

Contents

I. Articles

- (1) Computer-Mediated Communication in Foreign Language Education.
Case Study: Chat Room Interactions of a High School English Class in Korea 1
- Ji Hye Lee
- (2) Techniques in Working with 12s and under 31
Learner Profile
- Gun-Sil Kim
- (3) Language in Context 43
The Effect of Diverse Activities in Children's English Learning in a Korean EFL Setting
- Myung-hee Min
- (4) Approaches to English Grammar 82
Different Stages of Grammar Lesson Plan
- Yeonjoo Lee
- (5) Approaches to English Grammar 126
The Usage-Based Model and Grammar
- Sanmi Lee
- (6) Second Language Learning Theories 148
Analysis of 'Focus on Form' Depending on Learners' Proficiency Levels
- Sunmin Oh

II. Guest Contribution

- (1) Teaching English Grammar in a Communicative Approach 183
- Seung-hee Noh

- (2) Integrating English into a content based instruction in discretionary
activity class 210
- Misoon Kim

III. Essay

- (1) Don't Let the Comprehensive Scare You Away 224
- Yonghui Li

- (2) The Long Road to Preparing for a Ph.D. in the United States 232
- Seongwon Yun

IV. Thesis Abstracts

- (1) The Effectiveness of Vocabulary Teaching by Word Meaning Types 246
- Jung-a Lee

- (2) Effects of English Reading Proficiency on the Lexical Inferencing of
Korean Middle School Students 249
- Ill Jin Shin

A Case Study: Chat Room Interactions of a High School English Class in Korea

Jihye Lee

TESOL 3rd semester

1. Introduction

Korean teachers teaching English seem to refrain from using computer-mediated methods such as chat rooms for their English class. It takes much time to get students concentrate on the task in class and help them understand the process of each activity. However, on the basis of Vygotskian sociocultural theory, it is desirable for teachers to use synchronous CMC, chat rooms in the matter of providing enough meaningful interactions to students. The purpose of this study is to investigate interactional features of communication of high school students learning English in a synchronous CMC context, chat. The study is fundamentally based on ideas of Vygotskian sociocultural theory to explain how students

share meaningful interactions to complete a story as a group work in chat rooms.

I found four significant interactional features from the chat logs: intersubjectivity, social cohesiveness, self-regulation and post-task discussion. First, group members actively participated in the activity to try to understand what others say and continue the story. Whenever something incomprehensible came up, they used several techniques to make input comprehensible such as questions & answers, paraphrase, and even summary for the understanding each other. Second, group members often encouraged other members to continue the story and shared their feelings about the story while chatting. Third, members monitor their own language use focusing on grammar immediately. Fourth, they expressed their feelings with emoticons.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Vygotskian Interactions

According to Vygotskian interaction is based on socio-cultural theory where learners develop their language through interactions between others in a social context. The thing that learners get from interaction is input. This input should be enough for learners to internalize the

language knowledge into inner speech. In second language learning, especially when learners have limited opportunities to be exposed to the native language environment, the key to master the second language is how to get language input as much as they can.

Swain() emphasizes the importance of collaborative social dialogues as tools for knowledge building. Collaborative dialogues provides learners an opportunity to discover not only what they can do with language but also what they can not do. When learners negotiate meanings in the social dialogue, they develop their inner speech inside their brain. This inner speech finally turns into performance through trials and errors in the brain.

Patricia Sullivan(2000) presents the concept of collaborative work which is frequently associated in the second or foreign language classroom with pair work or group work. This pair work or group work should not be disassociated from social, cultural, institutional, and political settings. It shows that language class should be deeply related with the whole types of culture in the society.

According to Donato(1998), social interactions as a input gives linguistic input to the learners, who develops the L2 on the basis of his or her mental processing mechanism. Also, this developmental change is not individual, but social in nature. He also gives the

importance on microgenesis analysis and collective scaffolding for the L2 learner's development.

2.2 Intersubjectivity

Intersubjectivity, according to Rommetveit, occurs when communicators achieve a “shared social world.” (Darhower, 2000) Darhower (2000) emphasizes the importance of a shared context in communication. When interlocutors have similar background knowledge of a topic of conversation, the context may already be shared. If not already present, the shared context must be created (Rommetveit 1974). Therefore, the process of reaching an understanding through linguistic communication reflects the intersubjectivity to a certain share context. According to Darhower (2000), Habermas take the idea of intersubjectivity in psychology of Rommetveit for the concept of this shared perspective. Habermas develop the validity claim that people who want to participate in a process of reaching understanding for a certain activity. Rommetveit believed that message structure should be explored within the conceptual framework of the spatial-temporal interpersonal coordinates of a speech act. This occurs whenever one interlocutor makes something known to another, thus temporarily bringing together their different, but partially shared, social worlds (Rommetveit, 1974, pp.39-40).

When learners are engaged in a communicative activity, according to Brooks and Donato's criteria, they give the hearer something to understand, make themselves understandable, and come to an understanding with each other (Martin 2000). During this communicative activity, learners negotiate meanings based on a 'shared context.' According to Long(1996), "negotiation for meaning is the process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competence speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved (Tudini, 2003)."

2.3. Activity Theory

Activity theory is developed by A. N. Leontiev, one of Vygotsky's successors. Mitchell & Myles (2004) presents that the theory is about individual/collaborative behavior and motivation within its sociocultural setting. Activity theory gives an importance on collaborative interactions and performance from the interactions.

Mitchell & Myles (2004) shows several learner variables that have big influence on learning process. Those are time, affective filter, attitude and learning context. These factors are all considered for this project.

First, students controlled their own time to chat freely. Second, they were volunteers with confidence to participate in the chatting project so their anxiety level was comparatively low. Finally, chat rooms were provided as the learning context that they are familiar with.

Johnson (2004) described activity theory in terms of the following features: the structure of an activity (motives, actions or goals, and operations); mediation(activity is mediated by tools and sign systems); method(activity is investigated by applying a genetic method); interaction (activity is developed in social interactions); and internalization (activity is developed by the process of internalization of the patterns observed initially on the interpersonal plane)(Johnson, 2004).

2.4. Social Cohesiveness

Vimpani(2001) emphasize the importance of social cohesiveness on child development citing the definition of social cohesion, which is a central element of social capital that includes “those features of social organization, such as trust, reciprocity, norms and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions” (Putnam 1993). High levels of social capital contributes to a willingness to take risks in

a social context based on a sense of confidence that others will respond as expected and act in mutually supportive or non-harmful ways (Fukuyama 1995), and the active and willing engagement of citizens within a participative community (Onyx and Bullen 1997). It is the very fabric of a civil society (Vimpani 2001).

Darhower(2000) adapts this idea of social cohesiveness to his study about CMC based on sociocultural theory. The study takes examples of 'greeting and leaving taking' and the 'use of humor' as an evidence for social cohesiveness in his study.

2.5. CMC Discourse

According to Darhower(2000), a better understanding of discourse within a synchronous CMC environment will entail looking at such discourse over a period of time in order to identify the interactional features as they unfold in real time and as they develop over time. If research is able to provide more in depth insight into the nature of synchronous CMC, research can then inform pedagogy, specifically regarding ways to extract maximum pedagogical benefits from synchronous CMC. With its emphasis on learner interests and motivations as well as imposed educational goals, sociocultural theory is a robust framework within which to frame a study on

learner use of synchronous CMC as a language learning tool.(Darhower, 2000)

2.6. Internet Relay Chat

Internet Relay Chat(IRC) is the standard for synchronous, multi-person, text-based chat. Mishra(2001) comments that most IRC applications such as MSN messenger, ICQ, or Yahoo Messenger, are independent of the WWW, but can also be launched from a web page. Using these applications, learners can text-chat or voice-chat one-to-one, or in a conference(Mishra, S. 2001).

Roberson&Klotz(2001) introduce the benefits of using chat rooms for language learning. *“Chat is a real-time, electronic form of communication. The quality of interaction is determined by the established culture of reflection, preparation, and risk-free participation... The capability of using separate chat rooms further extends the opportunity for the instructor to engage students in the learning process by placing students in either random or predetermined groupings for the purpose of extending the application of acquired knowledge. Students may be placed in small groups to solve problems, draft group responses to questions, work on extended projects and develop reactions to another group’s work effort... Another benefit to using real-time chat is the immediate feedback students and instructors receive. Frequency and*

quality of feedback is often identified as a major benefit by students participating in on-line courses where chat is used effectively on a consistent basis. Constructive, interactive feedback helps shape student progress through the course in the synchronized learning environment.”(Roberson&Klotz, 2001)

2.7. Writing Behavior in E-Communication

According to Leibowitz(1999), the malleable nature of electronic text has made the physical process of composing more ‘elastic’ in that writers are quicker to commit thought to writing and to reorganize content because it is simple to make change on the electronic screen(Abdullah, 2003). Abdullah also suggests a tendency toward playfulness in e-communication such as ‘jazz-like, improvisational writing,’ or ‘font frenzy.’ In addition, when chatting, participants try to help listeners reach maximal understanding with minimal processing efforts. To achieve this goal, they attempt to use text-based emoticons, punctuation and other politeness markers; and their use of these politeness markers increases once they realize that it helps to avoid misunderstanding. (Abdullah, 2003)

3. The Study

3.1. Participants

17 high school first graders (9boys/8girls) who volunteered to do this project participated in this chatting project. They seemed to be highly motivated.

3.2. Grouping

Teacher made 4 heterogeneous groups with different number of students who were randomly chosen regardless of their proficiency level.

Group 1	Group 2
“There lived a handsome prince in an old castle.”	“Mitchell closed his eyes.”
imin0123(1-1, M) – Leader	imin0123(1-1, M) – Leader
애국소년(1-3, M) – Leader	석나랫(1-6, F)
전나누미(1-6, F)	착칸소년(1-1, M)
김진건. (1-3, M)	두산신(1-3, M)
Group 3	Group 4
“I am a party animal. I go to the party every Friday. One day...”	“It was a terribly stormy night.”
호호주연님(1-6, F) – Leader	ㄴ받은ㄹ쫘ㄹ(1-1, M) – Leader
ㄹ친구(1-1, M)	포터군(1-3, M)
슈비둠밥바(1-6, F)	이병철이야(1-3, M)
콧구멍소녀(1-7, F)	우정 이 쫘조아(1-6, F)
	백발머리소녀(1-6, F)

3.3. Messenger

Buddy Buddy Messenger is one of the popular messengers which is predominantly used by high school students. This messenger is provided for free and easily installed.

3.4. Task

Students complete a story by taking turn to connect sentences from the first sentence given by the teacher.

3.5. Objectives

At the end of this lesson, students are able to

- (1) complete the story while chatting only in English.
- (2) monitor and correct their grammar by themselves (self-regulation) while chatting.
- (3) use emoticons and netspeak.

3.6. Procedure

A short orientation was given to participants before the day for chatting project. Participants log in 'Buddy Buddy Messenger.' Leaders open a chat room and invite his or her members into the chat room. Each participant takes turns to connect the story from the first sentence given in advance. After finishing the story, leaders email the whole content of their chat log to the teacher.

3.7. Chat Room Management

3.7.1. Role of Leaders

Leaders play a great role in this chatting project. When grouping, teacher chooses a leader for each group, who has relatively higher proficiency level in their group. First, leaders work as a monitor preventing other members from using of Korean words. Whenever students intentionally or accidentally used Korean words, leaders immediately warned them not to use Korean any more. In line 6, segment A, the leader, 호호주연님♪ controls the use of Korean language saying ‘we have to speak English!!!’ Also, as shown in line 4, Segment A, when 이병철이야⇒ said ‘하이’ which means ‘*hi*’ in Korean, the leader immediately encouraged him to use English in the chat room saying ‘english plz... sorry kk’ which means ‘English please, sorry (giggle).’

Second, leaders are informed to email the whole chatting logs to the teacher right after completing the story (Image 1). This is important because the chatting logs are data for analyzing their interactions.

Segment A

- 1 호호주연님♪:
왜 니안해- -;;;
- 2 슈비뚝밥바♫:
기달려 줘 !
- 3 호호주연님♪:
ah!!!!!!!!!!
- 4 ㄷㄷ친구 (You are my friend forever. Don't forget):
보다가 지치셨군
- 5 콧구멍소녀ㅋ:
- - ㅎㅎ
- 6 호호주연님♪:

we have to speak english!!!!!!
- 7 콧구멍소녀ㅋ:
Ok;
- 8 ㄷㄷ친구 (You are my friend forever. Don't forget):
in eanglish plz agin z z z

Segment B

- 1 포터군 (하이.):
하이
- 2 ㄹ받은@쭈@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
hi
- 3 이병철이야ㅋ:
하이
- 4 ㄹ받은@쭈@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):

emglish plz.. sorry kk

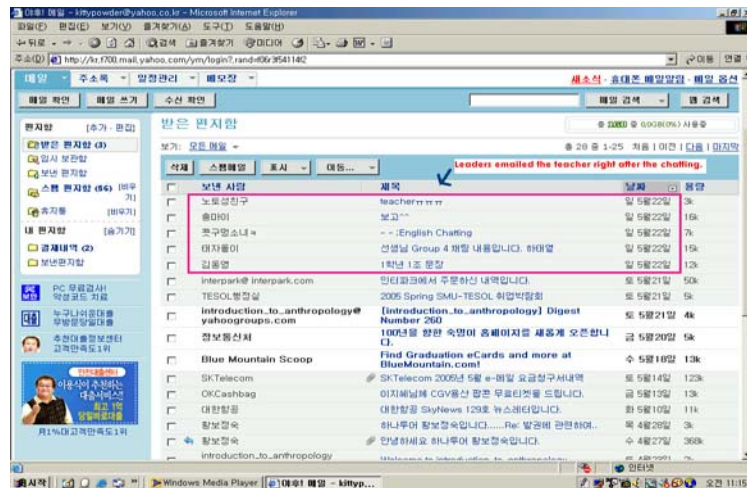


Image 1. Leaders email the chatting logs to the teacher

3.7.2. Role of Teacher

Teacher collects volunteers, organizes them into groups randomly, gives an orientation for participants and appoints a leader for each group. When chatting, teacher just monitors each group's chatting taking part in the chatting only as a helper for vocabulary and a time checker. Teacher looks around each chat room and check how leaders and members work.

4. Data Collection

On Sunday, May 22, 2005, at 10 to 11, all 18 participants logged in 'Buddy Buddy Messenger.' 4 leaders opened a

chat room and invited his or her members into the chat room. Some of the members were late but other members insisted to wait for the late comers. First, leaders typed the first sentence given by the teacher. I typed the first sentence for group 3 because the leader lost the handout for orientation. I took part in all 4 chat rooms and monitored their work mainly as an observer as well as a helper for vocabulary in case. Each participant took turns to connect the story (Image 2). While completing the story, they share their feelings.

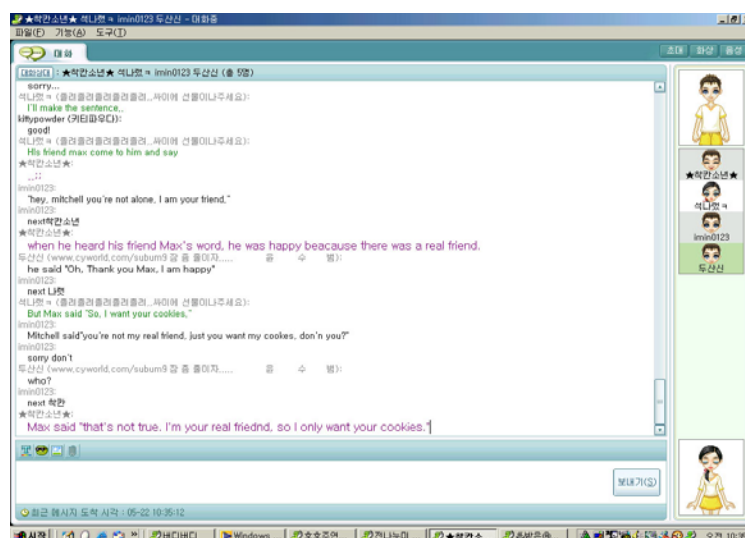


Image 2. Chat Room for Group 2

Each group continued the chat for 30 to 50 minutes. Participants freely controlled the chat time as

they wanted. After finishing the story, leaders emailed the whole content of their chatting log to the teacher as scheduled in advance (Image 3).

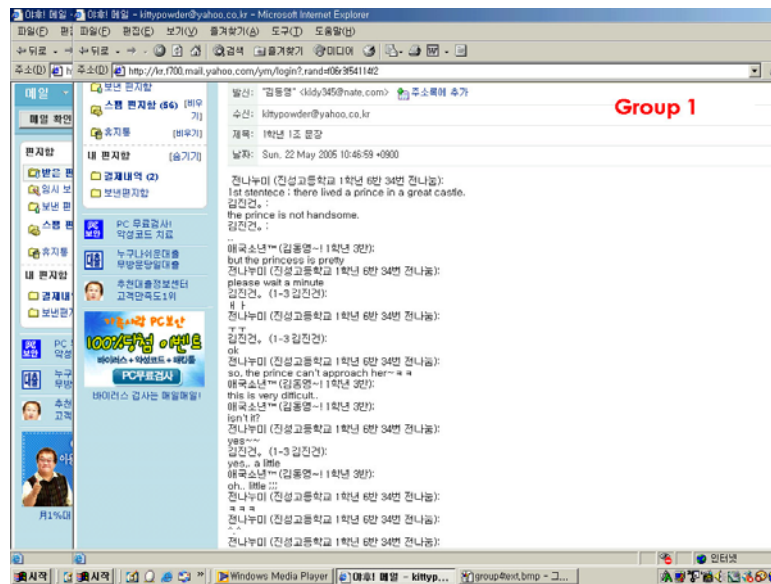


Image 3. Chat Log from Group 1 through Email

After getting emails of chat logs from the leaders for each group, teacher analyzes the discourse in the chat log focusing on interactional features.

5. Hypothesis

Chatting as a group work would provide "meaningful" interactions communicatively.

- (1) Students would share the meanings through interactions to complete the task.
- (2) Students would give linguistic help to each other through interacting in chat rooms.

6. Results

Research Question : *What are some outstanding interactional features in chat rooms?*

6.1. Intersubjectivity

Chatting logs that the leader for each group emailed me prove how interactions work to improve students' English language. Participants try to use quite many techniques to help them understand what's happening in the story and communicate each other based on the same idea. They learn how to negotiate meanings as well as how to use English in a communicative way to understand each other by negotiating for meanings based on the 'shared context.'

When something ungrammatical or incomprehensible shows up, members try to guess what it means. Segment C shows that participants try to paraphrase the sentence to check whether their understanding is right or directly ask other members to

translate or explain what the sentence means. In line 3, there comes a phrase 'step on' that they don't know and then 김진건. directly asks the question to ask what it means(line 4). 애국소년™ tries to paraphrase 'step on' in line 8 but it was not the right paraphrase. Even though 전나누미 tries to explain the meaning in another English, it fails. 김진건. asks 전나누미 to translate the phrase into Korean (line 15-16)

Segments C

- 1 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
then she said " i want to dance with you. are you dance
- 2 with me?"
- 3 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
- 4 reply that "Ok.. but i'm not very handsome. you must be
- 5 joked"
- 6 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
- 7 and~ I could step on your foot.
- 8 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
- 9 **what mean? i can't understand.**
- 10 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
- 11 in korea?
- 12 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
- 13 step on~?
- 14 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
- 15 wait
- 16 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
- 17 **dance with you? do you mean?**
- 18 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
- 19 right?
- 20 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
- 21 ok
- 22 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
- 23 oh..

- 13 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
'step on'
- 14 전나눔미 (진성고등학교 1학년 6반 34번 전나눔):
'step on' means put
- 15 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
ok
- 16 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
hum.....please in korea
전나눔미 (진성고등학교 1학년 6반 34번 전나눔):
내가 당신의 발을 밟을지도 몰라요

In this segment D, participants have difficulty finding the right expression for a word when one of the participants presents a complicated word that others cannot understand. Teacher, as a helper for vocabulary, intervenes in the chatting and present the right expression for them to continue the story. In line 3, 백발머리소녀 presents a phrase 'correction of deformities' so 포터군 (윤병승) directly asks what it is(line 8). ㄹ발은ㄹ춤 and 이병철이야 give two different Korean definitions for it(line10). Now all the participants seem to get the meaning of it but I as a teacher and a helper notice that 'correction of deformities' is not an appropriate expression in this context because it is a medical term that people hardly use in a daily conversation. Finally, I present them the better phrase 'plastic surgery' that they can use in this situation (line 19).

Segment D

- 1 우정 이 쫄조아 (지선영):

- beacuse, i am a ugly
 2 우정 이 쫘조아 (지선영):
 it's your turn 백발
 3 백발머리소녀:
 so I have correction of deformities.
 4 이병철이야ㅋ:
 oh very hard word
 5 ㄴ받은ㄹ줌ㄹ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 It was terribly stormy night. It was very terrible. I was
 drank the wine. because, my house is fly away. I'm very
 sad. but I'm not unhappy because I'm not death-ㅏ-. so
 i will make new house and get marry to pretty and kind
 women. new house is very big and beautiful. but my
 wife is unhappy. beacuse, i am a ugly .so I have
 6 correction of deformities.
 (omitted)
 7 포터군 (윤병승):
 um. what is defornieites ?
 8 포터군 (윤병승):
 sorry
 9 ㄴ받은ㄹ줌ㄹ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 deformities is 신체적 기형
 10 이병철이야ㅋ:
 corrction of defornties is 성형수술?
 11 포터군 (윤병승):
 ah
 12 백발머리소녀:
 yes
 13 ㄴ받은ㄹ줌ㄹ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 maybe
 14 이병철이야ㅋ:
 gogo
 15 백발머리소녀:
 nest
 16 백발머리소녀:
 next
 17 포터군 (윤병승):
 but I have not enogh money to corrction of deformities
 18 kittypowder (키티파우다):
 That's 'plastic surgery' in this situation.

- 19 포터군 (윤병승):
um.
- 20 ㄹ받은ㄹ줌ㄹ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
um.. but he had plastic surgery.
- 21 포터군 (윤병승):
um
- 22 포터군 (윤병승):
sorry
포터군 (윤병승):
I have ferpect appearance.

6.2. Social Cohesiveness

Participants share their feelings and humor, control the pace and check the comprehension each other in the middle of their chatting. Also, they encourage each other to continue the chatting. These behaviors in chat rooms reflect their communicative skills in a real conversation. In Segment E below, we can find some clues that they felt amused when talking about the difficulty of the task (line 7~14) and they used expressions such as 'go go!(line 14, 15),' and 'good~(line 21, 33)' to encourage each other. Also, they control the time using words such as 'slowly~(line 18),' 'wait,(line 24, 28)' 'I'm thinking now...(line 25).' Finally, checking each other's comprehension (line 30-31) for cohesion of the story occurs once in a while.

Segment E

- 1 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
1st stentece : **there lived a prince in a great castle.**

- 2 김진건. :
the prince is not handsome.
.....(omitted)
- 3 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
but the princess is pretty
- 4 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
please wait a minute
.....(omitted)
- 5 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
ok
- 6 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
so, the prince can't approach her~ㅋㅋ
- 7 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
this is very difficult..
- 8 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
isn't it?
- 9 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
yes~~
- 10 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
yes,, a little
- 11 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
oh.. little ;;;
- 12 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
ㅋㅋㅋ
- 13 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
^^
- 14 전나누미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
진건~~ㅋ **gogo~!~!~!**
- 15 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
gogo~
- 16 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
one day, princess' father hold the party for princess.
.....(omitted)
- 17 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
the pince want princess to join there.
- 18 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
slowly~
- 19 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
z
- 20 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):

- many prince and princess join there
- 21 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
good~
- 22 전나눔미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
all of them are very nice and handsome. so, the prince
- 23 전나눔미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
is frustrated~
- 24 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
...wait
- 25 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
i'm thinking now
- 26 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
..
- 27 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
??
- 28 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
wait
- 29 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
the princess saw the frustrated prince. so she approach to him.
- 30 김진건. (1-3 김진건):
right?
- 31 전나눔미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
ok i understand~~~ㅋ
.....(omitted)
- 32 전나눔미 (진성고등학교 1 학년 6 반 34 번 전나눔):
my stentece is a little strange ;;
- 33 애국소년™ (김동영~! 1 학년 3 반):
no~ good

They shared their feelings about the storyline they were making with several techniques: Emoticons and direct comments. Here in this segment F below, participants share the general ideas about the story that they are making. This part is at the end of the story. Emoticons and punctuation presented below such as ‘-ㅏ- ,’ ‘- -,’kk.’

Segment F

1	포터군 (윤병승): oh-ㅅ- story is fast
2	이병철이야ㅋ: ok
3	우정 이 폼조아 (지선영): is it happy ending? - -
4	이병철이야ㅋ: ummm
5	ㄹ받은@쭈@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.): sorry.. i'm poor at novel.. haha
6	포터군 (윤병승): me ,too.
7	포터군 (윤병승): 병철 fighting.
8	이병철이야ㅋ: last sentence is me?
9	우정 이 폼조아 (지선영): kk but, it's funny.
10	ㄹ받은@쭈@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.): yes.
11	포터군 (윤병승): oh-ㅅ- it's about 10:40 a.m.

6.3. Self-Regulation

Students hardly monitor their grammar when they speak English but I found that they monitored simultaneously while chatting. Segment G and H below show that students immediately check some of their grammar such as tense or spelling on their utterance. In Segment G, it is found that *imin0123* immediately corrects his errors on tense(line 7-8). It shows that participants monitor their

grammar even though it is usually limited in tense and spellings. However, in Segment H, ㄷ친구 changes the sentence which has a wrong past verb form 'I was love him' into 'I loved him' quickly(line 3-4).

Segment G

- kittypowder (키티파우다) (05-22 10:10:21)
- 1 "Mitchell closed his eyes."
석나랬ㄷ (줄러줄러줄러줄러줄러,,싸이에
- 2 선물이나주세요) (05-22 10:10:23)
And he protruded his lip.
- 3 kittypowder (키티파우다) (05-22 10:10:24)
go!
- 4 imin0123 (05-22 10:10:28)
ok. ^^
- 5 석나랬ㄷ (줄러줄러줄러줄러줄러,,싸이에
선물이나주세요) (05-22 10:11:24)
- 6 next?
- ★착칸소년★ (05-22 10:11:34)
- 7 ..?what are you doing choong min..?
imin0123 (05-22 10:12:15)
- 8 **and he eat cookies**
imin0123 (05-22 10:12:23)
sorry ate

Segment H

- 1 콧구멍소녀ㅋ:
 One day, I didn't go to the party to have a
 cold. He came my House.
 슈비둠밥바♪:
 2 He was worrying me sincerely
 ㉨①친구 (You are my friend forever. Don't
 3 forget):
 so i was love him;;
 4 ㉨①친구 (You are my friend forever. Don't
 forget):
 5 i loved him
 호호주연님♪:
 6 i'm happy because he comes to party::
 콧구멍소녀ㅋ:
 7 I really love him. But He has fiancée.
 슈비둠밥바♪:
 8 Unfortunately his fiancée was my cousin
 ㉨①친구 (You are my friend forever. Don't
 9 forget):
 so i decide kill her for my love
 호호주연님♪:

6.4. Post-task Discussion

In Segment I below, the leader concludes the story and asks other participants to talk about the story and the whole activity. It is found that participants are getting motivated and encouraged while sharing their ideas after chatting. In line 4 to 6, participants talk about how they think about the storylines and 포터군 in line 6 tells about the lesson of the story ‘this story say appearance don’t has happy,’ which is totally ungrammatical but others understand what he’s saying and even ㄹ받은아줌마

agrees to 포터군's idea in line 7. In line 11 and 16, participants motivate and encourage each other feeling proud of their work.

Segment I

- 받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
- 1 this is our story..
 - 받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 - 2 It was terribly stormy night. It was very terrible. I was drank the wine. because, my house is fly away. I'm very sad. but I'm not unhappy because I'm not death-ㅅ-. so i will make new house and get marry to pretty and kind women. new house is very big and beautiful. but my wife is unhappy. beacuse, i am a ugly .so I have correction of deformities. I have ferpect appearance.i'm very happy. but she couldn't recognize me. so i decided to super star. because i'm very handsome. then she say "oh my god"she said " i don't like you, i like former days you." I'm unhappy again. I want her love. i love her. so i returned my old face. then we have 3 children. but it is a terribly stormy night ,too
.....(omitted)
 - 5 받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
how about our story?
 - 6 우정 이 쫘조아 (지선영):
very nice, kk
 - 7 kittypowder 님이 나가셨습니다.
코없는돼지 (김주형):
 - 8 kk **our story is little bit strange**
포터군 (윤병승):
 - 9 **this story say appearance don't has happy**
받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 - 10 **i think so too.**
포터군 (윤병승):
 - 11 bring
코없는돼지 (김주형):
 - 12 kkk I see

- ㄹ받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 13 how about finsh now?
 이병철이야ㅋ:
 14 **next time will be good better !**
 ㄹ받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 15 **ok**
 코없는돼지 (김주형):
 16 **yes**
 포터군 (윤병승):
 it's good such as 구운몽
 백발머리소녀:
 ok
 ㄹ받은@중@ (어머니 다시 시작하겠습니다.):
 we can make it

7. Conclusion

Using chat rooms in English class can be a good assisting method to provide ‘meaningful’ interactions for Korean high school students suffering from the lack of exposure to English environment. High school students have enough language knowledge of English to chat as well as the ability to use technology such as computers. The focus in this study is four distinguishing features of chat logs, which shows a quite clear evidence of ‘meaningful’ interactions: intersubjectivity, social cohesiveness, self-regulation and post-task discussion. These features reflect that learners try to share their contexts and ideas by interacting. It is concluded that learners communicatively produce the target language in a meaningful way when

chatting activity is presented with a clear task as a collaborative group work.

References

- Abdullah, Mardziah Hayati(2003). **The Impact of Electronic Communication on Writing. ERIC Digest. Bloomington IN.(ERIC No. ED477614)**
- Darhower, Martin Lynn(2000) **Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication in the Intermediate Foreign Language Class: A Sociocultural Case Study. ERIC. U.S. Pennsylvania.(ERIC No. ED447698)**
- Ely, Donald P.(2003). **Selecting Media for Distance Education. ERIC Digest. Syracuse N.Y. (ERIC No. ED 480236)**
- Freiermuth, Mark R.(2002). **Internet Chat: Collaborating and Learning via E-Conversations. TESOL Journal v11 n3 p36-40**
- Vimpani, Graham (2001). *The role of social cohesiveness in promoting optimum child development. Youth Suicide Prevention Bulletin n5. p. 21*
- Iwasaki, Junko & Oliver, Rhonda (2003). **Chat-Line Interaction and Negative Feedback. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics n17 p60-73**
- Johnson, Marysia. (2004) *A philosophy of second language acquisition. New Haven: Yale University Press. ISBN: 0300100264*

- Kotter, Markus(2003). **Negotiation of Meanings and Codeswitching in Online Tandems. Language Learning & Technology. v7 n2 p.145-150**
- Mishra, Sanjaya(2001). **Designing Online Learning. Knowledge Series: A Topical, Start-Up Guide to Distance Education Practice and Delivery. ERIC. Canada British Columbia (ERIC No. ED464233)**
- Mitchell, R. and F. Myles. (2004) *Second language learning theories* (2nd Edition). London: Arnold. ISBN: 0340807660
- Roberson, Thelma J.; Klotz, Jack (2001). **Chat: The Missing Link in On-Line Instruction. ERIC. U.S. Mississippi(ERIC No. ED 460160)**
- Russell, Dee & Daugherty, Martha(2001). **Web Crossing: A Context for Mentoring. Journal of Technology and Teacher Education. ERIC. v9 n3 p433-46 (ERIC No: EJ639478)**
- Smelser, Lynne M.(2002). **Making Connections in Our Classrooms: Online and Off. ERIC. U.S. Michigan (ERIC No: ED464323)**
- Tudini, Vincenza(2003). **Using Native Speakers in Chat. Language Learning & Technology. v7 n3 p141**
- Williams, Michelle(2001). **Digital Guests in Your Classroom. PEN. Australia New South Wales (ERIC No: ED474207)**

Learner Profile

Keon-Sil, Kim
TESOL 3rd semester

1. Introduction

There are always some special students who have some problems of development in school. In my classroom of public elementary school, there are also some problem children including Young Su(alias), Lee who is a male captain of our class. Thus, from now on, I will show his profile concerned with development and some suggestions for dealing with him based on his interest and environment. His basic profile is as follows:

- ◆ Name : Young Su, Lee (male)
- ◆ Age : 12 years old / 5th grade in elementary school
- ◆ Family : Father, Mother and an elder sister
- ◆ Position : A male captain of our class
- ◆ Friendship : Somewhat popular in class

2. Young Su's profile of development

There are three kinds of perspective standpoints in

children's development such as social/emotional, cognitive and physical perspective standpoint. The follows are his profile of development that are the result of my observation and experience with him based on Dr. Linse's opinion about 'Attributes of development'(Caroline Linse, 2005).

2.1 Social/Emotional perspective standpoint

He is usually in a little bit negative mood concerned with others or others' performance. However, he usually has very strong self-confidence, so he often believes his ability excessively. In addition, his mother as well as he regards school assignments as less important duty rather than his private study in private institutes. He is not excessively dependent on adults except his mother, because his mother has a strong effect on him and even his life. He usually copes with rebuffs in very negative viewpoints. Therefore, he hates and even threatens the friends who have a negative or who are out of favour with him, even though they are his best friends. He tries to display the ability for humor and does not seem to be acutely lonely, because he tries to control his friends to stay beside him always. He expresses wishes and preferences clearly and gives reasons for actions and positions. Moreover, he asserts his own right and needs appropriately, but sometimes he insists his profit excessively regardless of others. He is not easily intimidated by bullies because he has enough power among students.

2.2 Cognitive perspective standpoint

He has very high position in cognitive development comparing with classmates. For example, he can follow 3 step instructions and he can understand the concept of symbols such as numbers and letters. Moreover he is interested in academic content, so, even though he is just 5th grade in elementary school, he is thinking about which high school and which university are proper for him. His mother also has the same thoughts, so she often asks me how he should study for going to the best high school or university. He also likes to read books and to play with words, numbers or abstract symbols. And he has good common sense about society as well as school education. Therefore he can grasp concrete and abstract concepts easily and he can make connections between different concepts. He also has very high comprehensibility in concrete and abstract cause and effect relationships, and he can recognize patterns and classify concrete, pictures, objects and abstract concepts. Finally, his future dream is to be a President of our country, so he is concerned about his score at school remarkably.

2.3 Physical perspective standpoint

He can demonstrate muscle control well when using scissors, a skinny crayon, skinny pencil and skinny markers. He also can freely demonstrate the muscle coordination necessary to throw or kick a ball, and he is very good at catching a ball and kicking a ball well rolled. Therefore whenever we have a game with a ball, he becomes the main leader at the game. Especially he can

run the fastest in our class, so whenever we have an athletic meeting, he is our main representative in the class.

2.4 The issues that should be investigated about this child

First of all, I am sure that his mother has more serious problem than her son. Because she does not care whether her son threatens his friends or not and even when he speaks threatening personal abuse and slang to others in front of her, she does not care about it, and she even more encourages her son in winning at all fights. In addition, her instruction strategies also have bad effects on his personality. For instance, whenever he has an important exam at school, if the winner at the exam is going to receive a prize, she makes him study for a long time in his room without allowing enough time for rest, even until 2 am. As I heard from her, last year, surprisingly she made him solve the exercise book alone in the locking room. Also she does not pay attention to any policy or duty of class, if there are not any special rewards about them. As the result, he often does not submit some handouts and does not do the assignments, though he is the captain of our class. Moreover, he also has some problems in his personality and attitudes. As I heard from my students, he is number one among the colleagues concerning to physical power. Because he has learned 'Tae-kwondo' for a long time, he has superior ability at attack as well as defense. Therefore, he does not care about fighting with any others and he sometimes makes some troubles or struggles with friends who he dislikes. He also sometimes

does not pay attention to his duty or assignments, though he should give others a good example as a captain of our class. In addition, he often makes a noise during class, so I let him sit in the front row with a very exemplary student for effective peer's controlling. And he often shows negative feedback about others' good performance and often mutters 'It is not good job and I can do better than him/her' to himself. Finally, he often ignores weak people's opinion and even threatens them silently for escaping from my attention.

3. Suggestions for dealing with him

There are some suggestions for dealing with him appropriately based on writing or talking prompts, movies and books, activities and action plan. Therefore, in this part, I will suggest some writing or talking prompts, movies and books that can be helpful for dealing with him properly concerned with his interest. And I will also suggest some activities and show some action plan that can be used for him in class or at home.

Table 1.

Writing and talking prompts

Fields	Contents
Writing or talking prompts	▫ Find a picture of the person who you prefer best and think about the reason you like the person, and then, write a list of your personality or taste

concerned with the reason.

▫ Categorize the pictures according to the subject such as people, food, place etc. Next, divide them again into small classes with more specific standards like delicious food for you and vice versa. Finally, choose one of the categories that you prefer best and make a short story with the items in it.

▫ Choose one picture that you like least from the talking and writing box and pretend you become the item. Talk about how you will feel when people do not like you, and when they want to isolate you from their favorite list.

▫ If you should give your box to someone who does not like it, how will you say to the person? Why?

▫ Find some items that your mother would like and choose five items among them. Then, pretend that you prepare the items for your mother's birthday. And write a letter for her including what you want her to do as well as congratulations.

Table 2.

Movies and books

Fields	Contents
Movies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ 'Home Alone 2 : Lost in New York' by Chris Columbus ▫ 'Harry Potter' by Mike Newell ▫ 'The Polar Express' by Robert Zemeckis ▫ 'Shrek 2' by Andrew Adamson ▫ 'The Lord Of The Rings 3' by Peter Jackson ▫ 'Our twisted Hero' by Park, Jong-Won
Books	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ 'Maple Story' about a computer game ▫ 'Crazy Arcade' about an on-line action game ▫ 'Kart Rider Guide book' about a racing game of on-line ▫ 'Moby Dick' about a white whale ▫ 'Samkukchi' : a historical novel of China

Table 3.

Activities

Activities	Explanation
------------	-------------

Playing a 'X-man' game with your group members	▫ This game is about finding the X-man who does good things for our class. So the group members including the X-man should be obstacles for other groups to find the X-man by pretending themselves as the X-man doing good things.
Playing a 'Bodyguard dodge ball' game in class	▫ In this game, for surviving, male members should protect female not to be hit with a ball from female members and vice versa. Because only male members can get only male players out and vice versa.
Participating in special programs for having an indirect experience of physically handicap- ped people	▫ For example, you can go to the rest room covering up your eyes with your partner who does not hide eyes.
Playing riddles in groups or with your mother	▫ For example, you can play riddles with your friends about something you can use in your school life.
Playing a word-transmission game in groups	▫ This game is for delivering the given words or sentences correctly in groups one by one through whispering.

Table 4.

Action plan

<Action I >

1. Find the five items from the talking and writing box with your mother, which you and your mother like best.
 2. Among your friends in our class, choose one person that you want to give the five items.
 3. With your mother, think about whether the items would be good for your friend or not. If not, think about other items that would be proper for your friend from the talking and writing box with your mother.
 4. Write a short article about the reason why the chosen items would be good for your friend with your mother.
-

<Action II >

1. Watch the movie of 'Our twisted hero' in class.
 2. In groups, talk about the main characters, Han, Byoung-Tas and Em, Sock-Dae. How different are their personalities and attitudes toward others? Why did Mr. Em quick the school?
 3. Pretend that you are Mr. Han in the movie and do a role-play with your partner who pretends to be Mr. Em, the twisted hero.
-

<Action III>

1. With your mother, create a dialogue between you and your mother. The more similar the dialogue is to your real daily conversation, the better.
 2. With the above dialogue, do a role-play with your mother at home.
 3. Talk about your role-play with your mother.
 4. Create two lists, one is of five aspects that you need to correct and the other is of five aspects that she needs to correct in their relationship.
-

<Action IV>

1. Read 'Moby Dick' with your mother.
 2. Have a conversation with your mother about whether revenge is needed in our life or not and what the happiness means in his life and in her life.
 3. Make a list of what you should do and what she should do for your happiness in your life.
 4. Make a list of what you should do and what she should do for her happiness in her life.
 5. With the lists, have a conversation with all members in your family together. And listen to your elder sister and father's opinion about the lists.
 6. Finally, revise the lists with the above comments. And make a promise with your mother to try to keep the lists for both of you and your mother.
-

<Action V>

1. Choose your favorite 33 items from your talking and writing box.
 2. Write a list with all members' name in our class and a list with the above items.
 3. Match the two lists one and each other, considering which item would be proper to the person of our class.
 4. Finally, write the reason why you think it is good for the person in every pairs of a name and an item.
-

4. Summary

First of all, for finding the interesting movies and books for my student, I had a conversation with him and at the same time I tried to make him comfortable about his answer. Maybe he regarded my questions as just concerned ones about him or students. Thus, I chose the movies and books that are interesting to him and also I used some of them in action plan for helping his social/emotional development. In my opinion, he likes on-line game like peers and for getting high marks at the game he enjoys reading the guidebook about them. And he loves adventure stories and a wonderful story of nature as well as a war in history. Moreover, he is curious about the wisdom in battle and he also likes to play with others in both of on-line and off-line. So he often analyzes the rule of game and distinguishes between right and wrong during game based on my experience with him. In addition, he also wants to be approved by teachers as well as peers, thus, I think that he focuses on game rules that are famous

in peers and he often talks about how well he can do something including games in class.

Secondly, when I created a list of activities and writing or talking prompts as well as action plans, I also thought about not only his personalities but also his mother who has excessive expectation to her son. So, I made an action plan for helping the proper relationship between him and his mother as well as between him and his friends. Though he has some negative points in social/emotional development, as I mentioned in child profile, he has advanced abilities in cognitive and physical developments. Therefore, I think he can perform the above prompts and activities that are somewhat complex for those ages. Moreover, maybe he will be changed in personalities as well as in social/emotional development step by step, if he follows the above things faithfully and if he understands the effects he can make to others if he keeps going his present attitudes and mind about himself and others. Furthermore, I focused on the social/emotional aspect in his development. Therefore, most of them will be done in Korean rather than in English because yet he does not have enough ability to perform them in English.

References

- Caroline Linse(2005). *Practical English language Teaching: Young Learners*. Sookmyung Women's University: Students' booklet.

The effect of diverse activities in children's English learning in a Korean EFL setting

Myong-hee, Min

TESOL 2nd semester

In recent years, teaching children English has focused on teaching methods and techniques in Korean EFL classrooms. In particular, many English educators and parents have shown interest in activity-based approaches to promote motivation among young learners. A variety of activities, such as storytelling, songs and dramatization, have been believed to give fun to young learners and eventually facilitate their participation and learning in the classrooms. Generally, physical activities have gained increasing popularity in children's English education. This paper compares diverse activities divided into two major categories: physical and non-physical activities based on student participation, student behavior, and student achievement. In addition, it provides pedagogical implications for teachers of young learners, especially kindergarten, as far as classroom activities are concerned.

1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose of the Study

Recently, with the rise of interest in children's English education in Korea, there have been increasing numbers of English schools and teachers concentrating on 'teaching methods & techniques' and 'materials & curriculum' to help engage children in their English classes. With regard to children's language achievement, it is necessary to gain attention and motivation from young learners (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Gardner, 2002; Gardner, et al., 1991; Norton, 2001). Especially in terms of EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts, it is hard to draw children's attention and motivation to their classrooms due to a lack of necessity of English use in daily life. Thus, there have been tremendous efforts to increase children's attention and motivation in their

classes. For instance, a variety of teaching methods, techniques, and materials have been introduced and developed in Korean kindergarten and elementary schools. In the area of building up learners' English skills, diverse activities have replaced the position of drills and practice in the classroom. Feunteun & Vale (1995) and Cameron (2001) also claimed that children learn better through activities and suggested that curriculum for children should include activities including music and movement. Furthermore, they claimed that children learn better with physical movement. Thus, for this research project, this writer decided to examine the effects of physical activities on children's English learning.

Even though many researchers and teachers agree that activities increase children's involvement in the class, it is still difficult to improve children's participation and behavior during class in kindergarten. Observing English classes in a kindergarten, students showed strong tendencies to be distracted and low participation during a class integrated with various activities. As a result, students struggled with slow achievement in English learning. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of diverse activities in children's English learning. Will the diverse activities influence children's participation and behavior during class? If so, what kinds of activities will show better effect on children's English learning and the level of participation and behavior? In order to do so, student achievement (SA), student participation (SP), and student behavior (SB) were analyzed using the total score in the tests and the levels of student participation and behavior in the field notes.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Motivation in Language Learning

It has been said that motivation is the key factor for successful second language learning. Numerous studies and experiments in language learning have shown that success in second language learning is strongly influenced by personal factors (individual learner factors) such as age, attitude, motivation, anxiety, aptitude and cognitive style (Brown, 2000; Dornyei & Schmidt,

2002; Gass & Selinker, 2001; Hadley, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 2003). Especially motivation related to these individual features has been considered as a significant factor to language learning (Cook, 2001; Dornyei & Schmidt, 2002). Many researchers agree that motivation facilitates learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Gardner, 2002; Norton, 2001). Cook (2001) also emphasized the role of motivation for successful learning and pointed that, if there is no intrinsic motivation among students, then the teacher should create such motivation by understanding learners variability and choosing appropriate teaching materials and curricula.

2.2 Empirical Studies of how children learn a second/foreign language

There have been numerous studies done in the educational fields, particularly those relating to child ESL/ EFL education. Many of them tried to investigate the effects of storytelling, physical activities, songs, chants, and games on facilitating students' motivation and English learning in the classroom (Ghosn, 1998; Kim, 1997; Mello, 2001; Roney, 1996; Wilson, 1997). Crookes and Schmidt (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2003) categorized three areas with regard to the relation between motivation and pedagogical practices. The first area is "motivating students into the lesson" (p. 57) at the opening stages of lesson including teachers' remarks for upcoming activities. "Varying the activities, tasks, and materials" (ibid.) is the second area in order to avoid decreasing attention and boredom. The last one is "using co-operative rather than competitive goals" (ibid.) to increase self-confidence and motivation. These three show diverse approaches to motivate students in the classroom.

As teachers as well as researchers of early English education in Korea, Kim (1997) studied the effects of songs, chants, and games on young learners' language learning. She found that chants and games showed strong effects on children's language learning while songs didn't seem to affect child L2 learning significantly. On the other hand, Roney (1996) and Mello (2001) found that storytelling influences language learning significantly, allowing children to experience the nature of the world and strengthening their knowledge through experience.

Another suggestion to motivate young learners in the classroom comes from defining children with particular characteristics that are distinct from that of teen or adult ESL/ EFL learners. Brown (2000) indicated that children have several characteristics in second language learning. These are intellectual development, attention span, sensory input, affective factors, and authentic, meaningful language users. In terms of intellectual development, children are centered on the here and now, on the functional purposes of language. Therefore, explaining grammar using difficult terms such as present progressive would be a futile exercise. The second consideration of child learners' characteristics is their short attention span. It suggests that a lesson should need a variety of activities to keep interest and attention alive. The next consideration is sensory input. Children learn better with the five senses stimulated. Thus, incorporating physical activities in the classroom becomes ideal. For example, playing games, role-play or acting out, or Total Physical Response activities can help children develop language learning. The next considerations are affective factors and authentic and meaningful learning. These suggest that language should be embedded in context. Real-life conversations and meaningful language use are emphasized in this view (Bickart & Dodge, 2000; Brown, 2001).

2.3 Benefits of storytelling in children's English learning

Oral storytelling is attaining its position of respect in learning language, especially learning about oneself and the outside world. Not only children who are native speakers of English, but also ESL/EFL young learners gain benefits from the authenticity of stories. Since young learners learn language based on their experiences, storytelling, which provides indirect experiences and reinforces these experiences, will significantly contribute to children's language learning. Many researchers have emphasized storytelling in the English classroom. Mello (2001) examined the impact of storytelling on educational venues and found that storytelling helped language learning and strengthen the relationship between teachers and learners in the classroom. In addition, The National Council of Teachers of English in Urbana, IL, USA (2000) urged that storytelling is still

a very useful method in the classroom and suggested several effective instruction methods in the classroom.

3. Research Design

3.1 Research questions and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of diverse activities on children's English learning based on storytelling and to examine the effects of physical activities, such as playacting, arts and crafts, and cooking, as well as the effects of non-physical activities, such as songs, chants, and games on student participation (SP), student behavior (SB) and student achievement (SA) as determined by scores from tests conducted twice. This study intends to examine the claim that children learn better through physical movement as suggested by many researchers, especially Bickart and Dodge (2000) and Brown (2001). In order to do so, the data were analyzed using the total scores from tests and the levels of student participation and behavior during class. Thus, the following research questions and hypotheses were drawn:

Research questions:

1. Will student participation and behavior differ between the absence and the presence of diverse activities in children's storytelling class?
2. Will student participation and behavior be affected by the types of activities in children's storytelling class?
3. Will the students' English learning be affected by the types of activities in children's storytelling class?

Hypotheses:

1. There will be differences in children's English learning between the absence and the presence of diverse activities in children's storytelling class in an EFL classroom.
2. There will be differences in student participation and behavior in class between the use of physical and non-physical activities.

3. There will be more benefits from physical activities than non-physical activities in a child's English learning.

3.2 Methodology

3.2.1 Participants and Context

The participants in this study were 13 kindergarten students aged 7 (6 male and 7 female students) who were all students of K kindergarten located in Seoul. We met every Friday for 40 minutes of English class. Most of them had been learning English for least one year in the same Kindergarten and had participated in textbook-based English classes. Other than this English class, they also attended another textbook-based English class twice a week in the same kindergarten. Their English speaking and listening proficiency level was at Novice-low. At the beginning of the study, most of them could not read or write English very well. They, however, could figure out a limited number of words by looking at word cards and could pronounce sounds by looking at the cards.

3.2.2 Data Collection

The study lasted for about 3 months, from April to June 2005, and focused on diverse activities based on storytelling classes. The study was divided into two periods: the 1st period integrated physical activities into storytelling, and 2nd period integrated non-physical activities into storytelling. Diverse activities were applied to the each class and participants were observed by the researcher and the teacher aid, checking the degree of participation and behavior during class. The teacher aid was the homeroom teacher of the class in the kindergarten and helped students engage in the class activities. Data were collected from participant observation, field notes, and results of tests conducted twice. The researcher had the dual roles of observer and teacher in class. The researcher and the teacher aid discussed and double-checked the level of student participation and behavior in the field notes after each class was over and added several particular comments to the notes.

Since the study was intended to investigate the effects of diverse activities on children's English learning with the use of storytelling, the participants were tested twice: after incorporating physical activities (playacting, arts and crafts, and cooking) into the storytelling class and after conducting non-physical activities (songs, chants, and games) in class. The participants' English learning achievement was examined based on the test scores using the Mean Length of Utterance (MLU)¹ suggested by Brown (1973) for the tool of measure.

4. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed according to the following procedures. First, student participation and behavior were leveled, compared, corded, and graphed in terms of (1) the absence and the presence of diverse activities in storytelling, and (2) the types of activities - physical and non-physical - integrated into the storytelling. In order to examine the effects of diverse activities, the degree of SP and SB were compared between the absence and the presence of diverse activities and in order to investigate the effects of the types of activities, the test scores were compared in terms of SP (Student Participation), SB (Student Behavior), and SA (Student Achievement).

With regard to the effects of the absence and the presence of diverse activities, children showed better participation and behavior when they were engaged in diverse activities. Table 1 and chart 1 below reveal a significant difference between the absence and the presence of diverse activities in children's storytelling class. Table 1 and Chart 1 below show that the results from WOTA (without activities) showed 55.4 and 49.3 while those of W/TA (with activities) marked 80.5 and 71.5 in SP and SB.

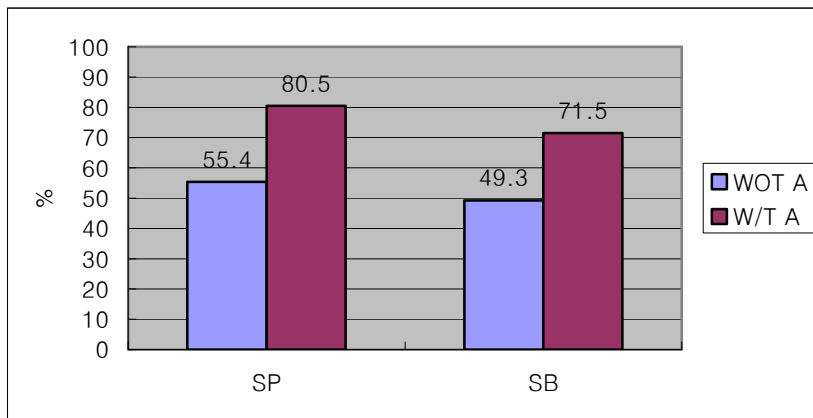
Table 1.
The effects of diverse activities on SP & SB

	SP	SB
WOT A	55.4	49.3
W/T A	80.5	71.5

Note. WOT A= Without diverse activities,
W/T A= With diverse activities

Chart 1.

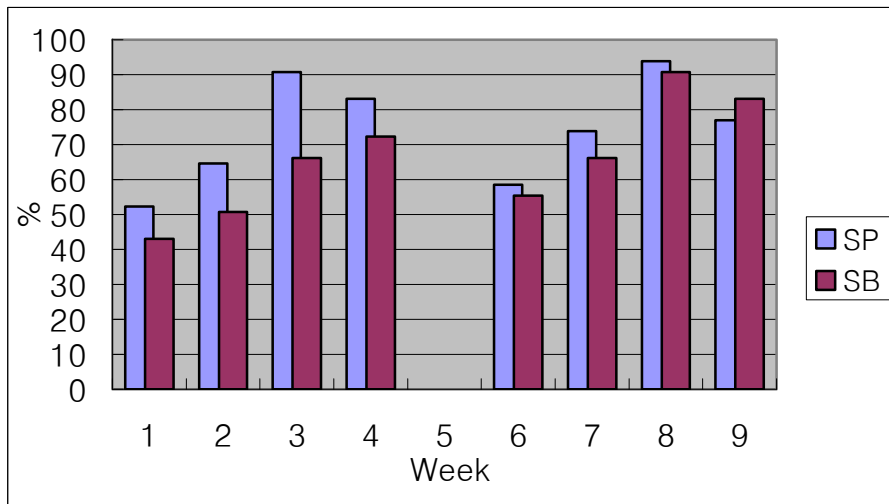
A comparison between the absence and the presence of diverse activities



Note. WOT A= Without diverse activities, W/T A= With diverse activities

Chart 2.

The effects of diverse activities on SP & SB



Note. Week 1 & 6: Storytelling without activities, Week 2: Arts & Crafts, Week 3: Playacting, Week 4: Cooking, Week 7: Songs, Week 8: Chants, Week 9: Games

Table 2.

The effects of diverse activities on SP, SB, & SA

Week	Student Participation (SP)								Student Behavior (SB)								Student Achievement (SA)	
Name	1	2	3	4	6	7	8	9	1	2	3	4	6	7	8	9	1st period (Week 1-4)	2nd period (Week 5-6)
Youbin	4	3	5	5	3	4	5	5	2	3	4	4	2	3	5	3	7	9
Minjung	3	3	5	5	3	4	5	3	3	3	5	5	4	4	5	4	6	8
Ayeong	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	5	5	5	10	10
Euisung	2	2	4	4	2	3	5	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	5	2	4	6
Bushin	1	1	4	4	2	3	5	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	4	2	5	6
Seunghyun	2	3	4	4	4	4	5	4	3	3	5	5	4	5	5	5	7	8
Hojun	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	2	3	2	5	4	5	5	4	10	10
Jaesuk	2	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	2	4	3	5	4	4	5	4	8	10
Seunghyuk	3	3	5	4	3	3	5	5	1	1	1	2	2	2	4	2	9	10
Youjin	3	3	5	4	3	4	5	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	5	4	8	9
Jiwon	1	4	4	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	3	3	1	2	5	3	2	4
Harim	4	5	5	5	3	4	5	3	3	4	5	4	3	4	3	4	6	8
Seungil	1	4	4	4	2	3	4	3	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	3	5	7
Total	34	42	59	54	38	48	61	50	28	33	43	47	36	43	59	54	87	105
Mean	2.62	3.23	4.54	4.15	2.92	3.69	4.69	3.85	2.15	2.54	3.31	3.62	2.77	3.31	4.54	4.15	6.69	8.08
Percentage	52.3	64.6	90.8	83.1	58.5	73.8	93.8	76.9	43.1	50.8	66.2	72.3	55.4	66.2	90.8	83.1		
Average	72.69230769				75.76923077				58.07692308				73.84615385				66.9	80.8

Note. Week 1 & 6: Storytelling without activities, Week 2-4: applied physical activities, Week 7-9: applied non-physical activities

The participants showed different results according to the types of activities as shown in Table 3 and Chart 3. The data were recalculated by percentage to account for SP, SB, and SA. With physical activities, students registered 72.7 percent in SP, 58.1 in SB, and 66.9 in SA while with non-physical activities, results showed 75.8 percent in SP, 73.9 in SB, and 80.8 in SA.

Table 3.

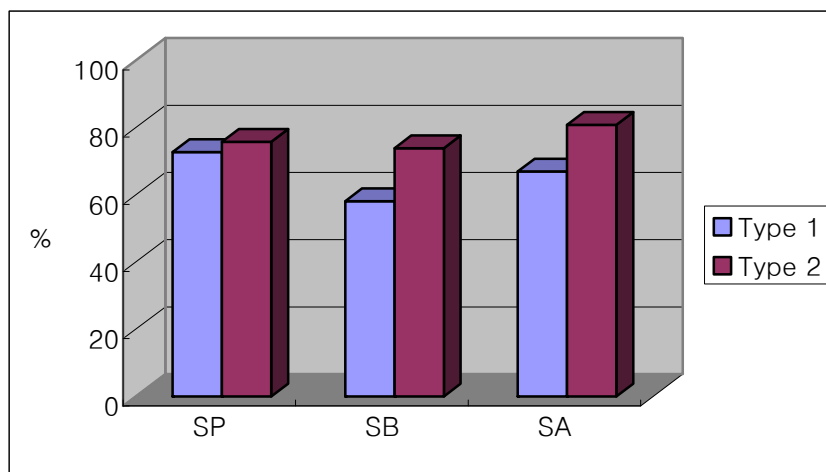
The effects of physical activities and non-physical activities on SP, SB, & SA

	SP	SB	SA
Type 1	72.7	58.1	66.9
Type 2	75.8	73.9	80.8

Note. The level of SP, SB, and SA were recalculated by percentage.
Type 1: Physical activities, Type 2: Non-physical activities

Chart 3.

The effects of physical and non-physical activities on SP, SB, & SA



Note. The level of SP, SB, and SA were recalculated by percentage.
Type 1: Physical activities, Type 2: Non-physical activities

5. Discussion

Many previous studies on child learning strategies have revealed the correlation between motivation and diverse activities in English learning (Brown, 2000; Kim, 1997; Oh, 2003). Kim (1997) examined the effects of songs, chants and games on elementary English learning and found in her study strong effects of chants and games on children's English learning. By examining the results of this study, we can see kindergarten students learn and develop their

English learning more when they are provided with a variety of activities, especially chants integrated with storytelling. Students have shown better achievement in language learning when they were engaged in non-physical activities, such as songs, chants, and games. However, the respective results show that activities are not in a dichotomous “physical/ non-physical” opposition, since chants, playacting, games, and cooking obtained rationally higher positions than other activities. Thus the first hypothesis was confirmed true when student participation and behavior showed to improve when they were engaged in diverse activities in the classroom. The second hypothesis was also proven true with results showing that student participation and behavior were highly influenced by respective activities not necessarily in dichotomous configuration. The last hypothesis was also proven when the young learners showed to be highly affected by non-physical activities in class.

In conclusion, the results show that there are significant effects on SP and SB when diverse activities are integrated with storytelling. In addition, with regard to the dichotomy between physical and non-physical activities, the opposition seems be clear when it comes to effects on SB and SA, but there is no significant importance in the distinction between physical and non-physical activities in terms of the effects of the activities on SP. In fact, chants marked the highest percentage of effect on SP and SB among diverse activities followed by playacting, games, and cooking. On the contrary, arts and crafts and songs placed in low positions compared with other activities. It can be inferred that kindergarten students seem to have difficulty in arts and crafts due to the complexity of instructions. In addition, the positive effects of songs did not play an important role in terms of SP and SB during the storytelling class.

6. Conclusions & Pedagogical Implications

The study was designed to find out the effectiveness of diverse activities incorporated in children’s storytelling class. It was a qualitative study that lasted three months from April to June

2005, and the lessons were designed to apply diverse activities in terms of physical activities and non-physical activities. The physical activities included playacting, arts and crafts, and cooking and the non-physical activities included songs, chants, and games. Results have shown the effectiveness of diverse activities especially, chants, playacting, and cooking in terms of student participation, student behavior, and student achievement in English learning. Student participation and behavior ranged from 1 to 5 and recalculated by percentage accordingly. Meanwhile, student achievement tests were scored with the aid of the MLU suggested by Brown (1973) for the tool of measure.

The results of the study may have the following implications on storytelling in language learning. First, a storytelling class should include diverse activities. Second, the types of activities should be considered according to the age of students: kindergarten students seem to be highly involved in chants, playacting, and cooking. The dichotomy of physical/ non-physical activities does not really matter when the teachers plan the activities for kindergarten students. Lastly, textbooks should include diverse activities that are selected according to the age of the learners.

The study has limitations: activities were tested only once during the study and so, further studies on this topic should examine the validity of the results by testing more than twice for each activity. Furthermore, there should be a relation between student responses and the complexity of physical activities. During the study, I found that physical activities involve more complexity than non-physical activities in terms of instructions. In other words, physical activities require students to follow many different types of instructions while non-physical activities require students to follow repeated lines. Therefore, further studies should explore the levels of complexity of activities. Finally, checking the level of student participation and behavior requires more evaluators than only two, the teacher (researcher) and the teacher aid.

Note

1. MLU (Mean length of Utterance): In 1973, Brown proposed MLU as the best estimation of grammatical complexity in early child language. It consists of 5 stages: MLU I (for MLUs between 1.0 and 2.0), MLU II (for MLUs between 2.0 and 2.5), MLU III (for MLUs between 2.5 and 3.0), MLU IV (for MLUs between 3.0 and 3.5), MLU V (for MLUs between 3.5 and 4.0).

References

- Bickart, T. S., & Dodge, D. T. (2000). *How curriculum frameworks respond to developmental stages: Birth through age 8*. Retrieved November, 6, 2000, from the Eric: <http://ericecece.org/pubs/books/katzsym/dodge.pdf>. (ERIC Document No. ED470874)
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.: A Pearson Education Company.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Longman.
- Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching language to young learners*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Cantoni, G. P. (1999). *Using TPR-storytelling to develop fluency and literacy in native American language*. (ERIC Document No. ED428927)
- Cook, V. (2001). *Second language learning and language teaching*. Arnold.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41 (4), 469-512.
- Dornyei, Z., & Schmidt, R. (Eds.). (2002). *Motivation and second language acquisition*. Manoa: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Feunteun, A., & Vale, D. (1995). *Teaching children English: An activity based training course*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Gardner, R. C. (2002). Integrative Motivation and second language acquisition. In Dornyei, Z., & Schmidt, R (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 1-20). Second Language teaching & curriculum center.
- Gardner, R. C., Day, J. B., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). Integrative motivation, induced anxiety, and language learning in a controlled environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 14, (2), 197-214.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2001). *Second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum associates.
- Gilbert, J. L. (2001). Getting help from Erikson, Piaget and Vygotsky: Developing Infant-Toddler curriculum.
- Ghosn, I. (1998). *New directions in EFL: Literature for language and change in the primary school*. 32nd Annual TESOL Convention, Seattle, March 1998
- Kettel, R. P. (1994). Motivating the Reluctant Reader: Using the Storytelling Episode Model.
- Hadley, A. O. (2001). *Teaching language in context*. Heinle & Heinle.
- Hand, A. N., & Moinghan, P. (1999). Integrating diversity into curriculum. *First class: A Guide for Early Primary Education*, 107-110
- Jahn, D. M., & Venn, C. E. (2004). Appropriate practices in early childhood literacy using individually appropriate instruction. *Teaching and Learning in Preschool*, pp.16-42.

- Johnson, M. (2004). *A philosophy of second language acquisition*. Yale University Press.
- Kim, Y. H. (1997). *The effect of songs, chants, and games on child English learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Sookmyung University, Seoul, Korea.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2001). Factors Affecting second language learning. In Candlin, C.N., and Mercer, N (Eds.), *English language teaching in its social context* (pp.28-43). Compilation, original and editorial material Macquarie University and The Open University; individual articles.
- Lightbown P. M., & Spada, N. (2003). *How languages are learned*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press
- Lindfors, J. W. (2003). How children learn or how teachers teach. In Sharon, M. & Dulay – Maling, Curt (Eds.), *Literacy through "Language Arts": Teaching and Learning in Context*, 11- 25.
- Ma, L. (1994). Storytelling as a Teaching – Learning Strategy: A Nonnative Instructor's Perspective.
- Mello, R. (2001). University of Wisconsin System School Library Education Consortium program evaluation 2000-2001. (Private research report). Department of Educational Foundations, Library Media Program, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater.
- Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories*. Arnold.
- Norton, L. S. (2001). *Essay Feedback: How can it help students improve their academic writing?* Reports - Research, Speeches/Meeting Papers
- Ogletree, E. J. (1997). Waldorf Education: Theory of Child Development and Teaching Method.
- Oh, S. J. (2001). A study of an English kindergarten immersion program in Korea. *Research paper*
- Park, H. S. (2004). The role of interaction in child L2 acquisition. *English Teaching*, 59(4)
- Reynolds, G. (1992). Teaching and storytelling: A "Foxfire" Approach. *Bread Loaf News Journal*.
- Roney, R. C. (1996). Storytelling in the Classroom: Some Theoretical Thoughts." *Storytelling World*. Volume 5, No. 1 (Winter/Spring, 1996), pp. 7-9.
- Sebesta, S. L. (1987). Creative Drama and Language Arts. In Cottrell, J. *Creative Drama in the Classroom*, pp. 41-54.
- Seifert, P. (1999). Inquiry in the Kindergarten. In Lindford, Wells, J., & Townsend, J. S. (Eds.). *Teaching Language Arts: Learning through Dialog*.
- Sohmer, R., & Wertsch, J. (1995). Vygotsky on learning and development. *Human Development*, pp.332-337.
- Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum: Awareness, autonomy, and authenticity*. Longman
- Wilson, J. A. (1997). A program to develop the listening and speaking skills of children in a First and Grade classroom.

Different Stages of Grammar Lesson Plans

Yeonjoo Lee

TESOL 2nd semester

The purpose of this project is to aid language teachers in creating grammar lesson plans that will help language learners move through the process of learning to use grammar points. This paper adopts four grammar lessons at four different stages. Each lesson plan demonstrates the teaching of different grammar points from the first level of awareness, some partial control, good partial control, to the last level of full control. In the first part of awareness, two tasks are introduced using the grammar points of indirect objects and relative clauses. The second part of the lesson plan focuses on bringing the language learners to the level of some partial control using the grammar points of prepositions and particles. Reaching the next level of good partial control is demonstrated by introducing a grammar lesson on articles. Lastly, a grammar lesson plan for infinitives and gerunds is demonstrated at the level of full control.

1. Introduction

This lesson plan is based on the idea that language learners learn grammar points through several stages. These stages are awareness, some partial control, good partial control, and full control. At the awareness stage, matching, two emails and a tour guide are adopted to show how language teachers can plan a grammar lesson at this level. At the level of some partial control, a grammar lesson using an advertising flyer and instructions on how to play Jenga is demonstrated. The next level of good partial control is demonstrated by creating a dialogue and a shopping list. Lastly, an information gap is adopted to demonstrate how to create a grammar

lesson at the full control stage. At the end of each stage, task evaluations are described.

2. Awareness

2.1 Tasks and Grammar Explanation for Indirect Objects

2.1.1 Task One

2.1.1.1 Activity One: Encountering Indirect Objects

Before explaining the *indirect object*, the teacher asks students to do the following exercise. She asks, “Who probably said each of the following sentences? Match the sentences and speakers. As you match, think and discuss with your partner why those words are underlined. The first one is done for you.”

Table1. Matching

1. _F_ “Please show <u>me</u> your driver’s license.”	A. an immigration officer
2. ____ “I explained the answers <u>to you</u> in the last class.”	B. a child
3. ____ “Please send this letter <u>to Korea</u> .”	C. a restaurant customer
4. ____ “Let’s e-mail this joke <u>to Bill</u> . It’s funny.”	D. someone at an office
5. ____ “Please pass <u>me</u> the salt and pepper.”	E. a teacher
6. ____ “Read the story again <u>to me</u> , please.”	F. a police officer
7. ____ “Give <u>me</u> your passport, please.”	G. a post office customer
8. ____ “I sent the information <u>to you</u> two days ago.”	H. a friend

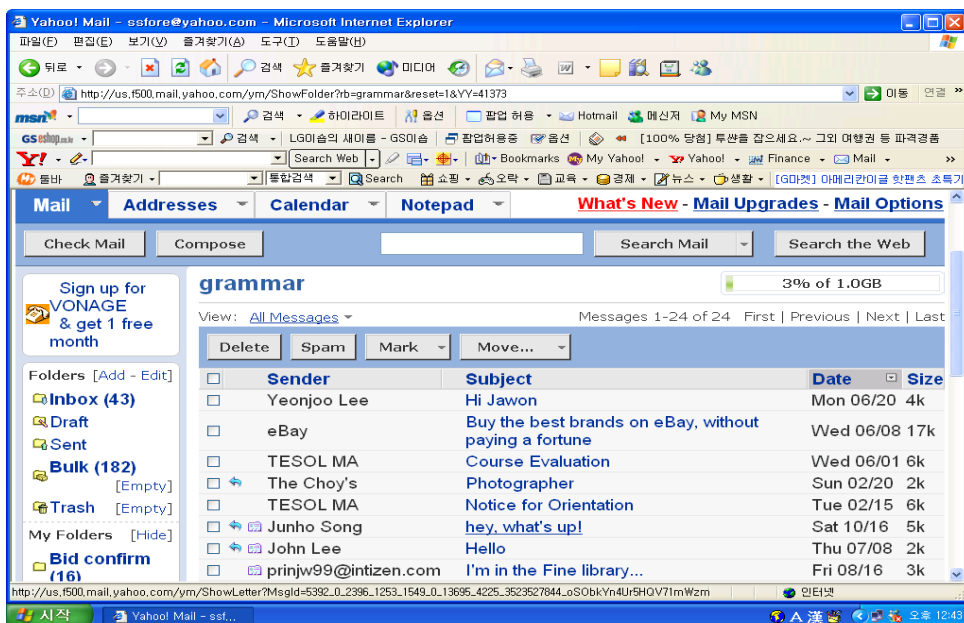
After finishing the exercise, she checks the answers and discusses why those words are underlined and then explains basic grammar points about *indirect objects*. She begins, “*me* in the first sentence, *to you* in the second sentence, *to Korea* in the third sentence and what would be the next one?” Students try to guess what would be the next answer then she continues, “*to Bill* in the fourth sentence, *to me* in the fifth sentence, *to me* in the next sentence, *me* in seventh, and *to you* in the last sentence.”

She now explains the grammar point. “In the exercise you just finished doing, you found a common grammar point called *indirect objects*.” She continues, “*Indirect objects* answer the questions to whom or to what. For example, ‘To whom did they want to email this joke?’ ‘They wanted to email Bill.’ *To Bill* is an indirect object in this sentence.” She shows the students another example. “‘To whom did she send the present?’ ‘Yoko’s mom sent it *to Yoko*.’ Yoko in this sentence is an indirect object.” She continues explaining, “The *indirect object* always modifies the verb. It is used with verbs such as *give, tell, send, get, buy, show, build, do, make, save, and read*. For instance, “She sent the *man* and *me* a gift.” She next moves on to a task.

2.1.1.2 Activity Two: Reading the Front Page of an Email

The teacher gives a handout, which is a copy of an actual email written in English. She says to students, “When you log in, this is the first page you see. It is different depending on what email you use. This is the Yahoo email I use. Let’s first see what features you can find.” Students work in pairs to find out features on this page. They check answers with the teacher.

Table2. First page of email

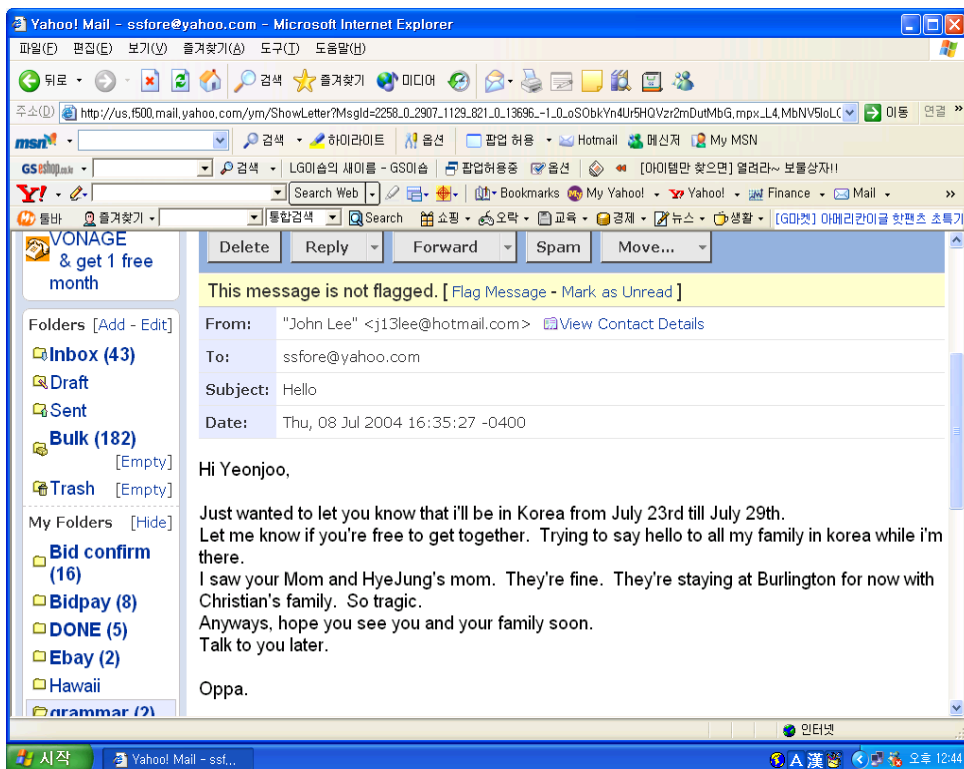


The teacher summarizes, “You have boxes of mail, addresses, calendar, and a notepad. The mailbox is what I mostly use among those boxes. In the mailbox you have ‘check mail’ and ‘compose’ boxes on top. Under the check mail box, there are different folders where you can categorize your emails. Out of those folders I opened the grammar folder in which I have kept emails that might be useful for you to read.” As you see there are many emails I have received from everywhere.” Students and the teacher read the two columns of sender and subject. Afterward she says, “Today we will read the sixth email sent by John Lee. Now turn to the next page, which is what you will see when you click on that email.”

2.1.1.3 Activity Three: Noticing Indirect Objects

The teacher instructs students on how to do activity three. She says, “When you open this email, you will see what John, also called Oppa, wrote to Yeonjoo. You will find indirect objects and underline them as you read. I’ll give you three minutes. Work alone.”

Table3. Email

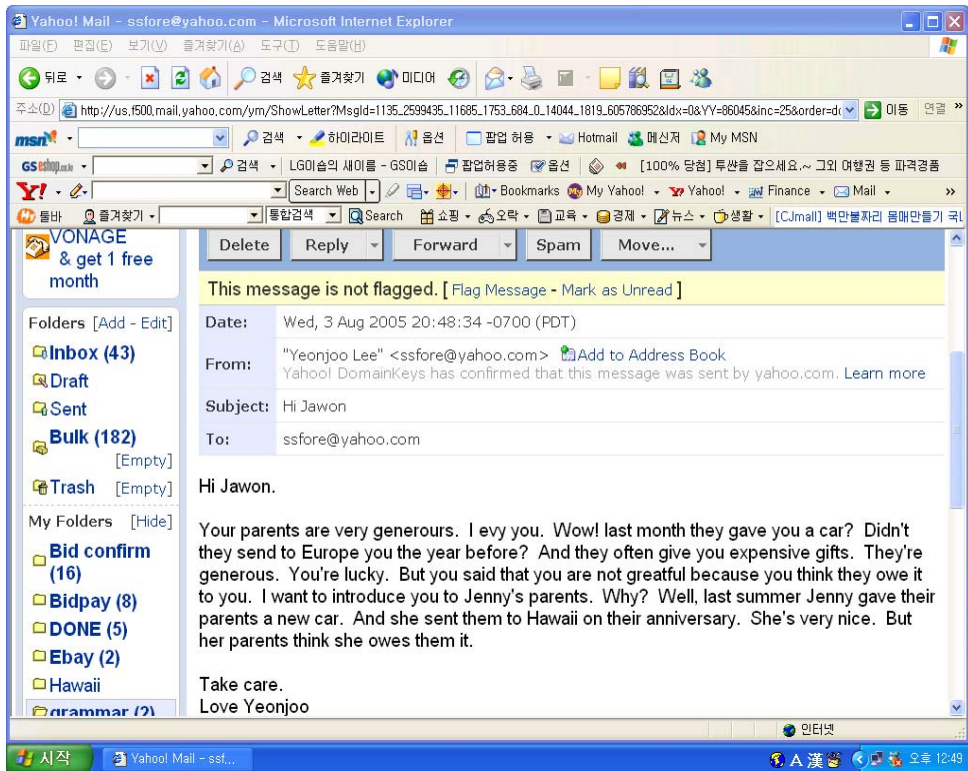


When students are done they share the answers in class then the teacher summarizes the answer. “Indirect objects in this email are *you* in the first line, *me* and *to all my family* in the second line. Well done. Now we’ll move on to the next task.”

2.1.2 Task Two

The teacher explains how to do the next task. “Let’s come back to the first page of this email. This time let’s open the first email. This email is shown on the third page of your handout. Open the third page. This is the email I wrote to my friend whose parents are rich.” She continues explaining. “As you read you’ll find four errors that used indirect objects wrong. Let’s first find them and then correct them if possible. Work with your partner.”

Table4. Email




After finishing the task she corrects the errors with students.

2.2 Tasks and Grammar Explanation for Relative Clauses

2.2.1 Task One

2.2.1.1 Activity One: Encountering Relative Clauses

Table5. Tour guide: Hawaii shark encounters



Hawaii Shark Encounters

Island:	Oahu
Area:	North Shore
Category:	Tours

[Website](#)[E-Mail](#)

Hours: Daily at 6:00 a.m., 8:30 a.m., and 10:00 a.m.

Services: Underwater encounters with sharks

Review: This one is not for the faint-hearted. Hawaii Shark Encounters offers what they call "experiences of a lifetime." Their shark-boat, the Kainani, departs twice daily for a three-mile cruise out to the "shark grounds," where you'll get close and personal with these predators of the deep. Their steel cage with Plexiglas windows lets you view the sharks in perfect safety and there's no diving involved. The cage stays at the surface and you'll be equipped with a mask and snorkel. Most of the sharks are galapagos and sandbar sharks, though tiger, hammerhead and gray reef sharks show up occasionally. The best part is that they guarantee a shark encounter! Advance reservations are required.

The teacher gives handouts of a tour guide. She talks to students, “Today we are going to read a tour guide about visiting Hawaii. This is one activity you can do in Hawaii. As you read, think about the underlined words and try to come up with reasons why they are underlined. Also, try to figure out what they are referring to.” Students

discuss the task with their partners. When they are done, the teacher asks them and listens to students' answers.

Afterwards she explains to students the relative clauses. She says, "The underlined words are called *relative clauses*. A *relative clause* acts as a clause that modifies a noun or pronoun. Relative clauses begin with a relative pronoun. Relative pronouns are who, whom, which, that and whose. Relative clauses can either be restrictive or nonrestrictive." She continues, "A restrictive relative clause is essential in order to complete the meaning of the main clause. For example, 'Is he the one whose house is on fire?' *Whose* in this sentence is restrictive relative and you need it in order to make sense."

She now talks about non-restrictive clauses. She says, "A nonrestrictive relative clause adds definition to the main clause, but is not necessary for meaning. Nonrestrictive relative clauses are set off by commas. For example, 'The tuba player, whose house is on fire, just went to band practice.' What's between the commas can be omitted and it still makes sense."

2.2.1.2 Activity Two: Finding Out Relative Clauses

She moves on to the next activity and instructs students, "We've learned about restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Find out which ones are restrictive and which ones are non-restrictive clauses in the tour guide you read." Students read the article again. When they are finished, students and the teacher talk about it together. The teacher summarizes, "The first *what* and the last *that* are restrictive clauses which means they are essential in those sentences. The second *where* clause however, can be omitted because it is non-restrictive and the sentence still makes sense without it.

2.2.2 Task Two

In this task, students are given another handout about an actual review written by a tourist. She explains to students, "Let's imagine you are

going to visit Hawaii. You want to find out about tourist attractions. This is one of the tour reviews written by a tourist who visited Hawaii. This person visited a place called Polynesian Cultural Center. As you read look for relative clauses and underline them. ”

Table 6. Visiting the Polynesian Cultural Center

My husband and I spent the day at the PCC and really enjoyed it. I found it very educational. I especially enjoyed the Hawaiian village, which taught about the musical influences of Hawaii. The students working at the center all seemed to really enjoy their jobs. I would recommend this to anyone who understands that this is not like a theme park with rides and such, but is a fun, educational experience about the Polynesian islands. Some people hate this sort of thing, so take this into consideration. Also, it is run by the Mormon church, so there is no alcohol or even caffeine for that matter. If no mai tai's would ruin your luau experience, one of the other luaus might be a better deal for you. Personally, I loved the family friendly atmosphere.

We did a self guided tour and did not have any trouble finding our way around. They gave us a map and a schedule of what would be occurring during the day. I purchased the Ali'i luau package and booked online early, so we had a very good seat for the evening show. The luau food was good for buffet food, but it was buffet food (the food was not cold like I had read). I enjoyed trying many of the traditional Hawaiian foods, even if I didn't like many of them. But now I can badmouth poi with authority! However, the Kailua pork was wonderful!

The show Horizons was excellent. I was very impressed with the students' talent and they did a fabulous job of mixing in humor so that it was very entertaining. The set was amazing with waterfalls and it is outdoors. The audience is in a covered area (I assume for when it rains). It was really an amazing facility. Overall, a very wonderful day.

At the end of the class students will be given a homework assignment to find out tour information containing relative clauses. She says to students, “Find any kind of information for visiting Hawaii. There are tons of information available online. Search under the word Hawaii or travel. Scan the information and find at least four relative clauses.

2.3 Task Evaluation

Throughout the lesson plan authentic texts are used because the language learners should be exposed to grammar used in real context. For that reason, the first email is what my cousin, who is a native speaker, actually emailed me. The second email was adapted from a grammar textbook to correspond to my students’ proficiency level. This text however, is modified to read as if I personally wrote it to my friend.

The tasks follow this particular order: introducing the grammar rules by doing a simple exercise, then moving on to a task of reading emails. Before reading the actual mail, an email written in English is introduced. Most students are familiar with email but not many of them have used emails written in English. This lesson is for the awareness level. However, introducing email may give them a chance to become familiar with authentic text and to write emails in English later on. In the first email they just have to be aware of indirect objects, which they have just learned. In the next email they have to notice the grammar rules and also correct the errors, if possible. The students are asked to correct at the awareness level because most university students have at least encountered a grammar lesson on indirect objects in their high school English class, thus, some of them may know how to correct.

Tasks should always be contextually rich. For the tasks on relative clauses, I tried to make them contextually rich as well as authentic. That is why a tour guide and a tour guide review written by a tourist were chosen. In this lesson students are given a task to find out

information about Hawaii. Furthermore, they are given a task to collect information about Hawaii from other sources before visiting. First, students are given handouts introducing relative clauses through a text about a tourist attraction in Hawaii. Next, they receive a review written by a native speaker to show them how relative clauses are used in writing.

One reason I chose Hawaii for teaching grammar rules is that Hawaii is famous and people want to visit it. Students would be more interested in learning about a famous place. In addition, I lived in Hawaii for a few years and because of that I am very familiar with the place. I can provide accurate and real information to my students.

In the activities focused on indirect objects and relative clauses, the grammar rules are not mentioned until they finish the exercise. This is an inductive approach to grammar teaching. According to Thornbury (1999), discovering rules through inductive teaching makes the rules more meaningful and memorable. He also stated that students are more actively involved in the learning process rather than being passive. Therefore, they are more motivated and attentive.

Still according to Thornbury (1999), the inductive approach may take too much time and energy on working out rules. For that reason I tried to come up with activities where students can easily discover the simple rules without having to analyze too much.

3. Some Partial Control

3.1 Tasks and Grammar explanation for Prepositions and Particles

3.1.1 Task One

3.1.1.1 Activity One

The teacher asks students what their plans are for the summer vacation. She suggests some exciting activities for her students. First she gives a flyer about a field trip to the Amazon. She says, “This is a flyer advertising a field trip to the Amazon. You’re considering taking a trip

somewhere and this may be a good or bad choice for you. Read carefully and as you read, choose the right words from the box that are closest in meaning to the verbs in parentheses. The first blank is done for you.”

Table7. Flyer

fill out

find out

get up

hand in

pass up

pick up

seat up

sign up

talk over

work out

Two weeks in the Amazon! ____Sign up____ Now!

1. (register)

The Biology Department is now _____ its summer field trip

2. (preparing)

(to) the Amazonian rain forest () Venezuela. _____

your

3. (get)

Application () the Department Office (Room 215), and _____

if _____ right away. _____ it

4. (complete)

5. (submit)

by May 1.

Last summer we collected plants and identified them. This summer we

plan to talk () local people and _____ how they use plants in

6. (discover)

traditional medicine. This trip is very challenging. We travel (to)our camp () canoe. When there are problems, we _____

them_____

	7. (solve)
() ourselves. We _____ very early and we	
8. (arise)	
work hard. There is also some danger, so _____ the trip	

	9. (discuss)
() your families before you decide. We hope you won't	
_____ this	
	10.
(reject)	
chance to do important "hands-on science."	

When students are done she goes over the answers and explains about the particles. She starts, "What you just filled in are called *phrasal verbs*. They are also called two-part or two-word verbs because they consist of a verb and a particle. On, off, up and down are common particles. They may look like prepositions, however, particles are part of the verb phrase, and they often change the meaning of the verb." She continues a grammar lesson by giving examples. "For example, *She's looking up at the sky* and *She's looking up the word* have different meanings. The first one means that she's looking in the direction of the sky. On the other hand, the second one means she's searching for the word in the dictionary. *Up* in the first one is a preposition and *up* in the second one is a particle."

3.1.1.2 Activity Two

This time she tells students to read the flyer again and fill in the missing words in the parentheses. When they are done they go over the answers together. She now explains the prepositions. She tells them, "These are the ones called prepositions. You may be familiar with them. As you see prepositions are used by themselves unlike particles. Let me tell

you more about the prepositions. They tell you where things are, how things move, where they go, and when things happen. For instance, *in Arizona* tells you where the location is. *To our camp* tells you where they go and *by canoe* tells you how they move. An example of indicating when things happened would be *I saw a mouse in the afternoon*.


3.1.2 Task Two

The teacher introduces another activity that students can enjoy. She shows Jenga then says, “This is called Jenga. This is very popular in Korea. You can play this in a board-game room. If you buy it you can play at home or anywhere. This will help your vacation become less boring.” She continues, “In order to play Jenga, you need to fill in the blanks using the given words first. When you are done we will play according to the directions.

Table 8. How to Play Jenga

You may use one word more than one time.

on	set up	without	by	After
put aside	from	below	slide away	in



Jenga

For Any Number of Players

Remove one block at a time from the tower, and stack it _____top.
The last player to stack a block _____ making the tower fall wins the game.

SETUP

1. One player builds the tower _____ a flat, sturdy surface _____ using the loading tray as shown below. Place three blocks in each layer, at right angles to the previous layer.

When you finish you'll have a solid, 18-story tower that can more than double during play!

2. Use the loading tray to set the tower upright. Then carefully _____ the tray _____ and _____ it _____.

PLAY

1. The player who built the tower goes first. Play then continues to the left.
2. On your turn, carefully remove a block _____ anywhere _____ the highest completed story. Then stack it _____ top of the tower, _____ right angles to the blocks just below it.
3. Removing and Stacking Blocks
 - Remove and stack one block per turn. To remove a block, use one hand at a time. You can switch hands whenever you wish.
 - As play proceeds and the weight of the tower shifts, some blocks become looser than others and are easier to remove. You can touch other blocks to find a loose one – but if you move a block out of place, you must fix (using one hand only) before touching another block.
 - While stacking, always complete one 3 – block story before starting a higher one.
4. Your turn ends 10 seconds _____ you stack your block-or as soon as the player to your left touches a block.
5. Keep removing and stacking blocks until the tower falls. A real pro can build a tower 36 stories high – or more!

WHO WINS?

The last player to take a turn _____ making the tower fall wins the game. The player responsible for making the tower fall gets to _____ the tower for the next game!

SOLO PLAY: Play alone for practice. Can you top your record height before the tower falls!

3.2 Task Evaluation

In this lesson tasks are chosen for students to enjoy their summer vacation. The first activity is a flyer introducing a trip to the Amazon. Korean students may not be familiar with the Amazon and this may be a chance for them to learn about a foreign culture and what foreign students do during their summer vacation. For the next task, directions on how to play Jenga are demonstrated. Every student likes to play a game. In order to play the game, they first have to complete their task. This motivates students to be more active in their tasks.

For this second lesson, I made the task order the same as the previous lesson. First I introduced an activity containing prepositions and particles then explained the grammar rules later. In this lesson students are first exposed to the rules in context instead of discovering them. The rules are explained afterwards. The way of deductive teaching can save time and students can clearly understand the rules. For Thornbury (1999) a deductive approach starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied.

In the first activity, I tried to help students expand their lexicon by letting them do a fill-in-the-gap task. According to Lewis (1997), in the early stages, the teacher expects only comprehension, not production. In this lesson I expect students to be exposed to prepositions and particles and understand how they are used. In task two I made the students repeat some of the prepositions because Lewis (1997) and many other researchers argue that repetition is valuable and that learners acquire an individual word by meeting it a number of times.

4. Good Partial Control

4.1 Task and Grammar explanation for Articles

4.1.1 Task One

Table 9. Dialogue

Hanna:	Who are they?
Jean:	They're my dogs.
Hanna:	Your dogs? They're lovely!
Jean:	This is Choco on the right. She is a friendly poodle. And Vanilla is on the left. She's a pure jindo. She is a very smart dog.
Hanna:	I have a cat, a hamster, a rabbit, and an iguana. After seeing your lovely dogs, now I want to have a dog, too.
Jean:	You should get one. They are loyal and lovely.

In this activity the teacher gives a dialogue using articles. After reading the dialogue, the teacher asks some questions. “What does Hanna and Jean have?” The expected answers would be, “Hanna has dogs.” “Jean has a cat, a hamster, a rabbit and an iguana.” The teacher explains briefly that *dogs* means more than one and *a cat* means only one cat. She continues explaining that *a hamster* means only one hamster and *a* is used with only one item that can be counted.

4.1.2 Task Two

4.1.2.1 Activity One

In the previous class the teacher gave an assignment to students to bring an item that they want to buy at a grocery shop. She tells them to take out what they brought and put them on the desk. The teacher also brings in a bag of grocery items. She takes out what is in the bag. There is an apple, a tomato, an orange, a spoon, a fork, a dish, a toothbrush, a tube of toothpaste, a hat, a pen and an umbrella. She points at a spoon then says, “a spoon” She then tells students to repeat. This time she points at an umbrella and says, “It’s an umbrella” then students repeat after her. She

repeats this speaking practice with other items that students brought. As they repeat she writes down the list on the board.

Table 10. Shopping List

<u>Shopping List</u>
I want to buy a _____ or an _____ when I go to E-Mart with my mom.
a cookie
an orange
an umbrella
a robot
a mini car
an apple
a doll
a story book

When this activity is done, she explains the grammar point on articles. She says, “Use *a* before singular count nouns that begin with a consonant sound such as *b, c, d, f, g, h*, and etc. Nouns are the names of people, places, and things. *It’s a hat* and *It’s a notebook* would be examples. You use *an* before singular count nouns that begin with a vowel sound such as *a, e, i, o, u*. *It’s an apple* and *It’s an umbrella* would be examples of using the article *an*.

4.1.2.2 Activity Two

When students practiced speaking enough using articles, she tells them to work in small groups. She says, “Discuss things you can buy at the market such as E-Mart. It can be any item but it should be used with articles.” When students finish the discussion the teacher tells them to

stand up and make a circle. She instructs them, “I’m going to throw a ball to a student. Whoever gets the ball has to say what he or she wants to buy at the market. For example, ‘I want to buy an apple’, or ‘I want to buy a banana.’ After saying a sentence using an article, the student throws the ball to another person.” They continue this activity until everyone gets a chance to speak at least once.

4.1.2.3 Activity Three

When they finish the first task, they move on to the next task of writing a paragraph using articles. The teacher says, “You are going to be shopping at Lotte department store this weekend with your parents. They are going to buy you a birthday present. Before going to the store you want to make a list of what you want to buy because you want to buy so many things and cannot decide which one to choose. As they write the teacher goes around and helps students.

When they finish writing, the teacher asks a few volunteers to share their writing with the whole class. As they read their writing the teacher does not correct any errors. At the end she just comments on general errors if necessary.

4.2 Task Evaluation

Unlike in the other lessons, the students’ proficiency level in this lesson is lower. I tried to make the first task contextually rich based on the students’ level. In the first task the teacher asks a question for students to answer using articles. Simple questions are used because students are not able to make full sentences. Even the rules are very simple for them to understand. Third graders would not want to know about the exact grammar rules compared to adult learners who can tolerate the ambiguity.

For the second task, the TPR method is used with realia. Students were asked to bring an item, which they can buy at the market. Using realia for beginners is useful because it gets the students’ attention and they are more involved if the realia items are personal to them.

According to Thornbury (1999), the TPR style for a lesson puts no pressure on the learners to speak. Instead, the learners would repeat the commands. For this reason, students simply repeat after the teacher. However, the lesson moves from the TPR to the students creating their own sentences. Even though students create their own sentences, I showed them the pattern of sentences attuned to their proficiency level. In activity one in task two, they were asked to create sentences using the example sentence written on the board. After finishing the activity, they should be able to write a short paragraph using articles.

5. Full Control

5.1 Tasks and Grammar explanation for Infinitives and Gerunds

5.1.1 Task One

5.1.1.1 Activity One

The teacher first asks a question. “What are your strategies for remembering names?” Students answer their personal opinions. Afterwards she gives a magazine article. As a reading task, she tells students to categorize bold words under two categories.

Table 11. Reading

<u>Stop Forgetting</u>
Marta wanted to go to the party. She’s friendly and enjoys meeting people. But as Marta looked at the invitation, part of her kept saying , “I won’t know anyone there! How will I remember all those new names?” Marta’s problem is not unusual. Remembering names is a problem for many people. For international travelers like Marta (She’s a Mexican student studying in the United States.), it is even harder to recall unfamiliar foreign names. What can Marta and others like her do? Here are some tips from memory experts:

- ⇒ **Decide to remember.** **Making** an effort can really help.
- ⇒ Listen carefully when you hear someone's name for the first time. It's important **to pay** attention.
- ⇒ **Keep repeating** the name. **Calling** the person by name more than once will help fix the name in your mind.
- ⇒ Write the name down. **Putting** things in writing is the most common memory aid.
- ⇒ Don't hesitate **to ask** the person **to repeat** the name. Most people **don't mind doing** this.
- ⇒ And last, but not least.
Stop worrying. Anxiety only makes the problem worse.

When they finished, they answer the questions and she writes them under two categories on the board.

Table 12. Gerunds and Infinitives

Gerunds	Infinitives
enjoys meeting	wanted to go
kept saying	to recall
remembering	decided to remember
making	to pay
keep repeating	don't hesitate to ask
calling	to repeat
putting	
don't mind doing	
stop worrying	

She explains the grammar point on gerunds, "Some verbs are followed by the gerund. Gerunds are verbs that function like nouns. The base form is verb + -ing. Gerunds can be the subject or object of a sentence. As you see on the board, *meeting* in *she enjoys meeting people*

is a gerund used as an object.”

“Some verbs are followed by the infinitive. The base form is to + verb. For instance, as you read in the article, *Marta wanted to go to the party* is an example of using the infinitive.” She adds, “Some verbs can be followed by either the gerund or the infinitive. For instance, you can say *Marta loves meeting new people*, or *Marta loves to meet new people*.” She continues, “You have to be careful. A few verbs such as stop, remember and forget can be followed by either the gerund or the infinitive, but the meanings are very different.” When her grammar explanation is done she moves on to the next activity.

5.1.1.2 Activity Two

In this activity she tells students to work in small groups. She tells them to read the article again and discuss the following questions:

- A. Do you have trouble remembering peoples’ names?
- B. Do you follow any of the experts’ memory tips?
- C. What other things do you have trouble remembering?
- D. What tricks do you use to remember things?

When they are finished, she asks students about what they discussed.

5.1.2 Task Two

5.1.2.1 Activity One: Information Gap

The teacher gives two different handouts to students. They work in pairs, A and B. Student B looks at the information gap on Appendix A and follows the instructions. Student A looks at the picture on Appendix B. The teacher says, “Ask your partner questions to complete what people said at the party. Answer your partner’s questions.”

5.1.2.2 Activity Two

When students are done, she tells them to close their books. She then

says, “Try to remember each person’s name and what each person said.”

5.1.2.3 Activity Three

In this activity she tells students to write a short letter to someone they know. She says, “Describe your recent social activities in the letter. Try to use some of the verbs using gerunds and infinitive.”

5.2 Task Evaluation

Before introducing the lesson topic, students were asked a personal question related to the lesson to get their attention and then they read an article about forgetting names. This is a familiar topic to many people and will make the reading more enjoyable. As they read they were asked to categorize the highlighted words even without knowing the grammar rules. Here I also used the inductive approach starting with some examples. Thornbury’s (1999) inductive approach starts with some examples from which a rule is inferred. However, I explain the rules clearly after the task because it will make them understand the rules faster and more clearly. After the grammar explanation, students were given discussion questions. This is a full-control lesson because they should be able to lead the class and express their thoughts at their level though they may have some errors in speaking.

In task two, students were asked to do an information gap. This is somewhat partial control in order to do the next activity. Through the information gap students were prepared to do the last activity of writing using the grammar rules.

This activity is efficient, following Thornbury’s (1999) argument that a lesson should be economical and easy in order for it to be efficient. He also states that a grammar rule should be shorter to be economical. Infinitives and gerunds are not easy rules but I tried to make it short and simple to tie in with one lesson using inductive and deductive approaches. The information gap in task two is also simple and easy for teachers to prepare. This lesson is adopted from a grammar book but there are

many other resources available for teachers to use. To make the lesson efficient, writing a letter using the grammar rules they learned is included. Through the product of writing, the teacher can check whether or not the students understood the rules.

Appendix A.

Information Gap: Remember the Party?

For Student A

Work in pairs (A and B). Student B, look at the information gap on Appendix B and follow the instructions there. Student A, look at the picture below. Ask your partner questions to complete what people said at the party. Answer your partner's questions.

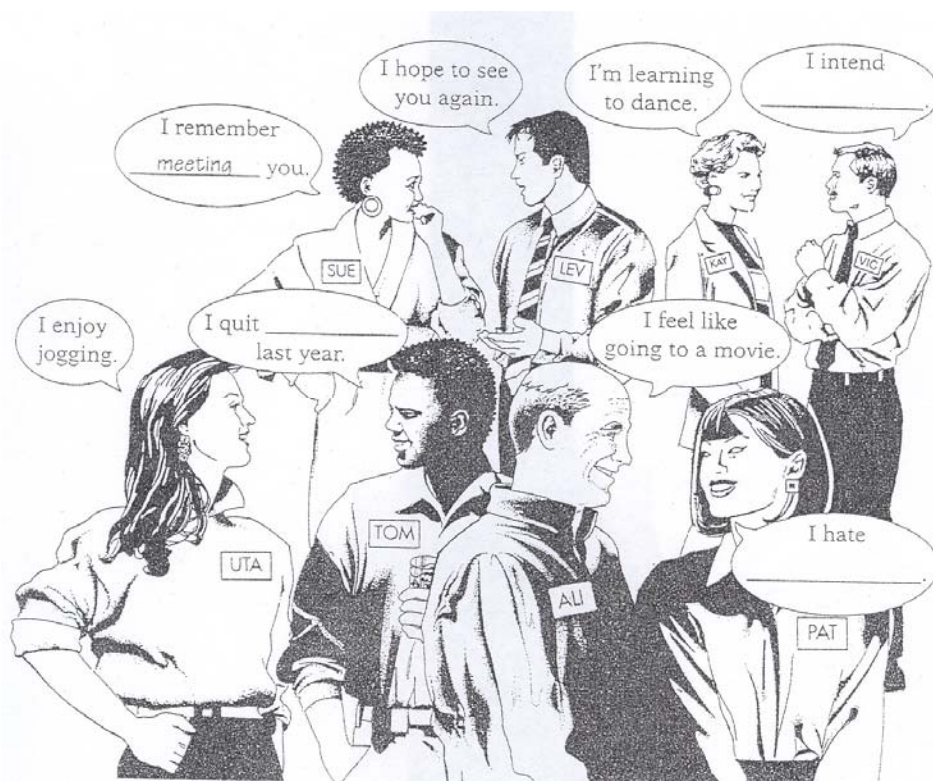
Example:

A: What does Sue remember doing?

B: She remembers meeting Lev.

What does Lev hope to do?

A: He hopes to see Sue again.



Appendix B.

Information Gap: Remember the Party?

For Student B

Student B, look at the picture below. Ask your partner questions to complete what people said at the party.

Example:

A: What does Sue remember doing?

B: She remembers meeting Lev.

What does Lev hope to do?

A: He hopes to see Sue again.



Appendix C.

Student Profile

2.1.1 Awareness on Indirect objects

Task Title

Reading an email

Objective

Students should be able to notice indirect objects in the email they read.

Students should be able to underline indirect objects in the email they read.

Students should be able to notice errors in using indirect objects and correct them.

Age

University students

Language Experience

They had six years of English learning in public school. They learned about indirect objects but they are not sure how indirect objects are used in sentences. They know how to use email and they are very familiar with emails written in Korean. However, they have not seen or used emails in English.

2.1.2 Awareness on Relative Clauses

Title: Reading a tour guide before going on a field trip to Hawaii

Objective:

Students should be able to notice relative clauses in the tour guide they read.

Students should be able to notice defining and non-defining relative clauses.

Age

University students

Language Experience

They had six years of English learning in public school. They have some knowledge of relative clauses but they do not know how to differentiate between defining and non-defining relative clauses. Some of them have traveled to foreign countries but most of them never have. All of them want to travel to foreign countries if given a chance.

3. Some Partial Control on Prepositions and Particles

Title: Reading a flyer and playing Jenga

Objective:

Students should be able to differentiate between prepositions and particles. Students should be able to know when to use some common prepositions and particles.

Age

University students

Language Experience

They had six years of English learning in public school. They learned about prepositions but they are not sure of particles.

4. Good Partial Control on Articles

Title: Shopping at a market

Objective:

Students should be able to say what they want to buy using articles.

Students should be able to make a list of what they want to buy using articles.

Age

Third graders

Language Experience

They had one year of English learning in public school. They can say short sentences that are often grammatically incorrect. They learned about articles but most of the time they omit them when they speak or write.

5. Full control on Infinitives and Gerunds**Title:**

How to remember people's name better

Objective:

Students should be able to use gerunds and infinitive verbs without major errors in speaking.

Students should be able to use gerunds and infinitive verbs without major

errors in writing.

Age

University students

Language Experience

They had six years of English learning in public school. They learned about gerunds and infinitives in high school. They have good understanding of those grammar but their speaking and writing are weak compared to their grammar.

References

- Bourke, K. (1999). *The grammar lab*. New York: Oxford University Press
- Eckstut, S. (1994). *Focus on grammar workbook*. New York: A Pearson Education Company.
- Fuchs, M and Westheimer, M. (1994). *Focus on grammar workbook*. New York: A Pearson Education Company.
- Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the lexical approach*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications
- Murphy, R. (1993). *Basic grammar in use*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schoenberg, I. (1994). *Focus on grammar a basic course for reference and practice*. New York: A Pearson Education Company.
- Thornbury. S. (1999) *How to teach grammar*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Retrieved June 20, 2005, from the World Wide Web: http://www.english.uiuc.edu/cws/wworkshop/writer_resources/grammar_handbook/relative_clauses.htm.
- Retrieved June 20, 2005, from the World Wide Web: <http://www.top-10-hawaii.com/2.htm>.
- Retrieved June 20, 2005, from the World Wide Web: http://www.tripadvisor.com/ShowUserReviews-g60656-d153920-r3440108-Polynesian_Cultural_Center-Laie_Oahu_Hawaii.html.

Grammar and the Usage-based Model of Language

Sangmi Lee

TESOL 3rd semester

This paper covers the usage-based models of language where the field of linguistics has recently been moving toward. Since there has been growing awareness of the significance of studying language and language learning in its context of use, the need to understand how language is used to create meaning is also getting crucial. Communication always occurs in a context whether it is meaningful or not, and the importance of usage in context is the notion that is presented in this paper.

1. Introduction

In recent years, a new view of language and human linguistic competence has started to come up. Language structure has been believed to be based on language usage rather than on parameter settings or principles, and

the usage-based models of language are theories of human knowledge of language, which argue that linguistic knowledge is based on language use. Langacker (1987) first introduced the usage-based model and defined it in more detail in Langacker (1988). He described the “maximalist”, “non-reductive”, “bottom-up” nature of cognitive grammar. In these respects it stood in contrast to the “minimalist”, “reductive”, “top-down” spirit of generative theory, at least in its original formulation. The usage-based model is based on [inductive learning](#), meaning that linguistic knowledge is acquired in a bottom-up manner through use. It allows for redundancy and generalizations, because the language user generalizes over recurring experiences of use. The usage-based models of language are theories of human knowledge of language, which asserts that linguistic knowledge is based on language uses.

2. The Usage-Based Model

2.1. Usage and Use

The distinction between use and usage, first made by Widdowson (1989), focuses attention on language used to perform communicative acts, rather than simply to exemplify possible well-formed sentences in the language. He coined the term usage for language that conformed to the codified paradigms of the language.

According to Lewis (1993), usage is independent of context, and allows us to say that a sentence is a possible English sentence. In contrast, use, describes the functional and contextual appropriacy of an utterance. The contextual meaning of an utterance may differ radically from its surface meaning. The relationship between use and usage is complex. It may be that knowledge of usage is a prerequisite for competent use; it is certainly not the case that the ability is based on knowledge of usage alone. Many sentences in textbooks and that are used in grammar practices are well-formed and possible, but are implausible or unnatural. The problem arises partly because of an over-valuing of written language, and language at sentence-level. Spoken language is much more deictic and phrase-based. The language that is used in the classroom all too easily falls halfway between spoken and written language (ibid).

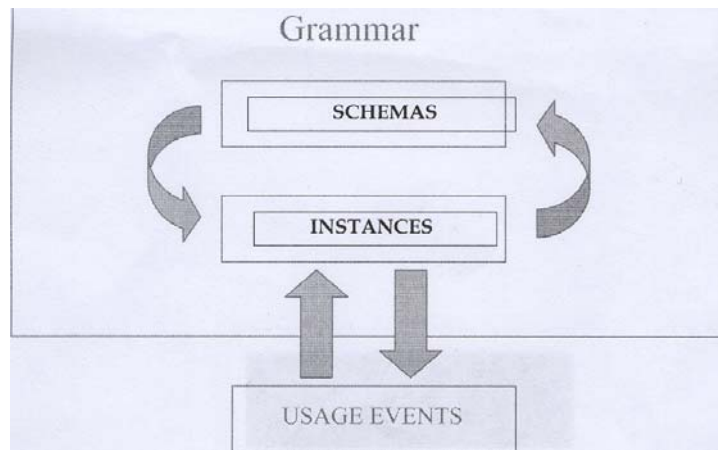
2.2. The Notions of a Usage-Event

The first definition of a usage-event is that an utterance is “a particular, actual occurrence of the product of human behavior in communicative interaction (i.e., a string of sounds), as it is pronounced, grammatically structured, and semantically and pragmatically interpreted in its context” (Croft, 2001, p.26). The second definition is that an utterance is “a linguistic act in which one person

expresses towards another, within a single intonation contour, a relatively coherent communicative interaction in a communicative context” (Tomasello, 2000, p.63). Also, Langacker (1987) defines the term as a symbolic expression assembled by a speaker in a particular circumstance for a particular purpose; the paring of a detailed, context-dependent conceptualization and (in the case of speech) an actual vocalization.

According to Tomasello (2003), in recent years a new view of language and human linguistic competence has begun to emerge. This view is represented by a group of theories most often called cognitive-functional linguistics but sometimes also called usage-based linguistics to emphasize their central processing tenet that language structure emerges from language use (see Langacker, 1987, 1991, 2000; Croft, 1991, 2001; Goldberg, 1995; Givon, 1995; Bybee, 1985, 1995, 2002; Tomasello 1998, in press; and Barlow & Kemmer, 2000, for similar approaches). The usage-based theories hold that the essence of language is its symbolic dimension, with grammar being its derivative.

Figure 1: A Usage-based Model (from Kemmer and Israel, 1994)



The speaker's linguistic system is grounded on usage events, for example, the linguistic system of speakers is initially abstracted from instances of language use (Tomasello, 2003). The linguistic system is built from lexically specific instances (Tomasello, 2003; Langacker, 1988, 2000), where general representations can be abstracted, but are activated in concert with specific instances. Moreover, usage events are crucial to the ongoing and operation of the linguistic system, and frequency is a prime factor in the structure and operation of the system.

Kemmer and Barlow (2000) also claims that a usage-based theory, whether its object of study is the internal or external linguistic system, takes seriously the notion that the primary object of study is the language

people actually produce and understand. Like generative (non usage-based) theories of language, usage-based theories of language take the explanation of language acquisition as a serious goal. Generative theories hypothesize a language-specific faculty within general cognition that accounts for universal structures that determine the grammaticality of a given language. In this way, what a speaker actually needs to acquire is minimal and this forms a minimalist program (*ibid.*). On the other hand, usage-based theories generally, and cognitive grammar specifically, posit that language builds up a conventional inventory of units (including units that convey grammatical patterns) that a speaker can draw on and put together for communication. This inventory of units is based on hearing and using the language and through use becoming entrenched (*ibid.*). Taylor (2002) also suggests that knowledge of a language is based on knowledge of actual usage and generalizations made over usage events, language acquisition is therefore a bottom-up process, driven by linguistic experience. Taylor (2002) also suggests that on the cognitive grammar view, a taxonomy is acquired 'bottom-up'. A speaker first becomes acquainted with instances, the abstracts, the commonality between the instances, and so on. Language acquisition is then viewed as the entrenching, building and extending of concepts through use (*ibid.*). This is

why Tomasello (2000) asserts,

In usage-based models of language...all things flow from the actual usage events in which people communicate linguistically with one another. The linguistic skills that a person possesses at any given moment in time...result from her accumulated experience with language across the totality of usage events in her life...this theoretical freedom to identify these units on the basis of actual language use, rather than adult-based linguistic theory, is truly liberating. (pp. 61–62)

2.3. Some Basic Principles of the Usage-Based Model

Bybee (2001) suggests some ideas that are already present in the literature and are now shared by a number of linguists, phoneticians, and psychologists. A brief statement of these ideas follows in the chart below.

Table 1: Some Basic Principles of a Usage-Based Model.
(Bybee, 2001, pp. 6-8)

1. Experience affects representation.

2. When predictable properties are taken away from objects, they become unrecognizable (Langacker, 1987; Ohala & Ohala, 1995).
3. Categorization is based on identity or similarity.
4. Generalizations over forms are not separable from the stored representation of forms but emerge directly from them.
5. Lexical organization provides generalizations and segmentation at various degrees of abstraction and generality (Langacker, 2000).
6. Grammatical knowledge is procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1993; Boyland, 1996).

2.4. Connectionism and the Usage-Based Pattern

Bowers (2002) says that some researchers argue that individual phonetic features, phonemes, letters are coded in a localist format (Harm & Seidenberg, 1999; Plaut, McClelland, Seidenberg, & Patterson, 1996). But in all cases, knowledge at the lexical level is coded on a distributed format, and this is the key theoretical claim that many authors make, as can be seen in the following quote from Seidenberg & McClelland (1989):

The present model departs from these precursors in a fundamental way: lexical memory does not consist of entries for individual words; there are no logogens. Knowledge of words is embedded in a set of weights on the connections between processing units encoding orthographic, phonological, and semantic properties of words, and the correlations between these properties... Thus, the notion of lexical access does not play a central role in our model because it is not congruent with the model's representational and processing assumptions. (p. 560)

According to Macwhinney (2000), neural networks require that the computations involved in the models echo the connectionist architecture of the brain. He claims that this modeling work with connectionist nets has advanced to the point where it can compete on an equal footing with the more powerful rule-based symbolic models. These networks minimize hand-wiring and maximize self-organization. The core assumption in this approach is that the lexical item serves a central controlling and stabilizing role in language learning and processing. This one can be referred to as lexicalist connectionism. Predecessors to lexicalist connectionist models can be found in localist connectionist models of

the type developed by Dell (1986) and Stemberger (1985), where a central role is given to the lexical item.

2.5. The Usage-Based Approach in Grammar

Langacker (1987) claims that substantial importance is given to the actual use of the linguistic system and a speaker's knowledge of this use; the grammar is held responsible for a speaker's knowledge of the full range of linguistic conventions, regardless of whether these conventions can be subsumed under more general statements. According to Bybee (2001), usage-based functionalism emphasizes language as a conventionalized, cultural object. In order to understand the nature of language, we need to understand what it means for behavior to be conventionalized. Haiman (1994, 1998) discusses grammar as ritualized behavior and points to various properties of both ritual and grammar that are the result of repetition. It is useful here to distinguish between a ritual and a convention: though both represent repeated behavior. A ritual can be individual and idiosyncratic, but a convention is agreed upon socially and evokes a consistent response in other members of a society (Tomasello et al., 1993). Barlow (2002) says that the connection between usage and usage-based grammar is not a simple one, but we can attempt a basic description as follows: repeated exposure to collocations

leads to the entrenchment of collocational patterns and their associated meanings in the grammar.

2.6. Grammatical Representation and Process

In the usage-based model, properties of the use of utterances in communication also determine the representation of grammatical units in a speaker's mind. Croft & Cruse (2004) claims that, in particular, two usage-based properties are assumed to affect grammatical representation: the frequency of occurrence of particular grammatical forms and structures, and the meaning of the words and constructions in use. Croft & Cruse (2004) says that the relationship between representations and what is represented is essentially one of categorization: categorization of the experience to be communicated and the utterance that is used as instances of the grammatical category of known constructions, symbolizing experiences of the same category. The categorization relation between language use and grammatical knowledge is also sensitive to frequency of use of grammatical constructions at different levels of schematicity, that is, the process of language use influencing the structure of the representation. This model of grammatical representation and the processes that use it is the usage-based model. The formal representation of the usage-based model is as an

activation network, in which activation corresponds to the process of language use, and entrenchment (or decay) is the effect of the process of the representation.

2.6.1. Frequency Effect

Word frequency refers to the rate of occurrence for words in language. As the frequency of the usage of the words in the language increases, the degree of automaticity and speed of processing also increase (Macleod & Kampe, 1996). According to Greene (1992), all other things being equal, our memory for information will depend on the number of times that we have encountered or studied it. This principle can be applied to second language vocabulary (Barcroft, 2004). Especially two types of frequency are important in relation to entrenchment. Also, Croft & Cruse (2004) claims that the primary factor determining the independent storage of word forms in the usage-based model is the frequency of occurrence of the word form in language use, that is, the token frequency of the word form. The hypothesis is that each time a word (or construction) is used, it activates a node or pattern of nodes in the mind, and frequency of activation affects the storage of that information, leading to its ultimate storage as a conventional grammatical unit. A word form that occurs frequently enough in use to be stored independently is described as entrenched (Langacker,

1987). Entrenchment comes in degree, even beyond the minimum threshold required for independent storage. In the usage-based model, the entrenchment of word forms is possible even if the word form is predictable from a more schematic grammatical representation.

2.6.1.1. Token Frequency

Token frequency has to do with the frequency of occurrence of a specific linguistic expression. The idea is that every time it occurs the representational node is activated, and the more times it is activated the more automated it becomes until it has been almost fully entrenched. In other words, it gets stored as a conventional unit. Croft (2001) says that a high token frequency of a particular word form or syntactic construction will lead to the storage or entrenchment of that word form or construction even if its grammatical properties are predictable from taxonomically superordinate constructions. Also, it is argued that productivity, represented by the entrenchment of a more abstract schema, is a function of its type frequency, that is, the frequency of different instances of the schema (*ibid.*).

2.6.1.2. Type Frequency

Type frequency refers to the dictionary frequency of a particular pattern (e.g., a stress pattern, an affix, or a consonant cluster). If a number of different linguistic

expressions occur very frequently, which seem to be following the same structural pattern and having the same configuration, then a generalized schema is created, which is based on this configuration. The frequency of units that follow this schema is the type frequency of the schema. Type frequency has to do with the productivity of the schema in the sense that each unit that fits the schema is an instance of it. The more instances a schema may license, the higher its productivity. Bybee (1985) argues that “the productivity of a schema is a function of the type frequency of the instances of the schema” (p.132).

Type frequency is the number of different word forms that are instances of a particular schema.

2.6.2. *Entrenchment*

Entrenchment is a crucial concept in usage-based models of language. An entrenchment unit is one that is so deep-seated in the human mind that it has become sort of a routine in the sense that it doesn't demand much effort to use it; it is almost automated. Croft & Cruse (2004) claims that in the usage-based model, properties of the use of utterances in communication also determine the representation of grammatical units in a speaker's mind. In particular, two usage-based properties are assumed to affect grammatical representation: the frequency of

occurrence of particular grammatical forms and structures, and the meaning of the words and constructions in use (ibid.). Frequency plays a large role in the language process. Tomasello (2003) says there are some experimental studies that demonstrate the key role of frequency in some constructions. Langacker (2002) refers to entrenchment as very general psychological phenomena that are essential to language. Entrenchment has also borne such labels as “routinization,” “automization,” and “habit formation.” In the development of his theory of grammar, Langacker (1987) has expressed this “theoretical freedom” that Tomasello speaks about in this way,

Putting together novel expressions is something that speakers do, not grammars. It is a problem-solving activity that demands a constructive effort and occurs when linguistic convention is put to use in specific circumstances. (p. 65)

2.6.3. Collocations and Usage-Based Grammar

Barlow (2000) claims that the main component of grammar instead comprises a large set of redundantly specified schemata, both abstract and lexically-specified, and the role of rules or constraints (or highly abstract schemata) is to provide the glue or mortar to combine these prefabricated chunks. The connection between

usage and usage-based grammar is not a simple one, but we can attempt a basic description as follows: repeated exposure to collocations leads to the entrenchment of collocational patterns and their associated meanings in the grammar (*ibid.*). The existence of a cline from strong to weak collocational links among words and the presence of links between collocations (collocations of collocations) are amenable to treatment in a usage-based grammar that, by definition, is structured in a way that reflects input. Additionally, appropriate conditions of language usage are clearly a part of a speaker's knowledge of language and the connections between grammatical units and register, genre, and other types of situational information must also be part of the grammatical representation.

3. Conclusion

According to Kemmer (2005), in a usage-based model, any socially conventionalized patterns are a part of the linguistic knowledge of speakers sharing the convention, by way of entrenchment. Frequency is the best information we have as to the degree of cognitive entrenchment. Thus frequency patterns are significant and give us important information about the language user's internal linguistic system. Barlow (2000) claims that the connection between usage and usage-based

grammar is not a simple one, but we can attempt a basic description as follows: repeated exposure to collocations leads to the entrenchment of collocational patterns and their associated meanings in the grammar. Appropriate conditions of language usage are clearly a part of a speaker's knowledge of language and the connections between grammatical units and register, genre, and other types of situational information must also be part of the grammatical representation.

References

- Anderson, J. R. (1993). *Rules of the mind*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Barlow, M., and Kemmer, S. (2000). *Usage based models of language*. Stanford, California: CSLI Publications.
- Bowers, J. S. (2002). Challenging the widespread assumption that connectionism and distributed representations go hand-in-hand. *Cognitive psychology*, 45. 413-445.
- Boylard, J. T. (1996). *Morphosyntactic change in progress: a psycholinguistic approach*. Berkeley: University of California dissertation.
- Bybee, J. (1985). *Morphology: A study of the relation between meaning and form*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Bybee, J. (1995). Regular morphology and the lexicon. *Language and cognitive processes*, 10. 425-455.
- Bybee, J. (2000). *The phonology of the lexicon: Evidence from lexical diffusion*. In M. Barlow and S. Kemmer (Eds.), *Usage based models of language*. (pp. 65-85). Stanford, California: CSLI Publications.
- Bybee, J. (2001). *Phonology and language use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bybee, J., and Holler, P. (Eds.). (2001). *Frequency and the emergence of linguistic structure*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Croft, W. (1991). *Syntactic categories and grammatical relations: The cognitive organization of information*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

- Croft, W. (1995). Intonation units and grammatical units. *Linguistics*, 33(5), 839-882.
- Croft, W. (2001). *Radical construction grammar: Syntactic theory in typological perspective*. Oxford, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Croft, W., and Cruse, D. A. (2004). *Cognitive linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dell, G. (1986). A spreading-activation theory of retrieval in sentence production. *Psychological Review* 93, 283-321.
- Givon, T. (1995). *Functionalism and grammar*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Goldberg, A. (1995). *Constructions: A construction grammar approach to argument structure*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Haiman, J. (1991). Motivation, repetition, and emancipation: The bureaucratization of language. In H. C. Wolfart (Ed.), *Linguistic studies presented to John L. Finlay*. (pp.45-70). Winnipeg, Manitoba: Algonquin and Iroquoian Linguistics.
- Haiman, J. (1994). Ritualization and the development of language. In W. Pagliuca (Ed.). *Perspectives on grammaticalization*. (pp.3-28). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Haiman, J. (1998). *Talk is cheap*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Harm, M. W., and Seidenberg, M. S. (1999). Phonology, reading acquisition, and dyslexia: Insights from connectionist models. *Psychological Review*, 106, 491-528.
- Kemmer, S. (2005). Passive and usage. *Gram-to-Mind Conference/ Colloque Grammaire et Cognition*. Bordeaux, 19-21. Retrieved on

June, 21, 2005, from the World Wide Web:<http://www.u-bordeaux3.fr/Actu/colloques/2004/r-lapaire/Abstract/Kemmer%20Standard%20Online%20Abstract.pdf>

- Kemmer, S. and Israel, M. (1994). Variation and the usage-based model. In K. Beals, et al. (Eds.), *CLS 30 : Papers from the 30th regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society, 2: Parasession on Variation and Linguistic Theory*, 165-179. Chicago: CLS.
- Lamb, S. (1999). *Pathways of the brain. The neurocognitive basics of language*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Langacker, R. W. (1987). *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar, vol.1: Theoretical Prerequisites*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.
- Langacker, R. W. (1988). A usage-based model. In R. O. Brygida (Ed.), *Topics in cognitive linguistics* (Current issues in linguistic theory 50). (pp.127-161). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Langacker, R. W. (2000). A dynamic usage-based model. In M. Barlow and S. Kemmer (Eds.), *Usage based models of language* (pp.1-63). Stanford, California; CSLI Publications.
- Langacker, R. W. (2003). *Construction grammars: Cognitive, Radical, and less so*. Presented at ICLC 8, Longrono, Spain.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach*. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.
- MacWhinney, B. (2000). *Connectionism and language learning*. In M. Barlow and S. Kemmer (Eds.), *Usage based models of*

- language. (pp. 121-149). Stanford, California: CSLI Publications.
- Michael, B. (2002). Usage, blends, and grammar. In M. Barlow and S. Kemmer (Eds.), *Usage based models of language*. (pp.315-345). Stanford, California: CSLI Publications.
- Nesset, T. (2005). *Gender meets the Usage-Based Model: Four principles of rule interaction in gender assignment*. www.elsevier.com/locate/lingua.
- Ohala, J. J., and Ohala, M. (1995). Speech perception and lexical representation: the role of vowel nasalization in Hindi and English. Phonology and phonetic evidence. *Laboratory Phonology IV*. In B. Connell and A. Arvaniti (Eds.). 41-60. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Plaut, D. C., McClelland, J. L., Seidenberg, M. S., and Patterson, K. (1996). Understanding normal and impaired word reading: Computational principles in quasi-regular domains. *Psychological Review*, 103. 56-115
- Seidenberg, M. S., and McClelland, J. L. (1989). A distributed, developmental model of word recognition and naming. *Psychological Review*, 96. 523-568.
- Stemberger, J. (1985). *The lexicon in a model of language production*. New York: Garland.
- Taylor, J. R. (2002). *Cognitive grammar*. New York: Oxford Textbooks in Linguistics.
- Tomasello, M., Kruger, A. C., and Ratner, H. H. (1993). Cultural learning. *Brain and Behavioral Sciences* 16. 495-552.
- Tomasello, M. (1998). *The new psychology of language*, vol. 1:

Cognitive and functional approaches to language structure.
Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Tomasello, M. (2000). *First steps toward a usage-based theory of language acquisition*. Cognitive Linguistics.

Tomasello, M. (2003). *Constructing a language. A usage-based theory of language acquisition*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1989, July). Proper words in proper places, *ELT News* 8, British Council, Vienna.

Retrieved June, 21, 2005 from the World Wide Web:
<http://www.humaniora.sdu.dk/~kej/Langcog11.pdf>

Retrieved June, 21, 2005 from the World Wide Web:
<http://www.sussex.ac.uk/Users/vyv/GMlecture3.pdf>

Analysis of ‘Focus on Form’

Depending on Learners’ Proficiency Levels

Sunmin, Oh

TESOL 2nd semester

‘Focus on form’ makes it possible for second language learners to use target language by raising their consciousness on certain forms. While focusing on form, learners become to notice the gap between the target language structure and their interlanguage structure and this noticing helps learners to acquire second language. Nowadays, many researchers and teachers have acknowledged the necessity of ‘focus on form’ in the second language learning. Thus, a lot of researches have been conducted on the effects of ‘focus on form’ instruction on second language learning. However, few researchers have investigated the differential effects of the focus on form in terms of L2 learner’s proficiency levels. In this study, we will examine how focus on form works differently

depending on learner's proficiency levels. In order to study this, we will conduct an experiment of which the target linguistic feature is two kinds of participial adjective forms, '-ed' or '-ing'.

1. Introduction

In terms of how to teach grammar, there has been a lot of debates on balancing between meaning and form of the language. Traditional grammar instruction focused on rules and forms of language isolated from the meaning and usage. The notion 'focus on form' was first devised by Long (1991) as a way of teaching language, especially grammar, effectively and it has been suggested as one of the possible solution to resolve the matter of teaching forms in a communicative, meaning-based context. Generally, focus on form can be defined as an attempt to draw learners' attention to a specific language in the context of meaningful communication.

Focus on form instruction deserves more attention in Korean EFL situation. In Korean EFL teaching, the primary goal is to master vocabulary items, translation skills and grammar structures. Many Korean learners have difficulties in using English communicatively despite of the long period of studying

English within the Korean educational system. Regarding to use second language, Schmidt (1990, 1993) claims that learners are required to notice the form while getting tremendous input. Researchers also agree that L2 instruction needs to lead learners to identify the differences between their interlanguage and the target language through focus on form instruction, such as input enhancement (Sharwood Smith, 1991) and explicit instruction (Ellis, 1998; Sharwood Smith, 1991). However, it appears that Korean students have been taught English as set of rules or linguistic forms in a synthetic approach (Willkins, 1976) and this type of English instruction has lead them to know about rules without actually using language.

Many studies about focus on form showed those who received focus on form instruction noticed more target forms and produced more target forms in their output (Jouedenais, et al. 1995; Leeman, et al. 1995). These positive results of focus on form instruction lead us to apply focus on form to English class in Korean middle school.

However, researchers in L2 language learning have been debating on the specific effects of different types of focus on form instruction. Mixed results of researches on focus on form might be due to the choice of different linguistic structures to be investigated. As

Doughty & Williams (1998:211) state, “since not all grammatical structures are acquired in the same way, instruction, including focus on form should not be applied to all forms in the same way”. According to William & Evans (1998), the participial adjectives were considered as a simple and transparent grammatical feature. Thus, we choose participial adjectives for investigation in this study.

In addition, few studies have investigated L2 learners’ factor regarding the benefits of the focus on form instructions, such as learners’ instructional preferences (Zephir, 2000), L2 learners’ current levels of proficiency (Dekeyser & Sokalski, 1996). Therefore, the purpose of the study is to analyze the relation between focus on form and learners’ proficiency levels. This study will be cross-sectional. We will examine the following questions:

1. Is focus on form (drawing learner’s attention) enough to make learners notice and use the target language form in written text?
2. How does focus on form work differently for learners depending on their proficiency levels?

In next section, the rationale of focus on form and research findings on focus on form will be shown.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 From focus on formS to focus on form

2.1.1 Focus on forms – synthetic approach

In the long history of second language teaching the popular position has been the synthetic approach. Wilkins (1976) stated that in synthetic approach parts of the language are taught separately and step by step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of parts until the whole structure of language has been built up. In this position, the second language to be taught is broken down into words and collocations, grammar rules, or function. The learner's role is to synthesize the pieces for use in communication after they acquire the items. Lessons based on the synthetic approach focus on formS. Pedagogical materials and accompanying classroom procedures are designed to present and practice a series of linguistic items or forms.

Long & Robinson (1998) argued that focus on formS largely ignored language learning processes or tacitly assume a discredited behaviorist model. According to them, researches showed that learners in any situation, both in naturalistic and classroom situation, rarely exhibit sudden categorical acquisition of new forms or rules (R. Ellis, 1994a; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Hatch, 1983; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Instead, the learners

appeared to acquire language items in fairly fixed developmental sequences. Language teaching methodologies associated with synthetic approaches resulted in failing to make learners achieve the target forms.

2.1.2. Focus on meaning – analytic approach

According to Long & Robinson (1998), the recognition that the traditional synthetic approach failed in SLA leads to focus on meaning, which is closely related with analytic approach. Wilkins (1976) stated that analytic approaches are organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language, and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes. The researchers in the analytic approach claimed that exposure to comprehensible target language samples is sufficient for successful second or foreign language acquisition, just as it appears to be for first language acquisition. (e.g. Corder, 1967; Dulay & Bury, 1973; Felix, 1981). In other words, the essential claim of focus on meaning is that people of all ages learn language best, inside or outside a classroom, not by treating the languages as an object of study, but by experiencing them as a medium of communication. Focus on meaning brought various methods in L2 classroom, such as implementing Prabhu's procedural

syllabus, Krashen & Terrell's natural approach, and content-based ESL instruction and immersion education.

However, evaluations of French immersion programs in Canada have found that "although many learners are successful in eventually comprehending second language indistinguishably from native speakers, their productive skills remain far from native-like, particularly with respect to grammatical competence." (Swain, 1991a). The claim of researchers in the analytic approach seems to go too far. Learning second language through experiencing comprehensible input sufficiently doesn't necessarily lead learners to produce native-like output. Therefore, researchers have attempted to turn their attention to linguistic features while focusing on meaning.

2.1.3. Focus on form – functional approach

The term 'focus on form' was first used by Long (1991). He defined focus on form as follows:

Focus on form... overtly draw students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication. (Long, 1991:45-46)

He later changed this definition for more practical

implementation.

Focus on form often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more student – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production. (Long & Robinson, 1998:23)

It can be said that the learner's attention is drawn precisely to a linguistic feature necessitated by a communicative demand.

Unlike focus on formS, focus on form doesn't exclude focus on meaning. Doughty & Williams (1998) stated that the fundamental assumption of focus on form instruction is that meaning and the use must already be evident to the learners at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across.

Focus on form is effective, since the aim is to add attention to form to a primarily communicative task rather than to perform the communication in order to discuss linguistic features. In other words, focus on form requires focus must occur in conjunction with communicative interaction.

Long & Robinson (1998) divided focus on form

into three subdivisions. The first is input enhancement that is a device to increase the perceptual salience of target items. For example, the frequency of a target grammatical feature, being underlined or italicized in enhanced input can be more noticed by learners. Another way of focus on form is giving students implicit negative feedback. For example, recast or corrective reformulation is more likely to facilitate language acquisition. The other way of focus on form is giving students explicit negative feedback. A teacher can interrupt the group work in order to correct the repeated errors in learner's utterances.

2.2 Research findings on focus on form

Relating focus on form to instruction in language classroom, many studies have been conducted. First, most of the studies were to probe the effectiveness of instructions that include some focus on form. For example, Jouedenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, and Doughty (1995) found that those who received the enhanced input both noticed more target forms and produced more target forms in their written output than those who didn't. Leeman, Arteagoitia, Fridman, and Doughty (1995) also found that focus-on-form group more significantly improved the accuracy and fluency than the control group in their study.

Second, the types of focus-on-form instructions

that were required for L2 acquisition were currently the topic of debate and empirical investigation. (Cadierno, 1995; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1999 ; Schimidt, 1995 ; White, 1998) Implicit instruction is giving learners a lot of input enhanced to draw learner's attention to certain forms. On the contrary, explicit instruction includes all types in which rules are explicitly explained to learners or when learners are directed to find rules themselves by attending to forms (Doughty, 2003. p.265), namely consciousness-raising task (Ellis, 1998). Radwan (2005) investigated the effects of input enhancement (e.g. bolding, capitalizing or underlining) on language learning. White (1998), Jourdenais (1998) and Izumi (2002) demonstrated that this form of implicit instruction may not be sufficient to induce changes in learners' performance. On the other hand, studies conducted under explicit instructional conditions have generally demonstrated positive effects on learners' L2 development. Ellis's (1998) review indicated many recent studies showed the positive results of explicit instruction. (Dekeyser, 1994; Ellis, 1993; Fotos, 1994). Harley (1998), Robinson (1997) and Rosa & O'Neill (1999) concluded that learners exposed to explicit focus on form learning conditions outperformed those exposed to implicit conditions.

However, these studies on focus on form are still

going on and the results are diverse. The conflicting views on the effectiveness of techniques and tasks of focus on form might be due to the choice of different linguistic forms to be investigated. As Doughty & Williams (1998, p.211) state, since “not all grammatical forms are acquired in the same way, instruction, including focus on form should not be applied to all forms in the same way.” In addition, these studies didn’t take into account the complex nature of learner factors (Zephir, 2000) such as learners’ instructional preferences, L2 learners’ current levels of proficiency (DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996). For example, most studies in input-based focus on form instruction were performed with beginners or low-level learners (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993a, 1993b), while Canadian immersion studies (Swain & Lapkin, 1995) and DeKeyser & Sokalski’s (1996) study were conducted with relatively proficient learners. These previous findings indicate that the researchers should take L2 learners’ factors into account as empirical data in conducting focus-on-form study (Zephir, 2000).

3. Method

We set cross-sectional study in which we focused on proficiency levels and examined how focus on form

worked differently depending on proficiency levels. To do this, we gave out handouts to 90 students at three different levels. The handout was made up of four tasks designed to draw learners' attention to a target form. After asking them to complete the four tasks on their own, we analyzed the results how students in different levels focused on form differently while doing the tasks.

3.1 Participants

The subjects consisted of ninety second year students in Samseon middle school located in Sungbuk-gu in Seoul. They were divided into three groups - high level, intermediate level, and low level – based on their grades in a recent Samseon middle school mid-term English test. Samseon middle school mid-term English test is an achievement test which is made up of 20 listening questions, 6 controlled writing questions, 21 reading and comprehension questions. This test estimates listening, writing, and reading competence. Although it doesn't include a test of speaking proficiency, it is a reliable source that reflects general proficiency in English.

The students who received a score of more than 85 percent were placed in Group 1 (high level group), the students who scored between 70 and 84 percent were placed in Group 2 (intermediate level group) and the students who scored between 55 and 69 made up Group 3

(low level group). The students who received less than 55 were excluded from this study because they were regarded as having difficulty in understanding basic English words and structures.

Students in this research were exposed to four series of tasks designed to make them focus on a specific grammatical form - two kinds of participial adjectives. Students in this study were familiar to *-ing* and *-ed* form. They learned *-ing* form as present progressive and *-ed* form as past tense. However, they have never had previous instruction about this target grammatical form as participial adjectives. Thus they were expected to notice *-ing* and *-ed* form as participial adjectives in given tasks.

3.2 Target grammatical form

Harley (1993) has also suggested that likely candidates for effective focus on form are those that:

1. Differ in non-obvious ways from the learners' first language, for example, adverb placement for L2 French and English.
2. Are not salient because they are irregular or infrequent in the input, for example, conditionals in L2 French.
3. Are not important for successful communication,

for example, third person singular -s in L2 English.

4. Are likely to be misinterpreted or misanalyzed by learners, for example, dative alternation in L2 English.

We chose English participial adjectives in this study because participial adjectives fall into the fourth category. This form is also actively used in the speech and writing of the students but are often used incorrectly.

According to Yule (1998, p.6) participial adjectives are derived from verbs that express emotions or feelings. When we talk about an emotion, we can focus either on *source* (i.e. who or what causes it) or on the *experiencer* (i.e. who or what is affected by it). Yule (1998) explains that when we are talking about the source, we should use *-ing* form. For example, if a book (or a lecture or a person) causes the emotion, then it is *boring*, *interesting*, or *exciting*. On the other hand, when we are talking about the experiencer, we should use the *-ed* form. Thus, when people experience the emotion, then they are *bored*, *interested*, or *excited*.

We have seen many cases that students are confused with this form. Yule (1998, p.7) says that, “learners tend to make mistakes in trying to use participial adjectives by overusing the *-ing* form.” This

form is easily misinterpreted or misanalyzed by learners but it can also be explained relatively easily by devising the notion of *source and experienter*. Therefore, this form appears to be suitable for investigating the effect of focus on form in the light of Williams & Evans' (1998) claim that the forms easily misinterpreted or misanalyzed by learners but also easily explained are excellent candidates for focus on form instruction. In this research, we gave students of three groups the same opportunity to focus on two kinds of participial adjective forms and notice the meaning and function by providing them with tasks in contexts. Then we analyzed the result how focus on form works differently depending on learner's proficiency levels.

3.3 Tasks design

The tasks used in this research included a variety of tasks comprising: (1) grammaticality judgment and correction task, (2) choosing the correct forms, (3) filling the blanks using the given words, (4) discourse completion task.

The first task (Appendix A) was kind of grammaticality judgment test which was adapted from Differential Effects of focus on form tasks (Yeo, 2002). It aimed to measure students' ability to judge the grammaticality of the sentence focusing on the target form. Students should judge the sentences if they are

grammatically acceptable or not. This task was based on the hypothesis that students might not be able to be aware of target form and how to use it in this stage and they would raise their awareness later through other three tasks. The second task (Appendix B) that was adapted from *Grammar Sense 2* (Pavlik, 2004) consisted of three different conversations in which students should choose the correct form of participial adjectives. First, in order to draw students' awareness on this form, we provided them with a picture accompanied by short explanation in which participial adjective forms were used. Then students were asked to choose the correct form of adjectives in the given context. The third task (Appendix C) that was designed following *Grammar in Use* (Murphy, 2004) tested students' ability to fill the blanks using the given words. Students needed to recognize the meaning and the function of the target form to do this task. In the fourth task (Appendix D) made from the method of DCT (Discourse Completion Tasks) model in *Grammar sense 2* (Pavlik, 2004), the students were asked to choose the best answer to complete each discourse. Without doubt, the target form was included in every discourse and students got to know the usage of the target form in the real discourse. This task was made based on the thought that the context would help students to understand and use the target form because focus on

form occurs in the conjunction with communicative context.

4. Hypotheses (Anticipated Results)

We hypothesized that most of students would get to notice and use the target language form in the given tasks. But the aspects would differ depending on learners' proficiency levels. We anticipated that high-level students would notice the form better than intermediate and low level students. High level students were already more competent in English, while intermediate and low level students were more likely to be affected by other factors, such as vocabulary and sentence structures. However, we hypothesized the gap between high-level students and intermediate students would not be prominent. In terms of accuracy, intermediate level students would not keep up with high-level students. But intermediate students would gradually notice the form through completing tasks and have certain command of using the target form. We analyzed the results more precisely and interpreted the relation between focus on form and learners' proficiency levels.

5. Results

The results are shown in Table 1 and Figure 1. Table 1. and Figure 1. show mean scores of Group 1, 2, and 3 on each task.

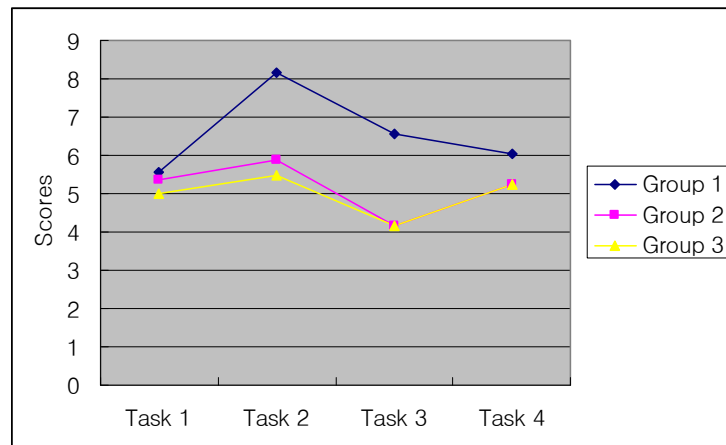
Table 1.

Mean scores of Group 1, 2, and 3 on each task

	Group 1 (High level)		Group 2 (Intermediate level)		Group 3 (Low level)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Task 1	5.55	2.12	5.37	1.79	5	1.6
Task 2	8.15	1.44	5.87	1.72	5.47	1.66
Task 3	6.56	2.53	4.17	2.35	4.15	2.07
Task 4	6.06	2.41	5.24	2.42	5.26	2.23

Figure 1.

Mean scores of Group 1, 2, and 3 on each task



Mean scores of Group 1 on each task were higher than those of the other two groups. Mean scores of Group 2 and Group 3 showed similar pattern. Mean scores of Group 2 on task 2 and task 3 were a little higher than those of Group 3. However, mean scores on task 3 and task 4 revealed no differences between Group 2 and Group 3.

Comparing each group's mean scores on task 1, mean score of Group 1 was the highest. All three groups showed increases on task 2. Group 1 gained the most score on task 2. However, mean scores of all three groups got down on task 3. Mean score of Group 1 on task 3 was not lower than mean score on task 1. Mean scores of Group 2 and Group 3 on task 3 were even lower than mean scores on task 1. For task 4, Group 1 showed a slight decrease on their mean score. However, Group 2

and 3 showed increases on their mean scores of task 4.

6. Interpretation

We hypothesized that focus on form would work differently depending on learners' proficiency levels. We anticipated that high level students focus on form better than intermediate and low level students. However, we expected that intermediate level students would gradually notice the form through completing tasks so that the gap between high level students and intermediate level students would not be prominent. The results of this study support our hypothesis partially.

Group 1 (high level students) outperformed Group 2 and Group 3 on all tasks. Mean score of Group 1 on each task were higher than those of the other two groups. Mean score of Group 1 increased significantly on task 2. However, mean scores of Group 2 and Group 3 from task 1 to task 4 didn't increase significantly even though there were slight increases on task 2 and task 4. In addition, mean scores of Group 2 and Group 3 showed similar pattern through all tasks. Group 2 students didn't keep up with Group 1 students. These results show that only high level students focus on the target form and use it properly in written text. However, intermediate and low level students couldn't notice or focus on form at all as

the graph shows. High level students already have some degree of knowledge about English vocabulary and structure so they could recognize the target form easily. On the contrary, intermediate and low level students seemed to have a hard time to perform the tasks because they were distracted by unknown words and sentence patterns. That is why they failed to focus on form and find the relation between the target form and its meaning. Therefore, focus on form might be effective ways of teaching only for high level students and it is not enough for intermediate and low level students.

The results of this study can be analyzed by other factors such as task types and time gap. First, students seemed to be affected by task types when they were completing each task. The four tasks used in this study were all different types from grammatical judgment task to DCT task. Most students achieved better scores in task with explicit examples. Mean scores of all three groups showed increases on task 2. Task 1 was grammar judgment task so there was no example of the target form in task 1. Students seemed to be not sure which form they had to pay attention to. Task 2 was to choose the correct form. In task 2, there was a specific example of the target form so the students could refer to the example and found the right form in each sentence easily. Some students seemed to try to find the rule of the participial form.

Looking at mean scores of Group 1 on task 2 and task 4, it is found that high level students were influenced strongly by the task type. The fact that Group 1 got the highest mean score on task 2 is not only because they notice the target form but because they are familiar with the task type. Mean score of Group 1 decreased on task 4 compared to task 2 and task 3, whereas mean scores of Group 2 and Group 3 on task 4 increased. High level students were familiar with task 2 and task 3 because these two types of tasks were very common in grammar books. However, DCT was quite new to them so they might have never experienced this task type. That is why they didn't achieve high scores on task 4. High level students seemed to be influenced by the task types more than intermediate or low intermediate students were. Even though they understand the relation between the target form and the meaning, they can have difficulties using the appropriate target form in the tasks which are not familiar to them. This indicates that Korean students are so accustomed to a few task types that they can't adapt the target form in different situations.

Secondly, time setting also affected on the students' achievement. Mean scores of all groups increased from task 1 to task 2 but got down on task 3. This is because task 3 and task 4 were given to the students a week after task 1 and task 2 were given.

During this one week gap, students were not exposed to the participial form. When they were given task 3 and task 4, they seemed to forget about the target form. Even though mean score of Group 1 on task 3 got lower than on task 2, it was still higher than their mean score on task 1. Mean scores of Group 2 and Group 3 on task 3 were even lower than their mean scores on task 1. This shows that high level students seem to pay attention to the target form better even after some time than intermediate and low level students.

We can get educational implication from the interpretation of the results. First, focus on form works differently depending on learners' proficiency level. Therefore, it is important for teachers to consider learners' levels and to teach them differently depending on their levels. For high level students, focus on form instructions will be more effective if sufficient input is given to them. For intermediate and low level students, focus on form itself is not helpful to notice the form and use it. Explicit grammar teaching should be combined with diverse input of target form for intermediate and low level students.

Secondly, students are easily affected by task types and time setting. When focus on form instruction is given to the students, teachers should try to provide various task types so that the students can learn to adapt

the target form to different situations. Teachers should consider time setting carefully when they give diverse input to the students. If the time gap between inputs is too long, focus on form instruction will not be effective at all. It is important to give students sufficient input consistently.

6. Conclusion

This study was begun with the idea that there would be positive results of focus on form instruction in English class in Korean middle school. This study analyzed whether focus on form was enough for learners to notice and use the target form; participial form. This study also analyzed how focus on form worked differently for learners depending on their proficiency levels.

Many studies in the current literature suggest that there are positive effects of focus on form in learning English (Jouedenais, et al. 1995; Leeman, et al. 1995). However, this study showed that focus on form seemed to be effective only for high level students. High level students seemed to pay attention to the participial form and use it properly in written text. Intermediate and low level students could not notice and use the target form. This study also showed that types of input and time setting influenced on the results of the learners' scores.

Input with specific example of the target form led the students to notice and focus on the target form. High level students were more affected by task types. They showed increased mean scores on more familiar tasks. Students with different proficiency levels were all influenced by time gap between the tasks.

The results of this study suggest that teachers in Korea should consider the learners' proficiency levels. For high level students, focus on form is quite effective. For intermediate and low level students, explicit grammar explanation should be provided with sufficient inputs of the target form. In addition, it is also important to give students diverse input in right time setting.

There were some limitations in this research. First, the participants were not cooperative for this research. We cannot guarantee that the results of this study were reflected the achievements of each students correctly. Second, this research was conducted in short-term period, and hence the future study requires more long-term research on this area. Third, this study relied on controlled assessment which does not test the communicative ability of learners sufficiently. Further study should try to investigate the communicative ability of learners. Finally, focus on form is related closely to the types of instructions or input, the complexity of a target structure and other learners' factors such as language

contents, motivation, attention, instructional preferences and gender role. Future study should pay attention to these factors more.

References

- Cadieron, T. (1995). Formal instruction from a processing perspective: An investigation into the Spanish past tense. *Modern Language Journal*, 79(2): 179-193
- Dekeyser, R. M. and Sokalski, K. (1996). The differential role of comprehension and production practice. *Language Learning*, 46(4): 613-642.
- Doughty, C. and Williams, J. (eds.). (1998). *Focus on form in classroom: Second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994a). *The study of second language acquisition*. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1998). Teaching and research: Options in grammar teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(1): 39-60.
- Ellis, N. (1993). Rules and instances in foreign language learning: Interaction of explicit and implicit knowledge. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 5: 289-318.
- Fotos, S. (1998). Shifting the focus on from forms to form in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal*, 52/4: 301-307.
- Gass, S. and Selinker, L. (1994). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Harley, B. (1993). Instruction strategies and SLA in early French

- immersion. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15(2): 245-260.
- Harley, B.(1998). The role of form-focused tasks in promoting the second language acquisition of children grade 2. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (eds.) *Focus on form in classroom: Second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.156-174.
- Hatch, E. (1983). *Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Izumi, S. (2002). Output, input enhancement, and the noticing hypothesis: An experimental study on ESL relativization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24: 541-577.
- Jourdenais, R., Ota, M., Stauffer, S., Boyson, B. and Doughty, C. (1995). Does textual enhancement promote noticing? A think-aloud protocol analysis. In R. Schmidt(ed.) *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, pp. 183-216.
- Kang, D. H. (2004). The differential effects of focus-on-form instructions on EFL learners' grammar learning, *English language learning*, 16(1): 29-52.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M. H. (1991). *An introduction to second language acquisition theory and research*. London: Longman.
- Leeman, J., Arteagoitia, I., Fridman, B. and Doughty, C. (1995). Integrating attention to form with meaning: Focus on form in content-base Spanish instruction. In R. Schmidt(ed.)

Attention and awareness in foreign language learning.
Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, pp.217-258.

- Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de. Bot. R. Ginsberg and C. Kramsch(eds.) *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspectives*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin.
- Long, M. H. and Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, Research, and practice. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (eds.) *Focus on form in classroom: Second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Murphy, R. (2004). *Grammar in use* (3rd Ed). Cambridge University Press.
- Pavlik, C. (2004). *Grammar sense 2*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Radwan, A. A. (2005). The effectiveness of explicit attention to form in language learning. *System*, 33: 69-87
- Schmidt, R. (1993). Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 13: 206-226
- Sharwood Smith, M. (1991). Speaking to many minds: On the relevance of different types of language information for the L2 learner. *Second Language Research*, 7(2): 118-132
- Swain, M. (1991a). French immersion and its offshoots: Getting two for one. In B. Freed (ed.) *Foreign language acquisition: Research and the classroom*. Lexington, MA: Heath, pp.91-104.

- Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1995) Problems in output and the cognitive processes why generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16(3): 371-391.
- VanPatten, B. and Cadierno, T. (1993a). Input processing and second language acquisition: A role of instruction. *Modern Language Journal*, 77(1): 45-57
- VanPatten, B. and Cadierno, T. (1993b). Explicit instruction and input processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15: 225-243.
- Williams, J. and Evans, J. (1998). What kind of focus and on which forms? In C. Doughty & J. Williams (eds.) *Focus on Form in Classroom Second language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilkins, D. (1976). *Notional syllabuses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Yeo, K. H. (1999). The effects of focus on form in elementary EFL class. *Studies in Modern Grammar*, 16: 221-236.
- Yeo, K. H. (2002). The differential effects of 'focus on form' tasks on two different grammatical forms of English. *Studies in Modern Grammar*, 30: 227-255.
- Yule, G. (1998). *Explaining English grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Zephir, F.(2000). Focus on form and meaning: Perspectives of developing teachers and action-based research. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33(1): 19-30.

Appendix A

<Task 1>

* Read the following sentences and judge the sentences if they are grammatically correct. If the sentence is correct, mark O and if the sentence is incorrect, mark X in the parentheses.

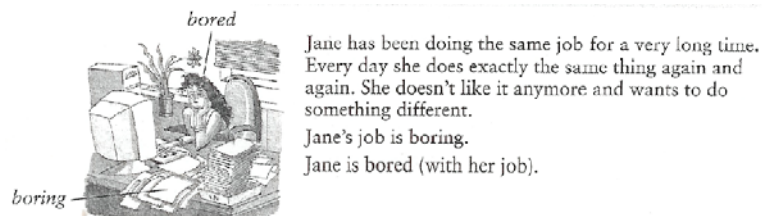
1. The whole house was on fire. We were all terrifying.
()
2. When Jimmy broke Mr. Brown's window, Mr. Brown was annoyed. ()
3. I'm going to bed early tonight. I've had a tiring day.
()
4. It was getting darker and darker. I thought we were lost. I was really worrying. ()
5. Let's watch channel 4. They play Wildlife. It is fascinated. ()
6. I don't want to change hairstyle. I'm quite satisfying with it. ()

7. She is disappointed at Greg, because he lied to her.
()
8. I've already heard the news that Sally broke up
with Mike. It isn't surprising at all. ()
9. I was quite shocking to see Jessica behaving
like that. ()
10. What's the matter? You look depressing. ()

Appendix B

<Task 2>

*Look at the example sentences accompanied by the picture. Then, choose the appropriate form for each sentence.



Conversation 1

A: Did you see the program Life of a bug on TV last night? It was (amazing/amazed).

B: I started to watch it, but I turned it off. I felt (disgusting/disgusted) by all those bugs.

A: Do you think bugs are (disgusting/disgusted)? To me they are really (interesting/interested).

Conversation 2

A: Let's go to the Lotte World on Sunday!

B: That's an (exciting/excited) idea.

A: I'm glad you like it. But Minji didn't seem (exciting/excited) when I told her about it. I felt really (disappointing/disappointed)

Conversation3

A: I've never watched such a (boring/bored) TV show.

B: I know. I felt (boring/bored) to death. Isn't it (surprising/surprised) that the TV show is popular?

Appendix C

<Task 3 >

* Please complete the sentences using the given words.

1. Jane likes to listen to music. She is especially (interest) in classical music.
2. I'm starting a new job next week. I'm very (excite) about it
3. The science lecture was _____ (bore). I fell asleep during the lecture.
4. Mary went to a movie yesterday. It was a (frighten) movie.
5. He always makes strange sound when he eats something.
He is really _____ (annoy).
6. My teacher is a _____ (excite) person. He is good at telling funny stories and makes us laugh.
7. Jim told me that Julie was dating Mike. I was (shock) at the news.
8. I got a low grade in Math. My mom will be (disappoint) if she knows this.

9. She didn't clean the kitchen for years. It was really (disgust).

10. I stepped on a man's foot on the subway, and the man yelled at me.

That was an _____(embarrass) moment.

Appendix D

<Task 4>

*Choose the appropriate response in the blank for each dialogue to make it natural discourse.

1. A: My boss is very frightening.

B : _____

- a. Maybe you should look for a new job.
- b. What's he afraid of?

2. A: I saw a play last night. It was horrible.

B: Why? Was the actor boring?

A: Yes, _____

- a. He fell asleep while he was on the stage.
- b. I fell asleep during the play.

3. A: What is your favorite subject?

B: These days German is my favorite. We have a great German teacher this semester.

A: Is his class really _____?

- a. exciting
- b. excited

4. A: Did you see the basketball game yesterday?

B: Yes, I did.

A: I watched it with my wife. And she was really excited.

B: _____

- a. I did, too
- b. I was, too

5. A: Do you have time on Friday evening?

B: Yes, I'm free. Why?

A: Why don't we go to the rock concert together?

B : _____

- a. Thanks, but I'm not interested.
- b. Thanks, but I'm not interesting.

Teaching English Grammar in a Communicative Approach

Seung Hee, Nho
Saint Michael's College, Vermont, USA

1. Introduction

Over the past several years, whether or not grammar should be taught explicitly or implicitly has been a controversial issue. Extensive grammar research has shown that grammar should be neglected in teaching English ever since communicative methodology appeared in the late 1970s. It was claimed that language should be acquired through natural exposure, not through formal instruction (Krashen, as cited in Nassaji & Fotos). However, recent research studies have demonstrated that grammar instruction enables learners to attain high level

of proficiency, both in accuracy and fluency. It was claimed that the teacher should provide learners with authentic discourse samples to illustrate all the contextually dependent grammatical rules (Ellis & Celce-Murcia, 2002). Florez (1999) in an article emphasized speaking skills using grammar accurately.

However, none of these studies provides any descriptive methods based on data that demonstrates actual application to the EFL classroom where communicative input is extremely limited and where grammar-based syllabi are the norm. In addition to the limited communicative input, EFL learners do not have the real-world needs for communicative functions in the target language as much as ESL learners do. Another limitation that previous research has not covered is that many non- native English speaking teachers who teach

EFL have a lack of communicative proficiency to teach grammar at the discourse level.

The present work will report on the reforms of English grammar teaching for communicative purposes in EFL countries, and present an applicable curriculum for communicative grammar in EFL classroom setting, which challenges and changes the role of EFL teachers. Furthermore, the role of L1 in L2 education will be discussed in this paper.

2. Communicative Language Teaching

2.1. Basic English Grammar for Survival

Purposes

Listening and speaking are the most used language skills both in and outside the classroom. Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Florez, 1999; Brown, 1994).

Kumaravadivelu (1999) demonstrated that discourse relates to the relationship between language structure and the immediate social context in which it is used. The social context helps classroom discourse look at the classroom activity as a social event and the classroom as a “minisociety” with its own rules.

Pennington (2002) suggested “action grammar” in which grammars of language should meet real use: “it must be interactive in nature and relative to specific discourse communicates and their communicative

practices.” Listening and speaking are not independent of each other so that at a lowest level, students produce sounds, gestures, writing for each other using basic grammatical structures for purposeful actions. Face-to-face conversation as the basic setting for language use is defined by the following characteristics: copresence, visibility, audibility, instantaneity, evanescence, simultaneity, extemporaneity, self-determination, and self-expression (Clark, as cited in Pennington, 2002).

Wiley and Lukes (1996) considered the basic English writing skills of university students who had low scores on composition, and asserted that it should be mandatory for students to learn the basic mechanics of writing, including spelling, punctuation, grammar, word choice, sentence structure and paragraph development and for the teacher to guide students through the writing process.

2.2. Academic Purposes in ESL/ EFL Classroom

According to Stewart's article (2004), a survey of the language needs of nonnative English speakers in U.S universities found that ESL students ranked formal speaking and listening comprehension skills as their two biggest problem areas. Students in academic programs need to be able to perform various academic tasks that require a number of language functions such as explaining, informing, debating, classifying, persuading and evaluating. Academic language has been defined as "the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills" (Chamot & O'Malley, as cited in Stewart, 2004, p. 9).

Florez (1999) claimed that students must be able to anticipate and then produce using the patterns

expected in the discourse situation so that they are required to choose correct vocabulary and accurate grammar structures. Discourse is referred to as “a coherent unit of language consisting of more than one sentence” (Schiffrin, as cited by Celce-Murcia, in Larsen-Freeman, 2002. p.122). Celce-Murcia illustrated grammatical sentences that combine the formal and functional perspectives to show how the sentences relate to form and meaning that relate communicative purpose. Fotos (in Larsen-Freeman, 2002) argued that structure-based tasks designed to promote awareness of target grammar forms are useful pedagogy for providing communicative grammar instruction. She also claimed that recent empirical evidence has shown that explicit instruction helps students to attain high levels of accuracy in the target language because explicit instruction not only activates their previous knowledge of

the target structures and but also draws their attention to the forms (e.g., Cadierno; Ellis; Lightbown; Lightbown, & Spada; Robinson; White, as cited in Fotos, 2002).

A research on grammar teaching through discourse in an advanced ESL class in Pennsylvania has shown that students have made progress gradually working to incorporate the forms into their oral language even though the lesson seemed confusing to students and they cannot retain all the grammatical structures (Shenk, 1999).

3. Grammar Instruction Curriculum

3.1. Grammar Lesson

Three Dimensions

Larsen-Freeman (2003) introduced three dimensions of language: form, meaning and usage. The

first dimension, the form of a language deals with phonology, morphology, and syntax. The morphological and syntactic subsystems are treated in second and third dimensions. Being able to use grammatical structures does not mean using the form accurately because students need to use them meaningfully in semantics and also appropriately in pragmatics. Yule (1998)

presented the grammar rules in prescriptive and descriptive views of the language, explain basic meaning of grammatical structures, and show how meaning is shaped by context.

There is no doubt that some analytically-inclined students are aided by explicit attention and explanations of form, meaning and use, by these reasons or rules of thumb, especially when the reasons/rules are abstract or complex. (Larsen-Freeman, 2002. p.143)

Methodological Presentation in Grammar Teaching

Fotos (in Larsen-Freeman, 2002) suggested that a pedagogic grammar lesson should follow three parts: explicit grammar instruction, communicative activities, and summary activities. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher gives students explicit grammar rules and explanation. Then, the teacher provides many communicative activities that contain uses of the instructed form. Last, in the summary activities section, students will pay more attention on the grammar form they have just studied and then perform communicatively.

Fotos (ibid.) stated that:

Tasks can supply the learner
with target language input that
is rich in communicative
usages of problematic target

structures, and task
performance provides
opportunities for the type of
learner interaction suggested to
promote language acquisition.
(p. 138)

In other words, tasks can provide students with opportunities to produce the target language and receive feedback on the productions. The feedback is so important that the students can notice the gap between the target language that they want to produce and the limitations of their current interlanguage (Carroll & Swain; Kowal; Swain& Larkin, as cited in Fotos, 2002). Nassaji and Fotos (2002) in their article also described three types of structure-based tasks that have been recently proposed to promote learner awareness and

practice of target forms, which are communicative because of meaning-focused interaction. Asato (2003) defined task as “a goal-oriented activity in which learners use language to achieve a real outcome” (p.19). He also proposed task-based learning (TBL) that provides the four conditions of language learning—exposure, use, motivation, and instruction.

3.2. Methodology

Ellis (2002) argued that “[t]here have been relatively few attempts to conduct a methodological analysis of the instructional options incorporated into grammar practice books” (p. 155). He presented three aspects of materials that relate to the analysis of methodological options in grammar teaching: (1) isolated, uncontextualized sentences; (2) sentence completion involving the adaptation of an unmarked lexical item presented in brackets; and (3) gap filling.

Explicit Description

Explicit description refers to supplied and discovers, which means whether the materials provide learners with an explanation of the grammar point or whether learners are required to develop their own explanations. Fotos (2002) strongly suggested that explicit instruction draws students' attention to the target form and raises their consciousness of it. Even though Corder (1973) argued that the methodological proposals in pedagogic grammar for teachers are more often implicit rather than explicit, he still said that explicit instruction could help students have the ability to interpret and produce grammatical utterances. (Sweet, as cited in Corder, 1973)

Roca (2002) emphasized teaching rules of grammar through explicit description and concluded that

it is important for learners not only to know the rules from the explicit instruction, but also to know why they exist because it helps make the acquisition of a language less mechanical. If ESL students know the reasons why a rule exists, they also know when it is possible to “violate” it in the meaning or use.

Data

According to Ellis (2002), data options are subdivided in terms of source, text size, and medium. Source shows whether the data provided authentic materials including real-life context or contrived materials designed for pedagogic context. Text size concerns with whether or not the text based on the data consists of discrete sentences and continuous sentences. Finally the text comprising the data can be written or oral. “Teaching is a matter of providing the learner with the

right data” (Corder, 1973) that can help students to develop the general ability to communicate producing grammatical sentences. In other words, giving the data means encouraging the learner to develop his own set of strategies for dealing with the task.

Operation

The operation in the methodological materials is classified according to whether they involve production, reception, or judgment. Production can be controlled or free. Controlled grammar activities have many types such as substitution, gap-filling, sentence completion, transformation, and insertion. On the other hand, free production activities concerns with whether the text produced is more personal in function. Students should have opportunities to practice these structures in oral or

written texts through production activities. (Ellis, 2002; Celce-Murcia, 2002)

Classroom Practice

Salies (1998) in his article showed a lesson designed to teach intermediate-level ESL students the usage of pronoun within a communicative approach using the target language. Students are invited to give examples based on the chant, and visual aids are also provided to make students understand the pronouns in the text form. To close the oral activities, the grammar instruction focuses on the explicit teaching of grammar and stresses only rules that can be activated during language production.

Shenk (1999) investigated teaching grammar through a lesson designed to teach advanced ESL students superlatives and comparatives, giving students three tests during the class: pre-test, post-test, and a

second post-test for data collection. He found out that concentrating on accurate grammar and pronunciation slows down students' progress in the target language because it takes their focus away from developing comprehension skills (Krashen & Terrell, as cited in Shenk, 1999).

In the article of Musthafa (2001), he brought up the serious challenge facing English education in Indonesia where the target language is seldom used in the classroom because Indonesian teachers of English tend to use their native language, which hinders the development of the students' communicative competence in English. For a communicative English classroom, he suggested that teachers should not only make explicit the objectives that they want their students to achieve from learning activities, but also consider relevant materials that will help students commit their attention to learning.

4. Pedagogic Grammar

4.1. Explicit Instruction

Krashen (as cited in Nassaji, 2002) argued against explicit grammar instruction saying that “explicit grammatical knowledge about structures and rules for use may never turn into implicit knowledge underlying unconscious language comprehension and production.” The value of explicit grammar instruction was also rejected by Truscott (as cited in Nassaji, 2002) asserting that grammar instruction alone may not promote what he called “genuine knowledge of language.”

However, Ellis (2002) suggested that when grammar instruction is extensive and is sustained over a long period of time, such instruction contributes to the

development of implicit knowledge and it promotes accuracy in the use of difficult forms in the target language. He strongly supported the need for providing communicative opportunities that contain instructed grammar forms and a combination of form-focused instruction and meaningful communication. In other words, learners need opportunities to both encounter and produce structures that have been introduced either explicitly through the grammar lesson, or implicitly through frequent exposure. (Ellis, 2002; Lightbrown, 2000; Swain, as cited in Ellis, 2003)

Pedagogical focus on form can be achieved in four different ways: focus on form through process or through design, reactively or preemptively (Nassaji, as cited in Nassaji & Fotos, 2002). Focus on form through process occurs in the context of natural communication when both the teacher and the learner's primary focus is

on meaning. On the contrary, focus on form through design is achieved through designing tasks which have deliberate explicit focus (ibid.). Long and Robinson (as cited in Nassaji) said that focus on form can also be achieved ‘reactively’ by providing reactional feedback on learners’ errors, or ‘preemptively’ by discussing grammatical forms irrespective of whether errors have occurred or not.

4.2. Implicit Instruction

The objects of grammars have been intended for the use of a language so that many scholars suggest less explicit instruction to present the “fact” of the language in form, but instead focus on more implicit teaching. The methodological proposals in pedagogic grammar for teachers are also focusing on implicit description rather than explicit explanation. Ellis (2002) who suggested

input and output processing, argued that students should be aware of two different steps when they receive input. First, learners can be made aware of the formal properties of the language as they experience these in input. Second, learners can be made aware of forming some kind of explicit representation of a target form (i.e., developing explicit knowledge). Finally, learners can have opportunities to try out their understanding of the target structure in a production activity. Dekeyser (as cited in Ellis, 2002) believed that the idea of explicit knowledge being converted into implicit knowledge by means of automatizing practice can be challenged. Fotos (2002) argued that the tasks should be implicit grammar tasks that are entirely communicative, with no grammatical content but requiring use of the target structure to perform the task. Thus, implicit structure-based tasks following grammar instruction can facilitate learner

204 Teaching English Grammar in a Communicative Approach
acquisition. (Ellis, 2002; Robinson, as cited in Fotos,
2002)

4.3. The Role of L1 and L2 in Grammar Lesson

The use of learners' L1 is a controversial issue in L2 education. Language learners are usually discouraged from using their shared L1 in L2 classroom activities. However, recent findings suggest that the L1 may be a useful tool for learning the L2 (Anton & DiCamilla, Brooks & Donato, as cited in Wigglesworth, 2003). These empirical investigations have studied L2 learning processes within a sociocultural framework, examining L1 interactions used by learners as they participate in cognitively demanding L2 activities. The result showed that the use of the L1 provides learners with additional

cognitive support that allows them to analyze language and work at a higher level (ibid.).

Swain and Lapkin (as cited in Wigglesworth, 2003) investigated the use of L1 (English) by two 8th grade French classes and found that the L1 was helpful for establishing a joint understanding of the text, focusing attention on grammatical items, and enhancing interpersonal interaction. Wigglesworth (2003) finally concluded that there was a turnaround in the learners' behavior when they received explicit instructions to use their L1s, which shows learners are strongly influenced by the context in which they are working. The use of L1 can help students provide each other with definitions of unknown words more directly and more successfully. Teachers need to reevaluate views concerning the use of the L1 in L2 in group and pair work.

References

- Butler, Y.G. (2004). What level of English proficiency do elementary school teachers need to Attain to teach EFL? Case studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly* 38. pp. 245-278.
- Celce-Murcia, Marianne. (1983). The grammar book: ESL/EFL teacher's course (pp. 80-94). Boston: Newbury House Publishers.
- Corder, S.P. (1973). Pedagogic grammar. In *Introducing Applied Linguistics*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Ellis, R. (2002). Methodological options in grammar teaching materials. In Hinkel, Eli. & Fotos, Sandra (Eds.), *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms* (pp. 155-180). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers Mahwah.
- Florez, C. M. (1999). Improving adult English language learner's speaking skills. Eric Document: 435 - 204.

Fotos, Sandra. (2002). Structure-based interactive tasks for the EFL grammar learner. In Hinkel & Fotos (Eds), *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers Mahwah.

Hardison, D.M. (1999). TESOL students as teachers and colleagues: Integrating theory, research, methods, and practicum in professional development. Eric Document: 439 - 603

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1999). Critical classroom discourse analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*. 33. pp. 453-484

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2003). Teaching language: From grammar to grammaring. Boston: Newbury House Teacher Development.

Musthafa, B. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia: Issues of theoretical assumptions and challenges in the classroom practice. Eric Document: _____.

Nakamura, Y., & Valens, M. (2001). Teaching and testing oral communication skills. Eric Document: 453 - 689.

Pennington, M.C. (2002). Grammar and communication: New directions in theory and practice. In Hinkel & Fotos (Eds.), *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers Mahwah.

Salies, T.G. (1998). Pronoun case: Teaching grammar within a communicative paradigm. Eric Document: 424 767.

Schlepppegrell, M.J., Achugar, M., & Oteiza, T. (2004). The grammar of history: Enhancing content-based instruction through a functional focus on language. *TESOL Quarterly* 38. pp. 67- 93

Shenk, T. (1999). Teaching grammar in an ESL classroom: Action research monograph. Eric Document: 440 234.

Stewart, T. (2004). Debate for ESOL students. *TESOL Journal*. Vol.12.(1)

Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*. 37. pp.760-770.

Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly* 37. pp.761-770.

Yule, George. (1998). *Explaining English grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Integrating English into content based instruction in discretionary activity class

Misoon, Kim
Gusan Middle School

1. Introduction

Eighth grade students in my school are required to have an hour of discretionary activity class every week. Because there were no formal textbooks for this class, the writer began to find the new teaching methods and materials proper for this class. The writer teaches high level students and the content of the regular textbook is too easy and simple compared to the level of their intelligence or thinking abilities. The textbook with easy and simple content cannot give them any interests or curiosities. That's why students, especially high level students, get bored easily in English class. So the writer got interested in content based instruction, especially theme based model, and introduced it to the students.

Students who needed new atmosphere of the learning environment expressed their interests in the writer's idea.

2. Integrating English into Content Based Instruction

This paper is a study on integration of English into Content Based Instruction (CBI) in discretionary activity class. Integrating English into Content Based Instruction (CBI) focuses not only on learning English but also on using English as a medium to learn other subjects such as mathematics, science, social studies, etc. Integrating English into Content Based Instruction has many benefits. First of all, language acquisition is based on meaningful and understandable input. Such integration increases students' interests with content themes, and therefore, it also provides a meaningful basis for understanding and acquiring new language structures and patterns (Genesee,1994; Krashen,1989; Snow, Met, and Genesee, 1989; Taylor,1983). When integrating English and content instruction, teachers develop a student-centered approach.

The writer chose the theme based model because the teacher can create a course of study based on their own students' interests and the content can be chosen

from an enormous number of diverse topics. And a lot of materials for theme based model are in the Internet, newspapers and other sources.

3. Why Drama

In recent years, language teaching has focused not only on the linguistic competence of the language learner but also on the development of their communicative ability in order to teach the target language in an active and interesting manner. Drama is essential in developing the communicative ability of the learners. This activity requires the learners to have a sound understanding of a text and be able to apply their knowledge outside the classroom and their own experiences into the activities. And students have the chances to engage in some form of language use and interact in different settings. According to Wessels (1987), drama can help the teacher to achieve reality in several ways. It can overcome the students' resistance to learning the new language;

⊆ by making the learning of the new language an enjoyable experience

⊆ by setting realistic targets for the students to aim for

⊆ by creative slowing down of real experience

⊆ by linking the language learning experience with the student's own experience of life

⊆ by the use of creative tension(situations requiring urgent solutions)

⊆ by putting more responsibility on the learner, as opposed to the teacher

Therefore drama was chosen as one of the tasks in this course to create a situation for the learner to actively interact in the target language, thereby making the language learning more meaningful. At the same time, the learners are introduced to the different learning style-
-listening, remembering, discussing, writing, presenting and reading.

4. How to Apply

4.1 Preparation stage

4.1.1 Decision of the topics

Students and the writer negotiated the topics which were most serious problems among students and the Korean society because they wanted to find their own solutions of those problems, and thus chose top five. They were bullying, study, computer, puberty and cleanliness. These topics were expected to provide the students with an opportunity to practice a real-life situation. They were also appropriate for drama because they involved many

214 Integrating English into content based instruction
in discretionary activity class
personalities thus allowing the students to assume those
roles.

4.1.2 Planning group activities

The students were asked to get into five groups of eight or nine and choose a leader and a writer for each group. Each group chose one topic among five for the drama and negotiate the content of the drama. They were asked to help the writer to write scripts which were not too structured and fitted into a real life situation. And every group member was assigned individual roles through the discussion. Each group had a week-long time for making drama and submitted the video recordings as the result. In discretionary class, the video recordings of the drama would be used as good materials for discussion including the worksheet which the teacher would prepare.

4.1.3 The topic of each group

group 1 : bullying, group 2 : study, group 3 :
computer
group 4 : puberty, group 5 : cleanliness

4.1.4 The atmosphere

In the early stages of making drama, students were uncomfortable and uncertain. But soon they began helping one another finding out words and expressions

which were related to the topic in order to prepare for the script of drama. Towards the end, their shyness left them and they began to enjoy working together and wanted to do their best. If not for this activity, they would not have thought much about their particular issues. Students kept asking the teacher a lot of questions to ensure they were on the right track, and this made them to interact more with the teacher. Guiding students well is an important job of the teacher.

4.2. Presentation Stage

Through out the presentation, students showed enthusiasm. They listened to others carefully and expressed their views actively. In doing so, their interests were heightened and the language skills were progressed, not fearing that they made mistakes with grammar.

4.3. Post presentation Stage

Students were asked to keep journals after each presentation. They had an opportunity to think about the topic which they learned that day and organize their ideas and opinions in their journals. This activity improved students' thinking and language ability.

5. The Process of Each Class

Here is one of five classes.

Episode 1. Bullying

◆ Before presentation

Answer the following questions.

1. What is bullying?
2. What do you think of bullying someone?

◆ Target Vocabulary

Match each word with the best meaning

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| 1. rooftop | a. express regrets for a mistake made or injury done |
| 2. destroy | b. break into pieces |
| 3. argument | c. the out side top cover of a building |
| 4. apologize | d. pardon |
| 5. appear | e. get free, run away |
| 6. escape | f. come into sight |
| 7. forgive | g. a quarrel, a discussion of differing points of view |

◆ Presentation through video recording by group 1

Scenario

A bullied boy - 희태 Student 1 - 영식

Student 2 - 충호 Student 3 - 용주

⑩On the rooftop of the building

(A bullied boy is stepping to the parapet of the rooftop steadily)

A bullied boy : I can't expect anything from my future anymore because

something is destroying me and I can't stand my parents' quarrels, so I want to escape from this world.

⑩A school hallway

(A bullied boy walks along the hallway and some students come closer to the boy.)

Student 1 : Did you bring the money for us?

A bullied boy : Sorry.

Student 2 : (He seems to be very angry) What? Sorry?

(They take him to the corner and begin to hit him. The boy tries to protect himself, but it's impossible.)

Student 3 : (Kicking him) If you know how to apologize to other people, bring the money. You understand?

A bullied boy : OK.

Student 1 : Only this time we forgive you.

⑩In a classroom

(The boy is sitting alone at lunchtime. The students appear again)

Student 2 : Hey. Do you have some snacks?

A bullied boy : (He seems to be scared) No. Sorry.

Student 3 : Buy some snacks for us tomorrow. OK?

A bullied boy : (in a low voice) OK.

(The boy is sitting in front of his room's door. His parents knock the door)

Father : Hey, come outside. It's been a week

Mother : Why don't you say anything?

Father : (He looks angry.) What happened to him?

Mother : (She looks angry, too) I don't know. He didn't say anything to me.

Father : Your job is to take good care of him. Don't you know?

Mother : What? It's nonsense. It's your job, too.

(The boy looking at himself through the mirror and then close his eyes.)

A bullied boy : No more like this.

(The boy left his house and goes up the stairs to the rooftop)

A bullied boy : Sorry, mom. But I don't want to live

anymore. I want to be free. (A camera
close up the window.)

◆ Discussion

Read the following questions carefully and write your opinions briefly.

1. Why do you think the boy is bullied?
2. What do you think of the boy's decision?
3. If you were a boy, what is your solution?
4. Have you ever bullied someone? Why?
5. Have you ever been bullied by someone? Why? What was your solutions?
6. Do you think this is a serious problem in our school?

◆ Keeping journals

Choose one of the discussion questions and write the 150-200 words journal.

6. Evaluation of the Presentation

Students' presentation was evaluated. The evaluation was divided into student self evaluation, peer evaluation and teacher evaluation. Here is the form of teacher evaluation form.

Topic of presentation :

Objectives : Developing language skills and thinking ability

Evaluator :

Please read each of the statement below and circle the number which corresponds most closely to your experience with the presentation.

Very Unsatisfactory(VU) - Very Satisfactory(VS)

1 2 3 4 5

1. The purpose of the presentation is clear. 1 2 3 4 5

2. The content fits with curricular goals. 1 2 3 4 5

3. The presentation of the content is clear and logical. 1 2
3 4 5

4. The presentation is useful task focused on the target language skills.

1

2 3 4 5

5. The level of difficulty is suitable for the target learner. 1 2 3 4 5

6. The material is authentic. 1 2 3 4 5

7. Students enjoy the presentation. 1 2 3 4 5

TOTAL SCORE : _____

7. Conclusion

Students said that making drama and video recordings were hard job, but it was an enjoyable experience. Students were proud of both themselves and their master pieces. And students' creativeness, learner autonomy and cooperation were observed to be distinctively

developed. Drama provided the teacher and students with opportunities to think about the problems of each situation and tried to find the solutions of the problems through discussion. Through this process they reflected themselves and learned lessons as well as English. Although at the beginning the students had doubts and lacked confidence, the activity was successful in achieving its aims. This study shows that language teaching can be an interesting challenge when teachers and students make the efforts to explore a variety of approaches and both the teachers and the students can make language classes livelier, enjoyable and challenging through their co-operations.

References

- Genesee, R. (1994). Integrating Language and Content Lessons From Immersion Educational Practice Report.
- Krshen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Snow, M. A., Met, M., and Genesee, F. (1989). A Conceptual Framework for the Integration of Language and Content in Second Foreign Language Instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23, 2, 201-217.
- Taylor, B. (1983). Teaching ESL: Incorporating a Communicative, student-centered component. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 1, 69-88.
- Wessels, C. (1987). *Drama* (Resource Books for Teachers). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Don't Let the Comprehensive Exams Scare You Away

Yonghui, Li
TESOL 5rd semester

Many 5th semester students who choose practicum as their graduation requirement feel extremely nervous because they have heard that the comprehensive exams are pretty tough. This is true, but if you prepare enough for the tests, you will certainly pass. In order to help the would-be “Practicumers” deal with the tests effectively, I would like to offer some tips related to preparation for the tests. Basically, there are three stages in the whole preparation process: 1. gathering information, 2. doing presentations, and 3. self-studying. In what follows I will explain each of them in some detail.

1. Gathering information

At the beginning of the semester, the professors will provide the Practicum students with the study questions that may possibly appear on the actual tests. Basically, the questions are organized into three test subjects:

Language Teaching Methodology, Second Language Learning Theories, and Materials Development. As soon as you get these study questions, the Practicum class needs to divide into three groups where each group will handle one subject. That means each group has its duty to find and write up in great detail the answers to all the study questions related to their chosen subject. When you try to set up the groups, it is better for people who previously took courses related to a subject to make up one group. A good group should show diversity in the courses its members took. In this way, different members may have more useful information and related knowledge and it will be easy for them to find out the answers effectively.

After the groups have been set up, each person in the group should contribute her efforts to find the answers for particular questions. For example, if there are four people in the group and there are twenty study questions for that group, then each person needs to deal with about five questions. During the process of finding answers, try to make your answers as detailed and comprehensive as possible. The reason for this is that the actual questions on the test are not the same as the study questions. The real test questions will be more specific and since you do not know which aspect of the study questions the actual questions will focus on, it is very

important that you have answers that can cover as many different aspects of the study questions as possible. When you try to find the answers, you should look in books, thesis, and journal articles both on-line or published, as well as other Internet sources and your class notes. When you go to use Internet sources, one thing to bear in mind is try to use only what you are sure are reliable sources. It is not safe, for example, to use the information from a site like "Bob's personal web page." Only use Internet sources from reputable university websites or the personal websites of well-known and respected authorities.

Then each group needs to make a schedule to decide the deadline to hand in the first draft of the answers. In order to get high quality answers, it is better to get feedback on the first draft from professors. Then you can revise it according to the advice you receive. Make sure everyone follows the schedule, if one person is way behind schedule, it may cause problems for others. It is important to remember that taking these comprehensive exams is really a team effort. Everyone has to do her or his part to help everyone else. A chain is only as strong as its weakest link.

2. Doing presentations

After all the answers have been revised and the final versions are gathered together into high quality answers, it is time for everyone to sit down and discuss all the answers together since you need to exchange not only answers but also related ideas on the answers. Different people may have different points of view. Therefore, one of the most effective ways to study these questions is by having Practicum students take turns doing presentations on their answers after all the answers have been distributed and read. In this way you can hear the answers and debate and review through a question-and-answer format. It is important to set up a schedule for a whole group study and personal presentations. Each person takes a turn to present her or his answers. In this case, everyone is not only a presenter but also a member of the audience. Doing presentations is good for both the presenters and the audience. In order to present, the presenters need to understand the content very well, so they can understand what they are going to say and explain and make things clear for everyone else. On the other hand, as an audience member, you can get information and share your ideas since everyone has limited knowledge. The beauty of the presentation is you can throw out a minnow to catch a whale.

There are two ways to do the presentations. One is, you can focus on one subject area then start another. The other one is you can present different subjects at one meeting. Whatever you choose, the most important thing is for everyone to do enough preparation before his or her presentation. However, it is always possible still to be unsure of all the content during the presentation. In this case, do not feel ashamed to say you do not understand something no matter whether you are a presenter or an audience member because the purpose of the presentation is to make everyone clearly understand the content of the answers so they can write it up on the test. If you are not sure about something as a presenter, then you can discuss it with other Practicum students or ask your professors some specific questions. If you do not understand some of the content as an audience member, then the rest of the Practicum students will help you to catch up. In short, study together and help each other to make your study maximally effective.

3. Self-study

Self-study is the most important but difficult part of the entire process. If you cannot control your time very well, there will be a huge mess. In order to be effective in your self-study, you need to make a plan, a detailed daily plan,

to make sure you are actually studying enough for the exam. Everyday, before you go to bed, check if you completed all the tasks you planned for the day. If you could not finish, make sure you make it up the next day. By doing this, you will become used to the process and feel more comfortable and raise your confidence during the preparation period. Do not try to memorize the answers when you only have one week left, it probably will not help much as there is simply too much information to memorize it all quickly.

During your preparation, you need to do certain memorization. However, if you could not understand the content or the main idea of the questions, it will be hard to memorize either. Therefore, the key point is to fully understand the questions and the answers you think you know. Another important thing is make your own answers for each question based on the answers you already have. Since the answers you have are pretty long, and also you got them from others, it is possible for you to feel unfamiliar with the terminology and the expressions they used. You can write down the main idea and sub-ideas for each question, then write down some examples as support. You may find it helps a lot when you try to memorize. According to my experience, this will also help during the actual tests. Since the time you are given on the tests is really not sufficient for you to

think a lot, it is imperative that you know in advance what your answers will be so the most familiar content and ideas will pop up in the right moment.

Since you need to write four essays and 10 definitions in seventy minutes when you take the comprehensive examination, you have to write as fast as you can. In order to make this happen, you need to practice every day. Do not just read the answers, practice writing your own answers down on paper, and time yourself when you do. It is also helpful to try to get some of the actual exam paper to practice writing on. You will find the exam paper is very special. If you can, try to use the real test paper to practice.

When you get near to the test dates, you need to do several trial tests by yourself. Give yourself seventy minutes and test how much and how fast you can write. Do at least one practice test for each subject. If you can, go to the classroom in the Myungshin Building (West Building) where you will take the tests to practice. It will make you feel a little bit more comfortable and familiar with the environment.

At the same time, while doing all these things also make sure to take care of your health. Work hard but do not stay home and study the whole day. Take a break and eat well. Breaks are not a waste of your time, they will help your brain and body relax, and make the study

more effective. Also, eat and sleep regularly, you need energy to study and take the tests. You will soon find out how important it is.

Since everyone has different styles, you may have your own ways to deal with this task. I am sure though that through a well-controlled and organized study process coupled with plain old-fashioned hard work, you will ace these exams and get your chance to stand up and be recognized with all present and past TESOL MA graduates.

The Long Road to Preparing for a Ph.D. in the United States

Seongwon Yun
TESOL MA Graduate Ex-President,
TESOL MA Student Body

Take Your Time

It has been about one year and a half since I made up my mind that I would like to study further in a decent Ph.D. program abroad. Making that initial decision was extremely easy but the process was tough. The trick to success, based on my experience, is accomplishing all the right tasks at the right time. Getting through all the various requirements in stages is really a matter of strict time management. The whole process requires everlasting patience and fortitude. Now, I am happy to report that I am about to leave for Oklahoma State University in the United States to study in the Ph.D. program of TESL / Linguistics in the Department of English.

Abstract

The Effectiveness of Vocabulary

Teaching by Word Meaning Types

This study investigates the use of core and peripheral meaning of words in L1 for L2 word meaning presentations in Korean elementary classrooms and its effects on the recognition of word core and peripheral meanings in different contexts. To meet the goal of the study, a quantitative research methodology has been adopted. The subjects in this study are fourteen 4th year elementary students whose level is intermediate-low based on the ACTFL guidelines and the YLE (Young Learners English Tests designed by Cambridge University). There are two subject groups, peripheral meaning group and core meaning group.

The peripheral meaning group was given the peripheral meanings of words in Korean from stories by the instructor. The core meaning group was provided the core meaning of the target words in Korean and was later asked to guess the word meaning in context in Korean by reading the stories themselves for 9 sessions including one review session. The results have shown, first, the use of core meanings of words in L1 for word presentation

can be an effective method for learners to comprehend word meaning from the core meaning to the more peripheral meanings in different contexts. Second, vocabulary acquisition is enhanced by providing more cognitive elaboration activities for expanding word meaning. Hence, cognitive elaboration plans for L1 meanings of L2 words for word presentation can be more effective than just providing the translation partners in contexts.

국문 개요

어휘 의미 유형에 따른 영어 어휘 지도의 효과

본 연구는 학습자가 영어 어휘의 의미를 파악할 때 한국어 핵심의미(Core meaning)와 한국어 주변의미(Peripheral meaning)를 제시한다. 서로 다른 제시방법을 비교 조사하여 영어 어휘 학습에서 목표어휘의 의미, 이해도 및 다른 문맥에서의 의미 파악능력을 알아본다. 또한 학습자가 효과적인 모국어 사용을 통한 어휘 의미 제시 방법을 찾는데 그 목적을 두고 있다.

이를 위해 본 연구에서는 현 초등 4학년 학생 남녀 14명을 두 그룹으로 나누어 서로 다른 어휘의미 제시 방법을 적용해서 8차 시에 걸쳐 수업을 진행하였다. 핵심의미 그룹(Core meaning group)은 의미 제시 시 학습자 스스로가 이야기를 읽으면서 주어진 목표어의 핵심의미와 문맥을 통해 이

야기 내에서 목표어의 주변 의미를 파악하도록 유도했다. 반면, 주변 의미 그룹 (Peripheral meaning group)은 이야기를 읽기 전 교사가 해당 어휘 사용 문맥에서의 한국어 주변 의미를 알려주고 문맥내용을 통해 어휘의 뜻을 확인하도록 했다. 총 복습 일주일 후 사후 시험(CP1, CP2, Translation test)을 실시해서 어휘 의미 파악에 대한 결과를 도출했다. 결과분석의 방법으로는 사전 사후 시험에 대한 비교, 상관 분석 및 그룹별 면담을 진행했다.

비교 분석 결과, 핵심 의미 그룹이 어휘 의미의 이해도 및 파악능력이 높은 것으로 밝혀졌다. 더욱이 익숙하지 않은 문맥에서도 목표어의 의미파악은 주변 의미 그룹에 비해 유의미하게 우수한 것으로 나타났다. 또한 상관분석 결과 문맥과 핵심어를 통해 주변 의미를 유추하는 활동은 해석 시험 (translation test) 결과와 상관 관계가 있는 것으로 밝혀졌다. 한국어 의미와 영어 단어의 단순 암기 수준의 어휘 학습에서 학습자들은 단어의 다변성을 이해하고 그를 토대로 다양한 문맥에서의 의미 전환을 이해, 파악하는 어휘 학습의 형태로 변화할 수 있다는 결론을 도출할 수 있었다. 이는 영어 어휘 지도에 있어서 한국어 활용이 문맥과 주변 의미 유추활동을 통해 이루어진다는 것을 의미한다. 끝으로 본 연구는 문맥상 영어 어휘 의미 제시방법을 통한 학습 지도안과 교재 개발 및 활용을 제안한다.

ABSTRACT

Effects of English Reading Proficiency on the Lexical Inferencing of Korean Middle School Students.

Ill Jin Sin

TESOL

Graduate School of TESOL

Sookmyung Women's University

This study examines the relationship between EFL Korean middle school students' reading proficiency and lexical inferencing sources in deriving word meaning in a reading text. 38 Korean middle school students grouped into three reading proficiency groups and read passages containing 30 unknown words and attempted to derive the meanings of the unknown words from context. This research investigates how the students apply lexical inferencing strategies to their reading and what knowledge sources they use in the inferencing processes. The body of this research finds out the four kinds of inferencing knowledge sources the students use in their actual guessing and identified the differences in inferencing sources between different reading proficiency groups. The results firstly, show that high reading proficiency produced more successful lexical inferencing. Secondly, Korean middle school students relied on their background knowledge and tried to find out lexical links for successful guessing. In addition, the students using linguistic knowledge with semantic knowledge sources at the same produced more accurate guessing. Last, the students derived more accurate guessing for noun words rather than adjective and verb words with concrete conceptual vocabulary knowledge about noun words. This research support an interactive reading process model which supports lexical inferencing model and emphasized reading proficiency which play important roles in successful inferencing to use knowledge sources inside and outside text appropriately and effectively in conjunction with their linguistic and background knowledge. This report discusses the pedagogical as well as theoretical implication of findings for EFL learners' lexical guessing for effective reading processes.