level A are given more opportunities to write NEAT items.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

In Korea, along with new English education policies, English language testing policies have been changed as well. Along with the practical and communication focused English education policies, a new National-level English test (National English Ability Test: NEAT) - which would include speaking and writing - was proposed. The experts and the government officials believed that unless the English language testing were changed, the English education innovations would not occur. In the year 2012, the test was launched and has been administered and used as a reference for college entrance. One of the most important issues in the creation of a 'test' is making of good and appropriate test items. As mentioned above, the NEAT IBT Item Banking system and NEAT item writer training program make it possible to develop high-quality test items and strengthen test item security.

EFL L a S A P a D C T

I S K
Ya H S

I. INTRODUCTION

With the focus of communicative competence in second language instruction learners need to acquire pragmatic competence, which refers to the ability to perform speech functions appropriately in social contexts (Thomas, 1995). The appropriateness of speech act realization is important in that due to the cross-cultural differences it may cause various difficulties such as the misjudgment of a person being impolite, unfriendly or dishonest (Thomas, 1983). Therefore, the present study explores the interlanguage pragmatic features of Korean EFL students in the performance of requests using written and also video DCTs as the data-gathering methods. Two research questions were asked: the first question investigated whether more proficient learners perform better than less proficient learners in the speech act performance test, and the second question examined the similarities and differences in speech act performance between written and video discourse completion test.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

For this study, 60 EFL learners were asked to respond in English to 12 different situations where they carried out the speech act of request. The participants, 15-year-old middle school students, consisted of two groups: a group of high proficiency level learners (N=29) and a group of low proficiency level learners (N=31). The materials for the study comprised two different types of discourse completion tests (DCTs): the written DCT, and the video DCT. In addition, the situations given in the DCTs were controlled for the major variables: the relative power (P) of speakers and hearers, and the distance (D). The distance variable was treated as a binary value, that is, interlocutors either knew each other (-D) or did not know each other (+D). The power variable was treated as a ternary value, where the hearer of lower status (-P), of equal status (=P), or of higher status (+P). Therefore, these two variables result in six possible combinations: [+P, +D], [+P, -D], [=P, +D], [=P, -D], [-P, +D], and [-P, -D].

2. Da a A a P

In response to the first research question, if more proficient learners perform better than less proficient learners in the speech act performance, the native speakers of English decided the appropriateness level of the responses based on the criteria developed by Hudson, Deter, and Brown (1995). In determining the significance of any difference between the two proficiency groups, the *t*-test was employed, and differences were considered significant if $p \leq 0.05$. To find out answers to the second research question, similarities and differences in speech act performance between written and video DCTs, the collected data were analyzed in terms of the level of appropriateness, and linguistic form and content. Adopted from the coding scheme of CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989), linguistic form and content include three dimensions: strategy type, internal modification and external modification. After consensus coding by the researcher and native speakers of English, the main discourse components were tabulated and quantified with the frequency as the primary endpoint.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. R a P L a S A P a

1) A a

By looking at the mean score of each group, the present study examined if L2 learners' general proficiency level corresponds to their pragmatic competence. Table 1 displays the statistical analysis of the speech act performance tests of the two groups.

TABLE 1. A a P G

Groups	N	Mean	SD	*T*	*p*
High level	29	2.31	1.05	2.66	0.01
Low level	31	1.71	0.67		
Total	60	2.00	0.92		

The mean score of all subjects is seriously low (2.00±0.92, Table 1), which indicates that Korean middle school students' pragmatic competence to perform speech act of requests is considerably inadequate. This can be called as pragmalinguistic failure, what Thomas (1983) defines as lack of pragmatic competence arising from language limitations. Nevertheless, the differences obtained in appropriateness score between high and low level group students were found to be significant (p =0.01). That is, the comparison of the mean scores of two proficiency groups indicates that Korean middle school students' interlanguage pragmatic competence didn't differ substantially from their general L2 proficiency.

2. S a a D W a V DCT

1) A a

The subsequent table shows that no significant differences were detected between written and video DCTs in appropriateness level (p=0.71). Possible explanations for this can be found in the fact that both written and video DCTs were designed equally as understandable and familiar to the participants. In other words, their perception of given situations is balanced, producing similarly appropriate speech acts.

TABLE 2. A a DCT T

Groups	Mean	SD	*T*	*p*
Written DCTs	2.02	1.10	0.37	0.71
Video DCTs	1.98	0.90		
Total	2.00	0.92		

2) L F a C

(1) Frequency of Strategy and Modification Use

To make an appropriate request, a speaker uses various modifying devices. So, the number of strategies and modifiers adopted to make a request varies.

TABLE 3. F S a a M a R DCT T

Number of strategy and modification use	0–1	2–4	Total	*df*	x^2	*p*
Written DCTs	172 (48%)	188 (52%)	360 (50%)	1	17.64	2.67×0.00001
Video DCTs	228 (63%)	132 (37%)	360 (50%)			
Subtotal	400 (100%)	320 (100%)	720 (100%)			

Table 3 demonstrates statistically significant differences in the frequency of strategy and modification use for a set of request between the two DCT types (p=2.67×0.00001). Notably, the written DCT induced more strategies and modifiers than the video DCTs.

(2) Strategy Type

The analysis of strategy types revealed that certain types of syntactic frame were frequently employed. Table 4 reveals significant differences depending on the strategy type used in written and video DCTs (p=0.001). Overall, frequency of strategy use in written DCTs outnumbered that of video DCTs (352 vs. 274). In spite of the differences in frequency of linguistic forms and contents, there are apparent similarities between the two DCT types: top three request strategies were consistent with those found in both DCT types.

TABLE 4. F O S a T

Strategy Type	Written DCTs	Video DCTs	Subtotal
Query preparatory	189 (53.7%)	112 (40.9%)	301 (48.1%)
Mood derivable	114 (32.4%)	102 (37.2%)	216 (34.5%)
Want statement	39 (11.1%)	30 (10.9%)	69 (11.0%)
Obligation statement	4 (1.1%)	13 (4.7%)	17 (2.7%)
Hedged performatives	2 (0.6%)	5 (1.8%)	7 (1.1%)
Suggestory formulae	1 (0.3%)	6 (2.2%)	7 (1.1%)
Mild hints	3 (0.9%)	2 (0.7%)	5 (0.8%)
Explicit performatives	0 (0.0%)	3 (1.1%)	3 (0.5%)
Strong hints	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.4%)	1 (0.2%)
Total	352 (100.0%)	274 (100.0%)	626 (100.0%)
		df=8, x^2=26.05, p=0.001	

(3) Internal Modification

Data from the two DCT types revealed, in general, differences in the use of downgraders (Table 5). There are only three types of internal modifications in large enough numbers: interrogative (55%), downgrader 'please' (34%) and understater (8%), and a syntactic downgrader embedded if-clause (3%).

TABLE 5. F I a M a

Internal Modification	Written DCTs	Video DCTs	Total
Interrogative	189 (57%)	111 (41%)	300 (55%)
Politeness device	98 (30%)	87 (40%)	185 (34%)
Understater	36 (11%)	6 (3%)	42 (8%)
Embedded 'if' clause	8 (2%)	11 (5%)	19 (3%)
Past tense	0 (0%)	1 (0%)	1 (0%)
Hedge	1 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0%)
Consultative device	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Downtoner	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Negation	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Intensifier	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Expletive	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Subtotal	332 (100%)	216 (100%)	548 (100%)
		df=5, x^2=21.23, p=0.0007	

(4) External Modification (Supportive Moves)

Unlike strategy type and internal modification, external modifiers used by the participants did not differ according to the type of DCTs (p=0.07, Table 6). In both DCTs, grounder took the majority part of external modification used by Korean middle school students (68% and 74%). The most popular external modifiers consecutively for the written DCTs were grounder (68%), disarmer (18%), checking on availability (5%), and getting a precommitment (5%). Similarly, those of the video DCTs were grounder (74%), checking on availability (12%), and disarmer (7%).

TABLE 6. F E a M a

External Modification	Written DCT	Video DCT	Total
Grounder	81 (68%)	56 (74%)	137 (70%)
Disarmer	21 (18%)	5 (7%)	26 (13%)
Checking on availability	6 (5%)	9 (12%)	15 (8%)
Getting a precommitment	6 (5%)	1 (1%)	7 (4%)
Sweetener	5 (4%)	3 (4%)	8 (4%)
Cost minimizer	1 (1%)	2 (3%)	3 (2%)
Subtotal	120 (100%)	76 (100%)	196 (100%)
		df=5, x^2=10.04, p=0.07	

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The comparison of appropriateness score showed that clear difference existed between the high and low proficiency level groups. According to native speakers' assessments, more proficient L2 learners recorded higher scores compared to less proficient learners, making use of wider range of strategies and modifications in their requests. The analysis of appropriateness score also revealed there was no significant effect of DCT types. However, with respect to the effects of DCT types on the frequency of strategies and modifiers that participants used, significant difference between the two DCT types was identified. For one thing, Korean middle school students tended to use more strategy and modifications in written DCTs than in video DCTs. In addition, the frequency of modifying devices appeared to be statistically different in the two DCT types, despite the similarity in most preferred strategies and modifiers. Summing up the present study, perhaps the most striking finding is that Korean middle school students' ability to perform speech act of request is seriously inadequate. However, given the difference between the high and low level students, they are in the process of developing their pragmatic competence. Another obvious tendency worth noting is that learners began to gradually modify their requests both internally and externally, though it is quite limited in the present stage. It is clear that research still needs to be done in assessing interlanguage pragmatics. There should be studies investigating L2 learners' speech act production, including how they perceive a certain situation, and decide strategies in an attempt to realize the intended meaning. Research on practical and valid assessment which can be conducted in a reasonable amount of time and expense is also necessary.

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T -Ta ' F a a C -Ba T

Ha K
Ha U F S

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of the presentation is to report Korean adults test-takers' qualitative feedback on a computer-based English language assessment. The project has been developed by a foreign language examination center at H University in Korea. A quantitative analysis was carried out for 38 adults who took the first-version of the test. For the design and improvement of a test, it is necessary to carry out an analysis of test-takers' feedback. Checking and utilizing the research findings may support the validity of a newly developed test (Downing, 2006; Weir , 2005). Without checking the validity of a newly developed test, we cannot be certain whether a test is being adequately developed.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Pa a

A total of 38 test-takers participated in the present investigation. Among them 19 participants (50%) were male. Most of them (n = 38, 97%) were in their twenties and one test-taker was 35 year-old. Ten test takers (28%) were graduate students and others (n = 28, 72%) were undergraduate students. They majored in 18 different majors and were from five different universities. Among the undergraduate students, 23 (82%) were fourth-year students. As the target users of the test were university students, the demographic backgrounds of the participants were acceptable.

The participants had studied English as a foreign language for over five to 20 years. Some of them (n = 13, 39%) used English more than one hour per day, but others (n = 25, 61%) used English less than one hour per day. As a group, the most preferred way of studying English was 'self-study' (n = 20, 54%), followed by 'taking English courses at university' (n = 17, 44%) and 'using a private institution' (n = 10, 30%). They thought they were more frequently exposed to American English than to British, Canadian, Australian or Indian English. They were asked their reasons for taking the proficiency exam, and the most common reason was 'for developing English proficiency' (n = 34, 100%), followed by 'for preparing for a job requirement' (n = 33, 92%), 'for meeting a university-graduation requirement' (n = 31, 82%) and 'for preparing for the future' (n = 25, 74%). It was assumed that the participants could be a sample-case group for getting feedback on an English test for adults.

The participants' English proficiency was inferred by using two different ways. The one was asking for their English proficiency test scores. Multiple responses were allowed for the respondents. Among the 53 reported scores from various English proficiency tests, 34 scores were related to the TOEIC test. Three reported their scores ranging from 600 to 699, seven from 700 to 799, 17 from 800 to 890 and seven over 900. The average score on the TOEIC test from 34 respondents was 826, indicating a group with an upper mediate level of English proficiency. The other way to infer the group's English proficiency was to check the self-reported English proficiency level. Thirty-one (84%) respondents self-reported that their English reading skill was above medium-level, and 30 (79%) reported the same for their listening skill. Twenty-two respondents(60%) answered that their speaking and writing skills were above medium level. They seemed to think that their perceptive reading and listening skills were better than their productive speaking and writing skills.

2. Da a C

The procedure for test-development and data collection follows below: first, a large scale needs analysis identifying 542 university students' preferences on Internet-based testing was carried out. Second, based on the analysis, detailed ways of designing a computer-based English proficiency test were set up. Third, the test items were made and uploaded on the system. Fourth, a survey questionnaire asking about the appropriateness of various aspects of a computer-based test was designed. Fifth, it was announced that the trial version of the test would be conducted. Sixth, the test was administered on 14th November 2012, and the test-takers answered the questionnaire via computer immediately after taking the test. Seventh, the computerized data was analyzed using SPSS. As the number of the respondents was small (n = 38), the frequency check was used for a method of analysis.

3. T F a

The target English proficiency test was a computer-based test. It included four skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing. The lisenting section consisted of three parts with 50 questions. The first part had 10 questions, and it requested test-takers to listen to a short dialogue and find an appropriate response among three options. The second part had 20 questions and asked test-takers to listen to a long dialogue and chose a correct answer among four options. The third part had 20 questions and dealt with a monologue. It took 40 minutes to answer the listening part. The reading part also consisted of three parts with 50 multiple-choice questions. The first two parts had 20 questions and asked about grammar and vocabulary. The third part included 30 questions dealing with a reading passage. The assigned time for the reading section was 60 minutes. The speaking section consisted of six parts with 13.5 minutes. The test-takers were asked to answer by recording their voices on the computer. The questions included 'self-introduction', 'daily-life related role-play', 'description of illustrations', 'business role-play', 'description of data', and 'opinion-statement'. The writing section had three tasks. The test-takers were given 40 minutes to type their answers on the computer. The writing tasks included 'writing an email-memo', 'description of data', and 'a short essay'.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. O a R

The following table presents the number and the percentage of the respondents on each question-item.

TABLE 1. O a R T - a (= 38)

Questions	Response	Listening		Reading		Speaking		Writing	
		n =	%	n =	%	n =	%	n =	%
The length of time	Very Positive	5	14	1	3	3	10	2	7
	Positive	16	44	10	29	5	17	6	20
	Neutral	12	33	12	34	16	53	13	43
	Negative	3	8	11	31	4	13	9	30
	Very Negative			1	3	2	7		
Task authenticity	Very Positive	1	3	4	11	5	17	4	14
	Positive	14	39	14	40	15	50	12	41
	Neutral	20	56	16	46	9	30	11	38
	Negative	1	3	1	3	1	3	2	7
	Very Negative								
Measuring general English proficiency	Very Positive	3	8	2	6	3	10	2	7
	Positive	14	39	13	37	6	20	9	30
	Neutral	12	33	11	31	15	50	13	43
	Negative	7	19	9	26	6	20	6	20
	Very Negative								
Use for certification of graduation	Very Positive	2	6	3	9	3	10	4	13
	Positive	15	42	14	40	12	40	11	37
	Neutral	16	44	16	46	12	40	13	43
	Negative	1	3			1	3		
	Very Negative	2	6	2	6	2	7	2	7
Level of difficulty	Very Positive								
	Positive	7	19	1	3	1	3	2	7
	Neutral	18	50	19	54	22	73	22	73
	Negative	11	31	13	37	6	20	6	20
	Very Negative			2	6	1	3		
Types of test-item	Very Positive	3	8	3	9	1	3	2	7
	Positive	15	42	9	26	12	40	14	47

	Neutral	16	44	17	49	14	47	13	43
	Negative	2	6	6	17	3	10	1	3
	Very Negative								
Screen organization	Very Positive	3	8	3	9	2	7	4	13
	Positive	16	44	12	34	11	37	12	40
	Neutral	16	44	16	46	15	50	14	47
	Negative	1	3	3	9	2	7		
	Very Negative			1	3				

The overall results indicate that some negative responses were found in the length of time and the level of difficulty for the reading and speaking sections. Due to difficulty in reading text via a computer monitor, negative responses were also reported for the reading section. Some participants did not like use this computer-based English proficiency test for certifying a requirement for university graduation. All in all, task authenticity and item-type as a test for measuring general English proficiency were positively accepted by the test-takers.

TABLE 2. A a Fa

Questions	Very Positive		Positive		Neutral		Negative		Very Negative	
	n =	%	n =	%	n =	%	n =	%	n =	%
Test administration	4	11	9	24	9	24	15	39	1	3
Sound quality	7	18	19	50	11	29	1	3		
Illustrations	3	8	14	37	19	50	1	3	1	3

Since the test was newly made and conducted, there were negative responses related to the administration of the computer-based test. Other factors of sound quality and illustrations were considered to be of an acceptable level for this group of respondents.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

To evaluate a newly developed test, we need to see whether the test measures what is was designed to measure (Hughes, 2003; Messick, 1989). As McNamara (1996) mentions this validation needs constant verification and all sources of verifying validity must be checked. In other words, the implementation of test development should be based on theoretical principles and evidence of validity. Bachman and Palmer (2000) and Chapelle, Jamieson, and Hegelheimer (2003) also stress processes to determine test validation. Based on these suggestions, we believed that checking the validity of a test could be done by checking the test-takers' responses. It would be useful to conduct an empirical analysis checking the validation of a newly developed computer-based English proficiency test.

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S09: Technology in Language Teaching

Room: College of Pharmacy 306

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Jina Lee (Sangmyung Univ.)		
14:00-14:30	**Ca a C a a T E C a C** Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Univ.)	Eunsook Jeong (Korea National Univ. of Education)
14:30-15:00	**EFL S B A L a E T T** Young-Ah Ko (Hanbuk Univ.)	Jung-Yun Choi (Konkuk Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Jongbum Ha (Kumoh National Institute of Technology)		
15:10-15:40	**Ga E MOODLE O S Ma a** Kelly Quinn (Nagoya Institute of Technology, Japan)	Juyoung Lim (Anyang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**A P a D E-M EFL L a** Jonghee Jung & Hyoungyoub Kim (Korea Univ.)	Kelly Quinn (Nagoya Institute of Technology)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Ho-Jung Yu (Kyungil Univ.)		
16:20-16:50	**A C -Ba C a A a E A U a** Dukhee Sung (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Sunyoung Park (Univ. of Sheffield)

Ca a C a a T E C a C

J K
Ba U

The purpose of this study is to survey opinions of students who took camera chatting classes for tourism English, and find out best ways to develop tourism English teaching methods and textbooks for communicative competence. Tourist guide communicative competence comes with the linguistic competence of English with multiple skills on communication, which is the clear knowledge on the subject matter, the appropriate way of transferring message, the proper format of language, and consideration of audience reaction. In addition, there is a big demand of need of new tourism English textbooks which contained student's requires such as authentic materials and practical dialogues. In this study, I want to develop tourism English teaching methods using camera chatting program for communicative competence. It targets Korean university students who are majored in tourism; Therefore, this thesis is focused on not only studying theoretical background on tourism English teaching methods but also researching learner's needs and current Tourism English materials market. In this study we found that to solve problems of tourism English education method to satisfy urgent needs to educate tourism agents for higher English communication ability, the first issue to develop is communicative competence, which concentrates on the ability to cope with the interactive structuring discourse. The second issue is ESP which is needed to teach efficient teaching method for tourism English communicative approach. The third issue is content- based instruction devised by learners need. So we can conclude to solve current Korean tourism English education problems, communicative competence, approach as an ESP, and content- based instruction are needed.

So we can conclude that content based instruction helps to increase learners' interest for learning. To solve current Korean tourism English education problems, communicative competence, approach as an ESP, and content-based instruction are needed.

As a method to increase higher English communication ability, we introduced the concept of World English and the goals of Camera Chatting project(CCP), and especially to analyze the data from the Baekseok-Waseda CCProject (BWCCP). The main purposes of this study are like these: the first is to identify the concept of World English, the second is to analyze the data from BWCCP, and the third is to suggest the ways to utilize CCP as a tool for cultivating English competence for foreign learners. CCP is voice and the text chatting system between Baekseok and Waseda University students. The data was collected through the questionnaire from the students, and the results from the data analysis proved that BWCCP was very helpful in cultivating the English for tourism English. In the near future, it will be needed to do more research on BWCCP project and the potentiality of understanding World English. In the near future, it will be needed to do more research on CCP project and the potentiality of understanding World English through CCP.

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EFL S B A L a E T T

Y -A K
Ha U

I. INTRODUCTION

The number of EFL learners is rapidly increasing in the globalized world, and the last few decades have witnessed an enormous advancement in technology. The variety of technology tools has attracted many English teachers and students to utilize these tools that are believed to be effective. Nowadays, young students are usually adept at using technological devices such as computers and smart phones, and it is easily assumed that these young people use technology very often when they learn English. Ample studies support the effectiveness of technology for language learning, however, it is not well known how English learners actually perceive technology. In this study, the researcher aimed to investigate EFL students' views on technology as a method of learning English, and what tools they enjoy using when they study English. The study involved college EFL students, and the findings from the study were different from what was expected prior to the investigation because students did not seem to really enjoy using technology as much overall. Also, the kinds of technology tools were not diverse. In order to understand students' responses more deeply, some of the participants were selected for interviews. More detailed explanations on using technology were elicited from the interviews, and lastly, practical implications from study findings are included.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Pa a

The participants for this study were recruited from a university located in the northern part of Kyunggi-do in Korea. A total of 84 EFL students responded to the survey inquiring about their English learning experience. All the participants were native speakers of Korean and had received English instruction since they were in elementary school. There were 36 male students (36%) and 48 female students (64%) who were either freshmen or sophomores. Students were from a variety of departments including the department of English, Chinese, food and nutrition, nursing, business administration, social welfare, leisure sports, multimedia, and computer science. Three students were randomly selected for the interviews.

2. I / Da a A a

Data were collected by administering a questionnaire consisting of 4 main questions written in Korean. The following questions were included in the questionnaire. The first three questions were in a Likert scale so that students could rate them from one to five, and the last question was an open-ended question.

1. I like English.
2. I enjoy studying English.
3. I think using technology is helpful in learning English.
4. How often do you use technology when you study English?
   If so, what kind of technology do you use, and how is it helpful?
   If not, is there a reason why you don't use technology?

The first three questions intended to ask what they thought about English and technology-assisted English learning to see if there was a relationship between students' liking for English/ study English and the preference for the use of technology for studying English. The fourth question was included to elicit students' specific explanations on why or why not they used technology to study English. The questionnaire was administered to EFL college students during classes or breaks.

Students' answers in the first three questions in a Likert scale were counted to check the frequency. Students' open-ended responses were categorized by similar words to determine emerging themes (Glesne, 2006), which make up the

prominent points offered in this paper. Through the categorization of the themes, similar patterns derived from students' answers were put into different categories. Lastly, short interviews were added in order to investigate participants answers more in depth.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. D K a EFL E ?

From the data, it was inferred that male students do not have a gender-specific characteristic about likes and dislikes about English as male students were not weighted towards rating. In contrast, a gender-specific characteristic for female students could be found as many of the female students answered that they moderately like English. Male students may not have intense consciousness in general when it comes to a foreign language, English, but female students may be more homogeneous than male students in terms of their thoughts on English. There are studies stating that boys usually have more negative views on foreign language learning (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Loulidi, 1990), but it was not the case in this study. Male students showed a higher percentage in higher ratings. What needs to be considered, however, is that people's gender-related bias on foreign language learning should be averted (Yamashiro, 1996, as cited in Sunderland, 2000).

2. D K a EFL E ?

Overall, both male and female students' ratings went down for the second question. Students rated the second question lower than the first one. Only a very small number of students answered they enjoy studying English. The fact that the number of lower ratings such as 1, 2, and 3, increased means students had different thoughts from the first question. The majority of both male and female students did not seem to enjoy studying English although they answered they somewhat like the language itself in the first question. Over 80% of all the students rated the second question 1 through 3.

3. D K a EFL E ?

As the main focus of this study was to investigate EFL students' perception of the use of technology for studying English, the third question asked what they thought about using technology when studying English. The results indicate that female students tend to find it helpful to use technology more than male students do. The majority of female students rated the third question either three or four, but many of male students rated it three which meant they did not think using technology is very helpful nor did they think it is not helpful at all.

4. H K a EFL E ?

In order to delve into EFL students' perceptions of using technology for studying English, students were asked to explain reasons for using or not using technology when studying English. For students who use technology, they were asked how often they use it and what kind of technology they use, and how helpful it is to use technology for studying English. For those who do not use technology, they were asked to explain why they do not use it. 25 out of 48 female students (52%) said that they use technology while only 7 out of 36 male students (19%) answered they use technology.

Among female students who answered that they use technology, less than 50% of female students (10 students) answered they actively use technology almost every day. The rest of female students only use it less often than once a week or even only when it occurs to them. On the other hand, 5 out of 7 male students responded they use technology quite often, at least a few times a week. The rest said they only use it less often than once a week.

Students' reasons for using and not using technology were categorized into a few aspects that represented similar patterns. One thing to be noted is that even students who use technology mentioned that they do not think using technology is very helpful for studying English. Many of female students indicated that they use a certain part of technology, but they just use it once in a while because they do not believe using technology can help them learn English better. Among those who said that they use technology often reported they think it helps when they use it to train their listening skills and share ideas with others online. Male students had the same answers as their counterpart. Students who said they use technology very often were the ones who thought using technology is very helpful for them in the third question.

The kinds of technology tools mentioned by students are movies or news in English, smart phone applications that allowed them to communicate with virtual characters, internet cafes, online lectures offered by private language institutes, CD ROMs and electronic dictionaries. These tools referred to by the students were common across gender. Table 5 shows students' responses below.

5. S a a

Three participants were randomly selected for short interviews to learn more deeply about reasons as to why their responses were different from the expectations that young students would like to use technology when they study English. Contrary to the expectation, all the interviewees' responses were consistent that using technology does not always guarantee effective learning. They believe that what really matters is how much time and efforts they put into studying English, not how they study English. Whether they use textbooks or online programs, they do not care too much about the means they use for studying English.

Another common response is that they always keep their smart phones with them wherever they go, and this makes them use computers less and use their smart phones more often. Moreover, there are many useful applications they can download on their smart phones which help them learn English, so it is much more convenient to use phones rather than computers. For instance, when they watch movies or news in English or dictionaries, they usually use their smart phones. Overall, it was discovered that students do not rely heavily on technology per se. Also, technology is not considered the best way to study English, and technology is considered to play an assistant role.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The goal of this study was to explore Korean EFL students' perceptions of technology tools for English learning. As the results manifested, the Korean EFL students' attitude towards English was not very positive as many of them said they do not like English. Also, how students viewed studying English was even more negative as their ratings went down overall. These responses seemed to reflect their point of view on the use of technology for studying English. The fact that more than half of the participants viewed using technology not very helpful was quite surprising because the younger generation is generally expected to be technology-savvy in this period where a great deal of technological devices are pouring out into the market continuously.

It may be that students using technology at leisure for having fun is one thing and using technology for studying English is another since more than half of them explained that they do not think using technology is helpful for studying English. Another speculation is that students do not even want to go through trouble in learning technological skills for learning English. Warschauer (2004) contends that using computers for language learning alters the process and purpose of language learning as the learning process becomes distinct when computers are accompanied as opposed to language learning involving non-electronic media such as books. For instance, when students learn a language through computers, they need to learn how to read and write in an electronic learning environment. This requires students to use computers properly in addition to language learning. This might lay more burden on students who have to learn English concurrently.

Many of the specific examples of technology tools that students use were English movies or dramas, a virtual character integrated in smart phone applications, and internet cafes or online lectures involving social interaction or authentic materials. This result is in line with the literature emphasizing social interaction for successful language learning, for example, face-to-face interaction (Harlin, Lipa, & Lonberger, 1991; Tsou, 2005). These students' answers indirectly indicate that there needs to be a certain form of social interaction in language learning for a better learning experience. In contrast with these responses, students who answered they do not use technology mostly said it is because they do not think it is helpful for their learning. Students should know what tools work best for them, so they would need to try to learn about various different tools that are available for them if they really want to take advantage of technology for studying English.

Overall, students' ratings for Question 1 did not seem to be closely related to the Question 3. Even students who like English revealed that they do not think it is helpful to use technology for learning English. This goes back to the statement made earlier that students need to find their own way of studying English that works best for them. In addition, students from the department of English showed higher inclination to use technology, which could be inferred that they try to use more diverse ways of studying English to study English more actively compared to other students from different departments. As can be seen from interview findings, English learners do not always think that using technology is the best way to improve their English skills. Teachers need to be mindful that technology should not be

the center of learning. Instead, more attention should be given to what is going to be taught and learned.

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Ga E MOODLE O S Ma a

K Q
Na a I T , Ja a

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1980s, e-learning materials and e-learning systems have moved steadily into school curricula. In fact a report by Ambient Insight Research claims that in 2009, 44 percent of post-secondary students in the USA were taking some or all of their courses online. The report further projected that if current trends continue, this figure could possibly reach 81 percent by 2014. Clearly e-learning can no longer be considered a marginal or unimportant phenomenon, but one that has reached the educational mainstream. This continued growth has not been without its critics. Walsh et al (2003) suggest that claims about the efficiency and success of e-learning materials should be regarded with caution.

One problem that arises with evaluating the effectiveness of e-learning materials is that traditional materials and e-learning materials are rarely compared side-by-side. Often a course presents material in either a traditional manner or an e-learning manner and so it is difficult to compare the relative merits of the two types of material directly. In 2011, a situation at Nagoya Institute of Technology arose that would allow for the direct comparison of the two methods of presenting materials. This paper will explain the background that allowed for this direct comparison, explain the types of materials used, describe the situation that made it possible to compare the two groups and finally present the results of an end of term achievement test as an indication of which method is more effective in helping students master material.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Ba

Four things combined to allow the author to be able to compare the merits of e-learning materials versus traditional materials: a unified curriculum, the use of a standardized textbook, streaming of the students, and the use of an end of semester standardized test.

First, the curriculum of the first year required English classes was standardized. There are two goals for the course English for Science and Technology I expressed in the syllabus used by all teachers. By the end of the course, students are expected achieve the ability to comprehend general scientific and technical topics and be able to achieve the ability to express themselves on these topics.

The second point that helped compare e-learning to paper based materials was that all teachers used the same textbook and taught to achieve the same language goals. Based on Rivers (1981), the textbook is organized around ten lexical units common in scientific English. It was written by the teachers at Nagoya Institute of technology and thus any copyright issues regarding porting the material to MOODLE were avoided.

The drill activities from the textbook were converted to Moodle activities and made available on the school's server. Thus, there were two groups of students. The first group used only the textbook. The second group had the same textbook, but they could also access the same textbook activities as e-learning activities using MOODLE, an open source e-learning system. Students were able to access the activities either at school or from their homes or using their smart phones.

Third, before classes began, students took the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and were sorted into classes based on their TOEIC score. Approximately one thousand students were divided into classes of about forty students. In 2011 the top score on TOEIC by an incoming student was 900 points, combined listening and writing. The lowest was 180 points. According to the TOEIC Users Guide, students with scores in the 860 – 990 range, have the "ability to communicate on a variety of topics and are reasonably accurate and understandable." On the other hand, students with scores below 220 are described as, "ability to communicate in English very limited."

Even though the textbook and materials were the same regardless of level, it was expected that students of similar level would complete activities around the same time and that the flow and time management of the class would be easier. Also, because the students were streamed into different classes based on ability, it was possible to compare final

exam scores of students with the same ability and compare their performance on the final exam.

The fourth factor that allowed the comparison to take place was the use of a common final exam. After completing five units of the textbook, all teachers teaching the course administered the same exam. Because the test was based directly on the textbook, it would reveal how well students had mastered that material and would allow teachers to see which method of delivery, MOODLE or textbook, helped students more.

2. Da a

The data in this study was collected from students in the class English for Science and Technology I. Students were divided into classes based on their TOEIC scores. All students used the same textbook and all students took the same end of semester final exam. Data of the project is summarized in Table 1.

TALBE 1. S a K Da a

E S & T P 3			
L	**MOODLE**	**TOEIC**	**F a E a S**
Level-1	YES	655	81.27
Level-2	NO	546	77.54
Level-3	NO	513	76.2
Level-4	YES	490	78.16
Level-5	YES	473	74.60
Level-6	NO	456	67.58
Level-7	NO	438	72.40
Level-8	NO	423	68.30
Level-9	NO	408	70.58
Level-10	YES	385	73.03
Level-11	NO	360	68.89
Level-12	YES	326	69.52
Level-13	YES	254	57.47
E S & T P 4			
L	**MOODLE**	**TOEIC**	**F a E a S**
Level-1	NO	669	79.19
Level-2	NO	542	77.28
Level-3	YES	504	76.30
Level-4	NO	484	72.65
Level-5	YES	463	72.71
Level-6	YES	444	73.05
Level-7	NO	430	72.4
Level-8	NO	410	70.58
Level-9	NO	394	69.14
Level-10	YES	378	74.24
Level-11	NO	356	67.17
Level-12	YES	327	70.09
Level-13	YES	282	65.78

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research such as Brown (1996) demonstrates a correlation between students' English proficiency as demonstrated by tests such as TOEIC and students' performance on English achievement tests. It is generally expected that students with higher TOEIC scores will do better on end of semester English achievement tests than students with lower proficiency. Generally this assumption is born out. The students in the Level-1 class, those with the highest

TOEIC scores, received higher average scores on the end of semester final exam. However, when the data of Table 1. are analyzed more carefully, a number of interesting points of comparison appear.

MOODLE activities were used in twelve of the twentysix classes. The most interesting comparison is between adjacent classes where one class used the MOODLE materials and the class either immediately above or below did not. This situation occurred ten times. There were seven instances where the higher level class did not use the MOODLE activities while the class immediately below them in level did. Of these seven instances, students in the lower MOODLE class outperformed students in the higher level non-MOODLE class six of the seven times. For example, in Period 3, students in the Level-3 class had an average TOEIC score of 513 and an average final exam score of 76.2. Students in the Level-4 class had an average TOEIC score of 490 and an average final exam score of 78.16. In fact, students in the Level-4 class outperformed not only the class immediately above them, Level-3, but also achieved a higher average score than the students in the Level-2 class who had a significantly higher TOEIC score, 546 in Level-2 versus 490 in Level-4.

In no instances did students in non-MOODLE class outperform students of higher ability who had used MOODLE. In fact, in only one instance did students in a non-MOODLE class outperform students in the level below them when the students were using the MOODLE activities. In Period 4, the students in Level-2 did not use MOODLE while the students in Level-3 below them did. In this case the higher level students outscored the MOODLE using students. However, it is interesting to note that even though the students in Level-3 did not outperform the students immediately above them, they did achieve a higher average score than the Level-3 class in Period 3 who had roughly the same TOEIC score. Students in Period 3, Level-3 had a TOEIC score of 513 and achieved an average score of 76.2 on the final exam. Students in Period 4, Level-3 had a TOEIC score of 504 points, slightly lower than Period 3, and achieved an average score of 76.30 on the final exam.

IV. CONCLUSION

While none of the differences in average scores were very large, the consistency with which students using the MOODLE materials outperformed students with higher proficiency who did not use MOODLE can be considered significant and could be taken as an indication of the benefits of using e-learning materials. Although many variables were controlled in this study, still the relatively slight differences in scores between classes could be accounted for by statistical variation or differences in the relative skill of the teachers in the classroom or other variables not taken into account in this study. Thus, this study cannot be considered conclusive. However, the overall trend in this study is clear. Students using the e-learning materials performed better on the final exam. Further study of individual students' use of the MOODLE activities and analysis of their individual performance on the final exam should be the next step in researching this important topic.

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A P a D E-M EFL L a

J J a H K
K a U

I. INTRODUCTION

Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) is evolving beyond the qualitative growth of technological innovations of smart devices. With various inventive applications, MALL invites learners to become organizers, active participants, and evaluators themselves in the different learning situations. The feasible conception of E-Mentor is essentially an adviser on the operating systems of smart devices to introduce EFL-learners to the most effective and proper applications for English educational purpose on a case-by-case basis. One of the major features of the E-Mentor's mentoring system is the technological realization of functional categories based on analysis of the users' (EFL-learners) linguistic competence. E-Mentor categorizes its users according to the particularized objectives of learning, content difficulties, age of target learners, educational environments, and both contents and system satisfactions of users. Unfortunately, the rise of educational demand for MALL eventually brought about quantitative changes in the field of English education – the boom of variety of applications – which is causing inconvenience and confusion to learners who are highly motivated in applying MALL. E-Mentor gives EFL-Learners a standard by which to measure and choose the proper applications for English learning. Furthermore, the actual development and experimental studies of E-Mentor will possibly suggest a new paradigm of language learning, and it will enable researchers and teachers to be interested in trying the new methodological approach towards MALL. In this article, we briefly discuss the functional categories of E-Mentor and guide through the process of development of E-Mentor.

Ⅱ. DEFINING MALL AND E-MENTOR

1. W a MALL?

Mobile-Assisted Language Learning can perhaps be defined as the use of mobile technologies and devices in language teaching and learning as an extension of the field of CALL, Computer-Assisted Language Learning. Earlier studies on the MALL focused on mobile applicability and usability in educational contexts using mobile devices such as PDAs, mobile phones and mp3 players (Kukulska 2007). MALL is to enable the learners and teachers to better achieve their responsibilities, both inside and outside the classroom, and find their activities 'personal', 'spontaneous', 'informal', 'context-aware', 'bite-sized', and 'portable' (Traxler 2007). Recent studies focused on the emerging technologies with the rapid growth of the smart devices such as Smartphone and Tablet PC (Warschauer 2010).

2. W a E-M ?

E-Mentor is an application for EFL-learners that provide them with the most useful information of various English educational applications, allowing users to choose the most appropriate applications available to them. Applications will be carefully analyzed based on six criteria: particularized objectives of learning, content difficulties, age of target learners, educational environments, and both contents and system satisfactions of users. The criteria should be determined by the specialists in English education, and any possible subsections of the criteria can be altered either by adding or creating further subcategories to the E-Mentor's operating system, as it becomes necessary. Learners not only will be able to build their own learning plans by considering their individual learning goals, English language competency, and personal interests, but also will be able to control their learning performances and evaluate the achievements themselves through the E-Mentor.

Ⅲ. METHODOLOGY

1. C a A a E L a A a

This research and proposal on the initial planning step of E-Mentor is tentatively targeted at the English learning applications which have developed on the assumption that the users are mostly Korean EFL-learners. English

learning applications account for the majority of all the categories for language educational applications in Korea.[6] In this article, the critical analysis of English learning applications has been done with the top-100-sales applications according to the 'iTunes store' [7]for the 31 days immediately preceding and ending May 2013 by way of showing an example. The applications are sorted according to the six criteria as previously stated, and the analyzing applications should clearly show sufficient explanations to the questions below.

- Is the content of the application valid enough to focus on certain purpose of learning activities?
- Is there a sustained consideration of difficulty among the words, phrases, and sentences used in the context?
- For whom is the application intended? Is the application intended for learners on any specific purposes?
- For which language-skills is the application focused on?
- Can we figure out the validity and the reliability of the contents by utilizing the E-Mentor?

2. Ca a A a

1)Pa a O L a

Most applications that exist for Korean EFL-learners are to improve their language skills for assessment tests such as TOEFL, TOEIC, and the National College Scholastic Ability Test of Korea. Learners who need to prepare for the above tests normally search for appropriate applications by keywords, and surely the providers offer information related to particularized objectives of their applications. However, there are also some applications that are not clearly focused on certain learning objectives, and that obviously lacks any significant impact on the learners. E-Mentor configures and analyzes the applications and finds out suitability in each differentiated categories based on learning objectives.

TABLE.1 N A a Ca L a O [8]

Objects of Learning	College scholastic ability test	TOEFL	TOEIC	Conversation & Speaking	Vocabulary	Grammar	Business English	Etc.
Number of Applications	10	10	25	20	27	13	4	13

(Top-100-sales applications of the iTunes store, May 2013)

2) C D

E-Mentor does not simply categorize the applications and learners into various levels such as Beginners, Intermediates, and Advanced categories by subjective or unilateral criteria. E-Mentor evaluates through both the application and the learner's linguistic competence by an elaborate analysis of applications or thoroughly designed level-testing stage in the operating process. Assignments of the E-Mentor's level-testing stage developed by experts of English education should be clear, concise, and comprehensive which also should take into account the characteristics of MALL.

3) A Ta L a a E a a E

The number of applications which have been developed for certain age-groups, English learning for children for example, is consistently increasing. Moreover, the various challenges on the approach of application development for the English learners who have a specific purpose in a particular learning environment, such as aged learners who have never experienced English learning or disabled learners, could bring forth rapid progress in MALL. E-Mentor should be watching for any developments of both technology and learning contents in the field of MALL and attract qualitative growth from the application developers and English educators. This fact being given, E-Mentor will be able to recommend the appropriate applications to learners under the various circumstances

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[6] There are 62 English learning applications out of the top-100-sales that have been sold at the 'iTunes store', and 46 out of 100 at 'play store' for the 31 days immediately preceding and ending May 2013.
[7] Apple Inc's 'iTunes store' is an operating online marketplace for buyers and sellers of applications and services.
[8] Part of the application-counts can be relevant in various areas.

4) I C a La a

In Korea, significant numbers of English learners are interested in improving their Speaking, Listening, Writing or Reading skills intensively. It seems to be that it is due to most Korean EFL-learners who are encouraged to prepare for various assessment tests, which is generally divided into 4 subjects, including Speaking, Listening, Writing and Reading. Consequently, English learning applications for Korean EFL-learners are the vast majority, which focuses on separate improvement of each English skill. E-Mentor classifies the applications into 5 categories, applications for Speaking, Listening, Writing, Reading skills and Vocabulary, considering the distinct situations of EFL learning in Korea.

TABLE.2 N A a F C a La a S [9]

Language Skills	Speaking	Listening	Writing	Reading	Vocabulary
Number of applications	25	27	4	17	22

(Top-100-sales applications of the iTunes store, May 2013)

5)C a S Sa a

E-Mentor builds up the criteria for a detailed evaluation of applications to ensure the learner's content and system satisfaction as stated below.

TABLE.3 C a E a a C Sa a

Content Satisfaction	Detailed Evaluation of Content Satisfaction
Content Usability	· Advantages of MALL, such as portability and personalization, have been taken into account. · Convenient to learn when compared to offline education.
Achievement of Learning Objectives	· Contents contribute to accomplishing learning objectives. · Include contents related to educational goals.
Content Reliability	· Contents and their organization are reliable. · Contents are rational and useful for students.
Content and System Suitability	· Include well-founded information related to content and the visual materials (video clips, pictures) aids the retention of information.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. H a O a P a U I a E-M

The following in an example of E-Mentor showing a hypothetical operating process used by a learner who is preparing for the Reading Comprehension component of TOEIC.

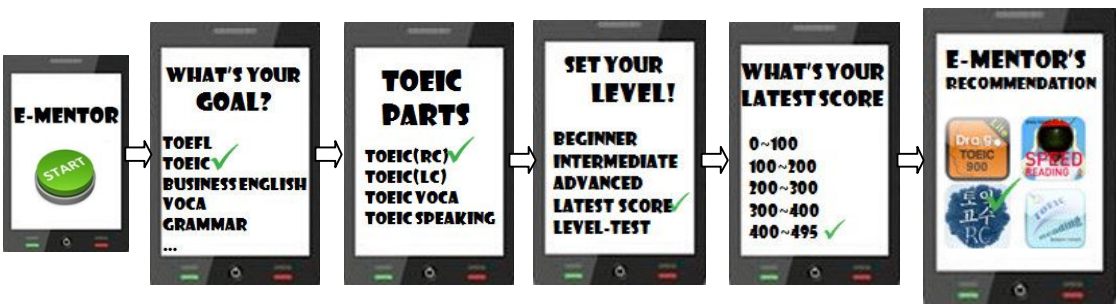

FIGURE 1. H a O a P a U I a E-M

[9] Part of the application-counts can be relevant in various areas

2. I a a M L a

E-Mentor provides information to its learners in their own native language to ensure the accurate understanding of the contents regarding to the applications.

FIGURE 2. I a a M L a

V. CONCLUSION

As a new educational paradigm of 21st century, E-Mentor plays its role as a 'mentor' for learners and teachers to approach to MALL more efficiently. Considering huge demand for English education in Korea, need for infrastructure to realize MALL, trend of education policy, rapid formation of MALL market, and increasing educational content providers, E-Mentor has unlimited potential as a pioneer for mobile-assisted foreign language education. Furthermore, the additional Studies on the development of the E-Mentor will enable researchers and teachers to be interested in trying the new methodological approach towards MALL.

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A C -Ba C a A a E A U a

D S

S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

There have been numerous studies of the English article system, mainly because English article usage is complex, involving many semantic and discourse factors. Among the studies that have been proposed to date, those of Hawkins (1978), Chesterman (1991), and Epstein (1994 and 1996) address the complexity of the English articles comprehensively. The present research examines the adequacy of these three analyses. Using corpus-based analysis, this study aims to answer to the question of how well previously proposed features in the work of Hawkins, Chesterman, and Epstein, e.g., locatability and prominence, capture the complex properties of the articles. It is argued that combining insights from all three provides a more comprehensive theoretical basis for describing the English article system.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a & A a

The data for the analysis was extracted from the total of 9 sources, including a magazine, a novel, an academic article, two newspapers, and the on-line, Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE). Specifically, the data contains 1,000 actual instances of Chesterman's four articles, *the*, *a*, *zero* and *null*. Each instance was coded according to his four features, locatability; inclusiveness, which he adopted from Hawkins; extensivity; and referentiality, in addition to Epstein's expressivity feature. The framework for the analysis is summarized in Table 1 as below. It shows that expressivity is only applied to uses of surface articles, *a* and *the*, and not to *zero* and *null,* following Epstein. With respect to referentiality, all four articles are used non-referentially as well as referentially.

TABLE 1. F a a a

	Referential/ Non-Referential	
[+Limited extensivity]	A	The
Locatability	±	+
Inclusiveness	-	+
Expressivity	-	+
[−Limited extensivity]	Zero	Null
Locatability	-	+
Inclusiveness	±	+

2. Da a A a P

With the combination of four articles and five semantic categories, locatability, inclusiveness, expressivity, referentiality, and extensivity, a total of 12 semantic categories were identified. Accordingly, the frequency of each feature of an article instance was calculated in relation to these 12 semantic categories. Using the 12 cases of article classification, I encoded each instance of article use according to the following two principles: first, how to identify an NP that occurs with an article in question, according to number, i.e., countable-ness; second, how to judge an article instance with respect to the five key features, i.e., locatable vs. non-locatable or inclusive vs. exclusive, etc.

TABLE 2. T 12 S a C a E A

	12 semantic configurations	Individual article instances
1	Referential, +locatable, –inclusive *a*	Bill lost *a finger* in the war.
2	Referential, –locatable, –inclusive *a*	Bill found *a ten-pound note* yesterday.
3	Referential, +locatable, +inclusive *the*	There are cracks in *the paving stones.*
4	Referential, –locatable, +inclusive *zero*	*Insects* have six legs. I like *coffee.*

5	Referential, –locatable, –inclusive *zero*	*Dogs* are friendly creatures. There are *scratches* on the window.
6	Referential, +locatable, +inclusive *null*	*John* is my closest friend.
7	Non-referential, *a*	John is *a good man.*
8	Non-referential, *the*	John is *the acme of courtesy.*
9	Non-referential, *zero*	John and Bill are *good players*.
10	Non-referential, *null*	*Mary* is still one of the most popular girl's names. He has been in *jail* for a couple of years. He came back home by *train*.
11	Referential, –expressive *a*	His election would change this, Clinton said, and from Long Island to Los Angeles, tore up its GOP record and backed *a Democratic presidential candidate* who spoke like no other…
12	Referential, +expressive *the*	Gordon Walter was the first person to be ambushed by Africanized honeybees. Even as a bee expert, Waller was fooled by *the swarm of honeybees* that landed …

Ⅲ. RESULTS ND DISCUSSION

1. Q a a A a

Based on the framework produced from the three major studies combined, 1,000 article instances were analyzed. The frequency results are shown with example occurrences in raw numbers as well as in percent in the following table.

TABLE 3. E a A a Ta 12 E a

Categ-ories	Actual instances					
	No.	%	Articles	NPs	NP Classes	Contextual clues
1	40	4	a	transcendental argument	singular/ count	mentioned earlier
2	99	10	an	Inference	singular/ count	non-locatable
3	404	40	the	other part	singular/ count	C1. Anaphoric
4	170	17	zero	Evolution	singular/ mass	non-locatable
5	106	11	zero	other possible explanations	plural/ count	non-locatable
6	122	12	null	Kant	singular/ proper	Name
7	26	3	a	good job	singular/ count	non-referential
8	4	0.4	the	in the mud	singular/ mass	non-referential
9	14	1	zero	tricky things	plural/ count	non-referential
10	13	1	null	Lecture	singular/ count	non-referential
11	0	0	a	-	-	-
12	2	0.2	the	feel-good story	singular/ count	Expressive

1) Ca a a

First, setting aside the consideration of article types, it is shown that the article instances in the data accounted for by location theory, (which in this analysis is presented as three semantic features combined: locatability, inclusiveness, and extensivity) outnumber the ones with expressive uses, 998 versus 2 in raw numbers. Notice that instances in categories 11 and 12 are expressive uses, and instances in the categories other than 11 and 12 are the ones accounted for by location theory. Second, referential uses exceed non-referential uses, which are represented in categories 7, 8, 9, and 10, in raw numbers 943 and 57, respectively. Considering only article types, setting aside the semantic categories of articles, the definite article is most frequently used, occurring in a total of 410 instances; the zero article is next with 290 occurrences; the indefinite article follows next with 165 instances, and the null article shows the least frequency with a total of 135 instances. This result says that the definite article shows up in almost half of the corpus in examination—the actual proportion is 41%.

With respect to both the semantic categories and article types together, the results show that the indefinite and zero articles, whose semantic categories are divided into two—for example, the indefinite article is characterized with the two semantic categories, category 1 with locatability and category 2 with non-locatability—show different

proportions. First, regarding the indefinite article shown in categories 1 and 2, the raw numbers are 40 and 99, respectively. The indefinite article with non-locatablity outnumbers that with locatability, 71% of the total 139 referential instances, excluding non-referentials for now. Second, for the zero article, indicated in categories 4 and 5, the zero article with inclusiveness occurs more frequently, in raw numbers 170, or 62% in category 4 while that of exclusiveness occurs 106 times out of the total of 276 referential instances.

2) Ca a NP a

Count singular nouns occur most frequently, 403 instances out of 1,000, or 40%, of total instances; count plural nouns follow next; then mass singular nouns; proper singular nouns the next; and plural proper nouns with the least frequency. For the first 3 categories, which show the indefinite *a*, in categories 1 and 2, and the definite article, *the*, in category 3, the indefinite article is combined with only count singular nouns; in contrast, the definite article shows a variety of forms with all the five NP classes. Categories 4 and 5, of the zero article, show interesting patterns with respect to NP classes. Note that the zero article occurs with two types of NP classes, either plural count or singular mass forms, and that the zero article instances in category 4 are inclusive, and in category 5 are exclusive. The NP classes seem to affect the semantic features of the zero article with respect to their inclusiveness. In other words, mass singular nouns with zero article are inclusive as captured in category 4; in contrast, plural nouns with zero article tend to be exclusive, 68% out of a total of 157 zero article instances with plural nouns.

3) C a a

It seems difficult to tell the differences among the individual 9 texts, and draw conclusive inferences among them. However, if they are gathered in number according to texts, either spoken or written, some interesting patterns seem to emerge. First, the frequency of the types of articles shows different patterns between spoken and written texts. If compared within each group of texts, in spoken genres, the two surface articles, *a* and *the*, are used more than the no-surface articles, null and zero, 321 vs. 179 in raw numbers. In written genres, the frequency of the two groups of articles, surface vs. no-surface articles, is almost even, 254 vs. 246 in raw numbers. Compared within each type of article, the two surface articles are used more in the spoken texts than in the written; in contrast, the two no-surface articles occurred more often in the written texts than in the spoken.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

This study aimed at testing the adequacy of the three proposed studies, Hawkins (1978), Chesterman (1991), and Epstein (1994 and 1996), on the assumption that these three studies combined may provide a comprehensive theoretical basis for identifying the characteristics of English articles. The method this study adopted was corpus-based analysis. From the theoretical frameworks drawn from the three existing studies, the five semantic features chosen for the present analysis were regarded as the most basic elements in capturing the English article system: locatability, inclusiveness, extensivity, expressivity, and referentiality. The first two concepts originated in Hawkins (1978); the third one, in Guillaume (1919); the fourth, expressivity, in Epstein (1994 and 1996); and referentiality was considered by Chesterman (1991). The basic insight for capturing the English article system comes mainly from Chesterman (1991). Based on careful studies of what each of the authors proposed and so that this study would not be distracted by other subjective judgments, the 12 semantic categories were established in order to test the soundness of these existing proposed theories by examining actual uses of the English articles.

From the analysis, two major points were found. First, location theory, which is concerned with the three semantic features of locatability, inclusiveness, and extensivity combined, explained the semantic features of the article use in most of the instances, except for 2 expressive uses in categories 11 and 12. Second, the expressive feature of articles seems to be an effective tool to describe the uses which cannot be accounted for by the location theory. Even if the frequency of expressive uses in the data was not high enough to state the soundness of expressive explanations of articles, several instances were found, fitting into the same description as Epstein proposed, “overriding the accounts of the location theory.” Also, it should be acknowledged that due to the limitation of the corpora selected for this study, the results related to the expressive uses could be biased. Several other points were also found, especially as regards the semantic tendencies that each type of article showed. First, the indefinite article showed a tendency to be non-locatable, as captured in category 2, rather than being locatable as in category 1. Second, the zero article with a singular mass noun showed complete conformity only with inclusiveness; in contrast, the zero article with plural count nouns showed

a tendency to be exclusive, as captured in category 5, rather than inclusive, in category 4. Third, the definite article *the* occurred in all NP classes. Last, singular count nouns with the null article are semantically distinguished from proper names by referentiality, that is, the former occurs non-referentially, the latter referentially. In conclusion, the five semantic features covered almost all the uses of the article in the actual corpus. This accountability, in return, shows that the English articles are a systematic phenomenon, despite their notorious complexity.

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S10: Learning Styles and Strategies

Room: College of Pharmacy 506

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Discussant
Chair: Kyungae Cha (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)		
14:00-14:30	**S , C a I a C a F** Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National Univ. of Education)	Moon-Koo Kang (Kongju National Univ.)
14:30-15:00	**T R a B La a L a P a A a S - C** Minhi Chae (Keimyung Univ.)	Nayoung Kim (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
15:00-15:10	Coffee Break	
Chair: Daehyeon Nam (Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology)		
15:10-15:40	**E T a 'a L a ' P a P U Ta - Ba La a T a (TBLT) K a** Hwakyung Lee (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Soo Yeon Kim (Anyang Univ.)
15:40-16:10	**U P T a S W** Allison Bill (Jeonju Univ.)	Shawn M. Clankie (Otaru Univ. of Commerce)
16:10-16:20	Coffee Break	
Chair: Yoon Kyu Kim (Korea National Univ. of Education)		
16:20-16:50	**U C S a L2 A a a Na a W K a EFL S** Jung Soo Bae (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Mijin Ju (Kangwon National Univ.)

S , C a I a C a F

J - K
K a Na a U E a

I. INTRODUCTION

Korean national curriculum of English aims to promote practical English skills centered on a list of communicative functions. The principles of curriculum are based on the concepts of sequencing, continuity in a spiral form and integration of the functions and daily life. This is based on the presumption that a list of English expressions can be categorized and listed according to their communicative functions, and these communicative functions can be sequenced along with their difficulty levels. The paper will look into the current layout of communicative functions and a list of expressions from elementary to middle schools if the purported principles are realized in the textbooks by an analysis of their sequencing, continuance and integration.

A curriculum to be successfully implemented in students' learning requires four criteria to satisfy: scope, sequence, integration and continuity. 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. 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. 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.

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 with 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 led English curriculum changes 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 within the group. The grade groups can smooth out the transition of elementary school English to middle school English which causes difficulties of written language for students to adjust to the different scope and sequences in the content. This presentation will look into the scope and sequences of English textbooks how to incorporate the concept of grade groups and how it's implemented in the school-based 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 curriculum to functional curriculum. 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. 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 and continuity. 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. However, the notion of sequence, continuity and integration made a perfect sense and systematic and reasonable.

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 'introduction'? It's not obvious how one can explain to validate the sequence of the communicative functions in the curriculum once exemplified in the English textbook. 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 accumulates to the stack of functional instances.

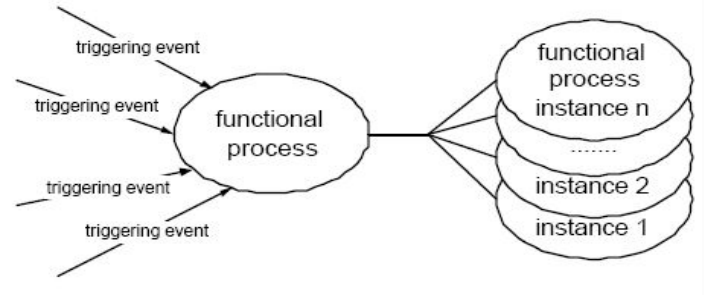

FIGURE 1. F a S

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 the same educational contents are taught in repetition so that important learning experiences are fully internalized to the learner. However, it is not quite clear what should be repeated and what should be not. 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 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 illustrate a structured repetition of curriculum contents supported by triggering event and language data between communicative functions.

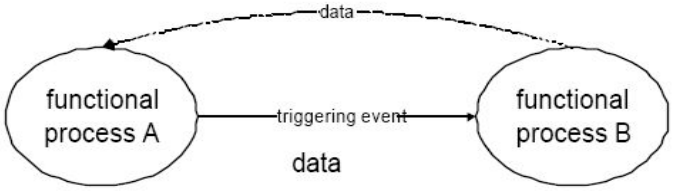

FIGURE 2. O a a F a C

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.

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. 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 a relevance between English learning and students' daily life, the EFL setting requires teachers to make an extra efforts of the integration to happen.

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 the minimum effort, 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.

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T R a B La a L a P a A a S - C

M C a
K U

I. INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation and learners' confidence both take important roles in language acquisition. First of all, pronunciation is one of the most clearly observable parts of language performance and takes major portion of learners' language ego. (Guiora, Beit-Hallahmi, Brannon, Dull & Schovel, 1972). In addition to this, a psychological factor, especially self-confidence has also been proved to greatly affect the language acquisition success (Ziyuan, 2004). Considering these two important factors of language acquisition, some studies also tried to reveal the relationship between the two. Various studies including Morley (1998), Zhang & Yin (2009), and Gilakjani (2012) mentioned that lack in pronunciation skill can downgrade learners' self-confidence when using the language. In addition to this, Kang (2010) showed students' idea that they would feel more confident with the language if they have better pronunciation. Putting all these together, it could be said that pronunciation may be somewhat related with the degree of learners' self-confidence, which may also affect their success in language acquisition. However, with the new notion of "English as an International Language (EIL)", 'comprehensibility' became the goal of pronunciation acquisition (Adityarini, 2007) and that has caused a little bit less attention put on pronunciation teaching in language classrooms. Two research questions were asked in this study to find out the relationship between leaner's pronunciation ability and the level of self-confidence: the first question was about self-confidence when speaking the language and the second one included the confidence for overall language proficiency. The results of this study were expected to find out how pronunciation may be related to learners' success in language acquisition and therefore, how it should be dealt in language classrooms.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

The participants of the study were 37 EFL students in Korea who were freshmen in E women's university and enrolled in required English course in Fall 2012. The study was designed as somewhat a combination of quantitative and qualitative research. The major data colleting method of the study was students' survey. For triangulation of the study, randomly selected four students (two from two different level courses) did an interview as well. After getting the survey results, the instructor was interviewed to provide reference information on students. Even though it was anonymous survey, her information was used to exclude and modify some inaccurate data. Also, her answers were used to explain some of the problems found in the survey results. All data were collected using participants' native language, Korean, for the accuracy of the study and the survey questionnaire was revised several times before being distributed. All interviews in the study were semi-structured but guidelines were provided for the validity of the interview. The instructor's interview data were also collected. The interview focused on getting instructor's idea on research questions.

2. Da a A a P

The results of the students' self-assessment on pronunciation ability from the survey did not clearly divide the students into different level groups. Therefore, using the instructor's reference information that students in advanced level course clearly have much better pronunciation than intermediate course students, all students in advanced course, except the one who rated herself to have very low pronunciation ability, were put into advanced pronunciation Group A. In addition, following the instructor's opinion that three students in intermediate level course have outstanding pronunciation and language ability compared to others, students whose English ability is supported by both self-assessment and certified English exam scores (iBT or TOEIC) were put into Group A as well. The rest of the students were all put into intermediate pronunciation Group B. Overall, 20 students were put in Group A and 17 were in Group B.

TABLE 2. S I R

	Student 1 (A)	Student 2 (A)	Student 3 (I)	Student 4 (I)
Self-Assess: Pronunciation	High confidence	High confidence	Low confidence	Low confidence
Self-Assess: Speaking ability	Better than average	Better than average	No confidence at all	Better than average
Self-Assess: Language Proficiency	Better than average	Better than average	Needs more effort	Not that great, not that bad
Language Experience	.	Embarrassed by wrong pronun → cautious	Stiff Korean accent → very nervous	.
Need for higher confidence	American accent	Pronunciation, vocabulary knowledge	Pronunciation	Pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, listening ability

Note. Student 1 (A) and Student 2 (A) are from Advanced level course. Student 3 (I) and Student 4 (I) are from Intermediate level course.

Some students' experience with the language showed that learners who had problems with pronunciation in the past have higher anxiety with oral performance. Student 2 confessed that she has once been embarrassed because of her wrong pronunciation in front of others. After that, she said she is very cautious whenever she speaks English. Student 3 talked about her nemesis, stiff Korean accent in English. She said when preparing for English presentations, she feels nervous and worried that others might not understand what she is talking about.

Lastly, the instructor said in the interview that she believes that there is a relationship between the two factors. She considers herself to be very fortunate to have acquired native-speaker-like pronunciation. She said, especially in Korean context where American accent is treated very well, she feels very confident with her English skills. With her own experience, she argued that there definitely is a relationship between pronunciation ability and confidence especially with the oral performance.

3. D

Overall, the study showed that learners' pronunciation ability is somewhat related with their level of confidence with the language. First of all, the study revealed students' high perception on the importance of pronunciation. Students considered pronunciation as one of the most important language elements which is related with their confidence. The interview showed the relationship between pronunciation and confidence for oral performance. Instructor's personal example and the fact that students with good pronunciation have higher confidence for speaking, support the result. Although these findings cannot be the evidence for the existence of a strong relationship, it makes it difficult to deny the fact that the two factors are related. The result of the study is consistent with previous studies such as Rajadurai (2001) and Varasarin (2007) which discovered positive influence of pronunciation training on learners' confidence for oral performance.

The relationship between pronunciation and confidence for overall language proficiency was revealed by both survey and interview. Students with good pronunciation rated themselves to also have good language ability and regardless of the small gap, Group A generally had higher confidence for every language skill. However, as mentioned earlier, a difference was found in the gap between students' confidence for production and receptive skills.

One possible reason to explain this is that it may be a result of the students' stereotype on themselves. It is widely known that many Koreans have a tendency of experiencing difficulty in producing the language. Therefore, this stereotype in mind may have influenced the students to also have low confidence for those skills. Another reason is related with small number of samples. With 37 samples, it is difficult to get a bigger gap in mean scores between the two groups. Lastly, it may be the result from the English placement test which only covered listening and reading skills. Since students' speaking and writing ability were not tested, advanced students may not have advanced level of production skills even if they have outstanding pronunciation.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

1. I a T a

The findings of the study have some implications for language classrooms. The study showed that learners' pronunciation ability and level of confidence for language are somewhat related. Since learners confidence is one of the most important factors which influences language acquisition success, pronunciation can now find more reasons to be dealt seriously again in language classrooms. To encourage learners' higher confidence for language performance, pronunciation training should not be neglected.

2. L a a F S

This study had several limitations. Since it had convenience sample and the number of the participants was too small, the samples cannot represent the entire language learners. Also, the results could have been influenced by some outside factors. One of the external elements includes cultural factors. For example in Korean context, advanced learners may have thought that hiding their language ability is being modest. In addition to this, students' answers may have been unreliable by having the professor as the survey and interview conductor. Although the survey was anonymous, students may have still tried to give good impression to the professor who gives grades. Lastly, as mentioned earlier, different classroom atmosphere created by students' different majors may have also affected the result. With these limitations, the study's result may be difficult to be generalized.

A few research questions for future studies can be suggested by the present study. The instructor have mentioned in the interview that even though advanced learners have prominently better pronunciation, their participation in class is low. The two possible reasons to explain this situation were that advanced learners' may have higher anxiety with the language and that different classroom atmosphere may have been created by students' different majors. These two ideas can be developed into research questions which are about the relationship between learners' anxiety and language performance, and how learners' major is related with language learning styles and moreover, whether it is related with language acquisition success.

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E T a P a P U Ta -Ba La a T a (TBLT) K a

H a L
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

The regulations of 7th national English curriculum are based on the theoretical backgrounds of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which is for designing communicative tasks to improve communicative ability. To cope with the current English education curriculum, newly reformed English textbooks have published and included task-based communicative activities in each unit of lessons. This study is to analyze teachers' preferences of tasks and their perception on task activities in English textbooks they are using in class. Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) enables students to negotiate the meaning by interaction. While processing the task, students need to use the language to reach the language goal. Teachers' role might be an important factor to achieving TBLT in class. Most of Korean middle school classes are large, average of more than 35-40 students in class, where monitoring students' performance of task might not be easy. One of the main focus research questions are how Korean English teachers perceive using tasks in Korean English textbook in class. How they interpret them, how they experience them and how do they evaluate them. Nevertheless, the roles for teachers are closely related to the successful implementation of task and feedback concerns the task evaluation.

A few studies researched on teacher's perceptions with quantitative research studies, data collections from survey. This qualitative study is to investigate Korean English teacher's perceptions and preferences on tasks in newly reformed English textbooks through deep down interviews to narrow down the problems and concerns. A better understanding and implementation of TBLT requires a closer examination of how teachers perceive TBLT with tasks in English textbook they are using in class currently, more, their preferences on task types in textbook. The present study intends to address this need.

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

Eight participants were involved in this qualitative study. They were experienced English teachers in public middle schools in Gyeonggi province. They were all native speakers of Korean with an intermediate to advanced level of English proficiency. They ranged from the ages of 28 and 55. Their teaching experience varied from 2 years to over 30 years. One teacher had a master's in abroad and seven teachers had bachelor's degree. One teacher who has 25 years of teaching experience had six months in service teacher program in Australia two years ago. They all had previous experience teaching at high school however, they are all teaching at middle school at the time of data collection.

2. Da a A a P

The data in this research paper are from semi-structured interviews with eight participants. An initial list of interview questions was made and used in a pilot interview. The questions began with board general questions and narrowed down to more specific ones to avoid being too direct and leading, while also putting the participant at ease early on the interview (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The interview questions were clear, open-ended and non-directive to allow participants to answer feely and to avoid influencing their responses (Mackey & Gass, 2005). As the participants were all Korean, interview was conducted in Korean. To make the participants as comfortable as possible the interviews were carried out in the coffee shop or their classrooms (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2007). The interviews were semi-structured and conducted in a systematic and consistent order. This allowed the interviewer to guide the conversation and to probe further, digress, and clarify answers (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

All the interviews, which lasted an average of 40 minutes, were recorded and transcribed verbatim to allow repetitive listening and in depth analysis. The data and participants remained confidential and were assigned a non-

recognizable identification number. Only the researchers had access to the data, but participants were given the option to verify it at any time.

After conducting all the interviews, the data had been collected and analyzed for general themes that illustrated the teachers' reactions to the tasks. An inductive approach was taken in which general themes emerged from the data.

Recurrent themes and salient comments emerged from the data analysis. Each transcript was analyzed to identify sections that pertained to these themes. Data from the different participants were pooled and analyzed further. The data and categories were then reanalyzed and refined by grouping related themes and renaming them. These themes were then further reanalyzed and regrouped into three themes. The number of times the participants referred to these new themes in the interviews was recorded.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. T a U a TBLT

Previous studies on English teachers' perception on TBLT in Korea have an positive in other studies (Seong & Kim, 2011; Shin & Kim, 2012). The studies are mostly conducted in survey bases. Generally, the teachers reported that speaking tasks are the least priority of effectiveness of English language developing. Tasks in textbook are considered as a drill practice. Ellis (2000) notes that "general perception among language teachers and educators that task-based instruction is mainly directed at improving students' abilities to use the target language rather than at enabling them to acquire new linguistic skills" (p 212) Teachers less clear about TBLT as an approach.

2. E T a A TBLT

Tasks in textbook are not considerate Korean classroom environment. TBLT is design to small pair or group work based, individualized, learner-centered and learner driven whereas in Korea, large size of classes with learner's expectation of learning is different from TBLT. Learner's and teachers' preferences of more traditional approaches caused limit used for TBLT. The teachers' unwillingness to devote too much time to tasks and their inclusion of more traditional grammar input activities indicates teachers are not convinced that TBLT is sufficient or efficient way to achieve language development.

Current education system in Korea is not much of relation on speaking performance evaluation. The percentage of speaking performance is little and the evaluation is not closely related from the textbook.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLEMENTATION

The findings of this study showed that many Korean teachers have insufficient knowledge of TBLT approach. Teachers have no confidence on TBLT's educational effectiveness. The understanding of TBLT needed through the teacher education. None of teachers had an in-service workshop on TBLT. Second, the teacher had insecure of classroom management. Many teachers believe in some benefits of cooperative work however, teachers have lack of application knowledge of managing cooperative work. Moreover, students need to understand the procedures and benefits of pair or cooperative work by teachers' guide. Third, teachers feel pressure of covering the text. Teachers had to decide priority of language skills, usually grammar and reading the most important and the least importance on teaching speaking. There is a possibility of students' pressure on understanding. Fourth, speaking performance evaluation should be related to speaking tasks. Fifth, teachers fear of language proficiency. Teachers believe that TBLT is appropriate for native teachers to teach. The appropriate task design and teachers' understanding of ownership of English need to be emphasized. Sixth, the problem of tasks in textbook is that no meaning focused and less input. Most of task designed to use one or two simple sentences to practice. The listening and speaking introduced in beginning of each unit and no relation on reading. Although they are in under same topic, there is no real relation to all four other skills. Oetega (2012) stated that TBLT should be holistically designed and experienced. Task content must be delivered taking into account interests & experiences of students.

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U P T a S W

A B
J U

I. INTRODUCTION TO PORTFOLIOS

Using portfolios for assessment is not new or innovative, but they are not commonly used in the Korean context. In an educational context more focused on test results, portfolios may seem too subjective. However, they can be used objectively. In fact, portfolios have several advantages. They can be motivating for students, helpful for tracking student participation and completion of assignments, and effective for providing feedback to students. Finally, portfolios are an alternative way of evaluating students, particularly in a subject (such as writing) which does not lend itself easily to tests.

1. M a

Portfolios can be quite motivating to developing writers. In a traditional classroom setting, students usually get a grade for each written assignment. In a course which uses a portfolio-based approach, feedback can be focused more on the writers as individuals, rather than "how students' writing compares to an externally imposed standard" (Peterson and McClay, p.89). Students can see their writing improve over the course of the semester. Their assignments should become longer as they gain confidence in their writing ability. As well, the instructor's comments should become less and less necessary as students use the feedback from previous papers when writing new ones, and students should see fewer corrections on their assignments. This improvement can be satisfying, and should improve students' self-confidence.

2. T a S Pa a a C

As with any course, there are always students who complete writing assignments, and those who don't. When managed properly, portfolios help both students and teachers to keep track of whether assignments are being completed on time, or at all. In order to keep track, the portfolios should be kept by the instructor, and regularly accessible by students. One part of tracking is to see which students are following the steps in the writing process (brainstorming, outline, draft, final paper). Those who are not can be reminded of the benefits of using the process-based approach.

3. F a

One major goal of using portfolios is to help students improve as writers. Feedback is crucial in achieving that goal. It not only provides students with ideas on what to change, "the extensive amount of time that teachers devote[] to writing comments provide[s] evidence of how much they care[] about their students as writers" (Peterson and McClay, p.92). Types of feedback include how a paper is organized on the page, whether there is a topic or concluding sentence, or clearly the ideas are presented. The feedback is not only for the students, though. Instructors also get feedback on what students are learning, and what needs to be reviewed in class (Martinez-Lirola and Rubio, p.94).

4. E a a

How writing is assessed in ELT has changed over the years. According to Kathleen Yancey (Graziano-King, p.75) there have been several waves: "objective tests (1950-1970), holistically scored essays (1970-1986), and portfolio and programmatic assessments (1986-present)." Graziano-King recommends a self-revised essay as a way of assessing students' progress in writing. Graziano-King also points outs that whereas a timed, scored essay only looks at students' abilities at that one point in time, "portfolios present multiple samples of a student's work in a variety of rhetorical styles that reflect course curriculum" (p.77). One additional benefit of portfolio-based assessment is that students' grades are decided based on a number of short assignments, instead of a mid-term and final paper. This "seems less arbitrary" (Song and August, p.50) and "fairer than a single test" (p.53). This gives students more of a chance to succeed in the course, as long as they continue to participate.

These advantages in using portfolios can be seen by looking at how portfolios are used in one Korean

university composition class.

II. A UNIVERSITY COMPOSITION CLASS

My English Composition class is focused on process-based writing. Students learn to start the writing process by brainstorming ideas about their writing topic. They learn a few different types of brainstorming – listing, clustering, free writing. The next step is to make an outline, with a clear topic sentence and concluding sentence, and supporting sentences that will prove their controlling idea. Then the students handwrite a draft of their paper, and edit this draft in a different colour. They edit for format, grammar, and comment, among other things. Finally, they type up the final version of the paper and print it out. When they submit the assignment, it includes four pages – brainstorming, outline, draft, and final paper. When I read the papers produced from this process-based approach, I focus on two areas – content and accuracy (of format and of grammar/vocabulary/spelling/clarity). I give feedback using a code (i.e. "sp" = spelling, "pu" = punctuation, "art" = article, etc.), as well as using a checklist for required format. Twice in the semester, the students choose one of their papers, and improve it by looking at the feedback I have given them, as well as looking at it with their own fresh eyes to see if there's anything they would like to change.

The other main type of assignment in the class is journal writing. These are not diaries (descriptions of daily events). Instead, the students choose a topic from a list provided, or a topic of their own choice, and write a full page in a notebook. They should write two journal entries a week. The focus of this assignment is fluency, so the journals are not marked for accuracy. I provide (mostly positive) feedback on the ideas, and ask clarifying questions about the content.

Thus, there is a balance in focus between accuracy and fluency, and between corrective and encouraging feedback.

III. HOW TO USE PORTFOLIOS

In the first week of the semester, students write a self-introduction. This is about a page in length, hand-written in class time. When the portfolios are introduced to the students, this is the first entry on their tracking sheets. This is also a sample of their own writing against which later papers can be compared.

From then on, every time the students submit an assignment, they add an entry on their tracking sheet. This helps both them and me to know what has been submitted, whether it was submitted on time, and whether I have finished marking/giving feedback on each assignment.

At midterm exam time, the students write a self-reflection about their work in the class, and make goals for the second half of the semester. During the final exam week, the students are given their portfolios, and reflect on their assignments, their progress, their effort in the class, etc. They have to give themselves a grade based on effort and achievement.

Finally, the students' portfolios are graded based on effort, completion, and quality of work. The portfolio constitutes the majority of students' grades in the composition course.

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U C S a L2 A a a Na a W K a EFL S [10]

J S Ba
Ha U F S

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past two decades, research on learning to write in a second language and the processes of students' composition has been expanded into various topics, and the writing process has been the focus of a great deal of research (Chang, 1996; Cumming, 2001). A considerable amount of previous research and writing guidelines assumed that the writing process operates in variations of five stages of pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing (or proofreading) and publishing (Tribble, 1996). Hence, it is generally believed that the definition of the writing process indicates these five writing steps.

However, in this research, what is meant by the 'writing process' differs from what was previously thought and how it was defined. Here, the focus is put on the 'cognitive writing process' or 'thinking process,' which demonstrates real-time cognitive strategies that are involved in a writer's decisions while writing. Previously, this aspect of the cognitive process had not been analyzed as much as the writing process. Thus, instead of looking at the composing process as five fixed stages with a straightforward and linear performance, each of the writer's decisions and choices engaged in generating a single idea is examined with a more analytical view.

The present study on the cognitive strategies in L2 writing primarily investigates the following research questions:

(1) What is the proportional use of each cognitive strategy that composes the overall pattern? How do different genres affect this proportional use of strategies?

(2) How does the proportional use of each cognitive strategy affect its holistic and analytic scores and the writing quality? What is the association between the proportional use of each cognitive strategy and the score?

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Da a

Eight essays were collected from each participant for a total of 48 writing samples. *Think-aloud protocol* (TAP) is a method that allows researchers to understand the thought process of a subject as they write. In this paper, the transcript of these thoughts, which amounts to fifteen to twenty pages for each writing session, is called the 'protocol.' Eight writing sessions were performed over six months, and data coding and analysis were carried out upon receiving the data after each session. All the produced verbal data were meticulously transcribed, and each statement was divided into numbered segments that showed the units of thoughts as determined by researchers, and here T-unit was used for detail segmentation. Transcription convention was adopted from Wang and Wen (2003) but was edited with fine adjustment.

2. Da a A a P

In this study, six coding schemes were used, which is a modified version of Wang and Wen (2002)'s framework. They include: (1) Idea Organization (IO), (2) Idea Generation (IG), (3) Lexical Searching (LS), (4) Translation (T), (5) Task Examination (TE), and (6) Metacommenting (MC).

Total frequency counts of each cognitive strategy were compared with those of other cognitive strategies to understand the proportional use of each. After completion of the eight writing sessions, the interview was performed based on the collected writing work and transcribed materials. The individual interview lasted 60 minutes in Korean and was conducted in a comfortable environment in a face-to-face private session. Each participant went over the eight

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[10] This study has been published in *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics* in June, 2013.

pieces of writing work in connection with the transcribed data together with the first author. In addition, they were asked about the match and mismatch between the writing piece and the recorded voice data.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1.P Ea C S a

The purpose of this section is to analyze how much and how often the six L2 writers used each cognitive strategy. Based on the frequency count of each category, IG in L1 was the most frequently adopted, followed by T and IG in L2 as Tables 1 shows. In contrast, the cognitive strategies of LS, TE, IO and MC were relatively rarely used. That is, writers were far more concerned with IG in L1, T, and IG in L2 (70%), while they less frequently used LS, TE, IO and MC (30%).

TABLE 1. F U Ea C S a B G

Cognitive Strategy	Percentage (%)
1) Idea Generation (IG in L1)	25.1
2) Translation (T)	24.4
3) Idea Generation (IG in L2)	20.5
4) Lexical Searching (LS)	13.2
5) Task Examination (TE)	7.4
6) Idea Organization (IO)	5.4
7) Metacommenting (MC)	3.9

1) P a U Ea C S a A a G

As Tables 2 shows, the order in terms of frequency of cognitive strategy usage in the argumentative genre was not considerably different from the overall order of usage frequency for both genres. However, in the argumentative genre IO was used more often when compared to the narrative genre.

TABLE 2. F U Ea C S a A a G

Cognitive Strategy	Percentage (%)
1) Idea Generation (IG in L1)	24.7
2) Translation (T)	23.6
3) Idea Generation (IG in L2)	20.1
4) Lexical Searching (LS)	10.3
5) Idea Organization (IO)	8.9
6) Task Examination (TE)	8.0
7) Metacommenting (MC)	4.4

When processing argumentative writing, the writers were not only concerned with generating appropriate and coherent ideas, but they were conscious to follow a certain and required structure as well. Therefore, the writers had to involve themselves in the dynamic process of structure planning, which made them more likely to use IO as compared to the narrative genre. The occurrence of IO in argumentative writing (8.9%) was almost four times as great as the occurrence of IO in narrative writing (2.4%). Also, every paragraph should contain the right thesis statement with sophisticated ways of structuring ideas. Accordingly, not only did the writers have to figure out what they wanted to write about by using IG, T and LS, but they also struggled to design the structure by working with the high use of IO. Writers adopted more TE and MC in argumentative writing, and this shows that they often referred back to their writing product before they proceeded with their writing. By performing MC, they tried to monitor their overall structure and

language use. The cognitive strategy of TE showed the writers' effort to go over the written product to generate further relevant ideas.

2) P a U Ea C S a Na a G

The order of frequency of cognitive strategy usage in the narrative genre largely follows the order of the overall proportion for both genres. However, as Tables 3 shows below, the frequency usage for IO and MC were switched when compared to the overall proportion. It also illustrates that in narrative writing the cognitive strategy of LS came fourth in the order of the frequency counts, just as in argumentative writing; yet, in the narrative genre, writers used LS 15.7% of the time, which is a greater occurrence than in the argumentative genre (10.3%).

TABLE 3. F U Ea C S a Na a G

Cognitive Strategy	Percentage (%)
1) Idea Generation (IG in L1)	25.4
2) Translation (T)	25.1
3) Idea Generation (IG in L2)	20.9
4) Lexical Searching (LS)	15.7
5) Task Examination (TE)	7.0
6) Metacommenting (MC)	3.5
7) Idea Organization (IO)	2.4

2. C a S a U a a S

This section reveals whether there was any correlation between the evaluated score and the proportional usage of each cognitive strategy. To confirm whether there was any relation, the researchers examined and compared the collected writing drafts, the TAP data and the writing scores. The researchers were able to determine that there was a very close connection between proportional usage of each cognitive strategy and its corresponding scores.

J - Juhyeon adopted only two uses of IO, and this was the fewest among all participants. Six out of her eight writing sessions did not demonstrate any use of IO, and accordingly, her organization scores for both argumentative writing (3.25/5) and narrative writing (3.5/5) were very low, showing a minor scoring gap between genres. The findings also showed that Juhyeon received the lowest score (3.25/5) for organization in argumentative writing out of the six participants. Her writing organization seemed unplanned in that there was no deliberate outline and the arrangement of ideas was not organized at all. Therefore, there is a high likelihood that such few uses of IO account for the low score she received for organization for both genres. In contrast, Juhyeon employed TE and MC (both constitute 13.4%) frequently, and this partly explains her higher than average score for language use. This high use of TE and MC shows that she spent a lot of time monitoring her writing in order to go over grammar and language use.

When she processed argumentative writing, she depended more on L1 (34%) than on L2 (14%). On the other hand, she was more dependent on L2 (26.3%) than on L1 (22%) when performing narrative writing. Though she was more dependent on one language than another for specific genres, she received the same score for idea/content for both genres. A possible interpretation is that it is the idiosyncratic strategy of the writer to choose different languages for specific genres in order to better deal with the different styles of writing:

> I was more comfortable writing in Korean for argumentative writing because I had to organize my thoughts using more comfortable language for such difficult topics. For narrative writing, the topics provided were relatively easier and less demanding, so I could write directly in English without having to involve Korean.

In conclusion, in the case of Juhyeon, based on the close association of the frequency counts of IO with organization score, MC/TE with language use score and LS with vocabulary score, there was a distinct connection between the frequency counts of each cognitive strategy and the scores of the represented criteria.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

First, the writers tended to focus more on their L1 knowledge in order to compensate for such heavy requirements of L2 writing and its demanding topics. Also, high reliance on L1 rather than L2 resulted in a better outcome. Furthermore, high frequency usage of a particular cognitive strategy resulted in a high score of its evaluated category, while low frequency usage resulted in a lower score for its corresponding writings scores. This high association between frequency usage of a certain cognitive strategy and its analytic score shows that when writers contemplate and spend more time on certain aspects of writing, it directly influences and leads to better quality of writing.

Second, a more strategical approach should be developed for writing classes. In order to better perform in L2 writing, some useful and authentic writing strategies can be proposed to raise students' achievement. For example, as it was confirmed in the findings section of this research, being aware of the importance of practicing translation should be beneficial, especially for argumentative writing. As for narrative writing, finding the right word to suit the needs of the writers was not an easy task because the words were closely related with the writer's personal life, and more precisely, the writer's life experience in an L1 context. Therefore, students should be provided with a list of practical words and be taught how to better express culturally laden topics in English.

Third, English teachers should focus on providing writing tips on narrative writing as much as on argumentative writing. Writing classes in national tertiary educational institutions, including the one selected in this paper, should henceforth involve curriculum with lessons on the narrative genres. Like the participants in this paper, there are certainly many others who struggle with writing in the narrative genre because of lack of instruction. In fact, the narrative genre is closely associated with L1 culture, and therefore, it is crucial to learn how to do narrative writing through actual training. It is important for L2 writers to learn how to better deal with their personal stories and how to express their thoughts and ideas.

Poster Session

(Chair: Eun-Hee Lee, Kyung Hee Cyber Univ.)

Presentation Title and Presenter(s)
D aP a S -Ba I a T a **T S E a E E a** (Chan-Soon Park & Mun-Koo Kang, Kongju National Univ.)
D a aA a I E EFL La a L a (Ji Eun Kim, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
E T a a P F a W (Myeong Hee Seong, Eulji Univ.)
T E S A a L a E G a a (Miyang Cha, Namseoul Univ.)
L a S a -Ba I K a EFL C C a (Jaewon Yun, Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)
C C a ?: I C K a L a **G a G a N** (Christopher J. Dawe, Univ. of Pennsylvania, USA)
TEES T a E a (Moongee Jeon, Jieun Kim, Youngah Kim & Mihyun So, Konkuk Univ.)
T G S R Ta K a E a S S (Hyun-jeong An, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
K a EFL Y L a P E Na (Min Gi Hong, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
H D I a C a B a W S La a L a ? (Sang-Ki Lee, Korea National Univ. of Education)
C a G a R P F a a S W C (Ho-Jung Yu, Kyungil Univ.)
T C F K S K a: H T A E a **H T A L I** (Riza Gay Estores, Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
C F a a S a B a C (Brent Steinacker, Hyupsung Univ.)

D aP a S -Ba I a T a T
S E a E E a

C a -S Pa a M -K Ka
K Na a U

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to communicate in English is being emphasized in practical situations in Korea. However, it is difficult to improve this ability in a country like Korea, which is surrounded by EFL environments and one barely has opportunities to use English outside of classroom settings. The lack of suitable input and opportunity to use the target language can be accountable factors for the undesirable outcome of language learning in Korea, considering the language learning environment in Korea (Cho & Krashen, 1994, 1995; Cho & Seo, 2001; Elley, 1991, 1997; Elly & Mangubahi, 1983; Hafiz & Tudor, 1989; Lee & Park, 2001). As an alternative plan for this, storytelling was applied in elementary English classes in order to arouse the interest of learners and provide opportunities to approach English in a fun and natural way. Storytelling is useful for elementary English education since elementary students enjoy stories, possess creative imaginations, and enjoy interacting with their peers. According to Kim (2000), it was stated that for English education to reach the extent where it is able to boost the creativity and thinking skills of children, English must also be integrated with other subjects and the relationship between the contents must be considered. A method of integration with various other subjects based on a story is one of the methods mostly aimed for in elementary English education (Ellis & Brewster, 2002; Scott & Ytreberg, 1996; Wright 2006). Furthermore, in elementary English education, there is a need to enhance more than just spoken languages which are centered on listening and speaking. Teaching and learning activities which systematically combine language functions are necessary in order to develop abilities to fulfill a combination of written languages such as reading and writing. Storybooks can be the solution for an effective integration of the 4 skills of languages and a method to combine English with other subjects.

In this study, the methods in which integrated education through storytelling was applied in the main English textbooks of the currently revised curriculum will be analyzed primarily. Then, storybooks which are suitable for elementary school students will be selected and analyzed and story-based integrated teaching methods which can be applied to the school field were to be studied. As a result, beneficial basic resources were to be provided for schools which plan on carrying out the program for story-based integrating through storytelling.

Ⅱ. STORYTELLING IN THE CURRENT TEXTBOOKS

1. S C a A A a Ea U E T

In 2012, among the 14 English textbooks for grades 3 to 6, Chunjae Education a (Yoon et al.), Chunjae Education b (Ham et al.), and YBM-Sisa (Choi et al.), which are the most common textbooks in Pyeongtaek, where the researcher is from, were each given the name A, B, and C. The textbooks for students including e-textbooks were selected as the analysis targets. Furthermore, the storytelling composition and activities of 3 kinds of 3rd to 6th grade English textbooks are as shown below in Table 1.

TABLE 1. S C a A A a (a U G a 3 6 E T)

Grade	Textbook	Number of Units	Storytelling Regular Column Name	Activity Names	Period Distribution
3rd Grade	A	16	Listen & Act	Listen & Act	The every 3rd period from unit 1 to unit 8
	B	16	Story Time	Look & Listen/Listen & Check/Act & Play	The 1st and the 2nd period of the last unit

	C	12	Story Time	Story Time/Sing a Story/ Ready, Action!	The 3rd period of every unit
4th Grade	A	16	Role-play	Role-play	The 4th period of every unit except the last unit
	B	16	Story Time	Look & Listen/Listen & Check/Act & Play	The 1st and the 2nd period of the last unit
	C	12	Story Time	Story Time/Sing a Story/ Ready, Action!	The 3rd period of every unit
5th Grade	A	13	-	-	-
	B	13	-	-	-
	C	15	Story Land	Story Land/Story Chant/ Zoom In/Act It Out	The 5th period of every unit
6th Grade	A	13	-	-	-
	B	13	-	-	-
	C	15	Story Land	Story Land/Story Chant/ Zoom In/Act It Out	The 5th period of every unit

Most of the storytelling which was input in current English textbooks is for one period for each unit based upon 3rd and 4th grade levels. Furthermore, the steps of pre-, while-, and post-storytelling instructions are not suggested systematically in the learning process. CD-ROMs are mostly used or teachers personally perform the storytelling and children can comprehend the content of the stories through questions. Then, classes are mostly finished through post-storytelling activities such as simply singing songs or doing role-plays. In some textbooks, not only are stories through storytelling not suggested for each unit but some 5th and 6th grade textbooks do not include them at all.

2. S A a R a C a F U E T

The stories suggested by each publisher differ from each other, but since the communicative functions displayed within the stories reflect on the achievement standards of the national English curriculum, they have mostly been suggested similarly for each grade. When the overall content of a story is examined, partial expressions for conversations in relation to communicative functions of each unit are the only remaining information. Therefore, stories are being provided as methods of practicing communicative expressions for each unit rather than for the purpose of storytelling through stories. Furthermore, it may seem like the level of stories are becoming more difficult for upper grades according to the English achievement standards of each grade. However, original stories are adapted according to the current level of learners and limited communicative functions of each unit, and portions of the contents are only provided through relatively easily understood expressions. Therefore, it is difficult for integrated education, which applies the true meaning of storytelling, to be fulfilled in the current curriculum.

Ⅲ. DEVELOPMENT OF A STORY-BASED INTEGRATED PROGRAM THROUGH STOYTELLING

1. S S A S - a I a

In order to conduct story-based integrated teaching through storytelling in elementary English education, it is first necessary to select appropriate children stories. However, various picture story books in bookstores were intended for natives, and were not created for the objective of English education for elementary students studying in EFL environments. Therefore, in order to select English books which are appropriate for class environments, it is important to examine different books and make selection based on the students' cognitive and language level as well as their characteristics and areas of interest. Ellis and Brewster (2002) claims that appropriate stories should be selected by considering the selection criteria, including level, literary device, content/subject matter, illustrations/layout, educational/potential, motivation, values, global issues and language/content. The researcher followed this criteria and

selected stories which applied the story-based integration that can be introduced to elementary English education and organized is as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2. S A S - a I a

Storybook	Author(s)	Topics/themes	Graders	Integrated subjects
Let's have a swim!	Joy Cowley	animals, feed	1-5th graders	Science, Music, Social studies, Art
The Very Hungry Caterpillar	Eric Carle	food, number, day of the week	1-5th graders	Science, Math, Art, Music
Here Are My Hands	Bill Martin Jr., John Archambault	body parts, body roles, the world we live in together	1-5th graders	Science, Music, Art, Social studies, Moral education
Papa, Please Get the Moon for Me	Eric Carle	phases of the moon	1-5th graders	Science, Art, Music
My Dad	Anthony Browne	introduction of family	2-6th graders	Social studies, Music, Art, Moral education
Things I Can Do to Help My World	Melanie Walsh	economy, recycling	2-6th graders	Social studies, Art Science, Music, Practical course

2. E a Fa S - a I a T a

First, when the stories which apply the story-based integration are selected, examination has to be made on how storytelling can be taught to the children. First of all, story-based integrated teaching has to be extracted from story books. Here, the teacher has to consider the children's age, conceptual level, demand and interests, language level, prior language learning experiences, and group characteristics. Based on this, a language syllabus can be constructed. In the language syllabus, language functions and structures, vocabulary, pronunciation, and skills to be developed can be included. Furthermore, various activities and assignments can also be included. Ellis and Brewster (2002) suggests that some language syllabuses include a cognitive (learning to learn), cultural/citizenship, and cross-curricular focus thereby contributing to the child's global development. Through referring to this, a framework of story-based syllabus in selected story books can be suggested. Furthermore, various integrated activities of the curriculum which can be conducted within story books can be added onto the framework of the story-based syllabus and brainstorming can be conducted. Brainstorming is an essential stage in providing story-based integrated teaching measures which apply the teachers' creative and practical storytelling, and the teacher can classify the various cross-curricular activities conducted with brainstorming into pre-, while-, and post-storytelling activities according to the teaching order.

3. D a S - a I a T a P a S

In terms of the story-based integrated teaching program through storytelling, homeroom teachers can utilize subject enrichment and supplementary time and discretion time in the curriculum to implement it. Since the state of schools in our country relatively lack in teachers' discretion in the education curriculum, it is considered appropriate to take 40 minutes for 1 storybook during 5 to 6 periods. Depending on the situations, instruction can be conducted during morning activities or during after-class extracurricular activities. Generally, teaching can be formed in the following pattern. Pre-storytelling activities can be conducted during the 1st period, while-storytelling activities during the 2nd and 3rd periods, and the post-storytelling activities during the rest of the 4th to 6th periods. The story-based program breaks down the language, in terms of language functions and structures, and vocabulary from each story to show how it forms a mini syllabus and how an overall syllabus was built up for the semester with the introduction of new language and other recycled language. It also consists of various cross-curricular pre-, while- and post-storytelling activities from each story to integrate them into individual lesson plans.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

In order to conduct story-based integrated teaching through storytelling, the teacher must observe various books and select books based on his or her critical discernment in consideration of children's cognitive, language level and characteristics, and interests. Next, the teacher can extract story-based integrated teaching factors from storybooks by taking consideration of children's age, conceptual level, demand and interests, language level, past language learning experiences, and group characteristics to create a story-based syllabus. The story-based syllabus can include the cross-curricular links, learning strategies, general concepts and citizenship focus. Additionally, after the teacher brainstorms the various integrated subject activities of the curriculum that can be conducted with storybooks, they are classified as pre-, while-, and post-storytelling activities. Based on this, a story-based program which can be applied over one semester or one whole school year for a specific grade level is completed. Not only should language functions/structures and vocabulary which are to be taught through each stories be suggested, but the cross-curricular storytelling activities which are to be integrated in the teacher's lesson plan should also be suggested.

Despite the study results which claimed that storytelling based on stories is effective in various aspects, difficulties still exist in the application of storytelling in the Korean education field. Thus, this study suggests as follows: First, there must be a transformation in teachers' awareness for story-based integrated English education through storytelling. Second, there is a demand for the institutional improvement which allows teachers to utilize various storybooks, other than the textbook, in order to establish more autonomic educational activities. Third, interesting storybooks and resources must be provided in schools of each class in order for teachers to easily carry out story-based integrated English education through storytelling. It is considered that continual and multilateral researches on story-based integrated teaching methods which can allow for a more effective and efficient must be conducted in elementary English education.

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D a a A a I E EFL La a L a

J E K
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of study is to explore drama activities and its effectiveness in language learning. According to Gomez (2010), up until now, drama had been used as a tool to convey feeling and emotions. But some researchers argue that drama can be an effective strategy using in the English as a Second Language class. By comparing two articles related with drama activities, it attempts to address the following questions: a) How do students increase language ability? b) How much effectiveness are drama activities in terms of language learning?

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. M

Selected two articles were researched about effectiveness using drama activities in ELT classroom through interaction analysis. And then these two articles are described and compared in terms of topics, subjects, activities, methods and findings.

2. P

1) Describing each articles

The title of first article is *Effects of Scripted and Non-scripted Role Play Activities on Oral Performance: A Case Study of Repair Organization in Conversation of Thai College Students* written by Sommai Chotirat1, Kemtong Sinwongsuwat. This study aims to investigate the effects of scripted and non-scripted role-lays on EFL students' oral performance by attending to the repair organization. The methodology of this study uses the conversation analytic (CA) perspective. In this study, this article is focused on non-scripted role-play.

The second article is related with the open drama written by Yu, Miyoung. The purpose of this article is to investigate meaningful interaction, turn taking and turn initiative such as topic management, self-selection, allocation and sequencing will be evaluated by comparing two regular classes with the classes using two types of drama approaches such as the situational and debating drama activities.

2) Comparing these two articles

(1) The objectives: Research questions

The study of article 1(closed drama) aims to investigate the effects of scripted and non-scripted role-plays on EFL students' oral performance by attending the repair organization. Utilizing the conversation analytic (CA) perspective, it attempts to address the following questions: (a) how the students organize repairs in scripted and non-scripted role-plays, (b) whether the repair organization differs in the different types of role-plays.

On the other hand, the study of article 2 (Open Drama) examined how the drama activities enhance meaningful interaction between the students and the teacher. This research generated three questions to clarify the purpose. (a) How much do learners have meaningful interaction compared to the regular class? (b) How do the drama activities enhance students' participation and motivation in learning English? (c) How do learners recall and use the vocabulary from the student vocabulary paper and the text while writing a script?

(2) Subject and background of the study

The subjects of article 1 were 26 second-year English majors at Songkhla Rajabhat University. They were divided into high-, middle- and low-level groups according to their English proficiency, measured by the average scores obtained from compulsory English courses in their 1st year of study. According to the teachers who had taught them in the previous year, most of the students were somewhat poor in speaking English.

On the other hand, the subjects of article 2 (Open drama) were three elementary students, each in grade 3, 4 and 5. They were all boys and their proficiency level is novice high for reading writing, and intermediate low for speaking and listening. They have been learning English more than two years. Their native language and cultural

background is Korean. They have three classes a week the English institute and one is covered up by a native teacher based on a listening textbook including activities.

(3) Activities

Teaching materials of article 1 (closed drama) were mainly developed from a textbook named "Real Listening & Speaking 1." The textbook consists of sixteen units. Another teaching material is a set of situation cards. The situations in which the students were asked to perform role-plays are based on the contents taught in class each week. The form used to evaluate the students' role-plays was adapted from the rubric used in Harris (1969) to score an oral interview. The package consists of two different types of documents: the criterion sheet and the evaluation form. The criterion sheet explains the criteria of each scale of the teacher to evaluate the individual students' oral performance. The criteria consist of five topics including content, expressions and vocabulary, fluency, comprehensibility, voice and pronunciation.

On the other hand, in order to investigate whether the Drama Activities (Open drama) enhance the students' English ability and cause meaningful interaction between the researcher and the students, the regular class and the class using the drama activity are compared. There are two regular classes and six classes based on the 'Situational Drama Activities' and 'Debating Drama Activities.' Each of the regular class was one and a half minutes long. However, each drama activity was conducted in one regular class, taking approximately for 30 to 35 minutes. The activity was conducted after the vocabulary test. After the activity was finished, the participants went back to the regular lesson, studying the present main textbook, Thoughts & Notions.

(4) Methods of research

The lesson plans of article 1 (closed drama) were written by both the teacher and the researcher who taught the course together. They were written to ensure that the two types of role-play activities were included and presented in appropriate order. Generally, in the first stage, the teacher aroused the students' interests and stimulated their schemata by asking some questions or initiating a discussion on some current topics related to the lesson contents. Then, all the contents were presented step by step. To answer all the three research questions, the videotaped conversations elicited from the target students' pairs' role-plays were transcribed following the transcription convention adopted by Seedhouse (2004). The organization of repairs in different types of role plays was identified and counted according to the four categories proposed in the literature (Schegloffff, Koshik & Sack as cited in Seed house, 2004). Then each instance of repairs was closely analyzed as it occurred turn-by-turn, moment-by-moment to describe its features and determine its sequential-functional contexts.

In the other hand, to obtain the data for second article, one of the researcher's classes which consisted of three pupils (boys) each in grade 3, 4, and 5 was chosen to be examined how much meaningful interaction and turn taking could occur in the classes using drama activities by comparing with the regular classes. The class was videotaped from January 9th to 30th twice a week. Thus the class also transcribed and then analyzed.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of article 1(closed drama) revealed that in situational drama activity, the percentage of each S1 and S2 was remarkable increased. It was due to emotional setting & the physical settings in the situation / roles given. Considering his general turn taking in the regular class, it was a drastic change. According to Kao & O'Neil (1998), the T-S interaction in drama activities resembles real-life communications, so it is necessary to investigate how the teacher and students manage their turns differently from what they have observed in many traditional classroom situations. The percentage of topic management made a drastic change in the situational drama activity.

Judging from the survey result, drama activities seem to motivate students during the class because students could use their own language and imagination in creation of role plays, as Wagner pointed out (1998). In addition, some students also realized that they learn the language through actually saying it within the interaction with classmates in drama activities. Students proved the benefit of drama activities, which was expected in the frame of interactionism. The interaction also seemed to occur within the students. When they created their role play, the need to use some specific target language was arouse and chances for students to retain the target language was arouse accordingly.

In relation to the effectiveness, the result of each type of repair was apparently conducted more frequently in non-scripted role-plays despite the smaller number of the excerpts. Role-plays of this type, therefore, seemed to provide the students more opportunity to conduct in order to deal with conversational problems, simulating one of the important features of naturally occurring conversation.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, drama activities and the effectiveness of drama activities were explored. Two articles revealed that drama activities are worth to be practiced in language classroom. Students became actively engaged in the writing activity through meaning interaction by asking the researcher or the other participants. To make the effectiveness and student's motivation even greater, drama activities should encourage students to use their knowledge and imagination.

Until now, in a typical classroom, the role of the teacher determines learner activity, based on the assumption that learners can only learn from their appointed instructors, but not from each other. In contrast, drama temporarily suspends the classroom context, new roles and new relationships. These make very different language demands on both teachers and students; so new possibilities of language use and development are opened up (Kao & O'Neil, 1998). Using a new approach like drama in a typical English classroom can be a challenging to adopt, however, it will be regarded as a new way of changing the strategy in teaching English the language even in a private language school.

Drama is a powerful learning medium because it also provides a context within students may write for imaginative as well as functional purposes (Wagner, 1994). However, every textbook is not available and attractive enough to acquire students' attention and to be modified into the drama activities.

The interaction analysis may cause the problem of credence how the turn initiatives such as topic management, self-selection, allocation and sequencing were analyzed. So the data should be carefully collected and analyzed based on the book, *Words Into Worlds: Learning a Second Language a Second Language Through Process Drama*.

The results of this study should be able to help teachers make a better-informed decision on the appropriate choice of communicative tasks for their learners. Thus, the teachers in particular should reconsider the effectiveness of scripted role-play activities in equipping students with conversational skills essential for real-life communication. Additionally, in the assessment of the students' oral proficiency, genuine features of naturally occurring language use such as repair should also be taken into account.

To gain in-depth information and more accurate analysis of the drama activities, a future study should include students' use of nonverbal language such as gaze and gestures.

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E T a a P F a W

M H S

E U

I. INTRODUCTION

Much research (Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Frodesen and Holten; Raimes, 1983; Shim 2009) insists that writing helps students acquire language skills. First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that have been taught to students. Second, when students write, they have a chance to be creative with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks. Third, when students write, they become involved with the new language; the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. Beyond these mentioned above, writing skills are important and useful in everyday situations such as leaving notes for other people, sending e-mails, filling out forms, giving written instructions, and writing thank-you letters and so forth.

However, writing skills are avoided and ignored by both teachers and students for a couple of reasons. In students' points of view writing in English is considered to be a very difficult task to master and one of the most challenging linguistic abilities to foster. Students' difficulties in writing may be a lack of linguistic and cognitive strategies, limited grammatical knowledge and vocabulary, and poor language proficiency. Therefore many students have negative attitudes towards writing. From a teachers' viewpoint, one of the biggest reasons may be due to a lack of theoretical content knowledge or pedagogical strategies. Simply, teachers may not know how to teach writing or what to teach in an English writing class (Shim, 2009). The other conceivable reason is that corrective feedback is a time-consuming job and requires a lot of effort for teachers.

Corrective feedback refers to the response that second language students receive on errors that they make in their oral or written production (Sheen & Ellis 2011). Compared with students who haven't received corrective feedback, the writing skills of students who received corrective feedback improved a great deal. According to the results of Chin's study (2007), teachers' feedback contributed to the development of students' English writing skills because it helped them apprehend what to improve or what to avoid in the future, acquire better English usage, and correct their errors. Given this fact, the use of various kinds of feedback would be beneficial for a successful writing course in the limited hours of formal instruction.

In this paper, the class activities with the main three kinds of feedback executed by the author are introduced. Then students' writings, sentence writings, in pre and post-tests are analyzed and discussed for the following research questions: (1) What's the effect of feedback in English writing classes? (2) Which errors improved the most and the least?

II. BACKGROUND

Everyone learning the first language or second language will make errors in the process of learning. Then, the question is whether error correctiveness is imperative or not. Truscott (1996) claimed that grammar correction should be eliminated from L2 writing class with reviewing the previous works by Knoblauch and Brannon (1981), Hillocks (1986), and Krashen (1984), which found that correction had little or no effect on students' writing ability. However, some specialists such as Ferris (2003), Gray (2004), Schmidt (1990, 1995, 2001), Long (1996), and Keh (1990) went for the idea of correctiveness. The proposing group stated corrective feedback is necessary to help in reducing students' errors in their writings. Ferris (2003), one of the proponents, said that providing grammar feedback is essential because it helps students recognize their linguistic shortcomings. If a teacher points out to a student a grammatical error one has made, and provides, indirectly or directly, the correct form, one will then understand the mistake one has made, learn from it, and one's ability to write accurately will improve. It is also widely felt that if teachers do not correct their students' grammatical errors, 'fossilization' will occur and eliminating these errors later will become very difficult. Other arguments from the proponent of the grammar feedback is that the feedback helps in the development of grammatical ability (Omagio, 1986), and because students want correction and they believe it is helpful (Leki, 1991; Walz, 1982). Keh (1990) claimed that a reader gives a writer in a variety of forms (e.g, comments, questions, suggestions, etc.) for

revision. Feedback helps writers figure out problematic areas such as illogical organization and improper vocabulary choice which could lead the audience to confusion. Noticing Hypothesis (Ellis, 1991; Grass & Varonis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001) recognized the value of corrective feedback, assigning it a facilitative role in drawing learner attention to form. From this perspective, corrective feedback serves as a stimulus for noticing because such feedback triggers learners to recognize the gap between their L1 and the target norm-this process in turn leads to subsequent grammatical restructuring. Similarly, Long (1996), in his updated Interaction Hypothesis, suggested the beneficial role of corrective feedback. He claimed that it provides not only direct and indirect information about what is grammatical but also additional positive evidence which may otherwise be absent in the put.

Although providing feedback is commonly practiced in education, there is no general agreement regarding what type of feedback is the most helpful and why it is helpful. Consequently, it could be better to use two or three types of feedbacks together at a time because each type of feedbacks has some strong and weak points. Five different types of feedbacks were suggested by Ellis (2008): direct corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback, metalinguistics corrective feedback, unfocused and focused corrective feedback, and electronic corrective feedback. First, in Direct Corrective Feedback, the teacher provides the student with a number of different forms, i.e, crossing out an unnecessary word, phrase, or morpheme, inserting a missing word or morpheme, and writing the correct from above or near to the erroneous form. In Indirect Corrective Feedback, without actually correcting an error the learner has made this can be done by underlining the errors or using cursors to show omissions. Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback provides learners with some form of explicit comment with two forms about the nature of the errors they have made. The two forms of the explicit comment are: one is the use of error codes such as art=article, prep=preposition, sp=spelling, ww=wrong word, t=tense, etc; the other is metalinguistic explanations of their errors, e.g, numbering errors and providing metalinguistic comments at the end of the text. Focused versus unfocused CF refers that teachers can elect to correct all of the students' errors, in which case the CF is unfocused. Alternatively they correct just one type of error in focused feedback; for example, article errors or preposition errors, not all of them. As to Electronic feedback, extensive corpora of written English can be exploited as an assistance in students writing. It also can be utilized as a form of feedback. Besides, according to Atay and Kurt (2007), two or more than two students work together to check, comment, and help each other's work. In this case, student anxiety becomes lower and learning motivation is elevated. Furthermore, sharing opinions with peers is helpful in building and increasing one's confidence. Table 1 shows strength and weakness of these three feedbacks used in the study.

TABLE 1. T F a U S

Types of feedback	Description	Strength	Weakness
Direct CF	. directly provided by the teacher	. explicit guidance . effective in promoting acquisition of specific grammatical features (Sheen,2007)	. may not contribute to long-term learning because it requires minimal processing on the part of the learner.
Indirect CF	. indicates an error existence through indirect method such as underlining or circling.	. guided learning and problem solving . encouraging students to reflect about linguistic forms . effective in enabling students to correct their errors (Lalande, 1982)	. If students do not know the correct form, they can't correct in this strategy.
Peer CF	. two or more students work together and correct the error existed.	. more practices in writing by working with their peers . students' anxiety lower . learning motivation higher (Atay and Kurt, 2007)	. limited linguistic knowledge . prefer their teacher's feedback to their peers' feedback.

In analyzing grammatical errors students conducted, grammatical categories which researchers employed varied. Corder (1973) classified the errors in terms of the difference between the learners' utterance and the reconstructed version. In this way, errors fall into four categories: omission of some required element; addition of some unnecessary or incorrect element; selection of incorrect elements; and disordering of the elements. Lim (1990) analyzed

grammatical errors made by Mandarin speaking students into eight grammatical categories namely tenses, articles, prepositions, spelling, pronouns, wrong choice of words, singular and plural forms and agreement. In this study, errors made by students were analyzed by six grammatical categories such as verb related errors, subject-verb errors, preposition errors, article/determinative errors, sentence structure errors, and singular/plural errors.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Pa a

The participants for the study were 47 students (male: 13, female: 34) enrolled in either 'Practical English' course or 'How to make sentences' course as a liberal arts at a university located in near Seoul, Korea. While 'Practical English' course was made up of 28 juniors majoring in leisure design, 'How to make sentences' course was composed of 19 students (sixteen freshmen, one junior and two seniors) and their majors varied. Although the liberal arts course was opened for all of the students, freshmen were given the opportunity to register the liberal arts course first and the maximum of the course was 20 students. Therefore most of them in the course were freshmen. The average of TOEIC score of the students was 490 out of 990.

2. D C

The objective of the 15-week course for three credits was to give students ideas such as how different English and Korean are, how English sentences are constructed, and which words go together and practice sentence writing. Students received three hours of teaching per week for 15 weeks. Total teaching time was 45 hours over a period of 15 weeks. The first class was spent introducing the class, during which the students were informed a basic purpose of the course. At the end of the first class students had the pre-test with 15 questions. The post-test, the same as the pre-test, was conducted in the fourteenth class, one week ahead of the final examination. The eight and the fifteenth classes were spent for the mid and final examination respectively. One week was needed for each unit. The textbook used for the course was 'First Step for Writing' comprised of 12 units. Each unit has different topics and consists of reading for ideas, focusing on grammar, learning sentence structures, common mistakes, and writing practices.

For this study, direct and indirect feedbacks which have been the most frequently used in class and peer feedback were employed. The combination of three types, explicit grammar explanation, exercising the grammar, and sentence-level production practice using the grammar, was utilized in class. The class had three sections. In the first section, students were taught sentence structures along with explicit grammar explanation in 'focus on grammar'. After grammar explanation, students were instructed to makze sentences by using what they learned. For example, when students were taught these sentence structures 'want+N, want+to infinitive, want+O+to infinitive or past participle' they made sentences with these structures. Direct feedback was conducted by crossing the errors in grammar and usage and writing the right ones somewhere on the students' textbook. Indirect feedback was also conducted by underlining or circling where the errors occur. In the second section, students read the part 'reading for ideas' and answered the questions, followed by 'common mistakes'. In this section, students worked together, not individually. Peer feedback instead of direct and indirect feedback was used more. Finally, in the third section students were asked to translate eight sentences from Korean into English with knowledge they had received in section one and two. The author walked around the class and the errors students made were only indicated and underlined, but the actual corrections were left to the students. When the students couldn't correct their errors, they were allowed to discuss the errors with other students within close proximity. Then, students, who were chosen at random, were requested to write their sentences from the textbook onto the board. The others in the class read the sentences on the board and discussed whether the sentences were correct or not. If there was anything wrong, students corrected them. When students didn't correct the errors, the author explained and corrected. Due to time limitation, writing practice I and II were not dealt with in class and assigned as homework with reference to 'reading for ideas'.

3. I a P

The instruments for the study were two pre and post sentence writing tests. The fifteen sentences comprising of five basic sentence structures such as S+V, S+V+C, S+V+O, S+V+IO+DO, and S+V+O+OC were given for the pre

and post tests. The pre-test was offered at the first class and the post-test was administered one week before the end of the course. All 48 students took the pre and post-tests and analyzed in this study.

IV. RESULT AND CONCLUSION

For the first research question, (1) What were the effects of the class?, the sentence writings, in pre and post-tests were analyzed by six grammatical categories. The finding implies that writing instruction using direct, indirect, and peer feedback is effective in that they show less grammatical errors in sentence writing and used more suitable conjunctions. For the second research questions, (2) Which errors improved the most and the least? Errors made by students were analyzed by six grammatical categories such as verb related errors, subject-verb errors, preposition errors, article/determinative errors, sentence structure errors, and singular/plural errors. Sentence structure errors were reduced the most. Article/determinative errors were reduced the least.

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T E S A a L a E G a a

M a C a
Na U

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammatical competence (Bachman, 1990) is the basic linguistic ability to understand, speak and write in a language. Grammatical competence is not just knowing grammatical rules, but being able to utilize such rules appropriately in linguistic performances. Grammar affects four linguistic skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing), and grammatical competence is one of the elements of the communicative competence (Canale& Swain, 1980). Thus, insufficient grammatical competence might lead to breakdowns in communication. Communicative competence in language requires both fluency and accuracy, and accuracy can be enhanced through grammar learning.

Many seem to believe that students who study abroad in foreign language programs will become more competent in the use of the target language. Research on language learning in a study abroad context (DeKeyser, 1991; Freed, 1995; Huebner, 1995; Lafford, 2004; Lapkin, Hart & Swain, 1995) has found support for the positive role played by study abroad experience for language learning. Students studying abroad can utilize a variety of factors beneficial to language learning. Thus they have the chance to acquire many aspects of linguistic skills which are harder to attain in the home environment where language learning is restricted to the classroom (Marriott, 1995). In an attempt to explore if these benefits of studying abroad are effective on learning English grammar, this study investigates the use of English grammatical items in compositions written by Korean college students who participated in a semester- long overseas language program.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Pa a

27 students participated in this study. All the participants, varying in their majors and grades, ranged in age from 20 to 26 years. The participants, consisting of 16 male and 11 female students, learned English in an intensive language program at a university in the Philippines for a semester. They received six hours of English instruction five days a week, apart from opportunities to use the language in their surrounding environment. The students had been learning English for about 7-12 years. None of the students had spent any substantial time in an English-speaking country prior to participating in the present language program.

2. Da a A a P

The participants were assigned to write two English compositions: one at the beginning of the semester and one during the last week. The composition topics of the writing tests (pretest: *Introducing Myself*, posttest: *Vacation Plans*) were prepared with the consideration of the students′ English proficiency levels. Pre•posttest written by the participants were analyzed to investigate differences in the use of grammatical items after studying abroad for a semester. First, the number of words and sentences, and the length of the sentence on average were examined, and all the errors were also identified in the two compositions. The errors identified were classified into 3 linguistic categories: syntactic errors, lexical errors and morphological errors. Such errors were sub-classified into 21 items. Of 21, three grammatical items (infinitives, verbs and participles) were chosen for investigation in this study. These three items that are related to the verb, showed a high frequency of errors in the pretest. A high frequency of errors indicates difficulty in understanding and using grammatical items appropriately. Then, frequencies and types of uses and errors of the three grammatical items were investigated and compared between the two tests. Next, statistical analyses were carried out using the SPSS 18.0 (5%) to examine means and standard deviations of uses and errors of the three grammatical items in the pre•posttest. T-test was also performed to verify whether there would be statistically significant differences before and after the treatment period.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. O a P a P P

The number of words and sentences used, and the length of the sentence in the pre-posttest were examined to compare differences in the overall performances after the treatment period, and the results are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. O a P a P P T

	N	Pretest		Posttest		t	Sig
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Length of composition	27	183.11	55.961	201.00	93.133	-1.093	.284
Number of sentences	27	21.89	6.606	18.07	10.224	2.078	.048*
Length of sentence	27	8.50	2.154	11.58	2.122	-5.295	.000*

The students′ overall performances in their compositions improved after studying abroad. Students increased the number of words in composition over time (pretest: 183.11, posttest: 201 words). While the average length of sentence increased (pretest: 8.50, posttest: 11.58), the number of sentences decreased (pretest: 21.89, posttest: 18.07). In particular, there were statistically significant differences in the number of sentences and the length of sentence between the two compositions. The students generated longer sentences embedded with more number of words in more complex structures after the treatment period, implying that the students′ lexical fluency improved while studying abroad. Also, there was significant correlation in the length of composition (.022) and the length of sentence (.010) between the two writings. That is, those who wrote long compositions with long sentences in the pretest produced longer compositions with longer sentences in the posttest.

2. U T G a a a I

Frequencies and types of uses of the three grammatical items (Infinitives, verbs and participles) in the pre-posttest were investigated, and Table 2 displays the results. Errors of those items were not included in the frequency of usage.

The students utilized more number of all the three items after the treatment period. Particularly, the use of infinitives (pretest: 2.7, posttest: 6.89) showed a remarkable increase and a statistical significance between the two tests. This indicated that the students' understanding of infinitives was enhanced while learning in the language program. However, the increases in verbs (pretest: 33.37, posttest: 34.67) and in participles (pretest: 4.11, posttest: 4.63) were not significant.

TABLE 2. U T G a a a I

Items	N	Pretest		Posttest		t	Sig
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Infinitives	27	2.70	1.814	6.89	4.423	-4.816	.000*
Verbs	27	33.37	8.962	34.67	16.295	-.458	.651
Participles	27	4.11	2.309	4.63	2.989	-.442	.403

3. E T G a a a I

Total number of errors, errors in three linguistic categories, and errors of three grammatical items were identified

in the pre-posttest, and the results are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3. T R E A a

Items	N	Pretest	Posttest	Sig	Correlation Coefficient Sig.
Number of errors(rate)	27	568(11.49%)	704(12.97%)	.204	.071
Syntactic errors	27	359(63.21%)	494(70.17%)	.071	.294
Lexical errors	27	121(21.30%)	164(23.30%)	.153	.011*
Morphological errors	27	88(15.49%)	46(6.53%)	.034*	.270
Infinitives	27	10(15.15%)	33(21.71%)	.001*	.069
Verbs	27	45(4.99%)	62(6.62%)	.137	.025*
Participles	27	7(17.07%)	4(6.06%)	.376	.548

The students as a whole made more errors (pretest: 568, posttest: 704) after studying abroad for a semester. However, the rate of increase in errors (1.48%) was far smaller compared to that in the length of compositions (9.77%). Also, there was no statistical significance, nor correlation in the number of errors between the two tests. One of the reasons the students produced more number of errors in the posttest seemed associated with the difficulty of the topic of the posttest. In addition, as the students tried to write more complex structures in longer sentences, they might have had difficulty producing grammatically correct sentences, which resulted in their more frequent errors in the latter writing.

The error analysis demonstrated that syntactic errors represented the most frequent, lexical errors the second most, and morphological errors the least. This pattern of error gravity in the three linguistic areas was the same in both writings. While syntactic and lexical errors increased by 6.96% and 2.0%, respectively, morphological errors decreased by 8.96% in the posttest. This sharp decline in morphological errors was statistically significant (.034), revealing that the students attained control over morphological items after spending a semester overseas.

Errors of infinitives that belong to a syntactic category increased by 6.56% in the posttest, and they were statistically significant (.001). Infinitive errors appeared in four types and the omission of 'to' was the most frequent type. In the case of verbs representing a lexical category, errors also increased in the posttest, but there was no statistical significance between the pre-posttest. Verb errors occurred in four types. Among them, verb omission appeared the most frequently, especially in the use of action verbs. In contrast, participle errors decreased slightly in the posttest, and such a decline carried no significance. The students mostly used present participles instead of verbs, and infinitives in place of past participles.

V. CONCLUSION

In an attempt to explore the effects of studying abroad on learning English grammar, the present study investigated three grammatical items (infinitives, verbs and participles) used in English compositions by Korean university students who joined an overseas language program for a semester. The results showed that the students as a whole gained lexical fluency, producing longer sentences embedded with more number of words in more complex structures, whereas the number of sentences decreased after studying abroad. Also, a higher frequency in the usage of the grammatical items was observed despite an increase in the number of errors in syntactic and lexical use. It was revealed that while the students attained control over morphological items, their grammatical accuracy in syntactic and lexical use showed no significant improvement during a semester abroad. This implied that a semester-long studying abroad was more effective in morphological learning rather than syntactic or lexical learning. The findings of the study indicated that although studying abroad can provide more opportunities in language input and environmental benefits to target language learning, it is not largely effective to attain the grammatical competence to generate grammatically correct sentences during a semester abroad.

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L a S a -Ba I K a EFL C C a

Ja Y
Ha U F La a

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning is a strategic effort. Therefore, in order to learn a language more effectively a language learner should have appropriate learning strategies. Learning strategy instructions can play an important role in teaching students by showing them how to apply effective learning techniques to language and content learning. The current research uses one of the SBI models - the metacognition model - that was proposed by Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999). Evidence that language learners actually partake in metacognitive knowledge and processes is reported in most of the research on language learning strategies instruction (Anderson, 2002; Chamot et al. 1999; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between listening and reading performance of Korean EFL college students and strategies based instruction. To this end, the following two questions are addressed: (1) Are there any differences in students' use of strategies after SBI? (2) Are there any differences in their listening and reading performances after SBI?

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Pa a

This study involved two classes of first-year course students in General English belonging to the dental hygiene department at the Suwon Women's College in Suwon, Korea. They had studied English as a foreign language for 6 years or so at school. Considering the EFL learning situation, I eliminated subjects who had lived in English speaking continents for more than six months. A total of 89 subjects were available for the current study. They were classified as lower intermediate to intermediate, based on their scores in the TOEIC Bridge test and their English section scores within the KSAT (Korean Scholastic Aptitude Test). A treatment class and a control class were scheduled to meet once a week for a one hundred-minute class; the treatment class and the control class used the same course materials and followed the same syllabuses. The English proficiency levels of these two classes were not significantly different.

2. P

1) Selecting strategies for SBI

After explaining the objectives of this study to the participants, background questionnaires were distributed and collected during the class hour. SILL testing required approximately 20 minutes and was conducted in the treatment class at the beginning of the semester. The control class did not take the SILL test because it was possible that testing SILL could have given them a conception of the learning strategies that would be imparted in the course of the study. Based on the SILL test findings, we decided to select 12 strategies for instruction, each of whose frequency of use was under 2.5. Usage under 2.5 is usually categorized as a low level of strategy use, that is, in the generally not used or almost never used category. The 12 strategies consist of 3 metacognitive strategies, 2 general cognitive strategies, 2 social strategies, 2 affective strategies, and 3 memory strategies. The TOEIC Bridge test was conducted twice, at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the SBI to check the proficiency levels of the two classes.

2) SBI

Strategy instruction was provided in the treatment class during five one hundred-minute classes that focused on listening and reading comprehension. Our strategies instruction follows the metacognition strategies instruction framework (Chamot et al., 1999).

In general, the initial presentation of a new strategy or combination of strategies included a brief statement about why the strategy was important and how it was expected to assist students. We modeled a strategy, demonstrating five steps - preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion - involved in approaching and completing a reading or

listening tasks. To reinforce and extend the use of a strategy, homework assignments were given. The strategies learned were revised and consolidated in the next class. Since the students were limited in their English proficiency, all SBI was administered in Korean.

3) Assessing the impact of SBI

To assess the impact of SBI on strategy use and on reading and listening skills, all the treatment group participants took the SILL and the TOEIC Bridge test again at the end of the instruction. The results were compared with those of the pre-instruction test. The control class also took TOEIC Bridge test at the end of the course. And their results were compared with those of the treatment class participants to see if strategy instruction had made any difference.

The analysis of the data was carried out, using the SPSS statistical program. In order to fully explore the results of the data, a paired-samples t-test and an independent samples t-test were used. A dozen diaries belonging to treatment class students were reviewed to examine if SBI had been effective, and, if so, in what way.

Ⅲ. RESULTS

The results of the present study indicated that no significant relationship existed in the post TOEIC Bridge scores between the SBI class and the control class. Thus, it does not appear that there is a direct relationship between SBI and the improvement of reading and listening skills.

Ta 2.I Sa T-T

	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	df	sig.(2-tailed)
LC 2	-.473	87	.637 (N.S)
RC 2	-.426	87	.671 (N.S)
Sum 2	-.484	87	.629 (N.S)

N.S=Not Significant

It is possible, however, to conclude that there is a strong tendency that the five-week-long SBI had tended to have an impact on the use of strategy, consequently, on the reading performances of the students; this is because there were significant differences between the pre-SILL results and the post-SILL results of the treatment class, and there also were significant differences between the pre-TOEIC bridge test scores and the post-TOEIC bridge test scores of the treatment class, while there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control class. We shall confirm this tendency by providing the answers to the two main research questions.

The first research question had examined the impact of SBI instructions on the use of learning strategies. This question examined the correlations between SBI and strategy use. Paired sample statistical tests were conducted on the scores of each strategy.

TABLE 3. Pa Sa T-T

	Variables	t	df	sig.(2-tailed)
Pair 1	Cognitive1	-3.225	42	.002
Pair 2	Metacognitive 1	-1.213	42	.232 (N.S)
Pair 3	Social 1	-2.228	42	.031
Pair 4	Metacognitive 2	-.683	42	.499 (N.S)
Pair 5	Cognitive 2	-2.479	42	.017
Pair 6	Memory 1	-2.550	42	.015
Pair 7	Affective 1	-3.334	42	.002
Pair 8	Memory 2	-2.564	42	.014
Pair 9	Affective 2	-3.920	42	.000
Pair 10	Memory 3	-1.807	42	.078
Pair 11	Social 2	-.503	42	.618 (N.S)
Pair 12	Metacognitive 3	-1.096	42	.279 (N.S)

P<.01 N.S=Not Significant

The learning strategies that showed the most significant differences are as follows: *sharing the feeling when learning English, thinking and speaking in English, and writing language learning diaries*. Both affective strategies showed significant differences. According to the study by MacIntyre, Peter and Noels' (1996), one of the strategies that students may benefit from most is the use of language learning diaries. In addition, a number of studies on the affective and social sides of language learning have found that many successful learners use affective and social strategies to control their emotions, and to stay motivated. Therefore, we should ascribe greater significance to the affective aspects in SBI.

No significant differences were found as a result of the three metacognitive strategies. Pintrich (1999) points out that since self-regulated learning is neither easy nor automatic, students need to be motivated in order to invest the time and energy required for using these strategies. That seems to be one of the major reasons why none of the metacognitive strategies were used more frequently than before. One social strategy, which involve *learning target language culture* was not used significantly differently after the SBI. In the dairy of several treatment class students, students wrote that they consider this strategy less effective in enhancing their reading and listening skills.

The second research question explored the impact of the SBI on the listening and reading test scores. The results indicated that there was significant improvement in reading skills ($p<0.01$) but not in listening with in the treatment class. Listening in a foreign language is a task that has a high level of difficulty in cognitive terms and therefore demands full attention. For low to intermediate students, in particular, it is a challenging task. That seems to be the reason why the improvement in the listening sills is smaller compared to that in reading.

Ta 4. Pa Sa T-T

	Variables	t	df	sig.(2-tailed)
Pair 1	LC 1-LC 2	-1.774	42	.083 (N.S)
Pair 2	RC1-RC 2	-3.059	42	.004**
Pair 3	Sum1-Sum 2	-2.869	42	.006 (N.S)

p**<0.01

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C C a ?: I C K a L a T G a G a N

C J. Da
U P a a,[11] USA

I. INTRODUCTION

South Korean society is quickly becoming more diverse and globally connected. These changes are happening with a rapidity which demands English-language classrooms also adapt. Today's Korean English language learners will need to participate in a global marketplace and, as such, need to be exposed to the vastness of human culture. Trite English primers containing unhelpful generalizations such as "Koreans use chopsticks and foreigners use forks" are no longer helpful. If, indeed, they ever were. This paper, then, presents a unit designed as a task-centered English learning experience. It is an English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) course with the goal of introducing global culture to South Korean college students through worldwide graphic novels. Though this unit can (and should) be adapted to a specific needs-analysis of a particular group, this paper will describe a generalized concept unit. Each lesson will consist of anjrtmco pr

very polemical or fanciful nature—politically motivated school curricula, Hollywood television/films, and so on. While this may have sufficed for previous generations of Koreans who had less interaction with the outside world, it behooves younger Koreans to begin to appreciate both the diversity of culture and the uniformity of different peoples.

Korea has become a nation admitting immigrants and with the trans-Pacific ratification of the U.S.–Korea Free Trade Agreement in 2011 and an expressed interest in joining the Trans-Pacific Strategic Economic Partnership, South Korea's global participation in set to expand. South Korean college students must not be versed in English for testing purposes only, but must also develop an appreciation for and exposure to other cultures. Of course, social studies and history classes have always been concerned with worldwide examinations. This class will complement these studies by eschewing textbooks and debate books and adopting a practice of including graphic novels that will introduce learners to other cultures.

Despite the tendency to replicate the reading lists of traditional Language Arts classrooms in dominant Anglophone counties, it is better the students be exposed to literature they will have a higher likelihood of enjoying. For the goal of increased language acquisition, the use of modern graphic novels will likely be more beneficial. Teaching reading skills has always been an emphasis of English language educators, and rightly so. A recurring concern, however, is how to turn the pedagogical-dominated reading skills of the classroom into, minimally, increased English proficiency and, hopefully, lifelong English literacy. Over the last several decades educators have grappled with the notion, "curriculum needs to rethought in order to foster students' entry into living traditions of knowledge-in-action rather than static traditions of knowledge-out-of-context" (Applebee, 1996, p. 5). Part of this rethinking has been seen as classrooms move away from teaching classic works originally aimed at bygone generations and the adoption of contemporary literature aimed at modern audiences. This lesson will focus on graphic novels as they often have, "the added advantage of being more relevant to the lives" to students. They are therefore more likely to overcome students' general resistance to "school books" (Crowe, 1998, p. 122).

More importantly, working with globalized literature about different populaces will allow students to become intimately familiar with a small facet of far-away peoples. Far from merely helping this course's students develop English language skills, graphic novels can, if properly used, be a tool to help learners participate in a cultural experience. Nonfiction, of course, provides wonderful opportunities for students to learn specific descriptions of historical persons and places, and current cultural practices. Literature, however, and specifically the graphic novels suggested for this course, will allow "access to a vast spectrum of ways of being human" (Nodelman, 1996, p. 129). As students learn about and begin to appreciate cultural diversity, they will also develop a greater positive reception to the multiculturalism which is expanding in South Korea.

IV. CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

This unit, though obviously needing to be adapted to specific contexts, is anticipated as having individual lessons broken into six generalized portions:

1) Class will commence with a quiz of vocabulary introduced in the *previous* session.
2) A class discussion, centering on the assigned text, will be facilitated by the teacher.
3) The teacher will introduce the task and associated vocabulary for the day.
4) Students, working in a collaborative group, will accomplish that task.
5) Student groups will present their completed tasks to the class.
6) The teacher will offer generalized feedback to the class

The central task for each class ought to be designed to facilitate the end-of-unit project, an original graphic novel. Each task should focus primarily on content, following Skehan's definition of a language class endeavor which is 1) meaning driven, 2) assessed by content, 3) concerned with the resolution of a communication problem, and 4) related to real-world problem (Skehan, 1998, p. 95).[12]

D C a

1) Q (T a (T) < > S (S) I a):

The class will commence with a brief quiz designed solely to assess the student's retention of previously assigned vocabulary. This quiz should be very limited in nature and designed solely for assessment.

2) C a D (a T < > S I a):

Class discussions will be led by the teacher on the previous readings. Though it would be preferable to have the students dominate the class discussion, it will likely consist of the teacher asking probing questions and interacting with the students.

3) Wa - /P - a (a T < > S I a):

The teacher will introduce the specific task to be completed in the class session and three or four associated vocabulary words.

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[12] Objections might be raised to using graphic novels to accomplish the last point. Yasuhiko clearly refutes these—the task need not have real-life applications for every student (p. 22).

4) Ta (a S <>S I a ; T <> S a a):

This will form the central portion of the class; language skills utilized during the task will be speaking, listening, and writing. When the students have been trained on the desired outcome of the task, they will be divided into groups to accomplish the task. To increase communicative abilities, it is important students work in groups instead of individually. This will allow collaborative L2 discussions instead of silent composition. Though the students will have spoken (both in and out of class) in the L2, they will likely have had little opportunity to plan and execute a formal, graded project using the L2 to facilitate the group dynamic. The group work should be peer dominated, allowing for feedback from other students.

5) P - a (S <> C a I a ; T <> S):

Following the task, the student groups will collaboratively present their completed task or describe the process they went through. Each student will participate in this presentation; i.e., there will be no "spokesperson" for the group. The vocabulary introduced earlier in the class will be incorporated into the presentation. This will allow the students to use the target vocabulary soon after learning it—boosting vocabulary retention. The class presentation will allow for the practice of a more formalized, academic discourse.

6) F a (T <>S I a):

The end of the class affords an opportunity for the instructor to provide generalized feedback. It is expected the majority of this will come as recasting (negative evidence) and confirmation checks (positive evidence). The students will be proficient in English and feedback does not need to be explicit—that is, errors can be recast instead of corrected in an overt error correction manner. Also, important to a Korean class, recasting and confirmation checks are far less face-threatening. If the instructor is not Korean, this might necessitate a pragmatics shift; Korean culture employs correctives which are often "more accommodating to face needs." Corrections appropriate in other contexts may be seen as "highly face-threatening" (Da Silva, 2003, p. 61). This is perhaps even more important if, as is the case, the teacher is not Korean (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009). Due to Korea's continually evolving attitude towards English (Hall, 2011, p. 184), non-Korean teachers should be especially willing to adapt to a Korean context of feedback. This is central to any lesson as he teacher's genuine feedback remains an imperative (Hermer, 2001, p. 150).

V. CONCLUSION

As noted earlier, almost all people could benefit from a more global perspective. Instructors in ELF classrooms in Korea have a unique opportunity to use their classes to teach English and global appreciation. By using graphic novels from around the globe, students can gain new insights into close neighbors and far-off communities. The use of global literature allows a far more universal approach than simply using works from Anglophone countries such as the United States or the United Kingdom. While students are reading global graphic novels and completing assigned tasks, they will also be fostering the communicative skills necessary for global discourse.

The outline presented above is, just that, an outline. The linguistic and communicative skills and goals of each learner and each classroom will be different. This will require the instructor to analyze and adapt the unit for disparate classes. It is hoped, however, this paper will still be of use to English educators. By emphasizing communicative skills through the use of global graphic novel literature, an ELF classroom will be able to facilitate students' acquisition of English and, perhaps more importantly, help to produce learners capable of interacting with a diverse population.

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TEES T a E a

M J , J K , Y a K , a M S
K U

I. INTRODUCTION

We have recently developed a computer tool that was designed to analyze English text and essay based on a variety of linguistic and psycholinguistic features. The computer tool is called TEES, an acronym for Text & Essay Evaluation System. The measures of TEES include text readability (Klare, 1974-75), text coherence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Landauer, 2007; Landauer, Foltz, & Laham, 1998), syntax structure, vocabulary, and text marker scores. TEES is now in development. Basically, we have developed TEES to evaluate English text and essay in terms of a linguistic and psycholinguistic standard index. In this system, the TASA corpus was used to establish the standardized norm. In this paper, we briefly propose the interface of TEES and the main functions of the system.

Ⅱ. THE INTERFACE OF TEES

The interface of TEES was presented in Figure 1. As presented in Figure 1, TEES consists of three primary parts. There is a "Write or Load files" part (see upper left) that is used to load text and essay files. The second part (see upper right) indicates "Analysis Progress". The last part (see bottom of figure) shows the results of the analysis. In principle, TEES has been developed by various computational methods that have been extensively used in the fields of computational linguistics, computer science, cognitive science, and cognitive psychology (Jurafsky & Martin, 2008).

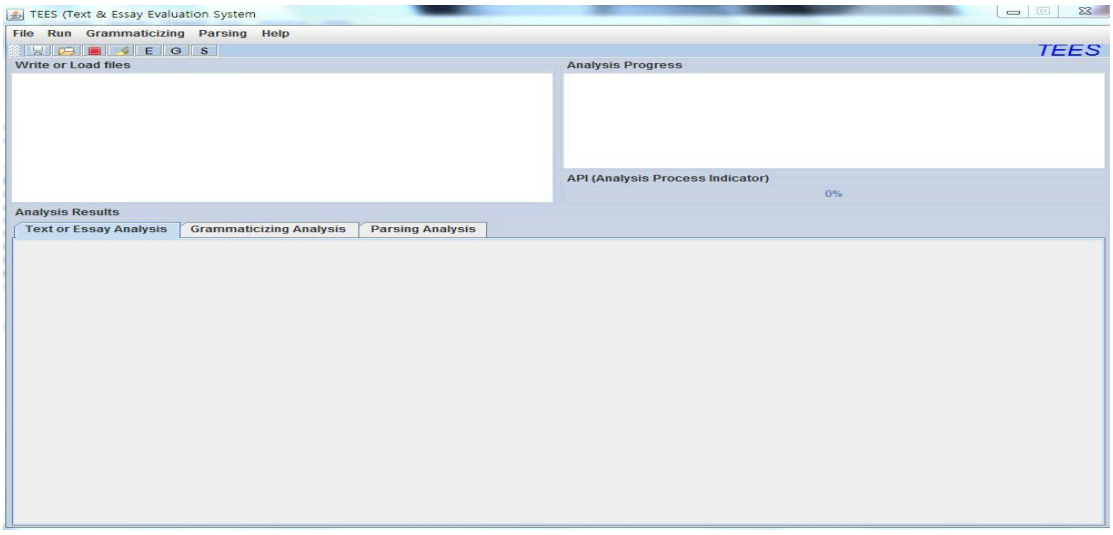


FIGURE 1. T I a TEES

Ⅲ. THE MAIN FUNCTIONS OF TEES

The main functions of TEES embrace (1) Text and Essay Analysis, (2) Syntactic Structure Analysis of Sentence, and (3) English Grammar Error Detection. As presented in Figure 2, TEES now provides 21 linguistic and psycholinguistic measures on the cohesion and coherence of text and essay (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) that can be applied to evaluate various kinds of text and essay.

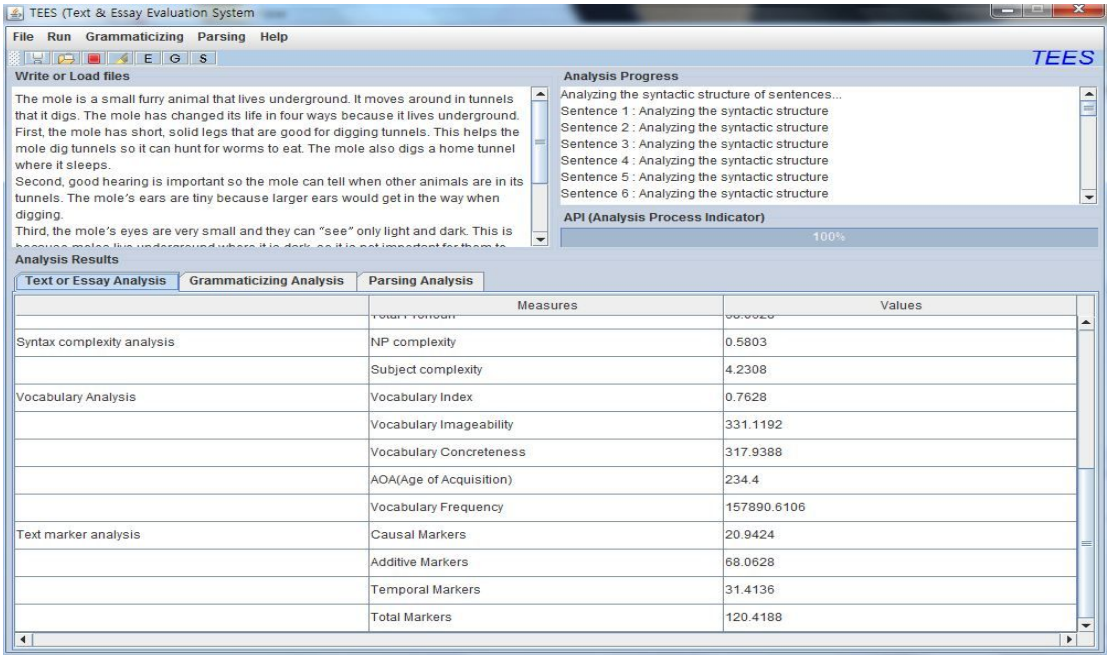
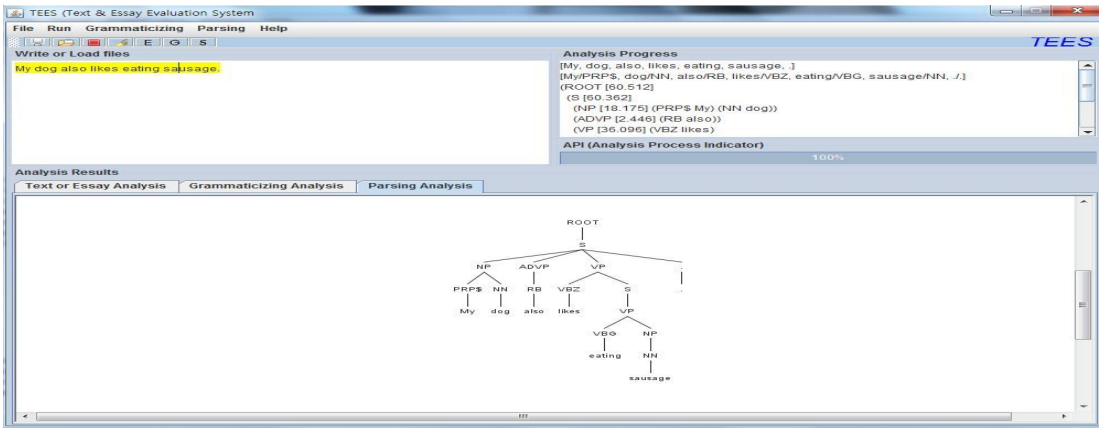


FIGURE 2. T Ma M a TEES

TEES also can analyze the syntactic structure of sentence with the Standford parser as presented in Figure 3. Basically, TEES can be applied to scaffold students to learn the syntactic components of sentence.



FGIURE 3. T S a S A a TEES

Finally, TEES can detect various English errors made by second language learners of English as presented in Figure 4. In detail, TEES detects English errors such as singular and plural noun-verb agreement errors, article errors, subjunctive usage errors, and so on in the English essays. Then, TEES provides students with some feedbacks on the errors, thereby scaffolding them to learn English grammar systematically.

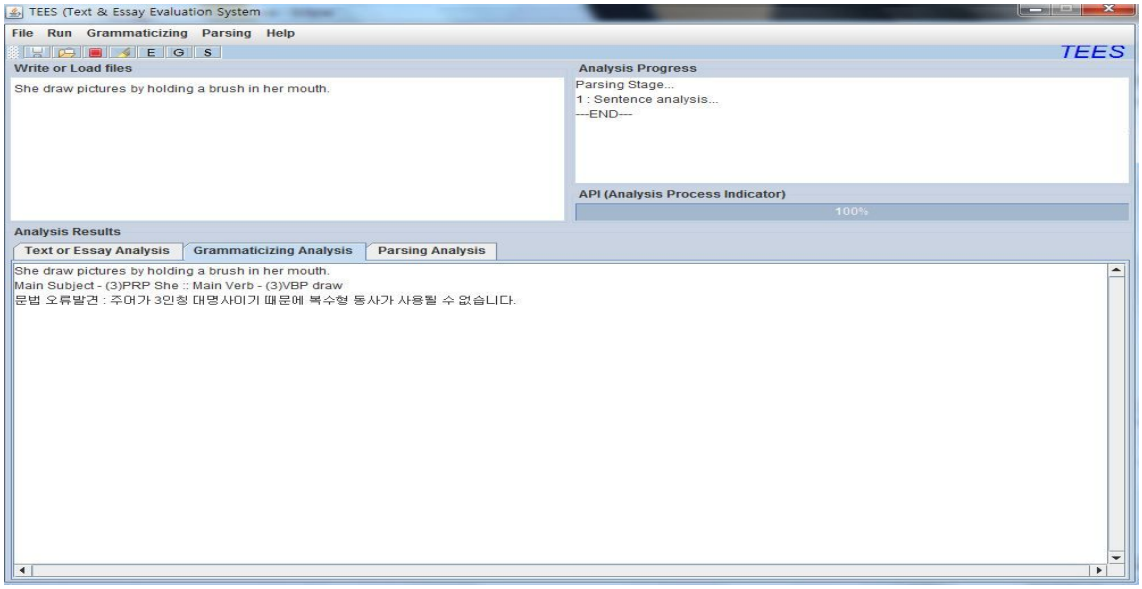


FIGURE 4. T E G a a E A a TEES

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

The TEES system is now in development, but almost done. We expect that TEES will be applied to perform various linguistic and psycholinguistic studies, and will be used for English education as well as English essay and textbook evaluation.

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T G S -R Ta K a E a S S

H - A
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

Oral proficiency and communicative ability are the principal desired outcomes of today's foreign language instruction (Szostek, 1994). Also, the curricular goal of elementary English education in Korea is building communicative ability. However, English classes in Korea so far have been basically focused on remembering and practicing four or five target expressions in a lesson. Activities are various such as games, songs and role-play, but those are still followed the presentation and practice pattern.

Task-based language teaching (Willis, 1996) could be suggested as an alternative of language teaching framework. The use of tasks will promote language development in terms of both breadth and control because a task push learners to use target language focusing on meaning to complete it (Skehan & Foster, 1999). Ellis (2001) and Swain (1995) thought task performance in itself drives interlanguage change by causing learners to attend to and retain information about the target language as they use it. Among various types of tasks, the use of story-retelling task in the classroom has shown positive effects on language growth. Morrow (1985) showed retelling stories helped young learners to develop oral language complexity, comprehension and concept of story structure. John, Lui and Tannock (2003) revealed retelling tasks enhance summarization and evaluation skills that are necessary for oral summaries of presenting oral book reports and relating current events by allowing students to describe, explain, and interpret events. In short, a story-retelling task requires reconstructing information and focus the learner's attention on convey meaning using target language in a holistic way. This kind of meaning focusing speaking task might affect on learners' attitude on speaking in English.

In the task, there are some guidance tool such as a story rope and a graphic organizer. A story rope is a visual guide has seven symbols presenting settings, characters, problems, happenings of three steps and a resolution on the rope. A graphic organizer has same symbols on the paper and it helps learners to find necessary words and expressions for retelling. They are for generating questions for narrative retelling tasks. EFL young learners might require something more concrete organizer not only for the concept of story elements but also for the language structure. These guidance tools will help learners build concept of story elements and also make retelling easier by immediate recall prior to asking questions when they see visual cues on a story rope.

In this research, a guided story-retelling task was designed and applied to Korean elementary school student. In this study, answers to the following questions will be sought: 1) How much does a guided story retelling task affect to EFL young learner's retelling skills? 2) How do students perceive toward a guided retelling task in English?

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Pa a

The participants attended this 11-week experimental class through English club activity in public elementary school in Incheon, Korea. They are all 15 students and 8 are in fifth grade (4 boys and 4 girls) and 7 are in sixth grade (2 boys and 5 girls). The students applied to join the English club and they came once a week for 50 minutes. The school is located in Nam-dong gu in Incheon, Korea which is the economic status of the area is various from middle to low. Among 15 participants, 9 students could finish the session because of the schedule change.

2. Da a a a a

This research is a pre- and post- test single group design. The video recording, transcription, observation, survey, and interview were used to answer for research questions. For the quantitative analysis, the pre- and post-test of story retelling skills were evaluated by the rubric quantitatively (see Table 1). This data was collected from the transcription of video taped recordings.

Also, for the qualitative analysis, the interview and survey was conducted to see students' perception about a guided story-retelling task. The researcher chose four interviewees to know how they feel and how they think about the very new task for them. They were chosen from the result of the observation of oral responses in picture-walking activity. From the result, a students who give highest number of responses, a student who give lowest number of responses, and two students give average number of responses were chosen as interviewees. Between the two average students, one showed that he has interest on story reading and story retelling in English on the survey, and the other student didn't. For the survey, a panel survey was used that data were collected on the same set of respondents at two or more points at a time. It was conducted twice in the research. The questions were used to check how students feel about the story retelling task with 5-likert scale and the reasons of the responses.

TABLE 1. T R S R S (M , 1986)

Categories	Contents	Check
1. Setting (maximum raw score 3)	A. The story starts with a beginning statement	
	B. The time of the story is mentioned	
	C. The location of the story is mentioned	
2. Character (maximum raw score 1)	A. One or more central characters emerges and assumes a main role throughout the story	
3. Plot Episodes (maximum raw score 4)	A. Main problem was mentioned	
	B. A beginning initiating event occurs that causes the main character to react	
	C. An event or series of events occur that lead the main character toward solving the problem or reaching the goal of the story	
	D. The episodes presented in sequential order of the story	
4. Resolution (maximum raw score 2)	A. The main character solves the problem or attains the goal	
	B. The story is ended with an ending statement	
Total Number of Checks		

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. P - a P - S - S

This pre- and post- test was implemented to see the effect of a guided story-retelling task to the EFL young learner's retelling skills. The mean scores and standard deviation of the result on the pre- and post- tests were compared. As shown in Table 2, the posttest mean score of the participants was significantly increased from 3.5 to 6 out of 10. The number of standard deviation decreased so it means participants gap of the score get lower.

TABLE 2. P - a P - S R S

	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t	p
Pre Test	3.5	3.0	3.18	0.33
Post Test	6.0	1.8		

*p < 0.05

2. S

A panel survey was used in twice as the pre survey and post survey. Pre-survey was conducted when students did story retelling before learning concept of story elements and the function of a story rope. Post- survey was conducted when students were aware of story elements and used a story rope in story retelling. The result (see Figure 1) showed positive responses were increased from 3 (33%) to 6 (67%). For the reasons of positive responses, 4 of 6 students answered it was cognitively pushed to use English knowledge they already had. The 2 of 6 students responded they were interested in speaking in English in several sentences.

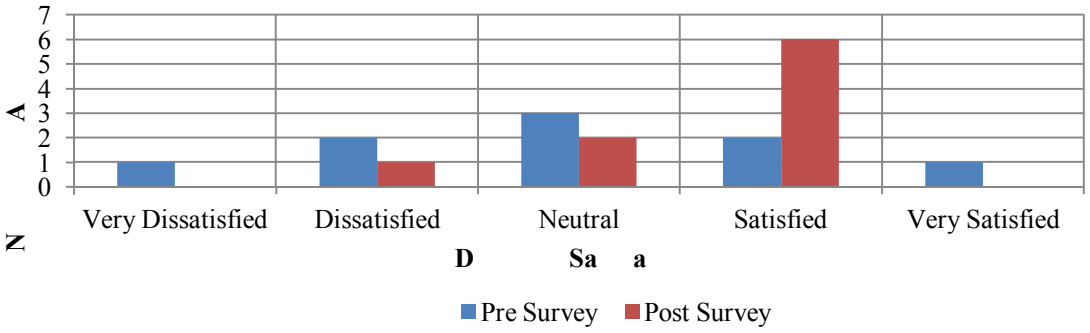

FIGURE 1. Sa a a G S - Ta

3. I

The interview was conducted to find out the participants' perception about a guided-story retelling task and guidance tools for story retelling. The four interviewees were chosen. Student A is a sixth grade boy who showed highest number of oral responses in picture walking activity. Student B is a fifth grade boy who showed lowest number of oral responses. Student C and Student D showed average number of responses. Student C is a sixth grade student girl and Student D is a fifth grade boy who is shy but he has positive attitude on English class.

1) Perception on a guided story-retelling task

Student A and Student C showed very positive view on a guided story-retelling task. They think story-retelling task gives them chance to talk in English. Also they agreed it pushes them to think what they want to say It is cognitively demanding activity so they recognized it is helpful.

> Student A: " I have never experienced this kind of activity. I felt a little nervous but it helped me to get confidence speaking in English. The task gave me chance to talk in English through my own thinking."

However, the interview showed the task raises affective filter because it is not familiar and cognitively demanding. Student B and D think story-retelling task is advantageous and they don't like the task because they felt a lot of pressure to speak in English.

> Student B: "I felt it was very difficult and I was fearful. I want to just read the story and talk about it. I want to skip the retelling task. However, the pressure is going to be less and less if I practice more."

2) Perception on guidance tools (a story rope and a graphic organizer)

Every student thinks a guidance tool such as a story-rope and a graphic organizer provided direct help to complete story retelling task. The major advantages of guidance tools are helping comprehension of the story, recall of the story, recognition of story elements, sequence of retelling. It is interpreted that guidance tools help building schema of story elements and also recall and memorize of the story.

> Student A: "A graphic organizer was helpful on comprehension of the story. Also taking note about story elements make it easy to remind them when I retell the story."
> Student C: "A story rope was very helpful. Symbols make me recall the elements easily. Also, it makes me easy to recall what I am going to say next. A graphic organizer is also helpful because it gives me a chance to note down what I want to say."

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

According to the finding of this study, a guided story-retelling seems to have impact on improvement of story retelling skills and building positive attitude on the oral task based on the story. Typical English classes in public elementary schools in Korea so far are basically based on presentation-practice with various activities. However, it has

limitations to build oral proficiency because it is close to pattern drill activity not cognitively demanding. One of the narrative task, story retelling task would be a good model for getting out of the typical teaching frame and move on to more cognitively challenging and push the learners to use language knowledge what they have already in task processing. The task based language learning could be a proper frame to put into story retelling model. The findings of the study offer several pedagogical implications for Korean elementary school teachers. First, a story-retelling task could be a good alternative task instead of presentation-practice activities for high-level students. In public schools, activities in English classes are various but they are basically focus on the practice. As the survey showed, the subject was satisfied with the story telling task because they can use the language what they already know. They got interests when the task is cognitively challenging. Second, providing support by tools and time is important. The guidance tool such as a story rope and a graphic organizer help for comprehension of the story, recall of the story, recognition of story elements, sequencing of the story. Also as allowing planning time is also important matter.

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K a EFL Y L a P U E Na

M G H
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

As the importance of communicative English education aroused, along with fast globalization and economic development, native speaking teachers began to spread from public schools to private institutions nationwide, and the tendency of assigning common English names that are easy to call and remember has happened. (See Chae, 2004) As time goes by, however, the fashion has decreased, and many skilled and trained public English teachers with communicative language ability have begun to replace the native teachers. This qualitative research was designed first to see these days' tendency of adoption English name and to find the influence of having English names on EFL young learners. For that, the answers to the following research questions were sought; first, "How do Korean EFL young learners perceive English names?" and second, "What are the sources of either positive or negative perceptions toward having English names of the elementary school learners?"

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

The data for this study was independently collected by a survey and an interview. For the survey, 6th grade students in Han-il elementary school in Yong-in, Gyeonggi province were targeted. The school had 4 English teachers and 1 native English teacher for the English curriculum, and 104 students participated in the survey. Semi-structured interview, on the other hand, was conducted with two young learners who had reluctant attitude toward using English names. However, their perceptions on English name itself were opposite; the elder one, 13-year old middle school student had negative perception whereas the younger one, 11-year old elementary school student had relatively positive perception. The participants have had similar educational background.

2. Da a A a P

First of all, 104 surveys were divided into 2 groups by whether or not having English names. Regarding the group with an English Name, the ratio of the subjects who like an English name and using an English name was conducted. To figure out the sources of either positive or negative perception on an English name, the reasons of likes and dislikes were sought and categorized. This data was compared to that of Korean names. Particularly regarding the negative perception, the reasons were compared to those of interview in which the two interviewers were reluctant on using an English name.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. P a E Na

Korean EFL learners tend to have relatively positive perception on English name, use of English name, and other's use of English name. (See Table 1 and Figure 1) As the result of asking the subjects' feelings for friends who use English, as it is shown on the Chart1, positive emotions were 56.5% in sum whereas the sum of negative feeling was 29.6%. This means that the young learners are not only relatively positive toward their own use of an English name but also quite open to others use of an English name. According to the survey result, the young learners' perceptions on an English name were likely to be positive.

TABLE 1. L D E Na / U a E Na

	EN			EN usage		
%	57.6	40.6	1.8	45.8	40.6	13.6
	Like	indifferent	Dislike	Like	indifferent	Dislike

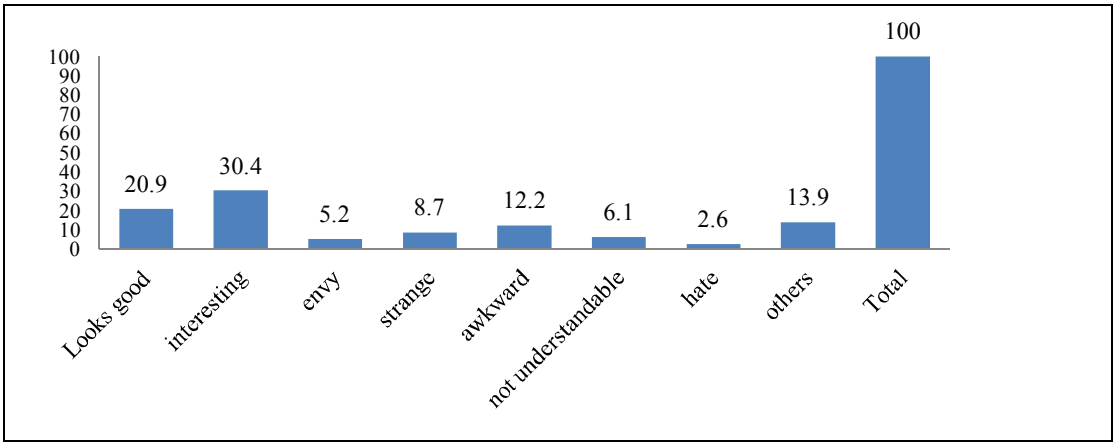

FIGURE 1. F F U E Na

2. S P N a P

For the reasons of Likes, the answers they put by themselves were sorted out into 8 categories. Among them, 'I just like it with no reason' for both KN and EN was saliently high marking 30% and 40.9% each. However, there was a wide gap in the category where they liked the name because it was given by parents or grandparents to 28.3% to 4.6%. Also, 18.1% responded they like the English name because it is easy and comfortable to call whereas only 6.7% responded about Korean names. While the 13.6% and 9.1% of students with English name perceived their name was cool and good match for themselves, 6.7% of students showed patriotism in relation with their Korean names. (See Figure 2) For the reasons of dislikes, the answers collected from surveys were compared to interview data.

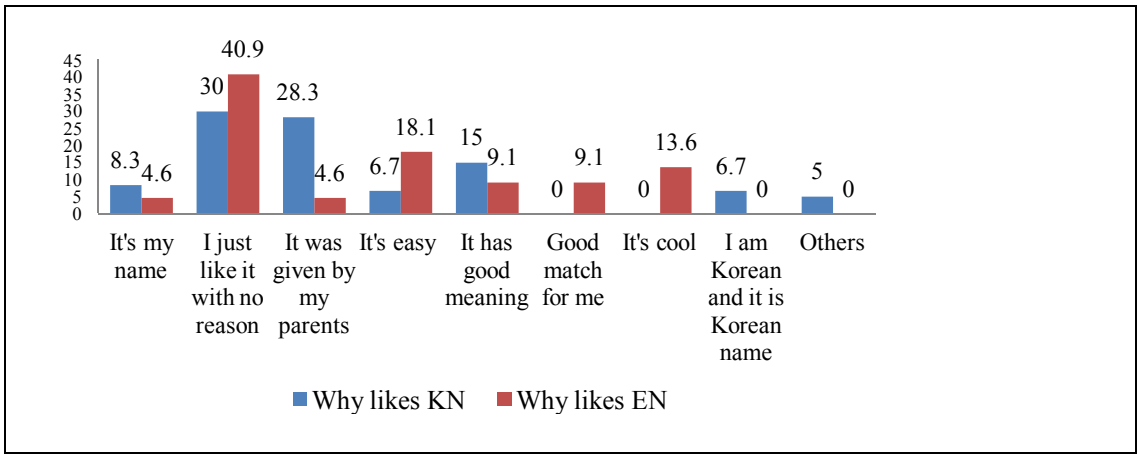

FIGURE 2. R a L K a Na / E Na

As it is shown on Table 2, the categorization of each method's data tended to be similar to each other, and it raised credibility of the influential factors of young learner's perception on an English Name. The categorization suggested here was Social psychological Pressure, Attachment on Korean Name, Emotional Barriers, and functional factor. The subjects showed social psychological pressure by using English names being affected by others including teachers. When considering that they use an English name mainly in English classes, as it is shown on table 3, some young learners may feel pressure by using an English name.

Second, some of them showed strong attachment on Korean names. This is different from reaction of Korean

identity because they had a lot of reasons of likes of their Korean names. Among the reasons they like Koran name, as on Chart 2, Korean identity takes just 6.7% of the whole answers. Rather, they were recognizing the name-assigners and meaning of the name. Besides, effect of self identity (8.3%) was higher than national identity (6.7%). Thus, we cannot disregard the influence of Korean name.

Third, they showed emotional barriers to using an English name. The EFL young learners, same as adult, feel emotional resistance to their second language and even for the names. Not only adoption of name, but also teaching language should consider these variables. For the fourth, self-directedness of the learners was found from both the survey respondents and interviewees. 28.9% of respondents with no English names mentioned that they will assign their own English names. Meanwhile, the interviewee who assigned herself an English name showed more attachment than another who was assigned an English name by a parent. This means that the young learners can be more self-directed than we expect. For this type, assigning an English name without discussion may de-motivate the use of an English name.

Finally, functional factor was also found. Through this study, however, how much even the elementary school students could be sensitive on efficiency of English name has been found. To bring the data on Chart 2 again, 13.6% of the subject told they liked the English name because it was cool, and 9.1% of subjects responded they liked English name because it was good match with them. Through these statements, it was found that the respondents valued the decorative function of English name. Meanwhile, one interviewee concerned the function of recognition, which means she focused that the name was for being called not only for calling. Another interview was actually using her English name for her own use on the internet.

TABLE 2. Ca a R a D a E Na

Survey	Reasons	Interview
I feel like I am foreigner.	Pressure	(If the teacher orders me to use EN) Then I can't help using it
I like my Korean name more.	Attachment on KN	I just don't understand why people use English name in Korea.
I get shy when using English name. I feel awkward. I hate English.	Emotional Barriers	I would feel uncomfortable. It doesn't feel like my name. It would be embarrassing.
Name Assigner = Self (28.9%)	Self-directedness	Because I want to make my own name.
I hardly use it.	Function	I may not recognize that people call me. Usually for Naver Homepage nickname and chatting rooms.

TABLE 3. P a W E Na I U

	English Class					
Answers	School	Institute	Home	Online	Others	Total
%	20.5	52.1	8.2	8.2	11	100

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

Whether or not the English name is effective on learning English, adoption of English name seems to be a choice of the learner in the real world. Based on the research, English name was in different domain from English learning. That is, whether or not the learner is interested in learning the language may not be the only reason for having English name. Rather, more various affective factors are existed; there may be role conflicts, attachment of first language and culture, possible emotional barriers, self-directedness, and function. Some may want to make their own English names while others want their parents or teachers to give good names that match for them well. Also, whether it sounds good, special, or recognizable enough should be considered. As Korean name is culturally and psychologically concerned rather than educationally, same for the English names, particularly for the young learner, adoption of English name has to be considered from the learner's perspective.

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H D I a C a B a W S La a L a ?

Sa -K L
K a Na a U E a

I. INTRODUCTION

Unaccusativity has been extensively researched in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), investigating how second language (L2) learners of each language acquire unaccusativity in the target language (e.g., see Montrul, 1999, 2001 for L2 Spanish and English; Sorace, 1993a, 1993b, 1995 for L2 Italian and French; Sorace & Shomura, 2001 for L2 Japanese). In particular, in the case of learning English as an L2 by learners with diverse first language (L1) backgrounds, the following production data have attracted much scholarly attention, which are commonly referred to as overpassivization errors (Balcom, 1995, 1997; Ju, 2000; Oshita, 2000, 2001; Yip, 1990, 1995; Zobl, 1989):

(1) *My mother was died when I was just a baby. (Thai L1; Zobl, 1989)
(2) *The most memorable experience of my life was happened 15 years ago. (Arabic L1; Zobl, 1989)
(3) *Most of people are fallen in love and marry with somebody. (Japanese L1; Zobl, 1989)
(4) *Rush hour traffic can be vanished because working at home is a new version. (Chinese L1; Yip, 1995)
(5) *However, the Watts riots which were happened in 1965 destroyed many Jewish businesses. (Korean L1; Ju, 2000)

Whereas the majority of the previous studies have utilized syntactical approaches for analyzing the nontarget structures as above, the present study supports a position that input experience is the driving factor in L2 learning and supposes the overpassivization constructions as a function of two input biases (frequency and alternation) and one conceptual or cognitive bias (types of causation).

Ⅱ. MEHTODOLOGY

1. R a Q

This study adopts a cognitive-driven usage-based approach to the interlanguage phenomenon of overpassivization. Specifically, the current study is designed to investigate the effects of frequency of unaccusative predicates, types of alternation, and types of causation (operationalized through the availability of conceptualizable causers in discourse) on English L2 learners' perception of nontarget overpassivization constructions, which was assessed through their scaled responses on a grammaticality judgment task. The following questions guided the current study:

1. How do frequencies of unaccusative verbs (high-frequency unaccusatives versus low-frequency unaccusatives) affect L2 learners' knowledge of English unaccusativity?
2. How do types of unaccusative verbs (non-alternating unaccusatives versus alternating unaccusatives) affect L2 learners' knowledge of English unaccusativity?
3. How do causation types (internal causation versus external causation) affect L2 learners' knowledge of English unaccusativity?

2. Pa a

Sixty-three learners of English with diverse major backgrounds and 10 English native speakers serving as a control group initially volunteered to participate in the current study. The participants comprised of adult undergraduate and graduate students, exchange students at the graduate level, and students seeking a second bachelor's degree enrolled in a large, public, research-based university in the U.S.

3. M a

In order to test the participants' receptive knowledge of the unaccusative-related overpassivization structures, a scaled grammaticality judgment task (GJT) was constructed. The use of the scaled type of GJT was motivated by criticisms leveled by a group of researchers on the use of traditional GJTs with dichotomous choices (Ayoun, 2000; Bard, Robertson, & Sorace, 1996; Birdsong, 1992; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Gass, 1994; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Inagaki, 2001; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Sorace, 1996). In particular, following Juffs's (2001, p. 311) suggestion, participants in this study were asked to respond on an entirely positive scale, ranging from 1 to 6, in order not to allow zero midpoint responses from them. The response format that the participants saw looks as follows:

LEAST ACCEPTABLE — MOST ACCEPTABLE

1 2 3 4 5 6

Each target word generated two test items, one involving an external causation event and the other an internal causation event. In addition to the 16 target verbs, 10 transitive predicates were included as distracters (accept, allow, complete, correct, create, damage, expect, prepare, relieve, use), each also featuring two items differing in causation types. These distracters functioned as baseline data testing whether the participants already knew the passivization rule. In addition, the inclusion of distracters with transitive verbs was also to counterbalance the number of acceptable constructions with actives and passives, since all experimental items were acceptable in the active voice, and all distracter items were acceptable only in the passive voice.

To sum up, the scaled GJT contained 32 test items plus 20 distracter items, constructed from 16 unaccusative predicates and 10 transitive predicates, respectively. The 16 unaccusative predicates differed in terms of the types of unaccusatives as well as the levels of frequency. Of the entire 52 items in the testing instrument, 26 involved an internal causation event and 26 an external causation event. A half of the 32 experimentsl items constructed from the 16 unaccusative verbs were acceptable in an external causation type, whereas the other half were acceptable in an internal causation type. All distracter items were acceptable only in a passive construction.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This quasi-experimentsl study employed a 2 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the input frequency category (high-frequency versus low-frequency), the alternation type category (non-alternating unaccusatives versus alternating unaccusatives), and the causation tspe category (internal causation ersus external causation) as three within-subjects factors for the participants' responses on the scaled GJT as the dependent mensure. For the statistical analyses, the alpha level was set at 0.05. The general approach to interpreting ANOVA effects is to analyze the higher-order interaction. In order to analyze the possible combination of interactions at ench different level, the estimated marginal menns were calculated. Based on the estimates, pairwise comparisons at each level were also made using Sidak-corrected 95% confidence intervals.

TABLE 1. D S a NS Da a

Input frequency	Types of unaccusatives	Causation types	*Mean*	*SD*	*n*
High	Non-alternating	Internal	5.90	0.24	10
		External	5.65	0.34	10
	Alternating	Internal	5.81	0.30	10
		External	5.57	0.33	10
Low	Non-alternating	Internal	5.80	0.27	10
		External	5.70	0.36	10
	Alternating	Internal	5.87	0.27	10
		External	5.75	0.31	10

Note. Maximum possible score is six in each cell.

Means and standard deviations for the native speaker data are presented in Table 1. As shown in the table, native speakers largely favored the active voice structures on their scaled judgment responses. That is, they were influenced by none of the three main factors under investigation, and therefore, they could reliably be treated as a control group for deciding the direction of appropriate answers in the scoring of the responses from L2 participants.

TABLE 2. D S a NNS Da a

Input frequency	Types of unaccusatives	Causation types	*Mean*	*SD*	*N*
High	Non-alternating	Internal	4.23	1.06	56
		External	4.09	0.97	56
	Alternating	Internal	3.81	1.01	56
		External	4.10	0.97	56
Low	Non-alternating	Internal	3.90	1.13	56
		External	3.89	1.16	56
	Alternating	Internal	3.67	1.01	56
		External	3.83	0.95	56

Note. Maximum possible score is six in each cell.

The reliability of the experimental items in the scaled GJT (n = 56, k = 32) was 0.84 (Cronbach's alpha), indicating the instrument was reliably assessing the construct under investigation. Table 2 summarizes the means and standard deviations for the data from the L2 participants. Their averaged response scores ranged from 3.67 (for the low-frequent, alternating verbs that appeared in the internally caused event structures) to 4.23 (for the high-frequent, non-alternating verbs that appeared in the internally caused event structures). These descriptive statistics were submitted to a 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA to determine the statistical significance of the main effects of the three within-subjects factors and their interactions.

The overall ANOVA results indicated that there were several statistically significant within-subjects effects. The input frequency within-subjects factor had the largest main effect, $F(1, 55) = 9.50$, $p = 0.01$, $\text{eta}^2 = 0.15$, and it was followed by the main effect of the types of unaccusatives, $F(1, 55) = 4.92$, $p = 0.03$, $\text{eta}^2 = 0.08$. However, the main effect of the causation types was not statistically significant at the 0.05 alpha level, $F(1, 55) = 1.56$, $p = 0.21$.

Interaction of alternation types by causation types was statistically significant, $F(1, 55) = 4.90$, $p = 0.03$, $\text{eta}^2 = 0.08$, which suggests that the effect of types of alternation was not the same at each level of the types of causation. However, the input frequency by causation types interaction was not statistically significant, $F(1, 55) = 0.01$, $p = 0.95$. Also, the interaction between input frequency and alternation types was not statistically significant, $F(1, 55) = 0.16$, $p = 0.69$. The three-way input frequency by alternation types by causation types interaction effect was not statistically significant, either, $F(1, 55) = 0.83$, $p = 0.37$.

Pairwise comparisons were conducted for the significant effects of input frequency and alternation types, and for the significant interaction between the alternation types and the types of causation. The results showed that L2 participants in this study performed better with the high-frequency predicates than with the low-frequency predicates. The mean difference was 0.23 in the six-point scale GJT ($p = 0.01$, $\text{eta}^2 = 0.15$). About 15% of the model was accounted for by the frequency main effect. L2 participants in this study also scored more in the constructions with non-alternating unaccusatives than with alternating unaccusatives. The mean difference was 0.18 in the six-point scale GJT ($p = 0.03$, $\text{eta}^2 = 0.08$). The main effect of the unaccusative types accounted for about 8% of the model. The interaction effect between the alternation types and the causation types was statistically significant. Specifically, in the internal causation events, the non-alternating unaccusatives led to a significantly higher mean score than the alternating unaccusatives ($p = 0.01$, $\text{eta}^2 = 0.08$). The mean difference was 0.32. This interaction effect alone accounted for 8% of the model. Conversely, in the external causation events, the mean difference was only marginal as 0.03.

Employing a cognitive-driven usage-based approach to the interlanguage phenomenon of overpassivization constructions in the learning of English unaccusativity, the present study found the main effects of input frequency and types of unaccusative predicates on the scaled grammaticality judgment scores from 56 English L2 learners with diverse L1 backgrounds who were determined to have internalized the target rule of passivization, whereas types of causation did not have a statistically significant main effect on the responses of the same learner group. The two-way interaction between the alternation types and the causation types was found statistically significant.

As predicted, L2 participants in this study judged the experimental sentences more accurately with high-

frequency unaccusatives than with low-frequency unaccusatives. The mean difference of the response scores between the two levels of frequency category was 0.23, which was statistically significant at the 0.05 level. It is likely that L2 learners in the study have been exposed to the target words in the high-frequency group more often, so that they have built a more solid knowledge of the usage of those words. This interpretation is in line with the views taken by usage-based approaches, suggesting that language learning is indeed the outcome of the previous learning experience.

C a G a R P F a a S W C

H -J Y
K U

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to observe the changes of students' giving and receiving peer feedback in a student writing club occurring for about 10 months. The students volunteered to organize a student writing club where they read articles about educational and social issues and wrote pieces of argument or summary. The reading and writing activities were conducted under the writing process which includes pre-writing, writing, and revising. students about peer feedback they practiced in the writing process within the writing club for about 10 months. eness of

II. METHODOLOGY

Thirteen students participated in this study, and they were highly motivated in working in the student writing group. They had their first writing session in the fall of 2011 and their second writing session in the spring of 2012. To determine the ways of their changing perceptions about peer feedback, I designed two surveys and asked them to respond to the surveys at the end of each session. In fact, the surveys were for one larger study where I investigated the details of a student-oriented writing club. This study reported part of the large study geared toward investigating peer feedback. The questions about peer feedback were divided into the two aspects: giving and receiving peer feedback. This study summarized the results of the following questions:

1) How did you provide feedback on student writing? What areas did you mostly focus on? (i.e., organization, grammar, content, cohesion, vocabulary, etc.) Why did you focus on those areas?

2) Did you find it useful to have your classmates read your draft and provide suggestions? Please describe the reasons of your answer, whether it is 'yest,' 'no,' or 'both.

Responses from all of the students were not eligible to represent the results of this study since some students did not respond to the questions clearly. If that was the case, the responses were excluded from the analysis of the study.

III. FINDINGS

1. P P F a : *How did you provide feedback on student writing? What areas did you mostly focus on? (i.e., organization, grammar, content, cohesion, vocabulary, etc.) Why did you focus on those areas?*

This section reports the participants' practice in providing feedback on student writing in term of the areas, methods, and rationale of feedback. Table 1 shows the ways that students gave feedback became more indirect and diverse after the fall of 2011.

TALBE 1. C a F a M

	The Fall of 2011	The Spring of 2012
Yoon	pointed out every mistake, and then talked with the writers based on their needs	read a draft several times to understand it, concentrated on each sentence for feedback, also wrote general comments and explained them to the writer

Yoo	tried to check every error though exhausting and time-consuming	marked errors line by line and wrote overall comments on a draft
Min	checked grammar errors that were noticeable	swiftly read to comprehend a draft, checked if it was based on the writing task, provided indirect feedback on grammar if the writer had a mistake, and mostly gave feedback on content
Geon	moved grammar to sentence and coherence check, writing hints and comments to let the writer correct errors by herself	gave feedback with the 'memo' function of MS. Directly fixed grammar errors and left summative comments about the entire writing.
Ha	directly corrected grammar and checked illogical sentences	corrected global errors and wrote down general comments with strong and weak points
Seul	underlined grammatical errors and put a question mark on unclear meaning	first read the draft by checking sentences and content with comments, and then read it again for feedback on vocabulary and grammar
Min	directly fixed errors	underlined wrong expressions to let the writer fix them by themselves

Table 2 shows the similarities and differences of feedback areas. The areas of giving feedback became extensive, as time progressed, and it was observed that some participants realized that every area was important, ranging from local to global.

TABLE 2. C a F a A a

	The Fall of 2011	The Spring of 2012
Jin	organization	cohesion, organization
Yoon	syntactic errors → cohesion, organization	cohesion, organization
Yoo	accuracy: grammar, sentence structure, vocabulary	grammar, sentence structure, cohesion, organization, overall feelings as a reader
Min	grammar, cohesion	grammar, content
Geon	cohesion, organization, content	grammar, organization, content
Seon	Cohesion	grammar, vocabulary, cohesion, organization, content
Do	cohesion, coherence	intention: all areas, reality: grammar
Ha	illogical sentences, grammar	Coherence

Seul	grammar, overall flow	grammar, vocabulary
Soo	grammar, organization	cohesion, organization

2. R a : *Did you find it useful to have your classmates read your draft and provide suggestions? Please describe the reasons of your answer, whether it i 'yes,' 'no,' or 'both.'*

TABLE 3. C a R P F a

The Fall of 2011	The Spring of 2012
• Yes (6) • Both (5) • No (2)	• Yes (10): absolutely, yes; surely. • Both (3)

According to Table 3, the participants became very positive as they experienced their student club peer feedback. During the fall of 2011, the participants showed their mixed evaluation about the usefulness of peer feedback although positive responses somewhat overweigh the other types of responses. However, during the spring of 2012, the evaluation of receiving peer feedback became noticeably positive. Most of the participants not simply stated 'yes' to the positiveness of receiving peer feedback, addressing their sure positiveness with the words: 'absolutely' and 'surely.'

There are some examples in which participants expressed what they felt about receiving peer feedback. Peer feedback served participants' writing development since it helped them to notice weaknesses in their writing and it became more reliable than one in the fall of 2011, as they stated in the following examples:

"I think it is useful in that classmates can find some errors that I don't notice before on my writing. However, **I a ' a a** when their knowledge and mine conflicted." (*Yoo, after the fall of 2011*)

"Yes, I noticed that their feedback as well as their drafts improved. I received more inclusive and reliable feedback, most of which I could not disagree with. **N I a** ."
(*Yoon, after the spring of 2012*)

"Yes, always. My classmates' feedback was helpful for me. My classmates had different views about writing so that he pointed out different parts which I didn't recognize. **T a a a** ." (*Seon, after the spring of 2012*)

IV. CONCLUSION

The results of this study indicated that a student writing club served the students' development of conducting peer feedback, implying that it helped them to improve their writing ability(Choe & Yu, 2012; Huh & Lee, 2011; Yu & Choe, 2012). Throughout this writing club, they developed what and how to evaluate a piece of writing, and also they became aware of how to apply evaluation outcomes to their own writing . Therefore, it is safe to argue that the student writing club is one viable approach to aid students in become a better writer of English as a second or foreign language.

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T C F K S K a: H T A E a H T A L I

R a Ga E
S W U

I. INTRODUCTION

Growing up exposed to more than one culture has now become a norm for most kids because of globalization. For different reasons like employment and education, a number of families move outside their home country and live in a host country (Zayat, 2008). These children having born in the host country are referred to as Third Culture Kids (TCK).

1. T C K

The term third culture was first coined by two social scientists known as Drs. John and Ruth Hill Useem in the 1950s. During their stay in India, the Useems were able to meet expatriates from other countries and they became aware of this phenomenon (Pollock and Van Reken, 1999).

Pollock and Rekken (1999) acknowledge that even if they have examined the phenomenon and nature of TCK, there is still a lot to be discovered as they have not looked fully at the many possible variations in the TCK world.

2. C a a TCK

Zayat (2008) listed the common characteristics of TCKs as: (1) Having high mobility; (2) developmental years are spent outside of parents' home country; (3) they belong to a subgroup system (missionary kids, military kids, students' kids); (4) in most cases, both the parents come from the same country; (5) They will eventually return to their home country; and (6) they are still considered foreigners in the host country even if they were born there due to ethnic origin.

Third Culture Filipino Kids in South Korea

Because of the growing scholarship programs in South Korea, the number of Filipino students pursuing advanced studies in that country has grown fourfold in the five years to 2010. The number of Filipino students in South Korea has quadrupled to about 400 from 108 in June 2005 (Philippine Ambassador to South Korea Luis T. Cruz in a news release from *Inquirer, 2010*).

A large number of these students brought their families along with them and most of their children were born in South Korea and have never lived in the Philippines.

Filipino Seventh-Day Adventist Church in Korea or FILSDAK is an international church located in Seoul, South Korea. A total of 150 members are actively attending the church and it consists of 80% Filipinos and 20% other foreign nationals. Among these Filipino members, 70% of them have student visas including the spouses and kids who are their visa dependents.

The researcher chose these particular TCKs because of their ability to speak English despite having been born in a non-English host country and with a non-native English speaking ethnicity. However, researcher's observation showed that majority are fast losing their English fluency.

In order to examine this special phenomena, the researcher has to investigate their language input when they first acquired their first language and social factors that are influencing their language choice.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

Data from this investigation comes from Parent surveys, in-depth interviews with parents, videos taken during the observation at church and at home, observation notes by the researcher-observer, and personal videos of home activities from the parents. The participants of this study were five Filipino children with ages ranging from 4 to 7 years

old. Observational videos were collected in a period of one month. Important dialogues on the videotapes were transcribed with focus on their language use and interaction with other children. The analysis of the transcriptions were qualitative and open-ended. Instances of interactions with parents and other people were given importance. The context was analyzed as to their language usage and language choice. The personal videos from parents also allowed the researcher to see the child's use of English at home and the parents' input of language. The observation notes of the researcher added more information as to the social context not captured by the video. The parent survey also provided information on the background of the family, the language used at home and the activities done at home. Lastly, the in-depth interview with parents gave the researcher a chance to follow-up on their answers from the survey. During the church and home observation, the participants performed activities which are part of their regular activities when in church and when at home like attending children's Sabbath school, playing and interacting with other kids, interacting with parents and doing regular activities with parents at home. An effort was made to make the situation as natural as possible, so parents introduced the researcher to the child as their visitor. Before giving the survey to the parents of the participants, a pilot survey was carried out to ten parents to find out about the clarity and usability of the survey questionnaire. Response from the pilot study was positive but some modifications on the questions were done to add more clarity and relevance to the research questions. The final survey questionnaire was then administered to the parents of the participants and before they answer the survey, the purpose of the study was clearly explained to them. The participants' activities at home, church, neighborhood were videotaped and relevant interactions were transcribed. In addition, the researcher has also written down her observations in her journal to add validity to the information.

2. Da a A a P

First, general background of the subjects were collected. In order to do that, data from the parents' survey was examined. Next, videos from observations were examined relevant interactions and events were noted. Videos given by parents were also examined and relevant events and interactions were noted. Lastly, the researcher's journal was examined to add significant information in the investigation the subject's language shift.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the survey questions, these is the general background of the subjects (see table 1) and their language background (see table 2).

TABLE 1. G a Ba Pa a

Age	Gender	Country of Birth	exposed languages
7	Female	Philippines	English, Korean, Filipino
5	Male	South Korea	English, Korean, Filipino
6	Male	South Korea	English, Korean, Filipino
6	Female	Philippines	English, Korean, Filipino
4	Female	South Korea	English, Korean, Filipino

TABLE 2. La a Ba S

Name	First acquired language	Second acquired language	Third acquired language
Yashie	English (dominant)	Korean (successively)	None
Kyle	English (dominant)	Korean (successively)	None
Dan Clyde	English (dominant)	Korean (Successively)	None
Grazielle	Filipino	English (simultanesouly) (dominant)	Korean
Erika	English (dominant)	Korean (simultaneously)	None

More Findings from this study of their English acquisition and language transition are as follows:

1. All participants except Grazielle had English as their first acquired language.
2. The subjects second language acquisition occurred *simultaneously* except Grazielle and Erika who acquired the language *successively*.
3. All parents of the participants are highly educated and majority of them are taking advanced studies here in South Korea.
4. One parent has stayed at home with the child from birth until four years old except for Grazielle.
5. Common English language activities in the home are storybook reading and story telling, watching TV shows for kids, playing online language games, singing, and bible study in English (includes bible storytelling).
6. Main language at home is English
7. Identified other social factors affecting their language are: school and church.

IV. CONCLUSION

The result of this study implicated the importance of parental input and the strong effect of school on the child's language. If parents are aware of this phenomena, they would take extra precautions in dealing with their child's language development. Preference of the language to be exposed should be carefully studied and the choice of school should be carefully considered. If the parents want their child to continue developing their English skill, then they would choose a school using their preferred language but in the case of the Filipino parents, they have no choice because English schools are more expensive than the local Korean schools.

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C F a a S a B a C

B S a
H U

I. INTRODUCTION

With increased focus on early childhood education, raising bilingual children has become a convincingly important area of study with concerned parents looking for answers on how to help their children grow up with more than one language successfully. Family situations may be bilingual and possibly bicultural which may necessitate raising bilingual children or even represent parent dreams of having children that can do what they themselves did not achieve. Further, bilingual children can experience many side benefits including importantly cognitive enhancement (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). This paper looks at one part of potentially helping children learn language with their parents.

Parents generally spend little thought in the way they carry out the process of language socialization with their children as they do what they feel is natural to them. This same attitude carries over to error correction and corrective feedback in terms of behavior and specifically of language as language socialization is a bidirectional process. This topic is important because during role-play, children are able to step into various characters beyond themselves and examining how this intersects with corrective feedback deserves consideration and study. Are certain ways of giving corrective feedback perhaps more effective in the home between parent and child than others?

Ⅱ. METHODOLOGY

1. Da a

The data for this case study was collected from two simultaneous bilingual young learners over a period of two months of observation. Role-play was audio recorded and video recorded. The participants were aged 2;8 (female “M”) and 4;3 (male “B”). Both children have lived their lives in Korea with one international parent that is a native English speaker. They both attend a Korean daycare with limited English exposure. M is generally quiet and is more proficient in Korean than English. Her pronunciation is quite good as it is clear. She is good at constructing things with children’s block type and magnetic building toys. Her personality is generally quite passive and usually observes behavior intently before joining in, participating or creating. B, by contrast, is very active and is also more proficient in Korean. He loves participating and being involved in activities.

2. Da a A a P

The data was examined based on immediate reactions to various types of corrective feedback which constitute one part of learner uptake. The six types included based on Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) seminal study are presented: explicit correction, recasts, clarifications, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition of the incorrect learner utterance.

Ⅲ. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

From the case study research, over one hour of audio recordings and over 30 separate minutes of video recordings were taken of role-play were taken with children B and M. The overwhelming majority of corrective feedback used was recasts followed by learner uptake of repetition. Video observation showed intent interest by child B for role-play, involvement and repetition. The child was also the initiator to begin role-play as opposed to the researcher. Child M although not initiating role-play, would quickly join in although they were mostly content to be mostly watching. The children were quick to adopt identities from which they would then begin their actions and speech.

What has developed that has drawn interest is that B has been developing familiarity with producing immediate

uptake from instances of corrective feedback during role-play. Although long term results will need to be explored through stimulated recall in the future, this use of corrective feedback during role-play may provide added stimulus for children to develop their metalinguistic skills and generally thinking about language and how to use it.

Ⅳ. CONCLUSION

Tentatively, it appears that role-play is potentially an interesting and effective medium as a way to deliver corrective feedback to parents' children and by extension, possibly other young learners. It appears that the most significant of possible benefits is not mere immediate improvement in a child's interlanguage but rather the increasing familiarity of thinking about language and how to use it through being exposed to corrective feedback. The enhancement of metalinguistic facilities have already been shown to help learners develop their language skills (Hamers & Blanc, 2000).

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Campus Map I

T F Ca

1. Q S B
2. S Fa B
3. Ha a Fa B
4. V a B
5. M B
6. Sa H Ha
7. A a B
8. S U B
9. S B I a C
10. P a Ga (1 Ca Ma Ga)
11. S R Ha
12. W Ga (W Ga)

T S F a Ca

13. R a a P a a, S W ' U M
14. C M
15. C C E a
16. C P a a
17. C F A
18. C a Ha
19. F Ga (S F a Ca Ma Ga)
20. K a F R a I
21. Ma L a
22. C S
23. M Ha

A B

24. Ba I a a H
25. Ma a I a a H
26. S P a D C
27. Sa Ha
28. G R Ha
29. I a a H 4
30. I a a H 5
31. I a a H 6
32. I a a H 7
33. A a

Campus Map II

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