**The Modern English Education Society
2015 International Conference**

Building Blocks of English Teacher Training:
Policy and Professionalism

Wednesday, August 19, 2015

Hosted by:

The Modern English Education Society •
Konkuk Institute for Multilingualism and Multiculturalism •
Konkuk University BK21 Plus Research Team
for Multilingualism and Multiculturalism

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MEESO 현대영어교육학회
The Modern English Education Society
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Concurrent Sessions I

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04	**The Effects of Summary Writing on Reading Comprehension** Seon-Yoo Hwang (Seowon Univ.)

OPENING ADDRESS

Seungbin Roh
(Baekseok University)

Distinguished speakers and honorable guests,

It is my sincere pleasure to welcome you all to the second 2015 Modern English Education Society (MEESO) International Conference in Konkuk University, Seoul, Korea.

I am sincerely honored to have four distinguished plenary speakers for today's International conference, Dr. Emiko Yukawa from Ritsumeikan University in Japan, Dr. Yin Ling Cheung from Nanyang Technological University of Singapore, Dr. Cheng Xiaotang from Beijing Normal University in China, and Dr. Hyoshin Lee from Konkuk University in Korea.

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. Thus, there is no doubt that their speeches and presentations will bring us latest progress about the field.

The theme of this conference is 'Building Blocks of English Teacher Training: Policy and Professionalism.' 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 build and activate English teacher training as well as focus on policy and professionalism based on English education. I hope that this conference will help you better understand English teacher training and obtain the knowledge on the policy and professionalism of it.

Here I would like to express our deepest gratitude to Dr. Youngjoo Bang who is the President of MEESO as well as conference committee organizers. I am grateful for their assistance, support and expertise, which could hardly be overestimated.

Once again I truly value your participation and support for this conference. Your experience, expertise and readiness to share your knowledge and ideas are highly valuable and needed. I wish to all of us fruitful discussions, interesting findings and observations.

Thank you so much for your coming to the conference!

WELCOMING ADDRESS

Youngjoo Bang

(Myongji Univ. / The President of MEESO)

Good morning, distinguished scholars, honorable guests, Modern English Education Society members, invited speakers both from home and abroad, presidents from our sister organizations, and all participants, I am greatly honored to welcome all of you to the 2015 International Conference of Modern English Education Society.

First of all, I would like to extend special thanks to the President of Konkuk University who made it possible for us to hold this wonderful conference here on this beautiful campus. For today's conference, there are three plenary presentations, one featured presentation, and 40 concurrent presentations for you to listen to.

I would especially like to acknowledge the distinguished plenary and featured speakers, who have so graciously consented to share their expertise and professional experiences with us today. And I extend my whole-hearted gratitude to presenters who have travelled a great distance from all over the world, as well as our home scholars. I have no doubt that your special presentations will make our conference truly insightful and highly productive.

The theme of this year's conference is *Building Blocks of English Teacher Training: Policy and Professionalism*. Through this conference, I sincerely hope that we can share our thoughts on not only theories related to English education, but also on how to close the gap between theory and practice in the actual classrooms so that we can raise the quality of English education in Korea.

Also, I am certain that new directions for English teacher education will be fruitfully suggested by enlightening and productive discussions and exchanges of the results from research made by participants in this conference.

To close this welcoming address, my deepest gratitude goes to the organizing committee members who have contributed so much to preparing for this conference, and to the generous sponsors who support us financially for making our conference such a hospitable event.

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

Thank you so much.

CONGRATULATORY ADDRESS

Heedon Ahn
Director, Konkuk Institute for Multilingualism and Multiculturalism

Distinguished speakers and honorable guests:

It is my great pleasure to welcome all of you to the Modern English Education Society 2015 International Conference! I am very proud of hosting this year's conference at the Konkuk University.

I understand that the Modern English Education Society (MEESO) is one of the leading associations that contributed to flourishing English education in Korea. I expect that the Modern English Education Society will see more prosperous future.

The theme of this international conference is "Building Blocks of English Teacher Training: Policy and Professionalism." Through today's conference, I expect that all of you will have a great opportunity to share research ideas with your colleagues, thereby contributing to expanding English education in Korea and worldwide.

I know that we have three distinguished plenary speakers for today's conference, Dr. Emiko Yukawa from the Ritsumeikan University in Japan, Dr. Yin Ling Cheung from the Nanyang Technological University in Singapore, and Dr. Xiaotang Cheng from the Beiging Normal University in China. We also have a featured speaker, Dr. Hyoshin Lee from the Konkuk University. Furthermore, we have many researchers from various countries. I hope that the featured speeches by the plenary speakers and all the presentations in concurrent sessions will have a beneficial effect on facilitating your intellectual inspirations and will be helpful for expanding your research areas.

Concluding my congratulatory address, I would like to express my sincere appreciation for all those who have contributed to leading this conference successfully. A special thanks goes to President Youngjoo Bang and other conference committee members who have made today's memorable event a success with their self-sacrificing dedication.

I hope that you will enjoy today's conference, and thank you again for your participation and cooperation.

Plenary Speech and Featured Speech

[Venue: Room 223]

	Plenary Speech I	
10:50-11:30	**EFL Teacher Training in Japan: Practice, Outcome, and Problems** Emiko Yukawa (Ritsumeikan Univ.)	**Moderator:** Unkyoung Maeng (Ajou Univ.)
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11:30-12:10	**Assessing Student Teachers' Writing Quality through Pen-and-paper Versus Computer-delivered Assessment Modes** Yin Ling Cheung (Nanyang Technological Univ.)	**Moderator:** Moongee Jeon (Konkuk Univ.)
12:10-13:30	Lunch	
	Plenary Speech III	
13:30-14:10	**What Prevents Novice English Teachers from Using the Methods Learned in Pre-service Teacher Education?** Cheng Xiaotang (Beijing Normal Univ.)	**Moderator:** Moonbok Lee (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)
	Featured Speech	
14:10-14:50	**The Outcomes and Prospects of English Language Teacher Education Policy in South Korea** Hyoshin Lee (Konkuk Univ.)	**Moderator:** Chankyu Park (Jungwon Univ.)
14:50-15:00	Coffee Break	

PLENARY SPEECH I

EFL Teacher Training in Japan: Practice, Outcome, and Problems

Emiko Yukawa
(Ritsumeikan University, Japan**)**

I. ABSTRACT

In this presentation I will first summarize communication-oriented English teaching that the Japanese government emphasizes for primary and secondary schools. After a short introduction of national regulation on what courses are required as pre-service training, I will report a survey result regarding the actual teacher training practices of some major universities in the West Japan region.

I will then discuss the outcome of such training based on a follow-up study of the graduates from Ritsumeikan University and multiple observations of the English classes taught by them as well as teachers who were trained elsewhere. I will also refer to informal observations of the outcomes of miscellaneous in-service training sessions I have been involved in thus far.

Finally I will conclude my talk with three tentative 'problems' that often hinder Japanese English teachers from teaching effectively. They are (1) teachers' lack of necessary English abilities (general English fluency as well as 'pedagogical English' specifically needed for EFL teachers), (2) their insufficient understanding of the optimum pedagogic principles and abilities to make flexible day-to-day judgments, both of which are required in the 'Post Method' era, and (3) (occasionally) lack of ability to interact with children.

Biodata

Dr. Emiko Yukawa is a professor at Ritsumeikan University, College of Letters, where her main responsibility is to train future secondary school English teachers. Her research interests include English education at primary/secondary schools, bilingual education, and language attrition. Recently she has been supporting a number of elementary schools on a regular/irregular basis and their linked junior high school teachers as well, offering in-service teacher training and collecting data to evaluate their teaching practice. The results are published as Communicative competence expected to be learned in elementary English education (2009, in Japanese) and in various journal articles.

PLENARY SPEECH Ⅱ

Assessing Student Teachers' Writing Quality through Pen-and-paper Versus Computer-delivered Assessment Modes

Yin Ling Cheung
(Nanyang Technological University, Singapore)

I. ABSTRACT

Much research has been conducted to examine the quality of writing in computer-assisted and pen-and-paper writing modes among ESL graduate and undergraduate students. However, studies that address cognitive aspects of how student teachers compose essays during in-class assessments have remained relatively under-investigated. This study examines the effect of writing using computers versus writing with pen-and-paper based on 366 student teachers in Singapore. It investigates the student teachers' perceptions of working with computers, their thinking processes during composition, and the quality of their written work. The results demonstrate that the student teachers showed a positive attitude towards working with computers. The computer-delivered writing mode has a positive impact on their quality of writing in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, mechanics, and macro rhetorical goal of the essay. A surprising result is that there was no significant difference between the paper and computer writing modes in their effects during the planning stage of writing. The study contributes to writing education by encouraging instructors to give student teachers an option of delivery modes for their writing assessments.

Biodata

Dr. Yin Ling Cheung is Assistant Professor of English Language and Literature at the National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, where she is MA (Applied Linguistics) Program Leader. She earned her Ph.D. in Linguistics from Purdue University, specializing in English-as-a-second-language writing. She was a Visiting Researcher at Leiden University in the Netherlands. Before that, she was with the Indigenous and Endangered Languages Lab at Purdue University. Her area of research and teaching is second language writing. She co-edited Advances and Current Trends in Language Teacher Identity Research (Routledge, 2014) and co-authored English Style and Usage (Prentice Hall, 2011). She has published in journals such as System, The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, RELC Journal, INTESOL Journal, TESL Reporter, Asian Journal of English Language Teaching, Journal of Southeast Asian Linguistics Society, The English Teacher, English Australia Journal, and TESOL Quarterly. In addition, she has reviewed manuscripts for journals such as TESOL Quarterly, Language Learning and Technology, The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, Education Research for Policy and Practice, Asia Pacific Journal of Education, Journal of Asia TEFL, and The Asian English for Specific Purposes Journal.

PLENARY SPEECH Ⅲ

What Prevents Novice English Teachers from Using the Methods Learned in Pre-service Teacher Education?

Cheng Xiaotang
(Beijing Normal University, China)

I. ABSTRACT

Novice English teachers are supposed to use what they have learned from their pre-service education. However, a common phenomenon is that novice teachers often cannot or do not use their previously learned teaching methods. Novice teachers face daunting tasks in their first few years of teaching. They have problems in reconciling what they learned with their actual teaching practices. The reasons behind this common phenomenon are multifaceted and complex. This presentation reports an empirical study on why some novice teachers of English do not use the pre-learned ELT methodology. The study has important implications for teacher education. As Johnson (1996) has pointed "teacher preparation programs should put forth a realistic view of teaching that recognizes the realities of classroom life and adequately prepares pre-service teachers to cope with those realities".

Biodata

Dr. Cheng Xiaotang is currently Dean and Professor at the School of Foreign Languages and literatures of Beijing Normal University. He holds an MA degree in Language teaching and a PhD degree in linguistics. He teaches and researches ELT methodology, language learning theory, syllabus design and materials development, and teacher education. His major publications include A Course in English Language Teaching, English Learning Strategies, Evaluating and Designing ELT Materials, Task-based Language Teaching, and A Functional Approach to Discourse Coherence.

The Outcomes and Prospects of English Language Teacher Education Policy in South Korea

Hyoshin Lee
(Konkuk University Glocal Campus)

I. OVERVIEW OF ENGLISH EDUCATION POLICIES IN KOREA

English education in Korea has experienced a variety of changes and much emphasis has been placed on the improvement of communicative competence since English as a selective subject was introduced into secondary schools with the implementation of the1st revision of the National Curriculum in 1954. Despite its focus on improving communicative competence, the quality of English education in Korea has been critically argued since there has been a big gap between the vision presented in the National Curriculum and the real classroom practice, exclusion of speaking and writing language skills in the university entrance exams, and English divide between different regions and family incomes, and so on.

To cope with these problems, the Korean government set up 'Five-year Comprehensive English Education Policies (2006-2010)' after the introduction of the 7th revision of the NC, which intended to improve the general quality of English education, in particular, the National Curriculum, assessments, teacher quality and the education environment(Lee, 2010). A policy focusing on communicative competence was highlighted by the 'Reinforcement of a Practical English Policy' in 2008, which aimed at improving students' communicative competence and narrowing the gap between different regions and families (MEST, 2008). Particular attention was paid to building up a base for teaching and learning four language skills at primary and secondary school levels by linking to the National English Ability Test (NEAT).

Despite the expected advantages intended by the government, however, the introduction of NEAT was critically viewed considering the possible increase in private tutoring and the insecurity of the computer-based NEAT system. Considering these expected problems, the current government paying much attention to decreasing the costs of private tutoring for university entrance has abolished NEAT and put more emphasis on 'Easy CSAT' (MOE, 2014) with the introduction of the absolute assessment of English through the college scholastic ability test(CSAT). This recent change in English education policies has influenced the classroom practices and teacher education (Lee, 2015).

As mentioned above, Korea has experienced a variety of English education policy changes and it is worth while to look at how Korean teachers of English perceive the English education policies. A questionnaire survey

was conducted in order to explore how Korean secondary school teachers of English perceived the main English education policies, and 185 secondary school teachers participated in the survey.

First, the policies on the improvement of teachers' language competence, emphasis on learner-centeredness and collaboration, and the teaching productive language skills including speaking and writing skills should be reinforced in a consistent way. It is noticeable that there is a consensus among the teachers with regard to the importance of theteachers' role as a facilitator to help students learn with autonomy. This means that there has been a change from the traditional teacher-centered teaching practice towards learner-centered. It is necessary to create an environment in which this change can be realized in the process of teaching and learning. It is also noticeable that there is a consensus regarding the possibility of teaching speaking and writing. This implies that teachers seem to start to overcome the pessimistic view that it is difficult to teach productive language skills in schools.

Second, special attention should be paid to the areas of teacher development and teaching practice, in which there is not a consensus among teachers. It is viewed that teachers perceive that teaching practice competence is more important than language competence in the qualities of theEnglish language teacher. This is highly likely to be led by the recruitment of new teachers of English with ahigh command of English competence and the improvement of teachers' language competence through the in-service teacher education. It requires new teacher training programs satisfying this change of teachers' perception. It is also observed that the teachers prefer the flexible use of English in teaching English to the entire use of English. This has already been reflected in the TEE Certificate policy in SMOE (SMOE, 2012).

Last, support for the areas of learner-centeredness and collaboration, improvement of communicative ability, teaching practice and teacher development, which shows the gaps between teachers' thinking and their real practice, should be strengthened. More importantly, the government should provide a clear direction on the policy on productive language skills and assessment.

II. ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION IN KOREA

The frequent and rapid changes in Korean education have required the change of teachers and thus, the Korean government has provided a variety of teacher education programs. Since the MEST announced English education policies emphasizing the improvement of practical English communicative competence in 2008, much emphasis and support have been placed on English teachers' continuous professional development. Despite much effort to encourage teachers to be engaged in changing their teaching practice in line with the new revision of the National Curriculum, however, it has been argued that the impact of teacher education programs has not fully satisfied the actual needs of the student body and society. Subsequently, this has led the Korean government to pay attention to the educational system and the quality of teachers' continuous professional development.

Two different types of teacher education have been provided for teachers in Korea; one is qualification training and the other is job-required training. The Korean government has intended that the former focuses on the improvement of core teaching competence, whereas the latter puts the priority on teaching practice at the classroom level. For teachers of English, both qualification training and job-required teacher training programs are designed as an intensive course in which they can improve their teaching competence from their teaching

experiences. Most teacher training programs for teachers of English provided by the MEST and ROEs involve job-required training. They include a variety of training programs such as 6-month IETTP (Intensive English Teacher Training Program) courses, a1-month residential training program, a 16-week writing course and so on. On the other hand, a representative qualification training program for teachers of English is the course for 1st grade teachers and a course for TEE masters.

Most teacher training programmes in Korea are carried out in two separate parts. Language courses focus only on the improvement of Korean English teachers' spoken language ability with native speaker teacher trainers. Methodology courses focus mainly on ELT theories or peer trainers' teaching demonstration, in which a lecture-centred training method and a lack of actual teaching practice of trainee teachers are criticised (Lee, 2010). It has been argued that one of the most serious problems regarding INSET is that most off-site INSET programmes fail to follow up on teachers' actual teaching practice in school after finishing their teacher training courses (Lee, 2012).

Regarding the school-based professional development, all state schools in Korea have on-site teacher education programs in order to help teachers to develop their teaching ability by themselves. 'A model lesson' is a representative on-site teacher education program thathas been promoted by the government and been themost frequently used as a way of on-site teacher development. However, in reality, it is conducted only for a show like a theatrical performance and it has been criticized in that it functions as neither appraisal nor professional teacher development (Lee, 2007). 'Informal peer observation' is another way of on-site teacher education. This is not compulsory but voluntary, in which teachers are supposed to visit and see each other informally to enhance their professional development. Unfortunately, this system also does not work well because of the ignorance of teachers, school managers and teacher educators. The Korean government has recently also encouraged teachers to take part in 'teacher research' or 'reflective teaching' through 'learning community' as a way of school-based professional development. A variety of teacher research completions have been held by the MOE, ROES and teacher communities such as KOSETA (Korean Secondary English Teacher Association). It is argued, however, that only a small number of teachers are involved in them and that their research is not disseminated to other teachers (Lee, 2007).

A critical review of the issues regarding the current INSET leads us to highlight the problem that the Korean government has not provided a systematic Continuous professional development(CPD) framework which can guide individual teachers to develop their professional competence based on the proper understanding of what they need for their continuous professional development. It is believed that this lack of provision of the CPD framework with the diagnostic tool for teacher competence evaluation has caused the failure of effective continuous teacher development and ultimately the failure of classroom change for students' better learning.

III. A NEW DIRECTION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION[1]

It is strongly recommended that teacher education in Korea should meet teachers' individual needs for improving their teaching practice at the classroom level, rather than merely transfer knowledge to teachers from

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[1]This section is a part of the author's paper (Lee, 2013).

outside experts from outside of the classroom (Lee, 2006). It has also been pointed out that the policy on CPD should provide more systematic guidelines to teachers considering their field's various career pathways and competence levels (Hayes & Chang, 2012; Lee, 2010)

The policy on teacher development by the Korean government in 2012 addresses these issues and aims at the improvement of professional teacher expertise and promotion of their understanding of the policy on continuous teacher development (MEST, 2012). The policy ensures that various teacher education programs based on the teachers' individual CPD plans that meet their needs would be provided and that teachers would be supported to become self-directed learners. Furthermore, a systematic CPD program that involves the procedure of diagnosis, the provision of teacher education programs and outcomes for individual teachers and organizations isalso provided.

The specific efforts to meet these needs are found in the connection policy between teacher competence evaluation and teacher development (MEST, 2012). The connection policy on teacher evaluation and teacher development involves a systematic process in which a variety of teacher education programs are provided in order to encourage teachers to be engaged in self-directed professional development based on the their own individual needs. This policy will also expect that the new curriculum for teacher education will be developed through adapting the previous teacher education evaluation criteria.

Another priority ofthe current teacher development policy is to strengthen school-based teacher development to meet individual teacher's specific organizational needs. The development of tailor-made teacher education programs are strongly recommended by the government in order to promote teacher participation in CPD. This has led to an emphasis on school-based teacher development rather than training center-based teacher training. In this regard, the Korean government has shown much interest in fostering peer teacher trainers who have the capacity to lead their colleagues (MEST, 2012).

Recent policy on teacher development in Korea also emphasizes changes in the approaches to teacher education, including the lecture-based and theory-oriented approach towards apractice-oriented approach. Theory-oriented teacher education has been critically reviewed by many teachers. This was shown through the research of ICELT, an INSET program provided for teachers of English in Seoul by the British Council Korea (Lee, 2010). The research findings showed that one of the successful factors affecting the ICELT program is the main approach in which practice-based and learner-centered teacher training is adopted by the course.

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Dr. Hyoshin Lee is an assistant professor at the Department of English Language, Konkuk University Glocal Campus in Korea. Before moving to the university, she taught English at state secondary schools for about 20 years. She has worked on teacher/trainer training since she obtained a doctoral degree on teacher development in 2003 from the University of Manchester. She developed a 5-month residential intensive teacher training programme implemented by Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. Also, she has contributed to the Journal of Asia TEFL as a managing editor. Her major academic interests include continuous professional development, learner autonomy, and ESP.

Concurrent Sessions I

Session I

Multimedia-assisted Language Learning and Teaching

[Venue: Room 212]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Hyun-Joo Lee (Kyonggi Univ.)			
09:30-09:55	**School-connected Videoconferencing for Pre-service English Teacher Education** Hyun-Joo Lee (Kyonggi Univ.)	Young-ah Kim (Konkuk Univ.)	Hyun-Sook Kim (Sejong Cyber Univ.)
09:55-10:20	**On-line TOEIC as an College General Elective Course** Jinjoo Hong (Kyungin Women's Univ.)	Junghee Hwang (Pyeongtaek Univ.)	Jeong-Ah Shin (Dongkook Univ.)

School-connected Videoconferencing for

Preservice English Teacher Education

Hyunjoo Lee
Kyonggi University

I. INTRODUCTION

Current research on teacher education has showed that the teacher's ability to use technologies in the classroom should improve for new generations who are living in this new digital era. Both implementing and utilizing educational technologies in language learning and teaching have been considered as an essential part of teacher education for the 21 century(eg, Archambault, Wetzel, Foulger, & Williams 2010; Baker, 2005; Fahser-Herro & Steinkuehler, 2009).

According to Fahser-Herro and Steinkuehler(2009), the lack of the teacher's knowledge in educational technology causes less confidence in effective teaching and managing tech-related learning activities. In other words, teacher education programs should provide preservice teachers new courses that promote technological literacies and integrate Web 2.0 educational tools and contents into teacher education. Archambault, Wetzel, Foulger and Williams(2010) have addressed that teachers' content knowledge about technology-based teaching approaches can facilitate effective teaching and more student-centered learning environment.

Also, teacher efficacy is an important factor for improving teacher competence in teacher education. Teacher efficacy based on self-belief influences on active and meaningful teaching, students' achievement, teachers' motivation, expectations for students(eg., Ashton, 1985; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000; Love & Kruger, 2005; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998).

Therefore, this study has explored outcomes of a new model of ICT-based videoconferencing between preservice English teachers and elementary school students. Specifically, the study investigates whether the school-connected videoconferencing program is an effective way in terms of training preservice teachers in this new technological era.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted with 3 participants from each group of preservice English teachers and elementary students in the second semester of 2013. The preservice teachers were undergraduate or graduate students in Seoul metropolitan area, and the elementary students were fifth or sixth grade students in a urban city near Seoul. Both groups of participants did not have teaching and learning experiences through videoconferecning.

They had one-to-one videoconferencing sessions for 11 weeks, one hour per week. The participants used their school's computer lab for the school-connected videoconferencing. The date collection consisted of deep interviews, reflective journal writings, and recordings of multimodal videoconferencing sessions.

Data analysis focused on interactions between the preservice teachers and elementary students, teaching skills, attitudes, and the improvement of technological literacies.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study have showed that the new school-connected one-to-one videoconferencing model can foster preservice teachers' improvement of general teacher efficacy, including teaching efficacy, personal teacher efficacy, and self-regulatory efficacy. Throughout school-connected videoconferencing, preservice English teachers have authentic experiences of the fundamental relationship between successful teaching and students' achievements. It also helps for preservice teachers improve pedagogical skills through the application of educational theory and teaching practice.

Furthermore, the ICT-based videoconferencing model can promote preservice teachers' technological literacies by providing them with authentic experiences of integrating technologies and teaching. According to the research results, preservice teachers had some difficulties of adjusting to the new educational environment at first. But as time goes by, they showed confidence in using new technologies and adapting to the new teaching environments. They were getting used to utilizing Web 2.0 technologies in teaching, and they used more technological tools to create various learning activities.

IV. CONCLUSION

The research has implications in the sense that the school-connected videoconferencing model in a preservice teacher training program can be a new way to benefit both insufficient practicums and the lack of school-connected courses. Jin et al. (2006) has mentioned that preservice teacher education in Korea has limitations in terms of not providing sufficient practical training and offering less school-connected programs.

The ICT-based videoconferencing model can be a good way to solve these problems in teacher training programs. Besides, Min and Park (2013) have pointed out that teacher education programs in Korea are much more focused on theory-based and instructor-led courses than practice-based courses. This videoconferencing model in teacher education may be a great way to learn integrating theories and pedagogical practices.

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Session II

Methodologies

[Venue: Room 213]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Hyun Jin Kim (Cheongju National Univ. of Education)			
09:30-09:55	**Can Flipped Learning be Applied to a Test-based English Classroom?** Young Sang Cho · Yoo-Jean Lee (Dankook Univ.)	Buja Kim (Seoul Christian Univ.)	Hyun Jin Kim (Cheongju National Univ. of Education)
09:55-10:20	**The Effects of Output-focused Reading Instruction for Korean EFL Elementary School Learners** Eunsil Bae (Ajou Univ.)	Pon-Seok Ku (Korea Univ.)	Eun-Hee Lee (Kyung Hee Cyber Univ.)

Can Flipped Learning be Applied to a Test-based English Classroom?

Young Sang Cho
Yoo-Jean Lee
Dankook University

I. INTRODUCTION

For the past few years, the idea of flipping a classroom has become very popular, and many content teachers (e.g. science, math, engineering, social studies, and physics) have employed the flipped method in their classrooms (Hantla, 2014; Overmyer, 2014). In contrary to the traditional classroom setting where a teacher usually gives a lecture during class time and students do their homework afterwards, students individually preview important points of a lecture at home by taking ownership of learning and a teacher uses class time to help students resolve challenging queries and issues in a flipped classroom (Webb, Doman, & Pusey, 2014; Willey & Gardner, 2013). So far, the focus of the research on flipped learning has been mainly on the learning process that students go through when mastering contents (Bormann, 2014; Thoms, 2013). Because most previous research has targeted general students, however, it is hard to tell yet whether the flipped method would positively affect struggling students who have low motivation for learning (Webb, Doman, & Pusey, 2014). In addition, the influence of flipped learning on the foreign and second language learning in general and on the test-oriented foreign language class in particular has rarely been investigated. Thus, by using the revised version of Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001) as a class model, this study attempted to explore how flipping a language classroom influences Korean EFL college students in the area of the language proficiency test score and what their perceptions are towards the flipped learning method.

The following two research questions have guided this research:

1. In comparison with traditional learning, how does flipped learning affect demotivated Korean EFL students' scores on the language proficiency test?

2. What are Korean EFL students' perceptions towards flipped learning in the English classroom?

II. METHODOLOGY

Data were collected from the college-level English classes in Korea, where students learned TOEIC. These classes were taught by one of the researchers of this study during the fall semester of 2014. Four classes of 124 students participated in the study. The students varied in terms of major, school year, gender, and English proficiency. All students had been taught in a traditional method during the first half of the semester. The instructor first delivered a lecture by explaining English grammar points, listening and reading strategies, and key vocabulary in class, and then the students completed example questions or related activities afterwards. Starting in week 9 (i.e. a week after the midterm exam) through week 15, however, one class of 30 students was taught differently from those in the three other classes in that they had been taught in a flipped manner: The students were asked to study grammar points, practice vocabulary of the week, and solve exercise questions

before class as homework, and to check on these assignments with peers and question about them to the instructor in class. Two choices were given to the students for the English grammar study; watching video lectures or reading a textbook, and it was left up to the students which method they would choose to use. For vocabulary homework, they were encouraged to use a flashcard mobile application called *Quizlet*. When flipped learning was implemented, those 30 students were divided into five groups, and each had a meeting with the instructor for 20-25 minutes. The midterm and final exams (i.e. two mock TOEIC tests) were provided to the whole students, and the difference between the flipped and non-flipped classes was investigated. At the end of the semester, a survey questionnaire (which includes Likert-scale and short open-ended questions) was given to those in the flipped class in order to investigate their perceptions of the flipped learning.

III. RESULTS

First, in order to see if the students' English proficiency levels in the flipped and non-flipped groups were similar (before implementing flipped instruction), their mock TOEIC scores on the midterm exam were compared. As shown in Table 1, it was found that the two groups' midterm scores were statistically not significant at all (t=-.036, p=.971).

Table 1
Comparison of the Midterm Exam and Final Exam Results between the Flipped and Non-Flipped Groups

Group	Test	MD	SD	*t*	df	*p*
Flipped - Non-Flipped	Midterm	-1.199	33.428	-.036	122	.971
	Final	24.340	34.714	.701	122	.485

*p<.05, **p<.01

Later, in order to examine if the students' TOEIC scores had increased during the half-semester, their midterm and final scores were compared through the t-test. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
The Midterm Exam and Final Exam Results of the Students in the Flipped and Non-Flipped Groups

Group	Test	Mean	N	SD	MD	*t*	df	*p*
Flipped	Midterm	429.33	30	219.01	-37.667	-3.591	29	.001**
	Final	467.00	30	234.07				
Non-Flipped	Midterm	430.53	94	135.57	-12.128	-1.397	93	.166
	Final	442.66	94	137.36				

*p<.05, **p<.01

Although the final scores of the students in the flipped and non-flipped groups were statistically not significant (t=.701, p=.485) as shown in Table 1, only those in the flipped class showed statistically significant improvement from the midterm to the final exam (t=-3.591, p<.01) as shown in Table 2.

The flipped class students' perceptions on the flipped learning were also investigated. Twenty seven students out of 30 responded to the survey, and 23 evaluated flipped learning positively (i.e. Six checked '*somewhat positive*,' and 17 checked '*very positive*' on the Likert-scale question.). They described some of its positive aspects as follows: increasing responsibility and class engagement, facilitating active learning, improving concentration, asking questions to the instructor and getting answers immediately in a comfortable mood, preventing lateness for class, etc. Also, 22 students considered that flipped learning helped them improve their TOEIC skills. More specifically, they mentioned that they could learn and remember new words and expressions better, focus on and understand important grammar points, and consequently could enhance their TOEIC listening and reading. Furthermore, 21 students expressed their willingness to participate in another flipped English class in the future.

IV. CONCLUSION

The main findings of this study are as follows. First, the students who were engaged in flipped learning showed much greater improvement on the final TOEIC test than those who received traditional instructions. Second, the flipped class students were positive about their learning style and responded that they became much more motivated and active to study for the TOEIC both inside and outside of the classroom. At the same time, they reported that their listening and reading proficiency as well as their vocabulary and grammar knowledge on the TOEIC had greatly improved. In short, using a flipped method rather than traditional one positively influenced on the development of Korean EFL university students' TOEIC skills and enhanced their attitude towards learning. These imply that flipped instruction could be applied successfully to a test-oriented language classroom and help low motivators get more interests and willingness in learning.

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The Effects of Output-Focused Reading Instruction for Korean EFL Elementary School Learners

Eunsil Bae

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I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is one of the most important language skills for L2 learners. It is a critical source of language input and essential skills for successful learning in content areas (Anderson, 2008). In spite of the importance of reading skills, written language skills including reading have been considered to be supplementary for developing spoken language skills of Korean elementary school learners (Y. Lee, 2010). That is, elementary school English heavily emphasizes spoken language skills, and written language skills have not been taught sufficiently. However, reading skills are very important at middle schools. Accordingly, learners have learning difficulties when they go to middle schools and increasingly depend on private classes outside schools. To mitigate the aforementioned problems, teaching reading skills should be reinforced in elementary schools. Furthermore, an effective way to strengthen written communication skills including reading skills in the limited class hours is necessary.

With regard to effective ways for improving reading skills, writing-for-reading activities have been suggested by many researchers (Hirvela, 2004). That is, employing output tasks such as writing during reading instruction is more effective in improving reading skills than focusing only on consolidating language input. According to E. Bae and U. Maeng (2015), among output tasks, writing combined with speaking activities and response writing such as book journals are the most effective for elementary school learners. E. Bae and U. Maeng also examined other effective instructional variables for improving reading skills systematically. They claimed that collaboration and reading approaches are statistically significant variable for improving reading skills. Therefore, based on the claims, the present study hypothesize that, using those verified teaching elements, an optimal reading instruction model can be developed. Using the model, reading skills of elementary students can be improved effectively. In order to examine these hypotheses, the present study investigates the following questions:

First, does output-focused reading instruction effectively improve the reading skills (vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension skills) and writing skills of fifth grade students?

Second, does output-focused reading instruction effectively enhance the affective factors of fifth grade students such as interest, confidence, and attitude toward English learning?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Output-focused reading instruction (OFRI) is reading instruction including productive writing activities such as response writing, summarizing, and writing followed by speaking activities. Output refers to speaking and writing, and in the present study, OFRI is based on mainly writing. There are two supporting claims for OFRI. According to Hirvela (2004), reading and writing are both meaning-making processes. Furthermore, reading and writing is connected, and skills and knowledge gained in one process can transfer to another. According to Swain (2005), for an effective language development, comprehensible input is not enough, and comprehensible output is necessary.

That is, writing facilitates the improvement of reading skills very effectively.

There have been many studies to investigate the effects of writing-for-reading (output) activities. Among those, E. Bae and U. Maeng (2015) summarized the effect sizes of output activities based on previous quantitative studies and compared their relative effectiveness systematically using the method of meta-analysis. The results showed that reading instruction with productive output activities showed a larger effect than reading instruction without productive output activities. In addition, among output activities, the combined output type of writing followed by speaking is the most effective. Among single output types of activities, response writing is the most effective for elementary school learners. Moreover, they examined effective teaching elements such as reading materials, reading approaches, and inclusion of collaborative tasks. The results indicated that reading approaches and collaborative tasks are statistically significant variables for reading skill improvement. Finally, the study suggested the development and adaptation of OFRI with verified output activities, collaborative tasks, and mixed reading approaches of intensive and extensive reading. Based on the suggestion, the experiment was conducted.

III. METHOD

1. Participants

Participants of the study were 119 fifth grade students in an elementary school located in Geonggi province. Students in the 5th grade were selected as subjects because fifth grade students begin learning sentence- and text-level reading and writing and reportedly have increasing learning difficulties (H. R. Kim, 2014). The 119 students were divided into two groups: 60 students in the experimental group (EG) and 59 students in the controlled group (CG). English subject teacher of the fifth grade students in the school participated as an instructor in the experiment.

2. Procedure

The experiment was conducted in the EG for 14 weeks and replaced 10 textbook-based classes by OFRI using storybooks. During the period, five units of the school textbook *Elementary English 5* were taught at school. Therefore, in the CG, classes using the textbook proceeded in the whole period, whereas the treatment of OFRI using five storybooks was provided to the EG. The five stories were Henny Penny, Five Little Monkeys with Nothing to Do, We're Different We're the Same, Froggy's Worst Playdate, and Arthur Helps Out. They were selected according to the topics and language functions of the five units of the textbooks. Each unit in the textbook consisted of 7 class hours, and in every 6th and 7th periods per unit, OFRI was carried out in the EG. In the CG, extension and review activities at each unit in the textbook were taught in the same periods. The contents and process of OFRI is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1
The Contents and Procedure of Output-Focused Reading Instruction

Phase	Stages	Tasks & OFRI elements
Pre-reading	Introduction	● Introducing topics and vocabulary
		● Setting purposes of reading,
		※ Combined reading approaches

	Reinforcement Writing	● Providing language input (vocabulary) based on forms and meaning; Controlled writing
		※Combined reading approaches
While-reading	Reading (Responding)	● Consolidating language input with appropriate contexts
		● Responding to the text
		※ Authentic reading materials
Post-reading	Written Output	● Producing meaning-associated output
		● Guided/Free writing
		※ Collaboration
	Spoken Output	● Combining with another type of output to strengthen language input and output; Controlled/Guided/Free speaking
		※ Writing followed by speaking activities

The output-focused reading instruction (OFRI) model was developed based on the results of the meta-analysis of E. Bae and U. Maeng (2015). The verified elements of response writing followed by speaking activities in collaborative tasks and mixed reading approaches of the study were incorporated in the OFRI model. Authentic storybooks were selected as reading materials based on the previous studies. The procedure of OFRI was conducted in the linear and scaffolding manner of introduction, reinforcement writing, reading (responding), written output, and spoken output stages. Based on the contents and procedure, multiple reading and output activities were provided as block classes in every 6th and 7th periods. The main output tasks were script writing followed by role-plays, response writing followed by presentation, and summarizing followed by retelling.

With regard to instruments, reading and writing tests using PELT Jr. Level 2 were used to measure the improvement of reading and writing skills before and after the intervention. The reading test consists of three parts of vocabulary, grammar and comprehension. A survey was conducted to measure changes in their affective factors such as interest, confidence, and attitude before and after the intervention. In addition, class observation, interview, open-ended questionnaire, and keeping activity worksheets were also used for qualitative analyses. The quantitative data were analyzed by t-tests using SPSS ver. 20, whereas the qualitative data were analyzed using the constant comparison method.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results in Table 1 show that there are statistically significant differences in total reading skills including vocabulary and comprehension skills between the EG and the CG. Therefore, it can be said that OFRI effectively improved reading skills, especially vocabulary and comprehension skills of elementary students. Furthermore, the EG improved writing skills more than the CG, and the difference in writing scores was statistically significant. Therefore, OFRI appeared to improve not only reading skills but also writing skills of Korean elementary school learners to develop their overall written communication skills. In addition, the results show that there are statically significant differences in interest and attitude between the EG and the CG. Therefore, OFRI is found to be more effective in enhancing the affective factors of interest and attitude than the textbook-only classes in the CG. That is,

OFRI is a very effective teaching model to develop written language skills, enhancing interest levels and improving attitude for further consistent English language learning of Korean elementary school learners.

Table 2
Post-Test and Survey Results

			n	M	SD	t	p
Linguistic Domain	Vocabulary	EG	60	21.7500	7.57924	2.450	.016
		CG	59	18.1017	8.63572		
	Grammar	EG	60	8.1500	5.41756	1.327	.187
		CG	59	6.8136	5.57233		
	Comprehension	EG	60	35.9667	15.29591	2.348	.021
		CG	59	28.9661	17.18456		
	Total Reading	EG	60	65.8667	24.11517	2.493	.014
		CG	59	53.8814	28.13519		
	Writing	EG	60	18.6000	13.28846	2.042	.043
		CG	59	13.6610	13.09726		
Affective Domain	Interest	EG	60	3.8229	.85627	2.450	.016
		CG	59	3.1942	.99915		
	Confidence	EG	60	3.7039	.83009	1.327	.187
		CG	59	3.2536	.99943		
	Attitude	EG	60	4.1310	.77415	2.042	.043
		CG	59	3.5456	1.09536		

In the qualitative analysis, the data showed that there were five factors incorporated in OFRI: the use of reading strategies, meaningful learning based on authenticity and learner-centeredness, connectedness to the school curriculum, interest in reading materials and activities, and rapport between a teacher and students. The data showed that these factors were fully activated during the instruction. That is, due to the factors, learners could be engaged in more meaning-associating processes to produce comprehensible output, and these multiple processes plausibly maximized and reinforced language input for improving reading and writing skills of Korean elementary school learners. For further studies, an investigation to the effects of ORFI for lower grade students was suggested for consistent written language development of elementary school learners.

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Session III

Second Language Acquisition/ Language Testing

[Venue: Room 214]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Myong Kwan Lee (Anyang Univ.)			
09:30-09:55	**Examining the Role of Content Schema in Incidental Vocabulary Learning of Korean EFL Learners** Jeong Hwa Yoo (Korea Univ.)	Jin Yee Seok (Seoul Woman's Univ.)	Myong Kwan Lee (Anyang Univ.)
09:55-10:20	**The Influence of a Standardized English Proficiency Test on Korean College Students' English Learning Patterns and their Perceptions about the Test – Exploring the Test-takers' Voices on TOEIC** In Lee (Hanyang Univ.)	Jyi-yeon Yi (Chongshin Univ.)	Do-Hyung Ryu (Kookmin Univ.)

Examining the Role of Content Schema in Incidental Vocabulary Learning of Korean EFL Learners

Jeong Hwa Yoo
Korea University

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading has been treated importantly by many language educators for various reasons (Eskey, 1973; Nagy et al., 1985). Reading is beneficial as it results in superior general knowledge, enhanced reading comprehension and increased vocabulary knowledge (Krashen, 2004), with the latter garnering the most interest. Although there is no concrete evidence whether the relationship between reading and vocabulary is correlational or causal (Wagner, Muse & Tannenbaum, 2007), previous research findings have strongly confirmed that vocabulary knowledge is a predominant factor in reading comprehension (Bormuth, 1966; Clark, 1972; Davis, 1968). Hence, it was believed that the need of vocabulary teaching should be acknowledged (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002). Read (2004) reports that differentiating incidental learning from intentional learning has been an influential way of distinguishing vocabulary learning methods. However, previous studies have not reached a consensus on the effectiveness of intentional learning and incidental learning; although, in general sense, many researchers agree that incidental learning bears better outcomes than intentional learning in improving vocabulary knowledge for L2 learners (Ellis, 1994; Hatch & Brown, 1995)it still remains conflicting whether intentional learning should be implemented in learning L2 vocabulary (Hulstijn, 1997; Oxford & Crookall, 1989). For this reason, the current study attempts to confirm the previous findings that support incidental vocabulary learning and explore the ways of promoting it for L2 learners. Incidental learning is known to take place through extensive reading of various texts that suit the proficiency level of an L2 learner, according to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1989). However, it is the intention of this thesis to further investigate whether incidental vocabulary learning can be facilitated with the help of prior knowledge.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Intentional vocabulary learning vs. Incidental vocabulary learning

As Hulstijn (2005) defines, intentional vocabulary learning is "the deliberate committing to memory of thousands of words (their meaning, sound and, spelling)" (p.349). Hence, an L2 learner who is learning vocabulary intentionally might "[study] a list of new words or completing activities in a workbook for a set of target words" (Barcroft, 2004). A few strategies for intentional vocabulary learning would be dictionary use, note-taking, intentional repetition and mnemonic strategies such as semantic mapping and the Keyword method. Similar to dictionary use, rote learning can also be a strategy for intentional vocabulary learning. Although such ways of vocabulary learning have been the norm of intentional vocabulary learning, several studies revealed weaknesses and limitations to be treated as an adequate way of vocabulary learning. A common problem suggested by many researchers (Anderson & Nagy, 1993; Oxford & Crookall, 1990) is that such strategies do not provide vocabulary in a communicative context. Nagy (1988) gives insight into another problem. He claims

that definitional approaches which includes looking up words in a dictionary or memorizing definitions can bring students vocabulary knowledge only at a superficial level, failing to provide higher level of vocabulary knowledge.

Barcroft (2004) defines incidental learning as "acquiring new words from context without intending to do so, such as picking up new words during free reading" (p. 201). There has been substantial evidence that proves the possibility of L2 vocabulary acquisition through the reading of various texts (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Waring & Nation, 2004). The benefits of L2 incidental vocabulary learning include contextualization, giving learners a richer sense of the usage of a word. Learners also feel less burdened to intentionally learn words. However, it remains controversial whether incidental vocabulary learning method gives more advantages to L2 learners.

2. Prior knowledge, reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition

The relationship between prior knowledge and reading comprehension has already been demonstrated by researchers; prior knowledge can be used to disambiguate text and increase comprehension of text (Lipson, 1982). It is also an established fact that readers with large vocabulary knowledge understand text better than those who have less (Graves, 1986). However, Stahl, Hare, Sinatra and Gregory (1991) mentions that although both prior knowledge and vocabulary knowledge are known to affect reading comprehension, less is known about the interaction between these two factors. Since both vocabulary knowledge and prior knowledge highly influence reading comprehension, it has been hypothesized that readers who have prior knowledge of a text but lacks vocabulary knowledge might use their prior knowledge to make inferences on the unknown vocabulary. Freebody and Anderson (1983) investigated the hypothesis, yet failed to find such interaction. Stahl et al. (1991) also suggest that vocabulary knowledge and prior knowledge rather have independent effects on reading comprehension.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Each participant's pre-test and post-test were scored. The filler words were excluded from the scoring process; only the target words were took into consideration, thus ranging the scores from 1 to 10. The test had three sections: definition test, fill-in-the-blank test and multiple choice test. Significant differences were found in the fill-in-the-blank test and multiple choice test. The test results indicated that prior knowledge did not make the process of incidental vocabulary acquisition easier. This could be due to the difference on how much attention students paid while reading the provided text. As the texts were simply given to the student without an instructor guiding them through, there is a possibility of skimmed through the target text. Students could assume they understand the text well enough, based on the prior knowledge they have.

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The Influence of a Standardized English Proficiency Test on Korean College Students' English Learning Patterns and their Perception about the Test: Exploring the test-takers' voices on TOEIC

In Lee
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I. INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the communicative era, the field of language testing has gained significant importance in South Korea's English language education. Among English language tests currently administered in the country, TOEIC, Test of English for International Communication, has the largest number of test-takers in Korea's language testing market as well as around the world (Inn-Chull Choi, 2008). This standardized language proficiency test has been demonstrating its power on Korean examinees as a high-stakes test when they advance to university-level education, apply for job recruitments, and move on to an upper position in their workplace.

Previous studies on TOEIC have been about item analysis, its validity, and relations with other variables such as teaching methodologies, academic performance, and skill strategies (Mi-Jin Joo 2009; So-Young Lee, 2003; Yeon-Hee Choi, 2004). Most of these TOEIC-relevant studies have focused largely on proving researcher-set hypotheses. Traditionally, the research trend in the field of language assessment has been dominantly quantitation-oriented to measure the validation of the test as instrumentation, its validity and reliability (Dongil Shin and Joo-yun Kim, 2012; Jung-Hyun Kim, 2014; Mun-woo Lee, 2014). However, few studies adopted a qualitative approach to language testing. Recently, efforts began to be made in the brand-new orientation to language assessment, putting more attention to test-takers for desirable test administration (Shohamy, 2001). Shin and Kim (2012) examined TOEIC test-takers' perception based on the framework of critical language testing (Shohamy, 2001). These two studies reached a conclusion that language exams should be understood and interpreted within the framework of social and ideological contexts. Therefore, supported by only a few qualitative studies in the language testing category where such an approach have not been preferred, it is strongly needed to listen to TOEIC examinees' voices to their TOEIC-enabled language learning methods and explore how they think about the test in a non-numerical fashion.

To fill the gap between the previous literature and the current study, two research questions are proposed: (1) To what extent does TOEIC test have impact on Korean EFL college students' English language learning? (2) How does TOEIC test affect Korean college test-takers' perception on the test?

II. METHOD

1. Participants

Two undergraduate students, subject A and B, and one graduate pupil, subject C, participated in this research, being enrolled in a university in eastern Seoul. They had valid TOEIC scores which were obtained within two years. Subject A graduated from a foreign language high school and took the test to apply for an exchange

program in near future. Subject B was about to apply for an international student exchange program which required her to have a certain level of TOEIC scores. Participant C was in the first semester of Master's degree program and submitted her TOEIC score as one of the supporting documents before being finally admitted to the graduate school.

2. Data collection and analysis

To answer two research questions, three-time individual and focus-group interviews per subject were conducted. Before the data collection stage, a consent for this research was sought and a questionnaire for their background variables was distributed. Given its flexibility, a semi-structured interview was applied to each session (Nunan, 1992). Utilizing the reader-response theory (Brumfit and Benton, 1993), a sheet of sample TOEIC score report extracted from its official administrator's website was discussed in one segment of group interviews to elicit rich and in-depth data from the subjects. All the collected data was transcribed and coded based on the concept of 'open coding'. This coding analysis helps the researcher highlight keywords and expressions recurring frequently on the transcribed datasheet, categorize recurring patterns, and generate four main themes.

III. RESULTS

1. The way the examinees study English from TOEIC

1) Reliance on private education and test-taking strategies

As a means of TOEIC preparations, all the participants tended to rely on test-optimized preparations aided by test-based English cram schools. Meanwhile, they did not demonstrate preference on college-led TOEIC programs at an affordable cost for lack of available test information and student management. Also, in their test-taking, they focused mostly on how TOEIC items can be strategically coped with without meaningfulness. This mechanical tactic for the test could seek cost-effectiveness in test preparation and produce their desired scores in a short time; however, in the long term, it caused them to have aversion to the test.

2) An absence of constructive feedback on the test

When they were asked to read the written description of the TOEIC, some of participants expressed complaints about one-fits-for-all diagnosis below the score and percentile rank section. This verbal score description of the test was too much standardized and could make them struggle to plan their follow-up language learning. On top of that, the closed test policy held by the test administrator, not making already used test items public, was strongly against the participants who wanted to know which item they responded to was correct or wrong. This might have a harmful impact on their subsequent test preparations.

2. Test-takers' belief on the test

1) The gap between TOEIC scores and actual English proficiency

They, as test-takers, believed the TOEIC score could not represent their communication proficiency for the reason stated in the first theme; test-taking strategies. This indicated that TOEIC has its drawback in gaining public recognition as a representative language proficiency test. This is in line with a couple of previous studies claiming that TOEIC results were not correspondent with its examinees' communicative capabilities (Doo-bon Bae, 2005; Won-key Lee, 2012).

2) Self-consciousness of TOEIC scores

It was surprising that, when they took TOEIC test, the subjects tended to set up their own anticipated TOEIC scores they should obtain in comparison to other competitors' to achieve the objectives with their performance on TOEIC. Since the university to which all the research participants belonged was positioned as one of the top-tier colleges in Korea, they, being proud of their membership, were aware that achieving a certain level of the TOEIC score has to be satisfied.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings, this study can conclude that the current role of the TOEIC test in Korea comes into question. It is imperative that the stakeholders of TOEIC should revisit how the test can be administered in a desirable manner. Above all, the test developer has to make efforts in further developing TOEIC in a better way. For example, they need to ramp up their efforts in launching challenging test items to measure its test-takers' genuine language proficiency and avoid old-fashioned test types to help them readily find answers in a way irrelevant of their current language capacities. The test assessor needs to reveal examinees' performance for the positive washback effect. Providing them with detailed information on their results will be helpful for them to know their strengths and weaknesses on English language learning. In addition, the TOEIC utilizers such as university admission officers and company recruitment staffs have to reduce too much dependence on the test. They try to roll out their own purpose-appropriate and task-related English tests since TOEIC can stand for the general business-specific English proficiency of its test-takers.

Meanwhile, some limitations were found in the present study. First, the researcher conducted this study with the limited number of university students. This means lack of generalizability can be an obstacle to apply the research findings to other test examinees. Next, lack of the researcher's qualification for data collection can be a confounding variable for reaching the meaningful results. Future studies need to be investigated with a more number of and a wider range of test-taking populations.

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Session IV

Language Policy/CALL

[Venue: Room 215]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Jae Won Kim (Jeju Univ.)			
09:30-09:55	**Changes in 2015 National Curriculum of English** Sung Hye Kim (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)	Kyonghyon Pyo (Dankook Univ.)	Moon-Young Chun (Seoul Woman's Univ.)
09:55-10:20	**Camera Chatting and Tourism English for Communicative Competence** Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Art Univ.)	Hyekyung Kim (Incheon Univ.)	Nari Lee (Ajou Univ.)

Changes in 2015 National Curriculum of English

Sung Hye Kim
Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation

I. DIRECTIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE 2015 NATIONAL ENGLIISH CURRICULUM

1. Integration of liberal arts and science to bring up talents capable of creative fusion

2. Based on the core competencies in English education required in the future society

3. Cultivation of liberal arts perspectives such as understanding overseas cultures as well as the enhancement of English communication capabilities

4. Reconstruction of contents of English curriculum to meet the goals of the 2015 National English Curriculum

5. Improvement of teaching, learning and evaluation by using student-oriented classwork and encouraging cooperative participation through the optimization of the educational quantity and relevant levels

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF ENGLISH EDUCATION OBJECTIVES

1. Ideal human characters pursued by the 2015 English curriculum could be summarized as :

   - Global human resources
   - Human character qualified to be worldwide citizens
   - Human character understanding multi-cultural diversities
   - Human character with self-directedness along with comprehensive creative thinking

2. Core competencies in the 2015 National English Curriculum

   - English communicative competence
   - Self-learning ability
   - Openness and flexibility
   - Information literacy skills

3. Objectives of 2015 National English Curriculum

   - Enhancing basic communication capabilities through English listening, speaking, reading and writing
   - Enhancing motivation and aptitude, self-esteem for English learning and life-long education
   - Enhancing judgmental abilities and information literacy skills by understanding international, multi-cultural

society, cultivation of attitudes for current issues of international societies, and using information communication technologies (ICT)

III. CHARACRERISTICS FOR THE 2015 ENGLISH CURRICULUM

1. Contents

The 7th English Curriculum Onwards	The 2015 National English Curriculum
Achievement standards with respect to language ability content area: listening, speaking, reading, writing	Achievement standards with respect to linguistic dimensions and to school levels Content area: listening, speaking, reading, writing, culture

- Systemization of contents through reconstruction of English Curriculum

- Key concept : Core factors for the respective areas of listening, speaking, reading, writing

- Contents (General knowledge) : Ultimate objectives achieved by the main contents

- Defining main contents by school levels (the main contents could be differently applied to depending on the school levels) to be connected with the achievement standards

Domain	Key concept	Contents	Main contents for each level of school			Function
			Elementary school	Middle school	High school	
Writing	Spelling	Expresses the relationship between sounds and spellings.	·Upper case and lower case of alphabet ·Spelling of words or phrases			Distinguishing Applying
	Words and Phrases	Writes words or phrases.	·Words or phrases acquired ·Easy and simple words or phrases			Applying
	Sentences	Writes sentences.	·Sentences acquired orally ·Easy and simple sentences	·Targets, pictures, situations ·Feelings or opinions ·Past experiences ·Future plans	·Topics and main ideas ·Summarizing and taking notes ·Feelings or opinions ·Describing pictures or situations ·Short essays	Appling
	Compositions	Writes compositions.	·Easy and simple composition	·Diaries, letters	·Notices, e-mails, application forms etc.	Applying Synthesizing

2. Characteristics of Achievement Standards

The 7th English Curriculum Onwards	The 2015 National English Curriculum
Learning contents of English subjects	Connected with contents according to language skills and school levels

- Reduced amount of study and realization of learning aims by linguistic functions and school levels, thus a founding basis for class with full and efficient contents

-In elementary and middle school levels, speaking and listening achievement standards are strengthened. In high

school levels, reading and writing achievement standards are strengthened.

- Number of Achievement Standards by School Levels (2009 National English Curriculum)

School Area Levels	Listening		Speaking		Reading		Writing	
	2009	2015	2009	2015	2009	2015	2009	2015
Middle School	9	9	14	10	13	10	12	6
High School	6	5	5	4	6	6	6	6

-Subjects in the 2015 National English Curriculum

Elementary/ Middle School	High School			
	Common Subject	General Selective Course	Career Selective Course	Advanced Subjects
(Elementary) English 3-4/5-6 (Middle School) English	English	English Ⅰ, English Ⅱ, English Conversation, English Reading and Writing	Practical English, English Culture, Career English, English Literature	Advanced English Ⅰ, Advanced English Ⅱ, Advanced English Conversation Ⅰ, Advanced English Conversation Ⅱ, Advanced English Reading Ⅰ, Advanced English Reading Ⅱ, Advanced English Composition Ⅰ, Advanced English Composition Ⅱ

IV. APPROACHES FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING, LEARNING AND EVALUATION

1. Organization of teaching and learning with respect to the achievement standards set by the 2015 National English Curriculum

2. Augmentation of creative teaching and learning activities to enrich the learners' learning capabilities

3. Integration and reorganization of learning activities by individual language skills

4. Application of experience based teaching and learning by taking the learners' interest, development phase, learning possibilities into consideration, /Level-differenciated teaching according to the students' proficiency levels/ Self-directed learning and encouraging motivation for learning

5. Evaluation should include individual linguistic functions of listening, reading, speaking and writing as well as integrated linguistic functions

6. Interface activities and experience oriented teaching and learning process with the relevant evaluation, by conducting integrated activities in the field of teaching and learning are to be required, where the teachers

incorporate a number of evaluation methods on the integrated linguistic capabilities using observation, self-evaluation, peer reviews.

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Camera Chatting and Tourism English for Communicative Competence

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I. INTRODUCTION

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.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies of Camera Chatting.

1.World English Acquisition Through CCDL Project –by Bokmyung Chang,   Modern English Education 6(2)

2. English Education Through English Chatting in the EFL Class by Kim, Mi Ji (Seokang Uni.)

3. A strategy for using foreign language on-line chatting in teaching composition. Foreign Language Education , 9(4) by Park, Oksuk

4. Application of a real- time chatting program in the elementary English class. The Journal of English Language Teaching 12(1) by Lee, Donghan & Lee, Byungchun

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. World English Acquisition Through CCDL Project –by Bokmyung Chang

"Live on" chatting program -attach web camera on pc, decide time to meet each other, and have a conversation watching the face on computer hearing voice and using letters. Let the students save the record of the chatting in USB and handed in to the professor.

Result of survey : Topics of conversation Greetings & Introductions (65.7%), Comparison of cultures of Japan and Korea (57.14%),Campus life (17.14) How to study English (11.4%)

Average chatting time: 30min-1hr (82.5%) , Under 30 min (11.4%) , 1hr-1hr 30min (5.7%)

Preference of making conversation: 1:1 (52.42%), small group (48.57%) ,

How many time is proper in BWCCDLP? 1/week (82.85%) , 1/2weeks (11.4%) , as he or she wants (2.85%)

What was the most impressive thing?: Students highly evaluated that they could communicate with foreigners.

Do you think that your communicative competence has improved?: Yes(60%), No(40%)

After this semester do you want to communicate with the other party's students? Yes (55%) ,No (45%) ,(Yes is not absolutely strong.)

To be improved 1) awareness of the importance of web chatting for the participants, 2) adjustment of time schedule- There were problems of making time schedules 3) Need various topics-Most cases, greetings & self introduction

2. English Education Through English Chatting in the EFL Class by Kim, Mi Ji

Theoretical Implications:

As mentioned above, the main purpose of this study is to find out how to utilize English chatting in order to learn English more efficiently. .. one is for ordinary people in a free atmosphere and the other is for certain enrolled students with an obvious and common purpose under guided conditions and relatively restricted atmosphere.

The main concern is which is more communicative and argumentative because it must not be just simple pattern drills to contribute to the English at high school. The same drills and simple greetings and personal questions are not enough for high school students to improve their ability in communication and argumentation.

As a matter of fact, this result is not very surprising in light of the fact that, the frequencies of the interchange repertoires such as DJF, AOQ< in Vilmii's differ greatly from those in MSN chat. This tells us that Vilmi's participants tended to be more focused on the issues under discussion than the MSN chat participants while   MSN chatters spent more time than the Vilmi's students on marking socially expected sentiments involving thanking, greeting, apologizing and so on.

3. A strategy for using foreign language on-line chatting in teaching composition. Foreign Language Education, 9(4) by Park, Oksun

The study argues that, if we have an adequate and systematic teaching procedure, using foreign language on-line discussion forums in class is not impossible, but rather quite effective, even for beginners or lower intermediate students.

4. Application of a real- time chatting program in the elementary English class. The Journal of English Language Teaching 12(1) by Lee, Donghan & Lee, Byungchun

This study has examined the performance of six sixth grade students in a real time chatting program for eight months. The study investigates the process of pre-training program and subjects' reactions to the realtime chatting program in the realtime interaction between subjects and their interlocutors.

In the process of applying the real time chatting program to the subjects, two main problem appeared; 1) interference of other computer users to the chatting problems in the computer lab after class period. 2) subjects' weakness in English vocabulary for the realtime chatting.

IV. CONCLUSION

When children become familiar with social scenes and joint attentions, they show better competence in language acquisition. Though my students are not children, they are aged from 17 to 19, they can be regarded as the same stage as children in foreign language learning stages. I hope my students to enlarge social skills in language.

Furthermore, mobile telephone added convenience of attending conversations for main issues of our society. Whenever they wish, wherever they are, it is possible to check their e-mail, to send messages to friends, to connect chatting rooms or sites in the internet. They don't hesitate any more to raise voices in cyber space. This can be curious what is going on in other world and can be motivated to learn English to participated in conversation about issues throughout the world. So teachers may develop new methods using mobiles and information technologies.

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Session V

Multicultural Communication

[Venue: Room 221]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Kyunghee Choi (Hanyang Women's Univ.)			
09:30-09:55	**Possible and Probable Languages: Lexical Invisibility in EFL Learners' Academic Essays** Masahiro Takimoto (Aoyama Gakuin Univ.)	Eun-Hee Nam (Hankyong National Univ.)	Eunkyung Hwang (Myongji Univ.)
09:55-10:20	**Cultivating Intercultural Understanding by Awakening Global Consciousness of Japanese College Students :New English Teaching Approach based on the Concept of 'Language Arts'** Chiharu Kobayashi · Miho Sato (Toita Women's College)	Hyun-Jeong Nam (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Kangyoung Lee (Chungbuk Univ.)

Possible and Probable Languages: Lexical Invisibility in EFL Learners' Academic Essays

Masahiro Takimoto
Aoyama Gakuin University

I. INTRODUCTION

The two studies presented here analyzed English academic essays written by Japanese learners of English and native speakers of English. A corpus-basis analysis indicated that the Japanese learners of English used more boosters than hedges, using straightforward and explicit expressions in English, whereas native speakers of English tended to express themselves more tentatively, using more hedges than boosters. Furthermore, a follow-up study sought to discover whether the Japanese learners of English were aware of the important pragmatic roles of hedges and boosters. The quantitative results suggested that although the certainty items were more visible to the Japanese learners of English, the learners had greater difficulty in identifying the pragmatic roles of the possibility and probability items and misapprehended their meanings. The assumption could be made that the concepts of the Japanese learners of English about the different degrees of sureness affixed to the possibility and probability items are not deeply entrenched in spatial relations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In view of research by Hyland and Milton (1997) and Hyland (2000), it is clear that L2 learners' awareness of important markers of writer attitude, especially hedges, and an ability to recognize them in texts is crucial to the acquisition of rhetorical competence in any academic discipline. However, it is not certain about the applicability of the tendencies found in the studies by Hyland and Milton (1997) and Hyland (2000) to Japanese learners of English and explores how Japanese learners of English deal with hedges and boosters in their academic writing.

III. STUDY 1 AND STUDY 2

Study 1 is inspired by the study of Hyland and Milton (1997) comparing the use of hedges and boosters by Japanese adult EFL learners and adult native speakers of English and Study 2 is based on the study of Hyland (2000) examining the applicability of the Lexical Invisibility Hypothesis for hedges and boosters and exploring whether Japanese learners of English are able to recognize the important pragmatic roles played by hedging and boosting devices and the subjective/objective dimension of the grammatical metaphor in academic essays, building on the results of Study 1.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of Study 1 showed that although the frequencies of the certainty items are similar between the EFL learners and the native speakers, the EFL learners employed more certainty items than probable or possibility items, whereas native speakers of English used more probable and possible items than certainty items. Moreover, the results of Study 1 indicated more instances in which the EFL learners chose to link themselves explicitly with their ideas rather than avoid personal involvement. The fact that the EFL learners did not moderate their claims as thoroughly as the native speakers did could have been due to their inadequate linguistic knowledge, or they might have been unaware of the important pragmatic roles played by the hedging devices and objective dimension of the grammatical metaphor. Accordingly, although the EFL learners may express themselves more indirectly in Japanese, inadequacy with respect to their linguistic knowledge or a lack of awareness of the pragmatic roles of the hedging devices may have influenced their use of an inappropriate degree of directness. In order to find a probable cause of the results of Study 1, Study 2 explored whether the EFL learners are able to recognize and categorize the pragmatic roles played by hedging devices and the subjective-objective dimension of the grammatical metaphor.

The results of Study 2 indicated that although the certainty items were more visible to the EFL learners, the learners had greater difficulty in identifying and categorizing the pragmatic roles of the possibility and probability items and misapprehended the meanings of the two. The results also suggested that participants had difficulty with the subjective-objective dimension of the grammatical metaphor.

The idea as to the EFL learners' knowledge about the probability and possibility items through spatial relations is necessarily speculative as no information relating to the psycholinguistic processing involved in the test is available. However, in view of the results of Study 1 and Study 2 that the EFL learners did not attenuate their claims as thoroughly as the native speakers did and the EFL learners failed to recognized and distinguish possibility items from probability items according to the degree of or the distance from the writer's confidence, from the standpoint of the proximal-distal metaphor, it could be assumed that the learners' concepts about the degree of sureness connected with the possibility and probability items, especially *could* and *possible(-ly)* and *probable(-ly)*, might not be deeply entrenched in the participants' knowledge about their spatial relations (Ohori, 2002; Ohori & Bo Sen, 2012). In other words, it is likely that the EFL learners perceive that certainty items are used as being closer to the writer's confidence, indicating a higher degree of sureness, but it seems that the EFL learners do not perceive that probability and possibility items are used differently as being further from the writer's confidence at different distances, indicating a lower degree of sureness.

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Cultivating Intercultural Understanding by Awakening Global Consciousness of Japanese College Students:
New English Teaching Approach based on the Concept of 'Language Arts'

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Miho Sato
Toita Women's College

I. INTRODUCTION

In Japan, English is a compulsory subject for 6 years in total in junior high and high school. However, a great number of Japanese students in college are facing the problem in communication with foreigners in English though their TOEIC or TOEFL score is high. Japanese English education generally focuses on 4 skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In the U.S.A, English is taught with a concept of 'language arts,' which includes six key categories: listening, talking, reading, writing, viewing, and visually representing. We have applied the above concept of 'language arts' in our English class to provide an innovative and effective teaching method using intercultural material, *Kiss, Bow, and Shake hands.*

The objective of the research was to ascertain: 1) whether intercultural material would inspire students' intellectual curiosity, 2) whether applying concept of language arts would help motivate students' English communication skills, 3) whether this new approach would awaken global consciousness of the students.

The students were given a task to do an individual oral presentation using presentation software at the end of the semester. They could choose any topics they were interested in among those we covered during the class. They were also given a choice of which language to do the presentation: English, Japanese, or both. Amazingly, all the students did the presentation in English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of English Language Arts is to provide students with opportunities for personal and intellectual growth through speaking, listening, reading, viewing, writing, and representing to make meaning of the world and to prepare them to participate effectively in all aspects of society. (British Columbia, 2006)

The English language arts form the foundation for effective communication. The ability to construct meaning through reading, writing, listening, speaking, viewing, and the process of inquiring as well as the ability to present ideas through writing, speaking, and visual media are the bases of English language arts. These skills, essential to the health of our democracy and the quality of our culture, have become ever more important with the modern explosion of modern communication media. Effective communication is critical regardless of the devices used or the distances over which we are communicating. The study of language helps students to control their lives and become more effective thinkers through communication, reflection, and understanding. To develop good thinking strategies, students must become engaged as active learners. To help them improve, students need to practice English language arts skills and receive frequent feedback across all areas of study. (Maine Department of Education Regulation, 2007)

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We have given a questionnaire to 47 students before and after making the presentation. Followings are the details of the questions asked to the students.

*Followings are the questions asked to the students, how they felt or thought about before making the presentation:

1. Did you have any interest in foreign countries?

	A lot	Yes	A little bit	None
Number of the students	20	20	7	0

2. Did you know the language used in Belgium?

	Yes	No
Number of the students	2	45

3. Did you know that spending lunch time vary in different countries?

	Yes	No
Number of the students	12	35

4. Did you know where Nepal is located?

	Yes	No
Number of the students	6	41

5. Did you know the concept of the speaking voice differs because of the culture difference?

	Yes	No
Number of the students	24	23

6. Did you know the sense of distance vary in different countries?

	Yes	No
Number of the students	22	25

7. I thought most foreign people don't understand Japanese.

	Strongly so	I think so	I don't think so
Number of the students	7	28	12

*Followings are the questions asked after making presentation:

1. You have learned that there are several languages used in one country.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	44	3

2. You know the capital of Norway.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	33	15

3. You know there are countries that prefer/not prefer quiet speaking voice.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	47	0

4. You know that greetings vary in different countries.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	47	0

5. You know that making lines vary in different countries.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	47	0

6. You have less prejudice to foreign countries.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	30	17

7. You would like to know more about foreign countries.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	47	0

8. You would like to visit different countries.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	44	3

9. You feel the need of English as a neutral language.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	43	4

10. You would like to improve your English ability.

	Yes	No
Number of the students	47	0

From the results of the above questionnaire, we found out that this trail has indeed inspired students' intellectual curiosity; helped students understand other cultures; motivated students to improve English communication skills; awakened global consciousness of the students.

When doing the presentation, most students used English to do their presentation. We feel the usage of presentation software encouraged students to do the presentation in English. Giving them a choice also urged students to do the presentation in English and their motivations were greatly raised. Applying concept of 'language arts,' viewing, and visually representing, to our English teaching method was a success and this trial awakened global consciousness and cultivated intercultural understanding of the students.

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Concurrent Sessions II

Session VI

Teacher Education

[Venue: Room 212]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Myongsu Park (Sangmyong Univ.)			
15:00-15:25	**Challenges in Promoting EFL Learners' Learning Autonomy: A Case Study of Iranian High Schools** Goudarz Alibakhshi (Allameh Tabataba'i Univ.)	Eunhee Han (Korea Nazarene Univ.)	Maria Oh (Jeonju National Univ. of Edu.)
15:25-15:50	**Living as Non-regular English Teacher at Schools: Focusing on Teacher Identity Formation** Yu-hwa Lee (Keimyung Univ.)	In Lee (Hanyang Univ.)	Hyoshin Lee (Konkuk Univ.)
15:50-16:00	Coffee Break		
[Session Chair] Yoo-Jean Lee (Dankook Univ.)			
16:00-16:25	**Exploring Characteristics for Effective EFL Teachers from the Perceptions of Native Teachers in Korea** Eunhee Han (Korea Nazarene Univ.)	Hohsung Choe (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Seong-Won Yun (Hanyang Univ.)
16:25-16:50	**What are Major Pedagogical Requirements to Teach English through Subject Matter for ESL/EFL Students?** Eun Young Park (Hongik Univ.)	Eun Joo Moon (Pai Chai Univ.)	Hye-jin Cho (Baekseok Univ.)

Challenges in promoting EFL Learners' learning autonomy: A case study of Iranian High schools

Goudarz Alibakhshi
Allameh Tabataba'i University

I. INTRODUCTION

Learner autonomy (LA) has been seen as the learner's attitudes towards feeling responsibility for learning process and taking control of the language learning process. In order to be autonomous, the learner should understand the nature of language learning and the role s/he plays learning process. Teachers' understanding of learner autonomy as an attitude or ability rather than as action is very important because the educators want to conceive of learners practicing and manipulating learning autonomy in contexts such as teacher-centered classroom teaching and self-directed learning. Therefore, autonomy is perceived as something internal to the learner but not tied to specific learning settings (Balçıkanlı, 2010). LA has been an interesting area in foreign language (FL) teaching since the last thirty years. An enormous number of studies on practicing learner autonomy in language learning situations exists. The review of literature shows that there have been several edited collections related to the topic (Benson, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2011; Kagan, 1992; Kuchah, & Smith, 2011; Lamb & Reinders, 2008; La Ganza, 2001, 2002, Vieira, 2009). Quite a lot has been written about what learner autonomy is, its implications for teaching language, and the rationale for promoting it.

II. LITERATUCE REVIEW

1. Teachers' Beliefs about LA

Teacher cognition as the second component of theoretical framework of the present study is defined as the study of what teachers think, know and believe (Borg, 2006, 2011). Johnson (2006) in the review of recent trends in language teacher education described teacher cognition as a research area which has contributed significantly to our understandings of teachers and teaching in the last 40 years. It has been a very well explored research area in language teaching since the mid-1990s. Thus, this work has established several insights about the nature of teachers' beliefs and the widely accepted roles they play in language teaching and teacher learning (Phipps & Borg, 2009). For the purposes of this study, two particular points are important.

First, teachers' beliefs can powerfully shape both what teachers do and, consequently, the learning opportunities learners receive. Therefore the extent to which learner autonomy is promoted in language learning classrooms is influenced by teachers' beliefs about what autonomy actually is as well as their perceptions about the desirability and feasibility of learner autonomy. Second, teacher education seems to greatly influence teachers' practices when it is based on an understanding of the teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2011). Therefore, understanding teachers' beliefs about autonomy is a very an important element in the design of continuing professional development activities which aim at promoting learner autonomy.

The importance of the role which the teachers play in the autonomous learning environment is highlighted by Barfield et al. (2001) who argue that learner autonomy depends   on teachers who create a learning environment in which autonomy is accepted. In the same vein, Camilleri (1999) lists three characteristics needed by teachers in an autonomous learning environment including understanding pedagogy, self-awareness, and skill in classroom management. In this context, as mentioned by Camilleri (1999), the teacher shifts the role from information imparter to a manager, a counselor, and a resource person. As a manager, teachers manage the learning activities and make clear the proper paths which students can take to achieve their goals. As a resource person, the teacher prepares the learning conditions by raising learners' awareness of a different learning strategies. As an example, teachers help learners become aware of learning styles. Camilleri (1999) also argues that the teacher as counsellor has can "accompany individual learning processes" (p. 38) and to react in an efficient manner usually before students feel a need to learning problems.

Little (1995) argues that learners find it difficult to take responsibility for their own learning in the new autonomy oriented learning situation. Therefore, teachers are required to encourage learner autonomy in the classrooms. Nunan (1997) talks about levels for encouraging learner autonomy including "awareness", "involvement", "intervention", "creation", and "transcendence". In the awareness level, learners become aware of the course goals and materials. In the involvement level, learners select their own goals from among alternatives and in the intervention level modify and adapt the course goal and content.   In the creation level, learners create their own goals and in the final level, transcendence, learners apply the course content to the real world context. Cotterall (2000) in his article about promoting learner autonomy through curriculum development names five principles which contribute to the transfer of responsibility for decision making about learning issues form teacher to learners. These principles include a) the course reflects learners' goals in its language, tasks, and strategies, b) course tasks are explicitly linked to a simplified model of the language learning process, c) course tasks either replicate real-world communicative tasks or provide rehearsal for such tasks, d) The course incorporates discussion and practice with strategies known to facilitate task performance, and e) The course promotes reflection on learning. Phipps and Borg (2009), in their review of literature on teacher' beliefs both in general education and specifically in relation to language teaching, hold that teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning: a) may be negatively or positively influenced by teachers' previous experiences as learners and are well formed by the time they enter university b) are used by teachers for interpretation of new information and experience c) may be more powerful in effecting teachers' action in the classroom than their teacher training courses/ teacher education d) are not always reflected in teachers' practice e) can influence and be influenced by practices , and f) greatly influence teachers' pedagogical decisions.

2. Recent Studies on LA

Borg and Al-busaidi (2012) shed light on teachers' positive theoretical dispositions to learner autonomy and their views about the feasibility of promoting it in practice. They also explored teachers' views on the factors which hinder the development of learner autonomy. The most salient finding of their study was that learners lack motivation and have limited experience of independent learning. They also found that institutional factors such as a fixed curriculum were barriers to learner autonomy.

Balçıkanlı (2010) investigated student teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy in the Turkish educational context. The study aimed to find out student teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy, the areas of learner autonomy they perceived as important, and the constraints in the way of development of autonomy. The results of the questionnaire showed that the participants considered autonomy essential for nearly all areas particularly methodology and classroom management. They thought positively about the involvement of learners in selecting materials and deciding on methodology consisting of individual/pair group work, use of materials, type of class activities and type of homework activities, classroom management issues such as arranging the position of desks, seating of students, and discipline matters, assessing themselves and setting short and long term objectives.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aimed at investigating the Iranian High school teachers' perceptions about challenges of promoting learners' autonomy in different components of curriculum. More specifically, the following research question was raised:

What challenges do Iranian high school English language teachers face in promoting learner autonomy?

IV. RESEARCH METHOD

1. Participants

The participants of the study were 20 EFL teachers employed as full time teachers in different high schools in Tehran, Iran. Purposive sampling was used for selecting the participants for individual interviews. For the individual interviews a non-random stratified sample of participants was selected based on the criteria that they were EFL teachers employed in education department, and they had more than one year of teaching experience.

2. Data analysis

Radnor's (2001) step by step guide to qualitative data analysis was followed. Interviews were first transcribed and multiple copies of the transcripts were printed. The transcripts for topic ordering to draw out and list topics that are linked to original research questions were then read. These were listed on an A4 sheet of paper and color coded for use as a reference guide for subsequent readings of the transcripts. The themes which were extracted from the interviews were coded using colors that corresponded to colors of the topic that they are part of. In case of more than one category in a topic, we used numeric coding. A third reading for content helps to identify quotes that are aligned with each category within the topics. The quotes according to the category they represented were labeled. Keeping the master copy intact, the researcher then used the word processor to copy and paste the categories and quotes on separate Microsoft Word documents representing each topic. These were printed and read again to look for subtitles of the themes, in order to understand, interpret, and write down the interpretation of the extracted themes and subthemes.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 and Table 2 show the main challenges Iranian high school teachers find in promoting learner autonomy.

Table 1
Institute related challenges in promoting learner autonomy

Institute related challenges	N	Percent
Ignoring the role of learner in the curriculum	12	60
Prescribed objectives	11	55
Prescribed materials	10	50
Prescribed assessment system	9	45

Table 2
Learner related challenges in promoting learner autonomy

Learner related challenges	N	Percent
Lack of motivation among learners	14	70
Learners' dependence on the teacher	13	65
Learners' limited exposure to English	12	60
Learners' focus on test results	12	60
Learners' low proficiency in English	11	55
Learners' lack of experience in autonomous learning	10	50
Learners' inability in identifying needs	9	45

The results showed that there are some institution related factors which hinder learner autonomy. The main reason for institution related challenges is that education system is centralized and ministry of education makes all decisions about different components of a curriculum such as types of materials which are used, assessment system, etc (Alibakhshi & Rezaei, 2014).   The institute related challenges extracted from the interviews with the participants of the present study are in line with Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) who argued that Therefore, it could be discussed that institutes should give more autonomy to the teachers and learners to make a change in the objectives, types of materials used, and the way they are evaluated.

The second extracted theme was labeled as learner related challenges. The participants believed that they find it challenging to promote learner autonomy because learners are not motivated, they are dependent on teachers, and they are less proficient in English language skills. As the learners were trained to develop their own language proficiency through exposure to language outside of the EFL classrooms, it is very difficult to for teachers to develop learner autonomy in crowded EFL classrooms which consist of heterogeneous students. These findings are in line with the findings of some related studies (such as Borg & Al-busaidi; Benson, 2011; Balçıkanlı, 2010).

As this study was carried out in a particular context, the findings are specific and should therefore be generalized with great care. In this study, the variables of teachers' gender, experience, degree, as well as teaching literacy which might make a change in the findings were not controlled. The other researchers are recommended the replicate the same study viewing the mentioned variables. They are also recommended to make use of a mixed method research design to verify or modify the findings.

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Living as Non-Regular English Teacher at Schools: Focusing on Teacher Identity Formation

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I. INTRODUCTION

L2 English education curriculum has been changed a lot since the introduction of 7th education curriculum which has focused on communicative language teaching (CLT). Such an emphasis on English of communication ability has pushed public schools to make new and diverse efforts in classroom content as well as in teaching methods. As an effort to improve students' communicative ability, secondary schools increased the hours of English classes. This change made the schools hire non-regular English conversation teachers (Non-RECTs) who are supposedly responsible for those speaking classes.

Since 2009, the government has hired non-RECTs nationwide. These teachers are in charge of teaching English, managing native teachers, and assisting all kinds of work relating to English at schools. Unlike other non-regular teachers who just support the main classes or homeroom teachers, these non-RECTs have been playing important roles of coinciding with English educational goal of government as well as making schools become English friendly environment.

Minister of Education, Science, and Technology has changed the renewal contract provision of non-RECTs every year little by little, so these non-RECTs have steadily felt employment instability. Because of this insecurity, non-RECTs have several limitations to exercise their profession and commitment as teachers. However, even though there are plenty of non-regular English teachers like this, the government rarely considers how much difficulty they have and what kinds of problems they suffer. Even though they are superior to class teaching or students guidance, non-RECTs have kept feeling the doubt and conflict of being an English teacher at schools. Accordingly, non-RECTs have been struggling a separation between present reality and ideal identity because of these unique experiences as non-regular teachers. Therefore, the present study attempts to examine how non-RECTs recognize and form their identity, and how they accept and negotiate their multiple and conflicting identities.

The purpose of this study is to explore, first of all, how non-RECTs working at elementary schools perceive and position themselves and shape their identities over time as foreign language (EFL) teachers in certain context. To this end, this study will be investigated not only socio-cultural factors that affect teacher identity formation but also how non-RECTs construct their identity in becoming an English teacher and how they overcome the challenges in the social context. Specific research questions are as follows:

1. How do non-RECTs perceive themselves?
2. What factors affect non-RECTs' teacher identity?
3. How do non-RECTs construct their identity and how do non-RECTs cope with challenges in the workplace?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

During recent decades, teachers' identities have attracted widespread attention (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Beijaard et al., 2004; Rodgers & Scott, 2008). The previous literature provides numerous definitions of teacher identity. Beijaard, Verloop, and Vermunt (2000) view teacher identity as being a 'subject matter, pedagogical and didactical expert.' Wenger (1998) views it a 'lived experience of participation'. Others view it as being 'multiple, shifting, and in conflicts' (Varghese, Morgan, Johnson, & Johnson, 2005) and a 'continuing site of struggle' (Maguire, 2008). In addition, Parmer (1998) highlights it as the integrity between intellectual, emotional, and spiritual aspects. Several authors have drawn on the definition of identity in the field of social science and philosophy. Identity is a complex and dynamic construct. Initially, it was thought that individuals created defining, distinct, and individual systems of identity which remained constant over time. Earlier sociolinguists portrayed the concept 'self' as a "singular, unified, stable essence that was minimally affected by context or biography" (Day, Kington, 2008). In the broader field of applied linguistics, interest in identity has also gained considerable momentum.

Teacher Identity has been defined as the social and cultural complexes and associations that constitute a framework for constructing educators' beliefs, values, ideas, and attitudes (Richards 2008; Singh and Richards 2006; Morgan 2004). In other researches, teacher identity refers not only to the influence of the conceptions and expectations of other people, but also to what teachers themselves find important in their professional work and lives based on both their experiences in practice and their personal backgrounds (Tickle, 2000).

Based on upper theoretical background, my major theoretical lens is focused on not only Norton's theory of 'Imagined Identity' (Norton, 1997, 2000) but also Wenger's theory of 'Communities of Practice' (Wenger. 1998).

III. METHODS

1. Participants

This study was conducted in one of the provinces in Korea. For this qualitative research, making a rapport between the researcher and the participants is very important. Five non-RECTs participated in my study. One of them started this job position in 2010 when this job came into effect for the first time, and the others started this job in 2011. After hiring through the procedure of a Local Education Authority, the participants have been working in each school since then. All five participants were women and in their late twenties to late thirties.

They had between two and five years of teaching experience at elementary school as non-RECTs. All participants are identified by pseudonyms in this study to protect their privacy. What follows is a brief biographical profile of each of five participants.

Table 1
Profile of the Participants

Feature	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E
Age	middle 30s	late 30s	late 20s	middle 30s	early 30s
Gender	female	female	female	female	female
Major	English Education	English Education	Architecture Engineering & English Literature(ing)	English Literature & English Education	English Education
Degree	B.A	M.A Ph.D(ing)	B.A	M.A	B.A
Overseas experience	8 months Canada	7 months U.S.A	7 months U.S.A	none	3 months U.S.A
English proficiency	TOEIC 900	TOEIC 850	TOEIC 900	TOEIC 850	TOEIC 900
Teaching career	3 years	13 years	4 years	7 years	5 years
Non-RECT career	2 years	4 years	4 years	5 years	4 years

2. Data Collection

As a qualitative methodology was employed, my data generation methods included 1) five in-depth nterviews individually and one group interview, 2) reflective journals both researcher and participants and 3) one school observation. For extra data collection, 4) some informal telephoning including SNS such as Kakaotalk and e-mails were needed due to geographic distance. In addition, if needed, I collected some relevant documents such as curriculum, contract changes, and certain handouts. It started from 2013 in summer to 2014 in winter. It took almost one and half year, such a longitudinal research. The interviews were used to collect narratives of the participants' experiences as well as to build a dialogic relationship with them. The interviews of the main data resources concentrated on non-RECTs' all kinds of experiences, their language teaching practices, and their relationships to their pupils and colleagues. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim.

3. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed in the framework of the Grounded Theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) as the grounded theory suggested the most rigorous step-by-step procedure to analyze the qualitative data (Cresswell, 2007). The steps are followed below; 1) the first step is open coding, 2) the next coding step is axial coding, and 3) the final coding is selective coding. For the data analysis based on the grounded theory, the researcher followed this diagram. During the process of open coding, themes were identified. After the preliminary data analysis, focusing on triangulation, a peer debriefing session was conducted to validate the interpretation of the researcher and gain new insights on the analysis procedure. A detail description of the findings is described in the following finding section.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Research Question 1: How do non-RECTs perceive themselves?

Result shows three main themes through the axial coding. This study supported a holistic, dynamic view of understanding how conflicts between teachers and the wider socio-cultural contexts have shaped their professional identity. As Day (2011) asserted, professional identity as 'a continuing site of struggle' (MacLure, 1993, p.312) has become an important means of understanding what it means to be a teacher in changing context. Additionally, this study explored how the dichotomy of between regular English teachers (in-service teachers) and non-regular English conversation teachers (non-RECTs) has saddled non-RECTs with feeling of inferiority, thus prompting them to question their teacher identity as legitimate language education professionals. Non-RECTs portrayed their discursive positioning as English teachers.

Themes are followed below

1) The first is the relationship in conflicts. Subcategories are followed

- emotion burnout: isolation and antagonism

-inequality and division

- lack of teacher education

- systematic unstability.

2) The second is identifying by positioning. Subcategories are followed

- positioning themselves through intrapersonal perspective

- positioning in others through interpersonal perspective.

3) The third is transitory phase toward imagined community and solutions between challenges. Figure 1 shows the main themes though coding.

Figure 1

Themes from Axial coding
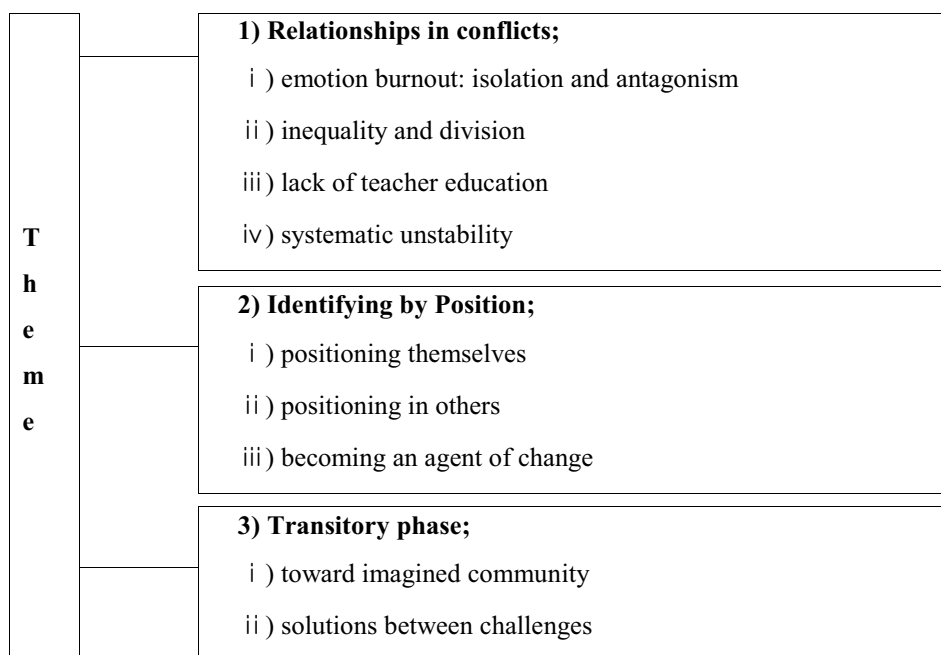
2. Research Question 2: What factors affect non-RECTs' teacher identity?

On the selective coding stage, a central category (or explanatory concept) is identified, in terms of which other categories can be defined and integrated (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Non-RECTs' teacher identity construction as teachers largely which was drawn out my research depends on four key factors: 1) teachers' self-exploration, 2) relationship within socio-cultural environment, 3) professional life attitude, and 4) emotion. These terms will be explained as findings of the second research question.

3. Research Question 3: How do non-RECTs construct their identity and how do non-RECTs cope with challenges in the workplace?

Picture 1 below shows that how non-RECTs construct their identities in their schools. There is a gap between non-RECTs and regular in-service teachers. Through the relationship, over time, the conflicts arose. In response to this antagonism, non-RECTs used their position of two different ways; 1) an easy-positive way and 2) a painful-negative way. Undergoing the conflicts between the relationships, they invest and negotiate to be the member of certain community as well as to establish their teacher identity, which is affected by four factors. However, the participants who go through the painful and negative process can be led to potentially non-participation. There was a gap between what they were expected to become (i.e. imagined identity) and how they identified themselves (i.e. practical or actual identity) (Xu, 2013). To close the gap, some participants tried to seek a full participation by exercising agent of change and by negotiating their positionalities actively. Nonetheless, the result indicates that the more the teachers look forward to imagined community, the more they are potential candidate of non-participation. So, non-RECTs' job can be the transitory phase toward their imagined community.

Figure 2
Transitory phase toward imagined community
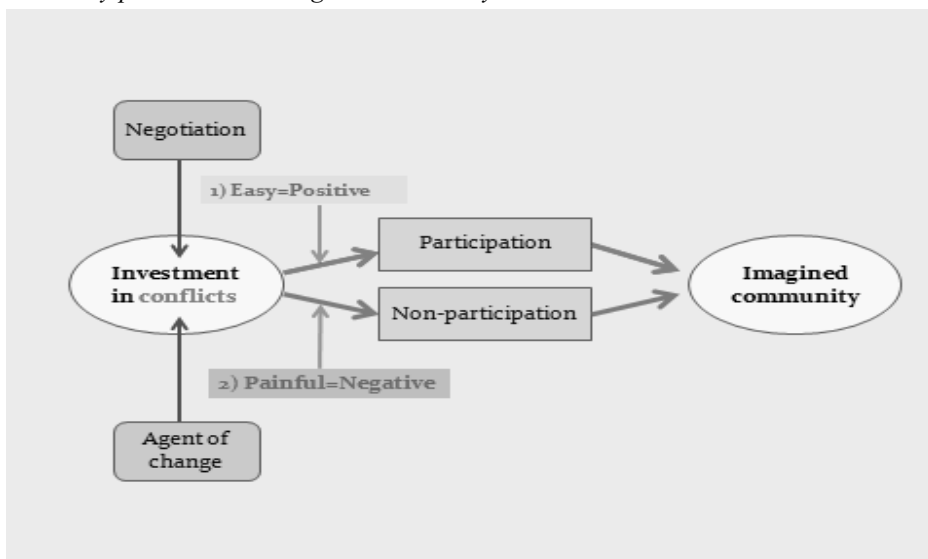
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College Students' Perceptions of Business English: Vocabulary

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I. INTRODUCTION

English as a foreign language (EFL) in Korea asks for a paradigm shift from general English learning to English for specific purposes (ESP) such as ESP program for students of law, students of nursing, students of tourism, and so on as the nation becomes globally-oriented nation in different fields.   Among the needs of ESP in English language teaching (ELT) business English is required for college students. Even many schools open classes for combined lessons of English and business or business-related. Boyd (1991) defined business English as a subfield that focuses on the development of communicative competence for business settings.   Indeed, it includes learning how to handle target situations or situated contexts in business. The goal of this presentation is to explore college students' perceptions of business English, especially vocabulary learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Business English in English for specific purposes (ESP) is the general term for a multidimensional global shift with roots in both the academic and business fields. It generally includes the language used in business settings. Business English is not only focused on the development of communicative competence for language but also requires specific ability to manage the business settings as situated contexts in business (Boyd, 1991; Richards, 1989). The ultimate goal of business English is to lead the target situation in business into successful business relationships. This language ability needs to adjust to the professional expertise (Bhatia, 2000).

In order to have a successful business relationship, learners need to be able to know how to use appropriate language and how to handle it strategically to achieve a purpose in business settings. Business English can be taught by specific communicative tasks such as listening and speaking skills for presentations, negotiating, meetings, socializing, training and so on, reading and writing skills for corresponding business communication such as e-mail, fax, letter, reports, and proposals and so on and cross-cultural skills in order to understand the nature of business contexts. Moreover, Schleppegrell and Royster (1990) defined business English by the way it is practiced in the wide range of proprietary, academic and company-based programs. Business English can be compared with programs in general English because business English learners are focused on specific needs for business purposes.

Learners of business English can be grouped into three categories based on their relationships to the business world: professional, pre-professional, and pre-MBA. Professional business English learners view language learning as part of career development (Morrow, 1995; Schleppegrell & Royster, 1990). Pre-professional business English learners are college students with little or no business experience and their English levels are varied. Certain universities employ strategies to help students achieve their goals in the business field. For example, a university in Hong Kong offers courses for interviewing resume writing, and cover letter preparation to prepare for their job

search (Boyle, 1995). At a school in Singapore, students take lectures on business communication, and then participate in fieldwork projects (Yin & Wong, 1990). Pre-MBA learners of business English are ready to start graduate school and probably have advanced proficiency in English (Canseco & Byrd, 1989).

III. METHODOLOGY

A total of 39 students including 24 female and 15 male students were recruited for the present study. Among the participants 25 students were sophomores while 14 students were seniors. The course was called 'Global Business,' and it was one of the elective courses for sophomores. 14 seniors took this course because they needed credit hours as well as out of their curiosity. The course generally dealt with the global business fields in English. The course specifically was to help students practice the language of business and to develop specific business communication skills and to provide students a chance to research the international business fields. Students' English proficiency level varied based on their official TOEIC score. The course was not a required course so students were free to choose this course, and a certain English proficiency level was not required for taking the course. However, business English was required for researching and reading the data while taking this course. The data was collected mainly through a reflective students' course evaluation process after the semester. The patterns in the students' reflective evaluations were able to draw, and the findings emerged from this data.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The students' reflective course evaluation which was completed after the semester formed a primary source of data. The students were asked to evaluate one aspect: the vocabulary for business English. To note, all vocabulary items were presented in a business context, not as isolated words. Thus, this study shares college students' perceptions toward vocabulary development for business English.

1. Students mostly preferred vocabulary is presented with definition, examples, and pictures

A majority of students preferred to learn business related vocabulary in English with definition. Meaning was the main concern for them. They mentioned that without knowing new item's meaning, they get lost easily. More, they had less interest in content, and they were not motivated. However, they agreed that all new vocabulary items were dealt with best by introducing them in a context in which they are normally used. Then, they preferred to get examples of each item. Just understanding the new items' definition was not enough for them to get involved in business English. They asked for examples of new items in a real context. Definitions as well as examples are especially useful for the more abstract vocabulary (Davies & Pearse, 2000). In addition to examples, they preferred to see pictures if possible.

2. Students preferred vocabulary is presented with visual materials

Some students prepared to watch visual materials which included new vocabulary business related items. It included demonstration of new items. For example, when they learn about a soft leadership and the word 'soft' is differently used in leadership especially in the business field. When they were presented a CEO's soft leadership

style and a demonstration of his or her soft leadership, then the students understood more clearly than when just the translation was provided. As Davies and Pearse (2000) mentioned translation is "best used as a last resort (p. 63)." In other words, giving an equivalent word or expression in the learners' native language has potential disadvantages. For example, it may give learners wrong ideas about a word or by only translating to and from English.

To discuss about the study, we can see in the students' reflective course evaluation. It is indicated that the vocabulary for business English is presented in a context. It helps students begin to understand the use of the item as well as its basic meaning. The vocabulary is associated with a certain situation in business English. It is important to remember that students do not learn from the new vocabulary items' definition alone. They asked for examples, pictures and visual materials since business English required specific learning strategies.

Business English is growing and changing in the business world. That is, English for specific purposes (ESP) is necessary in the field of English language teaching. It is important that the learner understand that how and what instructors do in the classroom is important. However, it is necessary to develop our lesson strategies for ESP learners' needs and wants, and on how materials can incorporate new understandings. Further research is needed to develop more insights.

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What are Major Pedagogical Requirements to Teach English through Subject Matter for ESL/EFL Students?

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I. INTRODUCTION

As an alternative approach of English language education, content-based instruction (CBI) has been employed by a number of private and public schools in different forms in Korea. It is believed that learning subject matters in English will increase students' motivation and in turn improve their English language proficiency. The key to success of implementing CBI is an adequate supply of qualified teachers who are linguistically competent as well as suitably trained to teach subject matter in English. However, little is known about the particular level of expertise of CBI teachers in Korea. This study delves into perceptions of experienced CBI teachers by exploring their own training and teaching in public elementary schools in order to identify specific pedagogical knowledge and skills of CBI teachers in Korea. Experienced teachers' perceptions gained by lived experience will provide effective professional needs of CBI teachers.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

CBI is defined as an approach of foreign language instruction in which the regular subject matter is taught through the medium of the target language. The foreign language is not the subject of instruction; rather it is the vehicle for content instruction (Met, 1993).With the recognition of the importance of teaching academic content in language courses, CBI has been increasingly employed in many different foreign or second language learning contexts and the benefits of CBI have also been supported by numerous studies (Grabe and Stoller, 1997). In CBI, language learners develop linguistic skills in the target language which can be a bridge to access content knowledge of a specific subject matter in a natural process. Some of the most common models of CBI include immersion, sheltered courses, adjunct courses, and theme-based courses. These models vary according to the different degrees of language and content use.

Swain (1996) indicated, "Integration of content and language instruction covers all aspects of language knowledge and the four language skills" (p. 529**).** Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) also pointed out that effective language learning can be promoted b**y** integration of language and meaningful social and academic content. They went on to emphasize that interesting and important content greatly motivates language learners because language learning incidentally occurs when learning about the content.

In addition, Mohan (1986), affirming the importance of teaching language through content, argued that the reason why language learners fail to successfully achieve in their academics is that their language learning is not efficiently coordinated with the learning of content. He stressed that in order to meet the needs of language learners, all education approaches should consider the integration of language and subject matter. The integrative approach in which language can be used as a medium of learning about the world promotes the role of context in communication (Mohan, 1986).

Met (1989) identified the following specific teacher skills for effective immersion instruction: knowledge of historical perspective of language instruction, understanding of student diversity, use of appropriate assessments, fluency in the target language, use of instructional methods suited to language instruction, knowledge of reading and writing development, experience with the school curriculum, and ability to integrate the language and content.

Horn (2011) indicated the essential features that future language teachers need to know to successfully implement CBI as follows: language proficiency, academic skills, pedagogical knowledge, and content-language interface skills. In addition, according to him, the vital pedagogical knowledge and skills of future CBI teachers include effective practices, not all-encompassing methods, understanding how different learners learn differently, materials development and syllabus design, assessment for learning, and incorporating educational technologies.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Data for the study

The data were gathered through 36 on-line surveys and 16 in-depth interviews from the participants who worked as CBI teachers under an experimental educational system organized by a local educational bureau in Korea. The teachers taught regular subject matter such as math, science, and social studies in English in public elementary schools. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were employed to evaluate the data. A thematic analysis was conducted for the narrative analysis of the participants' accounts. Through the on-line survey, descriptive information on pedagogical needs of pre-service CBI teachers were identified. A total of 36 experienced CBI teachers responded for this part of the study. In the in-depth interviews, 16 teachers shared their training and teaching experiences and the interview was conducted in an open-ended form based on guided questions.

2. Data analysis

The quantitative analysis was applied for the survey data. The findings of demographic data and teacher training experience are reported using a descriptive analysis of the variables. The mean ratings of the professional needs were calculated and presented in rank order and they indicate the participants' view on the necessity of the specific needs of CBI teachers. In analyzing the qualitative part of the participants' narratives gained by the interviews with respect to training and teaching experiences, a thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006) was employed. Through careful re-reading of the data and multiple stages of thorough process of coding the data, salient themes, recurring ideas and patterns of belief of the participants that are significantly linked to the relevant issues examined in this study were identified.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

According to the results of the responses for the professional pedagogical needs of CBI teachers, 91.7% of the teachers rated 'great need' for the need of 'Motivating students.' The second most frequently rated pedagogical

needs are 'Teaching multi-level class (i.e., students with different language proficiency)' as well as 'obtaining High level of language proficiency.' 86.1% rated each item 'great need.'

One of the serious problems indicated by the participants while running CBI class was that as the students were not linguistically ready for CBI instruction, the groundwork was necessary prior to beginning actual lessons. As a result, substantial amount of time had to be spent to build up the students' proper language skills so that they could deal with suitable CBI lessons. Additionally, the onset grade of the program varied according to which grade the participants were in charge of, ranging from the grade 1 to grade 6. As a result, the level of English language proficiency of the students was quite wide-ranging. Another problem uncovered through the experimental system was that the CBI class lasted a year only, not connected to the next grade. Many participants suggested that it should last for the following consecutive years in order to expect its full effect.

A number of participants emphasized that a great deal of personal extra efforts and time are needed to offer appropriate CBI instruction, for example, building up groundwork, preparing lesson plans, developing materials, and creating time for individual tutoring for the students who achieve slow progress. Also, many participants indicated that the most serious challenge they had faced was how to deal with the students with wide range of English proficiency levels. Especially the students with lower proficiency levels felt that learning a regular subject in English was a double burden. A shortage of class hour was pointed out as another challenge. In addition, immersion teachers' inadequate English language proficiency made themselves feel frustrated when they could not explain properly in unpredictable situations. Another critical challenge clearly identified in the survey data as well was that keeping students motivated before and while giving CBI instruction. Moreover, formulating clear content objectives as well as language objectives was disclosed as one of the tough challenges. Furthermore, the absence of formal curriculum, textbooks and teaching materials was also a frequently mentioned challenge. Some participants commented that they were not well informed of CBI pedagogy due to their inexperience as CBI teachers and lack of trainings. Some added that a true mentoring system and teachers' collaboration are essential. Another challenge mentioned a lot was that the absence of a standardized model or prototype of CBI lesson for novice teachers. The participants said that they had to go through lots of trials and errors until they had discovered their own ideal instructional model.

As a result, the vital pedagogical skills and knowledge that CBI teachers in Korea should obtain were exposed based on the participants' experiences. For instance, adequate English language proficiency, opportunities to learn about the cases of experienced teachers as to how they run CBI class and observing their authentic class, CBI theory and methodologies integrated with practices that fits Korean educational environment, understanding of both the curriculum of Korean elementary education and learners, teachers' collaboration among the teachers who are in charge of the same subject and the same grade within a network system such as Teacher Study Group, various types of specialized models appropriate for the distinct features of each subject, practical teaching opportunities and so on. Also, essential CBI pedagogy indicated include how to effectively deliver content knowledge through the target language, how to prepare students prior to actual CBI lessons, how to specify well-balanced lesson objectives, considering both content and language properly, how to deal with students with broad range of English proficiency and keep them motivated, etc. Many of the crucial features emphasized in the previous research were confirmed in the present study as well and these findings should be carefully reflected in the programs that prepare qualified CBI teachers.

V. CONCLUSION

In CBI, the primary focus may be on the language development, on the growth of content knowledge, or equally on both language and content development (Met, 1998; Snow, 2001; Wesche & Skehan, 2002). In most cases, it is expected that language proficiency and content area knowledge can be enhanced simultaneously (Stoller, 2004; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Therefore, it will be critical for teachers to understand the conditions in which both language development and content learning can be achieved concurrently, although there may exist some external factors that could constrain the conditions (Hoare & Kong, 2008). In terms of the teachers' readiness, first of all, their English proficiency needs to be good enough to deliver academic content in English. However, having a high degree of English proficiency does not make him or her a qualified CBI teacher automatically. Teachers should also be properly prepared with various CBI pedagogies and other essential professional skills so that they will be able to cope with a range of unexpected challenges in class. In this sense, the role of teacher preparation programs is very important for future CBI teachers because the programs should properly prepare novice teachers for developing effective instructional practices and give opportunities for them to realize their potential as professional CBI teachers.

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Session VII

Approaches/Methodologies

[Venue: Room 213]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Unkyoung Maeng (Ajou Univ.)			
15:00-15:25	**Using BYOD in the Classroom** Charles Copeland (Dankook Univ.)	Seonmin Huh (Woosong Univ.)	Jinhee Yei (Young-In Songdam College)
15:25-15:50	**Improving Korean Students' Oral Fluency in English** Judit Nagy · Mátyás Banhegyi (KároliGáspár Univ. of the Reformed Church in Hungary)	Young-Sook Hong (Jungwon Univ.)	Nam-joon Kang (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)
15:50-16:00	Coffee Break		
[Session Chair] Chankyu Park (Jungwon Univ.)			
16:00-16:25	**How do we Bring Extensive Reading into College Classrooms?** Miran Yang (Dong-Ah Institute of Media & Arts)	Sung Hui Cheong (Soongsil Univ.)	Hyung-ji Chang (Sun Moon Univ.)
16:25-16:50	**Strategies-based Reading Instruction in an EFL Context: A Case Study of Korean College Students** Young-Mee Suh (Incheon National Univ.)	Yu-hwa Lee (Keimyung Univ.)	Jiyoung Ha (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)

Using BYOD in the Classroom

Charles S. Copeland
Dankook University

I. INTRODUCTION

The topic of bring your own device (BYOD) is an exciting one because it allows for learners to create an ownership for their learning (Horizon Report, 2014). With the use of BYOD students are able to see this view as they are utilizing the devices in their education. Brown and Green (2015) agreed BYOD was going to be integral to education by naming it in their crystal ball of technologies that will emerge this year. Mathewson (2015) wrote that it was better to use the students' smartphone addiction to help education instead of trying to fight it. BYOD is about getting the technology into education to help the students learn better. This is an interesting point and is part of the reason we as a team selected BYOD as our technology innovation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Horizon Report (2014) defined bring your own device (BYOD) as when personal mobile devices are used in the classroom or workplace.   The Horizon Report continued that the term was first used by Intel in 2009 when the practice of allowing personal devices was allowed. Intel then "reported up to 5 million hours of annual productivity gains." (pg. 34) Hockly (2012) adds the distinction that BYOD is more restrictive that bring your own technology (BYOT). This restriction is that there are specific parameters around the use of technology that are applied to a classroom. These could be device or application / program based issues. According to the Horizon Report (2014), BYOD is when a student or person brings their own device whether it be their tablet, mobile device, or even laptop to their classroom or working environment. Over the past years there has been an increase in productivity amongst the organizations that have adopted the BYOD policies as well as most recently the school districts (Horizon Report, 2014). The rise in the use of BYOD in the classroom is most recently due to the fact that school districts are seeing the benefits of its use in the learning environment. One of these benefits according to the Horizon Report (2014) is that it gives learners the opportunity to take ownership of their learning. The Horizon Report (2014) goes on to describe the effect of BYOD on education as a profound implication by allowing educators to create opportunities for more student-centered learning.

BYOD has many different reasons that make it relevant to education. The first and foremost reason is that it helps create a student-centered classroom. The NMC Horizon Report (2014) stated that the BYOD model "gives learners ownership of their learning." (pg. 34) The report continued that it "creates the conditions for student-centered learning to take place." (pg. 35) This learning happens because teachers can hold formative assessment that allows students to answer, teachers to monitor the answers and change the way they teach items that students are having difficulty within the classroom. Nelson (2012) added that by having students using BYOD students have the "opportunity to teach students to ask the right questions, use the real-world tools that they have in their hands to find the best answers, and share that in an authentic way with those around them."

The third reason, that we selected BYOD for our field study, was to explore the motivation that can come about from the student using their own device in the class and for homework. The NMC Horizon Report reported that the use of BYOD has led low motivation students to "drastically improve their performance." (pg. 35) Ciampa (2014) wrote that to "harness student motivation" (pg. 94) teachers should use the student's technical language to aid in learning. As Schachter (2012) wrote that if technology is going to be coming into our lives, we should "invite it in and learn to manage it." (pg. 28) It will be interesting to investigate if this motivation holds across the range of students that are involved with our group.

III. DISCUSSION

This presentation will start by reviewing the literature. The needs of the classroom that adding BYOD to the classroom can meet will be explained. It will then move on to the advantages of using BYOD in the classroom. Next, it will discuss uses of BYOD that I have tried, and the observed results of how this effected the students. Finally, I will explore what it would take to move BYOD into all classrooms.

In the modern language classroom, being able to incorporate technology allows the teacher to make the classroom more student centered. This is not a problem because most Korean university students have a smart device of some type. The Korean Internet & Security Agency (2012) found that there is about a 97% saturation rate of smart devices amongst Korean university students. Being able to tap into this technology allows teachers to do more task based projects in class instead of as homework because the students can do research, while they are in groups in class.

Another way that I have used BYOD in the class includes using Poll Everywhere and Socrative to allow the students to have a voice. By being able to see students' responses in real time allows for immediate feedback on the question. Depending on what is being taught, teachers can see how many students got proper responses, or compare written responses. Technology can become having students report their answers on the whiteboard, without the chaos of having 30 students trying to find space or board markers. This allows students to learn from the whole class, not just the teacher.

There is also a motivation that students have that comes in with BYOD. Park, Nam and Cha (2012) found that there were internal and external motivational factors involved with the use of BYOD. This has happened in my classes as well. Last winter I tried using BYOD in class, and also as a way for students to complete homework assignments. For this, I have used Socrative, Kakao Talk, Band and email as different ways to collect homework. One thing that I noticed was that all of the homework was turned in on time using technology, while there were instances of students forgetting their homework. It is hard to gauge if this forgetting of the homework was purposeful or not. BYOD for homework takes a lot of excuses out of the students' arsenal.

Communication is a third reason to use BYOD. There are many ways to use technology for communication. Teachers can build a web app using appshed to help communicate, and keep all of the technology sites within easy range of the students on their device. Email, a class Band, Kakao Talk, and Whatsapp are all ways to open up communication between teachers and students outside of the classroom.

Fourth, teachers can use the students' technology to assign homework. This homework could be in the form of a flipped classroom where students are asked to watch lectures before coming to class to allow teachers to

focus on student-centered activities in class. Homework can also be assigned using technology. I have used Quizlet, EDPuzzle, and Socrative in the classroom.

To make BYOD work in your classroom, there are a few things that are needed. First, make sure that the educational objectives drive the use of technology, not the other way around. Technology is a tool to be used, not a magic trick to wow students. Technology can allow a more student-centered classroom where students are motivated and have the tools to do amazing things. The second thing that is needed is wi-fi, so students do not have to use data plans to use the technology. The third thing that teachers have to consider is what to do if a student does not have access to technology in the classroom, or in their home. If plans are made for all of these things, then a teacher can really push the teaching envelope using BYOD.

Finally, this presentation will open up to a forum where the participants can share the technology that they have found is very useful in their classroom exploring BYOD.

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Improving Korean Students' Oral Fluency in English

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I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the current paper is to explore the most common problems Korean students have with their oral proficiency, what possibly causes these problems, and what the potential solutions may be at the teacher's disposal in a Hungarian teaching environment. Accordingly, the study first describes oral fluency related theories, then presents a qualitative case study to identify the causes and will finally propose some methods of improving fluency in this context.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will address theoretical issues related to oral fluency: first the definition of oral fluency will be given, then theoretical findings concerning Korean students' oral fluency will be discussed.

1. Oral Fluency: Definitions

Oral fluency, according to Thornbury (2006:82), is interpreted as the ability "to speak the language idiomatically and accurately, without undue pausing, without any intrusive accent, and in a manner appropriate to the context". It is further claimed that fluency is "primarily the ability to produce and maintain speech in *real time*" (emphasis in the original). In this context, real time, in Johnson's (1979) view, means the ability to verbally react coherently and understandably in a timely manner as suited to the conversation. In order to be fluent, Nattinger (1988) maintains, somebody needs a wide resource of chunks of language (or formulaic language) when speech production takes place. On the other hand, those in favor of the communicative approach define fluency as "communicative effectiveness" irrespective of accuracy or speed of speech, Thornbury (2006:82) writes. Based on the above notions, in the scope of the present paper oral fluency is interpreted as follows: the ability to verbally react in real time in a way suited to the given context.

2. Korean Learners' Problems with Oral Fluency

The literature extensively deals with the question of Korean learners' oral fluency. Below, a few typical views have been collected to illustrate the most widely-perceived concerns. Li (1998) attributes Koreans' relatively low level of oral proficiency to their unmotivatedness to develop communicative competence and to their unwillingness to participate in class. Lee (2005) claims that certain students very much rely on their mother tongue to cope with communicative situations and tasks and this attitude prevents them from exploiting the full

learning potential of such situations for the improvement of their speaking skills. Cho (2014) finds that, for Korean students, speaking is the most difficult task when participating in English-language university instruction abroad and claims that students' ineffective speaking skills can be written down to the lack of extensive focus on these skills in class. Kim (2014) also underscores that Korean students' speaking skills are quite poor, which may prevent them from actively taking part in classes, and need urgent improvement. Kim (2004) draws attention to the importance of cultural differences when discussing Korean students' reluctance to take part in language classes. He suggests that, due to the Confucian roots of Koreans culture, students are unwilling to openly expose their knowledge during classes because they are concerned with their peers' reactions.

In addition to factors directly connected to students, some studies also question the appropriateness of instructional methods and teaching resources. Li (1998) already advocated a shift from traditional Korean text- and grammar-centered methods of language teaching towards the communicative approach. However, some scholars, including Wei (2011), believe that the communicative method used in Korea is not student-centered, fluency-focused, or problem-solving-oriented. Vasilopoulos (2008) also suggests that the efficiency of this method is not as high as it could be.

Likewise, Moon (2004) believes that English instruction is not practical enough and does not focus as extensively on oral skills as it should and mentions that communicating with foreigners, among other things, is a problem for many. Guilloteaux (2004) maintains that Korean teachers of English have been introduced to the communicative approach of language teaching exclusively as far as theory is concerned. As these teachers have no experience in teaching in communicative contexts, they find it difficult to link the methods they have learned during teacher training to their actual classroom practice.

As the above brief literature review attests, scholars outline several reasons for Korean students' faltering fluency of English, among which the most common ones include students' unmotivatedness to develop and unwillingness to participate, reliance on the mother tongue, lack of focus on speaking skills, cultural differences, lack of student-centered, fluency-focused and problem-solving oriented approaches, and the gap between theory and practice in the field of teacher training. As the authors do not have any personal experience of teaching in a native Korean educational context, the above critical remarks provided the starting point of the study.

III. METHODS

Based on the findings of the above literature review, this section discusses the qualitative survey carried out in the scope of the present paper with the participation of Korean students studying in Hungary. The purpose of the study was to more closely identify several of the methodological challenges associated with the above causes of Korean students' lower-than-desired oral fluency. All of the responses concern those Hungarian educational settings (mostly state-maintained high schools and universities) the Korean students interviewed study in.

As students arrived in Hungary 4-9 months before the survey took place, it was assumed that their prior learning experience fundamentally determined their classwork and learning skills. Relying on the claims put forward in the literature, the focus of our in-depth investigation was narrowed down to those issues that were likely to have influenced Korean students' attitudes to learning English as a foreign language in the Hungarian educational setting. These issues include the following: students' unmotivatedness to communicate orally, the lack of focus on speaking

skills as well as the lack of student-centered and fluency-focused approaches. In order to qualitatively survey what causes may lie behind these problems and to provide in-depth insights, a set of 12 questions targeting the above issues was developed. In the survey three questions focus on each of the issues, which altogether make up four question clusters. Rather than generating a large amount of data, the aim behind applying a qualitative approach was to gather some initial data potentially revealing trends, which could serve as a starting point both for potential further research and for suggesting changes in the methodological practice used with Korean students in Hungary.

The questions were used as a basis for guided oral interviews. The 15-22-minute-long interviews were conducted between January 5 and April 30, 2014 with a total of 11 persons preferably in English but in some cases, due to language problems, community interpreters' help was requested. The age of the persons interviewed varied between 16 and 25 years. The interviews were recorded digitally. Once all of the interviews have been completed, an analysis of the responses to each question was performed. Based on the responses, the methodology of teaching was revised in order to better cater for Korean students' needs.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section describes survey results, which will be followed by the discussion of suggested changes in the methodology to be used with Korean students. As far as answers to survey questions intended to explore the reasons behind Korean students' unmotivatedness to communicate are concerned, the majority of the students complained that they could not express themselves in oral communicative situations, which suggests that the problem is primarily rooted in their insufficient knowledge of English. On the other hand, mainly students of lower proficiency declared their lack of intention to speak, and this seems to indicate that such students do not attempt to cope with the communicative situation. The answers also reveal that all students are externally and instrumentally motivated and the majority of the respondents said they preferred listening to speaking and when they communicate, they use the written media whenever they can. Some students dislike both listening and speaking, which activities they find too demanding.

As for questions related to diverse speaking activities in class, students unanimously noted that speaking was the most frequent class activity in Hungary and students said that their teachers provided only brief positive feedback but hardly ever corrected their speech or pointed out problematic oral language areas. Students also claimed that oral homework was almost exclusively limited to giving short oral presentations and memorizing reading passages.

With reference to the use of student-centered approaches in class, students said that despite extensive oral practice in class, their speaking skills did not seem to develop. Furthermore, students explained that teachers only sporadically provided personalized help either due to the language barrier between teacher and student or due to students' shyness to ask questions frontally in class. It was also revealed that a lack of time precludes individual question and answer sessions in class.

As far as the use of fluency-focused approaches in class are concerned, students found that they had to memorize short reading texts rather than chunks. Students believe no connection exists between the texts to memorize and their spoken English, and they consider memorization a useless extra activity that has nothing to do with real-life communication. Answers also revealed that students find in-class pair and group work activities a waste of time due to the supposed lack of professional supervision.

Suited to students' former learning experiences and introducing a gradual change in the methodology applied, to combat the above methodological shortcomings, we advocate the use of the following methods: "question method" (presenting students with a collection of wh-questions to facilitate the exploration of a topic), "question and elaboration method" (answers to a set of questions provided by the teacher yield a coherent account of a given topic), "first write then say method" (free compositions are turned into memorizable texts after correction), "replace and memorize method" (texts with replaceable highlighted items are personalized, memorized and orally presented individually), "guided project work method" (in the scope of project work an initial text provided by the teacher is altered and extended based on students' findings, and this provides a starting point for students' oral presentation in class), "chunk-based drill method" (chunks are practiced orally as part of memory chains), "everyday dialogue method" (memorizing conversations related to everyday speech situations), and "memorize and adapt method" (texts are memorized and are orally altered as suited to the communicative context).

To conclude, this study offered a literature review, presented a qualitative case study, briefly explored the findings and, most importantly, provided a set of methods to address the challenges of improving Korean students' speaking skills in the Hungarian educational context.

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How do we bring extensive reading into college classrooms?

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I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is a complex cognitive process which includes cognitive and metacognitive strategies in both L1 and L2 reading. Recent research on reading shows that reading is a complex cognitive activity that is indispensable for adequate functioning and for obtaining information in contemporary society (Alfassi, 2004; Shang, 2010). Especially, in EFL classrooms, reading is a major part for improving learners' general English proficiency of due to lack of exposure to spoken English environment.

However, in reading class, most students do not seem to focus on meaning, but on grammar or unknown vocabulary in the text and spend most of their time looking up a dictionary, figuring out the sentence structure or even word-by-word translation. They seem to read the text only to learn vocabulary and grammar and never even try to enjoy the global meaning of the text or to figure out the authors' intent which lies under the printed words and sentences (Shang, 2010).

Especially in Korea, it may be attributed to the test-focused environment from primary to tertiary level in public education, in which their major concern is to pick correct answers to comprehension questions, sentence-to-sentence translation or memorization of vocabulary through reading. In order to change these undesirable phenomena, extensive reading can be a good way to teach reading due to the fact that this approach can improve not only students' reading comprehension ability, but also their motivation and attitude.

The purpose of the study is to explore the possibility of applying extensive reading to college classrooms and its effect in order to make this approach more applicable in EFL reading class in Korea.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Extensive Reading

Slow reading speed has been a widely recognized problem in EFL learners and many different approach in teaching reading has been experimented to cure this problem. Many researchers support intensive reading lessons, where texts are often treated as vehicles for the presentation, practice, manipulation, and consolidation of language points rather than the encouragement of reading itself.

However, Palmer (1964) pointed out that intensive reading means that the readers take a text, study it line by line, and refer at very moment to the dictionary about the grammar of the text itself. He also asserted that, with this type of reading, learners are not able to read properly for different purposes by controlling their reading speed.

On the contrary, extensive reading is considered as being reading rapidly. The readers read books after books. Students' attention is paid to the meaning of the text itself not the language. The purpose of extensive reading is, therefore, for pleasure and information. In the same vein, Carrell (1998) stated that the goal is to turn "learning to read into reading to learn."

In order to develop extensive reading program, Day and Bamford (1998) suggested top 10 principles of extensive reading instruction. They are;

1)The reading material is easy.

2) A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics must be available.

3) Learners choose what they want to read.

4) Learners read as much as possible.

5) The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information and general understanding.

6) Reading is its own reward.

7) Reading speed is usually faster rather than slow.

8) Reading is individual and silent.

9) Teachers orient and guide their students.

10) Teacher is a role model of a reader.

2. Metacognitive reading strategies

In ESL/EFL reading class, more recent research has focused on metacognition, which is cognition of cognition. Many researchers are interested in the way readers manage their interactions with written text and how these strategies are related to reading comprehension (Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989).

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 as well as self-regulation strategies like planning their reading ahead and controlling their reading strategies.

However, Jeon (2009) analyzed the cause of Korean ESL students' reading difficulty and indicated that Korean students are not often willing to adopt metacognitive reading strategies. Instead, they are mostly concerned about accurate reading comprehension through vocabulary learning and translation in order to obtain good grades at tests.

They keep underlining every new vocabulary and they look up the dictionary when they first meet them in the text even before they complete to read the whole sentence. However, teaching this kind of cognitive strategies alone produce no significant improvement in reading comprehension.

Johnson, Archibald, and Tenenbaum (2010) conducted two case studies adopting a collaborative online reading activity called "team annotation." They concluded that their subjects' metacognitive skills are significantly improved through annotating collaboratively.

III. PROCEDURE

1. Participants

The participants were 28 students (15 males and 13 females) at a 3-year college located in the local city of Kyungki-do. Their major was broadcasting & journalism. Their age ranged from 21 to 26. All participants enrolled English reading course and they met 3 hours weekly. One of them studied in the U.S for 3 years before entering the college.

2. Class procedure

The class procedure is as follows:

1) Giving guidelines for extensive reading

2) Giving strategy instruction on extracting main ideas and annotating the main points

3) Selecting the book to read

4) Making a reading plan

5) Practicing the strategies they learned through instruction while reading

- Underlining main ideas and annotating the major points

- Discussing what they read or give presentation about their reading materials

6) Writing the reflective journal in the end of the semester

3. Data collection and Analysis

The reflective journals of the participants were collected in the end of the semester and analyzed. All the students' remarks were categorized and coded. The rate of each category was calculated.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the category of the students' remarks in the reflective journals. Their remarks were categorized in three different areas, which were; 1) reading fluency, 2) self-efficacy in reading, and 3) other remarks such as teaching method, content of the book, or reading difficulty during class

Table 1
The categorized remarks in the reflective journals

Category	Remarks in detail
Reading fluency	- Improvement of reading speed - Frequency of using a dictionary - Guessing the meaning of vocabulary in the text without dictionary - Giving most attention to understand the meaning of the text
Self-efficacy in reading	- Gaining motivation to study English - Changing their view to read English material - Building confidence in reading authentic material - Becoming proud of themselves in reading a real book written in English
Other remarks	- Learning about the topic of the book - Advantage of group activity in class - Difficulty meeting the reading plan they had set at the beginning

As shown in Table 2, the participants gained confidence and motivation to read English materials. Especially, they seem to become very much proud of themselves about reading real books written in English. Self-efficacy is the most important factors to determine whether they become successful learners. According to Bandura (1988), self-perception of one's competence, so-called perceived competence, has a significant influence on one's accomplishment of learning and such judgment of one's competence to perform a specific type of task is one of the most influential factors affecting one's behaviors.

Table 2
The number of the categorized remarks

Category	N	Rate
Reading fluency	18	14%
Self-efficacy	72	58%
Others	34	26%

V. CONCLUSION

According to the results of the study, extensive reading mainly builds up learners' self-efficacy in reading as well as their reading speed. Many students were amazed with the fact that they could read faster and smoother after the instruction without much aid of a dictionary. They seemed to be so proud of the fact that they actually could read a real book written in English and it motivates them to study harder. They also mentioned that the group discussion was helpful to overcome reading difficulty and demotivation.

In both ESL and EFL environments, many studies utilizing extensive reading have been conducted with diverse populations from young children to adults. The studies convincingly demonstrate that learners who engage in extensive reading will become better readers in the target language. Not only does reading their reading comprehension improve, but students who read extensively learn reading strategies and increase their reading rate (Day, 2003; Bell, 2001) Learners also gain motivation and attitude. Elley(1991) reported that the students developed 'very positive attitudes toward books as they raised their literacy levels in English as well as general language proficiency.

In sum, specific strategy instruction can change students' typical approach and give more attention to meaning while reading, so that they can eventually enjoy reading in the target language.

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Strategies-Based Reading Instruction in an EFL Context: A Case Study of Korean College Students

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I. INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study is to report the results of an exploratory study on explicit reading strategy instruction for Korean college students in the framework of Cohen and Weaver (2005). The students were taught to use eight strategies (that is, guessing meaning of unfamiliar words, previewing, making inferences, summarizing, skimming, scanning, understanding paragraphs, patterns of organization) and were asked about their attitudes and perceptions of their own strategy use and reading habits. The ultimate goal of this study is to provide a more in-depth picture of the process of being aware of L2 reading strategy use of Korean students in an ongoing English reading class. More specifically, the research questions of this study are: 1) How did strategy based reading instruction help the students' reading? 2) How did the students change their attitudes toward reading texts in English? and 3) How were the students aware of themselves as strategy users?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Studies on the Reading Strategy Instruction of Korean College Students

There have been several studies that examined the relationship between explicit English reading strategy instruction and comprehension (Mi Jeong Song, 1999; Kyeong Hee Rha & Sun Lee, 2005; Hyeon Okh Kim, 2006; among others). Explicit reading strategy instruction has been found to be effective in helping L2 readers comprehend texts in English. However, most of the previous studies were conducted using quantitative methods and little qualitative research has been conducted on how interactive reading strategy instruction helps university-level learners become better autonomous readers. Therefore, this study aims to explore the ways students become more aware of strategies through strategy instruction under the premise that more successful learners have better strategies and more metacognitive awareness of their reading strategy use.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Participants

The participants were 59 students in the fall semester, 2012. They were enrolled in the college of education majoring in English Education, Special Education, History Education, and Elementary Education at a university in Seoul. There were 45 sophomores, 11 juniors, and 3 seniors. The students met for three hours (that is, 75 minutes two times) per week. Their self-rated English proficiency was between high intermediate to pre-advanced, and they reported that their score on the English section of KSAT and in TOEFL was first grade and 70-90, respectively.

2. Materials

The class used the reading textbook, *Advanced Reading Power* (Mikulecky & Jeffries, 2007) and supplementary reading materials prepared by the teacher. The textbook introduced different types of reading strategies including the eight reading strategies taught in the class. In addition to the textbook, the teacher selected sixteen supplementary reading passages from ESL reading materials taking into consideration students' interest and their readability. Two supplementary passages per reading strategy were provided to the students.

3. Data Analysis

Categories	Subcategories	Macro-themes
Usefulness of the reading strategies	-Students' responses of the eight strategies that were taught	-Positive reactions and challenges of the reading strategies
Changes of students' attitude toward reading texts in English	-Group presentation and discussion -Authentic reading -Teacher's modeling -Voluntary adaptation	-Usefulness of authentic reading materials and participatory strategy practice -Becoming more strategic and self-directed readers
Students' awareness of their reading strategy use	-Increased awareness -Better comprehension	-Increased awareness of their strategy application

IV. FINDINGS

This study explored Korean college students' perceptions and attitudes toward their own reading strategy use and reading habits while being taught eight reading strategies in the framework of Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction in Cohen and Weaver (2005). Considering that an important goal of reading instruction should be to help students have strategic ability as readers in addition to language and cognitive abilities, the study offers several implications for effective strategy training in the English education field.

First, the warm-up stages in SSBI—strategy preparation and strategy awareness raising—played an important role in helping learners have a rationale for being taught and reflect on how they had been taught reading texts in English in their previous academic career. To encourage learners to become more strategic readers, therefore, it is important for teachers to carefully explain why students need to learn reading strategies, how they will be taught, and what they will learn in the class.

Second, most students felt unfamiliar with learning and practicing reading strategies in general. Very few of them were taught or introduced strategies, and most students seldom recognized they were able to use reading strategies in English. Throughout the explicit instruction, however, they raised their awareness of reading strategies and became more active and self-directed in their own reading processes. The findings suggest that teachers need to instruct a variety of reading strategies directly to students in the process of text comprehension teaching (Kyoung Rang Lee & Oxford, 2008). Especially, it is effective for teachers to model how to use the target reading strategy through reading and thinking aloud.

Next, this study revealed that explicit reading strategy instruction not only helped students expand their reading skill set but also provided better ways to comprehend texts in English. This finding supports the claim that strategy instruction would support the development of main-idea comprehension instruction. The four

strategies to be taught in this study—previewing, summarization, text-structure awareness, inferencing—are known as good reading strategies to assist reading comprehension (Grabe, 2010). Therefore, teachers may consider selecting the strategy types in their reading instruction to help students better comprehend texts in English.

In a similar vein, after perceiving that the students did not need to translate what they read line by line into Korean, they self-reported that they reduced anxiety while reading texts in English and felt more confident as English readers. This implies that the teacher should remind students of the benefits of strategy use, and encourages them to apply these skills to new learning contexts independently. Last but not least, this study shows that it was useful for the teacher to provide opportunities to the students to initiate strategy practice with authentic materials in the process of strategy practice.

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Session VIII

Second Language Acquisition

[Venue: Room 214]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Jyi-yeon Yi (Chongshin Univ.)			
15:00-15:25	**Difference of Motivational Factors in Learning English: Japanese and Korean Students** Daekweon Bae (Gyeongnam National Univ. of Science & Technology)	Eun Young Park (Hongik Univ.)	Hye-Ryeong Hahn (Seowon Univ.)
15:25-15:50	**A Study on Korean Learners' Perception of their "Native" English Speaking Teachers** Myokyung Kim · Jiyoung Ha (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Je-Young Lee (Sehan Univ.)	Suyeon Kim (Anyang Univ.)
15:50-16:00	Coffee Break		
[Session Chair] Ran Ryu (Dongguk Univ.)			
16:00-16:25	**Evaluating English Essay and Text with TEES** Jieun Kim·Moongee Jeon (Konkuk Univ.)	Ok-Hee Park (Pai Chai Univ.)	Ho Lee (Chung-Ang Univ.)
16:25-16:50	**The Use of Mitigation Strategies in Teacher Written Feedback and its Effects on Korean EFL Students** Woo Ri Mi Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Jeong Wan Lim (Daegu Univ.)	Shinwoong Lee (Hanyang Univ.)

Difference of Motivational Factors in Learning English: Japanese and Korean Students

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I. INTRODUCTION

Learning English can be motivated by different factors depending on what the learners expect in each learning context. Learners' motivational factors might be as different and diverse as the number of learners' social contexts because education is a part of social culture in which learners shape their belief and behavior system regarding what their learning should be. Issues in EFL motivation gradually become more important as the number of EFL learners and speakers grow and English is deemed the international language per se. In the field of EFL education, many researchers get interested in not only motivating factors but also demotivating factors due to the fact that, as Longcope (2009) pointed out, the motivation factor is one of the most significant elements that the educators should face and deal with to accomplish the intended educational outcomes. For ESL learners, motivation is not as much significant and critical as it is to EFL learners because the nature of learning contexts and the instructional environment are different. Therefore, to promote effective and efficient English learning, educators in EFL contexts need to explore what learners' motivation consist of and how their motivation works. Kachru (1994) elaborates on the possible monolingual bias on the language education. Effective ESL learning practices need to be culturally discounted when imported to the EFL environments. Chen, Warden, & Chang (2005) argues that the teachers in EFL countries should consider the weakness of their learners: low integrative motivational orientation, lean opportunity to use target language communicatively, and small amount of language input. They proposed the Oriental filial piety, so called 'Chinese Imperative,' as an alternative for motivation.

Korea and Japan are neighboring countries that have much of cultural background in common about English education: TOEIC, grammar-focused rote-learning, EFL tradition, limited verbal skills, etc. As Benson (1991) indicated in his research on the Japanese students, Japan universities place too much focus on the English examinations, sometimes on the detailed grammar points, and as a result develop negative feelings toward English. Interestingly, as Ghadirzadeh, Hashtroudi, Shokri, & Branch (2012) find out that the demotivation for English language learning in Japanese and Iranian groups shows similar basic structure, following general principles. The elements to trigger motivation in learning English might be expected to be similar considering the cultural closeness, but the drive to learn English can be found to be somewhat different for the different perceptions on the *why* elements of English learning and the different requirement from the job market of each society.

II. ANALYSIS

University students in both countries (225 Japanese students and 554 Korean students) participated in the survey research to find out in which direction each group of adult learners view the use of their English learning.

Table 1
Perceived Needs for English and Motivational Factors of Japanese Group

	Motivation			Effort		Ideal L2 Self	
	Mean	Beta	*t*	Beta	*t*	Beta	*t*
PNE for Career	2.65	.179	2.16	.229	2.64	.225	2.94
PNE for Class	3.11	.247	4.27	.187	3.09	.012	0.24
PNE for Daily Life	2.80	.466	5.28	.447	4.83	.637	7.82
R^2	.669			.635		.718	
F value	129.2			111.2		162.6	

Table 2
Perceived Needs for English and Motivational Factors of Korean Group

	Motivation			Effort		Ideal L2 Self	
	Mean	Beta	*t*	Beta	*t*	Beta	*t*
PNE for Career	3.54	.325	7.29	.335	7.35	.293	6.88
PNE for Class	3.51	.106	2.82	.119	3.08	-.001	-0.02
PNE for Daily Life	3.29	.284	6.53	.235	5.27	.424	10.22
R^2	.359			.329		.417	
F value	102.8			89.9		140.0	

III. DISCUSSION

The findings of this survey indicate that the Japanese learners are more indifferent in upgrading their language skills than Korean learners. In addition, Korean learners turned out to be in a more complex situation that needs more in-depth psychological exploration. Like Dornyei (2009) argued, EFL learners should take a leap that can cross the Rubicon of action.

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A Study on Korean Learners' Perception of their "Native" English Speaking Teachers

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I. INTRODUCTION

Language professionals often take for granted that the only appropriate models of language use come from its native speakers. Linguists look at the intuitions of native speakers or collect quantities of their speech; language teachers encourage students to be like native speakers as possible. However, an issue in many parts of the world is whether it is better for the teacher to be a native speaker or a non-native speaker. Recent TESOL conventions have witnessed an increase in the number of nonnative-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) voicing their concerns and expressing their visions as TESOL professionals (Braine, 1996, 1997; Liu, 1998). Their unique perspectives have increased an awareness of the impact nonnative-English-speaking professionals have on their students (e.g., Braine, 1995; Kresovich, 1998; Mcneill, 1994; Medgyes, 1994; Palfreyman, 1993; Rampton, 1990). Although the majority of professionals in TESOL in the U.S. speak English as their L1, the important role of nonnative-English-speaking professionals who are employed to teach ESL or EFL in the schools of their native countries should not be ignored. Being a nonnative-English-speaking teacher (NNEST) working in English education site in Korea, one often encounters learners' prejudice against him/her compared to native-English-speaking-teachers (NEST). However, who qualifies as a better foreign language teacher is an ongoing debatable issue. Korean learners' preference for NESTs is often not based on logical reasons and time to time there are learners who prefer only Korean teachers without any objective ground. This study aims to examine previous researches done on this issue of native vs. nonnative foreign language teachers and look into Korean adult learners' perceptions and expectations of their native-English-teachers and nonnative (Korean)-English-speaking-teachers, this present study also aims to understand both strong and weak points of each group and attempts to suggest ways to improve teacher training programs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Although historically much teaching of English has been done by nonnative-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), research on their concerns as English educators has been neglected. An Interesting type of L2 user role is the no-nnative-speaker teacher. Often native speakers are assumed to intrinsically make better teachers than nonnatives do. The danger is that being a native speaker does not necessarily make you a good teacher. In many instances the native speaker is less trained than the local non-native teacher or has been trained in an educational system with different values and goals. Given equal training and local knowledge, the native speaker's sole advantage is their language proficiency, no more no less. But the native speaker teacher is not a member of the group that the same stages as the students and often do not know what it means to learn a second language themselves; their command of the students' own language often betrays their own failings (Cook, 2001). A non-native teacher may be a better model of a person who commands two languages and is able to communicate

through both. Medgyes (1992) comes to a more balanced conclusion about the possible advantages and disadvantages of being a native speaker. He points out that the drawbacks are that native speakers are not models of L2 users, cannot speak of learning strategies from their own experience, are not explicitly aware of the features of the language as much as nonnative speakers, cannot anticipate learning problems, cannot empathize with their students, and are not able to exploit the learners' L1 in the classroom. Students may feel overwhelmed by native-speaker teachers who have achieved a perfection that is out of the students' reach; as Kramsch (1993) puts it, "Nonnative teachers and students alike are intimidated by the native-speaker norm" (p. 9). Students may prefer the fallible nonnative-speaker teacher who presents a more achievable model. According to Tang's study (1995, 1996), Tang asked 47 NNESTs questions about their perceptions of the proficiency and competency of native-and nonnative-speaking teachers of English. The main items of the questionnaire asked about the advantages and disadvantages for English language learners of having an NNEST and an NEST, a comparison of the English proficiency of the two types of teachers, and their different roles in the classroom. A very high percentage of respondents believed that NESTs were superior to NNESTs in speaking (100%), pronunciation (92%), listening (87%), vocabulary (79%), and reading (72%). In contrast, NNESTs were felt to be associated with accuracy rather than fluency. This does not mean that students actually prefer native speaker. Nowhere is there an overwhelming preference for NS teachers. Being an NS is only one among many factors that influence students' views of teaching.

III. METHODS

The subjects of this study consist of 53 female students at S university in Seoul, Korea. They were asked to answer 7 background questions concerning with their experiences of English learning and their ideas about native English speaking teachers. 83% of the subjects (42/53) have studied English more than 5 years, and 44 of them evaluate themselves as intermediate level, ranging from low to high, English learners. 49 subjects have experiences of studying with a NEST whom they define as foreigner who was born and grew up in an English speaking country (50/53) or as any foreigner who speaks fluent English. It was quite noticeable that the subjects' notion of a native English speaking teacher, NEST, has a strong image of a foreigner as well as his/her fluent English skills especially "perfect" pronunciation. Some other answers were like that NESTs are more casual, kind and who cannot speak Korean. Almost all subjects, (98%; 52/53) consider that a teacher takes an important role in their learning. For data collection of this study, a survey was conducted: 51 subjects were given a questionnaire and two 30- minute personal interviews were done. First, the subjects were asked to answer some questions about their English learning experiences and their definition of a native speaker. Then, a questionnaire consists of 12 questions (11 to those who do not have experience with a NEST) was given out to the subjects. The questionnaire was written in Korean to reduce the time and any unnecessary complications. Most of the questions required a simple check mark and some asked for short answers.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, 92% (49/53) of the participants have an experience of learning English from NEST. To the subjective question, "If it was by your choice, what were the reasons?" most of the participants responded that it was because they wanted greater improvements in their English skills by having direct contacts with native English

speaking teachers. They expected NESTs to provide better models of the English language than Korean teachers. Other reasons were having more opportunities to practice English, to listen to native pronunciation and to increase the chances to personally meet native English speakers. Moreover, more than 70% of the subjects answered 'satisfied' respectively to the questions of "What was your personal impression of classes with NESTs?" & "How would you evaluate classes with NESTs?" This implies that most of participants' expectations were fulfilled in the English classes with NESTs

As for questions about advantages and disadvantages of studying with native English speaking teachers, the answers for advantages included like 'able to listen to and learn 'native pronunciation' was the most prominent. The second prominent answer was 'possible to learn practically and deeply about the English culture.' Some other advantages of native English speaking teachers are as followings. First, because of the fact that students must use English only in class with a native English-speaking teacher, it required them to concentrate more on lectures and instructions of their teachers and the methodology the NESTs use make students actively participate in class activities and discussion. However, disadvantages are pointed out as followings. Most of all, because of lack of understanding about Korean culture, native English speaking teachers often misunderstand what students say which caused unexpected miscommunication. Next, unfortunately, native English speaking teachers treat students whose answers were not correct due to their low language proficiency as people with lack of knowledge. To solve this type of unnecessary noise, students wanted to have native English speaking teachers who at least know Korean language and culture a little. For the question of "How long have you studied English?" 83% participants responded more than five years. Since the learning years of the participants at primary and secondary schools were at least more than 810 sessions. The learning sessions can be much more if the privately taken lessons of the participants are included. It is said as considerable amount of learning because more than five hundred sessions of learning is considered as 'advanced level' according to Cambridge University ESL Course's level criteria. However, as for the question about their English proficiency, more than 90% of subjects responded as intermediate or intermediate-low. The result is similar in speaking proficiency. According to the above results, learners show high tendency to underestimate themselves. The possible reason for this tendency could lie in the Korean students' obsession to achieve 'native-like' English proficiency.

Many Koreans learning English set their goals to become 'native-like' English speakers, and it can be one of the reasons why they prefer to learn from native English speaking teachers since they can be better models. Another reason for the preference of NESTs is that because the chances to practice using English in real setting is very limited in Korea, students want to use the class time with NESTs as authentic situation to practice their language. This is also reflected in their answers for the ideal class that they want small size class in which there are more chance to communicate with the teacher more often. Another reason for their preference of NEST is that students feel that they are more challenged in the class with NEST not only in the language but also with requirement of more active participation on classroom activities and discussions. By the reason mentioned, it is possible to presume that the classes with NESTs are concentrated mostly on spoken communication skills and also that students value NEST as their model resource to learn their language and culture.

V. CONCLUSION

The results show the participants in this study prefer native English speaking teachers. There are some cases they

prefer Korean teachers, but more cases of preference for native English speaking teachers are apparent. The reasons are as follows. First, high perception of reliability of Korean adult learners is on native English speaking teachers because the learners expect to learn much more from the native English-speaking teachers. Second, the learners believe they can learn the better pronunciation because the pronunciation of native English speaking teachers is considered as perfectly correct. Third, the participants answered that they would be able to be exposed to the English culture through studying with native English speaking teachers. The participants gave much importance on the close relationship between languages and cultures, and so because of learning the target culture, they preferred native English speaking teachers. Last, many participants answered that the relationship between native English speaking teachers and Korean learners is more equal, unlike the relationship between Korean teachers and Korean learners, which is more similar to the relation of top-and-bottom. The subjects believed that the relation between the teacher and learners is very important for escalation of learning motivation. Particularly, the equality of teacher-learner relation is taken one of the advantages of native English speaking teachers.

On the other hand, the most problematic disadvantage was miscommunication in class, which happens because of insufficient understanding for Korean culture and language by the native English speaking teachers. Other problems occur when the learners do not understand fully the native English speaking teachers' instructions or unfamiliar teaching methodology they use in class. Finally, some participants answered that the grammar teaching of native English speaking teachers is insufficient. Unlike Korean learners of English who are considerably accustomed to explicit grammar instruction since their middle and high schools, native speakers of English often do not have received explicit grammar lessons as nonnative speaker do. Therefore, many times native English speaking teachers cannot explain grammatical rules explicitly when English learners need to study practical grammar. It is because native English speaking teachers acquired English naturally as their mother language and do not have enough understanding of learning a second/foreign language.

As for Korean teachers, the most outstanding advantage is that they understand and share the experience of learning a second/foreign language. In other words, students considered their Korean teachers of English more comfortable. However, at the same time, the disadvantage of Korean teachers is that the relationship between Korean teachers and learners is often too authoritative that there is lack of chances for students' participation. Another disadvantage of having Korean teachers as English teachers id that they do not present a good model for the language and lacks the knowledge on the target language culture as the native English speaking teachers are able to do.

In conclusion, Korean learners of English do want to have their teachers whose properties of teachers consist of advantages of both from native English speaking and Korean native teachers. In reality, it is hardly possible ideas to come true, however, if Korean educators receive intensive pronunciation training, deeper understanding of English culture, and much improved various methodologies that fit learners' needs would work. Therefore, insightful teacher training programs based on learners' needs analysis should gradually be developed by specialists to make English education in Korea better.

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Evaluating English Essay and Text with TEES

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I. INTRODUCTION

The convergence research in the fields of psycholinguistics, psychology, linguistics, computer science (Jurafsky & Martin, 2008), education, and corpus linguistics (Lindquist, 2009; Meyer, 2002) has facilitated the development of software programs that analyze various texts and essays in terms of many linguistic and psycholinguistic features. With the help of the convergence science, we recently developed a computer program, TEES that evaluates English written texts automatically.

II. TEES (TEXT & EVALUATION SYSTEM)

TEES is a computer tool that evaluates various English essays with a standardized norm (Jeon, 2014). The norm was created with a huge size of corpus. The measures of TEES mainly consist of text cohesion, sentence structure, text markers, word frequency, and vocabulary. Figure 1 presents the interface of TEES.

Figure 1
The interface of TEES
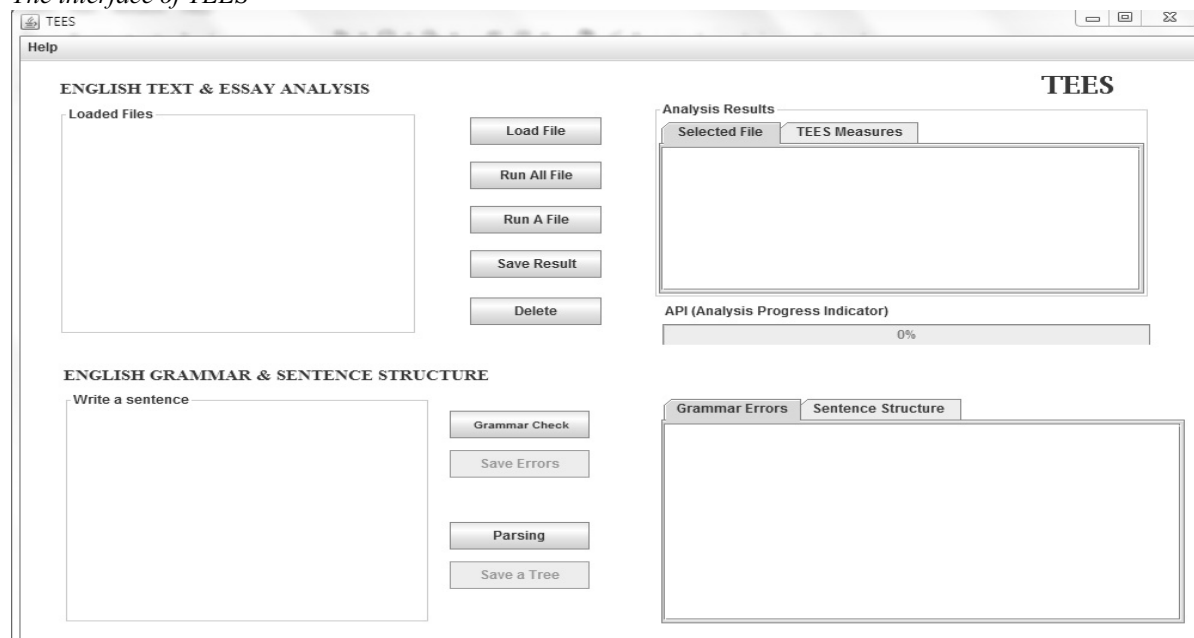
TEES evaluates various English essays with a wide range of linguistic and psycholinguist measures. Now the TEES system, for example, is being used for analyzing authors' writing styles and for evaluating various essays written by second language learners of English. Another function of TEES is to analyze sentence structure with an automatic computer parser. TEES also analyzes various grammatical errors (Jeon, 2014). Basically, TEES can be

applied to evaluate English essays, to analyze the syntactic complexity of sentence, and to correct grammatical errors based on various advanced technologies (Jeon, 2014; Jurafsky & Martin, 2008).

III. CONCLUSION

TEES is a new computer system that analyzes texts with many linguistic and psycholinguistic features, and evaluates essays with a standardized norm. It is expected that the TEES system will be a useful tool for conducting various psycholinguistic studies and English education.

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The Use of Mitigation Strategies in Teacher Written Feedback and its Effects on Korean EFL Students

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I. ABSTRACT

The study provides an interpretive analysis of the patterns of mitigation strategies used by two EFL writing teachers in their overall commentary on writing tasks done by nine high-intermediate to advanced Korean adult EFL learners, and the effects of mitigated teacher feedback on student revision. The taxonomy of mitigation strategies predetermined by Hyland and Hyland (2001) were used to analyze the data, and it was comprised of four categories: paired act patterns, the use of hedges, personal attribution, and interrogative syntax. Furthermore, the teachers' motivations to mitigate their comments and the students' affective responses toward mitigation were investigated through retrospective interviews. The findings of the study indicated that the use of hedges was the most frequently employed strategy, followed by paired acts and personal attribution. Interrogative syntax was never used by the teachers in this study. Distinctions between the two teachers in terms of mitigating their comments also existed, since they shared different views on effective feedback. With respect to the students' reactions to mitigation, the majority of the students appreciated the teachers' use of mitigation.

The findings suggest that the students would like their teachers to encourage them, and mitigating the feedback acts helps build a positive relationship between a teacher and student. However, mitigation still needs to be employed with care, since there were cases when mitigated feedback caused students' distrust in teachers' evaluation. It was evident that mitigation affected the students' perceptions on feedback; nonetheless, mitigation strategies did not necessarily lead to changes in student revision. That is, the students incorporated similar amounts of mitigated comments in their revisions, regardless of teachers or mitigation types.

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Session IX

Multimedia-assisted Language Learning and Teaching

[Venue: Room 215]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Moonbok Lee (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)			
15:00-15:25	**The Effective Implementation of SRS "In" the Classroom: Beyond the Four Walls** Chankyu Park · Matthew Grills (Jungwon Univ.)	Da Hyun Lee (Baekseok Arts Univ.)	Juhyun Back (Busan National Univ. of Education)
15:25-15:50	**National Discourse of EGL and English Teaching in Korea: Focusing on Education Policies and Teacher Perspectives** Young Gyo Cho (Kyungnam Univ.)	Kook Jeong Park (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Yoonhee Choi (Chongshin Univ.)
15:50-16:00	Coffee Break		
[Session Chair] Jonghee Kim (Baekseok Arts Univ.)			
16:00-16:25	**The Effects of Instructor Control of Online Learning Environments of Satisfaction and Perceived Learning** Jamie Costley (Kongju National Univ.)	Eun Hye Song (Soongsil Univ.)	Hee Jeong Oh (Seoul Woman's Univ.)
16:25-16:50	**Pre-service EFL Teacher Reflection and their Pedagogical Problems** Kook Jeong Park (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Myokyung Kim (Sookmyung Women's Univ.)	Jeehwan Yun (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)

The Effective Implementation of SRS "In" the Classroom: Beyond the Four walls

Chankyu Park
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I. ABSTRACT

Audience Response Systems (ARS) were examined to determine their effects on student participation and motivation in various classroom sizes and how reluctant participants perceived such systems. Students in general, and regardless of class size, were discovered to have a very favorable view of such systems, with computer-literate instructors able to best employ such systems with little reluctance. While most participants viewed the systems positively, negative aspects with cost, the hardware and software utilized, and glitches, were present. However, overall, these findings suggest that the introduction of an ARS into a classroom setting will have a positive influence on the participation and motivation of students.

Keywords: Audience Response System (ARS), clicker, motivation, participation, reluctance

II. INTRODUCTION

The Effective Implementation of SRS "In" the Classroom: Beyond the Four Walls

"Your time is limited, so don't waste it living someone else's life. Don't be trapped by dogma - which is living with the results of other people's thinking. Don't let the noise of others' opinions drown out your own inner voice. And most important, have the courage to follow your heart and intuition." This quote from Steve Jobs, a man who changed the way we see the world, illustrates how we need to provide students with the opportunity to learn to be themselves and engage in their own independent thinking. Too often students are caught up in a vortex of influences that do not allow them to be themselves. Instead of living with the convictions of their own spirit and inner voice, they accept the status quo as what is deemed to be normal.

Instead of limiting our students with an environment that is devoid of free expression, teachers should be focusing on creating a "classroom" that is able to increase the participation and motivation of its students. There should be no barriers to a student wishing to take proper ownership of their educational journey. As educators, we tend to believe that every idea that is brought into the classroom will generate enthusiasm and garner adoring students who will leap into action when a question is posed. The reality is that we must be mindful of the tools that we choose to help engage students, so that they are afforded an opportunity to participate and be motivated. The purpose of this literature review is to see how exactly an Audience Response System (ARS), also called a Student Response System (SRS) or "clicker," will improve students' participation

and motivation. The research question is: How can the introduction of an SRS into a classroom setting increase the participation and motivation of students?

This discussion seeks to understand this question through the lens of three key themes in the implementation of an Audience Response System (ARS) in a classroom environment: (a) the positive, or negative, effects that an ARS may have on student participation and motivation; (b) the feasible implementation of an ARS in a larger class setting; and (c) the engagement of reluctant participants with an ARS, which can include not only the students, but that staff that are asked to implement the system. Each of these areas of study can help an instructor determine if an ARS is appropriate for their particular classroom context and how best to incorporate such a system into their educational design.

III. EFFECT OF AN ARS ON STUDENT PARTICIPATION AND MOTIVATION

Motivating students and increasing their participation throughout the single class day, and throughout the academic year, can often be a struggle, with educators continually looking for new measures, methods, and technologies to facilitate improvement in this area. Researchers have found that the use of an ARS had a positive effect upon the participation and motivation of the students who were engaged in the use of such systems. However, Moss and Cowley (2011) also noted that the primary responsibility to garner success through the implementation of an ARS was that of the instructor. The students exhibited a favorable attitude when utilizing an ARS, but practical and productive results of this tool upon the participation and motivation of students was incumbent upon the instructor's efforts to maximize the value of the system. While a positive outlook was garnered through various studies, it should be understood that sampling error is possible with a sample groups that considered small. Normally, sample groups that are below 200 participants are considered as minor and this could have an effect upon the validity of the study. However, care was also taken to conduct interviews and focus groups with participants to gauge their level of interest and excitement through engaging with the ARS.

IV. LARGE CLASS ARS IMPLEMENTATION

Engaging students within a small classroom setting seems to be the most obvious of ARS technology, but the implications for a larger classroom setting should not be overlooked. Researchers have recognized the benefits of implementing an ARS in larger classroom settings, which include greater student motivation to participate and actively engage in the lecture material being presented. While there are many positives that are present in the use of an ARS in a larger classroom setting, the advantage of anonymity can reduce the personal response to students even further than what is already present. Teachers may need to examine ways to benefit their students who respond within such system setting, so that they feel more connected to the course material through efforts of the instructor, instead of taking on a more detached persona through the use of an ARS. To determine the true effect of an ARS on such large sampling groups, which could work as a limitation upon the garnering of truly accurate results from various studies, researchers could have been more focused on canvassing their sampling groups to understand the students' feelings towards the introduction of an ARS. However, recognizing the value

of technological seamlessness was understood in particular groups of studies and should be examined to a greater extent to recognize the full effect that "glitches" might play on the positive outlook students have towards an ARS.

V. RELUCTANT PARTICIPANTS' REACTION TO ARS

One of the great challenges of any teacher is engaging the reluctant student. Whether it is combating shyness in the classroom or the desire for students to conform to their peers' expectations, there is a very real probability of student reluctance to answer and engage in a classroom lecture. Various researchers have found that there is a positive correlation between the implementation of an ARS in a classroom setting to engage learners in more proactive involvement in a class lecture. Students are given the advantage of anonymity, which can allow them to interact with the instructor without anxiety or the need to conform to the social norms of the classroom community. It must be noted that the teacher plays an important role in the success of such a system and that they must still be purposeful in their use of such a system, perhaps overcoming their own reluctance in adapting such an ARS to the classroom and demonstrating their own diminishing reluctance to their students as a model behavior. Here, studies should seek the benefit from having a larger sample size, so as not to diminish the results, which seem intuitive, but could be dismissed because of the size of the groups surveyed. One researcher who has focused on model behavior, Agbatogun (2011), spent his time focusing on the reluctant participant who is the facilitator of the ARS in the class. To support the validity of his conclusions, he would do well to research a larger sample size to sustain the conclusions he arrived at.

In conclusion, the results research in this area suggested that teachers who engaged their students with an ARS saw greater participation and motivation in their students in their classrooms. This positive effect was present regardless of classroom size and turned reluctant participants into willing contributors during the course of the instructors' lectures. Implications for teaching include the integration of ARS technology into the classroom to leverage the enthusiasm for students to engage, with an understanding that logistical impediments may occur that will need to be addressed and overcome to make the use of an ARS successful. Such impediments might include funding, technology purchasing and training, and the reluctance of teachers in adapting to an ARS and new instructional methodologies. Further research should be conducted on the long-term retention advantages, or disadvantages, that such systems might have on students who are taught with this technology. The overall advantages of such systems, as outlined by the literature, cannot be denied and should serve as an indicator of how effective an ARS can be in motivating students and increasing their participation in their classes.

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National Discourse of EGL and English Teaching in Korea: Focusing on Education Policies and Teacher Perspectives

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I. INTRODUCTION

This study examines the impact of English as a global language (EGL) on English language teaching in Korea in terms of pedagogical principles and practices operating within the nation's English education. The study first reviewed the English education policies presented in the National Education Curricula since the 6th Revision, in which communicative competence was promulgated first time in the nation's history as the primary objective in English language teaching. Then, these discourses were assessed by 19 Korean teachers of English and native English-speaking teachers using a questionnaire and in-depth interviews. The primary purpose of the study involves investigating the following question: what discourses do Korean English teachers have in terms of their goals, pedagogical beliefs, and difficulties in teaching Korean EFL?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The spread of English in Korea is closely related to the nation's response to globalization. The nation's adoption of *segyehwa* (internationalization) policy declared by the former President Kim, Young Sam in 1995 was the base for the nation's drive toward globalization. As encoded in the term, Korea's interest in pursuing *segyehwa* with great determination and enthusiasm was based on the premise that Korea as a nation has a strong need to cope with the changing world and thereby to mark a transition away from the long history of political seclusion moving onto the intensified degree of globalization (Kim, 2000).

It should also be noted in the nation's attempt to global expansion that this national drive is essentially based on dual objectives: aiming at raising both *inter*-national competitiveness and *intra*-national cohesion. That is, Korea's globalization is pursued in two-layer projections: constructing national identity and promoting the school youth's English proficiency, which form the thematic base of the National Education Curricula (NEC), 6th and 7th Revisions. Noticeably, it is Korea's firm belief that the juxtaposition of national identity with the promotion of a foreign language is reconciliatory, not a conflict that needs to be resolved (Block & Cameron, 2002). The point here is that English is a dominant mediational tool in constructing a modern state and the inseparable relationship between the global and the local should be conceived as sort of natural process (Block & Cameroon, 2002), given the widespread perception that globalization is an opportunity for each nation-state in that the nation can utilize the immediacy of communication and knowledge sharing for their national advancement (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). In the nation's political endeavor to face globalization, Korea's methodological choice was to educate its school population to become proficient in English, and this instrumental purpose attached to English is an indication that English education in Korea is a nationalistic project to promote the nation's *segyehwa*, internationalization, while maintaining its national identity (S. Yim, 2003). As such, English in the contemporary Korea is the result of

government's principled efforts to achieve its global competitiveness as a nation and education policy has played a key role in that effort as a core step to achieve that aim.

III. METHOD

The study qualitatively analyzed teacher discourses in a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to identify the operational ideas and thinking lying behind their teaching goals, pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties in teaching EFL in the context of EGL in Korea. For this purpose, the study invited 16 high school English teachers teaching in two different cities in Korea and 3 native English-speaking instructors teaching in a large university of a metropolitan city in Korea. The demographic profile of the participants shows that their age ranges from middle 20s up to 50s with different length of teaching experience, 3 years as minimum and 16 years as maximum. The average of self-reported English proficiency among Korean English teachers was high-intermediate; most of them rated themselves as advanced in reading, yet their assessment of speaking and writing virtually stayed at levels lower than intermediate. The gender ratio shows five male and fourteen female teachers. The recruitment of these participants is based on the researcher's acquaintance with them and the researcher obtained permission from each teacher for audiotaping the interviews.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Teachers' general assessment of pedagogical reality is not congruent in itself, and thus, the themes emerging from teacher discourses are varied, among which the most noticeable are the following categories.

1. English for all: Unrealistic Goal

Teachers' views on English teaching in the contemporary Korea simply converge on their shared conception of *too much English* in Korean society, suggesting that *English for all* is an unrealistic goal to achieve in actual classroom teaching. Given the observation that English matters to *all* in Korean society nowadays, most participants believe there should be some leeway in implementing English teaching to such an intensified degree as is now. In their view, the current atmosphere of the society in which English is seen as compulsory for all students in the nation is wrong. This negative attitude to the social fever for English in the nation was repeatedly articulated by fourteen teacher participants who stated that English is absolutely necessary but only for those who are genuinely interested in the language, not for all. In their view, the overriding emphasis on English in Korea that mainly requires students' commitment to English learning is not conducive to students' overall foreign language achievement. Teachers' negative attitude to the compulsory nature of the English language for all students with the requirement of a very high-level proficiency is also testified in many cases of their interviews; in their point of view, the unidirectional push for English on all students casts a strong doubt on the productivity and actual effectiveness of language education.

On the other hand, the remaining five participants showed positive attitudes, and much of this positivity is mostly based on their perception of practical values of English learning beneficial to their students; that is, the core of these teachers' assessment is that the benefits from knowing English overwhelm any form of costs from their students. However, this sense of positivity doesn't override teachers' overall negative views.

2. Difficulties in Implementing Communicative Language Teaching

The political ideals embedded in the educational policies and practices in the nation are essentially seen to be perceived by teachers of English. Yet it is also in teachers' perception that these ideals are not fully realizable through instructional classroom teaching for now. Teachers' perceived necessity for communicative language teaching and their recognition of pedagogical reality that cannot successfully implement such objective seem to form the two sides of their assessment of teaching Korean EFL. Table 1 provides the factors hindering a successful implementation of CLT as presented by teachers.

Table 1
Perceived Difficulties in Implementing CLT

Difficulties caused by	Contents
Educational System	*Suneung* controls everything in class
	Destabilized school education
	Increased role of private sector widening gap in student achievement
	Little promotion of speaking and writing
Teacher	Deficiency in oral English
	Lack of socio-cultural knowledge of English
	Little expertise in material development for CLT
	Deficiency in developing effective teaching methods
Students	Lack of self-confidence and little motivation
	Wide gap in English proficiency
	Lack of self-awareness of the need for English study
	Few opportunities to access genuine input

The primary reason for the crippled operation of CLT pertains to the heavy influence of CSAT on school curricula. The current test-driven syllabi must focus on practicing reading and listening as the major tasks that need to be completed to teach in class and this doesn't help students develop balanced ability in 4 skills. Broadly, this too much focus on receptive modes in language teaching, ultimately providing causes for the two versions of English learning in our society, namely '*Siheom* English' and '*Euisasotong* English', essentially deprives both students and teachers of their motivation for learning and teaching English for communicative purposes. Another factor that blocks the easy introduction of CLT to classroom teaching is ascribed to teachers' own imperfection in oral English. This was noticed among teachers with longer experience of teaching; their experience as former EFL learners and also teachers who were trained for translating English grammar and reading into Korean doesn't serve any longer as the base for adopting new conception and methodology in English teaching. Another layer of difficulty caused by teachers themselves is found in their lack of expertise in developing materials and pedagogical methods necessary for communicative language teaching. Many participants confessed there is little time for professional training by themselves or as participants in the official training program to meet the challenges they face to become functionally skillful in managing the classroom teaching. Mostly importantly, this lack of expertise in developing language materials and teaching methods is based on their own perception of the deficiency in understanding sociocultural backgrounds of the English language. These factors hindering teachers' own professional development, wherever the reasons are, suggest that their self-confidence as language teachers is not that strong.

To summarize, teaching English for communication appears to be not an easy task in the current school-based English education. The factors described so far range from the national educational system to teacher- and student-

engendered problems; yet the significance of each causal factor may differ, but the highest weight is given to the nation's educational system. It is these teachers' belief that the change in language teaching in actual classrooms should begin with the change in education policy, and in which the most significant step should come with change in the national assessment, CSAT, giving more flexibility to testing components of English to include speaking and writing. It is hence teachers' overall suggestion that when school education teaches all four skills on a regular basis, including speaking and writing, it should be a genuine start for teaching English communicatively.

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The Effects of Instructor Control of Online Learning Environments of Satisfaction and Perceived Learning

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I. INTRODUCTION

The instructional design aspect of E-learning is important, in that it is used to help set the discourse to be taken within the online environment. Specific instructional design decisions can not only play a part in the discourse of the learners, but can affect the learners' levels of satisfaction and perceived learning as. Numerous studies have shown the value that both student satisfaction and perceived learning have within education (Bailey, Bauman, & Lata, 1998). Acknowledging their value, the question of whether instructors can impact satisfaction and perceived learning through various instructional design decisions is important. This study varied levels of instructor control through the use of instructional design decisions to see if online environments with higher instructor control would lead to higher levels of student satisfaction and perceived learning. Three different online environments were used, with each one containing progressively more instructor control. The results show that there were no significant differences in regards to mean levels of satisfaction between the three environments. However, there were significant differences among mean levels of perceived learning based on the differing instructor controlled environments. This study shows that effective use of instructor control within online environments leads to higher levels of perceived learning. Research question: What are the differences in students' satisfaction and perceived learning between differing levels of instructor control in an online forum?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Effects of Instructional Design on Satisfaction

Student satisfaction is one of the most important factors when it comes to successful implementation of an e-learning environment. An increase in student satisfaction is beneficial to the learner due to its positive correlation with retention as well as its influence on student motivation. Additionally, students' satisfaction with their teachers has been linked to increased levels of perceived learning (Richardson and Swan, 2003). Among the various ways of influencing satisfaction, teaching design and organization of online environments appears to be a determining factor, as the role of instructors and their presence has been shown to be an indicator of student satisfaction (Garrison, 2007).

Research conducted by Sun, et al. (2008) addresses varying dimensions of instructional design online that can influence student satisfaction. The dimensions discussed include instructor dimension, course dimension, and environmental dimension. Within these three dimensions, research shows which aspects of instructional design influence levels of satisfaction. Within the instructor dimension, instructor control such as the timeliness of instructor responses to student posts has been shown to have a significant influence on student satisfaction

(Thurmond, Wambach, and Connors, 2002). Sun, et al. (2008) postulate that this is due to the perception by students that they are afforded more opportunities to learn when teachers respond to their posts in a timely manner. Within the course dimension, flexibility in time and location has been shown to increase student satisfaction (Sun et al., 2008). Sun et al. (2008) suggest that this is due not only to convenience the students feel, but also to the elimination of awkwardness that can occur in face-to-face interactions. Within the environmental dimension, Thurmond, et al. (2002), claim that assessment feedback from others positively affects satisfaction. This is because feedback through interaction with others leads to improved progress and ability of learner groups to solve problems.

2. Effects of Instructional Design on Learning

Within online learning environments, it is the job of the teacher to facilitate the process in order to fulfill specific learning outcomes (Anderson, et al., 2001). Based on decisions made by the teacher, learners within a community may have various perceptions of learning. Past research has shown that the way learners perceive their learning environment is significantly related to student achievement (Moos, 1979). Therefore, the role of instructional design and its effect on the perception of learning deserves some attention. Within online communities, Akyol and Garrison (2014) note that a significant relationship exists between perceived learning and how teachers facilitate the online experience of the learners, highlighting the importance of looking at ways in which the decisions of the instructor can positively affect perceived learning. Research involving instructor control of online environments has generally focused on the instructor-controlled levels of interaction. Research conducted by Arbaugh (2000) surveyed participants to find out how they perceived learning, ease of interaction, and instructor emphasis on interaction. The findings of this study were similar with that of the study conducted by Shea, et al. (2003) in that instructor interaction appeared to have a significant influence on the students' perception of their learning. Research conducted by Swan (2001) not only looked at student/teacher interaction, but also looked at levels of how students interacted between each other. Through survey analysis, the results showed that interaction between students led to higher levels of perceived learning. However, it was shown that student/teacher interaction lead to higher levels of perceived learning than that of student/student interaction.

III. METHODS

1. Subjects and Context

This study consisted of 219 participants. The participants were students at a National University in Korea. The study was implemented in blended learning English classes that focused on the improvement of writing skills and the development of their understanding of key teaching issues such as classroom management and delivering instruction. The ultimate goal of the course was to provide the students adequate preparation for the Korean teachers entrance exam. The classes took place over the course of three semesters from 2013 to 2014. The in-class aspects of the classes pertained to lectures, student presentations and group activities. The online portion of the course involved the students using an asynchronous online forum in order to interact and exchange ideas as a community and enhance their understanding of the in-class material.

2. Experimental Procedures

This study took place over three consecutive semesters. It was implemented in order to see if manipulating the levels of teacher control of three different online forums would produce varying levels of student satisfaction and perceived learning. The three forums received progressively higher levels of instructor control. The instructional design used to vary the levels of teacher control was created by using a modification of the Instructional Design for Online Learning model (IDOL) designed by Siragusa, Dixon, and Dixon (2007). The learning environments are varied thusly: *Content source* refers to the generation of content by either the instructor or the students. *Linear content* refers to whether or not the content followed a specific linear pattern. *Instructor posting* refers to how much the instructor interacts with the learners through posting. *Structure and organization* refers to how the discourse and interactions are controlled by the instructor. *Study flexibility* refers to the freedom of students' posting in regards to time. *Interaction* refers to how much the instructor controls the amount of interaction taking place between the students in the forum. *Feedback* refers the amount of responses the instructor made to the students' posts.

All of the participants from each of the three learning environments received a survey in which they rated their levels of satisfaction and perceived learning in regards to the learning environment. The survey consisted of Likert scale questions with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. What are the differences in students' satisfaction between differing levels of instructor control in an online forum?

The means for student satisfaction were calculated for each of the three conditions. As can be seen in Table 2, the low control environment (forum 1) had a mean satisfaction score of 4.84, the medium control environment (forum 2) had a mean satisfaction score of 4.82, and the high control environment (forum 3) had a mean satisfaction score of 4.82.

Table 3
ANOVA (Scheffe test) for comparing satisfaction means

	Low control	Medium control	High control
Low control	0	.023	.025
Medium control	- 0.23	0	.001
High control	-.025	-.001	0

*There is no significant mean difference at the 0.05 level

2. What are the differences in students' perceived learning between differing levels of instructor control in an online forum?

The means for perceived learning were calculated for each of the three conditions. As can be seen in Table 4, the low control environment (forum 1) had a mean perceived learning score of 4.60, the medium control

environment (forum 2) had a mean perceived learning score of 4.92, and the high control environment (forum 3) had a mean perceived score of 4.94.

Table 4
ANOVA (Scheffe test) for comparing perceived learning means

	Low control	Medium control	High control
Low control	0	-.317*	-.335*
Medium control	.317*	0	-.018
High control	.335*	.018	0

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The fact that the lowest controlled environment in this study had the highest mean score in terms of satisfaction (although there was no significant difference compared to the other two environments) went against what previous research has generally shown. Previous research has claimed that higher levels of instructional design controls lead to higher levels of student satisfaction (Arbaugh, 2002; Thurmond et al. 2002; Sun, et al., 2008; Thurmond. These studies show that instructional design that allows more interaction and feedback should lead to higher satisfaction.

The students' mean rankings of perceived learning progressively went up as the level of control went up from forum one to forum three. There was a significant difference of perceived learning when comparing the first forum with the other two forums. This shows that the highest controlled forums produced higher levels of perceived learning when compared to the lowest controlled forum. Consistent with these findings, previous research has claimed that higher levels of instructor presence, specifically instructional design control can significantly impact perceived learning levels of students (Arbaugh, 2000; Shea, et al., 2003; Swan, 2001).

The experiment used in this study shows that perceived learning increased the more the instructor controlled the content. According to Siragusa, et al. (2007), an instructor may want to adjust the amount of instructor generated content online based on student levels and that undergraduate students (as in this study) require more content than post-graduate students (Siragusa, et al., 2007). Cochrane (1991) claims that teachers need to know how to best deliver the content and represent the content in a way that is understandable to the students. This can affect the students' perception of how difficult the content is.

Previous research has shown that students who perceive high levels of interaction with their teachers also perceive high levels of learning (Arbaugh, 2000 & Shea, et al., 2003). In this study, teacher interaction was made more possible as the instructor used higher control of the environmental interaction through an increase of teacher postings. In regards to study flexibility in this study, the students in forum three were encouraged to post more. This could have led to more interaction, which can increase perceived learning (Swan, 2001). Feedback on the third forum was given more regularly. Specifically the students in the third forum received feedback every two weeks. Siragusa et al. (2007) explain that feedback enriches the students' online learning experiences. Additionally, they make the claim that instructor feedback given to students in an online setting is helpful in that it assists the students in their learning process (Siragusa, et al., 2007) This can possibly explain why forum three showed the highest levels of perceived learning, as forum three also received the highest levels of feedback.

Although it appears that an online environment that is more instructor-controlled can increase levels of learning, it is important to know that online communities should still be student-centered. Instructor control

should be designed to facilitate a student-centered environment, not make a teacher centered one. Teachers who deliver instruction online need to be aware that certain levels of control within the environment can affect student outcomes. Perceived learning has been proven to be a beneficial outcome and if instructors want to increase this, they might want to look into instructional design decisions that emphasize a more instructor – controlled environment.

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Pre-service EFL Teacher Reflection and their Pedagogical Problems

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I. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching can be seen as a principled problem-solving activity, namely operational research which works out solutions to its own local problems (Widdowson, 1990). English teachers experience problems in their day-to-day classroom work, and the problems can be called as pedagogical problems. Language teachers, including pre-service English teachers, face with different types of pedagogical problems during the practice and they are expected to pose and solve their pedagogical problems. The teachers are responsible for defining their own problems and providing their own solutions. The nature of a solution is determined "by the prior definition of the problem since problem and solution are a conceptual adjacency pair" (Widdowson, 1990, p. 8). This quote indicates that problem determination is a starting point of problem solving. There is a need for developing pre-service teachers' ability to notice and define their problems which they encounter during the practice of teaching. Unfortunately, there have been few studies on the nature of pre-service teachers' pedagogical problems which they encountered while teaching. There neEds.to be sufficient studies on pre-service teachers' determination of their pedagogical problems.

II. CONCEPUTAL FRAMEWORK

1. Reflection and Problems

One of the approaches to teacher development is a form of inquiry through which teachers are able to improve their practice (Bartlett, 1990). Fundamental to the approach of inquiry into experience is posing questions of teaching practice (Johnson & Golombek, 2002). Inquiry into practice and reflection on practice usually occur when a practitioner faces a confusing or problematic situation (Dewey, 1933). Inquiry into practice propels a practitioner to reflect on his teaching practice (Johnson & Golombek, 2002). Historically, Dewey's (1933) definition is acknowledged as the lodestone of the practice of reflection. However, there has been little research on pre-service teachers' reflection based on Dewey's (1933) notion of reflection as a method of problem solving even though teachers as reflective practitioners are assumed to be able to both pose and solve problems related to their educational practice (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

2. Perception of Pedagogical Problems

The traits of pedagogical problems of pre-service English teachers are able to be understood by different classification of them. One of the plausible distinctions among problems is that between 'felt' problems and 'perceived' problems. Felt problems may indicate subjective statements of problems and perceived problems may refer to objective statements of problems. Thus, pedagogical problems are able to be categorized into subjective

problems and objective problems. Adopting Brindley's (1989, as cited in Peng, 2014, p. 16) distinction of 'objective needs' and 'subjective needs', objective problems may be defined as factual statement of perceived problems while subjective problems will be named as responsive statements of felt problems. The distinction between felt/subjective and perceived/objective problems is helpful for understanding the nature of the pedagogical problems which pre-service English teachers face while teaching.

3. Origins of Pedagogical Problems

The nature of pedagogical problems of per-service English teachers can be discussed and understood in terms of their origins. The origins of pedagogical problems may be categorized and discussed in a few different ways. First, the pedagogical problems which English teachers face while working in an English teaching context may be under three categories: 'Institutional', 'Instructional', and 'Socio-economic' challenges (Kizildag, 2009). Institutional problems refer to challenges caused by an institution, and include lack of support, lack of understanding the nature of language teaching, and teachers' heavy workloads with crowded classrooms. Instructional challenges indicate problems which are noticed and felt while teaching. Socio-economic challenges refer to problems about lack of support from the families. Lack of such support can slow the pace of student learning (Kizildag, 2009).

In addition, pre-service teachers' pedagogical problems may be grouped into four factors of language learning and teaching. According to Rodgers' (2002), the triangle of factors are 'teacher/teaching, learner/learning, and content, and they "interact to form a dynamic nexus, held in tension by the force field of context" and the context can be "classroom, school, community and outward, even to the levels of nation and globe" (Rodgers, 2002, p. 859). Thus, it can be said that there are four factors of language learning and teaching, namely 'teacher', 'student', 'content', and 'context'. The four factors can be sources of pre-service teachers' pedagogical problems because their problems are considered to originate from one of the four factors.

Then, how might pre-service English teachers expect and prepare for the pedagogical problems and solutions? Unfortunately, there have been few documents and research on this issue. There is a need for further studies on the nature of pedagogical problems which pre-service English teachers encounter during a practicum of teaching. The present study is going to explore the nature of pre-service teachers' perception of their pedagogical problems and the origins of their pedagogical problems.

III. FINDINGS & DISCUSSION

1. Perception of Pedagogical Problems

In this study, Factual and Responsive Problems were alternative terms of 'objective' and 'subjective' problems which were discussed in the section of Conceptual Background. Factual Problems referred to objective statements of problems as for what had happened. An example of Factual Problems could be as follows:

"I had difficulty in explaining one of the grammatical concepts" <in Jieun's seventh entry>.

In contrast, Responsive Problems indicated the participants' felt difficulty or perplexity of dealing with Factual Problems. For this reason, in the participants' reflection, Responsive Problems always emerged after Factual Problems in the same entry. An example was in Jungki's first entry as follows:

The student did not remember the names of eight parts of speech, except for a few ones on which I had given easy explanation *(Factual Problem)*. I had a trouble with deciding on whether to have another chance of explaining English eight parts of speech or whether to let the student memorize the names of eight parts *(Responsive Problem)*.

The above examples of the combination of the Factual and Responsive Problems suggested that determination of pedagogical problems could be done in terms of objectivity and subjectivity. Factual statements of pedagogical problems could refer to certified experts' judgments about the educational problems, whereas responsive statements of pedagogical problems could indicate the participants' further perception of their responsibility of solving the problems. In this study, some pedagogical problems were understood from the two different perspectives of perception.

In addition, Factual and Responsive Problems may refer to Reporting and Responding respectively among Bain, Ballantyne, Packer, and Mills's (1999) five levels of reflection: reporting, responding, relating, reasoning, and reconstructing. According to Bain, et al., the level of Reporting indicated a participant's description of what happened, and the level of Responding a cognitive or emotional shallow responses to what happened. Considering these definitions, Responsive Problems may indicate a little higher level of reflection than Factual Problems.

2. Origins of Pedagogical Problems

1) Sources of Pedagogical Problems

For a further understanding of the pedagogical problems, the participants' problem statements in which the participants defined their problems were examined from the view of the problem source. For this examination, this study adopted and revised Rodgers' (2002) triangle factors of a teacher's subject matter. In this study, 'problem sources' referred to these four factors, but 'content' was renamed as 'materials' because the scope of meaning of content was too limited to refer to the pedagogical problems about the English language materials used for tutoring.

Among the four problem sources, the participants noticed most frequently their pedagogical problems about their students (63.83%). In contrast, the participants noticed least frequently their pedagogical problems relating to the location of tutoring (2.13%). This finding suggests that the participants as novice teachers in the course of teaching practicum noticed more pedagogical problems which can be understood to have originated from their students, and that they rarely recognized their pedagogic problems which could come from the place of tutoring. This data could be in part explained by the fact that the participants' tutoring English was not like a regular English class which has different factors influential to learning and teaching. In brief, the participants' major concerns were directed to their students, rather than to the participants themselves. Context and materials received the participants' peripheral attention.

2) Areas of Pedagogical Problems

For a further exploration of the participants' pedagogical problems considering the implications of the overlapped areas among the four problem sources, this study used the term 'problem area' which suggested the connections between or among the four problem sources. Thus, problem areas could be answers to the questions of 'in what situation pedagogical problems occurred'. In accordance with this clarification, this study examined the participants' problem statements.

As a result, there emerged eleven problem areas as follows. Under the problem source of Teacher four problem areas emerged: 'Communication', 'Planning', and 'Instruction'. Under the problem source of Student four problem areas were identified: 'Proficiency', 'Motivation', 'Learning', and 'Performance'. Under the Material problem source three problem areas emerged: 'Selectivity' 'Usability', and 'Suitability'. The problem source of Context included only one problem source, 'Accessibility'. The eleven problem areas were understood to represent the challenging interactions between or among the four problem sources.

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Session X

Corpus-based Language Learning and Teaching

[Venue: Room 221]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Moongee Jeon (Konkuk Univ.)			
15:00-15:25	**A Comparative Study on Two Corpus-based Teaching Approaches: Effectiveness between Direct or Indirect Approaches over Typical Vocabulary Teaching Approach in Developing Collocational Competence** Hyun-Jeong Nam · Hi Jean Kim (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Haedong Kim (Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)	Jae Suk Suh (Inha Univ.)
15:25-15:50	**Teaching English Articles in Lexical Bundles to L2 English Learners** Yu Kyoung Shin (Georgia State Univ.)	Young Sang Cho (Dankook Univ.)	On-Soon Lee (Korea Univ.)
15:50-16:00	Coffee Break		
[Session Chair] Seungbin Roh (Baekseok Univ.)			
16:00-16:25	**Translating Swearwords of English into Korean** Myongsu Park (Sangmyung Univ.)	Ji-Eun Lee (Woosong Univ.)	Chae Kwan Jung (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)
16:25-16:50	**An Analysis of Lexical Complexity of Korean Learners' L2 Writing** Eunkyung Hwang (Myongji Univ.)	Daekweon Bae (Gyeongnam National Univ. of Science & Technology)	Hi Jean Kim (Cyber Hankuk Univ. of Foreign Studies)

A Comparative Study on Two Corpus-based Teaching Approaches: Effectiveness between Direct or Indirect Approaches over Typical Vocabulary Teaching Approach in Developing Collocational Competence

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I. INTRODUCTION

With the emphasis on using corpora in language teaching, increasing attention has been drawn to its implication in the EFL classroom. Some profits of using corpus data for EFL learners are; 1) Data Driven Learning (DDL), 2) Collocational Competence 3) Contextual and Linguistic Awareness (Bernardini, 2004; Bloch, 2009; Johns, 1994; O'Sullivan & Chambers, 2006). In Korea, a considerable body of research has been conducted with this belief and shown learners' improvement in their writing skills, grammar comprehension, and vocabulary awareness.

Some of these prior studies examined the effectiveness of the direct use of concordancers while other studies investigated the indirect use of corpora, English textbooks or teacher-selected corpus data, not allowing students to use direct concordancers. Here, one question could arise: "Which is more effective for younger learners; direct or indirect corpus-based teaching approach?" Unfortunately, in Korea, there are only a few studies tried to answer this question (Jiyoon Hong & Hyunsook Yoon, 2013; Hyunsook Yoon & Jung Won Jo, 2014).

In the direct approach, students are given hands-on access to corpora (Romer, 2006). In the indirect approach, by contrast, students are given access to corpus-informed teaching materials such as corpus-based dictionaries, corpus-based grammar, and materials produced by a teacher (Hunston, 2002). Most researchers (Adel, 2010; Romer, 2006; Johns, 2002) agree that the ultimate goal of a corpus-informed class is to make learners use corpora and concordancers for true DDL. By this inductive nature of corpus investigation, however, it is often assumed that concordancing is more suitable for advanced-level students and especially those who "prefer unstructured and discovery-oriented learning" (Bloch, 2007). Threfore, for lower-level students, using corpus software is too difficult. Other researchers (Adel, 2010; Charles, 2007; Johns 2002; Boulton, 2010) also mentioned the needs of teachers' help or guidance.

In this regard, comparing the effectiveness of different types of corpus- based teaching approaches should precede the usage of corpus-informed lessons in EFL circumstances, especially in high school classrooms consisting of mixed-level learners. The aim of this investigation, accordingly, was to predict the benefits of corpus-based language teaching over the typical vocabulary teaching approaches, and to find out more effective corpus-based approach to develop the collocational competence of high school students.

II. METHODOLOGY

1. Research Questions

In order to compare the effectiveness of three different types of corpus approaches(traditional, direct corpus or indirect corpus approach), the following questions were identified. (1) Is it possible to make corpus-based, near-

synonym lessons for developing Korean high school students' collocational competence? (2) Based on (1), which of the teaching approaches is more effective in improving students' collocational competence in understanding and using near-synonyms? 1) Traditional lessons using ordinary dictionaries or corpus-informed lessons? 2) The direct approach (using web corpus directly) or the indirect corpus approach (using teacher produced corpus material)?

2. Participants

Eighty-two Korean EFL students in three different classes of a public high school participated in this study. Each class had mixed-level students who had never experienced corpus-based language teaching or collocation vocabulary lessons before. When they participated in this research, they already finished the first year of high school so that all of them had more than 7-year experience with Korean English education. Only the data from students who graduated from Korean elementary and middle schools and had no or less than one-year experience in abroad. The reason why they were chosen was that these students were expected to be with lower collocational competence in the chosen near-synonyms than others with experience in abroad or in corpus-informed lessons. Regardless of their levels, they were mostly interested in learning English and understood the importance of vocabulary learning.

3. Instruments

In this study, the participants were divided into three groups and provided twelve-period vocabulary lessons including pre- & post- tests and surveys.

Table 1
Different Sets of Materials in Each Group

Control Group with Typical Vocabulary Lessons	Experimental Group 1 with Direct Use of Corpus in Vocabulary Lessons	Experimental Group 2 with Indirect Use of Corpus in Vocabulary lessons
Ordinary Dictionaries **- YBM Sisa English-Korean Dictionary** **9th edition** **-** Neungyule Korean English Dictionary	**Direct Use of Free Web Corpus** - COCA(http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/) - FLAX(http://flax.nzdl.org/) - LEXTUTOR(http://www.lextutor.ca/)	**Teacher-selected Materials** - Examples from the Three Web Corpus - LDCE5(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 5th edition DVD/on-line) - MD(Macmillan Dictionary DVD/on-line)

As seen in Table 1, the three groups were as follows: 1) a control group with typical vocabualry lessons using an ordinary dictionary, 2) an experimental group 1 with students' direct use of concordancers, and 3) an experimental group 2 with teacher-selected corpus materials. In a sample of Korean high school EFL students (n=82) who participated in the three different versions of four-week vocabulary lessons. In table 1, three different sets of materials are used in each group: 1) Control group with ordinary dictionaries, 2) Direct group with free web corpus use, and 3) Indirect group with teacher-selected materials.
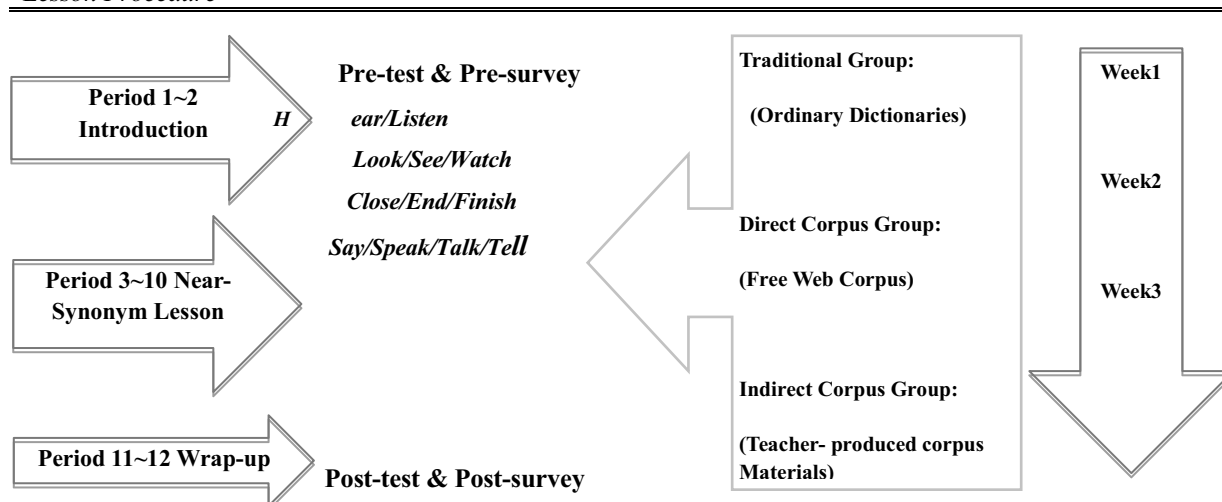
4. Procedure

Figure 1
Lesson Procedure

Figure 1 shows the twelve-period lesson procedure for three different groups in four weeks. Several sets of near-synonyms (*say/speak/talk/tell, hear/listen, look/see/watch, close/end/finish*) were selected to evaluate learners' collocational competence. To predicate the effectiveness of corpus-informed lessons over typical lessons, lessons for the control group were designed with examples from ordinary dictionaries. For comparing the effectiveness of the two different corpus approaches, another two groups were provided with corpus-informed lessons but with different materials. A specific lesson plan for each group is shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Lesson Plan

Control Group(Traditional)		Experimental Group 1(Direct Corpus)		Experimental Group 2(Indirect Corpus)	
Contents	Activities	Contents	Activities	Contents	Activities
Increasing Motivation (conscious-raising)	Learners guess correct word combination.	Increasing Motivation (conscious-raising)	Learners guess correct word combination.	Increasing Motivation (conscious-raising)	Learners guess correct word combination.
Drawing Attention to the Vocabulary (cloze test)	Learners complete the sentences with given words.	Drawing Attention to the Vocabulary (cloze test)	Learners complete the sentences with given words.	Drawing Attention to the Vocabulary (cloze test)	Learners complete the sentences with given words.
Lecture & Answer Check (Information from ordinary dictionaries)	With the ordinary dictionary, learners check the answers (cloze test).	**COCA (a free web concordancer)**	Learners log in COCA and search words and check the answers of the cloze test.	**Lecture & Answer Check (Information from LDCE5 & COCA)**	With a corpus-informed handout, learners check the answers (cloze test).
Writing Practice (Information from ordinary dictionaries)	With the ordinary dictionaries, learners check whether each sentence is correct or not.	**FLAX (a free web concordancer) & Writing Practice**	Learners search given words and sentences with FLAX and check whether each sentence is correct or not.	**Pattern Drill (Matching Collocations with Information from LDCE5 & FLAX)**	With a corpus-informed handout, learners match each word and expression.

Writing Practice2 (Cloze test and Guided writing)	With the example in the ordinary dictionaries, learners complete the given sentences.	Lextutor (a free web concordancer) & Writing Practice	Learners use Lextutor Concord Writer and check if their writing is correct or not.	Writing Practice (Guided writing)	With the information in the handout, learners complete the given sentences.
Assignment & Consolidation (Information from ordinary dictionaries)	Learners complete the handout composed of a pattern drill and guided writing.	Assignment & Consolidation (3 different fee web corpora)	Learners complete the handout composed of a pattern drill and guided writing.	Assignment & Consolidation (Corpus handout & web LDCE)	Learners complete the handout composed of a pattern drill and guided writing.

IV. FINDINGS

To compare the pretest achievement of the three groups, a t-test was conducted. As Table 3 indicates, there was no significant difference in pretest results for the traditional and direct group (p= .055).   Therefore these groups were accepted as homogeneous before the treatments. Also the traditional and indirect group showed homogeneity because the difference did not significantly differ (p> .05).

Table 3
Homogeneity of Each Group Variance

Group	N	M	SD	T-VALUE	P-VALUE
ADDITIONAL	28	19.14286	6.495681	-2.50668	0.055554
DIRECT	23	23.86957	6.654873		
TRADITIONAL	28	19.14286	6.495681	-0.88944	0.377506
INDIRECT	31	20.67742	6.512455		

Table 4
Test-Summary: Within-group Comparison

Group	Test	N	M	SD	SE	M2-M1	DF	T-VALUE	P-VALUE
DIRECT	Pre	23	23.870	6.655	6.804				
	Post	23	26.174	6.431	6.576	2.304	44	-1.168	0.249
INDIRECT	Pre	31	20.677	6.512	6.620				
	Post	31	25.871	4.784	4.863	5.194	60	-3.520	0.001
DIRECT+INDIRECT	Pre	54	22.037	6.760	6.824				
	Post	54	26.000	5.548	5.600	3.963	106	3.299	0.001
TRADITIONAL	Pre	28	19.143	6.496	6.615				
	Post	28	15.393	9.405	9.578	-3.750	54	1.705	0.094

Table 4 shows that the changes between pre- and post-test average scores in the direct group (P= .249> .05) was not significantly different. Also, there was no significant progress in the pre- and post- test mean results

(P= .094> .05) for the traditional group. However, the mean of the indirect group after the treatment is significantly changed (P=.001< .05), and only when two corpus groups were together the changes of mean scores are significant (P= .001< .05). The results of M2-M1 suggested that the indirect corpus lesson was the most effective in improving students' collocation competence (Indirect=5.194>Direct=2.304> Traditional=-3.75).

Table 5
Summary of ANOVA: Mean Change in Each Group

Group	N	M	V	P-VALUE
TRADITIONAL	28	-3.75	116.6389	0.0002
DIRECT	23	2.304348	52.58498	
INDIRECT	31	5.193548	18.69462	

In Table 5, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used to examine the significance of mean changes between groups, and there existed significant mean changes in the improvement of three groups (P= .0002< .05).

Table 6
Summary of ANOVA: T-test Result Between Traditional & Direct Group

	N	M	SD	T-VALUE	P-VALUE
TRADITIONAL	28	-3.75	10.60534	-2.38353	0.021239
DIRECT	23	2.304348	7.092156		

As Table 6 shows, the mean changes between the control group and the direct group were significantly differed. (P= .021239< .05).

Table 7
Summary of ANOVA: T-test Result Between Traditional & Indirect Group

	N	M	SD	T-VALUE	P-VALUE
TRADITIONAL	28	-3.75	10.60534	-4.09552	0.000237
INDIRECT	31	5.193548	4.253419		

There existed significant difference between mean changes of the control group and the indirect group as Table 7 indicated (P= .000237< .05).

Table 8
Summary of ANOVA: T-test Result Between Direct & Indirect Group

	N	M	SD	T-VALUE	P-VALUE
DIRECT	23	2.304348	7.092156	-1.69972	0.098593
INDIRECT	31	5.193548	4.253419		

Table 8 indicates that the difference between mean changes of the direct group and the indirect group was not significant (P= .098593> .05).

To sum, regardless of which corpus approach was adopted (direct or indirect), both corpus approaches proved more effective than traditional vocabulary lessons.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

With different corpus-based lesson plans, this study aimed to compare the effectiveness of three different types of corpus approaches (traditional, direct corpus or indirect corpus approach) for Korean high school students' comprehension and production of English near-synonyms. The findings were as follows. First, the mean changes between pre- and post-test of the control group indicated the students' misunderstanding of the near-synonyms by producing mistakes in the word collocation test and short writing test. Their average score in the post-test was lower than that in the pre-test (M2−M1= −3.75). Second, the students having either direct or indirect corpus informed lessons showed more progress than the students having typical vocabulary lessons. Third, comparing three groups, students with the indirect corpus approach showed the most significant changes in their comprehension and production (Indirect=5.194>Direct=2.304> Traditional=-3.75). Although the mean changes in the direct group and indirect group did not significantly differ (P=0.098593≥0.05), this study proved the efficiency of teacher guided corpus-based lessons.

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Teaching English Articles in Lexical Bundles to L2 English Learners

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I. INTRODUCTION

In Second language (L2) acquisition, there is a tradition that has emphasized the importance of learning sequences of three or more words that occur together more frequently than by chance. Such frequent word combinations, also called "lexical bundles," are defined as the most frequently recurring lexical sequences in a register (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). Because lexical bundles are fixed expressions consisting of certain linguistic items, their potential as a useful tool for teaching target forms that are embedded in them seems worth exploring. It has been observed that L2 learners have persistent difficulties with English articles across different proficiency levels (Liu & Gleason, 2002). Despite the ubiquity of such difficulties, articles are known to be hard to teach due to their complicated and non-salient nature. If, counter to the commonly held belief, article usage proves to be teachable to L2 learners by using lexical bundles, this finding would suggest an effective method for teachers to facilitate students' acquisition of articles.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Lexical Bundles and L2 English leaners

In L2 acquisition, a number of previous work has suggested that L2 learners can benefit from studying formulaic language (Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010). Some studies have suggested that the use of multiword sequences plays an essential role in the L2 acquisition of academic literacy in terms of both fluency and accuracy (e.g., Staples, Egbert, Biber, & McClair, 2013) because acquiring such sequences allows the learner to produce a whole string of words with "a single mental effort" (Hunston, 2002, p. 174).

Despite an increasing interest on lexical bundles, most of the studies have focused on L2 learners' frequency of use, almost no research has investigated accuracy rates or problematic target forms in the use of bundles in L2 English written work. In the investigation of learner errors with lexical bundles, articles deserve a close examination, as L2 learners may struggle to produce bundles correctly at least in part due to the embedded articles. English articles are notoriously difficult for L2 learners, especially those whose first language lacks an article system (e.g., Butler, 2002). However, to the best of my knowledge, no research has so far focused on L2 English learners' use of articles associated with lexical bundles.

2. Lexical-Bundle-Based Instruction

Only a handful of studies have recognized that lexical bundles should be explicitly taught (e.g., Cortes, 2006). It is because their forms are not predictable by grammatical rule and L2 learners tend not to notice the sequences they encounter (Salazar, 2014). However, despite growing interest in the role of lexical bundles in L2 classroom

settings, there has been almost no empirical investigation of how to teach them.

The very few existing studies (e.g., Jones & Wood, 2004) focused mainly on frequency rather than on how the learners actually used the bundles. They did not present learners' incorrect uses of the bundles, failing to provide any information about learners' problems with the target forms. In addition, they have focused on teaching lexical bundles as a whole, and none have attempted to teach any constituent items inside lexical bundles. Since lexical bundles provide learners with fixed expressions containing certain articles, lexical-bundle-based article instruction might enable learners to use articles with relative ease. The study attempts the use of lexical bundles to teach English articles.

III. METHOD

The participants were a total of 31 L2 English university students of two different proficiency levels: high-intermediate and low-intermediate. The study adopts an explicit instruction approach to raise the participants' awareness of the embedded articles in bundles. It consisted of explicit instruction and practice exercises that used core expressions extracted from target lexical bundles and focused on the core expressions' adjoining articles. The participants took three timed tests, in each of which they wrote sentences for 10 core expressions. Their accuracy rates were checked in terms of whether they used appropriate articles with core expressions in context. Two experiments were conducted: Experiment 1 compared two same-proficiency classes to examine instruction effects, and Experiment 2 compared lower and higher proficiency classes to examine proficiency effects. Independent t-tests were conducted to investigate any significant differences between groups, and paired-sample t-tests were conducted to look for significant differences within the groups.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Experiment 1 was examined whether explicit instruction using lexical bundles affects L2 learners' accuracy in the use of articles by comparing the test scores of two groups of learners of the same proficiency level (high-intermediate): a treatment group that received instruction and a control group that did not. Table 1 compares the two groups' scores on the three timed tests.

Table 1
Test scores of treatment and control groups

Tests	Treatment (n = 7)		Control (n = 12)		t	Sig.
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Pretest	5.57	2.76	5.12	2.08	0.336	0.743
Immediate posttest	8.43	2.76	5.5	2.24	3.779*	0.001
Delayed posttest	8.71	1.38	4.92	1.83	5.112*	0.000

Notes: p < .01. two-tailed, * indicates statistical significance.

As the table displays, the treatment group's mean scores increased from the pretest (M = 5.57, SD = 2.76) to the immediate posttest (M = 8.43, SD = 2.76) and then to the delayed posttest (M = 8.71, SD = 1.38), which demonstrates that they benefited from the lexical-bundle-based article instruction and retained their gains on the

delayed posttest, even improving slightly. On the other hand, the control group, which did not receive the instruction treatment, showed little improvement from the pretest (*M* = 5.12, *SD* = 2.08) to the posttest (*M* = 5.5, *SD* = 2.24), and scored even lower on the delayed posttest (*M* = 4.92, *SD* = 1.83) than on the pretest. Table 1 also gives the results of an independent *t*-test, which show that the differences in the two groups' scores on immediate and delayed posttests were significant ($p < .01$). These results indicate that the learners in the treatment group benefited from the instruction in terms of article uses and they retained the improvement, providing further evidence of the effectiveness of the lexical-bundle-based article instruction.

Experiment 2 examined whether the effects of lexical-bundle-based article instruction differ depending on learners' proficiency level. In order to answer this question, low-intermediate level learners were compared with the high-intermediate-level learners from Experiment 1. Table 2 compares the test scores of the two treatment groups. The results of an independent *t*-test show that, while the high-intermediate group generally showed higher scores than the low-intermediate group on the three tests, the difference was significant only for the immediate posttest. The considerable score differences on the immediate posttest indicate that the higher proficiency group outperformed the lower proficiency group right after the instruction. In order to investigate if the lower proficiency learners benefited from the instruction, their pretest and posttest scores were compared. The results of a paired samples *t*-test demonstrate that there was a significant effect of instruction between pretest and two posttests ($p < .05$) for the low-proficiency group.

Table 2
Test scores of high-intermediate and low-intermediate groups

Tests	Lower (*n* = 12)		Higher (*n* = 7)		*t*	Sig.
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Pretest	3	1.19	5.57	2.76	-2.338	0.051
Immediate posttest	5.67	1.67	8.43	2.76	-4.282*	0.000
Delayed posttest	4.33	1.23	8.71	1.38	-6.941	1.56

The results suggest that lexical bundles can be an effective pedagogical tool to teach article usage to L2 learners of varying proficiency levels. This is pedagogically meaningful and useful, as it shows that, counter to a widely held belief in the field of SLA, English articles are *teachable* even to lower level learners.

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Translating Swearwords of English into Korean

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I. INTRODUCTION

Swearing is a part of everyday language use (McEnery & Xiao, 2004) and a common feature of informal conversation (Fägersten, 2012). People swear at a rate of about one taboo word per 200 words (Love, n.d.) According to Jay (1992), people start swearing at the age of just 4 years old, and in adulthood, use around 0.7% of swearwords during the day. Swearwords also known as taboo words, cussing, cursing, bad words, or foul language, tend to be emotional words which easily attract people's attention and keep them in their brain.

Psychologically speaking, the reasons why we swear may include pain relief, power and control, non-violent retribution, humor, peer and social bonding, self-expression, and psychological and physical health (Burton, n.d.). From the perspective of EFL learners, as swearwords are a common, natural, and even sophisticated feature of informal conversation among native speakers, EFL learners may succumb to temptation of using swearwords to show off their EFL proficiency. It is often seen and heard that some EFL learners practice such swearwords to diversify their means of conveying emotion in English. Regardless of whether or not EFL learners should learn these swearwords and swearwords-based colloquial expressions, it is more than true that such words and expressions are an integral part of a language and an effective means of expressing emotion that otherwise would be hardly possible. That's why swearwords have been an intriguing topic in the fields of psychology, pragmatics, translation, and second/foreign language education.

Swearwords, commonly used in English movies, are one of the hot potatoes confronting translators as it is hardly easy to find an equivalent term in a target language. Translators are expected to have the skills to handle such challenging issues. The present research is aimed at 1) exploring how such English swearwords are translated into the target language of Korean and 2) identifying a protocol employed in translating swearwords into subtitles of movies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Definition and Types of Swearwords

Swearwords are defined as a profane or obscene oath or word (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). Swearwords, also known as profanity, bad language, foul language, vulgar words, cursing, cussing, or coarse language, are common in a daily language use among people even though they are often frowned upon and hardly recommended. These taboo words are a subset of a language's lexicon that is generally considered to be strongly impolite, rude, or offensive (Wikipedia, n.d.). A broad definition of swearing may include words like *God, Jesus, Christ,* and *Lord* if they were used in expressions such as *for God's sake* or *oh dear Lord* (Bednarek, 2014).

In a survey on the swearwords in 38 U.S. TV episodes, Bednarek (2014) revealed the top 10 list of swearwords: *fuck, god, hell, ass, shit, damn, bitch, piss, crap,* and *screw*, which was almost identical to the list by Greenspan (2010). Among these, only four swearwords—*god, hell, damn,* and *ass*—occurred at least half of the episodes. She categorized the swearwords by the origin and the following <Table 1> summarizes the thematic breakdown of the English swearwords.

Table 1
Thematic Categories of Swearwords

Origin of Swearwords	Pure Frequency	Number of Episodes
Religious (god, hell, damn, lord, Jesus, Christ)	308	37
Bodily excretion (piss, crap, shit)	115	24
Sexual activity (screw, fuck)	186	18
Taboo body part (ass, dick, prick)	97	21
Animal (bitch)	39	16

Based on the finding, Bednarek (2014) claimed that swearwords with religious origin were most frequent, followed by those with bodily excretions, sexual activity, and a taboo body part. The origin of English swearwords may also include racism (e.g. *nigger*), defecation (e.g. *shit*), and homophobia (e.g. *queer*) which were mentioned in the study by McEnery and Xiao (2004). More recently, Mohr (2013) claimed that taboo language generally originated from blasphemy of Christianity or obscenity related to sex and bodily functions. Among these swearwords, not all of them are abusive and offensive as the so-called "light swearwords" such as *oh, my god* and *Jesus Christ* would not offend others.

As these swearwords are hardly uncommon in authentic materials such as movies or dramas, the Motion Picture American Association (MPAA) considers a density of swearwords as one of the parameters in determining the rating of a film (Thompson & Yokota, 2004 cited in Manchön, 2013).

2. Corpus-based Studies on the Use of Swearwords

Since 1961 when the Brown corpus, the first computer-based corpus, made its debut, an increasing number of scholars have used corpora in their studies on various linguistic features. As the corpus approach is empirical, analyzing the actual patterns of language use in natural texts (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998), researchers have applied the approach to their investigation of the usage of swearwords in authentic materials (Allan & Burridge, 2006; Esbensen, 2009; McEnery, 2005; McEnery & Xiao, 2004; Farr, 2008; Sapolsky & Kaye, 2005; Stenström, Anderson, & Hasund, 2002; Williamsson, 2009).

Stenström et al. (2002) built the Corpus of London Teenage Language (COLT) by recording teenage conversations with their siblings, friends, teachers, and parents. Based on the data from the teenagers, Stenström

et al. (2002) found that swearing is the most salient feature of the teenage talk. They found the following pragmatic and grammatical type functions of the teenagers' swearing:

- Intensifiers: It's ***bloody difficult*** innit?

- Abusives: And listen to this ***you fucking bastard***

- Expletives: Oh, ***bloody hell***, this is giving me a headache
(Stenström et al., 2002, p. 80)

In their study, they also found that *fuck* was the most frequent in the COLT while *bloody* is in the British National Corpus (BNC). Interestingly, McEnery and Xiao (2004) used the BNC to explore the distribution of the expletive *fuck*. Claiming that there is still no systematic account of swearwords in English, they examined only the pattern of uses of *fuck* in the BNC. They found the swearword *fuck* to be one of the most versatile in the English language across sociolinguistic variables of age, gender, and social class. By gender, they claimed that males swore more frequently than female and by age, young people and teenagers used certain swearwords such as *fuck* more frequently than people from other age group. In particular, those who left school at age fifteen to sixteen were the most frequent users of *fuck*.

III. RESEARCH MEHODS

1. Corpus

The researcher used the Corpus of American Soap Operas (SOAP)[1] to investigate the target swearwords. SOAP consists of 100 million words with more than 22,000 transcripts from 10 different soap operas as shown in <Figure 1>. The corpus was created in 2012 by Mark Davies at Brigham Young University. It is available at http://corpus2.byu.edu/soap. Compared with the spoken section of COCA and the BNC, SOAP contains more informal words and phrases as it is based on the scripted soap operas (Davies, 2012).
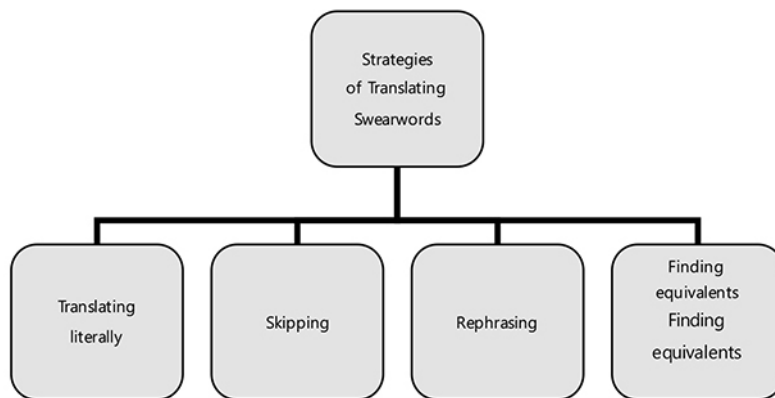
2. Target Swearwords

As aforementioned, the English language has many different kinds of swearwords used by native speakers. The present study, however, focused on 12 swearwords which is chiefly based on the 11 popular swearwords listed by Greenspan (2010) as the list is most recent one based on the relatively recent authentic materials of the U.S. TV programs. In addition, *bloody*, the most common swearword in BNC, was also included. The target swearwords are *fuck, hell, ass, damn, bitch, shit, penis (vagina and other genitals), crap, screw, suck, piss,* and *bloody*.

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[1] More detailed description of the Corpus of American Soap Operas (SOAP) is available at the following URL:. http://corpus2.byu.edu/soap/overview_detailed.asp.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 summarizes strategies used in translating swearwords into a target language.

Figure 1

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An Analysis of Lexical Complexity of Korean Learners' L2 Writing

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I. INTRODUCTION

In the last three decades, linguistic complexity has been broadly explored in a wide variety of contexts as a critical indicator to measure language learners' performance in areas of second language acquisition (SLA) studies. In particular, syntactic complexity has been regarded as a reliable index that manifests the level of grammatical complexity of second language (L2) learners by measuring their written or spoken performance, such as the degree of coordination or subordination structures. In comparison with syntactic complexity, lexical complexity has been neither widely investigated, nor deeply paid attention in SLA studies.

However, in the overall development of linguistic features across L2 proficiency levels, the dimension of the lexical complexity is still particularly unclear and incompletely examined (Hulstijn, 2007). In the case of Korea, even lexical complexity is quite new terminology in the SLA research area. There are few previous studies that investigated the lexical sophistication or lexical variation of Korean EFL secondary school students (Jin-Seok Kim, 2006; Dongkwang Shin, Yuah Chon, & Heejin Kim, 2011); however, research measuring the entirety of the dimensions of lexical complexity of Korean EFL learners is scarce and not quite fully examined yet.

At this point, extensive investigation into the lexical complexity of Korean EFL learners seems to be needed to suggest standards of the lexical complexity. For this reason, the current study aimed to investigate the level of lexical complexity of Korean EFL college learners' written performances. In order to do so, the narrative genre of writing was used because it is a widely used genre in any context and provides writers with chances to arrange specific events using any language (Berman & Slobin, 1994). In addition, levels of lexical complexity were compared across L2 writing proficiency levels. Within the theoretical framework, the current study attempts to seek to answer the following research question: Is there a significant progressive tendency of lexical complexity as L2 writing proficiency increases? Which sub-variables of lexical complexity show significant trends?

II. MEHTODOLOGY

1. Setting and Participants

The participants in the present study were 319 Korean female college students in Seoul, Korea. They were from 18 classes and consisted of 19 different majors at S Women's University. Their average age was 21.3 years. Among a total 319 participants, 194 (60.82%) were freshmen, 28 (8.78%) were sophomores, 48 (15.05%) were juniors, and 49 (15.36%) were seniors. 130 (41.94%) out of 310 participants had official English test scores such as TOEFL, TOEIC, or TEPS. 149 (48.06%) out of 310 participants responded that they had experiences abroad in English-speaking countries. Among them, 71 (47.65%) out of 149 participants did so for travel purposes: 40 (26.85%) participants did so for study purposes: 25 (16.87%) participants did so for family business purposes:

13 (11.40%) participants did so for other purposes.

2. Scoring of Writing Test

Through the test-web site, the participants wrote a narrative essay on an assigned topic that was selected from the college preparation level on Criterion, an online writing evaluation service provided by Educational Testing Services (ETS). After completing the test, all the submitted essays were rated on a holistic score from one to six by the e-rater® engine (ETS, 2007). The number of those participants who received scores 1 (No. = 10, 3.1%) and 6 (No. = 1, 0.3%) was too small to have statistical significance, so they were combined with adjacent scores, 2 and 5, respectively. 69 (21.63%) of these 319 participants receiving scores 1 or 2 in the test were classified as beginner, 122 (38.24%) receiving score 3 were listed as intermediate, 108 (33.86%) receiving score 4 were categorized as high-intermediate, and 20 (6.27%) receiving scores 5 or 6 were classified as advanced. The mean score (M) of the given written data is 3.22 and standard derivation (SD) is 0.93.

3. Measurements of Lexical Complexity

In order to explore the lexical complexity, the L2 Lexical Complexity Analyzer was used. This is a web-based program that accepts an English text as input and computes 25 indices of lexical complexity of the text (Lu, 2012). In the L2 Lexical Complexity Analyzer, lexical words were defined as nouns, adjectives, verbs (excluding modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, "be", and "have"), and adverbs. In addition, sophisticated words are defined as not on the list of the 2,000 most frequent words generated from the BNC (Leech, Rayson, & Wilson, 2001). Using the program, all nine measures, which are sub-variables of lexical density (LD), lexical sophistication (LS1, LS2), and lexical variation (NDW, NDWERZ, TTR, STTR, CTTR, RTTR), were calculated automatically.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. General Information of the Written Data

Table 1 shows the general information about the learner corpus analyzed by WordSmith 6.0. This program provides the number of tokens and types, and mean (M) and standard deviation (SD), regarding a whole group or four different levels of a group. The learner corpus consists of 319 written texts and contains a total of 87, 921 words, and the texts range from 69 to 710 words in length (M = 275.08, SD = 109.27).

Table 1
The Learner Corpus

Level	No. Texts	Tokens	Types	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Total	319	87,921	5,233	275.08	109.27	69	710
4	20	10,578	1,743	513.95	97.99	187	710
3	108	37,511	3,233	345.80	65.28	181	653

2	122	28,710	2,693	234.62	36.67	215	499
1	69	11,067	1,462	156.30	41.94	69	277

Note. Level: 1=beginner; 2=intermediate; 3=high-intermediate; 4=advanced

Table 2 indicates the basic description of all nine sub-variables on the lexical complexity: lexical density (LD), lexical sophistication (LS1, LS2), and lexical variation (NDW, NDWERZ, TTR, STTR, CTTR, RTTR).

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of the Lexical Complexity

	Sub-Variable	Mean	SD	Min.	Max.
Lexical Density	LD	0.42	0.03	0.34	0.53
Lexical Sophistication	LS1	0.19	0.06	0.04	0.49
	LS2	0.22	0.04	0.09	0.38
Lexical Variation	NDW	132.0	38.5	50.0	293.0
	NDWERZ	38.70	1.87	31.80	43.20
	TTR	0.47	0.07	0.30	0.76
	STTR	0.75	0.04	0.64	0.84
	CTTR	5.49	0.69	3.67	7.69
	RTTR	7.76	0.98	5.18	10.87

2. Correlation between Writing Scores and Lexical Complexity

In order to examine correlations between writing scores and each lexical complexity measure, Spearman's correlation coefficient was calculated for statistical analysis. As seen in Table 3, lexical density (LD) and lexical sophistication (LS1, LS2) did not show any correlation with L2 writing scores at a statistically significant level. On the other hand, all six measures of lexical variation (NDW, NDWERZ, TTR, STTR, CTTR, RTTR) were correlated with writing scores at a statistically significant level ($p < .01$).

This finding indicates that NDW shows the highest positive correlation with writing scores among the lexical complexity measures. However, NDW is not a type of ratio measure, but a frequency measure. That is to say, NDW is affected by the length of text, and thus could give different results of correlation with written data, which were produced in different time allotments. In this case, CTTR and RTTR, which were indicated as the second highest correlation with writing scores, are considered as the standard yardsticks to judge correlation because they provide consist results, regardless of different length of written texts.

Table 3
Correlation Coefficient Between Writing Scores and Lexical Complexity

LD	LS1	LS2	NDW	NDWERZ	TTR	STTR	CTTR	RTTR

-.01	.00	-.08	88[b]	33[b]	-.58[b]	.31[b]	.65[b]	.65[b]

Note. Spearman correlation. [a]$p < .05$, [b]$p < .01$ (2-tailed)

3. Tendency of Lexical Complexity across L2 Writing Proficiency Levels

Table 4 presents the mean score (M) and standard deviation (SD) on each lexical complexity measure and indicates whether there are significant progressive trends among groups as L2 writing proficiency increases, using one-way ANOVA (p for Trend $< .05$). Similar to the results of correlation in Table 5, lexical density (LD) and lexical sophistication (LS1, LS2) did not show any significant patterns across L2 proficiency groups. To be specific, the ratios of usage of content words in the BNC word list and the ratios of usage of sophisticate words, which did not belong to the 1,000 or 2,000 most frequent words in the BNC word list, did not increase across L2 writing proficiency groups.

Table 4
Group Means and Standard Deviations on Lexical Complexity

Measure	Mean(SD)				P for Trend
	Beginner (N=69)	Intermediate (N=122)	High-intermediate (N=108)	Advanced (N=20)	
LD	0.43(0.04)	0.42(0.04)	0.42(0.03)	0.43(0.03)	.652
LS1	0.20(0.08)	0.19(0.06)	0.19(0.05)	0.21(0.04)	.504
LS2	0.23(0.05)	0.22(0.04)	0.21(0.03)	0.24(0.04)	.201
NDW	89.43(15.6)	120.0(15.2)	156.4(20.6)	219.9(32.1)	<.001
NDWERZ	37.68(2.13)	38.60(1.65)	39.21(1.67)	40.05(1.34)	<.001
TTR	0.53(0.07)	0.48(0.05)	0.44(0.05)	0.40(0.03)	<.001
STTR	0.72(0.05)	0.75(0.04)	0.75(0.03)	0.78(0.03)	<.001
CTTR	4.84(0.48)	5.37(0.49)	5.82(0.54)	6.64(0.56)	<.001
RTTR	6.85(0.67)	7.59(0.69)	8.24(0.77)	9.39(0.79)	<.001

Note. *P*-value was obtained by one-way ANOVA.

IV. CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to examine the lexical complexity in narrative writing, which was produced by Korean EFL college learners. In order to unfold the levels of lexical complexity, 319 written data were analyzed by nine measures on three dimensions (lexical density, lexical sophistication, lexical variation) of the lexical complexity and were compared using Spearman's correlation and a series of one-way ANOVA tests with respect to writing proficiency levels to answer the research questions.

Statistical results indicated that only lexical variation measures (NDW, NDWERZ, TTR, STTR, CTTR, RTTR) were correlated with L2 writing scores and showed significant progress tendency as L2 writing proficiency increases. On the other hand, lexical density (LD) and lexical sophistication (LS1, LS2) measures did not show any correlation with writing scores and any significant tendency as L2 writing proficiency increased. Through the results of multiple comparison tests, lexical variation measures (NDW, NDWERZ, TTR, STTR, CTTR, RTTR) showed statistically significant differences, but lexical density (LD) and lexical sophistication (LS1) did not show differences among four writing proficiency levels. Based on the results of lexical variation, the current study supports the previous studies which concluded that the more proficient L2 writers are, the more various vocabulary are found in their writings than less proficient L2 writers (Lu, 2012; Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998).

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Session XI

Curriculum/Material Development

[Venue: Room 223]

Time	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)	Moderator	Discussant
[Session Chair] Miran Yang (Dong-Ah Institute of Media & Arts)			
15:00-15:25	**Bridging the General English Education Divide: Textbook Development for Career Oriented English Course** Eun Hye Song (Soongsil Univ.)	Nak-bok Kim (Korea Nazarene Univ.)	Young-Mee Suh (Incheon National Univ.)
15:25-15:50	**Student Satisfaction: Issues in English Language Teaching** Peter Carter (Kyushu Sangyo Univ.)	Eunsook Shim (Sangi Univ.)	Junyoung Lee (Republic of Korea Naval Academy)
15:50-16:00	Coffee Break		
[Session Chair] Sung Hye Kim (Korea Institute for Curriculum & Evaluation)			
16:00-16:25	**Reflective Practices of Teachers' Adopting and Using English Textbooks** Jeong-ryeol Kim (Korea National Univ. of Education)	Bok-Myung Chang (Namseoul Univ.)	Bo Kyoung Lee (Myongji Univ.)
16:25-16:50	**A Meta-analysis of the Effects of Motivation on L2 Learning** Unkyoung Maeng (Ajou Univ.)	Kyeong-Hee Rha (Chungbuk National Univ.)	Yu Kyoung Shin (Georgia State Univ.)

Bridging the General English Education Divide:
Textbook Development for Career Oriented English Course

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Soongsil University

I. ABSTRACT

The present study aims to develop and design ESP textbook materials, CTE (Career Track English) for Professional Communication Skills, integrated with common knowledge terms in various areas. This textbook is not only for students to prepare for job oriented common knowledge test but also to practice English presentation and interview that are based on content knowledge. The areas of the common knowledge include economics, law, public administration, business, finance, etc. The textbook is also designed to practice both English reading, writing and speaking skills. This ESP textbook development model could show convergence text materials for general college English education curriculum.

II. SAMPLE TEXTBOOK MATERIALS

1. Textbook Contents

1) Unit 1 – Job preparation & Korean Personal Statement
2) Unit 2 – Logical English writing (Topic sentence, Supporting sentences, Concluding sentence)
3) Unit 3 – Logical English reading, writing & speaking (Presentation for Common Knowledge Terms)
4) Unit 4 – Online Application Form (English Version of Personal Statement)
5) Unit 5 – Common Interview Questions
6) Unit 6 – Random Interview Questions

2. Sample Reading for Common Knowledge Terms

1) Business Administration – Marketing Buzz

Marketing buzz refers to the act of creating interest or excitement over the anticipation of some sort of product by using various marketing strategies. For example, movie trailers creating a marketing buzz for a movie by getting people interested in the movie long before it will be shown in theaters.

2) Economics – Spillover Effects

Spillover effects refer to the economic happenings in one area that have an effect on something unrelated. For example, trading between countries had such a huge economic benefit that many countries decided to not only trade but also form alliances to benefit those countries in numerous other ways as well.

3) Law – Whistleblower

Whistleblower (also whistle-blower) refers to a person who discloses illegal activity going on at a company or organization. For example, someone who works at a nuclear powerplant may leak a secret that the company has been dumping its waste into the ocean illegally.

III. SAMPLE CLASS ACTIVITIES

1. Writing

Write a summary of the term (Topic Sentence: Topic+Controlling idea).

2. Speaking

Share your summaries with your group members to fill out the table.

3. Lecture about Presentation Material Design and Effective Presentation Skills

4. Students' Presentation Practice

Individually, research one of the terms in the table. Think about the origin of the term and how each term is applicable to our life. Then prepare a presentation based on your research and considering effective presentation skills that you have learned so far. Share your summaries with your group members to fill out the table. The preparation of the presentation content should include the following:

- Meaning of the term in Korean
- Meaning in English from the Internet site
- My Own English Paragraph
  A. Topic sentence: Topic + Controlling idea
  B. Supporting sentences: 3~ 5 sentences
  C. Concluding sentence: Topic sentence

5. Students' Content Knowledge Interview Practice

Explain the specific term.

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APPENDIX 1

Sample Common Knowledge Terms for Presentation in Different Areas

Areas	Difficulty Level 1
Mass Media	Flash Mob, Gatekeeping
Psychology	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Broken Windows Theory, Bandwagon Effect etc.

Law	In Dubio Pro Reo, Miranda Rights, etc.
Politics	Swing Voter, Gerrymandering, etc.
Business Administration	Black Friday, Blue Ocean, Marketing Buzz, etc.
Economics	Veblen Effect, Big Mac Index, etc.

APPENDIX 2

Sample Common Knowledge Terms for Presentation in Different Areas

Areas	Difficulty Level 1	Difficulty Level 2
Economics	Robin Hood tax Rough patch, etc.	Double-dip recession (= W-shaped recession) Lorenz curve, etc.
Business Administration	Bluesumer, Loss leader Pareto's law, The long tail law, etc.	Taylor system by Frederick Winslow Taylor X-Y theory by Douglas McGregor Market portfolio, Derivative(s), etc.
Finance	Blue chips Window dressing, etc.	Day trading Usance bill, etc.
Law	Plea bargaining Prisoner's dilemma, etc.	Punitive damage Double jeopardy, etc.
Public Administration	Displacement effect or Threshold effect Wagner's law Baumon's disease, etc.	The study of administration by Thomas Woodrow Wilson, etc.

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Student Satisfaction: Issues in English language teaching

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I. INTRODUCTION

Many countries have now adopted nationwide surveys of student satisfaction as part of a movement to ensure quality standards at universities. As institutional rankings, budgets, and staffing levels are in part tied to students' reported levels of satisfaction, it has become increasingly important for university teachers to understand what drives satisfaction, and how its conditions can be created. This paper has two purposes: to highlight the theoretical underpinnings of student satisfaction as a construct, and then to show results from a qualitative study aiming to understand satisfaction as it pertains to English language students and their language education in a university program lasting three years.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The research evidence for providing students in higher education with a satisfying environment is impressive, with benefits to the students, their institutions, and society as a whole. For example, at the undergraduate level, when compared to their less satisfied peers, satisfied students are more productive (Cotton, Dollard, & de Jonge, 2005), demonstrate higher levels of persistence (Harvey & Drew, 2006), better integration into the workforce after graduation (Vaastra & De Vries, 2007), and greater success for those who go on to graduate school (Ostergaard & Kristensen, 2005).

Many of these findings came from studies influenced by earlier research into student satisfaction that was focused on learners' overall experience and highly contextualized to their institutions, thus allowing faculty to see what students thought and how to improve. Early proponents of understanding students' levels of satisfaction noted that we need to understand the students' experience if we are to teach them well (Straw, 1994). Indeed, researchers who initially addressed the question of student satisfaction used the term "Total Student Experience" to encapsulate the concept, defined as "all aspects of engagement of students with higher education" (Harvey, Burrows, & Green, 1992, p.1). However, by 2005 reporting student satisfaction at the national level had become a matter of course in many countries (Richardson, 2005), and thus instruments to assess satisfaction were routinely provided to students upon graduation. The main benefit of such an approach is that it supposedly allows prospective students to compare institutions; however, the fact that surveys such as the National Student Survey in the UK and the University Experience Survey in Australia take a one size fits all approach has led to criticisms that they lack sophistication (Lawson, Leach, & Burrows, 2012), and may not really be measuring satisfaction at all (Dean & Gibbs, 2015).

At the undergraduate level, satisfaction is often seen as a metaphor, as students are likened to some role usually encountered in the business world. The three most common examples are students as customers, students as investors, and students as employees. The student as customer paradigm is very familiar (Finney & Finney, 2010); their tuition is the equivalent of the money a shopper pays for some goods or service. Due to this financial interest, the institution is at risk of loss if the student is dissatisfied with his "purchase". In contrast, the investment model focuses on the students' time and effort as a cost, rather than a literal monetary one (Hatcher, Kryter, Prus, & Fitzgerald, 1992). It states that students will weigh their options in terms of likely benefit to them before they take action. This model goes some way to explaining how students see required classes and demanding teachers. The final model, "happy-productive", suggests that students are similar to workers in a company. If they are satisfied with the learning environment - like employees with pleasant working conditions - they will produce better work and be less likely to change institution or quit.

Students in their first year at the university study a common curriculum, selecting a major from the start of second grade. The English Communication Course accepts up to 24 students per year, and students wishing to enter must pass an interview before being allowed to join. Although the course is a popular choice among students, neither Japan nor the university itself have any required surveys on program-level satisfaction. In fact, the only gauge of whether students are satisfied or not is via surveys given at the end of each course. In other words, not only are academic subjects are treated in isolation, but also the same survey is used for every class at the university regardless of student grade, major, or whether the class is required or elective.

The issue of satisfaction throughout a multi-year program is too complex to be completely understood in one study, and thus needs to be broken down into stages. We know that students change over time, and that early years of their university education are vital to their success (Harvey & Drew, 2006), but also that students nearer graduation have the most to teach us (Richardson, 2005) about their experiences. We thus decided to work backwards by creating a 4th grade survey, and extending that each year to one grade below. Table 1 shows the stages by which we hope to create a longitudinal, contextual study of our students' satisfaction.

Table 1

Three stages in creating a longitudinal study of student satisfaction

Stage	Year	Participants	Focus
1	2013-14	4th grade	Drivers of satisfaction
2	2014-15	4th grade & 3rd grade	3rd grade drivers. 4th grade, drivers, individual definitions of satisfaction, and model recognition.
3	2015-17	2nd grade as cohort	Tracked longitudinally from 2nd grade to graduation

III. METHOD

The 1st stage study was a pilot conducted with 12 students, comprising half of the cohort in a purposeful sample which matched the gender balance of the course (Carter, Kakimoto, & Miura, 2014). A survey with one biographical item (gender), and nine items relating to teaching quality, student participation, or course value was created and distributed online to the participants. Each item allowed for students to write as little or as much as they wanted as a response, and four of the nine items also included a four-point Likert-type scale.

For the second stage, the 3rd and 4th grade surveys were distributed to all students in those respective years. To learn about their definitions of satisfaction and views on the three satisfaction models, the authors independently rated each 4th grade student in terms of their engagement with their education. The ratings employed were as follows: 1 = low engagement, 2 = average engagement, and 3 = above average engagement. After collating our ratings we contacted one male and one female student from each of the three groups; in all cases each teacher had rated the students at the same engagement level.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A qualitative analysis of the first stage data found that the areas of teaching quality, participation, and course value were all strong drivers of satisfaction, that is, they had the ability to increase or decrease students' level of satisfaction with the course. In addition to these three, four other drivers were uncovered, namely: the quality of the relationships formed; the richness of the course content; a sense of continuity in one's studies; and the opportunities the course offers (Carter, Kakimoto, & Miura, pp. 61-62). In total, then, the pilot study found seven drivers of student satisfaction that teachers have some influence on.

Halfway through the second stage of the project we can say that 4th grade students report stages in their development as they move through the program. As new 1st grade students, they state, there was a strong sense that the customer service model was familiar to them due to campus tours, orientation week, and interactions with non-teaching staff. Students reported that by the 2nd semester of first grade a majority of that this model was now less attractive to them, and that - due to the influence of 1st semester grades - the investment model made more sense. Both students with below average engagement reported that this was the extent of their feeling towards their learning environment. The happy-productive model did not make sense to them, and they could not say that they had ever experienced anything other than a customer-service or investment attitudes. The other four students each recognized the happy-productive model, with the two more engaged students claiming that it closely matched their experiences after they joined the course in 2nd grade.

V. CONCLUSION

With only one question directly addressing student satisfaction (Lawson, Leach, & Burrows, 2012), instruments such as the National Student Survey, completed after students have graduated, clearly lack enough context to enable meaningful educational improvement at the program level. Surveys that treat classes as isolated cases also cannot wholly account for factors that students care about. Although the approach we have taken will require time, it will at least allow us to understand more of the total student experience than we currently do.

It was interesting to note that preliminary findings suggest that the three models of satisfaction are not as discrete as their respective researchers suppose. In fact, it appears that for English language learners there may be a continuum from customer-service to happy-productive, along which students progress over time; such progression being mediated by their level of engagement. If this is true, one implication for second language teachers is that creating learning experiences that facilitate easier or earlier movement away from customer-service thinking and toward a more happy-productive disposition would be desirable.

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Inter-sequential Issues of the Revised English Curricula

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I. INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

1. Historical Perspective

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

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

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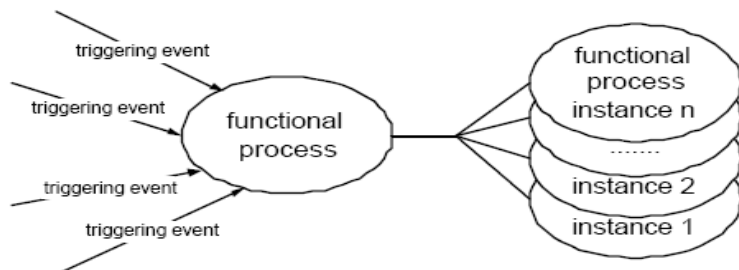
II. DIFFICULTY OF FUNCTIONAL SEQUENCE

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

The English textbooks dealt communicative functions in such a way that the functions were introduced along with triggering events of the season such as introducing *greetings* and *introductions* at the beginning of the school year, *sharing experiences* after vacations and *speaking of future plans* at the end of school year etc. The

textbook authors think of triggering events of functional processes and embed the linguistic expressions around the event so that the functional process is a natural composite of event and expressions. Figure 1 illustrates that events trigger functional process, and the functional processes are accumulated to the stack of functional instances.

Figure 1

Functional Sequence

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

III. DIFFICULTY OF FUNCTIONAL CONTINUITY

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

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

Figure 2

Organization of Functional Continuity

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

[Function B: a repeated communicative function]
A: *Let's go and play soccer outside.*
B: *Sure. Let's go.*

[Function A: a new function 'apology']
[Triggering Event: They play soccer and the ball hits a girl sitting on the bench]
A: *I'm sorry.*
Girl: *That's Okay.*

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

IV. DIFFICULTY OF FUNCTIONAL INTEGRATION

Integration of curriculum has been a topic of discussion since the turn of the 20th century. Over the last hundred years, theorists offered three basic categories of integration (NCTE, 1935): incidental integration of language with content (multidisciplinary), a qualitative integration of language and content (interdisciplinary) and the unification of language and experiences (transdisciplinary).

Integration of new knowledge and skills to the learner's life is a key element to the education to make it useful and meaningful. In a sense it's why we do education to make a sense of what we do and what we do with the new learning. The difficulty of communicative functions and their expressions, some call it practical English, is that the learning does not bear any relevance to the students' daily life unless they go to the private language institutes where native speakers talk to them in practical English they've learned at schools. To make relevance between English learning and students' daily life, the EFL setting requires teachers to make an extra effort of the integration to happen in the students' life.

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

1.Teachers and students select a topic of study based on student interests, curriculum standards, and local resources.

2.The teacher finds out what the students already know and helps them generate questions to explore. The teacher also provides resources for students and opportunities to work in the field.

3. Students share their work with others in a culminating activity. Students display the results of their exploration and review and evaluate the project.

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

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

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Motivation and L2 Proficiency: A meta-analysis.

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Ajou University

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is a key factor in successful second language (L2) learning. It is an individual factor which fosters learners to persist long enough to master L2 regardless of their language aptitude or cognitive characteristics (Dornyei, 2001a; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Crooks and Schmidt (1991) also state that many instructors consider the motivation level of learners the most important factor for successful learning instruction. Motivation has cognitive, affective, and behavioral characteristics, and it also interacts with the students' learning environments. It mainly explains why people decide to do something and how hard and how long they are going to pursue it and sustain the activity (Dornyei, 2001a). As Gardener (2010) mentions, motivation is complex and multidimensional, with cognitive, affective, behavioral, and social characteristics.

During the past decades, a great deal of research has been conducted to investigate the relationship between motivational variables and L2 achievement. Some studies proved the direct and positive relationships among them (Dornyei & Clement, 2001; Gardner, 2006; Noels, 2001). Other studies reports that only some factors of motivation are related to L2 achievement (Oller et al. 1977; Yahima, 2000; Chen et al., 2005; Pae, 2008; Burkolter, Kluge, Sauer, & Ritzmann, 2009). With these inconclusive results, it is difficult to ascertain the overall motivation on L2 proficiency relationship. Furthermore, comprehensive meta-analyses of the research in this area have been sparsely conducted despite the vast amount of primary data.

The purpose of the study is, therefore, to provide an overall picture of the relationships and effects of motivation on L2 proficiency in the Korean school context by synthesizing the results of previous quantitative research conducted in Korea. The study also examines what moderate variables were considered in the studies and how they associated with the effect/relationship of motivation on L2 proficiency.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation has drawn a considerable amount of attentions in L2 learning, as it is difficult for unmotivated students to accomplish such a long-term goal (Madrid, 2002). Like the area of motivational psychology, scholars highlight the importance of L2 motivation and try to explain it from diverse aspects (Brown, 2007; Dornyei, 2005, 2001a, 2001b; Dornyei & Schmidt, 2001). Dornyei (1994) proposed a framework of L2 motivation and it constructs three levels of L2 motivation components and Dorney (2000, 2001) divides classroom practice into three phases: choice motivation (preactional stage), executive motivation (actional stage), and motivational retrospection phases (postactional stage). Crookes and Schmidt (1991), on the other hand, suggest four levels of motivation to explain the L2 motivation; a) the micro level deals with motivational effects on the cognitive processing of L2 stimuli; b) the classroom level is associated with techniques and activities in motivational terms deriving from Keller's conceptualization; c) the syllabus level is related with content decisions based on needs analysis; and d) extracurricular level is related to informal, out-of-class and long term factors and

continuing motivation. William and Burden (1997) further distinguish L2 motivational constructs by contextual influences: internal and external factors. Reflecting on the recent environmental shift in L2 education, Dornyei(2005, 2009) suggested the L2 motivational self-system. He claims that the concept of Gardner's integrativeness does not directly applied to EFL context and instead of this concept he proposed the concept of L2 motivational self system.

Recently some research attempted to identify and summarize the motivation constructs relevant to academic achievement (Martin, 2008; Murphy & Alexander, 2000; Pintrich, 2003). A meta-analysis study summarized the previous research and provided 11 constructs: goals, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, interest, self-efficacy, agency/control beliefs, attributions, perceptions of competence, and valuing (Wagner & Szamoskozi, 2012).

III. METHOD

Multiple data bases were used to find the relevant studies for the present meta-analysis: DBpia, Kiss, KYOBO Scholar, RISS, and NADL (National Assembly Digital Library). Studies between 2000 and 2014 were searched for with the following key words: motivation, learning motivation, and English learning motivation.

Abstracts of 145 studies were screened and 115 non-quantitative studies were excluded. As a result, the full text of 30 studies that seemed eligible was further examined for the information necessary for the present meta-analysis. Among the 30 studies, 13 studies were excluded because some of them did not report sufficient statistical information to calculate effect sizes. Finally 17 published journal articles were included in the present meta-analysis. Study names, statistical information, and main and moderator variables were coded into the Comprehensive Meta-Analysis software, and effect sizes were calculated by computing Heges' g (Borenstein et al., 2009).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Among 17 studies 9 studies were directly falls into the category to compute the motivation and L2 proficiency relationship. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of Korean students' and Japanese students' L2 communication anxiety, perceived L2 competence, L2 WTC, and actual L2 competence.

Table 1
Overall Average Effect Size of Motivation on L2 Proficiency (MoL2P)

Model			95% CI			Heterogeneity			
	k	ES	Lower limit	Upper limit	p	Q	df (Q)	p	I^2
Fixed effects	9	.688	.5765	.7995	.000	50.566	8	.000	84.179
Random effects	9	.603	.3009	.9069	.000				

The value of Q is 50.566, which is statistically significant. This means homogeneity does not exist among the primary studies used to calculate the overall effect size of MoL2P. Thus, a random effects model is more reliable for computing the effect size of MoL2P. The significant overall effect size (ES) of MoL2P is .603. This overall ES

represents a medium effect on Cohen's scale (1988).

Moderator analyses were also conducted and the effects of MoL2P for subgroups of studies, and the results are presented in Table 2 and 3. The values of $Q_{Between}$ in Table 2 indicate that the effect size of MoL2P of each school level is not different from each other.

The results of Table 3 show that the constructs of motivation that studies considered. 10 constructs of motivation that are mostly measured are extrinsic motivation, instrumental motivation, overall motivation, and external regulation in order. Rest of 6 constructs are actual L2 self, amotivation, attitude to L2 communication, effort, ideal L2 self, intrinsic motivation and they appeared to be considered only in a study.

Table 2
Random Model: Moderator Analysis Results I

Moderator variable		k	ES	95% CI		p	Heterogeneity	
				Lower limit	Upper limit		$Q_{Between}$	p
Institution	E	1	.125	-.3642	.6138	.617		
	H	3	.621	.2916	.9507	.000	3.1399	.208
	U	5	.679	.093	1.266	.023		

E: elementary school, H: High School, U: University

Table 3
Random Model: Moderator Analysis Results II

Moderator variable	k	ES	95% CI		p
			Lower limit	Upper limit	
Actual L2 Self	1	-1.124	-1.493	-.7545	.000
Amotivation	1	-.273	-.7137	.1668	.223
Attitude to L2Comun.	1	1.412	1.3220	1.5038	.000
Effort	1	.8728	.6242	1.1214	.000
External Regulation	4	.2305	-.1553	.6164	.2415
Extrinsic	9	.0778	-.0895	.2450	.3620
Ideal L2 Self	1	1.036	.4754	1.5968	.000
Instrumental	6	.7127	.2903	1.1352	.000
Intrinsic	1	.7965	.4989	1.0941	1.557
Motivation	5	.3440	-.2574	.9454	.2622

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Poster Session

[Venue: Industry-University Cooperation Building Lobby]

Time (15:00-16:50)	Presentation Title and Presenter(s)
[Session Chair] Seon-Yoo Hwang (Seowon Univ.)	
01	**Native English Speaking College Instructors' Perception of Successful EFL Teaching Method** Myeong-Hee Seong (Eulji Univ.)
02	**The Effects of Recurrent Reviewing Activities for L2 Writers** Ho-Jung Yu (Kyungil Univ.)
03	**Increasing the Standards for Professional Development** Wayne Bottiger (KEISIE Graduate School)
04	**The Effects of Summary Writing on Reading Comprehension** Seon-Yoo Hwang (Seowon Univ.)

Native English Speaking College Instructor's Perception of

Successful EFL Teaching Method

Myeong Hee Seong
Eulji University

The present study investigated native speaker instructors' perceptions about learning and teaching English in the Korean university setting. For the study, three research questions are raised:

(1) What are the sources of the NS instructors' perceptions?

(2) How does the previous teaching and learning experience of instructors affect their present teaching?;

(3) According to the instructor's perception, what makes an engaging and successful class?

What are some implications of these finding for NS instructors in Korean EFL classroom? Which factor influences the most? The data were collected through lecturing journals of nine native English speakers who were teaching at the same university, interviews with them and class observations.

The two main constructs which supported the study are the sources of the NS's beliefs and the instructor's role. The results showed that they believed that students' active participation and the facilitator as an instructor role were the key to successful foreign language learning. However, the Communicative Language Teaching approach was interpreted in different ways by different instructors.

It was found that those who had educational experience in TESOL or education professed to have a facilitator teaching philosophy. Those who studied drama or creative writing saw themselves as artists, the instructor who studied screenwriting professed to have a directing style, the instructor with a chiropractor PhD professed to have a model philosophy, and the instructor with an MBA professed to have a counselor teaching philosophy.

Instructors performing warm up activities were seen to play the role of director. Such activities included group brainstorming, free talking, and song analysis.

Instructors who interacted with the students one-on-one were seen to play the role of counselor. Instructors whose major was writing believed that feedback and a creative environment were conducive to an improvement in the students' foreign language performance.

Instructors who attended Language Certificate programs believed that grammar, drills, and appropriate illustrations benefitted students in learning English. Implications of the findings for EFL classrooms are provided.

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The Effects of Recurrent Reviewing Activities for L2 Writers

Ho Jung Yu
Kyungil University

The purpose of this study is to delve into college students' perceptions in whether the reviewing activities that recurred through one semester helped students to read their writing critically, thereby contributing to their writing improvement. There might be no doubt that the final goal that a L2 writer needs to achieve is to become an independent writer who can evaluate his or her own writing. With this goal in mind, those who participated in this study were trained to evaluate their own writing and peers' writing. Most of the participants were very beginners in English writing, although some were intermediate in English proficiency.

Through one semester that is 15 weeks long, they were required to complete six writing tasks, putting into practice guided self-evaluation for the first draft of each writing task and at the same time peer group evaluation for the last three writing tasks.

The reviewing questions for self-evaluation are:

1) Do you think your paragraph is good? Why do you think so?;

2) Is there a topic sentence in the paragraph? Or is there a main idea in your writing? <u>Please write down your topic sentence</u> (or the main idea) and <u>the reason(s)</u> that the topic sentence is appropriate;

3) Do you think your writing is logical or well organized? Why do you think so? (<u>You need to describe whether the writing focuses on comparison or contrast and what the comparing or contrasting points are</u>.);

4) Did you make various sentences in terms of structure? Did you avoid grammatical errors as much as possible? Are there any errors in grammar or sentence structure?; and 5) Was writing task 6 easy enough to complete? Or were there any difficulties to complete? If there were any difficulties, please put down writing difficulties that you might have during the writing process.

Question 5) was only for self-evaluation. The other questions were used for peer group evaluation with wording adjustments.

To examine the students' perceptions about whether the recurrent reviewing activities were instrumental in their writing, I made a survey in which the students were supposed to elaborate their thoughts, except two yes-or-no questions.

The survey consisted of seven questions:

1) How did you feel conducting self-evaluation, comparing one at the beginning of the semester and one at the end of the semester?

2) Was self-evaluation conducive to improving your writing?

3) In what aspects did self-evaluation serve the betterment of your writing?

4) Was peer group evaluation conducive to the improvement of your writing?

5) In what aspects did peer group evaluation serve the betterment of your writing?

6) Which one was easier in conducting evaluation, self-evaluation or peer group evaluation? Why do you think so?

7) Which one was more conducive to revising your writing, self-evaluation or peer group evaluation? Why do you think so?

All of the students stated that both self-evaluation and peer group evaluation were instrumental in improving their won writing. Many students said that the more they practiced evaluating their own writing, the more details they could review while also understanding what the guided question really asked. In addition, they got to understand the structure of a paragraph clearly. Students tended to address that peer group evaluation was more helpful since they embraced diverse feedback and motivated them to show better performance in writing.

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Increasing the Standards for Professional Development

Wayne Bottiger
KEISIE

Much of the current educational training for language teachers focuses heavily on theory and methodology. However, training options incorporating a real world dimension focused on "global" educational needs is greatly lacking. This presentation will discuss some of the aspects of managing graduate level higher education, and what is required to ensure the highest quality and delivery of content that actually prepares teacher trainees for the field they are entering. The fact that many individuals entering the field of language teaching come from a diverse ranges of unrelated fields, it is paramount that the practical application of theory and methodology have a common meeting place within academia. The presentation will provide concrete information related to the proper training of individuals seeking a career within the field of EFL/ESL, and give participants an opportunity to ask questions regarding their particular concerns.

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Wayne Bottiger
KEISIE

The Effects of Summary Writing on Reading Comprehension

Seon Yoo Hwang
Seowon University

Summary writing in reading classes has been used as a post-reading activity in that L2 learners can write from and about written texts. In general, summary writing in English doubles burdens to L2 learners because they think their English is not good enough to write a summary even though they have satisfactory reading ability. Therefore, the study aims to lessen their burdens of writing a summary, which seems facilitate not only writing but also reading proficiency. In the study, a summary writing assignment in a reading course, as a potential method of lowering L2 learners' burdens, was selected and planned to prove that the method helps. The study investigatef how much summary writing influenced reading comprehension as well as vocabulary that the students were familiar or unfamiliar with. To complete the study, 34 college students taking a reading comprehension course asked to submit a summary writing assignment, every time they finish the unit. Whether writing was good or bad was not considered and how many times they did was into the assignment scores only if they summit it. Therefore, almost all of the students have completed 8-10 summary writings in total for 15 weeks. The class was almost same as a usual reading comprehension class, where the students read a given text, and focus words and text structures in order to find a main idea and a variety of specific ideas. For the students to be a strategic reader, specially recognizing text structure was highlighted now that they seemed not to be familiar with text structures. T-test of frequency of summary writing was conducted to examine any significant group differences in the mean scores of the vocabulary tests and reading proficiency test for the date analysis, Results of the study took into account frequency of summary writing but not writing scores. The study showed frequency of summary writing had a significant effect on familiar and unfamiliar vocabulary learning, and reading proficiency. The more frequently they write a summary in English, the more they know words and comprehend texts. Summary writing gave the students opportunities to retrieve and use words that they saw from the text. Therefore, it caused them to activate and use words that have been unexposed as well as exposed to them. The result that their vocabulary learning expanded into unfamiliar words has significant implications in that writing a summary might change how they learn words and lead to top-down processing in the reading class. In addition, there was a meaningful difference in reading proficiency. Because they retrieved and used the text structures that they recognized and learned in the class while doing a summary writing assignment, their knowledge of text structure seemede to improve their reading proficiency. In conclusion, the study suggests that L2 learners be encouraged to approach English writing with the method minimizing difficulties of L2 writing since attempts to write themselves had meaningful effects on key components that contribute to L2 reading proficiency, regardless of how well writing is.

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How to Get to Konkuk University

1. Address

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2. Map of KU Neighborhood

3.Campus Map

- **14.** Industry-University Cooperation Bldg.

4. Transportations

KU's main campus is located in the southeastern part of Seoul near the Han River. The university is easily accessible from downtown Seoul by public transportation. If you are coming from Incheon International Airport, there are several options.

From Incheon International Airport

Airport Limousine

The most convenient way to reach KU from Incheon International Airport is by airport limousine bus. Information regarding buses and limousines can be found at the passenger terminal. Bus #6013 stops at KU. The first bus departs at 6:25 a.m. and the last bus at 10:55 p.m. You can buy a ticket at a booth right outside the airport arrival gate. It will cost you ₩10,000; you must pay in cash. The bus is available every 30-40 minutes. The ride is about 90 minutes long, depending on the traffic. Get off at the bus stop named "Konkuk University" ("Konkuk Dae Hak Gyo" in Korean). You can easily see the campus from there.

Taxi

If you decide to take a regular taxi, it will cost you about ₩70,000 from the airport. Note that a black taxi (deluxe taxi) costs more than a regular one. It may be a good idea to bring a copy of the KU Seoul Campus map and show it to the driver and say, "Konkuk Dae Hak Gyo Ga Ju Se Yo" in Korean.

Subway

You can also reach KU by subway from the airport. There is a new subway line from Incheon International Airport to Seoul Station. For more information, please visit the Incheon Airport Railroad Express website. From Seoul Station, you can come to Konkuk University Station (Subway Line 2 (Green) or 7 (Dark Green)). (For more details on getting to KU by subway, please see below.)

From Somewhere in Seoul

Subway

Please use Subway Line 2 (Green) or 7 (Dark Green) and get off at Konkuk University Station. For Subway Line 2, go out Exit 2 and cross the first intersection straight until you see Konkuk University Hospital on your left side. The campus is just a few steps away from there. If you take Line 7 (Dark Green) to Konkuk University Station, go out Exit 4 and walk straight till you reach the main entrance of the campus. You can also get off at Children's Grand Park Station on Line 7, go out Exit 3, and walk straight until you see the KU sign. It will take you just a few minutes to reach the Konkuk Gate.

Taxi

Anywhere in Seoul, you can take a taxi to reach Konkuk. Show the driver the KU campus map and say "Konkuk Dae Hak Gyo Ga-Ju She-Yo (Please go to Konkuk University.)." You can use one of the several taxis available: regular, deluxe, reservation (or "call taxi"), or international. (Please note that the fare may vary.)

Bus

Some buses stop near the Konkuk campus, and a rough list of their numbers is as follows. Please note that the bus color varies.

Destination	Bus Number
Konkuk University Station (Near Lotte Department Store)	240, 721, 2222, 2223, 2224
Konkuk University (Near Ilgam Gate and KU Veterinary Hospital)	2223, 2224, 322
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