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Contents

I. Articles	page 6
(1) Corrective Feedback and Peer Feedback	page 7
Approached to English Grammar	Ardelle Malaggay
(2) The Pedagogical Potential of Codeswitching	page 23
Developing Bilingualism	Thomas S. Avery
(3) Developing students' strategic ability through L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction	page 43
Teaching Reading	Yoo-Lim Kwon
(4) Research about Effectiveness using Drama Activities in ELT; focusing on Opened Drama Activities and Interaction Analysis	page 66
Language in Context	Yihwa Kang
(5) Evaluating the Reading Program at SLP	page 85
ESL/EFL Program Evaluation	Yeonhee Sung

(6) The Influence of Adopting English Names on Role Identity of Korean EFL Young Learners page 112

Research Methodology

Min Gi Hong

(7) Ecological Linguistics in CALL and Language Learning page 146

Theoretical Foundation of CALL

Dongwon Park

(8) Enhancing Class Dynamics and Interaction

Through the Application of Communicative Activities page 162

Practicum

Namkyung Kim

II. Special Contribution

page 188

(1) A Korean University EFL Instructor's Assessment Practice: A

Narrative Inquiry page 189

Bilal Ahmad Qureshi

III. Student Addition

page 203

(1) The Organizations Publishing Journals about Teaching English in Korea

Introduction of Korean Journals

page 204

Bomi Choi

- (2) Eva Hoffman's "Lost in Translation: A Life in a New Language" - How to become a fully translated person** page 207

Book Review

Barry Welsh

- (3) Searching for the Missing Puzzle Pieces** page 211

Introduction of Doing Research

Riza Gay Estores

- IV. Thesis Abstracts** page 214

- (1) Enhancing Learner Reflection and Writing Proficiency through Engaging in Learning Journal Practice** page 215

Ki Sang Yeo

- (2) Constraints on the Acquisition of English Constructions with Wh-movement by Korean Learners of English** page 216

Hyungsuk Kang

- (3) The Effectiveness of an Accelerated Reader Program for Third Grade-level Reading Students in an Immersion Program in Korea** page 217

Mingyeong Son

- (4) A Study of Student Perception of Creativity Enhancing Writing Tasks**

Tailored to the NEAT

page 218

Jong-eun Yun

(5) Elementary School Students' Perceptions of Content Based Instruction (CBI)
with Social Studies **page 220**

Sang Eun Lee



I. Articles



Corrective Feedback and Peer Feedback

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4th semester

This literature review explored corrective and peer feedback. It has been argued that corrective feedback is beneficial in facilitating the acquisition of certain language forms, however, the debate continues on whether giving corrective feedback to second language learners can improve written accuracy. For example, Truscott (1996) claimed that error correction is not only useless but also harmful to the accuracy of students' writing. The findings of several studies reviewed here argue that corrective feedback has positive effects on language learning, but question the extent to which peer feedback is also beneficial. The results of the studies reviewed in the second part show that, despite some drawbacks, peer feedback is also beneficial to participants, helping improve their performance and enhancing their skills. The findings of this review, therefore, support that both corrective feedback and peer feedback can enhance language learning.

1. Introduction

According to Sauro (2009), it has been argued that corrective feedback is beneficial in facilitating the acquisition of certain language forms which may be difficult to learn through input alone, including forms that are rare, low in perceptual salience, or that lack a clear form-meaning relationship. However, he further points out that corrective feedback can be used to draw a learner's attention to mismatches between the learner's production and the target-like realization of these hard-to-learn forms. It is possible to facilitate the occurrence of noticing by drawing the learner's attention, and Schmidt (2001) believes this is "the first step in language building" (p. 31).

According to the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), for learning to happen language learners "must attend to and notice the details and differences between the target language and their interlanguage and its representation in their production of output" (Sauro, 2009, pp. 96-97). Corrective feedback can, therefore, assist with the acquisition of difficult forms by increasing the possibility that these forms will be noticed. Despite the benefits of feedback that have already been mentioned, the debate continues on whether giving corrective feedback to second language writers can improve their written accuracy, due to Truscott's (1996) claim that error correction is not only useless but also harmful to the accuracy of students' writing (Liu, 2008).

Personally, I agree that corrective feedback facilitates language learning, so in the first part of this paper (my midterm project), I review studies that support the effectiveness of

corrective feedback. The findings, indeed, confirm that providing feedback has positive effects on learning. However, in most of these studies either the researcher or the teacher provided feedback to the learners. Therefore, I use the second half of this paper to investigate whether feedback given by classmates or peers can be effective and beneficial.

2. Corrective Feedback

In order to give an overview, the meaning and the types of corrective feedback are presented first.

2.1 Definitions

In the language-learning classroom, teachers usually provide either positive or negative evidence to learners in response to the learners' erroneous productions (Kim, 2004). Positive evidence consists of samples of what is grammatical or acceptable in the target language. Negative evidence is information about what is ungrammatical or unacceptable, and it is often known as corrective feedback (CF). Positive evidence, according to Gass and Selinker (2001), "comes from the speech learners hear or read and is thus composed of a limited set of well-formed utterances of the language being learned" (p. 173), whereas negative evidence is "information to a learner that his or her utterance is deviant with regard to the norms of the language being learned" (ibid.).

CF has been simply defined as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (Ellis, 2006, as cited in Lyster, Saito and Sato, 2013, p. 28), and as a "complex phenomenon with several functions" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 152). Lyster et al. (2013) argue that knowledge about this seemingly simple yet complex phenomenon continues to grow as research accumulates on its role in second language classrooms and its effects on language development. According to Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), CF is provided in one or a combination of the following forms: an indication of the location of the error, provision of the correct structure of the incorrect utterance, and provision of metalinguistic information which describes the nature of the error.

2.2 Types of Corrective Feedback

Based on their descriptive study of teacher–student interaction in French immersion classrooms, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six different types of corrective feedback. Explicit correction is where the teacher explicitly corrects the student's erroneous utterance

by providing the correct form of the utterance. A recast is when the teacher reformulates the student's utterance wholly or partly in a correct form. Clarification requests refer to when the teacher's feedback indicates that the teacher does not understand the student's utterance or the utterance is partly ill-formed, therefore, the student is requested to reformulate or repeat his/her utterance. Metalinguistic feedback is an explanation of any errors that occurred in the student's erroneous utterance without providing the correct answer. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), this feedback can be either in the form of comments, information, or questions. Metalinguistic comments indicate that there is an error or there are errors occurring in the student's utterance. Elicitation feedback is the fifth type, where the teacher can apply at least three methods in order to get the right utterance from the student. In the first technique, the student is asked to complete the teacher's partial utterance. Meanwhile, in the second elicitation technique, the teacher asks questions to the student in order to elicit correct utterance from him/her. The third technique is used when the teacher requests the student to reformulate her or his initial utterance. The last type of feedback is repetition feedback. The teacher repeats her/his student's incorrect utterance and raises her/his voice to highlight the error in the utterance.

These six types were later classified into two broad categories: reformulations and prompts (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Reformulations include recasts and explicit correction, because both these moves supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output. Prompts include a variety of signals other than reformulations that push learners to self-repair (i.e. elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition. Recently, Sheen and Ellis (2011) suggested a similar classification which accounts for the distinction between reformulations and prompts as well as the distinction between implicit and explicit corrective feedback. They also distinguish between conversational and didactic recasts. Sheen and Ellis's (2011) taxonomy distinguishes between explicit feedback that provides correct forms (i.e. didactic recasts and explicit correction with or without metalinguistic explanation) and explicit feedback that withholds correct forms (i.e. metalinguistic clues and elicitation).

According to Lyster et al. (2013) the different types of corrective feedback provide different types of linguistic evidence (either positive or negative). Furthermore, they claim that explicit correction provides both negative and positive evidence; prompts provide only negative evidence, whereas recasts provide not only positive but also negative evidence, provided the learner perceives the feedback as an indication that an error has occurred.

2.3 Effectiveness

Several studies have investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback. These can be divided into studies conducted within the classroom setting and in a more controlled laboratory setting.

2.3.1 Laboratory studies

According to Lyster et al. (2013), for the most part, research demonstrating the effectiveness of recasts has been conducted in laboratory settings, where variables can more easily be controlled than in classroom settings and corrective feedback can be delivered intensively in consistent ways on specific linguistic targets. These laboratory studies have shown positive effects for recasts on second language development (e.g. Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998). In a study by Long, Inagaki and Ortega (1998), recasts were not compared with other types of feedback, but rather with models: positive exemplars provided to learners before they speak. They found short-term benefits for recasts over models among learners of Spanish on adverb placement (but not object topicalization) and among learners of Japanese on required adjective ordering and a preferred locative construction.

The studies by Lee (1997) and Ferris and Roberts (2001) had control groups which received no corrective feedback. Lee's study of EFL college students in Hong Kong found a significant effect for the group whose errors were underlined, compared with the groups who received no corrective feedback or only a marginal check. Ferris and Roberts (2001) examined the effects of three different feedback treatments (errors marked with codes; errors underlined but not otherwise marked or labeled; no error feedback) and found that both error feedback groups significantly outperformed the no feedback control group. However, they also found that there were no significant differences between the group given coded feedback and the group not given coded feedback.

In a Japanese EFL context, Loewen and Nabei (2007) conducted a laboratory study involving a researcher who interacted with small groups of four learners in order to simulate meaning-focused activities in classroom settings. They compared the effects of recasts, clarification requests, and metalinguistic feedback provided during meaning-focused tasks on English question formation. All corrective feedback groups significantly outperformed a control group, but no significant differences were found across the different corrective feedback treatments. Also with small groups of learners, Erlam and Loewen (2010) conducted a comparative study of implicit and explicit recasts provided in the context of interactive tasks targeting gender agreement in French. Implicit recasts entailed a single recast with rising intonation, while explicit recasts included a repetition of the error with

rising intonation followed by a recast with declarative intonation. No differences were found across types of feedback.

According to Lyster et al. (2013), other laboratory studies focusing on the noticeability of recasts have used stimulated-recall methods to probe learners' perceptions of corrective feedback and hence the extent to which feedback engages learners in a cognitive comparison or in focused input analysis. Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000), for example, after videotaping interactions between second language learners and native speakers, asked learners as they watched the video clips to comment on their perceptions of the feedback they received. In addition to finding that the accuracy of their perceptions depended on the linguistic nature of the targets, Mackey et al. (2000) found that recasts were not perceived as corrections to the extent that the one who provides feedback had intended. Similarly, in Carpenter, Jeon, MacGregor and Mackey's (2006) experiment, learners viewing videotaped segments of a researcher responding to a learner with a mixture of recasts and non-corrective repetition were more likely to identify recasts as non-corrective repetition than as corrective – whether or not they actually heard the learner's preceding utterance.

2.3.2 Classroom studies

Studies on error correction in L2 writing classes have shown that students receiving error feedback from teachers improve in accuracy over time (Hyland, 2003; Chandler, 2003). Hyland (2003) observed six ESL writers on a full-time 14-week English proficiency program course at a university. It was found that feedback focusing on form was used by most of the students in their immediate revisions to their drafts and was highly valued by them. The case studies suggest that some language errors may be “treatable” through feedback. With experimental and control group data, Chandler (2003) showed that teachers' feedback on students' grammatical and lexical errors resulted in a significant improvement in both accuracy and fluency in subsequent writing of the same type over the same semester.

Doughty and Varela (1998) compared the effects of instructional activities with and without corrective feedback, and both found the effects to be greater with feedback than without. Doughty and Varela (1998) examined the effects of what they called corrective recasts (a repetition of the error followed by a recast if necessary) in two content-based ESL classrooms. A group of 11–14-year-old students conducted a set of experiments in accordance with their regular science curriculum. The class receiving corrective feedback during the reporting phase showed significant short- and long-term improvement compared to a class engaged in the same production tasks but without corrective feedback. Doughty and

Varela's (1998) study did not directly examine the effects of recasts, because recasts were used only as secondary moves in the event that the primary move, a prompt that repeated verbatim the learner's error, failed to elicit self-repair. Students appeared especially to benefit from the teacher's repetition of their non-target utterances, as evidenced by the observation that by the beginning of the second of three treatment sessions, "students were beginning to self-correct before the teacher had the opportunity to recast" (Doughty & Varela, 1998, p. 135).

Other classroom studies comparing different types of corrective feedback have shown overall positive effects for feedback as well as some advantages for prompts and explicit correction over recasts. For example, with young learners, Ammar and Spada (2006) investigated the effects of recasts and prompts on the acquisition of possessive determiners by French-speaking ESL learners. While both groups receiving feedback showed superior performance compared to the control group, the group receiving prompts significantly outperformed the recast group on written and oral posttests.

Dealing with young learners, Lyster (2004) investigated the effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on French immersion students' acquisition of grammatical gender. He found that instruction with prompts led to significantly higher results than instruction with recasts in written production, but not in oral production. He attributed the lack of significant differences in oral production measures to a large task effect: the subsample of students participating in the oral production measures benefited greatly from the opportunities to interact one-on-one with a near-native speaker of French who provided them with valuable oral practice to an extent that was impossible to match in class. Overall, of the eight posttest measures, the comparison group was significantly outperformed by the prompt group on all eight measures, by the recast group on five, and the no-feedback group on four.

In EFL classrooms in China, Yang and Lyster (2010) compared the effects of recasts, prompts, and no feedback on the use of regular and irregular past tense forms by undergraduate English majors. The effects of prompts were larger than those of recasts for increasing accuracy in the use of regular past-tense forms, while prompts and recasts had similar effects on improving accuracy in the use of irregular past-tense forms. Also, with adult ESL learners, Sheen (2007) compared the effects of recasts and metalinguistic corrections on the use of English articles. Metalinguistic corrections included provision of the correct form followed by metalinguistic explanation (e.g. "You should use the definite article *the* because you've already mentioned *fox*"). The metalinguistic group significantly

outperformed both the recast and control groups, and its positive gain scores were correlated with both language analytic ability and attitudes towards feedback. In contrast, the recast group did not significantly outperform the control group and its gain scores were related neither to language analytic ability nor to attitudes towards corrective feedback.

3. Peer Feedback

3.1. Definitions

Peer feedback is also referred to as peer review, peer response or peer editing (Gedera, 2012; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Liu & Hansen, 2002). Liu and Hansen (2002) have defined it as:

the use of learners as sources of information, and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken on by a formally trained teacher, tutor or editor in commenting on and critiquing each other's drafts in both written and oral formats in the process of writing.
(p.1)

A more recent definition was provided by Gedera (2012) stating that peer feedback refers to “students’ engagement in the process of providing and receiving as well as sharing of comments and suggestions for the improvement of their peers’ work” (p. 17).

A survey of literature shows that peer feedback was mostly incorporated in writing classrooms. This practice, by means of which students become active participants in their peers' writing process and production, is theoretically supported by a number of language-learning perspectives that consider interaction as a necessary component for learning to take place. According to Morra and Romano (2008-2009), peer response finds support within the framework of Bruffee's (1993) collaborative learning theory, which claims that the process of learning is socially constructed through the systematic and permanent communication among peers. It also derives theoretical support from interactionist perspectives of second-language learning, according to which the language-learning process is facilitated and enhanced when learners have to negotiate meaning in interaction (Long & Porter, 1985). In general, peer feedback is deeply rooted in the Vygotskyian (1978) inspired sociocultural theory which argues that learning is socially mediated. Learners can acquire language through meaningful interaction with others.

3.2 Benefits/Advantages

Most of the studies detailed so far have shown peer feedback to be beneficial not only for the development of second-language writing but also for the enhancement of the language-learning process as a whole (Morra & Romano, 2008-2009). Peer feedback in L2 writing classrooms does not just help students improve their writing but also gives them an opportunity to practice speaking in the language they are acquiring. Giving L2 learners more opportunities to practice speaking in their target language helps improve their skills, immerses them further in the language they are learning, and improves critical thinking skills.

In their study, Lundstrom and Baker (2009) discovered that although givers and receivers of feedback benefitted equally, students who gave feedback were better in their writing abilities. They therefore point out that individuals who focus strictly on helping classmates improve their writing perform better than their peers who do not give feedback. Liu and Carless (2006) also argue that there is evidence that peer feedback enhances student learning as students are actively engaged in articulating evolving understandings of subject matter. Peer feedback thus carries potential for improved performance. In a study examining the learning effect of and students' perceptions peer assessment Liu, Lin, Chiu, and Yuan (2001) report that participants viewed the peer assessment method as effective and reported benefiting from reading peers' essays and feedback provided by peers, and obtaining critical insight from others' work during the review process. Additionally, many participants mentioned that they compared their own work with their peers' in order to become more aware of their strengths and weaknesses than in conventional teacher evaluation situations. Similar study findings indicate that when students assess their peers' work, there are many potential benefits to learning, because in assessing others' work, each student must read, compare, or question ideas, suggest modifications, or even reflect on how well one's own work compares with others' (Robinson, 1999).

Students who engage in peer feedback also have an opportunity to improve their writing by reviewing the work of peers who are above and below their level (Tsui & Ng, 2000). Lee (2004) suggests that even students who never respond to peers can benefit from reading others writing because it makes them more aware of language structures that are used to compose messages. Students who are exposed to a variety of sentence structures increase their opportunities for increasing their language acquisition skills. L2 learners in Min's (2005) study stated that finding sentence errors similar to their own in their peers' writing helped them later avoid making the same mistakes. In addition to helping students learn new sentence structures, peer review also provides students ample opportunities to hone their critical thinking skills. According to Lundstrom and Baker (2009), by participating in peer

feedback activities, students may develop the ability to critically examine even their own writing, which offers them self-feedback and greatly improves their writing skills. Peer feedback can enable students to better self-assess themselves as some skills are common to both peer and self-assessment. Peers provide rich information which can then be used by individuals to make their own self-assessments and follow up with actions to improve their work. Rollison (2005) states that becoming a critical reader of other's writing may make students more critical readers and revisers of their own writing.

Rolinson (2005) also mentions the aspect of audience in writing. Incorporating peer feedback activities into writing encourage L2 learners to think about their audience and take more responsibility for their writing (Tsui & Ng, 2000). When students are aware that somebody will be reading and commenting on their work, they tend to be more careful with their writing. Liu and Hansen (2002) further assert that peer feedback not only increases an awareness of audience by creating a collaborative drafting process but also provides opportunities for ESL students to practice English in a meaningful context. Moreover, peer feedback helps student to take more responsibilities in the learning process. Besides doing assignments, students have to read others' work carefully as well, so that one is not only responsible for his/her own work but also that of the others.

Another benefit for using peer feedback is that students can receive more feedback from peers and more quickly than when teachers are providing comments. With increasing resource constraints and the decreasing capacity of teachers to provide sufficient feedback, peer feedback can become a central part of the learning process, rather than an occasional option (Liu & Carless, 2006; Morra & Romano, 2008, 2009). Finally, peer feedback, with its potentially high level of response and interaction between reader and writer, can encourage collaborative dialogue in which two-way feedback is established, and meaning is negotiated between two parties (Rollinson, 2005). It can enhance communicative behaviors and equip students with social affective strategies. Since peer feedback involves interactive learning, meaningful communication is necessary, and there are many social affective strategies which are extremely helpful in creating good communication. Social affective strategies can be acquired through peer feedback such as listening carefully, speaking at the right moment, expressing clearly, appreciating others, and compromising (Atay & Kurt, 2007). Acquiring these strategies will definitely strengthen one's self- confidence.

3.3Challenges/Drawbacks

Although numerous studies have highlighted the positive aspects of peer feedback, other researchers point out that peer review is a difficult task (Amores, 1997; Gedera, 2012). According to them, students sometimes do not focus on in-depth matters. They do not pay attention to the revising issues and provide unclear and unhelpful comments. Students can also be sarcastic and critical in their comments. Some students can be defensive when they receive criticism from their peers. Other researchers have also shown that teachers are concerned with the quality of peer review because of students' limited knowledge, experience and language ability (Saito & Fujita, 2004). Therefore, the practice of peer feedback may discourage the usage of target language among students. Another major criticism of peer feedback is that although students express positive attitudes toward the usage of peer feedback, they tend to significantly favor feedback by the teachers (Yang, Badger & Yu, 2006). Biggs and Tang (2007) also note that some students resent reviewing and commenting on other students' work, because they hold the belief that assessment is the teacher's responsibility. This view is confirmed by Brindley and Scofield's (1998) study in which the majority of students regarded assessment (and feedback) as solely the role of the tutor.

Another reason for students' discomfort with the idea of peer review is because they may lack confidence in their own ability to evaluate their peers' work. They may similarly doubt the competence of other student reviewers (Cheng & Warren, 1997). Some students may also be reluctant to engage actively with the peer review process because undertaking peer review of two or more students' work may be perceived to be overly time consuming, and they may feel that the 'cost' (in terms of time) outweighs the learning benefits they receive (Pearce, Mulder & Baik, 2009). Liu and Hansen (2002) further point out that there are limitations in the application of peer feedback in second language classrooms due to students' cultural backgrounds, level of proficiency and the mode of peer feedback.

3.4 Students' Attitudes

There are conflicting results in the research on students' attitudes toward peer feedback. A number of studies involving both ESL and EFL students revealed that the majority had favorable attitudes toward peer feedback and peer rating (Mendonca & Johnson, 1994; Saito & Fujita, 2004). In an exploratory study involving 40 advanced ESL writing students, most of the students reported that their peers' comments had been useful in the process of revision, yet some of the learners expressed that they had found their classmates' observations either irrelevant or unclear (Mangelsdorf, 1992). Similar results were obtained in Sengupta's (1998) study focusing on the perceptions and beliefs of a group of ESL secondary school students in

Hong Kong. Participants in Lin et al.'s (2001) study also claimed that they preferred using peer review for their writing and most of them viewed it as effective as that of the instructor. Likewise, in Morra and Romano's (2008-2009) study involving 108 university students, results show that the participants had positive attitudes toward peer feedback. Incorporating peer feedback in an online environment, Lin and Yang (2011) investigated students' experiences and perceptions of wiki technology and peer feedback in English writing. Findings reveal that most of the participants appreciated the meaningful social interaction and acknowledged the benefits of giving and receiving feedback.

According to Morra and Romano (2008-2009), an interesting tendency observed in many studies of peer feedback in ESL and EFL settings is that students' attitudes toward their peers' reviews and comments seem to be conditioned by the amount and quality of training and preparation they receive in class previous to their actual participation in peer-response groups; that is, the more planned instruction the students receive, the better they seem to respond to the activity (Hansen & Liu, 2005; Rollinson, 2005). These findings have resulted in a variety of concrete pedagogical suggestions that involve careful group or pair work organization, detailed and focused instruction, modeling, and ample prior practice on structured review strategies (Hyland, 2003).

4. Conclusion

The first part of this review explored the effects of corrective feedback in language learning. Besides presenting studies that indicated the effects of corrective feedback, the meaning and types of corrective feedback were also discussed. As can be inferred by looking at the results of the various studies presented above, giving corrective feedback is significantly more effective than no feedback at all. The studies also reveal a tendency for learners receiving prompts or explicit correction to demonstrate more gains on some measures than learners receiving recasts. With regards to significant differences, corrective feedback (such as repetitions of learner errors) followed by recasts and explicit corrections (if necessary) were more effective than no corrective feedback (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lee, 1997; Ferris & Roberts, 2001). Recasts were as effective as prompts for young ESL learners with high pretest scores, but less effective than prompts for learners with low pretest scores (Ammar & Spada, 2006). In the case of young immersion students, recasts were less effective than prompts in written production measures but equally effective in oral production measures (Lyster, 2004). Adult EFL students in China benefitted more from prompts than recasts in

improving their accurate use of regular past-tense forms, but benefitted equally from both corrective feedback types in improving accuracy of irregular forms (Yang & Lyster, 2010). The findings of these studies, therefore, do not support Truscott's (1996) claim that error correction (an example of feedback) is useless and harmful to the accuracy of student's writing.

The second half of the review explored peer feedback, including the advantages, drawbacks and students' perceptions of its implementation. Previous literature shows that peer feedback benefitted the participants by improving their performance and also enhancing their skills. Research findings also indicate that there were drawbacks and difficulties implementing peer feedback and that some participants didn't view the process positively. However, possible solutions were also given by researchers. For example, regarding students' discomfort about giving feedback because they may lack confidence in their own ability to evaluate their peer's work, Fallows and Chandramohan (2001) advise providing guidelines or training for reviewers and discussing the rationale for and benefits of peer review. This will strengthen the students' awareness of the process and may also add positively to students' satisfaction of the process. Likewise, in Li, Liu, and Steckelberg's (2010) study, they discovered that students acknowledge the value of peer feedback, but that they were not always satisfied about the quality of their received peer feedback. The lack of constructive and more detailed feedback was associated with poor quality feedback. The researchers therefore, suggest offering some kind of support (e. g. criteria) or structure to provide peer feedback which may help students in a certain extent through the different steps of the thinking process when they are requested to provide profound and detailed peer feedback.

In relation to pedagogical implications, the findings indicate that both corrective feedback and peer feedback are beneficial and can enhance language acquisition. From previous research, there is evidence that learning can happen with the incorporation of feedback in instruction. This can be explained by the sociocultural theory (SCT) of second language acquisition (SLA). In SCT, Vygotsky (1978) argued that development (learning) happens in two levels, the social plane and the psychological plane. In relation to feedback, as students interact with their teachers and their peers, they receive feedback about their (erroneous) production (social, outer-regulated), then they can reflect and perhaps come to a better understanding of the error (psychological, self-regulated) and may eventually internalize, correct and modify their ideas (learning). As teachers, we should, therefore incorporate both peer and corrective feedback in our language instruction. In peer feedback, the rationale is to enable students to take an active role in the management of their own

learning. With regards to corrective feedback, the different types can be helpful in one way or another, so it may not be possible to identify which type is the best to employ. Using a variety of feedback types is probably more effective than consistent use of only one type. As Lyster et al. (2013) stated, “the most effective teachers are likely to be those who are willing and able to orchestrate, in accordance with their students’ language abilities and content familiarity, a wide range of corrective feedback types that fit the instructional context” (p. 30).



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The Pedagogical Potential of Code Switching

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The bilingual turn (Ortega, 2013) has resulted in greater acceptance of code switching as natural and potentially helpful throughout the ESL world. However, there is still a lot of room for development. This literature review aims to explore current work in the field and identify which direction ESL theories of code switching are, and should be, moving in. By looking through the ESL and bilingualism literature this paper notes how code switching is being theorised and used in various contexts, and argues that ESL teaching and research, although having made great progress, is still falling far short of the potential that code switching offers as a pedagogical tool. A potential solution is suggested from the bilingualism literature, in which code switching is developed into an ecologically situated concept of translanguaging. This is largely based on the work of García, who views early L2 learners as emergent bilinguals, and the L1 as a key to L2 learning. A few attempts to provide a framework for translanguaging in bilingual education are explained, and along these lines, this review suggests that many ESL situations would benefit from a reconceptualization of bilingual education.

1. Introduction

In recent years, bilinguals have been recognized as sporting a number of advantages over monolinguals, including enhanced executive control, and higher levels of metalinguistic awareness, verbal creativity, and divergent thinking (Bialystok, 2011). Along with these cognitive advantages, one of the biggest practical implications of a bilingual's ability to speak more than one language is CodeSwitching (CS). Although being identified as a unique and highly developed skill (Tay, 1989), CS has been ideologically barred from the classroom due to monolingual notions that it is a hindrance to language learning (Lee, 2012).

More recently, however, there has been growing recognition that, despite theoretical and institutional condemnation, CS is a well-practiced phenomenon throughout classrooms worldwide (Littlewood & Yu, 2011), and that there may be potential benefits to utilizing CS as a pedagogic tool. The aim of this paper is to research these potential benefits, to detail recent developments in the use of CS as a pedagogical tool, and therefore to identify the best way to approach and implement CS pedagogically. In order to do this it is important to first define exactly what is meant by "code switching".

Pollack (1980) defines CS as "the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent" (p. 583). This definition recognizes both the use of CS for communication purposes and for compensating for low language skill in either language.

Nicoladis (2002) attempts to refine this definition by distinguishing between CS and “code-mixing”, which she defines as a bilingual’s use of two or more languages inside a single unit of discourse. This has many uses within a linguistic framework, but as the focus of this paper is on pedagogy it will be more convenient to take CS as encompassing code-mixing. This reflects Kamwangamalu’s (2010) definition, which combines intra- and inter-sentential forms to create an umbrella term covering any use of more than one language within a bilingual interaction. This will be important when we begin discussing the range of pedagogical situations and uses that have arisen.

2. Theoretical Approaches to Code Switching

There are two major views about the value of CS, described in the literature as the monolingual and the bilingual approach. The monolingual approach has dominated L2 classrooms for most of the 20th century, and is summarized well by Lee (2012) in his critical analysis of Guy Cook’s (2010) “four pillars of the monolingual approach”. The monolingual approach holds the native speaker as an ideal, and points to CS as evidence of negative transfer and linguistic confusion. Bilinguals are viewed as two monolingual speakers in one body, and therefore the presence of the L1 in L2 learning only hinders the language learning process. Education policy makers have taken to this idea, and it is particularly common to find that L1 is kept separate from the L2 in Asia and the USA (Kamwangamalu, 2010; Littlewood & Yu, 2009).

Research in the last decade, however, has rejected the monolingual approach, with advocates of a bilingual approach to language teaching and research forming a body of literature in its support (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Vivian Cook, 2010; Cummins, 2007; García & Sylvan, 2011; Kamwangamalu, 2010; Lee, 2012; Ortega, 2013). The bilingual approach describes CS as the natural result of languages in contact, and that the use of the L1 is both beneficial and necessary to L2 learning (Kecskes & Papp, 2000). Rather than the interaction of languages leading to some form of negative transfer Lowman, Fitzgerald, Rapira and Clark, (2007) have shown that language transfer in fact leads to gains in language acquisition. Timor (2012) claims suppressing the L1 cannot be justified either theoretically or practically, using the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis to show that code switching cannot inhibit language learning. Neuroscience has recently made progress towards proving this accurate, showing that the L1 is activated in the brain whenever the L2 is used, and vice versa (Hoshino & Thierry, 2011). Butzkamm (2011) uses a cognitive view to go even further,

explaining that the L1 forms the cognitive basis for all subsequent language learning; to ban L2 learners from using their L1 is to deprive them of the greatest tool they have (He, 2012).

The theoretical shift to a bilingual approach (known as the “bilingual turn”, Ortega, 2013) has gained traction in the literature, but it has not yet been well reflected in a pedagogical shift. However, there has been a recent move in literature which supports the pedagogical use of CS. I will now turn to this literature, first looking at how the bilingual turn has affected understanding of CS and its pedagogical uses within the EFL literature, then moving to discuss the same with regard to bilingual education.

3. Code Switching in the EFL Research

3.1 Descriptive studies

According to Littlewood and Yu (2009), a large proportion of EFL classrooms utilize CS, even as educational policies denounce it. In fact, the only time when CS is not used appears to be in classrooms where the L1 is not shared. However, reported justifications for CS are varied, and the actual extent of L1 use is not disciplined, with the proportion of L1 use in some teachers reported to be less than 10%, while others use it in over 90% of L1 instruction. Littlewood and Yu identify that L1 use could be an important pedagogical tool for language teachers, but that in all circumstances maximized L2 input is required to facilitate L2 acquisition. The amount of target language use is certainly important, as classrooms with 100% L1 use will inevitably result in little language learning, however when we get down to lower percentages of L1 use, the quality rather than the quantity is what becomes important (Kim & Elder, 2005). A heavy focus on input in the L2 is a focus throughout much of the EFL literature, but this paper will largely avoid studies which only discuss the amount of L1 use, and look to a qualitative description of CS.

However, qualitative description itself is not enough. Many teachers are reported to use CS in their classrooms despite having no real justification for doing so. Kim and Elder (2005) reveal how teachers are often not truly aware of the extent of their L1 use, showing how some teachers used more than seven times more L1 than they originally reported. These teachers describe pedagogical uses and justifications, but the researchers’ evaluation of these revealed that teachers’ use of L1 largely came down to avoidance of making complex statements in the target language, thus stripping students of ideal opportunities to learn language. A reliance on the L1 appears to cover up a lack of L2 proficiency and teaching skill,

meaning that things that should be done in the L2 are needlessly done in the L1, for example language scaffolding. However, there are other functions which Kim and Elder mark as requiring L1 use, such as the discussion of particularly difficult language, metalinguistic conversation or instructions. Despite this finding, each teacher in the study used language differently and to little effect, mainly because it was either given little thought or unplanned.

3.2 Using code switching strategically

Developing an optimal CS pedagogy, then, is about the amount of L1 use as much as it is about quality. Put simply, CS must be both planned and strategic to be effective. Tian and Macaro (2012) see this as so crucial that they push for a move from the term “teacher use of L1” to “teacher CS”. They posit that the first implies unstructured, unplanned use such as that described by Kim and Elder (2005) and Timor (2012). Teacher CS, on the other hand, denotes the intentional and strategic use of CS aimed at promoting language acquisition, and is therefore much more helpful in identifying the pedagogical uses of L1 in the classroom.

There are many qualitative studies on how strategic and planned CS has pedagogical benefits, and Kamwangamalu (2010) gives a good summary of these. He states that strategic use of CS can help in building classroom rapport, compensating for a lack of comprehension, classroom management, and expressing solidarity with students, to name but a few. He also points to a study by Rudby (2007) in Singapore as a particularly good example. Rudby describes the use of Singlish in the English classroom as easily observable but strongly discouraged as an obstacle to English literacy. She sets out to examine the extent of these adverse effects of teacher CS, but instead finds that its strategic use “empowers [teachers] to explain difficult points or concepts, to inject humor, to establish a warmer, friendlier atmosphere in the classroom, to encourage greater student involvement” (Kamwangamalu, 2010, p.128).

3.2.1 Bilingual Teacher Talk

The value of CS as a relational and class management tool as Rudby and Kamwangamalu (2010) describe it is widely recognized as a key component of CS. However, the practical pedagogical uses of CS in facilitating language acquisition are less accurately defined. Foreman (2012) begins to develop this area by suggesting a concept of Bilingual Teacher Talk within the EFL classroom. Teacher talk is a concept which has been emphasized throughout at EFL literature as particularly important in language teaching. The focus is

mainly on the teacher using only the L2, keeping the extent of teacher talk to a minimum and how teacher talk should be practically used (e.g. give feedback through open rather than closed questions, Cullen, 2002). Zhou (2006) explains that good, planned teacher talk gives students more opportunities for learning and negotiating meaning, and that the only way to achieve good teacher talk is primarily through teachers' monitoring of and reflection on their own use of language. She argues that this is a large factor in encouraging language acquisition in L2 classrooms.

Foreman (2012) stresses that it is the same with CS in that bilingual teacher talk must always be strategic and student-centred, and that the aim is to promote L2 language learning. Rather than prescribe how bilingual teacher talk should work, Foreman puts the onus on the reflective language teacher, stating that judicious use of the L1 during bilingual teacher talk must be principled with the causes and effects of teacher language choice easily discernible, and that the L1 should be a resource for embedding new forms from the L2. He stressed that the L1 should never be allowed too much room, however, as it could replace valuable L2 input, without which language acquisition is difficult.

3.2.2 Scaffolding with code switching

Foreman's idea of bilingual teacher talk can also be applied directly to the way students are encouraged to use languages in the classroom. Mirhasani and Mamaghani (2009) conducted one of the few experimental studies which investigates the actual effects of CS on language acquisition. They worked with low-intermediate EFL adults in Iran who they split into an L2-only control group and an experimental CS group. Both groups had to complete speaking activities such as picture description, but only the CS group were allowed to use the L1 as a strategy to negotiate areas of difficulty, such as when they came short of vocabulary. The researchers found that, in comparison to the control group, the CS group were more engaged and took more risks, and that the use of the L1 allowed their discourse to flow continuously and naturally. Their speaking proficiency also increased significantly more than the control group. This study shows that the strategic pedagogical use of CS as a self-scaffolding tool to negotiate communication breakdown can be valuable, and suggests that this could potentially be the case for other uses of CS as well.

The use of CS to scaffold a student's output is also put forward by Meyer (2008). He agrees that the L1 is important in allowing a flow of communication and negotiation of language problems, and that it can allow the language learner to develop L2 proficiency

faster. However, he argues that this is only the case for lower language learners, and that as a student gains proficiency the L1 should be gradually phased out to maximize L2 learning. In further developing the uses of CS to scaffold language acquisition, He (2012) points to the value of studying specific language settings and identifying how unique relationships between two languages can be exploited. She finds that both the differences and similarities between languages are useful in teaching Chinese learners of English, but more importantly that Chinese (L1) is an effective mediatory tool in their second language learning. Referencing Vygotsky (1978), she states that “L1 is not only a *medium* for communication, but also the most powerful *mediating tool* for thinking” (He, 2012, p. 3, original emphasis). This idea is also reflected in Meyer (2008), who affiliates this idea with consciousness raising, in which students’ strategic use of both languages in the classroom allows them to make connections between their languages, thus facilitating language learning.

3.2.3 Consciousness raising

Using CS to establish consciousness raising is an idea which Butzkamm (2009) holds as indispensable in language learning. He points out that, since the L2 is built directly onto the L1, this should be reflected in the way languages are used in the classroom. Specifically, he pushes for the use of CS to allow Double Comprehension, where the learner identifies both forms and functions of each language. The idea is that if the learner can use CS to apply new L2 forms to their current L1 functions that they will then be able to extend new grammatical forms far beyond the context in which they were initially learned. Butzkamm suggests that this can be achieved through strategic repetition of any given form in both languages, or that students be made explicitly aware of connections between languages through mirroring forms and functions in both languages.

To explore such use of L1 in consciousness raising activities Scott and de la Fuente (2008) did an experiment in which pairs of French and pairs of Spanish students were tasked with working out an English grammar rule embedded in a specially designed text. Half of the pairs were told not to use the L1, and the other half were told they could freely codeswitch. Not only did the code switching groups perform better, but they also found that the non-CS groups were using their L1, even though told not to. There was not much L1 actually spoken in the L2-only groups, but retrospective interviews revealed that many of them wasted a lot of time trying to translate what they wanted to say into the L2. The researchers conclude that

even if the L1 is banned from the classroom it will inevitably still have a place in the students' minds. They suggest making use of this as a pedagogical tool along with Butzkamm (2009).

3.2.4 Towards a model of the effectiveness of code switching

So far, we have found that CS pedagogy is beneficial when planned and used strategically, but that maximizing L2 input is still a central aim of EFL classrooms. Within these parameters, CS can be used practically to aid language acquisition through such practices such as bilingual teacher talk, scaffolding, and consciousness raising, not to mention its usefulness as a classroom management and relational tool. Lee (2012) notes these benefits of teacher CS, and tries to unify them by constructing a model of the effectiveness of CS. Through such a model, he hopes to facilitate future investigation into the actual value of CS as a pedagogical tool. In his own review of the literature, he praises the move away from a monolingual approach towards a bilingual one, but suggests that this could be improved further by adopting a sociolinguistic view of bilingualism in EFL. A sociolinguistic approach discusses whether we can view the EFL classroom as a kind of bilingual community; after all, L2 learners are to a greater or lesser extent developing bilinguals. We will now run with this idea, briefly outlining concepts of EFL classrooms as bilingual communities, before using it to explore the ways in which bilingual education has theorized CS and its uses as a pedagogical tool.

4. EFL Classrooms as Bilingual Communities

The idea of treating the EFL classroom as a bilingual community is central to Vivian Cook's (2010) theory of multi-competence, which he defines as 'the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind or the same community' (p. 1). Multi-competence presents a view of SLA as based on the "L2 user", who, due to their knowledge of two or more languages, should be considered as substantially different from a monolingual speaker. The L1 is always present and active in the L2 user's mind, leading multi-competence to state that both should be used actively in the classroom. Multi-competence doesn't just suggest that CS could be useful in the EFL classroom, but by viewing L2 users as bilinguals it requires pedagogical applications of both languages through strategic CS.

Wei (2011b) takes multi-competence and its implications for CS and tries to extend a theory of CS by redefining it as "translanguaging". Williams (2002, as cited in Cenoz & Gorter, 2011) coined this term to describe how students in Wales both reinforce and process

languages more deeply when input is in one language but their output has to be in another. However, Wei uses it more broadly to suggest a linguistic idea of languaging, a term that implies the use of the noun “language” as a verb. By rebranding CS as translanguaging, Wei highlights its use by L2 users as a communicative tool for interaction and learning, rather than just as a description of the way bilinguals mix codes. Indeed, by taking a holistic view of CS Wei conceptualizes a bilingual’s translanguaging as including “all the languages he or she knows as well as knowledge of the norms for use of the languages in context and of how the different languages may interact in producing well-formed, contextually appropriate mixed-code utterances.” (Wei, 2011a, p. 374)

Such considerations begin to bring us towards a pedagogical view of CS as central to EFL teaching, as they form a portion of the L2 user’s identity both within and without the classroom. Wei’s (2011a) proposal of translanguaging within a multi-competence framework not only affects the way L2 users learn languages, but also begins to consider ideological issues of L2 user identity and sociolinguistic context. These ideas draw a picture of where EFL education could be headed given the gradual acceptance of CS as a pedagogical tool. However, a look at how research into bilingual education has developed theories of CS may be of even more benefit in the EFL classroom.

5. Theories of Code Switching in Bilingual Education

The monolingual approach has affected bilingual education in remarkably similar ways to EFL teaching. Because of monolingual assumptions that CS inhibits language learning and causes confusion in bilinguals, many bilingual education programs run what Cummins (2007) calls a “two solitudes” approach, treating bilinguals as two (deficient) monolingual speakers in one body and trying to keep their languages as separate as possible. García and Sylvan (2011) refer to the same concept as linear bilingualism, and suggest that we need to step away from this and instead speak of dynamic bilingualism.

This runs parallel to what we have discussed so far in that it moves research away from a monolingual approach in which languages are kept apart and promotes a classroom in which CS is utilized pedagogically. However, García (2009) expands the definition of CS even further than Wei (2011b), and brings the term “translanguaging” to include not only CS, L2 user identity and language as an action, but also the belief that bilingual speakers select language features and develop language practices in ways which fit their communicative needs. To summarize the development of CS so far, we could say that we have moved from

Pollack's (1980) linguistic concept of CS "as an autonomous system that pre-exists its use [...] towards an understanding of language as a product of the embodied social practices that bring it about" (Pennycook, 2010, p. 9, as cited in García & Sylvan, 2011).

In one of the few studies which attempts to theorize the pedagogical implications of translanguaging (which from here in will supersede CS), Creese and Blackledge (2010) observed how bilingual schools in the UK which follow a dynamic bilingual approach use translanguaging in the classroom. They found that translanguaging is used within dynamic bilingualism "as an instructional strategy to make links for classroom participants between the social, cultural, community, and linguistic domains of their lives" (p. 112), and is thus a core part of the schools' bilingual pedagogy. They also found translanguaging to increase identity performance, lesson accomplishment and participant confidence.

Lewis, Jones and Baker (2012) also highlight the benefits of using translanguaging over CS by pointing to how CS is bogged down and tied up in negative (monologic) historical associations, whereas translanguaging is free to draw on positive notions of bilingualism. They stress that such use of two (or more) languages is not just a byproduct of bilingual education but the very nature of how a bilingual thinks, understands, and achieves, and that translanguaging must "have context and not just content, cognitive and cerebral activity and not just linguistic code, and operate continuously and not just in classrooms" (p. 667). This grand view of translanguaging and the CS it represents is still a fresh idea within the literature, but offers strong implications for pedagogy and fertile research opportunities should its value be recognized. Before discussing the practical implications of such a translanguaging pedagogy, it will be beneficial to discuss one of the main theories on which it is based: the ecological perspective.

6. The Ecological Perspective

The aim of an ecological perspective on language teaching is, in its most basic form, the recognition that language teaching is an extremely complex area. It aptly describes what García (2009) was aiming for when she denounced the concept of CS as too narrow and proceeded to expand it to include situational context. It focuses attention away from general and disembodied theory and pushes teachers to look at the subjective realities of the classrooms and the dynamic interaction between methodology and context, encouraging a local approach to pedagogy.

Tudor (2003) described what this entails excellently, explaining that if teachers want to understand what is happening in their classrooms, they “have to look at these classrooms as entities in their own right and explore the meaning they have for those who are present within them in their own terms”(p. 4) without reference to supposedly universal assumptions. A lot of research focuses on what Tudor calls a technological approach to teaching, in that there is an over-reliance on textbooks, methodology, recommended activities – options that, while valuable to an extent, can flatten the needs of individual students in diverse classrooms. Such a granular approach to teaching has been largely missing from institutions and research, though Tudor suggests that it has always been apparent to teachers.

In one of the key works on language learning ecology, van Lier (2004) proposes four basic constructs of ecology: perception, action, relation and quality. These terms may look familiar to an SLA or sociocultural researcher; however, there is a clear pattern in how they are different. Rather than just the interaction between a learner and the language, it involves teacher and learner within a socio-political context engaging in pedagogic actions that are intended to develop a broad self-awareness and identity (for a full description see van Lier, 2004). In looking in such detail, we can begin to voice the contradictions and paradoxes that are the foundations of not only our classrooms, but also our research and pedagogical assumptions (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2008).

It will be beneficial to give an example of how this works in practice. Hu (2005) examined the discrepancies between Chinese governmental guidelines, which demand the use of communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology, and compared them to the reality of teaching practices across China. In order to get a wide view of Chinese educational practices, he developed a questionnaire to deduce the bio data, English learning motivation, and secondary school ELT learning practices of 252 Chinese students at a Singaporean university. Each student also completed either an interview or an essay to control for inaccuracies in the questionnaire.

Hu (2005) found that the students reported a large range of pedagogical differences across China, and that these could be explained by education policy, economic, social, and cultural factors. In particular, he highlighted the importance of resource factors and sociocultural influences, such as disproportionate allocation of funds and the availability of authentic English material. The results revealed that teaching is influenced by a huge variety of contextual factors, and Hu suggests that, in place of the nationwide practice of CLT, the adoption of an ecological perspective that recognizes the multifaceted nature of language teaching and learning will aid the development of English education in China. Indeed,

“the ecological approach necessitates adopting an informed pedagogical eclecticism that encourages teachers to draw on practices associated with different methodologies in light of student needs, contextual constraints, and instructional resources” (Hu, 2005, p. 655).

7. The Pedagogical Uses of Translanguaging

Now that we have detailed an ecologic perspective which enables us to both contextualize and describe translanguaging practices, we can move on to the practical ways in which translanguaging has been used and implemented pedagogically.

We have already seen one of the first articles in discussing theories of translanguaging pedagogy, Creese and Blackledge (2010), who argued for a flexible bilingual pedagogy supported by the ecological perspective. They described case studies of complementary schools in the United Kingdom, two of which served Chinese students, and two of which served Gujarati students. All of the schools were found to use translanguaging flexibly in both assemblies and classrooms to such an extent that the boundaries between languages became permeable. Creese and Blackledge noted that the teachers and students in this study “used whatever signs and forms they had at their disposal to connect with one another, indexing disparate allegiances and knowledge and creating new ones” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p. 112). Some specific pedagogical uses of translanguaging they describe include the use of bilingual labels, repetition and translation across languages. Within these, both of a bilingual’s languages are equally and actively encouraged and seen as necessary for language acquisition at all proficiency levels. Creese and Blackledge argue that skilled and strategic use of translanguaging allows meaning to be more effectively conveyed in the classroom, and allows students greater access to the curriculum and lesson accomplishment.

The nature of the ecological approach means that while Creese and Blackledge (2010) described translanguaging pedagogy in this way, it will not necessarily apply directly to other situations. Tamati (2011) rightly realized that this would be the case in New Zealand schools, where Māori and English are taught. He argued against an ingrained dual-monolingual approach, instead suggesting that the best way to tackle bilingual education in the New Zealand context might be the use of what he terms a Trans-acquisitional approach. This effectively embeds translanguaging practices into a task-based model, with initial input generally given in the stronger language, and output expected in the weaker language.

It must be stressed that this is not a rigid structure, but in line with Creese and Blackledge’s (2010) push for flexible bilingual pedagogy, is fluid and shifting in its use of

language. In Tamati's (2011) context, a trans-acquisitional approach means that, in every lesson, input is expected in one language and output in the other, though translanguaging can cross between these at any time. Theoretically speaking, García (2009) encourages such a model as a natural way to increase language proficiency in both languages, allowing for transfer between the two while new subject content is taught. This allows simultaneous understanding of the subject in both languages, leading to a better understanding of the subject overall. However, we cannot necessarily extend this to other contexts, as the ecological situation might be better served by a different approach.

The difficulty and futility of applying any generalized pedagogy of translanguaging across the board is described pertinently by Hornberger and Link (2013, p. 242), who say that "recognizing, valorising, and building on the communicative repertoires in the classroom, however, are neither simple nor easy, and no set of strategies exist that are generalizable across all classroom settings". Canagarajah (2011) agrees with this, saying that we still have a long way to go before broad definitions of translanguaging can truly be developed into flexible teaching strategies. Sayer (2009) made a concerted effort to identify and describe workable translanguaging strategies, but he too, soon realized that this is a thankless and largely pointless task. He found that various classroom languages are used for multiple functions at different times, and the only conclusion that he could make was that language forms are taught through a mixture of whichever languages are available, using these languages to mediate academic content, and to develop ethnolinguistic consciousness. Such a conclusion fits with the rest of the research on translanguaging, but is in no way helpful to teachers interested in implementing translanguaging in their classrooms. Clearly, a different approach is needed.

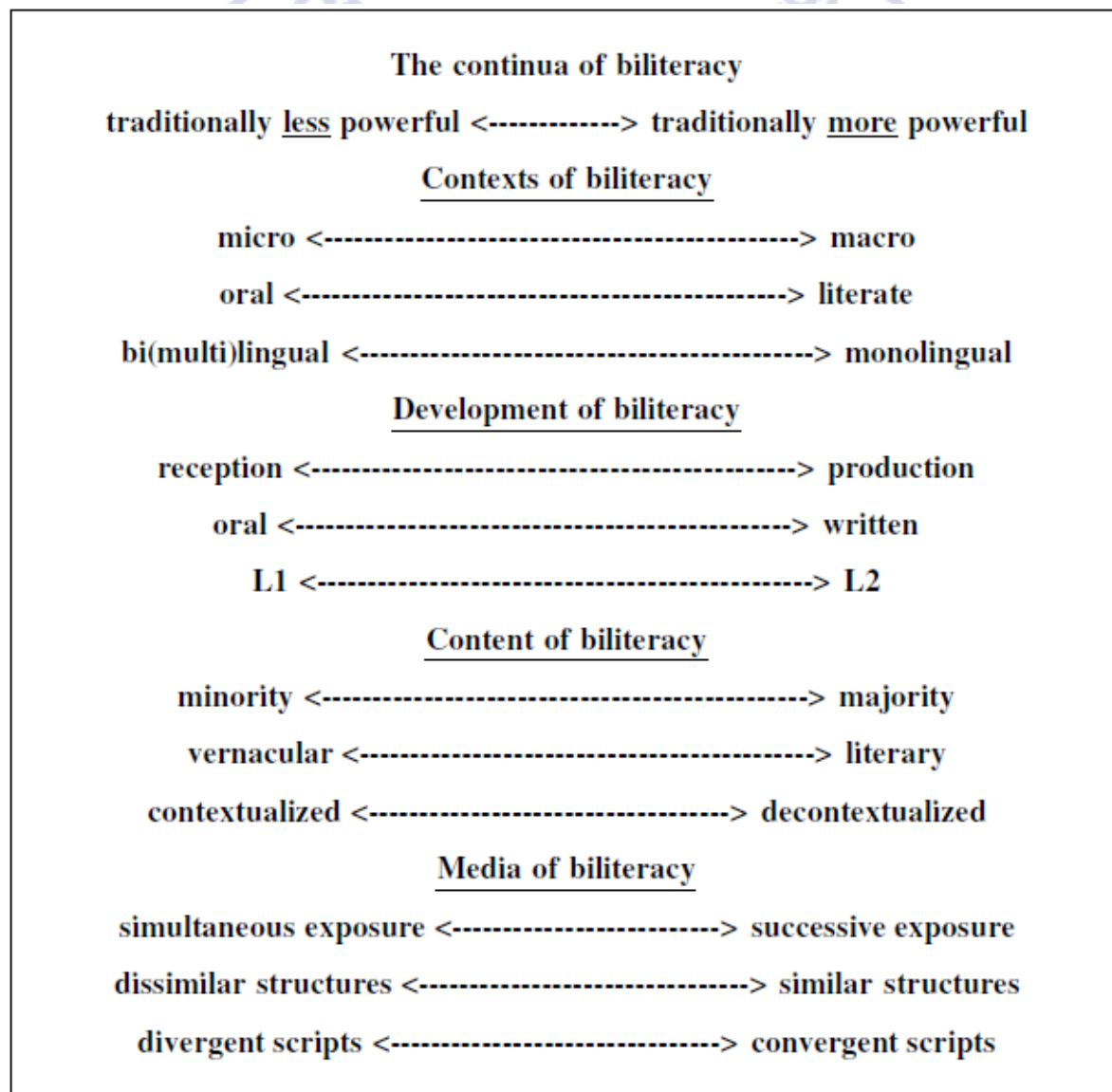
8. Developing a Model of Translanguaging Pedagogy

To begin to allow a pedagogical application of translanguaging (Hornberger & Link, 2013) developed a model called the continua of biliteracy (see Figure 1) to help teachers organise their pedagogy based on ecological and translanguaging principles. It shows how the careful consideration of every element of biliteracy (a term which simply combines bilingualism and literacy) in a classroom can result in the maximum development of bilingual ability and identity. Although such a model resists specific pedagogical practices for now, Hornberger and Link do use it to make two strong statements about how translanguaging should be used. Firstly, biliteracy only develops along the continua in response to the contextual demands

placed open them; if bilinguals are not expected to use a certain language, for example, they might not. The second point extends the first: bilingual development is enhanced when the learners have reason to use all of their skills from all of their languages, as this encourages transfer between the two. Therefore pedagogically speaking we need to build a socio-politically aware classroom which utilizes translanguaging to complete tasks which cover a range of biliteracy skills.

Figure 1

The continua of biliteracy (Hornberger & Link, 2013)



García and Sylvan (2011) recognise that this kind of research is interesting but not all that helpful to teachers who are considering implementing a translanguaging pedagogy in their school; it is a step in the right direction but is still too vague and conceptual. However,

they also admit that the context-specific nature of translanguaging pedagogy means that it is impractical and unrealistic to develop a general-purpose model to describe it; this would be missing the point of translanguaging. Rather than prescribe methods of implementation, then, García and Sylvan aim to describe the translanguaging practices of some schools which run effective programmes and explain how the schools' practices reflect important aspects of translanguaging pedagogy. They detail the various factors that teachers might need to consider and monitor to achieve success, and leave exactly how these ideas are implemented up to the teacher. For example, they point out that collaboration between teachers is of great significance, as it allows them to work across departments, synchronise their curricula, and guide each other's use of translanguaging practice. This is the same for students: classes are filled with students of various language abilities, so putting them together in groups encourages them to work together to make the most of their varied skills and proficiencies. It is important that this research exists, however the factors proposed are rather extensive and go beyond the scope of this paper, so I refer the reader to García and Sylvan (2011).

9. Translanguaging in EFL Classrooms

In section 3.2.4, I agreed with Lee (2012) that EFL classrooms could benefit from being considered as bilingual communities. Considering this idea has led to current research on an ecological translanguaging pedagogy, it is a far step from the current state of EFL literature. That does not mean, however, that viewing EFL classrooms as bilingual communities has to be particularly difficult. Many of the ideas explored, such as language ecology and contextualizing CS use do not clash with EFL ideology, and EFL classrooms would benefit greatly from giving them consideration. There is, however, one major point which would make a shift to a translanguaging pedagogy problematic: the lack of L2 input.

The EFL literature makes a huge issue out of maximizing L2 input and that, while CS is a useful tool, L1 should be kept to a minimum. Throughout translanguaging research, however, the proportions of L1 and L2 are hardly even mentioned; bilinguals with a good level of proficiency in both their languages can negotiate any communication difficulties they may have in either language. However, when we consider students who are just beginning to learn a second language, there would appear to be a problem. A final look at one of the major works on translanguaging, García (2009), moves towards answering this last, and most important, question.

Solving this issue mainly has to do with the way we conceptualize L2 learners. Though the EFL literature has made great progress in moving from a monolingual to a bilingual approach to research, it still makes the mistake of viewing L2 learners as monolinguals who are learning a second language and therefore need maximal L2 input. A bilingual model of EFL needs to move beyond this, which Vivian Cook (2010) went some way with this by relabeling L2 learners as L2 users. However, García (2009) is the first to take the bilingual turn to its logical and ideological conclusion: anyone learning a second language is an emergent bilingual. By seeing second language learners in this way we move from a model of a learner acquiring a separate additional language to a view of learners integrating a new language into their identity, even from the early stages. Emergent bilinguals must use their first language skills to guide and develop their second, and both need to be used extensively to scaffold each other.

In one example of Spanish emergent bilinguals beginning to learn English in New York, García (2009) details how the students were taught English through an advanced biology class. The instruction was mostly in Spanish, with English quickly introduced as the students' proficiency increased. The input they require for developing English was partly from this instruction, but also from studying identical English and Spanish versions of their textbook. Their goal was to write an essay in English, but even their drafts were often written in Spanish. It should be remembered that this is based on a translanguaging approach, and that despite pushing for certain languages at certain times, both languages were used flexibly throughout all lessons.

Another example is given in Jones (2010, as cited in Lewis et al., 2012), in which English-speaking beginner learners of Welsh conducted a project on "Fair Trade". Students conducted their research in English, discussed the vocabulary in either language, and an explanation of each term was given by the teacher in Welsh. The teacher then summarized everything in Welsh, before the students began to write their final project in Welsh only. Again, as this was a translanguaging approach we must remember that both students and teacher provided translanguaging scaffolding if needed.

Using both languages so extensively in this manner could draw one major criticism, namely that it seems rather similar to extensive use of translation. However, this is to forget the ecological context and purpose of translanguaging. Translation is a highly developed skill where someone tries to accurately convey an utterance or text into another language. This can work as a speaking strategy, albeit a very ineffective one. Translanguaging is different in that students are actively using both languages in real contexts without time to think about what is

going on. There is no intentionality or deliberation as with translation; students just have to use the languages they have at hand to communicate in real situations. Williams (2002, as cited in Lewis et al. 2012) explained the difference very well, emphasising that translation tends to separate languages, whereas translanguaging aims to both utilise and strengthen both languages. This should be the aim of all language learning, and the EFL literature would benefit greatly from reconceptualising CS as translanguaging as has been detailed here.

10. Conclusion

This paper has explored the development of CS as a pedagogical tool in the literature. It discussed a modern disillusion with the monolingual approach to L2 teaching, and the consequent bilingual turn which resulted in both the EFL and bilingual education fields reassessing their use of language in the classroom. EFL classrooms were found to be officially opposed to CS while in reality practicing it, and the EFL literature has repeatedly proven the benefits of CS as a pedagogical tool when it is planned and used strategically, and as long as maximal L2 input is strived for. This led Lee (2012) to suggest a preliminary model for CS pedagogy, and to propose that bilingual education might offer a better model for EFL teaching to adopt.

Vivian Cook (2010) worked with this idea when developing a theory of multi-competence, and Wei (2009b) used this to recognize that CS is in fact about more than just language use. García(2009) developed CS into a concept of translanguaging, a pedagogical CS tool which threads the bilingual's identity and language use through their social, cultural, community, and linguistic contexts. This is necessarily based in an ecological perspective, making a practical pedagogy of translanguaging both impractical and off-point. In attempts to aid both researchers and teachers to implement translanguaging, Hornberger and Link (2013) developed the continua of biliteracy and García (2009) detailed various factors that teachers should take into account when implementing translanguaging pedagogically.

Lastly, I proposed that the EFL literature would benefit greatly from reconsidering ideas of CS, L2 learners, and particularly the need for maximal L2 input, by applying translanguaging pedagogy. Reconceptualising L2 learners as emergent bilinguals and EFL classrooms as bilingual communities, with a concept of ecologically sensitive translanguaging at its core, could allow not only better research, but also create contextually relevant EFL programmes which develop globally focused bilinguals who make the most of all the cognitive advantages listed in section 1.

Implementation of translanguaging and other dynamic bilingual pedagogical principles in an L2 teaching context is still a largely unexplored area of research, and will no doubt meet much resistance from institutions and socio-political contexts which are resistant to bilingualism. However, as the world continues to get smaller and languages move closer together across national borders it would seem that these ideas will become more and more relevant in the near future.



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Developing students' strategic ability through L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction

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Palincsar and Brown (1984) designed an intervention for teachers to model and guide comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring strategies, reciprocal teaching, and much literature has proven the effect of the teaching technique in improving reading comprehension with reading disability students and EFL students. This research implemented a modified reciprocal teaching, which was L1-assisted with preceding explicit strategy instruction, for Korean elementary students who have difficulty engaging in the text deeply for high-level comprehension processing. Through five weeks of intervention, this research investigated how students' knowledge or awareness of reading strategies increased and how students' reading performance developed. To evaluate students' increment on knowledge or awareness about reading process and strategy use, pre-interview and post-test, and questions and summaries that students produced were recorded and rated according to the scale of Palincsar & Brown (1984) and Myers (2006) respectively to assess students' strategic reading performance. The data showed that through L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction, students' strategic ability developed in that their knowledge and awareness of reading strategy and strategic reading performance developed.

1. Introduction

Palincsar and Brown (1984) designed an intervention for teachers to model and guide comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities, *reciprocal teaching*, in which the teacher and students take turns to make self-directed summarizing (review), questioning, clarifying, and predicting with the text in the context of a natural dialogue. At the beginning stage, the teacher demonstrates how to do those four activities so that students can observe and participate in those activities across their levels. Then the teacher gives guidance and feedback by raising demands for students little-by-little until students can do the tasks by themselves.

These reciprocal teaching activities are appropriate to improve students' cognitive and metacognitive strategies. In detail, *summarizing* (self-review) and *questioning* help students concentrate on the major content in the text, and they can check if they understood what they read. In terms of *clarifying*, students are encouraged to evaluate the content critically, and *predicting* what will happen in future content makes students generate and test their inferences. All activities are also engaged in activation of relevant background knowledge and they give the clear purposes of reading like answering questions in the text

and discussing the content with the related background knowledge (Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

In addition, from social constructivist views, reciprocal teaching is a strong pedagogy for students' development. According to Zhang (2008), learners internalize new concepts from dialog or interaction with experts or more competent peers, under their scaffolding and guidance. It means that social context and experts' scaffolding are crucial attributions to learners' development, and reciprocal teaching offers these conditions in the way of encouraging students to participate in group activities and supporting them with explicit teacher's modeling, concurrent guidance, and follow-up feedback. The process of a teacher gradually helping students become more capable of doing the activities by themselves is supported by Vygotsky's (1986) zone of proximal development, which is "learning takes place at a level just beyond the current competence of the learner through the co-construction of knowledge" (as cited in Zhang, 2008, p. 91).

My reading classes are private tutoring that take one and half-hours every Tuesday and Thursday. English narrative storybooks and workbooks that I make are used. My two students are twelve-years-old and fifth-grade elementary students who are novice proficient. Two classes are taken separately. However, the problem is that my reading classes have been the kind of class, which Durkin (1979, as cited in Rosenshine, Meister, and Shapman, 1996) noted that teachers spend most time in asking students questions, but not teaching comprehension strategies that could be used to answer the questions. I usually give some questions with a workbook that can be answered in the text before starting to read a new story, and let the student find the answers by reading the text. While reading the text together, I spontaneously ask one or two questions for a paragraph about main characters, important events, or students' relevant experience. I thought that the questions I give them could be for the purpose of reading and guidance so that my students concentrate on the text and focus on main ideas. However, I could recognize that my students guess answers for my questions based on their previous experiences, pictures in the book, my facial expressions, or intonation rather than engaging the text to find the answers. In addition, even though they could locate information by answering some questions while reading a story, my students show difficulty solving after-reading comprehension check by themselves, and do not know how to find the answers back to the text, but just by asking for the teacher's help. Through this observation, I realized two problems of my class; my students have not engaged in the text deeply for high-level comprehension processing, and I have offered too much scaffolding.

To these points, my students need to learn reading strategies for high-level

comprehension and I need to scaffold students to be independent readers ultimately. First, in terms of reading strategies for high-level comprehension, Graesser (2007) explained that deep comprehension requires “inferences, linking ideas coherently, scrutinizing the validity of claims with a critical stance, and sometimes understanding the motives of authors” (Graesser, 2007, p. 4). These processes are the means that readers employ “deliberately, with some awareness, in order to produce or influence the goal” (Wellman, 1988, as cited in Hudson, 2007, p. 105). It means that the process of deep comprehension itself is strategic. In addition, even skilled readers often face breakdowns at any level of comprehension. However, reading comprehension strategies help readers to overcome reading obstacles by monitoring the reading process (metacognition), and to repair or avoid problematic reading components (cognition) (Graesser, 2007). Therefore, reading strategies are strongly linked with successful reading as much as Palincsar and Brown (1984) agreed that “the active strategies the reader employs to enhance understanding and retention, and to circumvent comprehension failures” (p. 118) are key factors to produce reading comprehension.

Second, according to Vygotsky’s (1978, as cited in Palincsar & Brown, 1984) development theory, experts’ scaffolding is crucial in the initial phases for learners to observe and experience the task interpersonally depending on their current competence, but the experts should “gradually cede their greater responsibility” (p. 123) as learners become more experienced and capable of performing more complex tasks by themselves time after time. Therefore, appropriate scaffolding is required for students to start developing and becoming capable of tasks via self-regulation and self-interrogation. Based on these theoretical ideas, my study aims to investigate how my students’ strategic ability to read and comprehend texts deeply and independently develop through reciprocal teaching, a modified L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction. More specifically, this study investigates the following research questions:

Research questions

- 1) How does a student’s knowledge or awareness of reading strategies develop?
- 2) How does a student’s reading performance develop?

2. Intervention

Fung, Wilkinson, and Moore (2003) implemented a modified reciprocal teaching on Taiwanese ESL students’ comprehension of English expository text. First, the reciprocal

teaching procedures were L1-assisted (Mandarin) to supplement students' limited L2 (English) proficiency. Fung et al. reasoned that some reported failures of reciprocal teaching with ESL students (Cotterall, 1990; Dashwooe & Mangubhai, 1996, as cited in Fung et al., 2003) were because reciprocal teaching activities required students to cope with "the concurrent cognitive demands of high-level language processing and high-level strategies thinking for reading comprehension" (p. 3). For this reason, Fung et al. accepted the pedagogical suggestion (Coterall, 1990; Dashwood & Mangubhai, 1996, as cited in Fung et al., 2003) using participants' L1 during strategy instruction to lessen the linguistic burden. The intervention comprised both Chinese and English reciprocal teaching, which occurred on alternate days. On each day, the language used in the explicit instruction was used also for the reciprocal teaching dialogue while students were reading age-appropriate expository text written in the same language. Second, Fung et al. adopted the *explicit-teaching-before-reciprocal-teaching* (ET-RT) form of the conventional procedure (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994), in which "the students were first introduced to the four strategies during three to six traditional lessons that were conducted before the dialogue began" (p. 483), so Fung et al. applied it in the two ways; they have a 15-min session of teacher-directed explicit strategy instruction first prior to a 20-min reciprocal teaching dialogue, and they introduced and practiced new strategies on L1 reciprocal teaching days and revisited on L2 reciprocal teaching days. Through L1-assisted ET-RT, Fung et al. aimed to "facilitate students' internalization of the comprehension fostering and monitoring strategies by using students' stronger language and to encourage knowledge and strategy transfer to L2 reading comprehension" (p. 7). As a result, Fung et al.'s quantitative and qualitative data strongly indicated the effect of the L1-assisted reciprocal teaching procedure in developing the English reading competence of the Mandarin-speaking ESL students. My reciprocal teaching procedure draws from the review of Fung et al. to reflect the effect of L1 assistance in developing students' strategic ability in L2 reading.

Myers (2006) adapted reciprocal teaching on kindergarten students' comprehension of English narrative stories. The conventional reciprocal teaching is usually done with small groups working independently, by reading silently the texts, and for students to comprehend unfamiliar texts. However, Myers modified the conventional reciprocal teaching in three ways appropriate for kindergarten students. First, Myers did the reciprocal-teaching lessons with the whole class to give all students the opportunity to participate in the discussion actively by answering questions, offering their opinions, and giving suggestions to discussion leaders as well as to manage the classroom effectively during reading aloud. Second, Myers

adopted the concept of reading aloud based on research showing reading aloud facilitates children's academic success and language acquisition (Morrow, 1992; Feitelstein et al., 1993, as cited in Myers, 2006). Myers introduced and modeled reading strategies while reading stories aloud to the students and paused at "an exciting place or at a spot that presented opportunities for questions and discussions so that students could apply reciprocal-teaching strategies to the story" (p. 316). Third, Myers selected familiar books as the text because "researchers have shown that repeated readings help children internalize stories and understand them in greater detail" (Teale & Sulzby, 1987, as cited in Myers, 2006, p. 316) and second-language learners can benefit in repeated reading to learn language patterns and story sequencing (Hough, Nurss, & Enright, 1986, as cited in Myers, 2006). Consequently, all of the children in Myers research showed enthusiastic responses to having stories read to them, and one of students said that, in a post-interview, his favorite part was read-alouds. In addition, children sometimes asked about books that they were to read the day before or even earlier, and it revealed that familiarity with the text is necessary for novice students to discuss it in depth. Therefore, my reciprocal teaching procedure draws from Myers' intervention to reflect the effect of read-alouds and text familiarity in developing students' strategic ability in reading.

To refer to these two articles, I will teach reading strategies on the framework of L1-assisted *explicit-teaching-before-reciprocal-teaching* (ET-RT) through read-alouds. First, concerning reading comprehension strategies, even though two reciprocal teaching lessons taught and practiced four comprehension strategies; summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting, my lessons will mainly focus on summarizing and questioning. I will teach four strategies in explicit strategy instruction during the first two days, but students will practice only two strategies-summarizing and questioning- obligatorily during dialogue, and clarifying and predicting will be rather opportunistic when necessary or when students wish. Internalizing four strategies for 5 weeks can be too demanding for my novice students who are learning the concepts of reading strategies for the first time. In addition, according to Palincsar and Brown's (1984, as cited in Rosenshine & Meister, 1994) findings, summarizing and questioning are strong candidates of most effective comprehension strategies by serving comprehension-fostering and -monitoring function in that "they require students to search text and perform deeper processing, and students' difficulty in performing either task signals the learner in comprehension difficulties" (p. 512).

Second, I will use both L1 (Korean) and the target language (English) compatibly to lessen students' linguistic burden (Fung et al., 2003). When I explain some new concepts or

ideas in English, my students usually show confusion and misunderstanding and ask me to explain again in Korean. They are also reluctant to organize their thoughts and express in English. It revealed that when I let them write reflections after reading a story in both English and Korean, Korean-version reflections were much longer and rich in content. As Fung et al. (2003) pointed out, I want to facilitate my students “internalize comprehension fostering and monitoring strategies by using the students’ stronger language” (p. 7). In addition, the result of Fung et al. (2003) showed that when students had a clear conceptual understanding about what strategy to use and how, when, where, and why to use it, they used them meaningfully even in L2 text and during L2 dialogue even though the dialogue was much slower because of limited L2 proficiency. I am sure that using L1 in strategy instruction and when necessary is effective for students to understand the concepts of strategies and practice them for internalization. However, all prompts I will use in class will be written only in English (Appendix A) and I will model how to make strategies in English to help and scaffold my students to produce reading strategies in English ultimately.

Third, I will teach four reading strategies explicitly with familiar text. To refer Fung et al.’s (2003) findings that “explicit instruction leads to poor readers’ more conscious use of reading strategies, and to better reading performance” (p. 27). I will conduct reciprocal teaching over a period of 5 weeks for 10 days in my reading classes. During the first week for two days, I will introduce and model four reading strategies; what summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting are, why we should use them, when we can use them, and how we can use them. Regarding the text used in explicit strategy instruction, I will use a familiar text that they have read before, to refer Myers’s (2006) idea of repeated reading. Using familiar texts could help my students focus on the new concepts of reading strategies by lessening cognitive demands for new content of unfamiliar texts. The first two classes will be focused on learning strategies themselves so that my students focus on and understand reading strategies that they learn for the first time. The next three days, prior to dialogue sessions, I will review four reading strategies and model how to do it with the first paragraph of new text. During the last five days, every session will begin with 5 minutes of students’ self-reviewing about the four strategies, and I will explain or model only what students do not know independently. Then the reciprocal teaching dialogue will follow. However, in my reciprocal teaching lessons, teacher’s explicit modeling will occur on every class because my classes are private tutoring, so a teacher should participate in the dialogue as a peer. My student and I will be a discussion leader by taking turns on each paragraph, and my turn will be the chance for my student to observe how to use strategies.

Fourth, I will accept Myers' (2006) idea of reading aloud for my students who are novice English learners. My students are not good enough at low-level reading skills like word-attacking and phoneme-grapheme corresponding, but as Myers (2006) explained, reading aloud helps them "learn difference between oral and written language and acquire vocabulary and grammar" (p. 315). In addition, when I let them read the text silently by themselves, they usually do not read, but look at the picture and guess the answers for questions I ask. Reading aloud can make sure that they are reading the text and, as Myers pointed, "read-alouds help students become interested in literature" (p. 314). To prevent the risk for students to be interrupted in comprehension processing while reading the text aloud, the discussion learner who has the turn to practice reading strategies with a paragraph will read the paragraph silently while the other (teacher or student) read the paragraph aloud.

3. Measurement

A reciprocal teaching technique supports psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic areas of learning. In terms of psycholinguistic areas of learning, reciprocal teaching focuses on "teaching students specific, concrete, comprehension-fostering strategies which they can apply to the reading of new text" (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994, p. 480), and these strategies "both improve comprehension and permit students to monitor their own understanding" (Palincsar & Brown, 1984, p. 121). According to Rosenshine & Meister (1994) a review of 16 quantitative studies on reciprocal teaching, experimental group students' comprehension was significantly superior to the control group with a media effect size of .88 when researchers' developed tests were used, and with a media effect size of .32 when standardized tests were used. In addition, the teacher's explicit instruction modeling "the process of using these strategies on a selection of text" (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994, p. 480) in the early stages of reciprocal teaching makes covert comprehension fostering and monitoring processes visual for students to be aware of the cognitive process. Moreover, when teachers encourage students to initiate discussion and "to react to other students' statements" (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994, p. 480) during guided practice, this interpersonal monitor promotes students' intrapersonal monitoring also. Regarding sociolinguistic areas of learning, reciprocal teaching uses dialogue as a tool for learning and practicing these strategies. During dialogue, "cooperative effort between teacher and students or among peers to bring meaning to the ideas in the text" (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994, p. 481) facilitate students' motivation and participation in learning activities.

Fung et al. (2003) explained that L2 reading is often more demanding, time-consuming, and daunting than L1 reading because of limited L2 proficiency. However, they believe that, according to schema theory (Adams & Collins, 1979; Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Rumelhart, 1980, as cited in Fung et al., 2003) and Vygotsky's (1962, as cited in Fung et al., 2003) knowledge transfer, L2 readers draw on their existing knowledge and skills acquired in their L1 literacy activities to derive meaning in L2 reading. It means that the process of learning is transferring between background knowledge and skills and new concepts or ideas. In addition, Fung et al. (2003) cited findings of Paris, Lipson, & Wixson (1983) that "metacognition facilitates transfer of learners' acquired knowledge, skills, and strategies to different learning situations" (p. 5). To these perspectives, learning requires "a double or split focus" (Palincsar & Brown, 1984, p. 118); raising comprehension of new materials through transfer of learners' acquired knowledge, skills, and strategies, and developing metacognition, which is "the awareness of one's own mental process and abilities" (Fung et al., 2003, p. 5).

As Fung et al. (2003) define learning as the process of transfer and metacognitive operation; they tried to examine students' comprehension processes as well as product. They examined whether students' L2 reading comprehension abilities improved as a product of L1-assisted ET-RT, and they also examined whether students' metacognitive awareness in L1 and L2 comprehension processes grew and whether students' abilities to transfer comprehension strategies to new texts developed or not. To measure comprehension product, they used the standardized test, the *Neale Analysis of Reading Ability* (1988) at pre-test and post-test, and assessed students' daily reading performances with the researcher-developed comprehension tests. To measure the comprehension processes, they conducted think-aloud tasks at pre-test and post-test for the measurement of metacognition and transfer tests to novel tasks at pre-test and post-test.

Myers (2006) thought even kindergarten students need to learn reading strategies to promote reading comprehension according to the *California state standards for language arts* (1999), and selected reciprocal teaching as the optimal intervention for it because four strategies; summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting, promote reading comprehension and metacognition, and the dialogue offers cooperative interaction and expert's scaffolding. Myers assumed, based on Vygotsky's concepts of zone of proximal development and scaffolding, during reciprocal teaching "comprehension strategies are internalized through participation in discussion while scaffolding is provided by the teacher only when needed" (p. 315). In addition, she emphasized these strategies promote students' "metacognitive skills such as self-monitoring, assessing progress, and taking remedial action

when needed” (p. 315). Through these perspectives, Myers seems to define learning as the process of internalizing new concepts or ideas under the gradual scaffolding of experts and understanding about the process of learning similar to the *double or split focus* of Palincsar & Brown (1984).

To measure students’ internalization of reading strategies and awareness of them, she collected anecdotal records on students’ responses to lessons to analyze summaries and questions that students produced and interviewed with students at the beginning and end of the research project. First, she created three-point rubrics (Table 1) to assess students’ progress in making summaries (retelling) and questions based on the California Language arts standards. Analysis about the quality of strategies that students produced could give insight into the degree that students internalized strategies and the degree of comprehension on the text at the same time. In addition, gradual scaffolding of experts is crucial in the learning process, as Myers pointed out, and assigning scores on students’ strategies in this way can help teachers to monitor each student’s growth and scaffold students individually across their current competence.

Table 1

Retelling and Questioning rubrics (Myers, 2006, p. 320)

Retelling rubric	Questioning rubric
3 - The student can retell events in a story sequentially, using appropriate details. Tells who the most important characters are in the story. Can describe the setting and the problem.	3 – The students can ask a question that calls for clarification of something that might be confusing in a read-aloud. This may be a question about vocabulary or meaning. The student understands the difference between a clarifying question and a question that is based on a literal recall of the text.
2 - The students can retell events, but retelling may or may not be sequential. Student may give only a partial description of the characters, setting, or problem.	2 – The students can ask a clarifying question, but the answer may have been obvious in the story. In the role of Clara Clarifier, instead of asking a clarifying question, the student asks a question that is based on a literal recall of the text.
1 – The student cannot retell many events in the story. Student has a very incomplete description of the characters, setting, or problem.	1 – The student has great difficulty formulating a question and relies on teacher support.

Second, to determine whether the students had an awareness of their cognitive processes, Myers created five interview questions reflected in metacognitive abilities (Table 2).

Table 2

Interview questions (Myers, 2006, p. 319)

Interview questions	Question 1. Do you like to hear stories?
	Question 2. What kinds of stories do you like to hear?
	Question 3. Do you always understand everything in the stories that are read to you?
	Question 4. If there is a word in a story, or something about the story, that you don't understand, what do you usually do?
	Question 5. What could you do if you don't understand something in a story?

I agree with Myers' (2006) ideas of learning, and I believe that *learning is the process of internalizing new concepts until students can perform tasks with that knowledge by themselves*. My reciprocal teaching lesson's goal is teaching four reading strategies- mainly summarizing and questioning- so that students use them in L2 reading activities independently. To measure students' strategic abilities, first, I will have pre-interviews and post-tests to assess how students' knowledge and awareness of reading strategies develop with explicit strategy instruction. My students may have already known and used some reading strategies, so I will interview them with Myers' (2006) interview questions (Table 2), and before explicit strategy instruction, I will let my students make questions about one paragraph, which they want to ask to students if they were a teacher, and ask them why they make the questions to assess their present strategic ability. Then, after five weeks intervention, I will have a post-test drawn from Kim's (2013) Visualization Strategy Test (VST). Kim used VST to assess the students' awareness of the Visualization Strategy before, during, and after training of Visualization Strategy. I agree that VST is a good test to assess 'the students' knowledge and awareness of the Visualization Strategy.' For this reason, I will implement the VST to assess the knowledge of Visualization Strategy, but substitute questions that are appropriate to assess my students' knowledge and awareness of reading strategies (Table 3).

Table 3

Post-test for students' knowledge and awareness of reading

strategies (Kim, 2013)

No.	Questions	Answers	Scores
1	What are reading strategies?	Questioning, summarizing, clarifying, and predicting	4 (1 for each strategy)
2	Why are reading strategies important?	To understand reading well To check my comprehension	2 (1 for each element)
3	How to use the two reading strategies: Questioning and summarizing?	Stop and think about what is most important to remember in reading	1
4	When and where are the two reading Strategies (questioning and summarizing) are used?	While reading, each paragraph or sentence where you can make questions or a summary	1
5	How to evaluate use of the two reading strategies? What are the qualities of a good question and summary?	Based on four qualities of a good question and summary	8 (1 for each quality)
6	What elements should be considered for using the reading strategies in reading a narrative story? (Three elements, explain in detail)	a. Characters: Who were the most important characters? b. Events: What problems were there? What were the most important facts? c. When/ Where did the event happen?	6 (1 for each element, 1 for each explanation of the element)

However, having strategic ability does not mean only having knowledge about strategies, but it includes the ability to use them in real reading activities. To measure the progress of students' internalization of two strategies and comprehension, as Rosenshine and Meister (1994) explained that students' poor performance signals poor comprehension, the development of the quality of students' performances will show the degree of internalization of reading strategies. Therefore, I will refer to Myers' (2006) measuring progress: collecting the anecdotal records on summaries and questions that students produce and analyze them. First, I will use the retelling rubric (Table 1) of Myers (2006) to rate students' summarizations because Myers' rating scale is well-standardized for summaries of narrative stories. However, I adjusted the rating scale for items about details and characters of the story (Table 4).

Table 4

Revised rating scale for summarization based on Myers (2006)

Rating scale for summarization	
3	Summarization to retell events in a story sequentially with appropriate details.
2	Summarization to describe the setting and the problem. Retelling who is the most important characters.
1	Retelling some details or partial information.

When it comes to rating questions, Myers rated self-directed questions and clarifying questions together with the same standards, but I will focus on teaching and analyzing self-directed questions only. Therefore, I will take the rating system of Palincsar and Brown (1984) for students' questions:

A main idea question (worth two points) or a detail question (one point), as a question lifted directly from text (zero points) or paraphrased (one point). A question which the rater indicated she would ask herself was awarded an extra point (p. 150).

Table 5

Rating scale for questions (Palincsar and Brown, 1984)

Rating scale for questions	
2	Question to ask a main idea
1	Question to ask a detail Question to be paraphrased from the text Question to ask on student's own
0	Question lifted directly from text

However, each paragraph, which students will read and make questions about, has different lengths, importance in the story, and a different number of main points and detail information. For this reason, to assess a student's ability to make questions, especially about main idea questions, a rater should consider the paragraph from where the student's questions came from rather than rating an individual question a student makes. Therefore, I will rate each paragraph concerning how many main points the paragraph has, and I will give each paragraph a total score. Then, I will sort only main idea questions among a student's own questions, and rate them and sum scores of all questions. Then, give the final score for a student's questions out of the total score of the paragraph. For example, Text A on Table 6 has three main points: the important character (Gander), the change of setting (lake to sky), and the important event (two characters did a fly-high race to be the champion). I will give 6 points for this text by giving 2 points for each main point based on the scale of Palincsar and

Brown (1984) for questioning. When a student makes three questions below for this text, the student will get 30% or (2/6) as a final score.

Table 6

Rating students' questions depending on each paragraph (Kim, 2013)

[Text A] "Maybe," said Gander. "But I can fly higher than you." "Can not," said Duck. Gander flapped his wings. "Ready...set...go!" and up they flew above the spruce trees. Gander flew higher. "I am the champion of champions." "No, you aren't," said Duck. "Yes, I am," said Gander.		
Q1. Who said, "I can fly higher than you?"	Evaluation 1. Lifted directly from text	0 point
Q2. Why did Gander say fly higher than Duck?	Evaluation 2. Ask herself	1 point
Q3. What (were) Gander and Duck doing?	Evaluation 3. Ask about event	2 points
Total score for the student's questions about this text		2/6=0.3 points

In terms of a student's independence in performing strategic reading, I will take the way of observing whether students ask for teacher's help, use prompts, or do it by themselves. Through this analysis and observation, I want to investigate how a student's strategic reading ability develops with L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction, focusing on how a student's knowledge or awareness of reading strategies develops and how reading performance improves.

4. Results

4.1 Research question 1

To investigate five weeks of explicit strategy instruction improves students' knowledge and awareness of reading strategies, I conducted pre-interviews with the questionnaire of Myer (2004) with five questions and post-test with VST of Kim's (2013). First, student A answered,

at the pre-interview, she likes reading across genres, especially about our routine lives, and she admitted that she sometimes faced comprehension breakdown in reading. She answered that, at that moment, she usually skipped the parts, looked up unknown words in dictionaries, or searched the internet. In addition, she answered that, even though she does not usually do so, she could look at surrounding context to understand the puzzling parts. At the pre-interview, student A did not show any knowledge or awareness of four reading strategies-questioning, summarizing, clarifying, and predicting. However, at the post-test after five weeks intervention, she got 17.5 points out of 22 points (Appendix B) and showed much knowledge about what the reading strategies were, why and how we should use them, and the qualities of a good question and summary. After taking the test, I asked her whether she knew about the four reading strategies before starting the intervention, and she said that she had heard only about summary, but she did not know how to summarize a narrative story.

Second, student B, at the pre-interview, answered that she likes reading, but not all books, only funny books. She also answered that when she cannot understand about a part, she usually skipped the part, looked it up in dictionary or through the internet, or asked the teacher or parents. Student B also did not seem to know about the four reading strategies. However, at post-test after five weeks intervention, she got 16.5 points out of 22 points (Appendix C) and showed much improvement in knowledge and awareness of reading strategies. To my questions about previous knowledge of the reading strategies prior to intervention, she also said that she knew about summarizing, but she did not know what she should consider to summarize and how and why she should summarize. Through two students' interviews and post-tests, five weeks of explicit strategy instruction improved students' strategic knowledge and awareness about reading strategies.

4.2 Research question 2

To investigate how students' questions and summaries develop, each question and summary students made were rated by the scale of Myers (2006) and Palincsar and Brown (1984) respectively. In every single class, the number of paragraphs, which students read and made questions and summaries about, was different depending on students' physical and mental conditions and their degree of concentration. For this reason, the scores of questions and summaries for each day were calculated by the average score of total paragraphs that each student analyzed in the day. Table 7 and Table 8 show the scores for questions and summaries of student A and student B respectively in the process of the days. Shaded days on

the tables are when the text changed from *Don't fidget a feather!* to *Jigsaw Johns Mystery: The case of mysterious valentine*; from a kindergarten level book to third grade level book (scholastic.com). The reason why higher-levels of text were presented to students was to encourage students' strategic reading performance by raising students' needs to use reading strategies (McNeil, 2011).

Table 7

Student A's scores for main idea questions and summaries

Date	5/21	5/28	5/30	6/3	6/5
Question (Average score/Total=1)	0.7	0.4	0.25	1	0.75
Summary (Average score/Total=3)	2	0.5	2	3	3

Table 8

Student B's scores for main idea questions and summaries

Date	5/16	5/21	5/23	5/28	5/30	6/7
Question (Average score /	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.85

Total =1)						
Sum mary (Ave rage score / Total =3)	1	1 . 5	2 . 5	2	2	2 . 5

First, in the case of student A, her scores for questions showed a decrease during the first three days. However, in the two days of the last week, she showed rapid growth and continued higher scores even though the text changed into a higher-level book on June 5. In terms of summary, she showed development in the last week of the intervention, and comparing questions, she got stable scores for summaries even though she got a much lower score relatively on May 28.

Second, student B's scores for questions showed gradual increases over time, and even though the text changed into a higher level book on May 28, her scores were higher than previous days. Scores for summarizing also show gradual increases though there was a small decrease as the text changed into the higher-level book. These results indicate that students' questions and summaries develop as the quality improved by getting main points of the text.

5. Discussion

This study investigated how students' strategic ability develops with L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with read-alouds. The findings indicate that students' strategic abilities develop in the way that their knowledge and awareness of reading strategy increase and the quality of their strategies develop as their comprehension on text increases. These findings are concurrent with Fung et al.'s (2003) and Myers' (2006) findings in that students' perceived use of strategies increased and their reading performance improved.

First, possible explanations for the development of my students' knowledge and awareness of reading strategies could be the effect of explicit strategy instruction and L1 assistance. I taught four reading strategies: questioning, summarizing, clarifying, and predicting during the first two days of the intervention explicitly by explaining and modeling to make the concepts of strategy understandable and clear for my students who learned them for the first time. Moreover, at the end of each week, we had reviewing time of reading strategies, especially focusing on questioning and summarizing, and when students did not

know about them, I re-explained and modeled explicitly again until my students knew on their own. Fung et al. (2003) explained about the effect of explicit strategy instruction as “it leads to poor readers’ more conscious use of reading strategies” (p. 27) by activating and building background knowledge about the reading process and strategy.

In addition to the effect of explicit strategy instruction, L1 assistance could be an explanation for my students to succeed in internalization of reading strategies. During the intervention, explicit strategy instructions and dialogue were taught mostly in Korean (L1), and I let my students use L1 (Korean) or L2 (English) with their discretion to make them concentrate on internalizing reading strategies by lessening their cognitive demands of language processing (Fung et al., 2003). Even when I modeled how to use reading strategies, I did think-alouds in Korean, and then I made questions and summaries in English. My students used L1 actively by writing down the teacher’s explanations on their worksheets in L1 and using them in every class. Even student A put her worksheet on the wall until the end of intervention to see it easily anytime (Appendix D). As Fung et al. (2003) pointed out; this L1 use permitted them to spend their cognitive efforts internalizing reading strategies with their strong language.

Second, high quality of questions and summaries signal the development of reading performance and better comprehension on text (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994), my students produced gradually higher quality of questions and summaries. A possible explanation for the development of my students’ reading performances could be found in Vygotsky’s (1986) sociocultural perspectives (Zhang, 2008). Sociocultural perspective assumes that learning takes place within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) through interaction or collaboration with an expert or a more competent peer under the condition of scaffolding (Zhang, 2008). I guided my students concurrently to use reading strategies by reminding them of the steps about using strategies, main points they should consider, or the qualities of a good strategy, which they had learned in the explicit strategy instruction. Donato (1994, as cited in Zhang, 2008) asserted that the type of scaffolding or guided support offers “supportive conditions in which the novice can participate, and extend his or her current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence” (p. 91). Moreover, due to the way of private tutoring, I should be a peer during reciprocal teaching dialogue, and interact and collaborate with my students. Zhang (2008) suggested that instructional intervention through teacher-student dialogue could reinforce reading strategy use, “leading to progress in perceived strategy use and reading performance improvement” (p. 111). In addition, student B, at the post-test, answered to the third question; “*How to use the two reading strategies:*

Questioning and summarizing?” with the words-선생님과 같이 책을 읽어가며-, which means “as the way my teacher did while reading a book.” After she finished the test, I asked her whether she could explain what I did exactly, and then she wrote additional answers below; <중요한 내용을 생각. 한 문단씩 끊어가며>, which mean “thinking about important points, stopping at each paragraph” (Appendix B). This student B’s answer indicates that my student learned how to use reading strategies through teacher’s modeling, corresponding to social constructivists’ idea of learning that “learning takes place on an interpersonal plane and then on an intrapersonal one” (Zhang, 2008, p. 91).

In conclusion, explicit strategy instruction before reciprocal teaching and L1 assistance seems to help my students gain knowledge and awareness of strategies, and interaction and collaboration with an expert during reciprocal teaching dialogue leads to the development of reading performance. That is, my students’ strategic abilities developed through L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction.

Through this research, the positive effect of L1 assistance in internalizing reading strategies has been shown. In the case of student B, she usually used Korean (L1) for interaction with the teacher during dialogue, but she made questions and summaries mostly in English. On the other hand, student A usually used Korean (L1) in dialogue and making questions and summaries. However, student A and I made the questions and summaries made in Korean by student A into English every time, as evaluating them in terms of content and sentence structure. An interesting finding is that student A, on the last class, made questions and summaries in English (L2) from the first. From this finding, a question has arisen; as students’ strategic reading abilities develop, does their ability to produce in L2 also improve through reciprocal teaching? To investigate the question, I would cease L1 assistance gradually and see whether the quality of questions and summaries made in English (L2) progresses and students’ communicative use of the target language during dialogue increases or not.

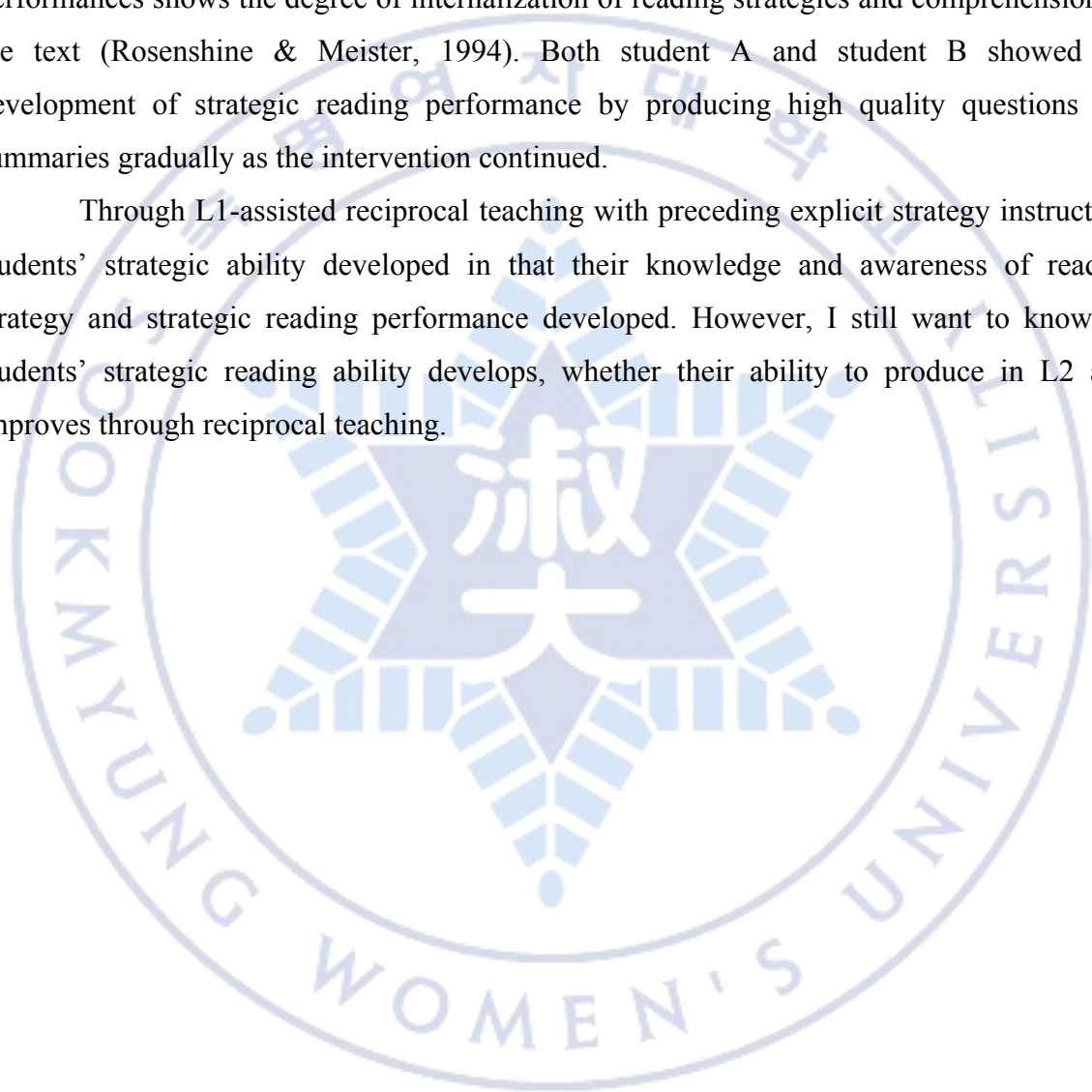
6. Conclusion

This study investigated how students’ knowledge and awareness of reading strategies develop and how students’ strategic reading performances develop through L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction. Pre-interviews were conducted to assess students’ previous knowledge of reading strategies or awareness about reading processes and strategy use, and post-test after five weeks intervention to evaluate students’ gains in

knowledge and awareness of reading strategies. When the data were compared, both student A and student B showed higher gains of knowledge or awareness about reading processes and strategy use.

To assess students' strategic reading performances, questions and summaries that students produced were recorded and rated according to the scale of Palincsar & Brown (1984) and Myers (2006) respectively because the development of the quality of students' performances shows the degree of internalization of reading strategies and comprehension on the text (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). Both student A and student B showed the development of strategic reading performance by producing high quality questions and summaries gradually as the intervention continued.

Through L1-assisted reciprocal teaching with preceding explicit strategy instruction, students' strategic ability developed in that their knowledge and awareness of reading strategy and strategic reading performance developed. However, I still want to know, as students' strategic reading ability develops, whether their ability to produce in L2 also improves through reciprocal teaching.



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Appendix A Prompts

Questioning	Summarizing	Clarifying	Predicting
What is it? <i>(As you read, stop once in a while...)</i>	Asking question while you are reading.	A short, quick way of retelling what is most important.	Clarifying a word or passage when you are confused about something that you are reading, or not sure about what the text means.
Why should we do it?	To understand understanding what is important in the text.	To capture the gist of the text, or what the text is mainly about.	To make sense of the text you are reading. To figure out what you need to do to get unconfused.
How do we do it?	Ask a question about book content that is important to know and remember.	Think about the important things that have happened so far in the story.	- Think about what is confusing to you. - Try to think it through by yourself - Get help from someone else - Use a glossary or dictionary - Keep reading to see if the author give more information
Criteria of good...	Good questions: - Ask about something important, not trivial - Get to the point - Often start with a question word (who, what, when, where, why, or how)	Good summaries: - Capture the gist, or what the text is mainly about, and tell what is important - Have the right amount of detail (not too much, and not too little) - Say it once without repeating - Use your own words	Good clarifications: - Ask about things you're unsure about or that you think are confusing - Often include a question word (who, what, when, where, why, or how) - Ask about unfamiliar words and new vocabulary - Ask about parts where the text is poorly written

★ Strategies to be a good reader!

Reciprocal Teaching Activity

Questioning

Step 1. If you were a teacher, what main idea question would you ask your students about the section of a text?

Step 2. Think about the qualities of a good question:

- 1) includes a main idea or important detail
- 2) can be answered from the text
- 3) starts with a cue word
- 4) is in different words from the text

Step 3. After reading each paragraph, use one of the cue words to make a question about what you just read.

Cue word	Example
Who	Who was swimming in the lake?
What	What did a bee do to them?
When/Where	When did Duck start moving? / Where did the fox take them?
Why	Why did not Gander run away?
How	How did they do a freeze-in-place contest?

Summary

- ❖ Characters
: Who were the most important characters?
- ❖ Events
: What problems were there? What were the most important facts?
- ❖ Setting
: When/ Where did the event happen?

Ex) Duck and Gander did swimming race in the lake to be a champion.

How to do this?

- 1) Choose a leader
- 2) The leader reads a section of the text
silently while the other read the section
aloud
- 3) Clarify any parts confusing
- 4) Leader begins with questions
- 5) Discuss about the questions
- 6) Leader offers a summary
- 7) Predict what will happen (opportunitic)

Appendix B Student A's post-test

Reading Strategy Test

1. What are reading strategies?

읽으면서 질문만들기와 요약하기다.

2. Why are reading strategies important?

내용을 잘 이해하기 위해서.

3. How to use the two reading strategies: Questioning and summarizing?

어떻게? 어떻게?

질문만들면. 답을 읽고.

요약하면 중요한

내용이 들어가도록 요약한다.

그 문단에서 답을 찾을 수 있는 방법을 해.

4. When and where are the two reading strategies(questioning and summarizing) are used?

언제 어디서. 요약하기. 질문하기 전략 사용.

해답을 읽고 나서.

5. How to evaluate use of the two reading strategies? What are the qualities of a good question and summary?

좋은 질문.

1. 나의 이해를 확인한다.
2. 책에서 답을 찾을 수 있어야 한다.
3. 독해원칙을 이용한다.
4. 중요한 내용으로
관심을 만든다.

요약하기.

1. 나의 이해를 확인한다.
2. 중요한 내용을 요약한다.
3. 적당히 내용을 줄여서
요약한다.
4. 세부사항을 적당히 생략.

6. What elements should be considered for using the reading strategies in reading a narrative story? (Three elements, explain in detail)

사건, 배경, 인물
↓ ↓
일어난 일 위치?
등장인물들이
나오는 위치

Appendix C Student B's post-test

Reading Strategy Test

1. What are reading strategies?

가장 중요하게 이해하기, 요약하기, 글대어 파악하기

2. Why are reading strategies important?

가장 이해하기 쉬움

3. How to use the two reading strategies: Questioning and summarizing?

본 행님과 같이 책 읽어주어

<좋은 내용 평평한 문단씩 끊어

4. When and where are the two reading strategies(questioning and summarizing) are used?

한번만 끝나고

5. How to evaluate use of the two reading strategies? What are the qualities of a good question and summary?

Question

6항목까지

행위로 정해서

Summary

좋은 내용만

대 길게 하지 않는다

6. What elements should be considered for using the reading strategies in reading a narrative story? (Three elements, explain in detail)

캐릭터 (인물) - 주인공에 대한 설명
 이벤트 (사건) - 무슨 일이 일어났는지
 배경 (setting) - 장로의 연과 장소

Research about Effectiveness using Drama Activities in ELT; focusing on Opened Drama Activities and Interaction Analysis

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The purpose of the paper is to see how using drama activities affects student's learning in ELT. In order to investigate the topic two studies related to open drama activities were used. Both studies are based on mainly open drama activities such as open-ended, situational, mapped and debating role-plays. Furthermore, the studies are related to oral proficiency such as speaking abilities and analyzing types of interaction. However, the purpose of each study is somewhat similar in handling speaking tasks, the specific purposes are different. The first study tries to show how using drama activities affect general attitudes of learning and speaking English and to evaluate student speaking abilities. The second study focuses on how students interact differently within the drama activities comparing to the regular classes. The results of both studies reveal that using drama activities have a positive influence on not only student speaking skills and their attitudes toward English learning but also in enhancing meaningful interaction, participation and motivation.

1. Introduction

English is highly valued in the world and this includes Korea. The stature of English in Korean society is shown by how much money and time are spent teaching and learning English. Even though the importance of learning English is presumably over emphasized within this society, effective ways of learning English still seem controversial. Using drama activities is one of methods of teaching and learning English. According to Dodson (2002), the value of drama in language education stems from the opportunities it provides for students to express themselves in English for a meaningful purpose, going beyond vocabulary and grammar. Considering EFL education, having authentic purposes to use English is one of the necessities to developing proficiency in English. In EFL education, the classroom is the primary or only place to use English for most students. In this view, language classrooms need to adapt to become more authentic places to develop students' communicative proficiency that works in real world conversations. Additionally, many people who only learned 'about' English do not know how to use English as a tool of communication make us think about how important giving meaningful purposes to express themselves is important for language learning. In this view, adopting drama in the language classroom is not an optional but an essential issue.

In this research, two theses about the effectiveness of using drama activities in ELT will be introduced. Both of these researches are based on mainly open drama activities such as open-ended, situational, mapped and debating role-plays. Furthermore, the studies are related to oral proficiency such as speaking abilities and analyzing types of interaction. Although the purpose of each study is somewhat similar in handling speaking tasks, the specific purposes do differ. The first study is trying to show how using drama activities affect general attitudes of learning and speaking English and evaluating the speaking abilities of students. On the other hand, the second study is focused on how students interact differently within drama activities compared to regular classes. After describing each study, both studies will be compared and discussed focusing on the effectiveness of using drama activities in ELT.

2. Literature review

2.1 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative Language Teaching, or the communicative approach, developed in the mid-1970's based on the social-interactionist theory which emphasizes the social nature of language learning and interaction. The goal is to enable students to communicate in the target language. Many textbooks based on the communicative approach use a structural syllabus, often organized by linked topics and language functions (Brewster et al., 2003). According to Littlewood (1981), one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view.

The teacher facilitates communication in the classroom. In this role, one of the responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Although there are many different versions of how to create communicative experiences for L2 learners, they are all based on a belief that the functions of language should be emphasized rather than the forms of the language (Yule, 2006). Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times, fluency may have to take on more importance in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use (Brown, 2001). In short, the essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication in order to allow them to develop their communicative competence (Savignon, 2001).

2.2 CLT and second language learning

Communicative activities refer to the techniques which are employed in the communicative method in language teaching (Wan, 1990). Littlewood (1981) differentiated communicative activities from pre-communicative activities, which aim to equip the learner with some of the skills required for communication, without actually requiring him to perform communicative acts. Ellis (1999) proposes two sets of cognitive processes contributing to a learner's second language development (SLD): primary processes and secondary processes. The first developmental route is likely to be found in naturalistic L2 learning and leads to knowledge of a non-analytical type, and secondary processes contribute directly to analytic L2 knowledge. Drama provides learners with a very effective environment to develop their L2 through the route involving primary processes. Primary processes and secondary processes could be related to Rivers' (1972) differentiation of skill-getting and skill-using activities.

Rivers (1972) proposes methodological distinction between skill-getting and skill-using activities. Through skill-getting activities, the teacher isolates specific elements of knowledge or skills that compose communicative ability, and provides the learners with opportunities to practice them separately. Thus, the learners are being trained in separate steps of communication skills rather than practicing the total amount of skills to be acquired. In the skill-using stage, the learner should be on her own and not supported or directed by the teacher.

2.3 Effectiveness of the drama approach

2.3.1 Drama in second or foreign language learning

The value of drama in language education stems from the opportunities it provides for students to express themselves in English for a meaningful purpose, going beyond vocabulary and grammar (Dodson, 2002). A great many studies show that drama develops thinking, oral language, reading, and writing (Wagner, 1988). Wessels (1987) listed the potential benefits of drama in language teaching as follows: the acquisition of meaningful, fluent interaction in the target language, the assimilation of a whole range of pronunciation and prosodic features in a fully contextualized and interactional manner, the fully contextualized acquisition of new vocabulary and structure and an improved sense of confidence in the student in his or her ability to learn the target language.

Since, as addressed by Wessels (1987), drama can generate a need to speak by focusing

the attention of the learners on creating a drama, dialogue, or role play, or solving a problem where learners have to be active participants, using their imagination and interaction communication skills in the foreign language. Conversation in drama is not completely controlled by the teacher—an advantage in comparison to the teacher-student interaction in more traditional pedagogical tasks, no single participant is dominant in the activity. As a result, drama is less likely to produce restricted language in the classroom (Kao & O'Neill, 1998). According to Byrne (1991), there are a few dramatized activities that can be used for language learning purposes. Some of these activities like structured role play, scripted role play, and scripted play seemed to provide learners with opportunities to memorize chunks of language through repeated practicing.

Holden (1981) defined drama as any activity which asks the participant to portray himself in an imaginary situation or to portray another person in an imaginary situation. Thus, drama in education puts an emphasis on the immediacy and informality of improvised activities rather than on the quality of performance (Kao & O'Neill, 1998). As Maley and Duff (1978) noted, drama is motivating since nobody can predict what exactly will be thrown up in the way of ideas working through drama and enjoyment comes from imaginative personal involvement. They also mentioned that the problem of not wanting to speak or, more often, not knowing what to say is practically resolved because the activity makes it necessary to talk. In addition, the drama activities give students an opportunity to strike a balance between fluency and accuracy.

2.3.2 Role plays in second or foreign language learning

Role-play is one of the ways that can ease students' transition into using English in real world situations. Byrne (1986) defined role play as the activity in which the participants interact either as themselves in imaginary situations or as other people in imaginary situations. Byrne said that like other dramatic activities, role play involves an element of 'let's pretend'. It is make believe and to take part, the learners have to imagine they are somewhere other than the classroom on an imaginative level. It also provides opportunities for the learners to develop fluency skills: to use language freely because it offers an element of choice, to use language purposefully because there is something to be done and to use language creatively because it calls for imagination.

Role plays are interesting, memorable and engaging, and students retain the material they have learned. In their assumed role, students drop their shyness and other personality and

cultural inhibitions making them one of the best tools available for teaching a second language (Stocker, 2005). In addition, role play is one of a wide range of communicative techniques involving student-student interaction that is used in the second language classroom. It is a task-based rather than form-based activity that in turn shapes a context and simulates S-S interaction by providing a purpose or motivation to speak through a series of related cues (Hull, 1992).

2.3.3 Different types of role plays and two settings

Kang (2008) displays four types of role play activities for children: scripted role-plays open-ended, situational, and mapped role play. First, students have to act as a role in the script and use the language in the scripted role-play. It is useful for beginners and intermediate level. Second, in an open-ended role play, only some parts of a script are left for the learners to create a new story and to use language with their own choice. It is used for bridging between pre-communicative and communicative tasks. Thus, this role play enables learners to internalize the language they learned from the pre-communicative activities. Thirdly, in this role play, there is no dialogue to use. Only a situation is given. Finally, in a mapped role play, students have to use a few maps of situations. Students play roles according to the situation from maps and choose their own language to use for the situations. The map could be either picture or written maps.

In the role play, there are two types of settings: the emotional setting and the physical setting. Maley & Duff (1978) define emotional settings as the emotions including personality, mood, role and status between the speakers. They also define physical settings as the places in which the conversation actually takes place. Kang (2008) said that these settings can make role play more creative and interesting to the students than doing role plays by merely memorizing the given dialogue in the textbook.

2.4 Meaningful interaction in the classroom

2.4.1 Meaningful interaction

Learners learn language through meaningful interaction in which they could negotiate meaning. According to Vygotsky (1978), children negotiate meaning through scaffolded interaction when they could have supportive feedback from the more skilled person.

Activities containing more negotiable roles, promoting students participation, and emphasizing communication fluency over accuracy are more likely to create opportunities for the teacher and students to talk naturally and communicatively. Therefore more 'natural' discourse will be generated in the classroom (Kao & O'Neill, 1998).

2.4.2 The role of interaction in children's development

Based on the theories of Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1983), the one thing to make the most impact on children's second/foreign language learning is the role of scaffolded interaction. In Vygotsky's (1978) view, the child progresses to a more advanced stage when s/he is able to carry out alone certain tasks for which, in the previous stage, s/he would have needed the help of an adult (or 'more capable peer') to perform successfully (Mattos, 2000). Bruner's 'scaffolding' describes the sort of help the child gets from the adult when s/he is not able to perform the task. These ideas imply that the role of teachers and instruction are important in children's development. Also from this, the role of interaction has been emphasized since to give or to have scaffolding help in the ZPD, the tool for this transfer knowledge is language. In order to help others or being helped by others the learners have to transfer the meaning using language, and while doing this, the interlocutors negotiate meaning through adjusting meaning and modifying language.

Meaningful interaction also plays an important role in MD's theory. She believes a child develops language and understands words through making sense of the situation in which language is used meaningfully. A child, through the opportunities of producing the language, tests out his/her own interpretation of the situation and from which he/she could internalize his/her hypotheses. The concepts above were originally developed by researchers who investigated the linguistic and cognitive development of very young children through one to one conversations with a parent or adult care-giver. Hence it is expected that there would be difficulty in creating a similar intimacy and careful linguistic development in the classroom situation between teacher and pupil. This implies that classroom task and group work needs to be carefully planned so that teachers and pupils can create contextualized and meaningful conversations.

2.5 Meaningful interaction in the drama activity

2.5.1 Meaningful interaction in the situational drama activity

Situational role-play provides participants opportunities for taking on pre-determined roles

with particular attitudes and values in straightforward social situations. That is to say, the participants interact either as themselves or in imaginary situations or as other people in imaginary situations. The teacher chooses a situation through which he/she can present specific vocabulary in a situation and students practice language structures or reinforce previous learning. Unlike the scripted role-play, it does not have any pre-written script; instead, the participants are given a detailed description of the situation. The situations are usually realistic in terms of the culture of the target language.

The interactive quality of the exercise can be enhanced if the situation is detailed in context with some degree of tension involved though the roles and language registers are strictly limited by the confines of the exercise. Students adopt different attitudes and qualities, and release themselves from the concern with accuracy of their performance by taking on fictional roles. As the levels of fictional roles are complicated, more fluency and confidence is required.

While connecting the English literature to the situational drama activity in the high school classroom, McQueen (1996) states that her students claimed that the implications seemed much more serious after participating in such an event than when the story was simply read and discussed. The situational drama helped them connect with the literature and internalize it rather than trudge it for a journal grade.

2.5.2 Meaningful interaction in the debating drama activity

The debating drama activity enables learners to learn about a hot and interesting but very critical issue in terms of different people's points of view. The participants do not have to solve the problem. However, they have to debate with the people with different view of one issue. While debating on an issue, the participants can extend their knowledge of the issue in the four skills: speaking, reading, listening and writing.

From the above point, a great many studies show that drama develops thinking oral language, reading, and writing. Six of these respected studies show that drama improves students' cognitive growth, as reflected in language skills, problem-solving ability and I.Q. Moreover, the changes are lasting. Several studies show that drama also improves role taking which is the comprehending and correctly inferring attributes of another person. These inferences, which include another's thinking, attitudes and emotions, are a function of cognitive perception (Bräuer, 2002, p. 6).

Bräuer states that drama improves oral language as well as thinking considering twenty-

five quasi-experimental or co-relational studies out of thirty-two based on the effects of drama on oral language development (2002, p. 6).

2.6 Four types of interaction analysis

There are four types of interaction analysis: topic management, self-selection, allocation and sequencing. Kao & O'Neil (1998) states that sociolinguist Leo van Lier's notion of classroom interaction provides a comprehensive starting point for conducting research into the nature of teacher-student interaction. According to van Lier, the most critical feature while analyzing classroom discourse is to examine how speakers take turns in a conversation, because turn taking reveals the level of individual speaker's involvement in the interaction (p. 51).

The coding system used for classroom interaction analysis was originally developed by van Lier (1988) based on the notion of turn taking and turn initiative in communication. Raw data were first transcribed, based on turns exchanged between speakers. Each turn part was then classified according to its initiative elements. As van Lier has identified, initiative in communication can be shown in four ways:

- A. Topic management: The current turn introduces something new or denies a request of a prior turn.
- B. Self-selection: One speaker decides to speak without being forced.
- C. Allocation: The current speaker appoints the speaker of the next turn, content to be talked about or activity to be performed.
- D. Sequencing: The current turn is the opening or closing part of a sequence of turns.

A turn part was given a mark if its nature was consistent with any of the four categories described in this coding system. Therefore, a turn may receive more than one mark. According to Kao & O'Neil (1998), van Lier suggests that the equal-rights status of natural conversation creates some rules accepted by participants in a conversation. For example, the current speaker may select the next speaker, and the next speaker may decide to speak when certain signals are given by the current speaker to indicate his willingness to yield the floor. Once the commonly accepted rules are violated, the conversation may be broken or carried on under an asymmetric condition (p. 51).

A carefully defined classification is needed for this kind of analysis. The central goal of constructing such a classification is to identify participants' "initiative." Initiative is recognized when speakers select or allocate a turn. It is important for the researcher to distinguish whether a particular student's contribution is initiated by him/herself or is mainly

a response to the teacher's utterance. Initiative is also reflected in the ways one topic is maintained and/ or shifted from one to another during the exchanges. For example, switching the current topic to something else means having control in the conversation, talking about topics established by previous speakers is mainly to support and to maintain the interaction.

In this study, the four types of interaction analysis such as topic management, self-selection, allocation and sequencing are used as a crucial tool to analyze the turn taking and turn initiative.

3. Methodology

3.1 Describe article – 1

3.1.1 Topic

The effects of drama activities on developing speaking skills in elementary EFL classroom in Korea

3.1.2 Purpose

The researcher intended to implement drama-based English Language Teaching (ELT) in public elementary regular classes in order to see how it effects on developing students' speaking skills and their attitudes toward learning English.

3.1.3 Methodology

3.1.3.1 Research questions

The researcher presents two research questions as follow:

- (1) Do drama activities in the EFL context contribute to developing students' speaking skills development?
- (2) Do drama activities in the EFL context have a positive influence on students' attitude toward English learning and motivation?

3.1.3.2 Subjects and background of the study

The participants are 5th graders in a public elementary school, Seoul, Korea. The total number of students is 28 with 16 boys and 12 girls. Students the researcher mentioned had English

proficiency levels not high compared to other areas in Seoul because of the location of the school but did not give specific evidence or descriptions.

Along with the experiment class presented above, another class was chosen for this study as a control class. In the control class, there are 29 students, 16 boys and 13 girls. All students in both classes have learned English from 3rd grade in school and some of them have learned English before 3rd grade from private tutoring. However, there are no students who have lived in English speaking countries. English was taught once a week for 3rd and 4th graders as a regular class. In this year, students have had two hours of English class per week.

3.1.3.3 Methods of research

Survey

Pre-surveys and post-surveys were taken to all participants to see the changes of students' perceptions toward English learning and speaking. In addition, the result of surveys was used to compare the differences between experimental and control groups. Students expressed their feelings about learning English in school, speaking in English, doing role-plays, etc. They also answered the questions asking the effect of using textbook role-plays and other role-plays that were done within this study. All surveys explained in both English and Korean and students were allowed to answer in Korean.

Role-plays

There are eight lessons for one semester in the 5th grader textbook. All lessons involve role-taking activity in their fourth period. The researcher used modified lesson plans for both control and experimental class for periods one to three.

In the fourth period, the researcher used the textbook role-play activities for the control group. In the case of the control group, students were asked to memorize the scripts as listening and repeating the dialogue. They practiced the language but did not take certain roles.

Table 1

Organization of modified teaching (□□□, 2008)

Period	Experiment group	Control group
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (Simple TPR activities) • Look and listen to the main dialogue • Repeat and shadowing the main dialogue • Word search or crossword puzzle / Word bingo game 	

2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review- repeat and read the main dialogue • Listen and speak dialogue A, B (shorter than the main dialogue) • Sing or Chant • Read learned words • (Game – Snowball, I am ground...) 	
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review – Sing or Chant • Write alphabet letters or words • Game - board game, rand rush, riddles, omok... • Review lesson unit 	
4	• Role play	• Role-taking practices / Activity (Survey, Drawing...)

Unlike the control group, for the experimental group, there were three different types of role-plays: scripted role play, open-ended role play and situational role play were implemented orderly. Table 1 shows specific role-play for each unit. The scripts and situations for all role-plays were chosen by the researcher according to the functions and expressions of each unit.

Table 2

Organization of role-play lessons for experiment group (□□□, 2008, Table 3.7)

Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 5	Unit 6	Unit 7	Unit 8
Scripted Role play		Open-ended role play		Situational Role Play	

In unit 3, the researcher wrote a dialogue for two characters, but specific information was not mentioned clearly to students expecting students to realize how different contexts affect conversations. In unit 4, 5 and 6, the researcher prepared open-ended scripts and asked students to complete the end of the script. For unit 7 and 8, the researcher created situations considering both students' interest and key expression that students might be able to use in those contexts.

During the role plays, the researcher used both English and Korean and students were allowed to use Korean for preparation of role plays. In general, the first 10 minutes of each lesson was spent for introducing scripts or situations and reviewing expressions. Next 15 to 20 minutes, students practiced and did rehearsal role plays. After doing role play, students reflected their performances and exchanged comments with others.

The post-test was conducted to both control and experiment groups to see the experiment results. Mapped role play used for the type of test was a new activity for both groups and it was started after finishing unit 8. In the mapped role play, seven connected situations were

designed using characters from ‘Shrek 3’. All situations were created based on the essential communicative functions and expressions of each unit. One lesson plan is described in table 3 below.

Table 3

Lesson plans for post-test, mapped role play (□□□, 2008)

Objectives	Students will be able to use communicative functions for past 8 lessons doing role-plays.
Materials	Situation cards, Scripts, props, camera
Situations to be used	<p>Shrek 3</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Shrek and Fiona invited Fiona’s friend, sleeping beauty to their house. 2. Sleeping beauty visited their house on a wrong day. 3. Shrek and Fiona hurriedly cleaned their house while sleeping beauty suddenly fell asleep. 4. Sleeping beauty awaked and they decided to go on a picnic to the wood. 5. Sleeping beauty wanted to go to a bathroom first. 6. She did not come back after few minutes past. 7. Fiona went to bathroom but sleeping beauty was not there. Shrek and Fiona went outside to find her. 8. Create ending for yourselves.
Procedures	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Activating schema & Introducing the map 2. Brainstorming & Reviewing language 3. Assigning a task 4. Choosing and creating roles & Making a script 5. Practice 6. Memorizing & Adding gestures 2.7 Rehearsals & Preparing props 2.8 Doing a role-play
Evaluation	Record students’ performances and analyze their interactions.

The first step included activating students’ schema by showing pictures of characters and situations, then sharing the information of the story by looking at mapped situations that the teacher created. Each situation in the mapped role-play is corresponded to the textbook unit’s

communicative function. Through the procedure of sharing the mapped situations, students can consider the language they are going to use for each scene based on what they learned. Next, students make a group of four and create settings, stories and write scripts for a role-play. Then they choose their own characters and practice their roles as a group.

Doing mapped role-play is unfamiliar with both groups so the researcher explained in both English and Korean. Students were also allowed to speak in Korean in the preparation stage of the role-play.

3.1.3.4 Data analysis

For surveys, after collecting students' survey sheets, the researcher got the statistics of each question. Surveys were used to see experiment group's change of perceptions toward English learning and speaking through participating role-plays. Additionally, control and experiment group's evaluation of role-play lessons were compared.

About the role-plays, students' written scripts were collected and used as data for evaluation improvements. Also, the researcher observed students' participation in the role-plays. Lastly, for post-test, mapped role-play, videotaping and criteria were used to compare the performance of control and experiment groups' students. The criteria were developed based on The ACTFL OPIc, MATE (Multi-media Assisted Test of English), SST (Standard Speaking Test) and a prior research (Kouichi, 2003).

Table 4 *Post-test evaluation criteria* (김서진, 2008)

	Criteria	Definition
1	Task completion	Sustenance of role play
2	Function	Appropriateness, relevance of speech
3	Pronunciation	Understandability and acceptability of speech
4	Language control	Fluency & Accuracy

For the first three categories, five scales (excellent:5 / very good:4 / good:3 / so-so:2 / poor:1) measurements were applied. To measure the first one, task completion, the researcher analyzed whether the role-play follow the flow of the story line of the map or not. For the second criteria, the researcher checked the dialogues were appropriate to the situations. The third criteria, pronunciation is to see whether students' role-plays were audible or understandable or not.

Lastly, language control is about checking fluency and accuracy of students' utterances. The part of fluency is calculated using following formula; the total number of words spoken – the number of silent pauses for thinking. In case of accuracy, it is calculated as; total number of words spoken / (the number of grammatical errors + the number of vocabulary errors + 1). Unlike first three criteria, in language control, the greater number means better performance and there is no limitation of scores.

3.1.3.5 Results

Results of survey

Two pre-surveys are asking about preference of learning English, speaking English and experience of doing role-plays. Before the experiment, there were no significant differences between the two groups about the attitude of learning English and speaking English. About asking experience of role-plays, less than half of the students of experiment group had experience of doing role-plays in school (39.3%) and most students, who had the experience of doing role-play, were just memorizing given dialogs (72.2%). In contrast, in control group, only 14 percent of students had doing role-plays in English class.

Three kinds of post surveys were conducted to students. One is for both control and experimental groups and the others are only for students in experimental group. For first post survey students answered about the preference of doing role-plays, speaking English and their favorite activities. Both groups had positive attitudes to doing role-play but not for speaking English. Only the students in the experiment group show the increase of positive emotions of speaking English comparing to the previous survey. Additionally, the experimental group chose role-play as their favorite activities. It is also unusual in that results usually show students favoring games most. From the other two surveys, they showed students in the experimental group enjoyed role-plays, especially mapped role-play. They also answered they liked role-plays that they did last semester.

Results of role-plays

Even though there were no significant differences between two groups, but as time goes on the researcher could observe that students in the experimental group more actively participated in English class.

Results of post-test; mapped role-play

Post-test (mapped role play) was transcribed and analyzed according to the four criteria; task completion, function, pronunciation and language control. The mean scores of post-test are described in table 5 below.

Table 5 *Mean scores for post-test* (김서진, 2008)

Criteria Group	Task completion	Function	Pronunciation	Language control	
				Fluency	Accuracy
Experiment group	3.6	3	3.7	52.7	10
Control group	2.3	2.4	2.3	44.1	6.1

For task completion, the experiment group showed higher scores and there was no sharp discrepancy in abilities between groups. In contrast, in the control group, the gap between groups was bigger. Regarding the function, the experimental group got higher scores than the control group but it is not very salient. As in the case of pronunciation, the experimental group led by 1.4 points and similar to the task completion results. Lastly, in language control, the experiment group obtained higher scores than the control group. To be specific, the experiment group had 7.6 points and 3.9 points more in the criteria of fluency and accuracy respectively. In addition, there are huge discrepancies between groups in the control class compared to the experiment group and got almost twice the mean score in accuracy.

4. Discussion and results

4.1 Discussion of findings

The results of the study showed a close relationship between adopting drama activities and developing speaking abilities. At the same time, the results of each study presented the ways to go for developing students' oral competence and proficiency. According to Maley & Duff (1978), the problem of not wanting to speak or, more often, not knowing what to say is practically resolved in drama activities because drama makes people need to talk. The above statement was clearly shown from the interaction analysis in the second study. Unlike regular classes, within the drama activities, the participants interacted differently. They were likely to start or introduce new topics with their own will and it naturally made them participate more in classroom interaction. In addition, Maley & Duff (1978) mentioned that the drama activities gave students an opportunity to strike a balance between fluency and accuracy as well. It was also proven from the results of speaking proficiency conducted by the first

researcher. The experimental group showed significantly higher language control numbers regarding fluency and accuracy compared to the control group. When considering the only difference between two groups was using drama activities or not, adopting drama activities is a crucial factor that affects the balanced development of students' fluency and accuracy in language learning.

4.2 Results

Wagner (1998) mentioned, drama is powerful because of its unique balance of thought and feeling makes learning exciting, challenging, relevant to real-life concerns, and enjoyable. As considering the participants for both studies showed significant results not only for oral proficiency but also for positive attitudes toward learning English, accepting drama as a powerful tool of language learning is not very difficult. However, using drama activities only one or two times in a semester seems not very helpful to students' language learning. It showed from the control group's performance in the first study. The results showed the students of the control group who participated to the mapped role-play did not show both positive feelings of speaking English and enhanced speaking proficiency compared to the experiment group. It means that using drama activity as an once a year event is not an effective way to learn English but just an event. In this view, educators and teachers need to take drama activities more seriously as an everyday activity that can be always used without extra pressure.

Besides drama activities make learning exciting, challenging, relevant to real-life concerns, and enjoyable (Wagner, 1998), under drama activities students can be the owners of the activities. About this, Kao & O'Neil (1998) said since the dramatic situations are under the control of the entire group and not the teacher alone, students develop a kind of ownership toward the activity. When students feel they are taking important roles within class, they tend to become more active learners and it also works in English classroom. As mentioned before in the discussion of finding, the increasing numbers of turn taking, topic management and sequencing of students all showed the change of students' way of participation within drama contexts. Without any forces from the outside, students chose to become active participants because they felt they were doing important things within drama activities. Motivation is one of the key factors that decide the success of learning of students. In this view, how to use drama activities as a tool of motivating individual students should be

seriously studied by educators and teachers for being a better language facilitator or guidance for students.

Even though there are a lot of advantages using drama activities, there are also some limitations conducting drama activities in a real language classroom. First of all, to use drama as an everyday activity in a language classroom, teachers' special preparations such as reading relative journals or books and designing drama based lesson plans are needed. Only self-preparations about drama activities can reduce the vague fear of using drama in class. However, many teachers or educators delay or avoid starting the project of conducting drama and it is not only about the adults. In a similar vein, some introvert students are reluctant to participate in drama activities. Nevertheless, the limitations are also possible to overcome by the will of teachers and students. As a language educator, it is the time for choosing better activities for our students' success in learning English.

5. Conclusion

As mentioned before, in EFL situations, using drama activities is not an optional but an essential issue. About this, Dodson (2002) mentioned, using drama is valuable in language education because it makes students express themselves and it is a significant factor as considering intrinsic motivation can determine the success of learning English. Stocker (2005) also stated drama is the best tool for teaching a second language because it lets students to drop their shyness and other personality traits that hinder language learning.

The evidence that support the importance of using drama is also found from the two theses in this research. In this research, the relevance between using drama activities and various factors such as general attitude of learning and speaking English, speaking abilities and interaction types were observed. The results of the theses showed adopting drama activities enhanced students' oral abilities and also made them active interlocutors.

As one of the many language teachers in Korea, I know how hard being a confident English speaker can be within this context. Just spending a lot of time with mechanical practices cannot be an ideal way to being a fluent English speaker. Students need situations that are connected to real-life concerns (Wagner, 1998) to make them real users not just learners of English. In EFL context, the classroom using drama activities is not a real world but at least it can be a similar place with real world situation. In this view, using various types of drama activities in ELT seems an effective way to make students use English with more authentic purposes comparing to traditional language classes. That is why teachers and

educators need to study about drama activities and be masters of using them as their everyday activities. Unless teachers feel comfortable and excited using drama activities, positive results of students through drama cannot be expected.



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Evaluating the Reading Program at SLP

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TESOL 1st Semester

This study evaluates a reading program at SLP (Sogang Language Program at Suwon institute). It examines the present situation of the reading program containing three parts which are the English library, teachers' reading activities in class, and SORI (Sogang Online Reading Inventory). The purpose of this evaluation is to decide what modifications or changes should be made to improve the program. The methods for this evaluation in the study include classroom observation, teachers' interview, student questionnaires, and parent interviews. The findings show that students' performance and productivity from the reading lesson needed to be improved and students need more opportunities to practice reading and improve their ability. At the same time, the findings state some weaknesses which need to be improved for the reading program. The results also present that SLP students are unhappy with the reading program. At the end of the paper, sample instruments are presented.

1. Introduction

Reading is not a passive skill. It requires frequent practice exercise. According to Rauch and Weinstein (1968), "Reading improvement is possible and probable provided you work at it". To be an effective reader, one should make a logical link between the language of the book and his mental perception. Therefore, the language should suit the level and perception of the reader and, "should enable a student to enter inner worlds which become real to the perceiver (Rolaff, 1973)." Reading activity has a significant place in ELT as it is very important for higher education (Haque, 2006). Reading programs, therefore, need to be evaluated with special attention from the experts and professionals for a meaningful higher education in private English institutes in order to survive in a very competitive situation. The importance of reading ability in English has reached new heights in the present context of a globalized world but the question is: how far are the students in SLP prepared for it? Many students in the SLP inspired or guided by teachers sometimes try to read English books but soon lose their eagerness and interest with a constant barrier while doing so.

For this reason, this evaluation would examine the effectiveness of the reading program at SLP for the improvement of student reading ability and its implementation in the academic setting of SLP. It seeks to outline the problems that students face in the reading program. It makes recommendations to better overcome the problems of the reading program as well. It is important to examine the current reading program at SLP so that the result can

help us bring about significant changes in reading pedagogy in SLP. For meaningful education, it is very important to improve the level of reading proficiency of learners in English. It is equally important to examine the present implementation of the reading program, to identify the problems and address those to improve the overall situation in SLP. To improve the reading program, some instruments must be taken to identify the problems, address them, and improve the reading program. This evaluation is an attempt to do so. Therefore, the evaluation will be of great significance and interest for all stakeholders as a whole. Accordingly, the evaluation questions are the following:

- 1) How is the SLP reading program implemented to meet main stakeholders' (students, parents, and teachers) satisfaction?
- 2) What recommendations for improvement of the program must be considered?

2.Context

2.1 General Overview of the Reading Program

The context of the reading program is the SLP (Sogang Language Program) language institute in Suwon. The name of the reading program is SORI (Sogang Online Reading Inventory) including an English library at SLP and teachers' reading activities in class. The Online Reading Inventory is available at www.eduslp.ac.kr (a quiz is provided for each book). About 2,000 books are placed for students in SLP library (more than 200 books according to each level – level 1 to 9). Writing book reports and presentations are performed as reading activities with Korean teachers and foreign teachers in class. The range of the students are preschool (at age 5~7), elementary (1st~6th graders), and middle school (1st~3rd graders). A wide of levels are covered from beginner to superior. The stakeholders of this reading program are institute administrators (4 people), teachers (10 Koreans / 8 foreign teachers), students (about 480 students), and parents.

2.2 The Nature of the Student Body

Students at SLP are composed of kindergarten (5 to 7 years old), elementary (8~13 years old), and middle school (14~16 years old) students. All kindergarten students start the class at 9 a.m. and end at 2 p.m. Elementary students can take one of three kinds of classes according to

their level and time convenience (everyday / Monday-Wednesday-Friday / Tuesday-Thursdayclasses). Middle school students can take only Tuesday-Thursday classes. Class hours for elementary students are 80 minutes and for middle school students is 100 minutes. A foreign teacher takes care of half of the class and a Korean teacher is in charge of the rest of the class. Every student at SLP is taught every skill (speaking, reading, listening, and writing) in English and encouraged to speak only English in class and outside of the class at SLP as well.

2.3 Faculty information and practices

Two teachers (one Korean / one foreign teacher) teach every class in charge of half of the class hour. Korean teachers teach grammar and reading while foreign teachers teach speaking, listening, and writing. In relation to the reading program, Korean teachers put a check chart (the progress of the book reading) on the wall in the classroom to check how many books students read books per month and promote them to read more books. Korean teachers also conduct students' presentation based on their book report as a speaking performance twice a month. Foreign teachers guide students to write a book report during his class and students submit the completed one to the foreign teacher twice a month.

2.4 The Characteristics of the Reading Program

The reading program (SORI) gives missions and activities in each stage of pre-reading, while reading, and post-reading to maximize the learning effect of reading. Table 2.1 illustrates the characteristics of the reading program (SORI).

Table 1

The characteristics of the reading program

Characteristics	Description
Nine stages of leveled learning	Subdivided learning into 9 stages for those who are starting English from the stage of beginning level to the highest stage for excellent students who have more than five years of experience learning English
Application of the three stages of reading methodology	Three stage activities of the pre-reading stage (prerequisite experiences, knowledge confirmation, and story prediction), the while-reading stage (storytelling, reading aloud, independent reading), and the post-reading stage (story comprehension and

	reinforcement).
Management of efficient background reading	LMS (Learning Management System) manages the list of books on loan and manages the learning outcome, learning time, and progress percentage of vocabulary awareness, content comprehension, and concept awareness.

2.5 The Aims of the Reading Program

The reading program (SORI) develops the acquisition in self-initiated reading with an English reading program to maximize the learning effect of reading. Table 1 represents the aims of the reading program.

Table 2

The aims of the reading program

1. To improve the integrated learning abilities of every domain – such as reading, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, etc. – through subdivided learning into nine stages.
2. To reform into successful reading learners with a combination of various forms of knowledge and English abilities through the 3-stage activities of the pre-reading, the while reading, and the post-reading.
3. To individually customize reading guidance fitting to the characteristics and competence of individuals by LMS (Learning Management System).

2.6 Management Structures and Practices

Every student makes a library card for borrowing books at SLP library and is assigned their reading level through the replacement test and counseling implemented by a supervisor. Once students borrow books, they have to return the books within two weeks. After reading books, students log into the homepage (www.eduslp.ac.kr) and answer the quiz. Students who get more than 70% of the quiz can pass and finally they can get a dollar as a reward (students use the dollars on the event day to buy some stationery) when they return the book. Those who don't get more than 70% of the quiz should try again. Table 2 shows the procedures of the reading program.

Table 3

The procedures of the reading program

1. Make a library card and borrow a book in the right section of the student's level at the

SLP library.

2. Check out the book at the desk.
 3. Read the book and log in the homepage (www.eduslp.ac.kr) to solve the quiz.
 4. After passing the quiz (should get more than 70%), return the book and get a dollar.
-

3. Scope and Aims of the Evaluation

The purpose of this evaluation is to take a comprehensive, unbiased and cooperative look at the reading program and to decide what modifications or changes (if any) should be made to improve the program for each stakeholder (institute administrators, teachers, students, and parents) to be satisfied. Since the reading program contains three parts, (SORI program, the use of an English library at SLP, and teachers' reading activities in class) all of the parts should be considered to be evaluated. Evaluation involves value judgments. It is not a carefully controlled research study. Recommendations for improvement of the program must consider not only what should be done but also what can be done. Table 3.1 illustrates specific aims of the evaluation.

Table 4

The aims of the evaluation

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|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To examine the reading lesson quality, teacher's reading activities and the students' behavior in the class. 2. To ascertain teachers' views on the reading program, detailing suggestions to improve the program. 3. To examine the problems students face and suggestions about the reading program. 4. To obtain parents' view of the reading program based on their child's reading progress |
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4. Evaluation Design

The evaluator (myself) met the administrators and head teachers prior to the actual evaluation to explain the purposes and procedures, and to answer any questions. The evaluation was conducted for one month (during May, 2013). It was important that the anxieties of teachers (particularly as to classroom observations) be allayed. The evaluation concentrates on the reading program not on evaluating individual teachers. Names or ratings of teachers are not to appear in the final report. The purpose of the evaluation is based on the constructivist perspective in terms of subjective experience (i.e., to make recommendations for

improvement) rather than the objective outcomes. Labeled Fourth Generation Evaluation by its principal proponents, Guba and Lincoln (1989), it is rooted in the qualitative, interpretive research paradigm and in a postmodernist perspective on hierarchy and power distribution in social organizations. It is not a criticism of individual teachers, though strengths and weaknesses of reading practices will be listed. If the evaluation is to be successful, it must have the confidence and cooperation of all concerned. Table 4 presents a summary of the evaluation design.

Table 5

Summary of the evaluation design

Aims of the Evaluation	Target Sample	Instrument & Components
1. To examine the teacher's One class reading activities, the (intermediate level) students' behavior and the reading lesson quality- Classroom management & - Rapport between teacher and students <For students>: - Motivation & Interests - Participation - Reading Performance <For the reading lesson quality>:	Classroom Observation <For teachers>: - Definite goal & Speech clarity - Appropriate material	- Basal Reading Program & Organization - Sequencing & Study habits - Supplementary Materials
2. To ascertain teachers' views on the reading program, detailing suggestions to improve the program datations of the program	2 teachers from the selected class Teachers' interview weaknesses, and recommen-	- Focus on the strengths,
3. To examine the problems students face and suggestions about the reading programfor the program	allstudents from the selected class Students' questionnaire	- Problems and suggestions
4. To obtain parents' view of the reading program based on their the selected class child's reading progress weaknesses, and recommen- datations of the program	4 parents from the selected class Parents' interview (on the phone)	- Focus on the strengths,

5. Data Collection

For the qualitative and interpretative research, several sources of data were collected from major stakeholders: teachers, students, and parents. Consent forms were obtained from each informant as well, and all the data would be used under standard ethics guidelines. Data were collected in the following diverse formats for one month (May, 2013).

- 1) Classroom observation (Video-taped)
- 2) Personal interview (2 teachers, recorded)
- 3) Telephone interview (4 parents, recorded)
- 4) Questionnaires (all students from the selected class)

5.1 Classroom observation for teachers and students

Observing several classrooms from each different level will bring more objective validity but due to the temporal restriction and the inflexible working hours (since the evaluator is a teacher in this institute), an observation scheme has been prepared for one intermediate class. A large proportion of SLP students are at intermediate level, for this reason one of the intermediate classes was chosen as a representative group. The scheme used for the classroom observation consisted of three parts. The first part was to measure the reading lesson quality in terms of 'Basal reading program', 'Organization', 'Sequencing', 'Work and study habits', and 'Supplementary materials'. The second part was meant for collecting detailed description of the teacher's reading activities which were related to her own teaching techniques, experience and skills regarding various aspects of reading activities. The questions were also designed to observe how the teacher manages reading activities in the class, what materials and instruments she used, how successful they were in reading activity in the class. In addition to these, extra sheets of paper were used to note down the important aspects concerning classroom observation. The third part was to examine students' behavior in the reading activities in the classroom which were related to their motivation, participation,

and reading performance in the reading activities. The classroom observation was videotaped for a precise analysis by the consent of the teacher and students.

The result of the classroom observation was analyzed based on the “Characteristics of a Good Reading Lesson” as a guide (Rauch, S. J. 1968).

5.2 Interview with teachers and parents

The aim of this method was to capture the informants’ (teachers and parents) perspective on the program in their own words. It was conducted through personal interviews for two teachers and telephone interviews for four parents from the selected class (intermediate level). In the personal interview for teachers, the interviewer collected information by asking questions to the teacher personally. The telephone interview involved contacting parents over the telephone. The reason to have the telephone interview for parents was for the convenience of getting in contact with them. The parents often welcome talking about things that are related to their kids on the phone. The interviews were also recorded for the use of analysis with consent of the teachers and parents. Since there was a limited amount of time available for data gathering and the informants were available only at certain, limited times, the standardized open-ended interview (Patton, 1980, 1987) was used. Two teachers and four parents from the selected class were requested to answer a brief statement in response to these main questions: 1) What are the strengths of the program? 2) What are the weaknesses of the program? 3) What recommendations would you make to improve the program?

5.3 Questionnaires for students

Questionnaires were conducted by all students (12 students) from the selected class (intermediate). The questionnaires were made up in English taking students’ level into account and using Korean was also allowed to express their opinion if necessary. Since students are the main stakeholders of the reading program, it is a substantial factor to obtain their opinions to reflect for the reading program improvement. In the light of students’ time available and short concentration on a long procedure, a simple method was needed such as a short and solid questionnaire to gather information. In addition to this, questionnaires are a time-efficient means of gathering data from a large number of people. In order to maximize and generalize students’ opinion, the questionnaires should be conducted by a large number

of students but only 4 students out of 12 from the selected class completed and submitted the questionnaire paper. Since the time after the lesson was the only chance for the students to complete the questionnaire, many students were not available for their own reasons. All students from the selected class received the questionnaire paper consisting of three parts: 1) Satisfaction, problems, and suggestions about SLP library 2) Satisfaction, problems and suggestions about the SORI online program 3) Satisfaction, problems, and suggestions about the reading lesson. Because of the constraints mentioned above, only 4 students submitted the completed questionnaire paper anonymously to the evaluator.

6. Data Analysis

In consideration of a small scale evaluation, all the data (video-taped classroom observation, interviews for teachers and parents, and questionnaires for students) were analyzed by making a list of the common answers the evaluator has got from the teachers, parents, and students. The common answers were transformed into percentage or points to see the order of priority. Data analysis was carried out through a number of separate but interrelated steps. Results from each source track were carefully reviewed for fair interpretation while following the general qualitative evaluative approach. At the same time, different sources were triangulated to reach a fair interpretation for each item of data."

7. Research Findings and Implication

This section presents the results of the data analysis in terms of the classroom observation, interviews with teachers and parents, and questionnaires for students. It shows the present state of the reading program including the teachers' reading activities, SLP library system, and SORI online program.

7.1 Result of classroom observation

Table 7.1 presents the results of the classroom observation consists of three parts (Reading lesson quality, teacher's presentation, and students' performance) and each part has five components to be marked which are classified into 'Excellent', 'Good', 'Fair', 'Needs To Be Improved', and 'Very Poor' categories by using the following interpretation key:

Excellent:	20 points x5 = 100 points
Good:	15 points x5 = 75points
Fair:	10 points x5 = 50 points
Needs To Be Improved:	5 points x5 = 25 points
Very Poor:	0 points x5 = 0 points

Table 6*Results of the classroom observation*

Three parts of the classroom observation	Points of each category	Total points
Reading Lesson Quality	1. Basal reading program (Good) 2. Organization (Fair) 3. Sequencing (Fair) 4. Work and study habit (Needs to be improved) 5. Supplementary materials (Good)	55 points
Teacher's Presentation	1. Definite goal (Good) 2. Speech clarity (Needs to be improved) 3. Classroom management (Fair) 4. Knowledge of material (Fair) 5. Rapport between T and Ss (Fair)	50 points
Students' Performance	1. Motivated & Interested (Needs to be improved) 2. Comprehension (Needs to be improved) 3. Productively involved (Needs to be improved) 4. Balance of T and Ss' speech (Fair) 5. Opportunity to practice reading ability (Very poor)	25 points

The points of each part were calculated based on the "Checklist of a Good Reading Lesson" as a guide (Rauch, S. J. 1968). The results of the classroom observation were Reading Lesson Quality (55 points; Fair), Teacher's Presentation (50 points; Fair), and Students' Performance (25 points; Needs to be improved). The observation results showed a significant difference between those two parts ('Reading Lesson Quality / Teacher's Presentation') and 'Students' Performance'. Only one component of 'Reading Lesson Quality' and 'Teacher's Presentation' had 'Needs To Be Improved', on the other hand, three components of 'Needs To Be Improved' and one component of 'Very Poor' were marked in 'Students' Performance'. Thus a strong contrast between those two ('Reading Lesson Quality / Teacher's Presentation') and 'Students' Performance' was seen. The results of the classroom observation indicated that students' performance regarding students' motivation,

comprehension and productivity of the reading lesson needed to be improved and they needed more opportunities to practice reading ability as well. Due to the short evaluation period, the classroom observation was conducted only once. It was not enough to get much information as the evaluator planned by one time observation. To get over that kind of limitation, the evaluation scheme should have organized early before the actual evaluation with a long time evaluation period. Thus, more frequent classroom observations could happen to obtain meaningful information which can be considered for the future development. The evaluator wanted to get as much as information from one time classroom evaluation but it seemed to be overambitious. The evaluator instead, needed a more specific and solid observation structure that what aspects the evaluator especially intended to examine to get advantages of one time observation.

7.1.1 Results of the points noted down during classroom observation

The teacher tended to pursue student-centered class. She gave many opportunities for students to speak out by asking questions and elicited more ideas from students to be involved in the lesson. However, students' direct involvement was hardly seen in the class. They just answered what the teacher asked and there were no spontaneous questions by their own. The teacher tried to give an equal chance for all students to speak out. She asked students the procedure of the 'book presentation' which she just explained to check their comprehension. But her speaking of English seemed to be a little fast or hard to understand for students because students often didn't know the answer what the teacher just explained.

7.2 Results of interviews with teachers and parents

Since the standardized open-ended interview (discussed by Patton, 1980, 1987) was conducted, the collected information was easy to compare and identify the patterns across different informants (teachers and parents). By avoiding the differences that might result from an unstructured format with different questions, this standardized approach increased completeness and systematicity (Lynch, 1995). Still, to overcome the limitation of the standardized open-ended interview such as being less spontaneous and natural, the interview guide approach was slightly adopted by formulating the wording of the questions as well as the order for asking as the interview progresses. Table 7.2 shows the summary of the teachers'

and parents' interviews in terms of the strengths, weaknesses and recommendations of the reading program.

Table 7

The summary of the teachers' & parents' interviews

Three main points to be interviewed	Teachers' perspective (2 teachers)	Parents' perspective (4 parents)
100% = 2 Ts / 50% = 1 T answered	100% = 4 Ps / 75% = 3 Ps /	(T = Teacher, P = Parent)
50% = 2Ps / 25% = 1 P answered		
Strengths of the reading program	<SLP library>	<SLP library>
	- More chances for students to read English books (50%)	- It is good that a private English institute has an English library. (50%)
	- Competitive than other institutes which have no English libraries (50%)	- There are several levels for the English books (25%)
		- Easily available (25%)
	<SORI online program>	<SORI online program>
	- Can check Ss' comprehension (100%) understanding of the book (50%)	- Can check my kid's (50%)
		- Fun activities (25%)
	- Computer-based (my kid loves a computer) (25%)	
<Reading lesson>	<Reading lesson>	
reading books (25%)	- The lesson makes Ss keep kid to improve the reading ability (50%)	- The teacher can also help my (50%)
	- Good to know what to help (25%)	- Can help my kid's speaking & writing abilities as well (50%)
Weaknesses of the reading program	<SLP library>	<SLP library>
	- Inappropriate book levels for many Ss (50%)	- Long line to check out a book (75%)
	- Takes to long time to check out a book (50%)	- Lack of various books (24%)
	<SORI online program>	<SORI online program>
	- Requiring answers are often wrong (50%)	- Too difficult (50%)
	- Too difficult (50%)	- Frequent system error (25%)
		- Wrong answers are sometimes required (25%)
<Reading lesson>	<Reading lesson>	
	- Every teacher has different	- My kid hates writing a book

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| ways (50%) | report and doing a presentation |
| - Lack of knowledge of the reading activities (50%) | (50%) |
| | - boredom (25%) |

Recommendations of <SLP library><SLP library>

- | | |
|---|---|
| the reading program- Ss' book level is determined more carefully (50%) | - More teachers need to help for Ss to borrow books (75%) |
| - More desk teachers should be involved for checking out the books (50%) | - More interesting books are needed (25%) |

<SORI online program><SORI online program>

- | | |
|--|---|
| - Correction for wrong answers (50%) | - Need to be check the level of difficulty (50%) |
| - Composing of proper level of questions (50%) | - Need to be check the system for errors and mistakes (50%) |

<Reading lesson><Reading lesson>

- | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| - Need Ts' training (100%) | - Need more fun and various |
| reading activities (75%) | |
-

Total informants of teachers' interview: 2 teachers, 50% = 1 teacher, 100% = 2 teachers

Total informants of parents: 4 parents, 25% = 1 parent, 50% = 2 parents, 75% = 3 parents, 100% = 4 parents

The findings indicated that more than half of the teachers and parents were satisfied with the reading program. At the same time, they stated some weaknesses which needed to be improved for the reading program as well. Since this evaluation was mainly focused on what should be done and what can be done for the reading program improvement, the informants' (teachers and parents) recommendations were significantly important to consider with a careful thought. According to their interview responses, common weaknesses and recommendations were found. That was maybe because there has been a lot of interaction between SLP teachers and parents on the phone for regular counseling so that they have shared lots of common ideas for the reading program. SLP teachers and parents thought that it took too long time for students to check out the book (50% of teachers, 75% of parents) because there was only one desk teacher available for checking out books for students so that more teachers needed to be involved to help students to check out the books to make the time shorter. In regards to the SORI online program, teachers and parents both thought that the questions were too difficult for students (50% of teachers, 50% of parents) and there were some mistakes that requiring answers were wrong (50% of teachers, 25% of parents) which made students more confused. To solve these problems, they also had similar suggestions that

wrong answers and some mistakes needed to be fixed (50% of teachers, 50% of parents) and the difficult questions also needed to be checked (50% of teachers / 50% of parents) by reporting to headquarters.

A small percentage of parents (25%) mentioned that frequent system errors should be checked as well. In terms of the reading lesson, teachers and parents answered based on their own perspective. According to the teachers, every teacher has been teaching the reading lesson in different ways (50% of teachers) because they don't have sufficient knowledge about the reading activities (50% of teachers). Hence, they thought that there should be some training sessions for teachers (100% of teachers) to gain more information about the reading lesson. This is in contrast to how parents answered about the reading lesson which was based on their kids' reactions and emotions. Most parents conveyed that their kids felt bored in the reading lesson (25% of parents) and they tended to hate the reading activities such as writing a book report and doing a presentation (50% of parents). To enhance the reading lesson, parents asked for more fun and various reading activities (75% of parents). From those following findings stated above, we could reach a moderate solution that students might enjoy the various reading lessons by trained teachers who acquired high quality information.

7.3 Results of the questionnaire for students

Table 8 shows the results of the students' questionnaire consists of three parts (SLP library, SORI online program, and Reading lesson) of the reading program. Each part had five questions and they have been marked which were classified into 'Happy Face', 'So-so Face', and 'Unhappy Face' categories by using the following interpretation key:

Very Happy: More than 75% of the 'Happy Face'

So-so: 50% - 74% of the 'Happy Face'

Unhappy: 0% - 49% of the 'Happy Face'

Table 8

The results of the students' questionnaire

Three parts of the	Questions of the				Mean percentage of
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reading program	questionnaire	Very Happy	So-so	Unhappy	the 'Happy Face'
SLP Library	1. I enjoy reading English books	25%	75%	0%	
	2. I often borrow books at SLP library	50%	25%	25%	
	3. There are many interesting books	0%	25%	75%	
	4. It's easy to choose the right book	25%	50%	25%	
	5. I understand most of books at my level	50%		50%	
30%					
0%					
SORI Online	1. I enjoy the quiz at SORI online	25%	50%	25%	
	2. I always pass the quiz	25%	75%	0%	
	3. The quiz questions are very helpful to understand the book	25%	50%	25%	
	4. The quiz questions are easy	25%	50%	25%	
	5. The SORI system is easy to use	50%	25%	25%	
30%					
Reading Lesson	1. I enjoy the reading lesson	0%	25%	75%	
	2. I understand teacher's reading lesson well	25%	75%	0%	
	3. I improved my reading ability by the reading lesson	25%	75%	0%	
	4. I improved my writing ability by the reading lesson	25%	50%	25%	
	5. I improved my speaking ability by the reading lesson	25%	50%	25%	
25%					
Total informants: 4 students, 25% = 1 student, 50% = 2 students, 75% = 3 students, 100% = 4 students					

The results showed how much students were satisfied with the current reading program. According to the mean percentage of the 'Happy Face' for each part of the reading program, 30% of students were satisfied with SLP library and SORI online program. In addition, 25% of students were pleased with the reading lesson. The results indicated that only a small percent of students enjoyed the reading program. Let's look at the results using the interpretation key specified above; all three parts (SLP Library, SORI online, and Reading Lesson) of the mean percentage of the 'Happy Face' have been received below 49%. Thus, it could be interpreted that SLP students were unhappy with the reading program. To decide what modifications or changes should be made to improve the reading program for students, the evaluator (myself) must take a careful look at the

notable questions marked 0% at 'Very Happy' which could be the worst parts of the reading program.

The questions were: 3. There are not enough interesting books in the library (0% of the 'Happy Face'), 1. I enjoy the reading lesson (0% of the 'Happy Face'). These are the main points that SLP institute should consider to be changed for improvement. Moreover, students added their opinions by writing any problems they faced using the reading program in the open-ended question session of the questionnaire. Some common opinions were found; a. It takes too long time to borrow a book. b. It is sometimes stressful to be forced by my mom or teacher to use the reading program. From the opinion a. we could see that it had in common with the results of teachers and parents' interviews. They also thought that there should be more teachers for students to check out books to make the time shorter. In terms of the opinion b., it was also connected with the results of classroom observation and parents' interview in which students didn't enjoy the reading lesson and they felt bored. This could affect students to be stressed somehow. Before drawing an accurate conclusion especially based on the students' questionnaire, the evaluator should be aware of the characteristics of young informants. Thus, these questions need to be asked: Are they dependable enough? Are their answers reliable enough to be representative of all students as a whole?

8. Conclusion

The reading program which consists of SLP library, SORI online program, and the reading lesson has been evaluated to decide what modifications or changes should be made to improve the program for satisfying the main stakeholders (institute administrators, teachers, students, and parents). The evaluation was conducted in three main methods (classroom observation, interviews for teachers and parents, and questionnaire for students). The results of the evaluation showed that some modifications needed to be made in all parts of the reading program. For SLP library, it needed more interesting books and more teachers needed to be involved to help students in checking out books. In terms of the SORI online program, some mistakes and the level of questions should be checked for convenient use. In relation to the reading lesson, more fun and various reading activities should be used to enhance the quality of the reading lesson. Due to the short period of evaluation, there were plenty of constraints such as a small sample size, only one classroom observation, a few informants for interviews and questionnaires, and the method of analysis. Since value judgments were

involved, it was recommended that the evaluation should be conducted by more than two evaluators so that various points of view could be brought to the program. On the other hand, the evaluator (myself) has been working at this institute for more than four years so that there was a benefit to understand the program, design instruments and procedures with the benefit of these insights.

For the good use of the reading program, both an oral and written report of the findings are needed to present to the administrators, teacher representatives, and the SLP Institute. SLP Institute, if it wishes, can then hold an open meeting for parents reporting the results and questions can be asked of the evaluator. The evaluator should report what the strengths and weaknesses of the reading program had and what recommendations have been made through the evaluation. According to the results, what specific plans were made to improve the reading program should be illustrated in the open meeting. Copies of the written report should be made available to all administrators and teachers to implement the findings for the program's improvement.

For further improvement of the reading program, there is a need for constant evaluation of the reading program. All concerned must participate and teachers must have confidence in the evaluator. The evaluator must recognize the many day-to-day problems faced by all stakeholders. Despite the importance of the evaluation results, recommendations must be realistic to be reflected in change. The evaluator must consider not only what should be done but what can be done within a specific institute-community environment.

In conclusion, this evaluation had a positive effect on the reading program at SLP. It compelled administrators and teachers to take a closer look at their methods, their materials, and their students and this close examination generally resulted in progress.

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Appendix A*Figure 1: Classroom Observation*

Classroom Observation				
* Date of Observation:				
* Class:				
* Teacher:				
* Observer:				
<Reading Lesson Quality>:				
Excellent	Good	Fair	Needs To Be Improved	Very Poor
1. Basal Reading Program				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
2. Organization				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
3. Sequencing				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
4. Work and Study Habits				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
5. Supplementary Materials				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
<Teacher's Presentation>:				
1. Definite Goal				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
2. Speech Clarity				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
3. Classroom Management				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:
4. Knowledge of Material				
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident				Factors:

5. Rapport between T and Ss		_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident		Factors:				
<Students' Participation>:						
	Needs To Be	Very Excellent	Good	Fair	Improved	Poor
1. Motivated & Interested	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident	Factors:					
2. Comprehension	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident	Factors:					
3. Productively involved	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident	Factors:					
4. Balance of T and Ss' Speech	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident	Factors:					
5. Opportunity to Practice Reading Ability	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Evident	Factors:					
<Major Strengths>:						
<Major Weaknesses>:						
<Suggestions>:						
<Chronological description of lesson>:						
<u>Time</u> Major Procedures						



Appendix B*Figure 2: Interview for teachers*

Interview for Teachers
* Date of Interview: * Interviewer: * Interviewee:
<General Questions about the Reading Program> Q 1. What do you think about the Reading Program at SLP? Q 2. Do your students use the Reading Program (English library / SORI online) often? Q 3. Do your students enjoy reading? Q 4. Do you encourage your students to use the reading program? How? Q 5. Do your students pass the quiz at SORI online easily? Q 6. How do you check your students' reading progress? Q 7. Can you tell me what you do in the reading lesson? <Additional Note>:
<Strengths of the Reading Program>: Q 1. What do you (or your students) like about SLP library? Q 2. How does the SORI online program help your students? Q 3. What is the biggest benefit of your reading lesson for your students? <Additional Note>:
<Weaknesses of the Reading Program>: Q 1. Do your students have any difficulties using the SLP library (or any complaints from parents)? Q 2. Do your students have any difficulties solving quiz at SORI online program (or any comments from parents)? Q 3. Do your students have any difficulties involving the reading lesson? <Additional Note>:

<p><Recommendations of the Reading Program>:</p> <p>Q 1. Do you have any suggestions for the SLP library?</p> <p>Q 2. Do you have any better ideas to improve the SORI online program?</p> <p>Q 3. Do you have anything that you want to add in the reading lesson?</p> <p><Additional Note>:</p>

Figure 2.1: Interview for parents

<p>Interview for Parents</p> <p>* Date of Interview:</p> <p>* Interviewer:</p> <p>* Interviewee:</p>
<p><General Questions about the Reading Program></p> <p>Q 1. Does your kid use the SLP library?</p> <p>Q 2. How often does he/she borrow books?</p> <p>Q 3. Does he/she enjoy reading?</p> <p>Q 4. How does your kid feel about the SORI online program?</p> <p>Q 5. Does your kid solve the quiz at SORI online easily?</p> <p>Q 6. How does your kid take the reading lesson (Writing a book report / Doing a presentation)?</p> <p>Q 7. How does the reading lesson affect your kid's reading ability, writing, and speaking?</p> <p><Additional Note>:</p>
<p><Strengths of the Reading Program>:</p> <p>Q 1. What do you (or your kid) like about the SLP library?</p> <p>Q 2. How does the SORI online program help your kid?</p>

<p>Q 3. What benefits of the reading lesson has your kid had?</p> <p><Additional Note>:</p>
<p><Weaknesses of the Reading Program>:</p> <p>Q 1. Does your kid have any difficulties using the SLP library?</p> <p>Q 2. Does your kid have any difficulties solving quiz at SORI online program?</p> <p>Q 3. Does your kid have any difficulties involving the reading lesson?</p> <p><Additional Note>:</p>
<p><Recommendations of the Reading Program>:</p> <p>Q 1. Do you have any suggestions for the SLP library?</p> <p>Q 2. Do you have any better ideas to improve the SORI online program?</p> <p>Q 3. Do you have anything that you want to add in the reading lesson?</p> <p><Additional Note>:</p>

APPENDIX C

Figure 3: Questionnaire for students

Page 1 of 4
















SLP Reading Program Evaluation – Student Questionnaire

Dear students!

This paper is to evaluate SLP Reading Program for improvement. We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions honestly. This is not a test so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers and you don’t even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. Thank you for your time!

< About SLP Library >

A. Please check the box under the face that best expresses how you feel.

- I enjoy reading English books.



☐ ☐ ☐
- I often borrow books at SLP library.



☐ ☐ ☐
- There are many interesting books in the library.



☐ ☐ ☐
- It's easy for me to choose the right book.



☐ ☐ ☐
- I understand most of books at my level.



☐ ☐ ☐

B. Please answer to these following questions. (Using Korean is okay !)

- Do you have any problems using SLP library? Yes / No
- If your answer is "Yes" to the question #1, write your problems here.

- Do you have any suggestions on your problems? Then, try to write here.

<About SORI Online>

A. Please check the box under the face that best expresses how you feel.

- I enjoy the quiz at SORI Online.


☐ ☐ ☐

2. I always pass the quiz.


☐ ☐ ☐

3. The quiz questions are very helpful to understand the book.


☐ ☐ ☐

4. The quiz questions are easy. Page 3 of 4


☐ ☐ ☐

5. The SORI system is easy to use.


☐ ☐ ☐

B. Please answer to these following questions. (Using Korean is okay !)

1. Do you have any problems using SORI Online Program? Yes / No

2. If your answer is "Yes" to the question #1, write your problems here.

3. Do you have any suggestions on your problems? Then, try to write here.

<About Reading Lesson>

A. Please check the box under the face that best expresses how you feel.

1. I enjoy the reading lesson.


☐ ☐ ☐

2. I understand teacher's reading lesson well.


☐ ☐ ☐

3. I improved my Reading ability by the reading lesson. Page 4 of 4


☐ ☐ ☐

4. I improved my Writing ability by writing book reports.


☐ ☐ ☐

5. I improved my Speaking ability by doing the presentation.



□□□

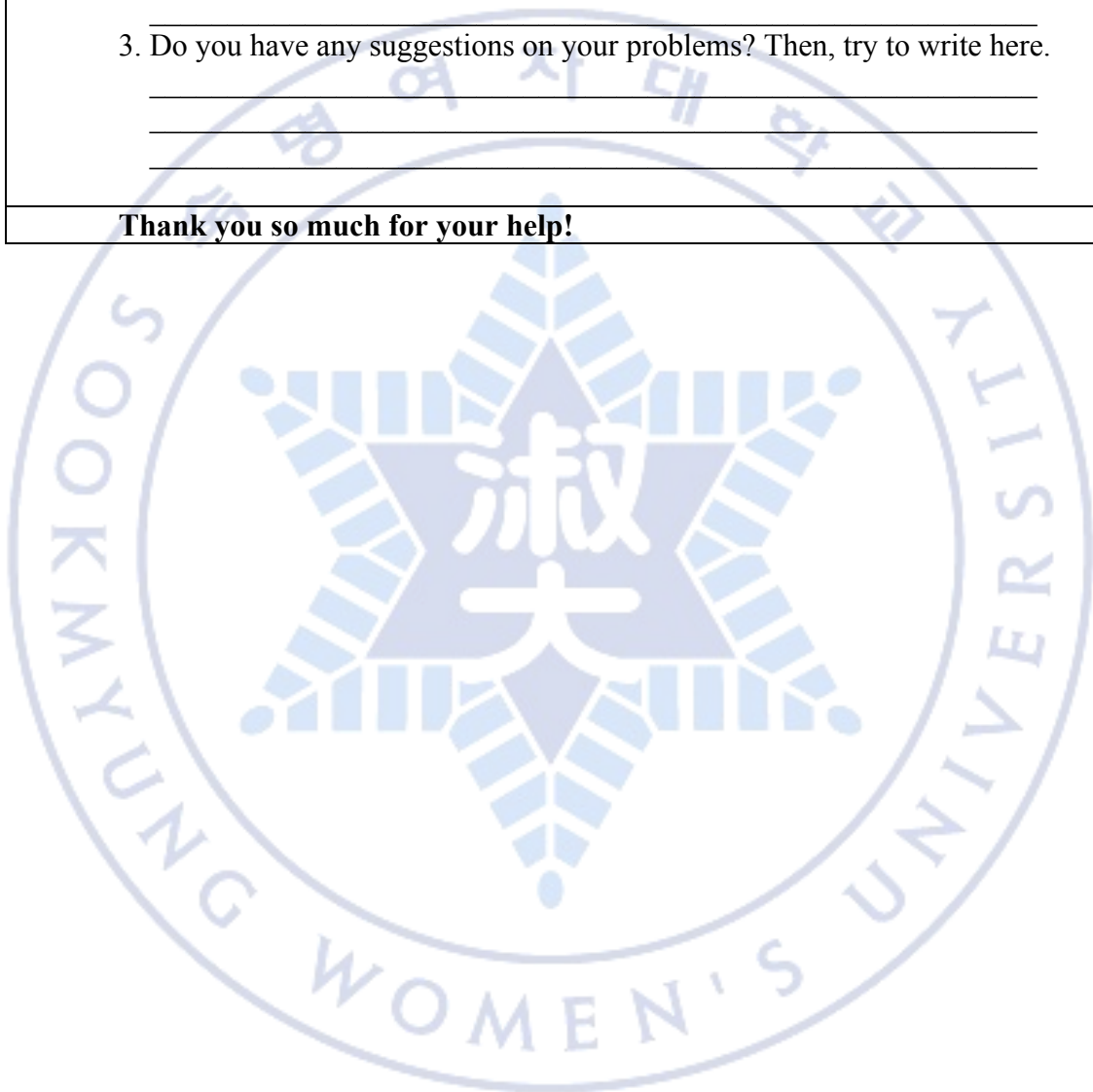
B. Please answer to these following questions. (Using Korean is okay !)

1. Do you have any problems during the Reading Lesson? Yes / No

2. If your answer is "Yes" to the question #1, write your problems here.

3. Do you have any suggestions on your problems? Then, try to write here.

Thank you so much for your help!



The Influence of Adopting English Names on Role Identity of Korean EFL Young Learners

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TESOL 3rd semester

This research was designed first to see Korean EFL young learners' perception on an English name and use of an English name, then to seek the influential factors of either positive or negative attitude on English name. For that, the following research questions were made; first, "How do Korean EFL young learners perceive English names?" and second, "What are the sources of either positive or negative perceptions toward having English names of the elementary school learners?" The data for this study was collected by a survey and an interview. 104 elementary school students in 6th grade responded to the survey, and two young learners who are reluctant on using their English names participated in the interview. The result of the data shows that the respondents tended to be positive both on English names and in use of an English name. Also, it is found that not only the young learner's identity or preference on English language but also social psychological pressure, attachment on owning Korean names, emotional barriers to second language, self-directedness and their own function of the name are influential on their perception of an English name. In conclusion, the study proposes that the adoption of an English name for EFL young learners should be done in regard of the learner's perspectives and needs.

1. Introduction

It has been more than 120 years since English education in Korea started and 10 years since English was taught as a regular school subject. Due to the lack of exposure to authentic English, exam-centered education, English education in Korea has been neither effective nor efficient in terms of communicative ability. As the importance of communicative English education has grown, along with fast-paced globalization and economic development, native speaking teachers began to spread from public schools to private institutions nationwide, and the tendency of assigning common English names that are easy to call and be remembered has spread (Chae, 2004). However, as time has passed this fashion of English has decreased, and many skilled and trained public school English teachers with communicative language ability have begun to replace the native teachers. This qualitative research was designed first to see the current tendency of adoption of an English name and to find the influence of having English names on EFL young learners in regard to Role Theory.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Background

2.1.1 Previous Studies in Korea

Kim and Rha (2010) researched regarding English name focusing more on its effects on English learning. The purpose of the study was to analyze the effects of elementary students' use of English names in classroom and their achievement and attitude. As a result of survey and analyzed test scores of around 300 elementary school students, she found no such relation between the English achievement and English name, perception on needs of English names, and the perception of parents and teachers on adoptions of English names. Then, they suggested not to impose upon the students an English name and motivate the students with Korean names.

Also Kim (2010) insisted that the English name users appear to have a more flexible language and cultural identity than non-users, which means English name users are more strongly motivated to learn English and more willing to adapt to the new language and culture. Among the learners were English names perceived as a useful communication and adaptation strategy rather than an identity forming or threatening behavior.

2.1.2 Role Theory

The general concept of Role Theory is that a person's perception of their roles is affected by others. People try to meet the expectation shaping their behavior and attitude in terms of conformity. To explain this theory, I will first define what the "roles" and "others" may mean in this paper.

2.1.2.1 Role Identity

The roles can be sorted out by factors such as culture, society, gender and situation. In this paper, one's Cultural role and Social-differentiation roles are going to be mainly dealt with. First, Cultural roles are given by cultures. Cultural changes, especially during the socialization, require new cultural roles to a person. EFL context, for sure, can be a new culture particularly for the young learners, and they are given specific cultural roles by the new context where they can encounter another norm, value, perception, and even different regulations. For instance, some students may experience high rejection toward new policies like an English Only Zone. Second, Social differentiation generally originated from job roles. Dahrendorf (1958) distinguished between must-expectations with sanctions, shall-

expectations with sanctions and rewards, and can-expectations with rewards. For example, the classroom setting can be related with this. In this study, Role Theory was applied to discuss whether adoption of an English name represents the name assigner's expectation which leads or pushes the students to be motivated, speak, become acculturated in and with English from the learner's perspective.

2.1.2.2 Role Conflicts

Merton (1949) distinguished between intrapersonal and interpersonal role conflicts. Role conflict is a conflict among the roles corresponding to two or more statuses. Role strain which is 'role pressure' also may arise when there is a conflict in the demands of roles, when one's performance in specific role does not meet the expectation of others, or from lack of capacity to deal with various roles. The problem is, a person may not be able to selectively accept roles that cause strain pushed by societal or cultural norms or needs. We may be able to apply this to EFL young learners who seem to have no choice in learning English. In that context, English names can be a label of English identity as well as English language and culture.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Question

This study aims to find the influence of adopting English names especially on role identity of Korean EFL young learners in elementary schools. Therefore, the research was designed to find answers for these research questions: 1) How do Korean EFL young learners perceive English names? 2) What are the sources of either positive or negative attitudes toward having English names of the elementary school learners?

3.2 Survey

3.2.1 Participants

For the survey, 6th grade students in Han-il elementary school in Yong-in, Gyeonggi province were targeted. Gyeonggi province borders Seoul and it tends to make its public education relatively up to date, and the students are in a wide spectrum. The school had 4 English teachers and 1 native English teacher. In 6th grade, there were 4 classes and the students were

total 108. Among the 108 students, 104 students participated in the survey, and the gender ratio of the participants was 50:50.

3.2.2 Questionnaires

The survey consisted with a total of 35 questionnaires, and it was divided into four sections, each with a different focus: attachment on Korean name, perception on English Name, perception on English, personal information. The first part was to find out whether they have attachment to their Korean name which can be a variable of perception on English name. The second and third parts were designed to seek the perception on English Name and English in order. Particularly, the third part was designed for the further study to find out possible special case: reluctant English name users with English aptitude, overseas experience or admiration of an English name with no interest. The questionnaires asking whether or not they like English conversation or purpose of learning English might have affected the other part, thus, it was positioned after the English Name relevant part. At the last part, personal information including name, gender, English learning experience and overseas experience were asked to sort out the variables. To prevent any kind of bias, on the other hand, simpler questions were asked first and the questions containing examples followed. Considering the age of the participants, objective type was used in general. Only, reasons of the choices were asked in subjective type. To collect as much data as possible, particularly for the question asking their thought or emotion, the participants could choose two or more answers.

3.3 Case Study

3.3.1 Survey

To make the case study comparable with the survey above, the same survey was conducted followed by the open-ended interview.

3.3.2 Interview

In this study, semi-structured interview involving introductory comments, list of topic headings and possible key questions, a set of associated prompts, and closing comments was conducted for a case study. Same as the participants who were involved in the survey above, two girls had the survey before the interview, and each interviews were taken independently

only with the research in a room of comfortable atmosphere. The interview that took each 11 minutes and 16 minutes was recorded by a cell phone recorder to get rid of possible insecure feeling from the subject, and the purpose of the interview was explained to the interviewees.

3.3.3 Participants

The participants were sisters who had reluctant attitudes toward using English names in the real world. However, their perceptions on English names itself were opposite; the elder one, the 13-year old middle school student had negative perception whereas the younger one, 11-year old elementary school student had a relatively positive perception. The participants have had similar educational background spending most of their time together at home after school.

3.3.4 Questionnaires

For that the interview was conducted after the survey, many of the interview questionnaires regarded the survey questionnaires. In general, why they chose the answers was asked in advance and relative questions were added.

3.4 Procedure

The preparation of the research took 2 months, and the data collection started in May, 2012. The survey sheets were sent to the school on June 3, 2012. Meanwhile, the case study started, and the survey was conducted on June 6, 2012. Afterward, the interviews were conducted on June 9, 2012. The survey completed sent back to the researcher on June 14, 2012.

4. Result

4.1 Survey

4.1.1 Student Portfolio

To seek the perception of EFL young learners on English names, simple survey was conducted. Among the 104 students, 69.2% of girls had English names while the 44.2% of boys had English names. (See Table 4.1)

Table 4.1
Students with English Name

Gender	No.	%
Girl	36	69.20
Boy	23	44.20
Total	59	100

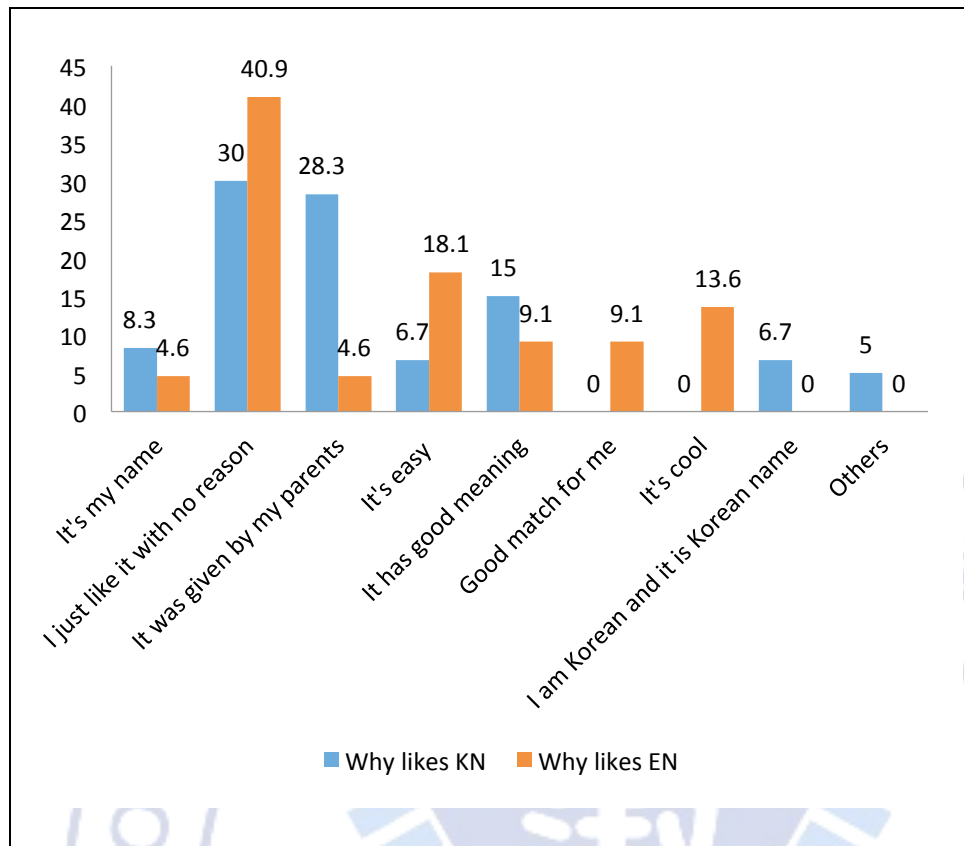
For whom with English names, perceptions on their English names were asked, and variables that may affect their perceptions were conducted. In regard of the 59 students with English names, whether or not they liked their English names were asked same as they were asked about their Korean names. As shown on the Table 4.2, 72.1% of all the students liked their Korean names. For those 59 students who had English names, 57.6% of students liked English names. The reasons of positive perceptions on each Korean names and English names are shown in the Chart 4.1.

Table 4.2
Students' Likes and Dislikes on Korean Name / English Name

	KN			EN		
S no.	104			59		
	75	29	0	34	24	1
%	72.1	27.9	0.0	57.6	40.6	1.8
Preference	Like	indifferent	Dislike	Like	indifferent	Dislike

For the reasons of Likes, the answers they put by themselves were sorted out into 8 categories. Among them, 'I just like it with no reason' for both KN and EN was saliently high marking 30% and 40.9% each. However, there was a wide gap in the category where they liked the name because it was given by parents or grandparents to 28.3% to 4.6%. Also, 18.1% responded they like the English name because it is easy and comfortable to call whereas only 6.7% responded about Korean names. While the 13.6% and 9.1% of students with English name perceived their name was cool and good match for themselves, 6.7% of students showed patriotism in relation with their Korean names.

Chart 4.1
Reasons of Likes (KN / EN)



4.1.2 Perception on English Name

In regard of the 59 subjects, their perception on English Name was asked in detail. At first, name assigners were asked, and 59.3% had been assigned the name from English teachers regardless of from school or institutes. Interestingly, 20.3% of them made their name by themselves.

Table 4.3 Name Assigner

			English teacher				Total
	oneself	parents	School	Institute	Native	Others	
no	12	10	5	20	10	2	59
%	20.3	17	8.5	33.9	16.9	3.4	100
			59.3				

For the second, the places they use English name were asked and 73 responses gained. As Chart 4.4 shows, 52.1% of respond were from English class of institutes' class or tutoring while 20.5% were school's English class.

Table 4.4 Places where English Name is used

English Class

Answers	School	Institute	Home	Online	Others	Total
no	15	38	6	6	8	73
%	20.5	52.1	8.2	8.2	11	100

At this point, if they like to use the English name or not was asked, and there was a small move from 'Like' to 'Dislike'. Thus the reasons of dislike were conducted and they are 'I feel like I am foreigner', 'I hardly use it', 'I like my Korean name more', 'I get shy when using an English name', 'I feel awkward.', 'I like my Korean name.' and 'I hate English.' Interestingly, perception on each English name and use of English name tended to be slightly different.

Table 4.5 Likes or Dislikes of Using English Name

	EN			EN usage		
no	59 (100%)					
	34	24	1	27	24	8
%	57.6	40.6	1.8	45.8	40.6	13.6
	Like	indifferent	Dislike	Like	indifferent	Dislike

For those with no English names, whether or not they wanted to have an English name was asked, and one-third of 45 subjects with no English names responded they wanted to have English names. Next, the question if they think they will need English names in the future was asked followed by the name assigner they want. Despite the future need of 55.5% of the subjects, some of them seemed to be reluctant toward having English name.

Table 4.6 Future Need of English Name

	Need	No Need	others	Total
no	25	17	3	45
%	55.5	37.8	6.7	100

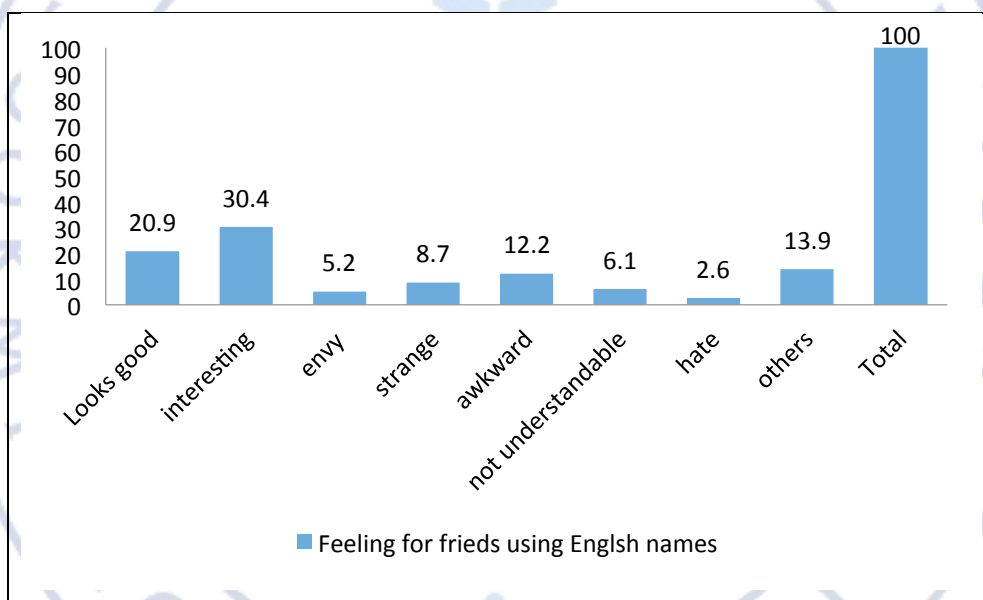
Table 4.7 Name Assigner if they have One

			English teacher			Others	Total
	oneself	parents	School	Institute	Native		
no	13	17	5	2	2	6	45
%	28.9	37.8	11	4.5	4.5	13.3	100
			20				

One more interesting point was that the students wanted their parents to give English name, if they have to get one. The next possible assigner was themselves and teachers followed.

Lastly, their perception on others' use of English names was asked, and the others were suggested to their friends, and the responses of 45 participants were even 115. Among the multiple choices shown on the Chart 4.2, positive emotions were 56.5% in sum whereas the sum of negative feeling was 29.6%. In detail, 30.4% answers were 'interesting' and 20.9% were 'looks good', yet, 12.2% of answers were 'awkward'. In general, the students seemed to have relatively positive attitude toward others' use of English names.

Chart 4.2 Feeling for Friends using English Names



4.2 Interview

Interview was conducted with two young learners who are sisters with similar experience and education but with opposite attitude toward English name. For the first interview, Shim Ha-eun, 2nd grader at Nam-sung middle school in Seoul, showed strong reluctance and lack of motivation toward English due to the teacher-centered English as it is found in Table 4.8. She responded that English class where she has to learn by grammar translation was boring and she did not want to speak in English because communication was not easy.

Table 4.8 Sample1 : Interest in English learning

You wrote you didn't like speaking in English. Is it because it's difficult?

No, I am just annoyed.

Can you tell me why?

Because I can't communicate.

You responded that you get nervous and lose confidence when you speak in English. Is it because of communication?

Yes, besides, because I have to memorize not knowing what that means.

Are there many chances to talk with your current English teacher?

We use Korean.

Isn't English class interesting?

No. I am bored.

During the interview, she kept a consistent attitude toward her Korean name with strong attachment. On the other hand, she responded that she would be embarrassed if she is asked to speak in English even in English class. Moreover, she could not understand other friends who used English names. She seemed to be thinking that Koreans should use Korean names, which showed strong ethno-national identity.

Table 4.9 Sample2 : Strong Attachment to Korean Name

Could you tell me which one you prefer?

I like my Korean name more.

Then, are you going to stick with Amy?

No. I won't use English name at all. It's useless for me.

You couldn't understand friends who use English name in 학원. Why?

Difficult to explain... I just don't understand why people use English name in Korea.

If people call you Amy when you speak with them in English, how would you feel about that?

I would feel uncomfortable. It doesn't feel like my name.

In the future, if you go traveling and meet foreign friends, which of your names do you want to introduce?

Korean name.

Why Korean name?

Because that's the name given to me at birth.

Accordingly, she also showed high emotional barriers to using English name even though she had no reluctance to her English name given by her mother. She used negative expression such as 'embarrassing' while she expressed that using her Korean name was 'comfortable'. In addition, Table 4.10 is revealing her attitude to the teacher through "I can't help using it (English name)."

Table 4.10 Sample 3 : Emotional Barrier to EN

How would you feel if your English teacher asks you to use your English name in English Class?

It would be embarrassing.

What if your teacher gives you a new English name?

Then I can't help using it...

Let's say you need to speak English sometime in the future, will you still use Korean name?

I will use my Korean name.

Why?

It's my name and I feel comfortable with it.

One interesting point was she told that it was simple and easy when she was called by a number when in English class with a native teacher. This reminded the researcher what the function of a name is. She once again mentioned relevant with function telling that she might not be able to 'recognize' her English name.

Table 4.11 Sample 4 : Function of Name

Didn't you use English name even with the native teacher?

No, I didn't. Actually, I was called by a number.

How did you feel about that?

I think it was better than calling by name. It's simple and easy.

What if you use English name only in English conversation? Does it sound strange yet?

Yes. I don't feel like it my name. I may not recognize that people call me.

The second interview was conducted with the younger sister, Shim Ha min, 6th grader at Nam-sung elementary school. She also was not highly interested in English learning, yet, she enjoyed some part of her class that involves activities. She had made an English

name on her own, and it made her clearly different from the elder sister. (See Table 4.12) She shows strong self-directedness by telling she wants to make her own name.

Table 4.12 Sample 5 : Self-directedness in Adoption of EN

Why did you make your name to May?

For me, May is my favorite month.

When I was young, I was able to memorize from January to December in English. I was really good with that. But among those things, I loved May. My favorite. It is not strange to me.

Your English name, May, is made by yourself, Ha-Min. Right? So if your English teacher gives you a new English name, how would you feel?

I don't like that.

Can you tell me why?

Because I want to make my own name.

Her strong self-identity is also shown in Table 4.13 in which she reveals her emotion toward English and use of English name. She not only told that she would be upset when she was pushed to use English name in English class, she also admitted that she would let others know her Korean name. On the other hand, she showed relatively open attitude telling use of English name is situational and emotional.

Table 4.13 Sample 6 : Emotional Barrier to English and English Name

You feel bad and worried when you speak in English. Why do you feel like that?

It is hard and unfamiliar for me to use English. I just hate it because it is too strange for me.

How would you feel if your teacher want you to use only May, not Ha-Min during the class?

I would be a little upset.

You don't like people want you to use English name? I am wondering why?

Because sometimes I want to use my English name, but sometimes I don't like that.

So, in the future, after becoming an illustrator, which name would you want to use when you meet foreigners?

I am not sure. It might depend on situations?

Which name would you want to let people know? May or Sim Ha-Min?

Sim Ha-Min.

You want Sim Ha-Min?

Foreign people should know my Korean name.

In both interviews mentioning about functionality of an English name could be found. Ha-min was using her English name in the cyber world which is a real world for her. Even though she had her English name, she did not agree to let her English teacher know the name, which tells the function of her English name was not exactly for communication.

Table 4.14 Sample 7 : Function of Name

So that's why you like your own English name. Where do you usually use it?

Usually for Naver Homepage nickname and chatting rooms.

How about at school?

At school, no places to use it. It is unusual to make an English name during English class.

You have close friends. How would you feel if your friends used their English name in their daily lives?

It might not be easy, especially calling their English name. I just hope calling their Korean name if possible.

If the native teacher wants to know your English name, will you let your name to the teacher?

Not really.

It is also noticeable that she was concerned with pronunciation of both Korean and English. For Korean, the only reason she not always liked her Korean name was the wrong pronunciation, and she was concerned of speaking the wrong pronunciation of words. (See Table 4.15)

Table 4.15 Sample 8 : Pronunciation of Name

You wrote you didn't like your Korean name. Can you tell me why?

Seriously, It sounds weird when my friends call my name.

My name is Sim Ha-Min, but it sounds funny like "Si Ma-Min" when it pronounced.

You said you don't like speaking English. Can you tell me why?

It is hard for me to spell words.

What about speaking?

It is easy, but sometimes, hard for me to pronounce.

5. Discussion

The result of the research shows Korean EFL learners tend to have relatively positive perception on English name, use of English name, other's use of English name. (See Table 4.2, 4.5, 4.6 and Chart 4.2)

To bring in Role Theory, if an English name represents the expectation of the name-assigner, English names can be regarded as a role. Therefore, at this point, the Table 4.3 and Table 4.7 were compared to seek the differences and similarities between a group with English name and another without English name. As it is shown in Figure 5.1, the group with only Korean names picked their parents and themselves to be the hopeful name-assigner, and over a half of another group had been given their names from English teachers including school, private, and native teachers. Considering the students' perspectives, this can be possible affective factors on their negative perception on English name and may cause either interpersonal or intrapersonal role conflicts to the students.

Figure 5.1 Comparison of Name assigner

Table 4.3 Name Assigner							
			English teacher				
	oneself	parents	School	Institute	Native	Others	Total
no	12	10	5	20	10	2	59
%	20.3	17	8.5	33.9	16.9	3.4	100
			59.3				

Table 4.7 Name Assigner if they do							
			English teacher				
	oneself	parents	School	Institute	Native	Others	Total
no	13	17	5	2	2	6	45
%	28.9	37.8	11	4.5	4.5	13.3	100
			20				

To find other possible negative affective factors, the suggested reason that the students who does not have English name also had to be considered. The answers stated by 8 respondents who did not like to use their English names (see Table 4.5) are compared with the two interviewees'. As it is shown on Table 5.1, the categorization of each method's data tended to be similar to each other and it raised credibility of the influence of the factors on young learner's perception on English Name.

Table 5.1 Categorization of Reasons of Dislikes to EN

Survey	Participants	Interview
I feel like I am foreigner.	Role	(If the teacher orders) Then I can't help using it
I like my Korean name more.	Attachment on KN	I just don't understand why people use English name in Korea.
I get shy when using English name. I feel awkward. I hate English.	Emotional Barriers	I would feel uncomfortable. It doesn't feel like my name. It would be embarrassing.
Name Assigner = Self (20.3 / 28.9%)	Self-directedness	Because I want to make my own name.
I hardly use it.	Function: to use	I may not recognize that people call me. Usually for Naver Homepage nickname and chatting rooms.

The categorization suggested here was Role, Attachment on Korean Name, Emotional Barriers, and functional factor. As mentioned earlier, English name, as a role identity, influenced learners by making them be pushed by the other, mostly English teachers, for the place and time of English name use was likely to be limited to classroom context, according to the 74.6% of respondents. (See Table 4.4) At this point other significant others in the classroom culture should be considered as well as the teachers. For the last, in this part, their perception on others' use of English name was asked, and the responses of 45 participants were even 115. Among the multiple choices shown on the Chart 4.2, positive emotions were 56.5% in sum whereas the sum of negative feeling was 29.6%. In detail, 30.4% answers were 'interesting' and 20.9% were 'looks good', yet, 12.2% of answers were 'awkward'. In general, the students seemed to have relatively positive attitude toward others' use of English names. Bringing back the findings of the survey, (See Chart 4.2), toward the friends who use English name, positive perceptions made 56.5% in sum whereas the sum of negative feeling was only 29.6%. This means that the young learners are relatively open to their friends and their representative significant others. To see whether or not they are affected by the others, questions asking if they are jealous of their friends and if they feel awkward had been asked. Only the 5.2% of the answers chose 'envy' indicating strong motivation to have English names. Meanwhile, 12.2% of the answers were 'awkward' that may result in an emotional barrier and eventually the interpersonal role conflicts. The

interviewees also mentioned the others' use of English name, and they were relevant as well. (See Table 4.9 and 4.13)

Next, the attachment to Korean names and the emotional barriers that language ego may cause can be discussed jointly. These factors are related with identity, nationality, culture and first language. In regard to identity and names of EFL Korean adult learners and high school students, Kim (2010) has pointed the correlation between them in detail. In case of Ha-eun, the first interviewee revealed, during the interview, her strong attachment to Korean language and nationality as well as her Korean name. In consideration of the emotional barrier, Language Ego Theory should be discussed. Language ego first was suggested by Guiora (1972) admitting empathic influence on second language learning to explain the adults' difficulty and children's ease in SLA. He insisted that a thicker emotional barrier disturbs SLA. The language ego is similar in concept to the body-ego of Freud, so the ego-flexibility decreases as individual gets older, which means children are more open to accept other language and construct second language ego. Based on the research finding, the hypothesis seems not always right. The EFL young learners, same as adult, feel emotional resistance to their second language and even for the names. Not only in the adoption of names but also teaching language should consider these variables.

Fourth, learners' self-directedness was revealed as well. Ha-min, the younger interviewee, showed slightly different attitude in which she valued her self-identity and self-directedness more than other factors. (See Table 4.12) This is also shown on the Figure 5.1 above. The 20.3% of English name possessors had given themselves names, and 28.9% of the group with no English name showed a strong will to name themselves. This tendency is also correlated with the role theory for that the role assigned or expected by others in a society may have a conflict against self-assigned roles.

Last, the function of an English name has to be highlighted. The above factors were predictable enough in regard of social psychology. Through this study, how much even elementary school students could be sensitive to the efficiency of an English name has been found. The Survey question asking the reasons of likes or dislikes of Korean / English names not only showed the perception of the participants, but also provided causal source of the perception which could be explained as function. To bring the data back on Chart 5.1, 13.6% of the subjects told they liked the English name because it was cool, and 9.1% of subjects responded they liked their English name because it was a good match with them. Through these statements, it was found that the respondents valued the decorative function of an

English name. Interestingly, none of another group focused on any kind of function of an English name. As well as the reason of ‘likes’, as it is on Figure 5.1, the reason of ‘dislikes’ also revealed another function of English name: to use. Meanwhile, our interviewees also made comments on the function they assigned to their English names. Ha-eun was concerned on the function of recognition, which means she focused that the name was for being called not only for calling. On the other hand, Ha-min was actually using her English name for her own use on the Internet. (See Table 5.1) Young learners not only recognize, decide whether or not to accept the role assigned, they also could assign role to their names in terms of function.

Chart 5.1 Reasons of Likes (KN / EN)



6. Conclusion

In this study, the influence of adopting an English name on Korean EFL young learners' perception was investigated with two research questions 1) How do Korean EFL young learners perceive English names? 2) What are the sources of either positive or negative attitudes toward having English names of the elementary school learners?

Whether or not adopting an English name is effective on learning English, adoption of an English name seems to be a choice of the learner in the real world. Based on the

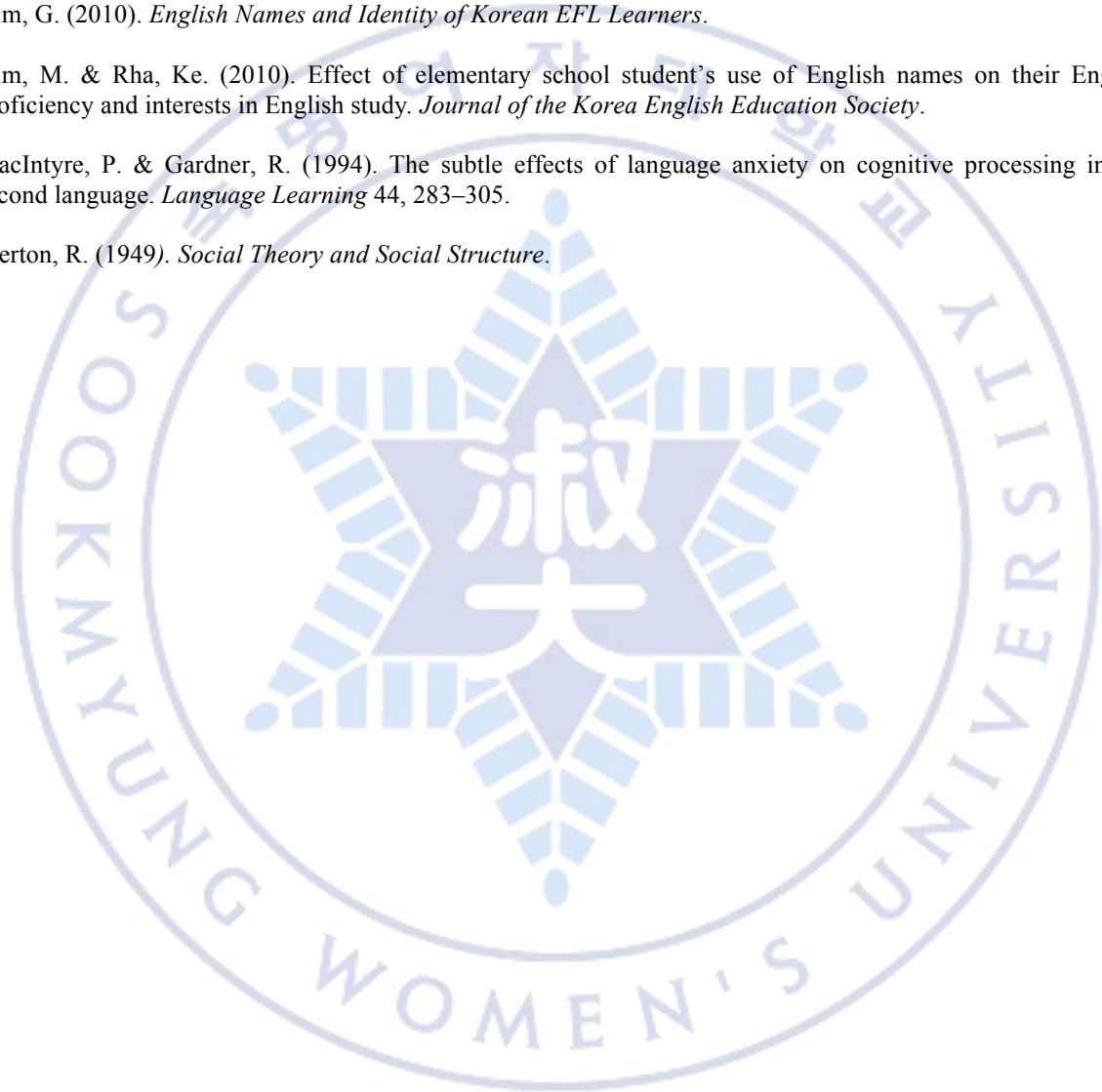
research, English names were placed in a different domain from that of English learning. That is, whether or not the learner is interested in learning the language may not be the only reason for having an English name. Rather, more various affective factors existed; there may be role conflicts, attachment of first language and culture, possible emotional barriers, self-directedness, and function.

As using a Korean name is culturally psychologically concerned rather than educationally, the same follows for English names, particularly for the young learner. Adoption of an English name also has to be considered from the learner's perspective. Some may want to make her own English name while others want their parents or teachers to give a good name that matches them well. Also, whether it sounds good, special, or recognizable enough should be also considered.



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Appendix A

Survey Questionnaires

안녕하세요!

이 설문조사는 영어 이름이 한국의 어린이들에게 미치는 영향을 조사하기 위해 만들어졌습니다. 여러분의 응답은 연구를 위해서만 사용되며 보호됩니다. 여러분의 도움이 소중하게 쓰여질 예정이니 정성스러운 답변을 부탁드립니다. 정말 감사합니다. ^^

지금부터 아래 문항을 읽고 해당되는 네모 칸에 ☒ 이렇게 체크해주세요.
맞거나 틀리는 것이 아니니, 솔직하게 대답해주세요 ~

I. 나의 한국어 이름

1. 나의 이름은 무엇입니까?

내 이름: _____

2. 내 이름의 뜻을 알고 있습니까?

☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오

3. 내 한국어 이름이 좋습니까?

☐ ① 좋다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 싫다

이유: _____

II. 나의 영어 이름

1. 영어 이름이 있습니까?

- ☐ ① 네 (2번으로!) ☐ ② 아니오 (13번으로!)

〈↓ 2 번 ~12 번까지 영어 이름이 있는 사람만 응답하세요. ^^〉

2. 나의 영어 이름은 무엇입니까?

내 영어 이름: _____

3. 나의 영어 이름은 누가 지었습니까?

- ☐ ① 내가
☐ ② 부모님이
☐ ③ 학교 영어 선생님이
☐ ④ 학원 / 과외 영어 선생님이
☐ ⑤ 외국인 선생님이
☐ ⑥ 친구가
☐ ⑦ 다른 사람 ()이

4. 내가 영어 이름을 사용하는 곳을 모두 고르세요.

- ☐ ① 영어수업 시간에
☐ ② 영어학원/과외 시간에
☐ ③ 집에서
☐ ④ 온라인에서 (게임, 채팅 등)
☐ ⑤ 기타 (_____)

5. 나는 나의 영어 이름을 좋아합니까?

☐ ① 좋다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 싫다

이유: _____

6. 나는 영어 이름을 사용하는 것이 좋습니까?

☐ ① 좋다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 싫다

이유: _____

7. 나는 앞으로도 지금의 영어 이름을 사용하고 싶습니까?

☐ ① 계속 지금의 영어 이름을 사용하고 싶다.

☐ ② 다른 영어 이름을 사용하고 싶다.

(이유: _____)

☐ ③ 영어 이름을 사용하기 싫다.

(이유: _____)

8. 나는 나의 영어 이름의 뜻을 알고 있습니까?

☐ ① 네

☐ ② 아니오

☐ ③ 영어 이름 뜻이 없다.

9. 알고 있다면, 내 영어 이름의 뜻이 무엇입니까?

영어 이름 뜻: _____

10. 누가 내 영어 이름의 뜻을 알려주었습니까?

☐ ① 내가 스스로 알아냈다.

☐ ② 부모님이 알려주셨다.

☐ ③ 학교 영어 선생님이 알려주셨다.

☐ ④ 학원 / 과외 영어 선생님이 알려주셨다.

☐ ⑤ 외국인 선생님이 알려주셨다.

☐ ⑥ 다른 사람 ()이 알려주었다.

11. 나의 영어 이름의 뜻을 모른다면, 알고 싶습니까?

- ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오 ☐ ③ 상관 없다.

12. 알고싶지 않다면, 그 이유는 무엇입니까?

알고싶지 않은 이유:

〈↓ 13 번 ~16 번까지 영어 이름이 없는 사람만 응답하세요. ^^〉

13. 나에게 영어 이름이 없는 이유는 무엇입니까?

- ☐ ① 한국어 이름이 좋아서
☐ ② 영어 이름이 싫어서
☐ ④ 영어이름을 지어준 사람이 없어서
☐ ⑤ 나도 이유를 모르겠다.

14. 영어 이름을 가지고 싶습니까?

- ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오

15. 내가 어른이 되면 영어 이름이 필요할 것 같습니까?

- ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오

16. 영어 이름을 가진다면, 누가 지어줬으면 좋겠습니까?

- ☐ ① 내가
☐ ② 부모님이
☐ ③ 학교 영어 선생님이
☐ ④ 학원 / 과외 영어 선생님이
☐ ⑤ 외국인 선생님이
☐ ⑥ 친구가
☐ ⑦ 다른 사람 ()이

〈↓ 여기서부터는 끝까지 모두 다 응답해주세요. ^^〉

III. 영어에 대한 나의 생각

1. 평소에 영어를 많이 사용합니까?

- ☐ ① 그렇다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 아니다

2. 내가 영어를 많이 사용하는 곳을 모두 고르세요.

- ☐ ① 영어수업 시간에
☐ ② 영어학원/과외 시간에
☐ ③ 집에서
☐ ④ 온라인에서 (게임, 채팅 등)
☐ ⑤ 어디서도 사용하지 않는다.
☐ ⑥ 기타 (_____)

3. 나와 영어로 가장 많이 대화하는 사람은 누구입니까?

- ☐ ① 부모님
☐ ② 영어 선생님
☐ ③ 외국인
☐ ④ 친구들
☐ ⑤ 나 혼자
☐ ⑥ 다른 사람 (_____)

18. 영어로 말하는 것이 즐겁습니까?

- ☐ ① 좋다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 싫다

5. 영어를 배우는 시간이 즐겁습니까?

- ☐ ① 즐겁다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 즐겁지 않다

이유: _____

6. 영어를 배우는 것은 중요합니까?

- ☐ ① 중요하다 ☐ ② 보통이다 ☐ ③ 중요하지 않다

7. 한국어와 영어 중 무엇이 더 중요한가?

- ☐ ① 한국어와 영어 둘 다 중요하다.
- ☐ ② 영어가 더 중요하다.
- ☐ ③ 한국어가 더 중요하다.

7. 내가 영어를 배우는 이유를 모두 선택하세요.

- ☐ ① 부모님이나 선생님이 시켜서
- ☐ ② 좋은 대학에 가려고
- ☐ ③ 외국인과 대화하기 위해서
- ☐ ④ 외국 여행을 가려고
- ☐ ⑤ 외국 유학을 가려고
- ☐ ⑥ 영어가 재미있으니까
- ☐ ⑦ 기타 (_____)

8. 영어로 말할 때 드는 기분을 모두 고르세요.

- ☐ ① 재미있다
- ☐ ② 힘들다
- ☐ ③ 기분이 좋다
- ☐ ④ 걱정된다
- ☐ ⑤ 자랑스럽다
- ☐ ⑥ 불안하다
- ☐ ⑦ 다른 사람이 된 것 같다
- ☐ ⑧ 자신감이 없어진다

IV. 자기 소개

1. 이름: _____
2. 학교: _____ 학년: _____
3. 성별: ☐ 여자 ☐ 남자
4. 내가 태어난 곳은 어디입니까?

5. 영어 학원이나 과외를 합니까?
 - ☐ ① 영어학원을 다니고 있다.
 - ☐ ② 영어 과외를 받고 있다.
 - ☐ ③ 영어 학습지를 하고 있다.
 - ☐ ④ 영어학원이나 과외를 하다가 그만뒀다.
 - ☐ ⑤ 부모님이나 형제/자매에게서 공부를 배운다.
 - ☐ ⑥ 여태까지 한 번도 학원이나 과외를 다닌 적이 없다.
6. 외국인 선생님에게서 영어를 배운 적이 있습니까?
 - ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오
7. 외국에서 공부한 적이 있습니까?
 - ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오
8. 외국에 여행을 간 적이 있습니까?
 - ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오
9. 영어 말고, 배우고 싶은 다른 외국어가 있습니까?
 - ☐ ① 네 ☐ ② 아니오

여기까지 답변해 주시느라 수고하셨습니다. 정말 감사합니다! ^^



Appendix B

Interview Script 1

Shim Ha eun

(2nd Year, Namsung Middle School, 11min.)

Today we're having an interview to investigate how English name influences on learning English, especially for young learners. Our conversation will be confidential and solely used for an academic research. As I went through your survey, I found that you felt "indifferent" for both your Korean name and English name. Could you tell me which one you prefer?

I like my Korean name more.

You answered you didn't like you English name, Amy because it's too common. Do you intend to change your English name?

No.

Then, are you going to stick with Amy?

No. I won't use English name at all. It's useless for me.

Don't you use it during English class at school?

No, I don't.

Do you have native speaking teachers in your school?

We used to have one, but now our school has no money.

Didn't you use English name even with the teacher?

No, I didn't. Actually, I was called by a number.

How did you feel about that?

I think it was better than calling by name. It's simple and easy.

How would you feel if your English teacher asks you to use your English name in English Class?

It would be embarrassing.

What if your teacher gives you a new English name?

Then I can't help using it...

Would it be comfortable then?

No.

Why?

Cause I have to memorize that name newly.

You wrote you didn't like speaking in English. Is it because it's difficult?

No, I am just annoyed.

Can you tell me why?

Because I can't communicate.

You responded that you get nervous and lose confidence when you speak in English. Is it because of communication?

Yes, besides, because I have to memorize not knowing what that means.

Are there many chances to talk with your current English teacher?

We use Korean.

Only Korean?

Well, usually Korean.

Isn't English class interesting?

No. I am bored.

You couldn't understand friends who use English name in 학원. Why?

Difficult to explain... I just don't understand why people use English name in Korea.

What if you use English name only in English conversation? Does it sound strange yet?

Yes. I don't feel like it my name. I may not recognize that people call me.

During English conversation with your mom, what does she call you?

Ha eun.

She made English name for you but doesn't use it. Doesn't it sound strange when Korean name called during English conversation?

That's fine with me.

If people call you Amy when you speak with them in English, how would you feel about that?

I would feel uncomfortable. It doesn't feel like my name.

Despite that you are bored in English class, you answered that learning English was important.

Yes, I did.

What makes it important?

I will probably need it in my career or social life.

Let's say you need to speak English sometime in the future, will you still use Korean name?

I will use my Korean name.

Why?

It's my name and I feel comfortable with it.

What do you want to be in the future?

I don't know.

In the future, if you go traveling and meet foreign friends, which of your names do you want to introduce?

Korean name.

Why Korean name?

Because that's the name given to me at birth.

Do you like your Korean name?

Yes.

But you wrote "so so" on the survey.

Because it is a little common... I like it though.

If you are making your own English name, will you choose unique name?

Yes.

Have you ever thought about making one?

No.

Appendix C

Interview Script 2

Shim Ha Min

(6th Year, Namsung elementary school - 16mins 28seconds)

When did you start learning English?

The third grade.

Have you tried to learn English on your own at home, not at school?

I used to learn, but now I hardly do that.

Have you ever received private lessons before?

I have, except for English.

So, you've never studied English by yourself at home?

I used to, but nowadays I hardly do that.

Who did you study with?

Usually with my mom.

Do you enjoy learning English?

So so.

So-so... then what is your favorite subject?

Science.

Science! and then, the second favorite thing?

Korean.

Korean. You like Korean, and then?

English or social studies.

You wrote you didn't like your Korean name. Can you tell me why?

Seriously, It sounds weird when my friends call my name.

My name is Sim Ha-Min, but it sounds funny like "Si Ma-Min" when it pronounced.

What is your English name?

May.

Wow, why did you make your name to May?

For me, May is my favorite month.

So that's why you like your own English name. Where do you usually use it?

Usually for Naver Homepage nickname and chatting rooms.

How about at school?

At school, no places to use it. It is unusual to make an English name during English class.

Do you take the English class with both a Korean teacher and a native teacher?

Yes, Every Wednesdays, I take the English class with the native speaker.

Let see. In the survey, you said that you talk much to your parents, teachers and yourself in English. So you don't talk to your friends during the class?

Sometimes I speak in English when I play the game, but not much.

You said you don't like speaking English. Can you tell me why?

It is hard for me to spell words.

What about speaking?

It is easy, but sometimes, hard for me to pronounce.

Sometimes you think English is something fun. But sometimes you don't feel like that.

When are you interested in English?

When I play the game with my friends.

When do you think you don't like English?

It is when my teacher forces me to speak even though I don't want to.

Are you going to use your English name if you should use it when you are grown-up?

Of course.

Will you use the same one, May?

I hope so, but I can change the name if I want.

Ha-min! You feel bad and worried when you speak in English. Why do you feel like that?

Just.. it is hard and unfamiliar for me to use English. I just hate it because it is too strange for me.

But you are familiar with your English name. Aren't you?

Yes, I am.

I am wondering why?

When I was young, I was able to memorize from January to December in English. I was really good with that. But among those things, I loved May. My favorite. It is not strange to me.

What do you think of your friends who use their English name?

I have no idea.

How would you feel if you use your English name in your daily life?

If so, that means I have to use at all times.

How would you feel if your teacher want you to use only May, not Ha-Min during the class?

I would be a little upset.

Why would you feel like that?

I have my own name, Ha-Min, so it might be strange if I can use only my English name.

But I would be able to use only my English name during the English class, but it might be impossible I can use only my English name in my daily life.

You have close friends. How would you feel if your friends used their English name in their daily lives?

It might not be easy, especially calling their English name. I just hope calling their Korean name if possible.

How would you feel if people call you May instead of Ha-Min?

Sometimes feel bad, but sometimes feel good. Anyway, It might be good for me. But I think it would be less fun than I expect.

Your English name, May, is made by yourself, Ha-Min. Right? So if your English teacher gives you a new English name, how would you feel?

I don't like that.

Can you tell me why?

Because I want to make my own name.

Why did you really want to make your name by yourself even though you already have your name, Ha-Min.

It's different between English and Korean name. Anyway, I like Korean name more actually.

So the native teacher already knows your English name, May?

The teacher doesn't know. Even though all of us already have English names, the teacher never asks our English name.

If the native teacher wants to know your English name, will you let your name to the teacher?

Not really.

So if the native teacher wants you to use your English name, how would you feel?

Maybe, I won't like...

You don't like people want you to use English name?

No. I don't want.

I am wondering why?

Because sometimes I want to use my English name, but sometimes I don't like that.

OK, Ha-min, what do you want to be in the future?

An illustrator.

So, in the future, after becoming an illustrator, which name would you want to use when you meet foreigners?

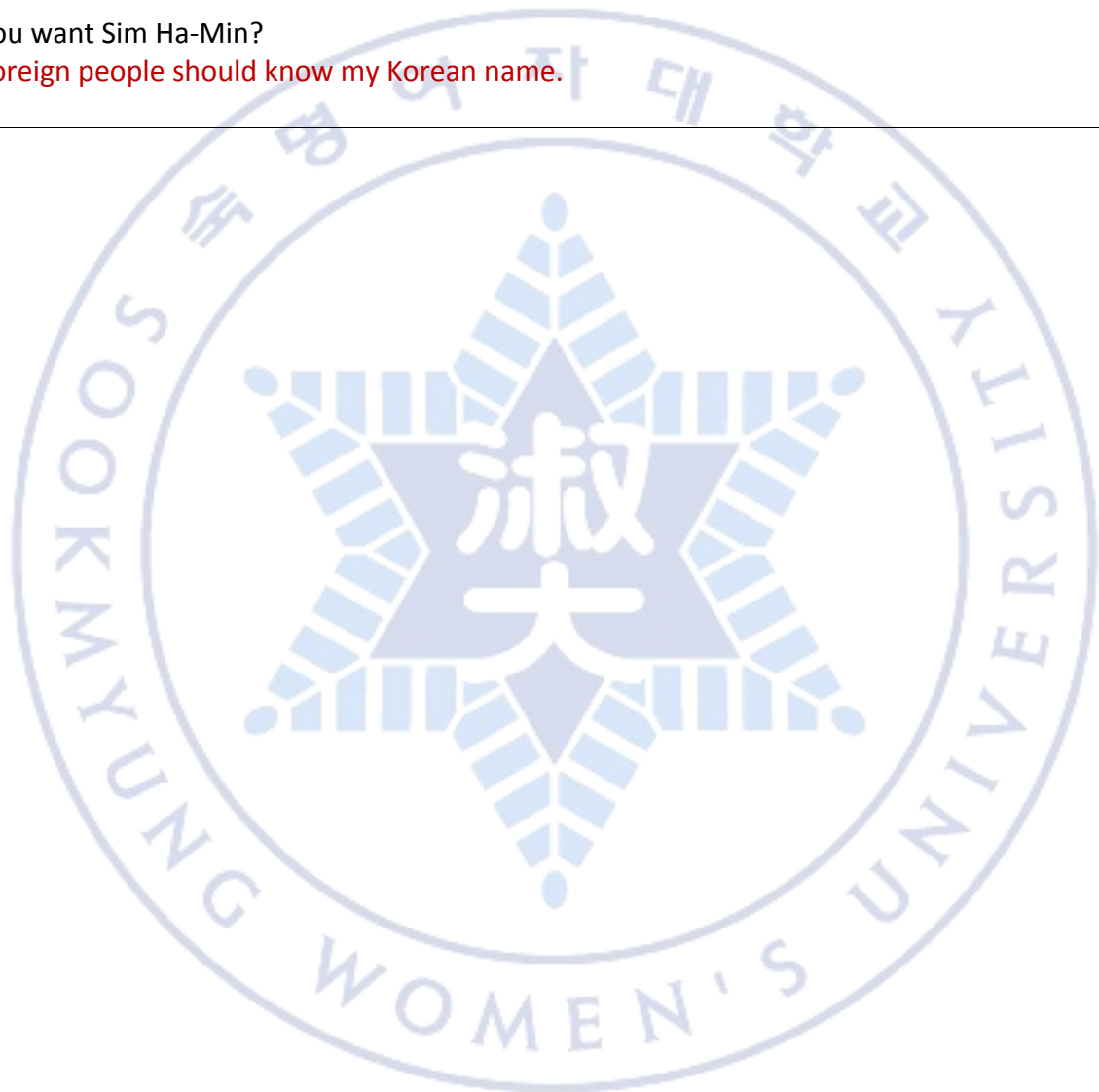
I am not sure. It might depend on situations?

Which name would you want to let people know? May or Sim Ha-Min?

Sim Ha-Min.

You want Sim Ha-Min?

Foreign people should know my Korean name.



Ecological Linguistics in CALL and Language Learning

Dongwon Park

TESOL 2nd Semester

This research investigates how various environmental factors affect learners' second language acquisition. Based on van Lier's (2010) ecological perspective, ecological linguistics' main idea is to study and consider the relationships of elements in the surrounding environment and the interactions among them. In this paper six different studies are reviewed that show various types of affordances and how they effectively motivate second language learners. The following literature is reviewed according to these three research questions: 1) What aspects of the theory were focused upon in the study; 2) How were these aspects evident in task design and data analysis; and 3) How do the results impact classroom practice? Kim & Kim (2013) showed how the same environment can be perceived differently according to each participant's affordances constructed with different background, personality, interest, and goals. Ryu (2013) researched the possibility of language learning during and after online game play. Berglund (2009) researched the influence of tools and task design in language learning. Rama, Black, van Es, and Warschauer (2012) investigated how each person with different gaming and language abilities responded to affordances. Thorne, Fischer, & Lu (2012) studied linguistic complexity using quests and the external websites of an online game. Lastly, Wong and Looi (2010) presented authentic and social mobile learning activities to promote learners' active participation in learning. The studies are compared and discussed to see what can be done and how we can effectively use the idea of ecological linguistics in our own classes.

1. Introduction

One of the biggest issues of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is how we can use computer technology to make second language (L2) learners more actively involved in communication. Since the purpose of learning language is to make meaning and communicate with others who have different mother tongues, computer technology has the potential to provide different environments of language learning unlike the traditional classroom setting. With the development of information technology from the late 20th century, views of L2 learning started to change as tools of communication and ways of teaching and learning it have changed as well. Regarding L2 teaching and learning, one of the biggest advantages of this particular technology is that it has enabled people to communicate easily with others at a distance regardless of time, and learners have a virtual environment in which to learn the L2 outside of the classroom. Linguists have reaffirmed that interaction is one of the most important and influential points in the process of language learning, and they have observed and proved this through a lot of research and numerous studies.

In the Internet-Based Language Teaching course two semesters ago, one of the topics was the idea of social interaction playing an important role in effective L2 teaching and how it can be actually implemented in and outside of the classroom. Last semester, the focus was how CALL can be integrated with sociocultural theory, ecological linguistics, task-based language learning, and others. Coming up with some ideas to make learners interact with each other during activities with computers other than giving comments or replying to someone else's postings has been quite challenging. However, especially after reading the ecological linguistics related articles and studies this semester, I have developed a better understanding of the computer assisted environment and other elements that could also make interaction possible. In particular, if we use and consider more elements, task designs can be more effective, and therefore language learning will be more efficient. Therefore, this paper will focus on the theory of ecological linguistics.

The main idea of ecological linguistics is to study and consider the relationships of elements in the surrounding environment and the interaction among them (van Lier, 2010). That is, the interaction in L2 learning is not only between learners; it can be even more than that. According to van Lier (2000), learners are in an environment full of potential meanings, and the environment provides them with opportunities for meaningful action. It is a place where "the active learner engages in meaning-making activities together with others" (p. 252). This meaningful interaction in SLA can motivate learners to perform further actions and eventually allow learning. In this paper, six different studies are introduced showing various types of environments and how they are perceived by different learners.

First, this paper will briefly introduce the theory of ecological linguistics. Second, six studies related to the theory will be reviewed according to the following research questions: 1) what aspects of the theory were focused upon in the study; 2) how were these aspects evident in task design and data analysis; and, 3) how do the results impact classroom practice? Lastly, it will discuss how the six studies relate to the theory and research questions and what more can be done using this information.

2. Ecological Linguistics and SLA

The idea of an ecological perspective on language learning is quite different from the traditional perspective. Traditional language learning was "a one-way direction of information, innovation or improvement" (van Lier, 2003, p. 62). Teachers provided rules, learners took notes and memorized, rule-based written tests were given, and students never

had any chances to have real conversations where they could use what they had learned. Ecological linguistics, however, is all about relationships between the various elements of a classroom, or “the totality of relationships of an organism with all other organisms with which it comes into contact” (van Lier, 2004a, p. 3). That is, interaction in language learning is not only with teachers or other learners, but it is also with the environment around them. Van Lier’s (2004b) study also found the following:

An ecological perspective is at its core a world view, a way of being and acting in the world that has an impact on how we conduct our lives, how we relate to others and to the environment, and of course also, how we conceive of teaching and learning. (p. 86)

The influence of the relationship with the environment can vary depending on the environment itself and learners and their background. That is, interaction is not always positive; it can be negative as well. However as a teacher, designing appropriate tasks is one of the most important responsibilities in making interaction more productive, and by understanding the environment surrounding an organism, which is here an L2 learner, effective task design is possible.

When discussing the relationship between a learner and their environment, the first thing we need to understand is affordances. Gibson (1979) claimed that “affordances refer to reciprocal relationships between an organism and particular features of its environment” (as cited in Darhower, 2008, p. 49). An ecological perspective on language learning explains how an organism and the environment work together to make learners interact, and affordances are what an organism can do or use within the environment in order to make interaction and communication possible (ibid.). Using the various affordances available in their environment, learners can construct meaning. Van Lier (2004b) gave different types of affordances as in the following:

The direct affordances refer to such things as prosodic features (rhythm, voice quality, intonation, stress, etc.); gestures, facial expressions, posture, eye gaze, etc.; turn-taking signals, hesitations, repetitions, etc.; all of these in a variety of synchronized combinations. Indirect affordances are of a social and cognitive nature: remembered practices, familiarity with cultural artifacts, conversational and situational logic, etc. (p. 90)

In SLA, the organism is usually the L2 learner, and the feature can be anything in the environment. Ziglari (2008) claimed that the teacher should understand L2 learners’ needs

and choose appropriate materials so that they can perceive some aspects of these materials that can fit into their knowledge and interact with the environment. Not all affordances are meaningful and good for L2 learning, but depending on how an individual learner perceives these affordances, language learning can occur. The environment given during L2 learning provides different opportunities for learning, and, with rich affordances from the environment, it will be possible “to structure the learner’s activities and participation so that access is available and engagement encouraged” (van Lier, 2000, p. 253).

3. Literature Review

3.1 Kim & Kim (2013)

A study by Kim and Kim (2013) showed that a single environment can be perceived differently according to each participant’s affordances, constructed with different backgrounds, personalities, interests, and goals. They recruited two pairs of university students, who were all taking the same English requirement course. The two courses were both general education requirements that had the same task-based curriculum designed to improve English speaking and listening skills. In this particular study, the focus was how learners use different affordances even though they are in the same environment, and in order to analyze how participants perceived affordances, they were asked to write two narratives about their life history and their English learning history prior to the start of the study. Through several interview sessions, further questions were asked in relation to participants’ narratives, and researchers observed how and if participants perceived class activities differently.

Concerning affordances, Kim and Kim (2013) stated that “the same environment and purpose could be interpreted differently to the individual learners, thereby leading to different activities” (p. 149). For example, even though these affordances were not intentionally designed to be in classroom activities, two of the participants were more actively involved in class activities compared to the other two who were much more negative. Even though the reason for active participation was not the same, they both constructed meaningful affordances. This was possible because they both had personal goals and specific reasons to take these courses, rather than just as a graduation requirement. On the other hand, there was no personal goal for the other two participants, so they showed less active participation and a negative attitude. Kim (2010) claimed that “L2 learning goals are of direct relation to the

construction of affordance” (as cited in Kim & Kim, 2013, p. 149). Each participant had a different background, personality, interests, and goals, so this was why they constructed different affordances and showed different participation and attitudes toward the curriculum, activities, and teachers.

In regard to this paper’s third research question, the study showed that providing a meaningful environment and accepting and respecting personal differences need to be considered for classroom practice, as this will promote learners’ agency, participation, and make classroom practice more efficient. Clearly, it is not easy to make the environment meaningful for each student in one class, but Kim and Kim (2013) suggest that “giving choices ... [which] would be more beneficial to FL learners, in assisting them to transform their environment into affordances” (p. 151). How teachers design tasks to give choices needs to be considered more, but at least transforming the environment into their own, meaningful affordances can encourage learners to willingly participate more, and result in effective classroom practice.

3.2 Ryu (2013)

Ryu’s (2013) study indicates that language learning is clearly possible while playing games as well as after game play in an online game community. The game used in the study was called Civilization (Civ), and the study was also conducted at one of the unofficial fan-based websites, Civfanatics.com (CFC). Six non-native English-speaking participants were recruited using certain criteria related to interest and engagement in language, language background, current level, and game participation. Researchers observed participants’ asynchronous computer-mediated communications (ACMCs) throughout the research period to find how they interacted. E-mail interviews were held as well to see their participation in language learning beyond-game culture, and to investigate language learning during game play and the relationship between English learning during game play and beyond-game culture.

Ryu (2013) focused on the aspect of balance and relationship of the two different environments (game play and beyond-game culture) to see how game users are able to utilize different types of affordances when learning the L2. Instead of only focusing on what participants can learn during game play, the study also did deep research on what language learning related activities can be done after playing the game. While playing the game in English, there were some repeated game and history related words and phrases which acted

as linguistic affordances for participants to learn. Ryu (2013) also claimed that “[f]rom ecological perspectives, game play could serve as a trigger to encourage game players to participate in the activity of language learning through and beyond game culture” (p.293). That is, other affordances from what they experienced during game play led participants to CFC to interact with other players and discuss things related to the game and skills in English. English learning was not the main purpose of playing the game, but the environment and affordances allowed participants to learn English through interaction and activities with other players. In the case of game play, there was not a lot of direct interaction with other players, but rather, learners paid attention to repeated words or phrases just because they wanted to win the game. On the other hand, after game play, learners had chances to actually interact with other players, and especially intermediate and advanced learners were able to develop the target language. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) stated that when players discussed, debated, or collaborated with other players to win a game, learners could develop language from this participation (as cited in Ryu, 2013). According to interviews with two participants, neither was aware of their language learning until after they analyzed their own practices. Because the affordances fully encouraged them to actively participate, it caused language learning. Two different, but interrelated, environment scans work together to promote learner participation and interaction.

Since language learning during game play is somewhat limited, extended practices should be designed to complement this limitation by providing chances to expand what learners learn during the game. If learners are not satisfied with what they have learned during game play, beyond-game culture can give them other chances to expand their learning. In return, “[t]he expanded experience in beyond-game culture also influenced English learning while playing games” (Ryu, 2013, p. 297). If possible, there should be many types of after-game sessions designed in ways that learners desire. For example, it may be better to give learners various options for after-game sessions, and since they can choose what they want, learner participation will be higher, which will eventually cause more language learning. One of the most important features of this study was that the environment and affordances were provided based on what learners were interested in. This naturally led them to voluntary active participation and interaction. If this is considered in classroom practice and task design, it will attract learners’ willing participation.

3.3 Berglund (2009)

Berglund's (2009) study emphasized the influence of tools and task design in language learning using a multimodal desktop video conferencing environment. It used a video conference tool called Flash Meeting to analyze learner participation and feedback strategies from an ecological perspective. It did not contain information on participants and how they were recruited other than that they were five Swedish students who were non-native English speakers. Discussion questions related to cultural studies were provided before each session which required participants to search for information online. Flash Meeting has both voice and text interaction. It allows participants to broadcast through voice interaction one at a time, and they line up until the current broadcasting finishes to say their comments. However, text chatting is always available. To show interaction other than voice and text, emoticons and a Vote function were made available, and researchers used thumbnail images of participants smiling as another way of showing interaction. These functions are important because they were later used to analyze participants' interaction and feedback strategies. There was no teacher involvement in sessions, but sessions were recorded and transcribed. Most data collection and analysis in the study was done with sessions 1 and 5.

This study focused on affordances promoting participation and feedback, causing interaction, and enabling language learning. The functions of Flash Meeting provided different types of real-time feedback, and this resulted in participation, which then enabled language learning (Berglund, 2009). However, the results showed that this tool's real-time feedback functions were limited due to difficulties experienced with waiting turns, not having motivation to give feedback, or not knowing whether other participants were paying attention or not. Participation rates also showed different patterns because "the patterns found in the student interaction analyzed here relate ... also to previous experiences and personal speaking styles" (Berglund, 2009, p. 202). Nevertheless, language learning is still possible in this environment because "it is possible to foster an affirmative social climate" (Berglund, 2009, p. 204). This was why the study linked interaction, even with limited affordances and environment, to language learning.

In order to design tasks or activities like this, teacher involvement should be reconsidered. One thing that was missing in the study was that there was no teacher involvement during sessions because the study wanted to provide fully student-centered discussions, and it seemed there were difficulties, especially with conversational feedback. Mostly, participants experienced these difficulties due to technical problems with the tool functions. However, another more important reason for the difficulties was that there were no

rules to follow or people in control. If these kinds of problems occur continuously, affordances that had good relationships between learners and the environment can become less effective. Therefore, instead of leaving it all up to participants, there should be basic rules given or at least a little bit of teacher involvement to get over difficulties. As a suggestion, it is better to let teachers login to the session, remind them of basic rules to follow, and remain invisible during the session. However, if participants experience technical difficulties or are confused, teachers can interrupt and straighten things up so that the discussion can continue to flow smoothly. It might also be helpful to give some assignments which reflect individual learners' own participation and feedback they provided while chatting to and commenting on each other. Using recorded video conferences or chatting transcripts, learners can notice what they have done during the session and reflect on what they can do next time with some suggestions or comments from other participants.

3.4 Rama, Black, van Es, & Warschauer (2012)

Rama, Black, van Es, and Warschauer (2012) focused on the key affordances in an online gaming environment and how these affordances can promote L2 learning and socialization. Over a seven-week period six L2 learners of Spanish were asked to play World of Warcraft (WoW) in Spanish. Though there were no particular tasks for participants to do, they were asked to post their text chat logs and write journal entries after playing the games and have interviews with the researchers. Among these six participants, this study mainly focused on two students who were specially chosen because their language and game playing skills were contrastive; one was a novice Spanish learner but an expert game player, and the other was an advanced Spanish learner but a novice gamer. They wanted to see how people with different gaming and language abilities might respond to the affordances.

Rama et al. (2012) mainly focused on the influence of affordances in ecological linguistics: particularly forming safe language learning spaces, emphasizing communicative competence in the environment, and promoting collaborative action. The participants were required to join a guild, which is a smaller group of players who can share and learn game mechanics through private chat channels. Rama et al. described a guild as “an engaging, low-anxiety setting ... to explore the Spanish language version of the game” and claimed that they can “afford opportunities for learners of varying levels to collaboratively use language to accomplish tasks and teach and learn from each other in a safe environment” (p. 330). In regards to communicative competence, especially with one novice Spanish participant, it was

clearly shown that communicative competence had developed after playing the game and participating in a guild in Spanish. At the very beginning, the participant made short utterances like greetings and expressions of appreciation for interaction. However, in this unique environment, communication was essential to build relationships with other guild members, and made the participant engage more and develop communicative competence after a certain period.

Since there were no particular tasks designed and provided for the participants in the study, teachers have to consider what kind of tasks should be given before implementing this game with a real language class. Rama et al. (2012) suggested that participation in the online game environment, especially with a guild, enables learners to engage and interact more in the target language and give them confidence and perceived competence. However, since most chatting happens during game play, there might be some limitations such as interrupted chatting and using non-standard language with many errors. Therefore, it may be better to design in-class tasks as a follow-up, for instance, using text chat logs and sharing their experiences. As a peer or small group activity, learners can analyze their chat logs and share their experiences of using the target language; it is a kind of in-class guild, only sharing their language learning experience instead of game mechanics. This way, learners will be able to perceive what more needs to be done next time and become more motivated as well.

3.5 Thorne, Fischer, & Lu (2012)

Thorne, Fischer, and Lu's (2012) study also used World of Warcraft (WoW), but focused on linguistic complexity using external websites. The study looked at the way participants complete quests and how they use external websites. There were a total of 64 Dutch and American participants who were all playing the game in English, and most Dutch participants were advanced English speakers. Thorne et al. introduced three external websites related to WoW where most game players get information about the game, its quests, strategy, items, lore, background and history. The goal of this research was to "accurately and objectively assess the complexity of texts that gamers most frequently engage with" (p. 287). That is, by looking at the language used in external websites before, after, and during the game play, the researchers wanted to find out what kind of language the game players can engage with.

Thorne et al. (2012) used quest texts and external websites as affordances of ecological linguistics even though they did not clearly mention it in the study. WoW gives the players quests, which are like tasks to complete during the game play, and most gamers use

external websites to learn and share information about quests. The sentence types of text quests vary, and the results showed that among these types the simplest and most complex sentences were most frequent. This implies that WoW presents an environment where not only simple but also highly complex input is provided. The researchers proposed that “external websites function as keystone species within WoW’s broader semiotic ecology” (Thorne et al., 2012, p. 296). That is, these external websites can be ecological affordances, and they may provide highly complex input to game players.

However, this particular study did not present anything in regards to language learning with complexity of quest texts. The only thing they mentioned was input through the websites and quest texts. The question is what does it have to do with language learning? How did this input actually work to improve the Dutch participants’ English development? What can the teachers do with text quests for L2 learning? It is even hard to think about how quest texts and their complexity can be used when designing language learning tasks and practices. It is clear that external websites provide input opportunities and interaction for L2 English game players, but it is quite tough to think about what quest texts can do for L2 learners other than simply providing input. It may be possible to use them in form-focused tasks, but it is still very difficult to come up with other ideas or tasks to utilize this input. This study showed what kind of input WoW provided as language learning affordances, but there was a lack of explanation about how this input promoted learners’ L2 development.

3.6 Wong & Looi (2010)

Wong and Looi (2010) uniquely used mobile devices in their study, focusing on authentic and social mobile learning activities to promote learners’ active participation in learning. Wong and Looi (2010) emphasized that they did not use mobile devices to deliver learning content only; they used the devices after delivering content to give learners opportunities to go out and personally experience real-life usage of the content or make their own creations using it. Wong and Looi conducted two studies: one for learning English prepositions and another for Chinese idioms. Both studies were conducted with classes of Primary students in Singapore, where English is used in public schools. However, learners come from homes with different language backgrounds; mostly Chinese-Singaporean homes and some English-speaking homes.

Wong and Looi (2010) tried these two studies with two different age groups: Primary 2 and Primary 5. One study, based on English prepositions, was conducted with the second

graders by asking them to take photos as a group illustrating six prepositions already learned in class and make sentences on a worksheet describing the pictures they took. After this activity, learners get together and share their photos and sentences followed by another worksheet activity to complete a story by filling in the gaps with prepositions, and some of their work sheets were chosen to be shared. The other study, which used Chinese idioms, was done with the fifth graders, and this particular study included four activities. Activity 1 was in-class contextual idiom learning, where each idiom was presented and contextual learning activities were conducted. The aim of this activity was noticing, motivating, and preparing learners for subsequent activities. Activity 2 was out-of-class, contextual, independent sentence making. Learners had to take pictures and make sentences containing the idioms to describe the pictures, and post them on a class wiki page. Activity 3 was also out-of-class learning, online-based peer learning. Learners were asked to visit other peers' postings and give comments, feedback, or corrections. The last activity was in-class consolidation; they gathered in class and had small group discussions talking about student-made sentences.

The study provided learners with a surrounding environment and mobile devices as affordances to make them actively participate in meaning-making activities, as Lai, Yang, Chen, Ho, and Chan (2007) suggested (as cited in Wong & Looi, 2010). In order to complete the activities, learners had to take photos of their surroundings, which eventually made them notice the language content. In addition, by requiring them to come up with their own sentences to describe their pictures, learners were encouraged to generate the language forms they learned, which enabled them to use forms properly in authentic situations. Another effective affordance presented here was sharing their photos and sentences with others. The study was specifically designed to have this certain task so that learners had chances to share their work either in class or online, and could help each other to improve and reflect upon their work and what more could be done to use them properly and accurately (Wong & Looi).

Now, the concern is how these studies can be applied when designing classroom practices. Overall, the strong point of these two studies by Wong and Looi (2010) is that they provided participants with opportunities to notice the content they had learned in the authentic environment. Through noticing, understanding of language content can be enhanced. In addition, making sentences collaboratively and sharing them with other students enables communication. However, there may be some anticipated difficulties. The class time is not long enough to go through the whole process in one class. It might be hard to manage learners depending on their age or the environment, but with older students, it is much easier

to design follow-up activities outside of the classroom and short, in-class review sessions, because consolidation with students in class as the very last part of the activities is essential. Concerning all of the above, class practices should be designed depending not only on which tools to use, but also on class conditions.

4. Discussion and the Future

Among the six studies above, the most common idea regarding the environment was that affordances can work differently depending on a learner's life history, L2 background, personality, and his or her surroundings. Even though learners are in the same environment, what makes affordances more meaningful is different according to each learner (Kim & Kim, 2013). However, a lack of understanding by learners can discourage them and their language learning as well. Some studies showed the importance of researching and understanding each learner and background. Since these studies were intentionally designed to have analyzed results to support their arguments, research on students was held. However, in real classroom settings, this is not normally done, and is often impossible to do. Nonetheless, background research has to be tried because it will give better understanding of which environments and affordances will be beneficial for learners. Once it is done, designing curricula and activities will be a lot easier as well.

For example, in Ryu's (2013) study, it was possible to see that there was a high level of participation. Of course, they recruited participants who had played the game in question regularly and who volunteered to participate. However, it still proved that the environment and affordances of what they had originally been interested in could encourage more participation in interaction and language learning. Rama et al. (2012) showed a particular learner who was highly motivated and actively participated. It was possible without much background research because this participant was fully motivated to share his advanced game skills with his guild members even though his L2 Spanish was not sufficient at the beginning. On the other hand, Kim and Kim's (2013) study indicated that the same curriculum that did not consider learners' background or interests caused some learners not to participate or show interest. Therefore, in order to make the environment and affordances more meaningful in real classroom situations, at least basic research on each learner has to be implemented.

The idea of giving choices to construct meaningful affordances and make learning efficient was also eye-catching. In order to make interaction more significant, curricula or activities have to be interesting and attractive, for example by giving learners options. Kim

and Kim's (2013) study was the only one that mentioned this idea, but this can still be applied to the other two studies and actual classroom settings. For instance, as in Ryu's (2013) study, learners can have the option to choose those after-game activities which look most interesting to them, or as in Berglund's (2009) study, where teachers let learners choose discussion topics and do research themselves in pairs or groups. Rama et al. (2012) let participants join some guilds where they provided a setting with authentic L2 social interaction for successful participation and interaction. Wong and Looi (2010) did not give learners any choices to make, but taking pictures outside of the classroom using the surrounding environment was different from what they had done before, so learners did tasks with great excitement. Overall, participation rates can be higher, and interaction can be more meaningful because they were allowed to choose or do something they wanted or were at least willing to do.

Following the importance of understanding learners and their background as discussed above, I think I need to do this with my own students; my current teaching environment is perfect for this. I am currently teaching 1-on-1 classes in a private institute, and the biggest advantage of this environment is that I can fully focus on one student for thirty minutes or an hour. Of course, the class curriculum is mostly pre-designed, and I have to follow it; however, there still is some time to work on personalized tasks. Therefore, this is what I want to do with my own students. There is a new student called Mr. X who has recently registered in an intermediate level regular tutorial class. He is currently working as an engineer at a major automobile company in Korea. Even before he started to work in the automobile industry, he has always been interested in cars, he said. In the very first class, during ice-breaking, I asked him what his hobbies were, and he answered reading automobile magazines and watching Top Gear, a famous British TV show about cars. Now, I think I can use this environment and affordances to design personal activities for him. If a topic is something a learner loves, it is easy to encourage them to try an activity outside the classroom. First of all, more detailed research will be needed on his interests such as where he gets the latest updates on automobiles and the industry, which particular cars or car models he likes and why, and so on. Based on the research, I can design a CALL activity using technology he is familiar with. However, while designing an activity there is one thing that has to be considered in choosing technology: does this technology provide the environment and appropriate affordances with enough interaction? This question can be answered with the idea that "language and thought emerge ... through ... engagement in human activity, both with physical objects and artifacts (tools), and with social, historical, and cultural practices

(signs)” (van Lier, 2000, p. 254). It is important to remind learners why interaction in language learning is essential. On top of that, having a specific goal when doing this activity could encourage him more. Once an activity is implemented, there needs to be continuous follow up and some challenges like an in-class discussion or presentation. Or, instead of choosing something a learner is already familiar with, we can encourage them to choose something new. This plan may look unrealistic or too idealistic, and it might be too much work, however, what is significant here is a learner can understand the idea of learning language as being something not difficult or expensive; it rather can be done through the things that he or she likes.

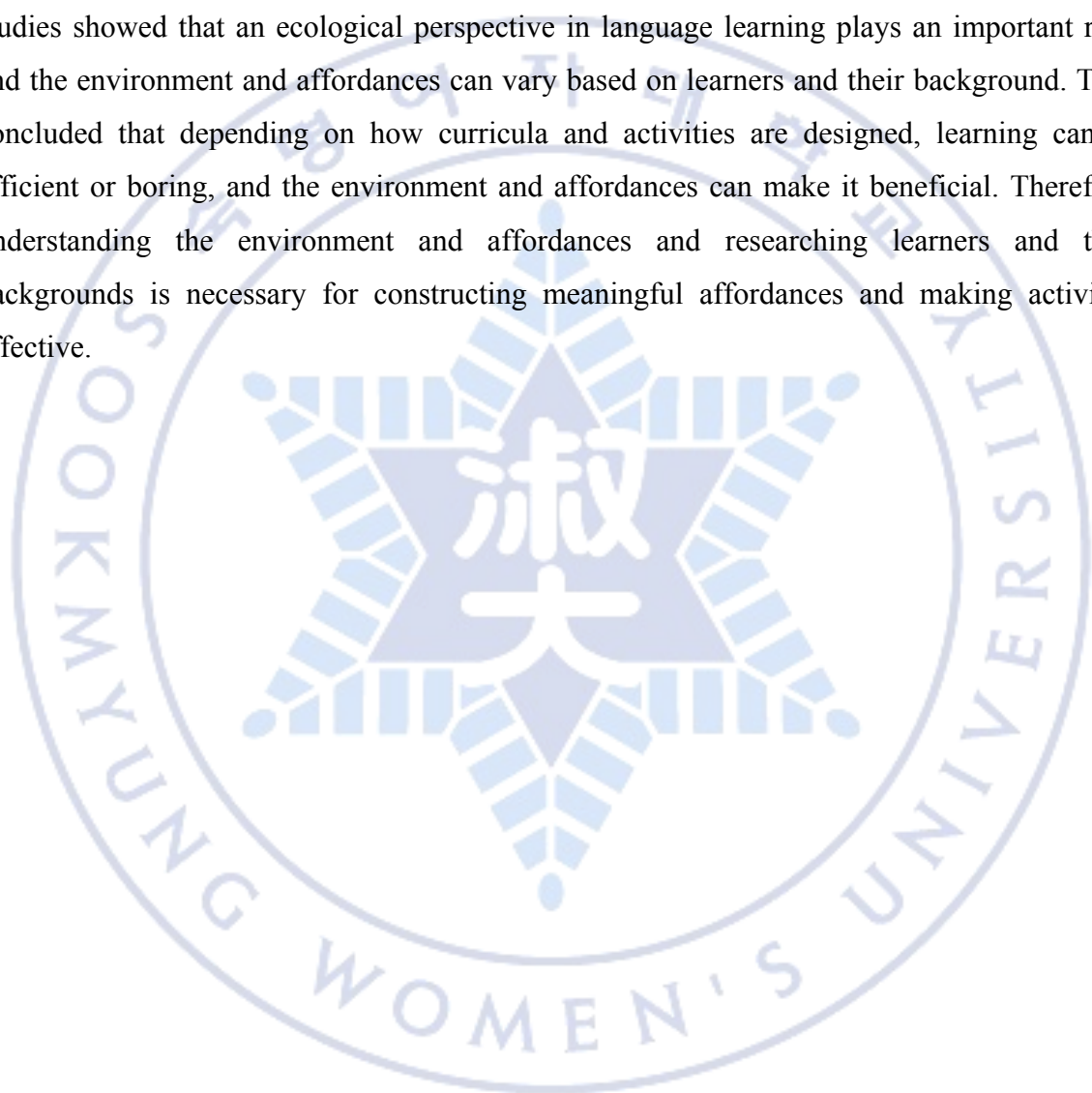
From an ecological linguistics perspective, most of these six studies were looking for relationships and processes rather than products and outcomes and the quality of the given environment and learning opportunities (van Lier, 2003). The studies reviewed in this paper wanted to see how language learning emerges given different affordances and environments, and some of them clearly showed what van Lier (2003) pointed out. Whether the productions and outcomes of activities were accurate or not was not very important; rather, the main focus was whether learners had enough interaction and got motivated or not.

Then, the next thing to consider is how this can be done in actual classroom settings. There are three key points I have come up with after summarizing the six studies for designing an ideal teaching task: giving choices, noticing language content, and reflecting /consolidating. This is seen best in Ryu (2013) and Rama et al. (2012) because the tools used in the studies were things that some learners already enjoyed without any L2 learning purpose, so when they participated in the studies, they showed high rates of participation. If learners can choose the environment and affordances of what they want or are interested in, it will definitely motivate them to actively participate. In regards to noticing, it has already been clearly discussed in Lai and Li (2011) that noticing occurred within a technological environment. Wong and Looi (2010) also designed a task for noticing language content in authentic environments which have salient text input, and learners had chances to notice and interact at the same time during the task. Lastly, reflection and consolidation is required because there must be some time to reflect upon what learners have done so that they can have meaningful affordances (Wong & Looi, 2010). Except for giving choices, the other two points are better done with peers or in groups to enhance learning. Designing a task using all three key points will not be easy, but in the future, this should be tried and implemented to

see how interaction with other learners and the chosen environment can promote and enhance L2 learning.

5. Conclusion

Ecological linguistics is about the relationship between learners and the environment surrounding them, and affordances are used to make this relationship possible. The six studies showed that an ecological perspective in language learning plays an important role, and the environment and affordances can vary based on learners and their background. They concluded that depending on how curricula and activities are designed, learning can be efficient or boring, and the environment and affordances can make it beneficial. Therefore, understanding the environment and affordances and researching learners and their backgrounds is necessary for constructing meaningful affordances and making activities effective.



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Enhancing Class Dynamics and Interaction Through the Application of Communicative Activities

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TESOL 4th Semester

At the beginning of the school year, I was faced with students who had low motivation and behavioral problems during English class. Based on a few weeks reflection, I tried to bring change to my classroom by applying different approaches, such as creating cooperative classroom environments, changing the reward system, and using grouping strategies. All of these changes, in the long run, were made for the application of communicative activities into the English classroom in order to enhance class dynamics and students' interactions. The study took place in an elementary school in Kangnam, Seoul. Subjects of the study initially consisted of thirteen boys and ten girls in the sixth grade, but one of the girls transferred to another school in the middle of the intervention. The intervention lasted for six weeks. Qualitative and quantitative data were compared and analyzed in order to investigate how the students' attitudes toward English classes changed. The findings of the present study suggest that the use of communicative activities in learning English facilitates students' motivation and participation regardless of their level of English proficiency. The results of the study raise the issue of increasing vocabulary for further investigation.

1. Introduction

1.1 Reflections on the Initial Stage of the Class

At the beginning of the school year, I observed that most of my students did not show any interest during class time; they gave little response to any kinds of requests from the teacher, only a few students volunteered answers to questions, and many of the students did not pay attention to the teacher. The students seemed to be totally unmotivated and indifferent to learning English in general. However, the result of pre-tests, which included needs analysis and a diagnostic test for listening and speaking skill, indicated that my assumption could be biased against the students' actual performances and their attitudes. Analyzed data from the pre-tests showed better outcomes than I expected in terms of students' perceptions of learning English and of their general English proficiency level. In addition, the results of the class observation and video analysis for the first few weeks raised several issues from my lessons.

The first thing was the lessons were quite teacher-centered. I talked a lot throughout the class and the students were mostly listening and answering only when they were invited to. It may have been due to my approach to teaching: I stuck to the PPP lesson structure with

the aim of improving their accuracy. It was also much easier for me to manage the students and to follow the textbook structure this way. The textbook my school uses isolates target language patterns and sentence structures so that they can be learned through repetitive drills. The students were only allowed to use well-formed and structured communication patterns rather than natural interactions when they participated in the activities.

Second, the classroom activities were completely decontextualized. Most activities that I used in my classroom were for practicing and memorizing the patterns in the textbook until the students could say them automatically. In this type of learning atmosphere, the students had little or no control of their own output. The problem is, however, even though the students seemed to be well trained and got good grades in their writing tests, they could hardly speak in real-life situations; what they had learned and drilled was hardly transferring to their language proficiency.

Lastly, most of the activities that I implemented encouraged competition between groups or pairs rather than cooperation among students. As a result, students that were more competent avoided working with less proficient students because they wanted to win the activity. This tendency increased noticeably when the students were allowed to select their partners. Under these circumstances, cooperation and negotiation of meaning hardly occurred. Driscoll and Hitz (1989) argue that when teachers use rewards to create inviting environments, the results may be counterproductive. Based on the reflections that I made for the past few weeks, I realized that I could not entirely put the blame for the students' low motivation and behavioral problems on the students themselves, but the learning atmosphere was culpable as well.

1.2 The General Information of the Class

The study took place in an elementary school in Kangnam, Seoul. The class initially consisted of thirteen boys and ten girls in the sixth grade, but one of the girls transferred to another school in the middle of the intervention. Besides having had English education in public school since they were in 3rd grade, the majority of the students (67%) in the class had been taking extra English lessons in private institutes, though pre-tests revealed that many of the students were not confident in listening and speaking in English. Most of their English learning relied on rote memorization of target sentence patterns or grammar rules. The tasks and textbooks which are used in Elementary schools offer formulaic phrases to use within

dialogues. The tasks are far removed from the students' own knowledge, interests, and experiences in terms of topics and objectives.

1.3 Background Information on the Students

According to the students' needs analysis, less than half (47.8%) of the students responded positively to understanding English directions when they were given with gestures or other visual aids. Further, 69.6% of the students had more confidence speaking English when working in pairs or in groups than speaking alone in front of the class. Even though most of the students had had a native English-speaking teacher in the past, 52.2% of the students responded that they were still uncomfortable speaking English with foreigners. When asked to give a general opinion about English class, 43.5% of the respondents answered positively, whereas 21.7% of the students viewed English classes negatively. For the purpose of learning English, 39.1% of the respondents ranked communication the highest.

The diagnostic assessment of students' basic listening and speaking skills was implemented based on the results of the students' needs analysis and the results of class observation. During the first few sessions, most students in class did not seem to understand the teacher's instructions, and only a few students reacted to the teacher's requests or questions. Therefore, I assumed that they had a low proficiency. The results showed, however, that 56.5% of the students had a fairly good understanding of simple directions and questions. Meanwhile, 43.5% of students needed the teacher's careful scaffolding in understanding L2 directions.

The subsequent speaking assessment was analyzed using rubrics including six categories: amount of information successfully conveyed, quality of language structure, flow, pronunciation, word choice, and overall impressions. According to the European Language levels framework, the students fell into four groups by their speaking proficiency level. Four out of 23 students (17.4%) were included in the highest level, B1, and could connect sentences in a simple way in order to describe a series of pictures; they were also able to narrate a story or relate the plot of the pictures; their language flowed smoothly and a listener could easily understand them. Six students (26.1%) fell into the A2 group, and could use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms; they expressed personal meaning by combining and recombining what they knew into short statements; their speech was filled with frequent pauses. The next group of nine students (39.1%) belonged to the A1 level, and

could use simple phrases and sentences to describe the pictures, though with frequent inaccuracy in form; they were heavily affected by their L1 in speaking English. The last group of four students (17.4%) were below A1 level, which means they could convey virtually no information from the pictures; they conveyed very limited word-level information only for a couple of the pictures; they were also extremely tense as they were speaking; they were far below basic level when compared with their peers.

2. Research Question

Based on the above findings, I decided to change my teaching approach in order to enhance class dynamics and interaction through communicative activities. The intervention lasted for six weeks. In this study, therefore, I wanted to examine the effect of communicative activities on classroom dynamics and students' participation. The research question for the action research (AR) was as follows: How can communicative activities affect the motivation and participation of students at different proficiency levels?

3. The Intervention

3.1 Overviews of the AR Intervention

3.1.1 Creating a cooperative classroom environment

I began my actual intervention by creating cooperative classroom environments. The underlying theory of my intervention was the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. According to Brown (2007), CLT is related not only to the organizational aspects of language but also to the pragmatic aspects. However, the central focus of CLT is on developing linguistic fluency and functional use of language for meaningful purposes. To accomplish this, students in a CLT class are encouraged to construct meaning through interaction with others. Students are therefore expected to be active participants. Learner-centered, cooperative, collaborative learning is emphasized in a CLT class. It is believed that language learning takes place when learners work collaboratively in order to achieve their goals. Based on this rationale, shifting power from the teacher to the students by encouraging cooperation became the first priority of the intervention in my action research project. Therefore, the first change I made for my classroom environment was changing the title on

the black board from ‘class competition’ to ‘outstanding teamwork’, which aimed to encourage cooperation rather than competition among group members.

Next, I changed the reward system. Before the intervention, I made my students constantly compare themselves with each other by giving rewards for the ‘fastest’, ‘most’ or ‘best’ work, leading them to compete against one another. I combatted this by introducing a monkey chart reward system, in which groups were rewarded for good teamwork, participation, and helping each other rather than the outcome of their work. By using this, I hoped many students would come to appreciate the value of teamwork.

The last thing I brought into my classroom was changing my grouping strategy. Initially, I had applied mixed strategies for grouping, which means I put most students into heterogeneous groups. Two or three of the lowest level students’ English proficiency seemed so low that they could not get help from their peers and had behavioral problems; when they sat in the back of the classroom, they did not pay attention to the lesson and, even worse, they interrupted their neighbors’ work. Therefore, I used to put them all in one same group and had them sit in the very front row of the class so that I could directly help and manage them. What I found from this group setting was that it was hard to manage the whole class; I missed the rest of the students in the class, and I ended up seeing only one tree and missing the forest. Therefore, in this intervention I scattered them through other groups so that they were next to higher-level students. Besides, by assigning specific roles for each group member, I expected the students would be able to help each other in the near future.

3.1.2 Intervention Plans

The research question for my AR is “the effect of communicative activities on the motivation and participation of students at different proficiency levels”. Ellis (2003) stated that Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is at the center of CLT. The use of tasks is at the core of language teaching in TBLT. Skehan (1998) defines a task as an activity in which meaning is primary; there is some communication problem to solve and a relationship to real-world activities with an objective that can be assessed in terms of an outcome. Ultimately, tasks lead learners beyond the language classroom to real-world contexts. Based on this idea, I carefully designed several techniques and activities for my intervention.

Table 1

Intervention overview / summary

ek	Topic	Objectives	Tasks	Focus on task design
1	What will you have? (2/5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listen to and understand expressions for asking what food someone will eat and confirm what someone says 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listening for the general and specific idea in the dialogue • practicing sentence patterns • doing a role-play using the target sentence patterns <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - providing cue cards of situations, and the characters - based on the cue cards, each group completes a role-play 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • applying the expressions that Ss learned from the lesson throughout the role-play • knowing cultural aspects between countries
2	What will you have? (3/5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • read and understand a dialogue, and a short advertisement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading a short dialogue in pairs and then creating a new dialogue by substituting some words • ordering activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - advertisement - providing each group with a set of paper strips • practicing relay reading activity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - time each group's performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • generative use of dialogue by making up their own dialogue • reducing transition time by giving instructions for the whole task • decision making Process for sequencing the text • developing group cohesiveness • developing fluent reading skills
3	I want to clean the windows (1/5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listen and understand the expressions for asking and answering about what they want to do • ask and answer what they want to do 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • previewing vocabulary <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - using a vocabulary list, each pair guesses the missing word and fills in the blank • watching the dialogue and focusing on the key expressions and practicing those • the survey activity on 6 categories <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - group → whole class • Report on the survey results 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • assigning roles and performing their roles • Providing word lists as chunks • giving clear instructions for the activity • productive use of selected items
4	I want to clean the windows (2/5)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listen to and understand expressions for accepting a suggestion • express their opinions and negotiate for decision making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Previewing the vocabulary in pairs • breaking up the dialogue into smaller parts and listen for the questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to save more time for the speaking activity - focused listening • making a decision on a program for a group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • improving Ss' interaction and participation • changing the listening process • selecting a task topic – relevant to the student's life • providing simple tasks

			performance for the upcoming field trip •reporting the results of each group's decision	
5	Story Time (The Princess and the Frog)	•read and understand the story •detect the different parts between two stories •make up a story as a group	•Motivation -describing pictures: by listening to the other pair's descriptions, finding the picture •reading and listening to the original story •Listening to the fabricated story - find the different parts between original and fabricated stories •Making up a story - by substituting some new words	•sequencing of the activities •focusing on utilizing all four skills based on the reading material •using language for meaningful purposes •maximizing the interactions •autonomous learning
6	Story Time (The Princess and the Frog)	•adapt each group's own story and add more lines for a play •perform a 'Three-Act Play based on their script	•Review - matching the dialogue to the character •Motivation and introduction the aims of the lesson - showing video •adapting narrative parts to dialogic form – add more characters •miming activity •practicing a role-play in normal-slow-high speed •performance and evaluation	•rewrite the story in dialogic form •providing plenty of opportunity to speak throughout a 'Three-Act Play' •maximizing interaction and participation between the students

3.2 The Process of the Intervention

3.2.1 Week 1

The first intervention for my AR was focused on using learned expressions through role-play. Each group was given a cue card that contained a situation and characters. Based on the given information, each group planned their lines and practiced their roles. As the students prepared for their role-play, they needed vocabulary and expressions beyond the textbook-level. There were also cultural aspects to deal with. The underlying concept of CLT is 'communicative competence', which is the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers to make meaning (Richards, 2007; Savignon, 1991). According to Littlewood (2007), when learners

are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication through relevant, purposeful, and interesting activities, students develop their communicative competence. In this regard, role-play was a meaningful task for the students. However, some groups did not work effectively, perhaps due to unfamiliarity with this type of group work. It was actually a transition period from a teacher-centered to learner-centered classroom environment. Based on this issue, I designed activities that would help facilitate group cohesiveness for the subsequent intervention.

3.2.2 Week 2

The main tasks for the second intervention were an ‘ordering activity’ and a ‘relay reading activity’. I split an advertisement into sentences and provided each group with a set of paper strips each containing a line of the text. As a group, students read and understood each sentence, then put them in order through a group decision-making process. Once a group got the right order, they worked on the comprehension check-up questions (CCQs) in the textbook, and then the group moved on to the next step, which was practicing for the relay reading game. Since the class was told they would be timed on their relay reading at the end of the lesson, students were actively engaged in reading the text. The mini survey after the class showed that students were actually learning how group interaction could contribute to their learning (21 out of 23), and they found group work interesting (19 out of 23).

Another focus of this intervention was giving interactions. Most of the activities I designed for the interventions were pair- or group-work based. Bailey (2005) suggested three principles for teaching speaking to beginning learners. One of the principles is “creating opportunities for students to interact by using group work or pair work” (p.38). Pair work and group work have been widely used in CLT classrooms. By working in pairs or in groups, students get more individual talking time than when working in teacher-centered classes, and they also get more feedback (ibid.). In addition, I have realized that the notion of CLT is linked to cooperative learning strategies.

Cooperative learning occurs under the instructional use of small groups in order to achieve common learning goals via cooperation (Dörnyei, 1997). The problem of pair- or group work in a classroom, however, was that each group worked at a different rate of speed; some groups finished early, while other groups took more time on a task. As a result, the groups that finished earlier than others had to wait for the next step. Therefore, this time, I gave the instructions for the whole process of the activities all at once. By doing so, students

did not need to sit around with nothing to do, but actually controlled their work pace with the help of the teachers. However, the whole process was made up of numerous small steps; therefore, the instructions were too long to remember. Consequently, the students kept asking about the next step while they were doing the task at hand. What I found after finishing this lesson was the importance of giving directions effectively and clearly: breaking up the task into smaller activities so that no group is sitting idle between the activities.

The strategies for improving these issues were as follows: first, posting the order of instructions on the board or providing written instructions on slips of paper for each group; next, breaking the task into smaller steps with specific time limits. By presenting a timer on the screen, the students could be aware of the time remaining when completing tasks. Another recursive issue from the intervention was the waiting time as each group presented in front of the class. In order to minimize the waiting time during the group presentation I applied a different technique, which was sharing the result of the group work with other groups first before they presented it in front of the class. After having small group presentations, the students or the teacher chose one or two groups to present in front of the class. This technique was applied throughout the rest of the intervention.

3.2.3 Week 3 & 4

The interventions for week 3 and 4 were closely linked together. The unit for week 3 and 4 was aimed at having students ask and answer about what they want to do. Schmidt (1990) has drawn attention to the role of noticing in language learning. In order for language development to take place, the learners need to take part in activities which require them to try out and experiment in using newly noticed language forms. Therefore, I planned a survey activity for both periods so that students linked the target sentence patterns to the real life situation. While the 1st period had a limited number of sentence patterns for the survey activity, such as “what do you want to do on (in) (special day)?”, “I want to ~”, there were many steps to achieving the final goal, which was conducting a survey on one topic for the whole class, then reporting the results to the whole class. To do this, each group had to start from an individual writing activity, then a group survey, and finally a whole class survey on different categories.

Even though the survey activity had its own advantages, the students were confused about the process and the class failed to complete the task. Therefore, I took this issue into consideration for the subsequent task designs. I focused on simple but meaningful tasks and

thought about giving instructions effectively as I planned for the next lesson. In addition, I kept considering student interaction and participation. First, I provided a vocabulary list for each pair so that they could help each other to preview the words on the list. Next, I changed the listening processes so that the students had more time to spend on the subsequent communicative task. Lastly, I simplified the task.

Morley (2001) maintains that simple tasks also can be meaningful and authentic. Instead of limiting the number of target sentence patterns as in the textbook, therefore, I designed the activity so that students expanded their language use by recycling expressions that they had already learned. There were a lot of interactions among group members, but the students used a lot more Korean than in the previous lesson. It may have been due to the amount of language needed for the activity. Students had to select one program for a group performance for their upcoming field trip. This task was relatively simple, but it required many more expressions in order to negotiate meaning with each other. According to Horwitz (2008), CLT teachers should help the student formulate their ideas in the second language through a lot of scaffolding. If a warm-up step was given before the decision making activity, the students might have used the language in a more creative and meaningful way. In addition, I learned that I should urge the students to use English whenever I put them into group or pair work situations.

3.2.4 Week 5 & 6

For the last two weeks of interventions, I considered all the above findings. I hoped to see any signs of improvement in the students' motivation and participation, regardless of their level of English. I continued the CLT approach in these last interventions, which were based on a story from the textbook. The objectives of the lesson were as follows: first, use the language they already know by describing pictures; second, read the original story and compare it to the fabricated one by listening; third, make up their own story by switching out some parts of the story. When the students were doing the describing activity, they were not only actively taking part in the activity, but also enjoying the opportunity to use English as a means for delivering their own message. Moreover, in spite of the deficiency of vocabulary and insufficient speaking skills, they had a feeling of success when the listeners eventually identified the described pictures. In terms of reading, students seemed to understand the story pretty well, even though there was no line-by-line translation. They were also much more actively finding the answers for the CCQs when they worked in pairs compared to when I

controlled everything. Based on this reading stage, I realized that a teacher does not necessarily need to be the sole source of knowledge in a classroom. Indeed, students can be the best teachers for one another, and they were able to learn by themselves with each other's help. This is one of the main aspects of sociocultural theory.

The subsequent intervention was closely linked to the previous one. Based on the story each group made up, students performed a 'Three-Act Play'. By applying the findings from the previous interventions, such as providing written instructions, setting specific time limits for each step, performing the role-play in small groups, giving clear guidance on expectations of the final performance, I was able to manage time effectively. During the last two interventions, I found most groups were comfortable working together. There were many interactions between pairs, group members, and the teachers, and they were using language for meaningful purposes. The survey showed that most of the students felt positively about their group work. For example, 21 out of 23 thought their group members worked collaboratively, and responded that they were learning from their friends.

4. Results

This section reports the students' changes in attitudes toward English classes by comparing and analyzing qualitative and quantitative data.

4.1 Mini-Surveys

In order to investigate the students' motivation and participation, mini-surveys were conducted after every intervention. The initial questionnaire was composed of two closed-ended questions and one open-ended question, which asked the students' opinions about the activity, and their degree of confidence in speaking the target expressions. It was based on the assumption that if students are confident in their speaking, and they are interested in what they are doing, then their motivation and participation will grow. The open-ended question was about the reasons they were interested in the activity or not. However, in the middle of the intervention, I added two more questions to find the students' perceptions of their own and others' contributions.

Table 2 shows that the students' perceptions of their contribution to the group (pair) work were generally positive. Still, there were slight discrepancies in the perceptions of their contribution to their groups and the perceptions of their group members'. Overall, students

thought positively of communicative activities and their speaking. Positive feedback on the communicative activities (group/pair works), which was provided by an open-ended question was as follows; “*there was a lot of interaction between friends*”; “*I liked to work collaboratively*”; “*I liked to move around the classroom to share ideas*”; “*I liked to know what other friends thought about the topic*”; “*it was good to express myself*”.

Interestingly, most negative feedback was from higher-level students. They stated as follows; “*the task was too complicated*”; “*the classroom was too noisy*”; “*some of my group members got sidetracked and it was annoying*”.

This self-assessment of the activity was compared to corresponding class observation analysis to justify each finding. In addition, the findings were supported by subsequent group interviews.

4.2 Behavior Checklist

In order to examine changes in the students’ participation, a behavior checklist was used. The numbers of the participants were tallied according to the activity types as the lessons went on. It was done by either video-analysis after the lessons or in-class observation. Since pair work or group work was implemented based on the assumption that everybody would be involved in the activity, the students who did not participate or interrupted others during the activity were mainly observed and numbered.

Table 2

Self-assessment of the activities (N=23 →N=22)

Statement	Week	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Today’s activity was interesting	1	7	9	6	1	0
	2	9	10	4	0	0
	3	7	11	4	1	0
	4	10	6	6	0	0
	5	10	12	1	0	0
	6	9	8	3	0	0
2. I can speak today’s key expressions confidently.	1	11	8	2	2	0
	2	10	11	0	2	0
	3	7	13	3	0	0
	4	9	7	5	0	0
	5	10	8	3	1	0
	6	11	7	4	0	0
3. I participated a lot during the	4	9	7	5	0	0

group (pair) work.	5	8	10	3	1	0
	6	9	10	3	0	0
4. My group members participated actively during the group (pair) work.	4	6	9	5	0	2
	5	9	12	1	0	0
	6	8	11	2	1	0

Table 3 indicates that there were far more active participants in the pair or group work than in the whole-class work. However, the results also show that although they worked in pairs or in groups, the number of the active participants could be different. In addition, the active participants for the whole class activities also grew as the intervention progressed. The results of the students' self-assessment of the participation and teacher's in-class and video analyzed observation coincided.

4.3 Students' Self-Perceptions of Communicative Activities

In order to investigate the students' general views on the communicative activities, students' post-intervention survey responses were analyzed. For the first questionnaire, however, in order to retrieve students' memories on the teacher-centered class, I showed them a video which was recorded before the intervention. The students' survey was composed of seven closed-ended questions.

Table 3

The result of the observation sheet analysis (N=23 → N=22)

Task type	Whole-class activity	Pair work or group work	
Number of students	Generating ideas / Initiating questions / Giving answers	Generating ideas / Initiating questions / Giving answers	Disrupter
Before the intervention	4~5/23	0/23	8 or more/23
Intervention 1	5/23	23/23	1/23
Intervention 2	8/23	23/23	1/23
Intervention 3	7/22	17/23	2/23

Intervention 4	13/22	19/22	1/22
Intervention 5	18/22	22/22	0/22
Intervention 6	17/22	22/22	0/22

As seen in table 4 below, data on students' perceptions on the use of group (pair) work for learning English were very positive. However, 9% of students felt their group members still needed to improve their contribution to their pair (group) work. Students were slightly more generous about their own participation than that of their peers'. Even though one third of the students withheld their opinions on teacher-centered lessons, it was proved that it did not necessarily mean that they did not like group (pair) work; students thought they were able to learn well both in teacher-centered and in pair (group) works. The result of the subsequent survey supported this issue. Despite their unbiased perspectives toward group (pair) work, no one wanted to have a teacher-centered English class. In order to identify the benefits or the challenges felt by the students as they were participating in the intervention, open-ended questions were given to the students.

Table 4

Students self-perceptions on communicative activity (N=22)

Statement	Yes	Neutral	No
1. I actively participated in the traditional English class.	6	11	5
2. I actively participated in the new type of (student-centered) class.	16	6	0
3. I contributed a lot during the group or pair work.	15	7	0
4. My group members contributed as much as I did.	12	8	2
5. Group (Pair) work was useful for learning English.	19	3	0
6. I prefer group (pair) work to teacher-centered lessons.	15	7	0
7. I want my teacher to go back to the traditional (teacher-centered) way.	0	0	22

These responses display their views on the changes of their own and their classmates' attitude throughout the new format of English classes. The responses from the students were mostly positive. However, some students pointed out some challenges of the communicative activities. Here are some of the comments on the group (pair) work from the students; *"I've got a confidence in speaking English"*, *"English is fun"*, *"Now I actively participate in the activities"*, *"Learning English is not difficult"*, *"My partner helps me a lot"*, *"I love leading my group members"*, *"Some of my students changed their attitude in a good way"*, *"We helped each other"* (positive feedback); *"The classroom was too noisy"*, *"I didn't like my partner, and I didn't want to work with him"*, *"My group members still did not participated in the activity, I cannot see any changes in them"* (negative feedback).

Three students expressed their frustrations with their partner or group member's behavior, and one student did not like the noise during the activities. However, most students perceived the group work as helpful for improving their confidence and interests toward English classes.

4.4 Group Interviews

In order to examine whether communicative activities affect students differently based on their level of proficiency, interviews with three different groups were conducted. The groups were as follows: a high proficiency group, a low proficiency group, and an introverted group. They were asked to give their opinions freely on the traditional English class and the communicative activity driven interventions.

Table 5

Interview with the higher proficiency level group

Before the intervention (Teacher-centered approach)		During the intervention (Student-centered approach)	
Good	Bad	Good	Bad
♦Quiet classroom - I was able to pay attention to the teacher easily	♦Peers' behavioral problem (low participation) ♦Boring lesson ♦Only limited number of Ss participate in the lesson	♦Everybody participates in the activity ♦Change in classroom atmosphere (lively) ♦A lot more chances to speak	♦Put much burden on me (pay a lot more attention) ♦Hard to manage someone who did not participate ♦Some Ss do not do

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦No improvement in my speaking ♦Worry about others' views on me 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦Have fun ♦I like to help other Ss 	their role <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦Sometimes group members digress from the topic
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Table 6*Interview with the lower proficiency level group*

Before the intervention (Teacher-centered approach)		During the intervention (Student-centered approach)	
Good	Bad	Good	Bad
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ Korean teacher's translation helped me to understand - Easy to understand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦no chance to speak (no improvement in listening and speaking) ♦Boring lesson ♦didn't try to listen to English instructions ♦only teacher talked (it was a lecture) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦Everybody participates in the activity ♦We cooperate with each other ♦I actively participate in group work ♦I have a lot more chances to speak ♦There are many interactions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ One of the students disturb others ♦ It is hard to reconcile ideas (My idea usually is not accepted)

As seen in the above tables, all three group's responses on both English classes had a lot in common in many ways. In terms of communicative tasks, they expressed many more opinions for both positive and negative aspects of those activities.

Table 7*Interview with the introverted group*

Before the intervention (Teacher-centered approach)		During the intervention (Student-centered approach)	
Good	Bad	Good	Bad
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ None 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ There were no chances to speak ♦ Boring lessons ♦ I did not pay attention to the teacher ♦ I had a chat while the teacher talked ♦ I was sleepy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦Members become closer ♦ I like to help each other ♦I learn from my friends ♦ I have a lot more chances to speak 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ♦ It is hard to coordinate different ideas ♦ I'm afraid of making mistakes (My group members might be making fun of me)

It may reflect the degree of their engagement in class. In the traditional classroom, most of the students were passive learners, whereas the students became active learners during the intervention. Therefore, they were assessing the process of learning as well as their own performances. Most of the comments from the group interview concurred with the data above.

4.5 Feedback From Peer Teachers

Lastly, feedback from the peer teachers was collected to get an objective perspective. One was from my native co-teacher, and the other was from a Korean English teacher who taught the intervention subjects the previous year. Feedback from the teachers supported the results of the other data. The native co-teacher viewed communicative tasks positively in most parts due to the increased participation and dynamics of the class. The co-teacher commented on the intervention as follows:

Before the intervention, the students' attitudes towards English classes were one of listlessness and apathy. Students were forced to sit still and listen to the teachers during most of the class. [...] Many students lacked the confidence to participate because they would be speaking in front of 20 other students and 2 teachers. [...] After the intervention, there was a noticeable difference in the students' attitude toward English class. Once the activities became student centered, many more students were willing to use the language and speak the language themselves. [...] Activities that were used during the intervention were much more engaging for students, and allowed them to use their creativity and follow their own curiosity.

The Korean English teacher observed two of the interventions and mostly stated the positive aspects of the lessons with communicative tasks. She was aware of the potential of a communicative classroom to foster students' participation because she was easily able to spot the students' changes in their attitudes based on her previous experiences with them. She commented on the class as follows:

When I taught the same students last year, I was in misery after each lesson not knowing what to do. The class was the battle between me and the students who kept talking to each other or lying on the desk helplessly. [...] After

observing Mrs. Kim's class with the same students, I realized that the problem was in me. For these unmotivated students, she made them do something on their own. [...] For each step, they needed to discuss with their group members to finish their activities. The level of each activity was mixed properly and had its goals to achieve so that every student was able to participate actively. Even the students with low levels were excited to create their own stories and eager to show them off to the teachers and other students.

However, the Korean English teacher also pointed out the challenges of the interventions, mainly the students' dependence on Korean during group (pair) activities and having too many activities in one lesson. This will be discussed below.

5. Discussion

By analyzing the mini survey data, which was collected right after each intervention, I examined the students' preferences of each activity and their confidence in speaking, as well as their self-assessment of their own and their peers' participation. The findings from the mini survey showed that students felt mostly positive about learning English through communicative activities. As the intervention went on, students in a neutral position in terms of participation seemed to move toward an affirmative position, perhaps because of increased group cohesiveness and an awareness of their roles. As the intervention continued, specific roles were assigned to each group member, and this could be one of the factors that affected their participation. In addition, the different task types could enhance students' motivation and participation; tasks which are less complicated and more relevant to the students' lives; well-sequenced activities in a lesson; new type of tasks which students have not experienced before can increase students' motivation and participation.

The findings from the teacher's observations also reflected the same results as the one from the mini survey. Before the intervention, only a few students participated in whole-class activities. In this module, the teacher was mostly explaining things in the textbook; there was no reason for the students to participate unless they volunteered for the questions. As a result, there were many more bystanders and disrupters during the lesson. However, as the lessons changed from teacher- to student-centered, most students were encouraged to take part in the activities in order to achieve their goals. Consequently, the number of active participants surged and bystanders disappeared. Still, one or two students were reluctant to join group

work; however, most of these disrupters started being engaged in the group work with the active intervention of their group members. Interestingly, as the teacher-centered whole-class activity became student-centered, students' participation in the whole class also increased. Many of the students volunteered to give answers as well as contribute their ideas. This could have been due to changes in their attitudes toward learning English from passive listeners to active speakers.

At the end of the intervention, a post-survey was conducted in order to explore students' general views on the intervention and their own attitudes toward English. The results agreed with the previous data analysis. According to students' responses in table 4, students drastically changed their attitude to English classes and group activities after the intervention. Six out of 22 (23.3%) responded positively about their participation before the intervention, this number increased to 16 (72.7%). In addition, five out of the 22 who initially responded negatively on their participation responded positively after the intervention. Still 23.3% of students remained in a neutral position, which implies the importance of task designs for the teacher in getting their attention. By facilitating interaction through purposeful and interesting topics or types of activities, the teacher should find ways to move the students from the neutral area toward the positive area. As seen in table 4, students generally felt positive toward learning English through interaction between peers, and strongly desired to keep the student-centered language classroom intact. The results suggested that teaching English through communicative activities should be continued throughout the whole school year.

The results of the group interviews implied various factors that need to be considered when teachers implement communicative tasks in a language classroom. Most of the high achievers were particularly goal-oriented and they were concerned about task completion. In addition, the students in the higher group tended to take major roles in their group; this explains why they felt a lot more pressure than the rest of their group members in the group work. Despite these negative views from some of the higher-level students, others viewed the pressure put on them positively: rather than seeing the bystanders or disrupters as a problem, they thought they could learn more by helping them.

The problem of difficulty in negotiating different ideas, which was raised by both the lower-level group and the introverted group, seemed it was not a matter of English itself, but a matter of their social skills. This is one of the strengths of using communicative activities in language learning. Skehan (1998) claimed a task should contain a problem to solve and a

relationship to real-world activities. By learning English through communicative tasks, students will be able to develop social skills such as pragmatic competence as well as language itself. Interestingly, the students in the lower group worried a lot less about making mistakes. This was equally applied to the introverted group; they enjoyed having a chance to speak in a small group without worrying about making their mistakes, which would be more difficult if they had only whole-class activities. Therefore, communicative activities seem to have a positive effect on both the lower level and introverted groups. In addition, the students in the introverted group stated that they liked the communicative activities because they were able to build close relationships with their friends as they worked in groups or in pairs. It motivated them to be more engaged in the learning processes.

The data from the teacher feedback also coincided with other findings. However, as seen in one of the Korean English teacher's comments, the excessive use of Korean should be combatted throughout the rest of the school year if communicative tasks are going to be used in the classroom. Feedback from the teachers implies the importance of class dynamics through group or pair work. Based on this data, learning English through communicative activities should be an ongoing process throughout the whole school year.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The findings of the present study suggested that the use of communicative activities in learning English facilitated students' motivation and participation regardless of their level of English proficiency.

According to Richards (2007), the goal of CLT is teaching communicative competence. Communicative competence is viewed as "the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers to make meaning as distinct from their ability to perform on discrete-point test of grammatical knowledge" (Savignon, 1991, p. 264, as cited in Bailey, 2005). Under the CLT approach, learners have to participate in classroom activities that are based on a cooperative rather than individualistic approach to learning. When the learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication through relevant, purposeful and interesting activities, students will develop communicative competence (Littlewood, 2007). Throughout the 6 week-intervention, most of the students were actively engaged in their pair or group work. As students did the role-play in the first intervention, they tried to not only apply what they have learned to their role-plays, but also use the real language. While the students prepared their role-play, they needed more language beyond the text-level in order to

achieve their goals. They looked for expressions by asking each other or consulting other sources such as the teachers or web dictionaries. As the intervention proceeded, the students realized how group interaction could contribute to their English learning. The mini-survey after the second intervention showed 21 out of 23 students felt that learning in a group was helpful and enjoyable. Once the group cohesiveness started building up, I designed activities that could facilitate language intake.

Schmidt (1990) has drawn attention to the role of noticing in language learning. He maintained that only intake can serve as the basis for language development. In order for language development to take place, therefore, the learners need to take part in activities which require them to try out and experiment using newly noticed language forms. Thus, by providing various activities based on students' previous experiences, interests, topic familiarity, and their real lives, the students were motivated to learn English, and they were able to actively participate in English classes. In addition, regular experiences of success and feelings of contributing to their group work helped learners increase their self-confidence, as supported by Dörnyei's (2001) study.

Before the intervention I blamed my students for their attitudes toward English classes, however, I found that they changed gradually through a different approach. The results from all the different sources helped me to conclude that communicative activities facilitate a different level of motivation and participation in learning English. Even though issues have been constantly coming up as I have implemented the AR intervention, I was able to improve my lessons gradually by applying new strategies and techniques from findings through reflective journals. It will definitely be an ongoing process throughout my teaching life.

What I really want to focus on after the current AR is increasing vocabulary. The students' limited vocabulary knowledge has been a recurring issue throughout the whole period of the intervention. Students' lack of vocabulary knowledge caused many restrictions for not only the teacher when designing tasks, but also for students completing tasks. According to Cummins' (2000) threshold hypothesis, a minimum threshold in language proficiency must be passed before a second-language speaker can reap any benefits from language. Although fluency should take on more importance than accuracy in a CLT classroom, Brown (2008) noted that fluency should not be encouraged at the expense of clear, unambiguous, and direct communication.

Considering that accuracy can be developed through vocabularies as the building blocks of language and communication (Lewis, 2008), it is high time to work on building up

students' vocabulary knowledge. I believe a learner's proficiency with words and chunks can be developed by encountering new words through reading, and then applying those words in meaningful ways. Therefore, it will be my job to provide an environment for their use of language in the classroom. The most challenging thing for this matter is how to combine these plans with the English curriculum in a harmonious way. This issue will be my next action research topic.



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Appendix A

Mini- Survey for each Lesson (English Version)

★ Rate the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5.

(1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=neutral, 4=disagree, 5= strongly disagree)

Q1. Today's activity was interesting.

1 2 3 4 5

Q2. I can speak today's key expressions confidently.

1 2 3 4
5

3. I participated a lot during the group (pair) work.

1 2 3 4 5

4. My group members participated actively during the group (pair) work.

1 2 3 4
5

Appendix B

Post Student Survey after the Intervention (English Version)

★ Rate the following statements on a scale of 1 to 3.

(1=agree 2=neutral 3=disagree)

Q1. I actively participated in the traditional (teacher-centered) English lesson.

1 2 3

Q2. I actively participated in the new type of (student-centered) group or pair work.

1 2 3

Q3. I contributed a lot during the group or pair work.

1 2 3

Q4. My group members contributed to our group work as much as I did.

1 2 3

Q5. Group (Pair) works were useful for learning English.

1 2 3

Q6. I prefer group (pair) work to teacher-centered lesson.

1 2 3

Why? _____

Q7. I want my teacher to go back to the traditional (teacher-centered) way.

1 2 3

Appendix C

Behavior Checklist Sample

Gun-hee	Da-yoon	Oon-sun	Won-bin	Seong-ho	Soo-min	Ye-eun	Yu-na

Gee-to	Jeong-hwan	Jae-yeon	Kyung-hoon	Jin-woo	Kyung-min	Yu-ree	Min-jeong

La-im	Ji-min	Soo-im	Min-young	Hyun-seok	Jae-young	You-jin	Dong-hyun

Class work ○ (participation)	Pair work Interrupt others Don't participate ✓	Group work
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BOARD

Actual use of the behavior Checklist

Lesson 6. I want to clean the window 4/24 (Wed.)

Gun-hee	Da-yoon	Oon-sun	Won-bin	Seong-ho	Soo-min	Ye-eun	Yu-na
○			✓				

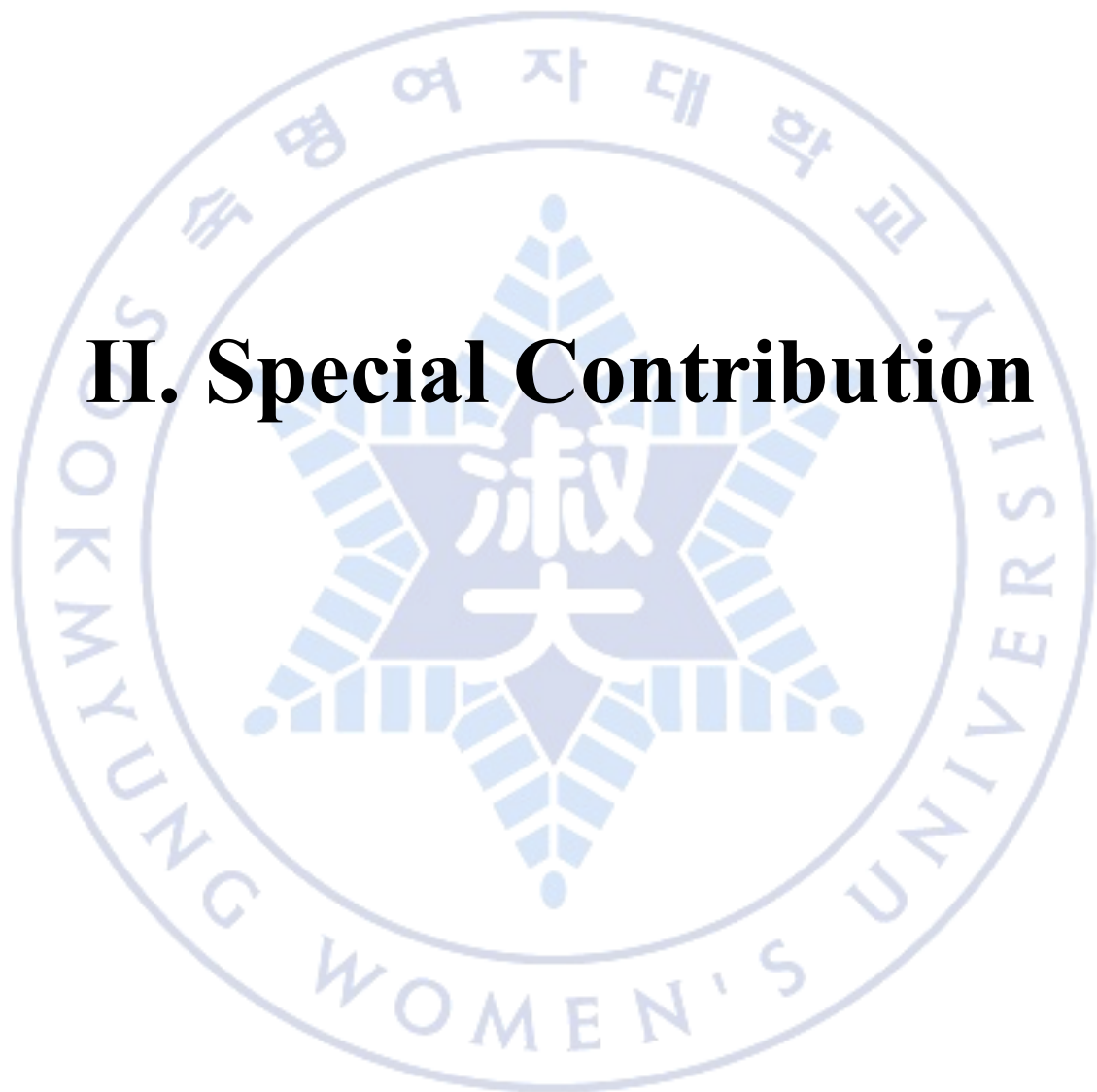
Gee-to	Jeong-hwan	Jae-yeon	Kyung-hoon	Jin-woo	Kyung-min	Yu-ree	Min-jeong
○			✓	✓	✓	✓	○

La-im	Ji-min	Soo-im	Min-young	Hyun-seok	Jae-young	You-jin	Dong-hyun
○			○		○		✓

Class work ○ (participation)	Pair work Interrupt others Don't participate ✓	Group work
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II. Special Contribution



A Korean University EFL Instructor's Assessment Practice: A Narrative Inquiry

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In Korean EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context formative assessment has been introduced recently. This not only improves students' learning based on teachers' feedback through a formative approach, it also allows for teachers to obtain useful information from students for better instructional planning. This study attempts to explore the knowledge and practice of EFL practitioners regarding classroom assessment through a narrative inquiry. The participant for this study is a Korean university EFL instructor, Sara, who was part of an assessment development program at a university in Korea. By analyzing Sara's stories regarding assessment and placing them in different contexts, this study concludes Sara's awareness regarding classroom assessment and experience of assessment under different circumstances. This study also determines the effects of structural conditions on teacher knowledge construction. Therefore, the suggestions for teacher's skill growth in assessment are also highlighted. (Keywords: Narratives, formative assessment, summative assessment, facilitator)

1. Introduction

The starting age of children for learning English in most East Asian countries has been pulled down to nine since the beginning of the 21st century (Liu, 2007). In the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, examinations are becoming of vital importance socially as a reasonable means for assessment (Cheng & Qi, 2006), resulting in a growing pressure upon students to pass them for admission to higher levels of schooling (Cheng, 2008). In EFL classrooms in Korea, traditional approaches are still being used by emphasizing too much on grammar, reading and writing traditionally where teacher plays a central role. This approach in language classrooms has been a focal point for criticism by those who think language classes must be student-centered with a teacher playing her role as a facilitator in the classroom (Choi, 2007). Exams like the National Scholastic Ability Test (SAT) for university admission and TOEIC (Test Of English for International Communication) are widely recognized in the Korean EFL environment (Jin, 2004). These exams are generally considered as an opposing force to classroom teaching and are supporting the 'teaching-to-the-test' strategy (Tang & Biggs, 1996, p. 163); that is an undesirable approach in the educational environment. In order to reduce the effects of the 'teaching-to-the-test' approach,

EFL experts are encouraging a formative assessment approach in the classroom. As formative assessment has been widely recognized as a successful assessment approach (Black & Wiliam, 1998) in which the teacher gives feedback along the line of learners' ongoing progress (Genesee & Upshur, 2001). In the Korean EFL context, formative assessment has been introduced recently. It not only improves students' learning based on teachers' feedback in formative assessment but also allows for teachers to obtain useful information from students for better instructional planning.

EFL Teachers' Awareness, Exercise, and Development in Assessment

A brief literature review suggests that related studies focus on three main issues: the EFL instructor's knowledge or awareness, assessment practice, and professional improvement in assessment. Compared to the wide use of EFL assessment in the classroom environment, a few studies discuss the issue of assessment of TESOL practitioners in classrooms (Cheng, Roger, & Hu, 2004). McNamara (2001) claimed that assessment is rather a social exercise; any research on EFL teacher assessment is required to be in classroom so that it is easy to understand the immediate experiences of practitioners and students. Second, it is commonly believed that most of the teachers follow the state-required assessment policy in their institutions, and they are also required to understand the social demands and the power relationship within the institute they work in (Arkoudis and O'Loughlin, 2004). The third issue is the instructor's professional improvement in assessment. It is very important for a practitioner to consider the aspect of their development in assessment since most of these teachers experience insufficient training and practice in formative assessment. There is a wide range of evidence that insist the need for teacher professional development (Bachman, 2000) and the learning of new skills in assessment in order to meet the demands of their classes' social environment (Edelenbos & Kubanek-German, 2004). Grierson (1995) insists that teachers' skills do not only rely upon their understanding of the language but also their knowledge and skills of effective approach for class assessment (Gardner & Rea-Dickins, 2001). Ash and Levitt (2003) claim that in the classroom setting, formative assessment assists instructors with a chance for professional enhancement because it involves both an individual and a mutual proportion of learner output and their language development. In other words, according to Ash and Levitt (2003) a line of differentiation between summative assessment and formative assessment approaches can be drawn as a summative assessment approach

leads to assess learners on the basis of their midterm exam, final exam and a scheduled test during a semester or a term, whereas, a formative assessment approach involves an ongoing evaluation that provides instant feedback to learners on their daily class work, homework and other performance oriented activities.

A review of the above given studies directs us to the following conclusions: first, the difference between practitioner's assessment knowledge and the set standards of an institution defined by the authorities there requires a deep insight and research to explore the individuality of teacher's assessment practice. Second, inadequate training in assessment is an important aspect that needs to be explored. Third, the issue of teachers' professional development in assessment needs to be considered seriously as part of mainstream teacher training. Based on these conclusions from the literature, this study attempts to explore the knowledge and practice of an EFL practitioner regarding her classroom assessment through a narrative inquiry. The participant for this study is a Korean university EFL instructor, Sara, who was part of an assessment development program at a university in Korea. By analyzing Sara's stories regarding assessment and placing them in different contexts, this study concludes Sara's awareness regarding classroom assessment and experience of assessment under different circumstances. This study also determines the effects of structural conditions on teacher knowledge construction. Therefore, the suggestions for the teacher's skill growth in assessment are also highlighted.

2. Theoretical Framework

Considering Elbaz's (1983) idea of practical knowledge, which is context-bound, Connelly and Clandinin (1988) insisted that teacher's practical knowledge is a combination of his/her personal feelings and current knowledge. Further, it produces individual's narratives that targets at investigating a certain issue within a particular situation. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) further insisted that a practitioner's knowledge or his/her practice is found "in the teacher's past experience, in the teacher's present mind and body, and in the future plans and actions" (p. 25). Provided that, teacher's practical knowledge is shaped (formed) generally by the context they work in (Connelly and Clandinin, 1988). In other words, as mentioned earlier, a teacher's personal knowledge is generally context bound.

In order to investigate how teachers form their knowledge within a certain context, Clandinin and Connelly (1996) used Crites's (1971) prescribed terminologies 'sacred story and secret story' to define the issues of belief that practitioners may have for the construction

of their knowledge within the context. Crites (1971) described that sacred stories are the realities a teacher may face outside the classroom and are related to the restrictions a teacher may face as part of institutional policies set by the authorities. They are generally others' ideas of what is right and what is wrong for both teachers and students. On the other hand, the stories happen within a context, usually a classroom, called "live stories of practice"; the real story that happens within a context is a secret story (Clandinin & Connelly, 1996, p. 25). A secret story is a real story that is actually believed and is considered important. This study explores these two concepts 'sacred stories and secret stories' as the main theme for analysis.

3. Methodology

3.1 Narrative Inquiry of Teacher's Knowledge

Sara's assessment knowledge and practice was investigated through a narrative inquiry. Bruner (1990) has pointed out that human life is basically a narrative, and knowledge is generally organized by our stories. Through stories we understand the world around us and make sense of our experiences and events happen in context. Connelly & Clandinin (2006) insisted that narrative inquiry, in other words, study of experience as a story is however "first and foremost a way of thinking about experience" (p. 375).

Connelly and Clandinin (2006) outlined three forms of narrative inquiry; temporality, sociality, and place. These three make up a three dimensional space of narrative inquiry. *Temporality*: this is related to a chronological state in which events happen and humans exist. Temporality requires a researcher or narrative inquirer to see the objects, people or events in relation to the time (e.g. past, present, and future). *Sociality*: is generally context based. Narrative inquiry tends to describe the relation between participant and social conditions. *Place*: regards the particular location where events take place. These three aspects are the basic requirements for a narrative inquirer to consider in setting both in and out of the classroom. In this study, Sara's assessment knowledge and its use are investigated through a narrative inquiry centered on her stories. (Note: to protect the real identity of the EFL teacher, Sara, all personal names, and names of institutions are fictitious). Data is collected in two sets. The first being one formal semi-structured 50 minutes interview. This includes Sara's experience of assessment and what she found important in her teaching and assessment practice. The second data set includes Sara's notes for the students, teaching evaluation sheets, teaching responses, and some personal records of the students that she used for

assessment. The interview was conducted in Sara's native language of Korean. The interview was transcribed verbatim, and later translated in English as three different stories of Sara's assessment practice (Soreide, 2006). To get verification from Sara, I then sent all three stories for re-reading and for giving me her consent so that I could use these as my data source. Since, narrative approach deals with personal approach and the construction of meaning through an individual's narrative (Clandinin et al., 2006), I chose only one case in order to determine the complications of a teacher's assessment.

3.2 Sara's Assessment and Practice

As mentioned earlier, summative assessment is a form of assessment that comes at the end of the semester, mid-term or final exam while formative assessment is a process of ongoing assessment during the course of study (Wang & Fu, 2006). Sara's department, at her university, started a communicative language teaching development program with an additional focus on assessment development as a core element in 2004. This assessment development program was applied to all of the English courses at the university and was planned to transmute the basic design of classroom-assessment from summative to formative. That includes students' assessment on a daily basis within four different categories: presentations, classroom projects, homework, and participation. The main purpose for this format was to inspire learners for use of English as a language rather than preparing for the tests only. All the teachers were asked to follow this plan.

3.3 Sara's Stories

Sara was an independent and diligent student being thoughtful and well respected among her friends since early childhood. She was born in the early 1980's in the southern part of Korea that is considered to be a rather remote area compared to the capital, Seoul. Sara dreamed to choose being a science major at a prestigious university when she was in middle school, but eventually due to her lower score in the national SAT exam after high school, she chose English as her major at Konkuk University in Seoul. Soon after, Sara found herself in an environment where most of the students were highly proficient English speakers while Sara's language knowledge was far below the standard level of the class because of her rural background for middle and high school education. For being under pressure to meet the minimum class requirements, she had to work very hard to get good scores in all her examinations, which were the only ways of assessment at the university. After graduating,

she was admitted to the MA program at the same university. Upon completing the MA program, Sara secured a job at a medium ranked university in Kyunggi Province. At her university, Sara is assigned to teach writing, listening and speaking, and comprehensive English courses to non-English majors. She has a good reputation among her students and this gets her a comparatively higher evaluation among the faculty members. Sara is a diligent teacher who is known as a strict and rather critical teacher. In the beginning, the students were frustrated and didn't like the way Sara treated them; however, they soon realized that they had learned a lot during the course of their semester and their knowledge is improved through Sara's positive criticism. Last year, Sara has received a present which was a diary from one of the students on Teachers' Day, in which the student mentioned how thankful she was for Sara's feedback and help throughout the semester. In an email, one of the students mentioned that *"Sara is the best teacher I have ever met in my life"*. Another student has shown her gratitude by saying that *"you have taught us how to fish rather than giving a fish to us"*. Sara's three assessment stories are given as evidence of her experience in assessment. The first story is related to Sara's strategy for her learners' self-development, that she pronounced as 'reward -or-punishment' to assess learners' presentation. The second story Sara told was about being pressured by her seniors in order to change the grades she awarded to students. The third story was about empowering the students to give them self-confidence by becoming self-assessors for their own homework.

3.4 Reward or Punishment

One of the assessment tasks as part of the Comprehensive English course that Sara teaches is in-class student presentations. The student presentation task is worth 20% of the final grade according to the syllabus. Teachers are required to provide feedback on learner presentations for the sake of their improvement. During the interview, Sara mentioned repeatedly that, *"I do not think that formative assessment is the only right way to give assessment"*. Her response about formative assessment invited my attention to discover how a person like Sara, who believes that formative assessment is not helpful, deals with a system which is based on formative assessment. Later, Sara's award-or-punishment approach answered my question.

I always find out learners' initial proficiency through their quizzes or in class tests and then I place them into different categories (e.g. A, B, C, D). One student, Kim, initially graded out as a level B, astonished me on her presentation that she out-performed all her classmates. So,

she got exceptionally positive feedback from me, and I awarded her 19 out of 20, with 2 reward points for being the best presenter in class. On the other hand, I will take some points off as a punishment if some student fails to meet the standard criteria of the presentation.

According to this excerpt, Sara seems to rank students according to the different competence levels she developed based on their in-class quizzes she gives her students after each lesson. These quizzes are the part of syllabus to analyze learner comprehension and understanding about the content in class. According to Sara, these quizzes are helpful to rank learners initially and later track their performance and improvement in their skills. She compares the students' performance with their actual competence level and gives them feedback accordingly on their ongoing performance for a long period. This helps her to reward students by awarding with some extra points or punishing them by taking some points off from their score if they are unable to meet Sara's expectations for the particular task. Sara practiced this reward-or-punishment strategy for her first two semesters and realized its effectiveness for her assessment practice.

"Aren't Your Grades Too High?"

Sara's reward-or-punishment approach reveals her decision making ability and her own construction of knowledge in assessment. However, the interference in her assessment by her co-worker resulted in disruption of this assumption. Three teachers, Sara, James and the head teacher, Tiz, teach the Comprehensive English course. The school administration requires all the teachers at the end of the semester to printout their class assessment sheets with a description of each assessment element and to send it to the head teacher for approval. This story happened when Sara was inputting her class grades into the computer in the office after she had completed marking the students' final exams.

Tiz, the head teacher, saw me working and asked if I had completed marking and evaluation. I replied, I am still doing it and will be finished soon. She then came closer and started looking at the excel worksheet which I was typing the grades on. She asked me in a cold voice, *'Aren't the grades you are awarding too high? Just see, you have awarded these students 9 or 10 out of 10 for participation, while James and I did not award anybody more than 8 out of 10 points for participation'*. This sounded to me as if I were doing something

unfair to James and her students by awarding my students 9 or 10 out of 10 points. Later I realized that she probably was ordering me to lower my students' score in order to maintain a balance. After grumbling and thinking over this for a while I decided to follow her and lowered down my students' grades.

Sara was struggling with quandary. She was not sure what was the right thing to do; on one hand she was feeling guilty that she didn't award the grades to her students they deserved, while on the other hand, the indirect orders from her senior kept her from doing what she believed in. It seemed that she didn't have any other choice except to change the grades. Sara later described her feelings that she was under pressure about the consequences she might face later for not listening to her superior.

"Choose your Homework" Construction of Knowledge with Students

The two above mentioned stories reflected Sara's own assessment practice and her assessment in relation with her coworker; however, the following story highlights Sara's interaction with her students in order to empower them to be assessors for themselves. This story is related to Sara students' interest for the TOEIC test. The TOEIC test score plays a vital role in academics and obtaining a job in the Korean context. Despite this fact, Sara's other coworkers had no plan to spend time on students' TOEIC exam preparation. Nonetheless, Sara's students expected Sara to help them for TOEIC exam preparation.

As the test preparation was not the part of the syllabus, I decided to highlight it as class assignment. I declared that you can set a personal plan and assign yourself homework. In the beginning students seemed to be confused but I explained that they need to set their daily aims. I told them to select homework of their own choice and requirement of focusing on grammar, new vocabulary, comprehension, and listening exercises. *'When you decide your short term goals for one week or two, you need to stick with your plan no matter how difficult it is to'*. This explanation made them excited, as they felt having autonomy of homework choice for the first time in their life. Later during the semester, some students complained for not being able to stick with the plan they outlined and mentioned that they prefer homework assigned by me; however, most of them were

happy to choose the elements they really needed to work on. Even though there were mixed responses regarding this autonomy, I didn't change the plan and kept reminding them that they must follow their plan. At the end of the semester, I allowed them to be their own assessor and award themselves a score. Later, I graded them according to their own assessment and based on the level of their achievement following their plans.

Sara emphasized that her aim was to empower the students so that they could become responsible learners for their success. She believes that, this attitude will be helpful for the learners to develop their learning habits, which is an ultimate goal for getting a good score on the TOEIC exam.

4. Discussion

Three stories given above reflect Sara's assessment practice and experience and provide evidence that Sara has developed her knowledge of assessment by herself, through her colleagues, and with her students. With the above given explanation in mind, Sara's stories are easy to be interpreted in relation with sacred and secret stories (Clandinin and Connelly, 1996). Superiors generally tell sacred stories while teachers form their own secret stories, or in other words, teachers live their own stories in their own particular context. Teacher's own professional knowledge reflects their practice in a particular context and they feel independent within the three dimensional space of temporality, place, and sociality in order to form their knowledge based secret stories (Connelly and Clandinin, 2006).

Sara's Sacred and Secret Story: Sara's assessment practice involves both sacred and secret stories. Sacred stories symbolize 'you should' kind of knowledge that she experiences by her superiors; however, her 'should' knowledge relates to her practice as a teacher. Story 1 relates Sara's sacred story with the school policy when Sara was asked to assess students' presentations based on the rubrics and then grade them according to their performance. Sara's secret story; however, was her assessment strategy of reward and punishment during the presentations. Correspondingly, Sara was given liberty, in story 2, to award her students' grades independently referring to the sacred story. However, according to the secret story, this liberty to award grades to her students independently was taken away from her at her colleague's involvement. Similarly, in story 3 according to the sacred story, Sara was

supposed to take control over her students, while as the part of the secret story Sara lived, she empowered her students in order to assign themselves homework.

Above given analysis reflects Sara's belief that (a) both formative and summative assessment are not necessarily opposite forms of assessment since there is some sort of link between them (b) teachers should have the autonomy to assess their students' performance independently without any sort of involvement from supervisors (c) in the contexts, where formative assessment is the leading form of assessment, students should be empowered by giving them the right to be self-assessors. Nonetheless, within the particular context, Sara's assessment practice has not always been constant in relation with her actual assessment knowledge. As we can notice in stories 1 and 3, she took some liberty by using students' quiz score as a baseline for her assessment, and she gave her students autonomy to assign themselves homework and be self-assessors. On the other hand in story 2, she was forced to lower her students' grades by her superiors to keep a balance with other classes.

Keeping Sara's educational background in mind, it seems that Sara herself was dealing with both summative and formative modes of assessment. For example, for entering the university, Sara had to pass National SAT or TOEIC exams that made Sara stick with study-to-the-test strategy; however, later during her bachelor of arts in English program she was more independent and self-motivated in order to compete with her classmates and obtaining social status already set in her classroom. Subsequently, this experience shaped her teaching later when she was to assess her students; by considering their test score as a standard of their basic competence and in order to measure their improvement (her summative assessment experience) and later by empowering her students to be self-assessors (her formative assessment experience). In other words, an interaction between teachers' past experiences and present practice represent their present knowledge and this knowledge eventually predicts their future strategies. Put simply, the above discussion revolves around the aspect of temporality. The steadiness of teachers' practice reflects that temporality is a part and parcel condition of a teacher's assessment knowledge. As it has been discussed earlier, sociality relates to both personal attitudes, e.g. moral values, feelings and attitude, and the relation of a person with their social conditions, e.g. policy, administration and community (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). In her case, Sara was under pressure to lower the grades she awarded to her students. She was not certain how to deal with the situation where there was a conflict between her beliefs and demands of the society. However, she considered that she has no other choice but to change the grades following her supervisor's advice. Here

we can notice a reality how people feel depressed under their superiors in social hierarchy. Especially in Korean culture, respect for elders or superiors are highly valued cultural elements (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998; Zhai, 2004). And Sara was not ready to damage her social relations with other co-workers at her workplace. This highlights that teachers sometimes have to choose a non-pedagogical attitude in order to keep a balance between their beliefs and sociality.

Place refers to a tangible existing location where things happen. From Clandinin and Connelly's (2000) point of view, narrative inquiry is always confined to a place, and this reflects a teacher's knowledge and experience. Clandinin and Connelly (1996) suggest that generally there are two places in this view, one where a teacher performs- a classroom, and the other place where teacher participates in social activities and plays social roles related to his experience. The classroom is the place where the teacher lives his/her secret stories being an autonomous force within the context. However, places outside the classroom are occupied with prescribed knowledge, rules and standard ethics where teachers live sacred stories. An important aspect we have noticed in Sara's practice is that she is more independent in her classroom. This reflects most of the teachers' feelings for being autonomous and experiencing their knowledge in a free environment without any kind of external interference. In addition, Sara's stories point to another important factor of setting equilibrium between in class and outside the classroom teachers' role. Even though Sara had to follow the directions her school has set for all, she could find ways to empower her students by giving rights to self-assessment. This sense of safety in classroom indicates that place is another important feature of teachers' assessment knowledge practice.

5. Conclusion

On the basis of this study, this narrative inquiry of Sara's practice of assessment discloses that teachers' knowledge is not merely based on theory. Rather it is a continuing process with constant and vibrant discoveries. Based on Clendenin and Connelly's (1996) theoretical framework of professional knowledge assessment landscapes, we can interpret Sara's three stories of assessment practice under the big umbrella of sacred stories that are related to the knowledge construction by the superiors and society, and secret stories that Sara lived. Furthermore, Connelly and Clandinin's (2006) three features of a narrative inquiry called: temporality, sociality and place are the fundamental strands that form teachers' knowledge of assessment. As we have discussed in previous chapter, teachers' knowledge and beliefs are

generally based on their prior assessment knowledge and experience, and upon these beliefs they design their future plans (temporality) on the basis of their prior knowledge. Teachers tend to keep the social environment as a priority within their practice of assessment. Most of their decisions are bound to the superiors or authority within their interpersonal context (sociality). Nonetheless, teachers' knowledge is facilitated by the authorities or they are self-drawn; it depends strictly upon the particular location the assessment is practiced in. Place provides teachers sense of safety and it largely reflects teacher's assessment practice within a context.

The above given discussion regarding structural conditions of teachers' knowledge and experience offer new perceptions in order to understand the fundamental issues in formative assessment studies that have been under discussion for a long time. These fundamental structural conditions purpose, teacher's past experience of assessment practice, deal with the authorities having power, and particular contextual location, all are important components that play vital role in a teacher's capacity to deal with formative assessment. In conclusion, it is easy to summarize that there is no standard form for a teacher for assessment. Teacher's assessment is random, inconsistent, and non-standard. There are so many discrepancies, flaws, and issues to be dealt with. It is rather context bound and needs teacher's attention to define by taking the elements of temporality, sociality, and space into account.

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The Organizations publishing journals about Teaching English in Korea

Bomi Choi

Edited By David Miller

In regards to teaching English in S. Korea, there are many professional organizations that give school teachers and professionals the opportunity to publish papers and journals.

KATE, the Korean Association of Teachers of English, has steadily grown since its birth in 1965 and the organization now has a membership of approximately 1,600 English language-teaching professionals. KATE is recognized as a leader in English language teaching in Korea, and it is a community of English language teachers that even international professionals seek to be part of. Originally called ULLA, or the University Language Laboratory Association of Korea, it was established after the Korean War. In the early stages, among University that had Lab systems, they assembled and shared information managing facilities and pedagogy. Also, they discussed curriculum and teaching books of their University-level English courses. As time went on, they became more focused on theory regarding field of teaching and tried to promote to those notions. Finally, in August 1972, they changed their further evolved into CETA, the College English Teachers Association. Peace Corps volunteers contributed to teaching English with corporation and consulting from 1967 to 1977. As the practice of early English education began becoming more prevalent, on the 23rd of July 1994, the organization changed the name from CETA to KATE. The new organization focused on English Education for K-12 as well as university students. KATE does do consulting activity for renewal curriculum, textbooks, evaluation of teaching had been done and educating teachers of school those are conducted by national government. This organization publishes the KATE Forum 3 times annually and English Teaching academic journal semi-annually. KATE also has foreign academic exchange organizations such as JACET, RELC, etc which publish books and educational materials. Also, KATE holds conferences twice a year: the SIG conference in January and an international conference in July. This organization has many sponsors including the British Council, the American embassy in Korea and many other educational enterprises.

Another publishing organization in Korea is ETAK, the English Teachers Association in Korea. Their goal is to connect theory and field teaching to promote high quality teaching. The ETAK publishes a journal of English Language & Literature Teaching 4 times annually: international journals in March and June as well as two more domestic journals in September and December. They also hold conferences and academic exchanges.

Another promising organization is KAPEE, the Korea Association of primary English Education. The National Professor's Association of English Education founded KAPEE in April, 1995. Though English education in primary schools had been discussed as early as the 1960's, it was actualized in the 1990's.

It was a defining moment in primary English education in Korea. It was established by professors from national universities of education all over the country. Currently, professors in the field of English education, English teachers in primary schools, and primary teachers who are interested in English are members of our academic society. Their first journal, 'Primary English Education' was published in December 1995, the year the academic society was established. The journal was published once a year until 1997 and twice from 1998 to 2006, and since 2007, three volumes have been issued annually. In this academic journal, issues related to theoretical knowledge regarding primary English education, and the current situation of English education is discussed. The journal has become a valuable forum for academic discussions by professors, English teachers in the field, and educational administrators.

Furthermore, a symposium is held every year. It is a great place for debating and presenting the results of research on primary English education by professors and teachers from all over the country. Also, it is a place for revitalizing the primary English education theories of South Korea and hearing cutting edge research from the field. Teachers associated with elementary English education and educational administrators on the local level annually conduct various activities such as teacher research, group studying and English camps, through the cooperation of the local educational offices. Through such activities, they improve the elementary school English curriculum and teachers' English proficiency, and promote the rejuvenation of English teaching-learning theories. The Korea Association of Primary English Education hosts nationwide academic events and activities not only by dealing with educational and administrative issues but also by researching theories and searching for ways to apply these theories.

Lastly, the English Linguistic Science Association of Korea is an organization which is for studying of early education of language English. They have contributed language science. As a result, they publish Journals English Linguistic Science twice in a year.

As you can see there are many organizations for teaching English in Korea, so teachers may find help and discover more about the teaching of English in Korea. When people who teach English join these organizations they can also publish papers about their own research and experience. Furthermore, since these organizations have many books and materials, teachers may ask to get information to aid their teaching and research.

Reference Sites

www.kate.or.kr/

www.etak.or.kr/

www.kapee.or.kr/

www.englisht.com/



Eva Hoffman's "Lost in Translation: A Life in a New Language"

- How to become a fully translated person -

Barry Welsh
TESOL 3rd Semester

Eva Hoffman splits her memoir "Lost in Translation: A Life in a New Language" into three sections. The first, 'Paradise', is concerned with her upbringing and childhood in Poland. The second, 'Exile', describes her family's immigration and attempts to build a new life in Canada. And finally, the third section, 'The New World', relates her experiences as she graduates from university and begins a path to becoming a public intellectual in America. As the title suggests her memoir addresses the issue of what happens to an individual's language when they change country. Hoffman uses her experiences as an immigrant to discuss language, culture, memory and perception and how she has struggled with them at various junctures in her life. Throughout her journey she reveals how social, personal and enacted identity can conflict with one another as she attempts to become assimilated in Canada and then later in America. She also describes the key importance of language as she tries to negotiate a new identity and goes on to reveal how important language is in terms of ethnic and racial relations.

Throughout the narrative Hoffman draws on her own vividly detailed memories as well as her parents' recollections to give the reader access to her experiences. She was born in Cracow, Poland, in 1945 just two months after the war ended. As Polish Jews her parents had barely survived the holocaust by seeking refuge with a variety of peasants and farmers and hiding in the Ukraine countryside. On several occasions her parents were betrayed by some of these peasants and only survived due to the self sacrifice of others. Despite the turbulent circumstances of her birth she recounts what is essentially an idyllic middle class childhood in Cracow – learning to ride a bike, her father teaching her to swim by throwing her in a lake, her first youthful infatuation with a local boy. Indeed her memories of this childhood are so strong that they exert a powerful hold on her well into her adult life: "I didn't know I was economically deprived. There were so many things that are important for a child. There was a sense of community and solidarity and neighbourliness because of the terrible times that everyone had been through. The barriers were lower between people. And

as a child I was not over stimulated. There was human intimacy, but also a lot of space to muse, to play and to imagine." 8-9 She writes that as a child she developed an early love for literature and was keenly aware of experiencing the world around her through language: "I love words insofar as they correspond to the world, insofar as they give it to me in a heightened form. The more words I have, the more distinct, precise my perceptions become – and such lucidity is a form of joy." 28-29 This attachment to language is what at first makes her transition to a new country so difficult and what later makes her such an insightful observer of the moulding tendencies language can possess.

In the second part of the memoir, 'Exile,' she discusses her new life in Canada and reveals how the experience of exile and the loss of language caused her childhood memories to constantly resurface in her present moment. She feels as if her Polish life, language and self are just below the surface of her new life. This distance allows her to eventually identify the different possible ways of living she encounters and gives her a sustained interest in how the individual is constructed by language and culture. She writes that "there is some kind of dialectic going on, but we can never grasp what it is that engages with language." At first, as a teenager and young woman in a new country, she only recognises it in her own life but soon she observes the process of construction through language and culture everywhere. That language and identity are inextricably linked becomes at times almost painfully apparent for Hoffman. She describes the loss of her language as 'the loss of living connection.' 107 At one point she explains "the problem is that the signifier has become severed from the signified. The words I learn now don't stand for things in the same unquestioned way they did in my native tongue." 106 Severed from a history of childhood memories the new words she learns have no accumulated associations and therefore no power to evoke.

When she turns 19 Hoffman makes a momentous life decision; she accepts a scholarship to study literature at Rice University in Texas – 2000 miles away from her family's new home in Canada – "it was another planet."

(<http://www.theguardian.com/books/2001/apr/28/internationaleducationnews.socialsciences>)

Here she is puzzled and alienated by the seemingly arcane rituals American adolescents' engaged in, particularly in dating and romantic relationships. Nevertheless, she persists in trying to engage with American culture. In terms of her studies she at first feels that "much of what I read is lost on me" because "I have so little language." 180 However, she quickly realises that this apparent handicap has compensations that enable her to achieve

academically. The lack of language she laments actually means that “in my head, there is no ongoing, daily monologue to distract me, no layers of verbal filigree to peel away before the skeleton of an argument can become clear.” 180 With her outsiders perspective she develops an ability to make careful and precise observations about her new culture.

Despite continued academic success and an ever growing facility with her second language a deeper frustration remains to haunt her. A sense of melancholy and loss is never far away and returns when she thinks of her Polish childhood, the memories of which make her new life seem “a dark and empty state.” 108 “The picture and word show” 107 have gone she says and at times it seems this lack will never be filled or compensated for. Upon graduation she moves even further from her family to continue studying at Harvard. Here she experiences the growing counterculture, changes her name and gets married. As she accumulates these new life experiences and time passes an interesting development occurs - she finally feels as if her second language has become an internalised, intrinsic part of her consciousness: “I crack the last barrier between myself and the language – the barrier I sensed but couldn’t get through.” 186 She has an epiphany in which she realises that words have again become “as they were in childhood, beautiful things.” 186 Enough time has passed and she has accrued enough life experiences that words, as they were in her childhood, have shades and complexities of meaning and emotional resonance. She begins to think of herself as a fully translated person whilst at the same time recognising that it is impossible to regain the sense of unity she had in childhood – ‘Experience creates style, and style, in turn, creates a new woman. Polish is no longer the one true language.’ 273 “The tiny gap” she says “can never be fully closed” 272 but nevertheless she allows English to play an increasingly important role in her emotional life. In the final words of her memoir Hoffman writes that “the language of this is sufficient. I am here now.” 280 She has reconciled her identity with her language and her journey is at an end.

For teachers of the English language the journey Hoffman recounts in her memoir is significant in a variety of ways, not least because it highlights how fundamental language is to identity. Language is inextricably linked to personal experience. Hoffman’s journey towards becoming a fully translated person, as she says, reveals that our experience of the world and how we interpret it is mediated through language; a fact we may in some ways not be aware of until we are forced, or choose, to learn another. At a young age Hoffman realised that the more language she had the richer her experience of the world around her. This is a key point for the teacher of second languages to remember – the goal is not to teach

language as such but to give students the tools to experience the richness of their world through a language that is not their own. This is what Eva Hoffman's journey tells us.



Searching for the missing puzzle pieces

Riza Gay Estores
TESOL 2nd semester

In a world where you can find sources left and right, one might think that it would be easy to search for something because of the burgeoning knowledge and information. With just one click, the internet gives you an extensive range of information from simple to complex. Does it make it easier for us to search? No. These vast number of sources we get from the internet can overwhelm us, sometimes leading to confusion instead of clarification.

It's like a jigsaw puzzle. A puzzle box which contains only a few pieces is easier to complete than a box with a thousand pieces. Just imagine how much information the internet contains. Making a paper or thesis is like creating a jigsaw puzzle. The more possible sources you have, the more difficult it is to create some meaning because you have to separate the relevant from the irrelevant. How do you find the right pieces for your puzzle when they are mixed with pieces from other puzzles?

As an MA student armed with little expertise and discernment, I always struggle when it comes to finding sources for my study. I just search and search and when the information is there, I just use it. I never gave a thought to evaluating the author, the journal and the study itself. From High School to College, and even until M.A, we can take classes that are dedicated to teaching us how to make a research paper, but I have never been in a class that solely taught me how to find quality articles or research articles - especially in the internet. Until I started my research on this topic, I have never realized how important it is to know how to search, what to search, and where to search for research articles. I may not be an expert, but I want to share with you what I have learned so far from my experiences with making my term papers, mini-research, and other academic requirements that forced me to look for articles and journals online.

BEFORE THE SEARCH

After deciding on a topic:

1. **Have a research notepad.** Notepads are very useful when you want to write something immediately. Some ideas might pop in your head suddenly that you need to write down before they vanish like a bubble. Notepads make your research life easier.

Write your topic or subject in big bold words. Under the topic, write down all the words associated with your topic. It could be names, abbreviations, synonyms, acronyms, groups, organizations, or any possible related words that you can come up with. These words might come in handy when you need to type keywords in the search box. Notepads are also useful when you need to write down important information that you want to research further.

2. **Make a research plan.** Write down all possible resources and plan how you can take advantage of these resources. You can even make a schedule. (Ex. Monday –go to the library and check some books, Tuesday – TESOL resource center, Wednesday – browse the internet, etc.)
3. **Ask advice from your Professors, fellow students, or research experts on how to search for materials and references.** You can always learn from people with experience and even learn from your fellow struggling students (like me). They might have the information you don't have or you have the information they don't have. As the saying goes, "two heads are better than one".
4. Start your search with positivity and an open mind. A positive attitude gives you an advantage when you experience setbacks during your search. An open mind brings you to new horizons and new discoveries. Do not limit yourself. Explore!
5. Improve your reading ability. Learn the art of skimming and scanning. Reading all related books and studies word for word and page by page with limited time gives you nothing but sleepless nights and dark circles. Search for techniques on how to scan and skim in reading. It can save you time, energy, and beauty!

DURING YOUR SEARCH

Now, it's time for you to enter the world of finding information - finding the missing pieces of your puzzle. Where do I begin? Most of us would answer "GOOGLE!" While this might sound a good idea, always remember not to limit yourself to one search engine. Here are some suggested online resources.

1. **Google Scholar** (scholar.google.com). Started by Google in 2004, Google scholar is heaven-sent to us who are looking for academic journals. For tips on how to search using google scholar, go to <http://www.google.com/intl/en/scholar/help.html>.
2. **Subject Directories.** If you want to find websites related to your topic. You can try subject directories or web directories. One example is <http://infomine.ucr.edu/>. They

contain collections of scholarly websites relevant to your topic. All you have to do is enter the topic or subject in the search box.

3. **Databases.** Databases must be searched separately. Google scholar contains only a fraction of scholarly articles found online. Most full text publications can be found in databases. To find them, use google or other search engines and simply type in your key word or topic with database (ex. TESOL database). The following results then show you different sites and libraries which contains a list of databases according to your topic or key word. One example of these is <http://library.ucf.edu/Databases/Subjects/tesol.php>.
4. **Sookmyung Online Library.** Some contents may not be freely available, but if you are within the campus and connected to the school network or if you logged in to Sookmyung library even if you're at home, you can have access to thousands of paid scholarly articles because of the university's subscriptions to journal databases. To visit our online library, go to <http://lib.sookmyung.ac.kr/> and log in using your student user id and password.

AFTER YOUR SEARCH

Now that you have all the needed information for your paper or thesis, here is the last step.

Evaluate your materials. Not all of the information you can find on the net is true and reliable. It is important that you evaluate the references you are going to include in your study. Here are some questions you can ask when evaluating.

1. Is the author reliable? Does he/she have the credentials?
2. Are there indicators of quality information? Is it well written? Does it contain links to other resources? Is it published by a reliable publishing company?
3. Is this study cited by other studies? (Google scholar shows the citations of each research article).
4. Is this study updated?
5. Is this study unbiased?
6. What do others say about this study?

After evaluating your materials, you are now ready to put together the missing puzzle pieces and create your paper - your work of art. A picture of a finished puzzle. And what does this picture look like? It all depends on your puzzle pieces. My last piece of advice? Have fun!

IV. Thesis Abstracts



Enhancing Learner Reflection and Writing Proficiency through Engaging in Learning Journal Practice

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The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the implementation of learning journal practice in a teacher training setting can work towards enhancing the level of reflection displayed by the trainees and at the same time, increase their writing proficiency. In addition, this study also aims at revealing some of the key factors and operating principles which need to be considered by the practitioners in order to achieve these goals. For this study, learning journals from 20 teacher trainees written over the course of 2 months during the intensive teacher training program were put through a data coding procedure used in Bain (1999)'s research with a view to conducting a reflection degree analysis. Also, to gauge the quality of respective learning journals as a writing product, the journals were graded according to the descriptors used in Park (2003). Lastly, a trainee survey was conducted in order to get additional information on the trainees' notions and handlings of the task. The results have indicated that a mere, short-term implementation of learning journal writing with the absence of explicit guidelines had little effect on attaining higher levels of reflection on the part of the trainees nor did it help them to improve their writing proficiency or their quality of writing. On a positive note, however, trainees expressed that the learning journal practice has led to their heightened confidence in handling second language writing task and they seemed to have come away with the perception that their writing proficiency has improved. Furthermore, this study calls for a more guided approach in executing the learning journal practice by providing a balanced proportion of guidelines addressing both content and linguistic requirements.

Constraints on the Acquisition of English Constructions with Wh-movement by Korean Learners of English

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This thesis investigates whether Korean Learners of English (KLEs) have the same syntactic representations of wh-movement as Native Speakers of English (NSEs) do and whether Processing Instruction (PI), a type of explicit form-focused instruction, can facilitate KLEs' acquisition of wh-movement in English. The acquisition levels of wh-movement by 52 adult KLEs were measured through Grammaticality Judgment Tasks (GJTs), compared with those by 10 NSEs as controls. Then the PI-based treatment was given to 29 out of the 52 KLEs in ten 15-minute lessons for two weeks. The effect of the PI-based treatment was finally measured by asking the 29 KLEs to perform GJTs again and evaluate the treatment qualitatively. The findings of the current study are that (1) KLEs at novice to intermediate proficiency levels do not seem to have native-like syntactic representations of wh-movement and (2) the effect of the PI-based treatment on KLEs' acquisition of wh-movement was significant in that the participants improved to a certain degree in grammatical judgment on English wh-movement constructions over such a short period. The study concludes that KLEs have yet to fully acquire syntactic rules of wh-movement in the early and middle stages of their interlanguage development and thus a certain type of grammar instruction on wh-movement, such as PI, can benefit these L2 learners in their interlanguage development. Even though half-positive was the participants' qualitative evaluation of the effectiveness of the PI-based treatment, this type of grammar instruction seems promising in terms of facilitating KLEs' second language acquisition of English syntax in general since Korean syntax is quite different from that of English.

The Effectiveness of an Accelerated Reader Program for Third Grade-level Reading Students in an Immersion Program in Korea

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This study investigated the effect of an Accelerated Reader (AR) program use among third grade-level reading students in EFL conditions. In order to determine how the Accelerated Reader program works among EFL students in terms of reading comprehension skill development, a group of eight students used an AR program for a period of one semester. At the end of the period, the eight students were compared with seven other students who did not use the AR program based on their reading comprehension test results. The tool used to measure the students' reading comprehension was a state standardized reading test for pre- and post-tests. Another test that was used in this study was the STAR reading test which determines AR users' reading levels. The results from the STAR reading tests show how AR program use affects the users differently according to the frequency of use. The results of the reading comprehension tests indicate that AR program use among a small number of students can be ineffective. However, the AR program users consider the program use positively regardless of their reading comprehension skill improvement.

A Study of Student Perception of Creativity Enhancing Writing Tasks Tailored to the NEAT

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This thesis examines high school students' perception about creativity enhancing writing task (CEWT) tailored to the writing questions on the national English ability test (NEAT), which has been developed to replace the English test on C-SAT now for college entrance examination in South Korea. The study was designed under the assumption that students should develop their thinking ability to create productive skills in speaking and writing for language learning. This study is different from the previous studies on the NEAT because it developed writing tasks tailored to the NEAT writing question format as class activities to compare it with traditional test-focused classes for the test.

This research was conducted with 25 first graders at the advanced level who attend a high school located in the Gangbuk area of Seoul. They took both types of classes in which traditional test-focused (TTF) writing and creativity enhancing writing task (CEWT) were a part of the afterschool program for four months. The twelve classes in total were tailored to the six types of questions on the NEAT to prepare students for the NEAT. Research tools such as pre- and post-surveys and interviews were conducted to investigate the perception of the participants.

The results of the research questions are as follows. Firstly, the participants perceived CEWT positive in its efficiency for preparation for and ability to boost for the NEAT writing questions. They especially perceived CEWT as suitable for arousing interest and provoking thoughts for conception in writing. Secondly, Student Perception about CEWT had something to do with their creativity or English ability. Students with lower levels of creativity or English proficiency preferred more familiar and similar tasks for the NEAT writing questions. On the other hand, those with higher levels of creativity or proficiency were willing to take risks in doing more challenging tasks.

From these findings, one can see that students need writing tasks which can enhance their thinking and English ability through creativity enhancing tasks to get prepared for the

NEAT writing questions in the future when this nation-wide test begins full-scale implementation. However, even if it is not implemented, students through CEWTs will be able to improve their ability to think and express their ideas more fluently using English in their real lives.



Elementary School Students' Perceptions of Content Based Instruction (CBI) with Social Studies

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The purpose of this study was to find how Content Based Instruction (CBI) with Social Studies content affected elementary school students and their language achievement at a private elementary school in South Korea. The main questions addressed in this study are: (1) how do students perceive the effects of CBI with Social Studies content on language learning? and (2) does CBI with Social Studies content help language learning?

To answer these questions, the research was conducted on 5th graders in a private elementary school in Seoul. 106 students were taught through CBI with Social Studies content for three days a week. Students had standard English lessons following the textbook and they also had Social Studies lessons in English twice a week. Both the standard English lessons and English lessons implementing CBI with Social Studies content were designed to compare students performances. For this research, student surveys, student interviews and five test scores were analyzed. In addition, all surveys, interviews and test scores were examined separately by upper level and lower level classes for accurate results.

The findings show that students thought CBI with Social Studies content was an efficient way of learning English compared with standard English lessons. The percent of positive perceptions of CBI with Social Studies content was higher than that of standard English lessons. From the survey and language test, the language ability of students improved in all four skills assessed: listening, speaking, reading and writing.