Issues in EFL

Table of Contents

Andrew Carl Langendorfer

Victor K. Mui

Daniel Wakenford

Seongwon Yoon

Mission Statement

Issues in EFL is a semi-annual, entirely student-run academic journal which aims to support Sookmyung students in their study by providing insightful and up-to-date community-based articles on areas of interest within the Sookmyung MA TESOL course and beyond.

Acknowledgments

The Issues in EFL Journal Committee is open to all current Sookmyung Women's University MA TESOL students, and relies on their support. There are a variety of roles available, regardless of experience. Please check the MA TESOL message board for information on when the next committee opens. Email enquiries can be made to tesolma@sookmyung.ac.kr.

Editor's Letter

Welcome to the 2015 Fall edition of Issues in EFL. This edition continues the tradition of providing a glimpse into the work that students perform in Sookmyung's MA TESOL program.

In the first part of this journal, we look at special contributions dedicated to concerns that directly affect Sookmyung students. In the first community article, Mark Rasmussen interviews Professor Rozells about her research and interests. This in-depth interview touches on deep subjects related to the philosophy of science and her use phenomenology to explore wisdom and virtues in teaching. Next, Krystle Harkness details what has been going on with all the recent construction and renovations at the main library. If you have ever wanted to study in a miniature house, her article will tell you where you can. Lastly, Jeff Lumsden interrogated former students to get advice on how to choose courses. Their practical advice will help you when it comes time to register.

The second part of this journal includes students' papers selected by the professors from the previous semester's classes. These papers give good examples of the type of work undertaken. In the first paper, Lee researches her own class and asks whether L2 language play follows a similar trajectory as L1 language play in children. Next, Harkness does a quantitative analysis to determine the effects of a Readers Theater program on her students' fluency and participation. Thirdly, Rasmussen explores power relationships in a personal case study involving international relationships. In the fourth paper, Gang shows the first stages of the thesis writing process which is part of the Research Methodologies class as she lays out her plan to study collaborative writing with her elementary school students. Next, Brown explores how two aspects of symbolic competence — historicity and performativity — are manifested as students engage in a role-playing game. McCauley then reviews the literature on using popular web tools for language learning. Kim follows by looking at the relationship between anxiety and language learning. The last paper by Kim, Sung, and Kim shows the results of their practicum class with a study on ways to make sure students have equal speaking opportunities. Finally, in the last section, abstracts from the previous semester's thesis students are presented. The full theses are available for download from the library.

I am certain that everyone can find something useful for their own research from the wide array of high-quality papers presented in this semester's journal. Good luck and happy reading!

Daniel Brown
Editor-in-Chief, Issues in EFL, Fall 2015

Community Contributions

Doing Research: Phenomenography with Dr. Rozells

Mark Rasmussen

This essay is a long-form interview with Dr. Rozells about her research of wisdom in education using phenomenography as a research method. Dr. Rozells provides a wealth of philosophical background for wisdom and explains why phenomenography was an ideal method for understanding it. She gives some suggestions to teachers to improve their teaching practice with wisdom and how to teach wisdom to students. Finally, she explains what her future research in wisdom is taking her.

1. Introduction

Doing research is hard work. As teacher-researchers, it can be extremely difficult to find the time to understand and master the details of excellent research practice. At the same time, performing reflective and insightful research in our classrooms can be extremely beneficial to understanding our own practice, our students' perspectives and driving our classrooms towards our intended goals. With the right research questions, right methodologies, experimental procedures and fundamentally coherent research philosophies, our classroom practice can be a much more enriched experience.

For many of us however, understanding what research procedure would be best to answer the questions that we have can be a confusing experience. The question, "so why did you choose that experimental design?" might be the most difficult question some of us answer at the end-of-the-semester poster symposium or at other conferences we attend. What does significance really mean to our research? Is our design internally valid? What does research validity mean in our context? These types of philosophical questions of science are important to confront if we want to make our research understandable both to ourselves and our practice, but also to the community of researchers we are a part of.

Our philosophy of language and science, whether explicitly known or not, influences strongly what type of research we end up doing. And knowing why you are interested in the communicative theory of language, perhaps from John Searle's (1980) speech act theory, or Chomsky's (2002) Cartesian philosophy and ethological approach, will explain a great deal of why you are choosing any given research method and what your goals might be.

This essay is an attempt at shedding a little bit of light on a specific type of research that perhaps some might be interested in doing: phenomenography. The following is an interview with Dr. Rozells, who's Ph.D. dissertation was a phenomenographic account of teachers' perceptions of wisdom (2012), and who is interested in doing further research with this method. She will discuss what phenomenography is and how she used it to understand wisdom in education.

2. Interview with Dr. Rozells

Mark Rasmussen (MR): Before we talk about your dissertation and phenomenography, can you give us a brief history of your academic career? What were the things that led you to doing your doctorate and how did you end up interested in education and wisdom?

Dr. Diane Rozells (DR): I did my undergrad in Australia as well as in Singapore and I started off in occupational therapy. That was my undergrad. There was no university in Singapore that offered occupational therapy, so I did a diploma in a polytechnic and then did a conversion to the degree when I was in Australia. So there was a half year conversion, because my university was affiliated with the University of Sydney.

After finishing my diploma, I worked in a hospital for about 2 and half years. I was giving lots of classes, seminars, talks and education sessions to people, caregivers, or going to offices and giving presentations on ergonomics and I discovered I really loved teaching. And it was something that I had a passion for and I decided to further my studies and slowly move towards education. I didn't want to make a bold switch to education from my undergrad because I thought it would be too different. But I thought, ok, since I've learned about therapy, I could teach health science and I could teach therapy. And then I got more interested in English education.

When I finished my masters, I went back to Singapore and I worked in an educational research center. And while I was there I was involved in various research projects in assessment or teacher's beliefs. We did research in the schools where we would go down to schools and collect data and write reports. So basically, the subjects they learned in school, like English, math, science, social studies. These were the four main areas. I got to know about wisdom while I was doing my Ph.D. One of the subjects was advanced topics in creativity. And creativity was where I stumbled into this concept of wisdom.

Robert Sternberg (2005), who is an educational psychologist; he actually says that wisdom is one step further, one step beyond creativity. His argument is this, basically in the past people used to talk about intelligence and intelligence used to be the most important thing in schools. And then there was the move towards creativity. So someone can be intelligent, but if you're not creative, it's not so good. You don't get very far. So the next big thing became creativity. But Sternberg's (2005) argument was that, you know, creativity is also still not enough. Because one can be intelligent and one can be creative, but one can do a lot of harm, for example, you can be a very intelligent robber, or do some unethical things with the knowledge and creativity you have. So his idea was that wisdom, which, in this overarching concept, includes intelligence, includes creativity, but it's one step further. It adds an ethical, moral component to the way you look at knowledge. So you're using knowledge for the common good, that's his argument. That we ought to use the things that we learn for the good of society.

MR: Before we talk about wisdom, explain the motivation to use phenomenography as your dissertation research method and how it compares with phenomenology.

DR: It's similar to phenomenology. Both of them are focused on the "phenomena", what you see or what you experience. So in phenomenography, the difference is you

aren't coming up with a central experience or essence as you would in phenomenology, but you're coming up with a snapshot of the phenomena as seen from people's point of view. In both of them you would interview people and collect data about their thoughts about something and then you as a researcher would come up with your own idea. You would draw from that the essence; that would be phenomenology. In phenomenography you would get the range of different ideas on a map. You chart the variation, the variety of ways a concept is perceived by people. All the various possibilities. So you're not going for unification, but you're going for diversification.

Once you come up with the picture of what people's conceptions are about a particular phenomenon, from there you would see what is out there; how do people see it from their eyes. And then what I did was I compared that to what is being said in the literature and the research. So based on how they see the phenomena, how they view wisdom, how can I make that compatible with what we know about wisdom from research and theory. How can we sort of develop their conceptions further, given that we know now where their starting points are. So if she is starting from this view, how can I compliment it? If he's starting from that view how can I compliment it to further develop their conceptions.

MR: How did you use phenomenography to understand wisdom in education?

DR: Wisdom goes back to the ancient times with Aristotle, Plato and Socrates. Wisdom was the goal of education. The goal of human beings was to live "the good life" as Aristotle would say. So to live the good life,

we needed wisdom, we needed to be wise. Wisdom included things like virtue, prudence, knowledge, so there were different kinds of wisdom. The main two kinds are theoretical wisdom and practical wisdom. Practical wisdom is what Sternberg (2005) talks about in balancing different interests and choosing the best, given a situation. Aristotle talks a lot about the context. So what is the best course of action given this or that context. That's what I like about Aristotle. It is a response to the context. It's not just out of thin air or what is the best thing. It's always different; it depends on what the context is.

To be able to discover problems, intelligence may not be enough. You need to have wisdom to say, "ok, this is a problem." It's embedded in wisdom. To be wise, you necessarily need to be intelligent and creative to be able to have balance. And to be able to balance between different interests, you need creativity to come up with these different options. However, wisdom provides that context. Wisdom provides the framework in which you make these creative decisions. We cannot have creativity in a vacuum. Because you would end up doing just all sorts of crazy things. So wisdom kind of leads creativity to the good and the same with intelligence.

Later on, people like St. Thomas also picked up on Aristotle's writings and he further developed his idea of wisdom and theoretical wisdom. It actually deals with knowledge about the world, sort of epistemic knowledge about why we are here and what is good, what is the moral code and things like that. This theoretical wisdom sort of feeds into the practical wisdom and this is how you make a decision. You can't just make a decision without any theory or without any

knowledge as well. So wisdom is actually a very complex concept. That's why many different people have defined wisdom differently. In Confucianism, in Buddhism, ways of wisdom and all these different philosophical views of wisdom, there are some commonalities and that's what I did in my Ph.D. I looked at all those philosophical concepts of wisdom and I looked at modern psychological concepts of wisdom, because there have been psychologists like Sternberg and a very famous psychologist named Paul Baltes (2008), who was responsible for the Berlin Wisdom Project. It's a whole large scale series of research studies about wisdom. And it was conducted by the Max Planch institute in Germany.

They came up with seven properties of wisdom. First, superior level of knowledge, judgment and advice; knowledge and virtue; good and well-being for oneself and others; conduct and meaning of life; extraordinary scope, depth and balance; aware of the limits of our own knowledge and the uncertainties of the world. These are based on their empirical research and also informed by philosophy and other theories. So this was their definition of wisdom. Sternberg (2005) also had another one which was about wisdom, intelligence and creativity synthesized. So this was his model. There were other psychologists that also have done wisdom research, so based on all this psychological research plus looking at the philosophical ideas about wisdom, I came up with four dimensions of wisdom. Which are: superior knowledge, both theoretical and practical, virtue, spirituality and the orientation towards the superior good. These are all common dimensions to both philosophical and psychological concepts of wisdom.

Aristotle talked about wisdom as an intellectual virtue as well as a human virtue. Buddhism talks about it as a virtue, Confucianism also talks about wisdom as virtue. By virtue I mean not just the value, but living it out. So having that tendency towards acting in a way because it's like a good habit. They talk about virtues of humanity, virtues of benevolence, being kind, generous. It becomes part of you, part of your will, you want to live this way. It's not just in my mind, but it's in how I choose to live.

MR: Taking your philosophical and psychological synthesized definition of "wisdom", what emerged from the participants in your phenomenographic research?

DR: I looked at wisdom in general and I also asked about their conceptions of wisdom in education. So I had findings for wisdom and findings for wisdom in education. Basically, there were three different kinds of wisdom. One was strategic wisdom, one was social wisdom and the last was transcendent wisdom. So for wisdom in education these three categories emerged, based on what the participants' thoughts were. For strategic wisdom, you just want to find the best way of doing something. It can be good or bad, so finding the best way of teaching something, finding the best way of saying something or finding the best way to get more work done in less time. Things like that are strategic wisdom. Knowing how to plan your professional trajectory and goals.

There were some people who talked about strategic wisdom in a not-so wise way, in the sense that they talked about, "oh I don't want to teach the lower level classes" and teachers who underperform would get those

classes, so they tried hard in order to not get those classes. They try to get to know the boss very well so it will be helpful for their career. So things like that, you can see strategic wisdom, but morally speaking they may not have that transcendent wisdom, which is a different kind of wisdom which was represented in the theory. Basically, an awareness of virtue and morals.

MR: I wonder, given that some of those actions may be somewhat virtueless or without virtue, would you want to include them in the category of wisdom?

DR: It's true, it's true it may not be wisdom, but again phenomenography is a map of what people think. It's what they think wisdom is. It's the phenomena and a map of the phenomena. And based on this I would compare that to what's really in the literature and what the literature has to say. So basically phenomenography charts maybe less representative or more representative conceptions with reference to the phenomena itself as described in theory and the literature.

Social wisdom is focused on the interaction. So basically, what's most important is the social development of my students, I need to be very good to my colleagues, I need to affirm them, help them. I need to not disagree with them. And this was where maybe it went a little against the virtue, because sometimes you would agree too much, you would sort of say or do whatever everyone does. Even though they see in their conscious maybe I could do that a different way and it would be better. Not wanting to rock the boat for example, would fall outside what the literature or theory says is wise. Sternberg would say you could choose to do this or this but oh

no not this. He would say wisdom is the ability to balance. The socialism is most important. Some teachers felt that way.

Transcendent wisdom would see teaching as a calling. I'm here to help other people to develop their talents. At the same time you would be ethical in the way you would practice your profession you would do things well professionally. And therefore it incorporates strategic wisdom and social wisdom as well. You need that in fact. To be a good teacher you need to have a good knowledge of the subject and a professional path. It's natural that if you are wise that you get along well with your colleagues, you help your students when you can and they like you.

So why is wisdom important? It's important because there is a lot of focus on performance and performativity. And so what is emphasized in teacher assessments or evaluations aren't just, "ok I have to be a good teacher, I have to do my work well". Even with your students, exams are everything. But sometimes teachers can be so caught up in that that they forget why they are teaching or what their role is.

MR: Using these three types of wisdom you found in teachers' perception, what can teachers do to teach more wisely?

DR: Reflection is a very important part of wisdom. So things like reflective practice are important for teachers. In the practicum we write reflections every week about how we are teaching, how you can improve your teaching, what did you look at, what did you miss and how you can improve next time. So reflection is really important and that is how someone can make the mistake of year after year being a very experienced teacher, but maybe not be very wise. But

someone who is just starting out and who is reflecting on their practice and developing themselves can be very wise.

Which does not fit a popular conception of wisdom. Some people think that wisdom comes with age. Experience is necessary but the most important thing is the learning that comes from experience. And this is has been seen in the Berlin Wisdom paradigm. They have done some empirical research on what people think wisdom is. And this was their finding as well. It's not just age, but it's the way you learn from experience. How you learn is more important than just having the experience.

Wisdom is also very important in collaboration. You want students to collaborate with each other, you want even teachers to collaborate with each other. When you look in the literature there is critical thinking and that is different. Critical thinking does not necessarily require collaboration; you're just looking at something critically, you're analyzing it and often you even adopt a very critical stance, it forces you to be more critical and sometimes that can actually create barriers. So with wisdom one of the good things is it destroys barriers, it finds commonalities. Through wisdom you seek for what unites for what you share and build on diversity as well. You don't just look at things critically, but sometimes in a situation, ok you have a critical view, but maybe you want to tell it at a different time or put it in a nicer way because you respect the person and that comes from virtue. So that's why I think wisdom goes one step further than many of the concepts we study.

MR: In the creativity class last fall, we spent some time talking about how teaching creativity to students and teaching creatively can be different and have different goals. How did you approach wisdom in education? Teaching wisdom to students? Or teaching with wisdom?

DR: So we are talking about both. There are two sections in my results, one is about themselves as teachers and one is about students and the way that they deal with students. Teaching students to be wise is a very complex question. You can't just have one answer; it really depends on the student and the situation and where they are coming from. And this is why I think phenomenography was the best research methodology to use because it's such a complex topic; you need to see where people are coming from.

So if their ideas are strategic, build upon their esteem for the pursuit of knowledge and rationality, helping them to see knowledge as a basic human good, which has a moral dimension. Help them to acquire more multi-disciplinary and synthetic ways of thinking and knowing which can open them to a greater sensitivity of the complexity of the truth. Which is another thing that has been in the literature. We need to develop more synthetic and interdisciplinary ways of thinking to being wise. If we are scientists we don't just think of everything in terms of science, if you're in the humanities, everything isn't just part of that paradigm. We need to have a lot of interdisciplinary dialogue and also teaching them philosophy. That unites everything together. That's the basis of knowledge. What is knowledge, where does knowledge come from, who are we? What is the goal of knowledge? Through teaching students these ideas, or even teachers, it helps them think a little bit more deeply about the knowledge that they have and how they can put it to good use.

MR: Many of the teachers in this program are elementary school teachers, how can we develop wisdom in children?

DR: We would do it in different ways for different ages. When you are looking at younger children, the kinds of knowledge they deal with are not so complex. Most of the time, it always depends, but often there is one answer. For example, is a rabbit a mammal or not? It's quite clear cut when it comes to more basic knowledge. Of course they can always be wider questions and some uncertainties, but it's true that they would like some certainty. For younger children, I would focus on the virtue aspect for children. Helping them develop virtues, helping them to enjoy doing good things. So making tidying up the classroom fun. I would sort of go that way.

I would also tell them stories. Some of the teachers I interviewed do that. They would give them stories like Aesop's fables so they could have a message like a moral message behind the stories and so in this way you help develop their moral sense.

MR: Finally, what is next for you and your research?

DR: I would like to see how the situation in Korea is. Testing these concepts out in the Korean context. At the same time, also testing out some of the things I came up with. So maybe doing more quantitative research with a questionnaire to see which areas are really prevalent in Korea. Of course it will be different. Which categories seem to play out more in Korea.

For wisdom, I'm not sure of any other research that is done in phenomenography. So there is a lot more to do in charting wisdom in education. It's interesting how TESOL encompasses so many different areas. It's very broad and many things can fit into TESOL and I see no problem continuing the research in wisdom.

I would like to get a wide spread of teachers, maybe not just English education, but also it would be very interesting to get a specific TESOL perspectives. Native English teachers' views might be very different from their Korean counterparts, or maybe there is no difference and so maybe a comparative study would be interesting.

Suggested Reading and References

Baltes, P., & Smith, J. (2008). The Fascination of Wisdom: Its Nature, Ontogeny, and Function. *Perspectives On Psychological Science*, *3*(1), 56-64.

Chomsky, N., Belletti, A., Rizzi, L., & Chomsky, N. (2002). *On nature and language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Larsson, J., & Holmström, I. (2007). Phenomenographic or phenomenological analysis: does it matter? Examples from a study on anaesthesiologists' work. *International Journal Of Qualitative Studies On Health And Well-Being*, *2*(1).

Rozells, D. (2012). *A phenomenographic study of teachers' conceptions of wisdom and their experiences of wisdom in education* (Ph.d). University of Signapore.

Searle, J., Kiefer, F., & Bierwisch, M. (1980). *Speech act theory and pragmatics*. Dordrecht, Holland: D. Reidel.

Sternberg, R. (2005). WICS: A Model of Positive Educational Leadership Comprising Wisdom, Intelligence, and Creativity Synthesized. *Educational Psychology Review*, *17*(3), 191-262.

A Fresh New Library

Krystle Harkness

The main library at Sookmyung has been going through major renovations in order to better serve the changing needs of Sookmyung's students. The renovations have been taking place throughout the vacation periods this year and last year. The winter stage of renovations took place throughout the main library building but the biggest changes took place on the fifth and sixth floors. More renovations are going on this summer vacation on the first and second floors. You can see those results this fall!

The fifth floor of the library was named "CC Plaza" which stands for Creativity and Collaboration Plaza. The name was selected from student submissions and it is meant to be an open and welcoming atmosphere for students to study and think creatively. This newly opened area looks clean and feels fresh and inviting. The CC Plaza contains several different sections. First of all, there are the theme bookshelves which are surrounded by tables to allow reading or studying in a relaxing environment. Some of the topics in the theme bookshelves include travel books, best sellers, classic literature and Sisa cultural magazines. Next, there are the Sang-Sang booths. These are small study areas modeled to look like miniature houses. You can chose between table and chair booths or ma-ru type booths which allow you to sit on the floor and study at a small table. These booths can accommodate small groups of 4-5 students, perfect for group work or studying with friends. However, these booths must be reserved ahead of time using the library's website.

Making a reservation is possible up to three days in advance and it is also possible to do in Korean or English. Also, at the entrance of the fifth floor you can find the Sang-Sang Lounge which is a large room that can be used for reading or group study. There are four additional group study rooms that can also be reserved in advanced on the fifth floor.

Figure 1 Fifth Floor Sang Sang Booth 1

Furthermore, if you ever feel the need for some fresh air you can visit the Think Ma-ru which is located on the terrace outside of the fifth floor. They are designed like the Sang-Sang booths and let you study outside in the fresh air.

Figure 2 Fifth Floor Outdoor Think Maru 1

Finally, on the fifth floor you can enjoy a meal or snack at the newly renovated Café Hue. Students can enjoy a variety of food options including a set menu and instant food. You can check out the menu and opening times daily using the Smart Sookmyung application.

The sixth floor of the library also underwent a major renovation this past winter. There are some new reading rooms located here. One room contains tables with lamps where students can study whereas another reading room contains cubicle style individual desks for more concentrated study. These are fresh clean places to study, although they can often be crowded during the height of the semester, so it is best to arrive and reserve early.

Figure 3 Sixth Floor Reading Room 1

As TESOL MA students, we are entitled to use all of the libraries facilities and as many as 20 books can be borrowed at a time for 30 days. You can enter the library by scanning your library card or by using the Smart Sookmyung application on your phone. During the semester the library is open Monday to Friday from 9am to 10pm and Saturday from 9am to 5pm. During the vacation period the library's operating hours are reduced. Additionally, underneath the library there are reading rooms which are available 24 hours, reservations can be made quickly and easily with the Smart Sookmyung App. Furthermore, TESOL MA students can all access and borrow books from the TESOL Resource center on the first floor of the Sookmyung Professional Building (InJaeKwan).

Even if you cannot make it to the library in person, there are still resources available to you from your home or office. Logging in to the library's website will give you access to academic search engines such as EBSCOhost or ScienceDirect and thousands of academic journals, scholarly articles and e-books which you can download from anywhere. Simply log in using your student number. The password is the last seven digits of your Korean identification number.

Please see the following table to get a brief tour of the services and facilities available to you at the main library. Drop by the library and take a peek at what's new!

Floor	Reference Room	Available Materials	Facilities
1	Check-out Desk	Reserved Books	OPAC (PC's for searching) Shinhan Lobby
	World Women's Literature Center	Books (W 000~999), antique books, reference books, English Reading Garden	
2	DICA Plaza	DVDs, videotapes, CDs	SMART Plaza (134 PC's & scanner) Newspapers Film Archives 5 Group Study Rooms
3	Reference Room	Books (numbered 600-999), antique books	8 Group Study Rooms PC's for searching
4	Reference Room	Books (numbered 000-600), Serial publications, Sisa Culture Magazines	Graduate School Study Room 8 Group Study Rooms PC's for searching
5	CC Plaza	Theme Library	Sang-Sang Lounge 6 Sang-Sang Booths 4 Group Study Rooms Think Maru Booths Café Hue Education Room
6	Reading Rooms		Reading Seats S1: Focused Reading Room S2: Regular Reading Room S3: Regular Reading Room S4: Notebook Reading Room
A	Reading Rooms		Reading Seats Café La Neige 3 Group Study Rooms Lockers A1: Focused Reading Room A2: Graduate Reading Room A3: Notebook Reading Room A4: Exam Period Reading Room
B	Library Storage		Lockers

Suggestions for Picking Your Semester Classes

Jeff Lumsdon

It begins to happen around six weeks before the beginning of each new semester. Once the course syllabi and book lists start appearing on the message board, there always seems to be an influx of text messages and email interactions between MA classmates asking the same question; "What classes are you taking this term?

Although it may be assumed that choosing between such a small number of classes would be easy, it is in fact these limited options that cause the most stress. In one instance there may be three or more classes that peak your interests, while in another case, the classes offered in a term may not seem directly applicable to your current teaching environment or future goals. In the end however, a choice must be made and there is a lot to consider before committing the next four months to a course that you cross your fingers you will like.

In an effort to make this process a little less arduous, this article presents a collection of suggestions and opinions current and past MA TESOL students have used for determining the courses they will take. As graduate students in the field of TESOL, we all come from a plethora of different working environments, teaching experiences and areas of interest. As such, what drives one student through this program may be drastically different than that of their fellow classmates. Despite these differences, the following four suggestions were mentioned by nearly everyone who was asked.

1. Think about what topics you are interested in.

I realize this is easier said than done, but in reality what interests you about English teaching is going to drive you harder to succeed in class. Maybe your area of expertise is writing, reading or speaking. Maybe you prefer teaching adult students over children. Maybe you're looking for more practical material over theory. All of these factors should be considered when picking your classes. You might have to take some time to really nail down what you want from the MA TESOL program, but I guarantee everyone has a preference.

2. Consider whether you plan on completing the practicum or writing a thesis.

There is a good chance you'll be asked around the second semester to think about whether you will be writing a thesis or completing the practicum. In fact, the sooner you decide the easier it will be to make a study plan for the next two years. The courses in the program run on a cycle and therefore determining your end goal makes choosing courses a lot less time consuming. For example, if you choose to write a thesis you will more than likely be advised to take the research methods course in your second or third semester. Furthermore, if a student is able to nail down a thesis topic, a plan can made to take classes related to

that specific topic. Additionally, considering that the practicum is an amalgamation of information over a wide variety of ESL areas, a student who plans to enter the practicum may benefit from diversifying their selected courses as to expose themselves to a vast array of different information. Whatever is decided, it never hurts to take a look at the two year cycle that is posted on www.tesolma.com.

3. Talk to your classmates.

If I could give you one crucial piece of advice it would be to get to know your classmates. Not only are they unique, intelligent and hilarious people, but they also provide you with invaluable information ranging from where to buy books to where to find the assigned readings. Above that, classmates who are a semester or two ahead of yourself provide the added advantage of having already taken classes you might be considering in the future (remember that cycle system). Your classmates will be able to share their opinions about the practicality of the material, the expectations of the professors and in some totally awesome cases, a pdf package containing all of the books and readings. I urge you to interact with as many of your fellow classmates as possible, because it makes the work and class time so much more enjoyable.

4. Talk to the professors.

Despite the lecturing, homework assigning and sticker delegating (I've got my eyes set on a wooden one), our profs are here to guide us throughout this MA process. They've been through exactly the same experience we're all going through now and therefore have an immense amount of advice and suggestions on how to get the most out of our studies. They've spent countless hours reading, researching and preparing the lessons they present each week and so they're the perfect individuals to advise you on whether or not a class will meet your interests. Now don't get me wrong, I realize talking to a prof can be fairly intimidating at first, but just remember, they are regular people too; albeit drastically smarter and more educated than we are. So take the plunge and contact those profs!

There is a good chance that if you incorporate at least one of the following suggestions into your course selection plan, you will find your final decision becomes a whole lot easier. There are a number of excellent and useful classes that are offered in this program, unfortunately we just aren't able to take them all. In the end, whether you choose to study a topic you're already quite knowledgeable with or something you've never heard of, I guarantee you'll be surprised with how your thoughts and opinions regarding English learning and teaching will change in this brief two years of study.

Final Papers

Second Language Play in a Novice EFL Classroom

Eunsook Lee

Current Issues in ESL and EFL

1. Introduction

Several scholars have viewed and approached language play as a meaningful role in the L1 classrooms (Crystal, 1996; Cook, 1997, 2000; Cumming, 2007). Crystal (1996) suggested that language play can be a medium to bridge the gap between the world of their private places and the world of their classroom. Cook (1997, 2000) urged that language play is the key to bring authentic language use in literature by focusing on form and function, as he proposed that educational fields had not allowed authenticity happen even though there is a claim for its importance and implication in materials and classrooms. Cumming (2007) suggested that language play is the natural part of a child's development and its experience can be a basis to connect creativity in literature.

Based on several assumptions that language play can contribute to language development, there has been research related to using language play or about language play itself in L2 and the EFL (Broner & Tarone, 2001; Belz, 2002; Bell, 2005; Bushnell, 2008, Szernecsi, 2010). However, "Children's language play is relatively unresearched in the classroom" (Cumming, 2007, p.93). Broner & Tarone (2001) studied a fifth-grade Spanish Immersion classroom to examine notions of language play, Belz (2002) attempted to find a link between L1 language play and

L2 second language play in an adult German class, Bell (2005) showed the contribution of language play for learners' proficiency in adult English advanced class, Bushnell (2008) presented an analysis of interactions in adult Japanese beginner class to emphasize the role of language play, and Szernecsi (2010) examined the relationship between language ability and metalinguistic knowledge through case studies in literatures to discuss the need for linguistic creativity in FL classrooms.

This paper aims to investigate children's language play in the EFL classroom. As learning English has become mandatory in elementary schools in Korea since the beginning of 21st century, interests towards teaching and learning English have become a routine in daily life. However, Koreans are still faced with several barriers while achieving successful foreign language achievement, such as entirely different letters, forms, functions and meanings in English, Korean dominated language use and perceived differences in culture. In this context, this paper attempts to see how young children perform second language play with only limited new language skills in an EFL classroom.

2. Research Questions

1. What types of second language play do children produce/perform in EFL novice classrooms?

22

2. Does the second language play follow the developmental steps of L1 language play?

3. Literature Review

3.1 Language play

3.1.1 Definition There have been a few attempts to define the term of language play. According to Crystal (1996), language play is the natural and normal linguistic behavior of young children while acquiring their first language. Its definition was concreted and approached delicately by Cook (1997), as he tried to define the term of 'play' at first as "behavior not primarily motivated by human need to manipulate environments, to share information, and to form and maintain social relationship (Cook, 1997, p.227)." Therefore, language play can be considered as the natural and normal linguistic behavior of human needs to enjoy, relax and rehearse, but not mainly motivated by human needs.

3.1.2 Characteristics Language play tends to have particular forms and patterns in its appearance. According to Crystal (1996), language play occurs when people treat the forms and functions of language as a source of fun for themselves or for their surroundings. Cook (1997) thought that language play tended to appear as two types, the formal and semantic levels of language. The formal levels contain playing with sounds to create patterns of language, such as rhyme, rhythm, assonance, consonance, alliteration, etc. The semantic levels on the other were playing with meanings to create fictions. It involves "a broad swath of activities, including verbal dueling, tongue twisters, songs and rhymes, puns, riddles, jokes, narratives, and play languages" (Cook 2000). It typically contains three features:

"linguistic patterning and repetition, semantic reference to alternative worlds, the pragmatic function of social inclusion and/or exclusion" (Bell 2005, p.195).

3.2. Language play in children

3.2.1 Features Children's L1 acquisition takes impressive time and they spend a great deal of their time producing or receiving playful language driven by sound (Crystal 1996; Cook 1997). According to Cook (1997), they tend to select some patterns to produce, but their meanings may be absurd or unclear. Young children also show tolerances while being exposed in story telling which consists of new unknown vocabulary because language is presented in a "friendly frame of sound-rhymed rhythmic" (p.229). In subsequent conversation, they often attempt to look for chances to mishear and reveal amusement by it. This type of behavior involves repetition, rote learning, saying things without understanding, and little communication, which is supposedly shown by the best and most natural language acquirers. Opies (cited in Crystal, 1996, p.330) said that "rhyme seems to appeal to children as something funny and remarkable in itself without reasons."

Broner and Tarone (2001) suggested that children's language play has two purposes, fun and rehearsal. Even though their study focused on children's language play in an immersion classroom, they adopted Vygotsky's 'private speech' which emphasized the role of language play as contributing a fundamental role in the child's language development (Lantolf, 1997 cited in Broner & Tarone, 2001). In this perspective, young children's language play must be closer to rehearsal rather than more focused on fun itself, or they recognize playful time as a rehearsal

3.2.2 Types of children's language play in L1 Crystal (1996) investigated the types of very young children's language play in terms of developmental aspects. According to him, phonetic play seems to be the first step, appearing around age 1 and including syllables, humming, chanting, singing. In this stage, the sounds themselves seem to be the main focus of the play. More structured phonological play followed around age 2, such as syllable structure, using reduplication (such as Choo-Choo, bye bye), sound swapping (like Pig Latin), and the addition of pauses within a word. He found that pre-sleep monologue as a solitary behavior occurs while playing with various objects in the room. The monologues started to become complex and related to freedom and recalling for its own sake, with repetition of favorite strings but not communicative. Between 3 or 4, children start using each other's play language as a trigger to be communicative by adding rhymes, changing names for fun etc. By 5, the dialogue play can be very sophisticated. Older children often deliberately misname for fun. This kind of verbal play exists in many forms by 6, both serious and humorous. Young children tend to develop this sophistication of language play by demonstrating in verbal games in which one rhyme is joined to another in a list (Sanches and Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 1976, as cited in Chrystal, 1996), "knock-knock" and 'Doctor Doctor', which becomes fashionable after age 7, and "the pseudo-intellectual games" played by children of around 10.

opportunity.

Ages	Types of Language Play in L1
By the end of first year	- **Syllables** - **Humming** - **Smacking their lips** - **Bubbling blowing**
Around Age 2	- **Syllable structure** by using **Reduplication** (e.g. choo-choo, bye-bye) - **Sound swapping** (e.g. Pig Latin) - **The addition of pause** within a word - Pre-sleep **monologue** as a solitary behavior while playing with various objects, - **Repetition** of favorite strings but not communicative.
Around Age 3 and 4	- Using each other's play language as a trigger for further variations by **adding rhymes, changing names** for fun - They become fascinated with songs, chants, and rhymes and enjoy **producing nonsensical rhyming patterns.**
By Age 5 and 6	- **Misname** (to name wrongly or incorrectly) for fun.

Table 1: Types of language play in L1 acquisition

3.3 Language play and creativity

Sounds attract young children's intelligence and desires to construct knowledge of the world, and it contributes to lay foundation to acquire their first language. According to Crystal (1996), language play is one piece of evidence to show that children are developing their linguistic awareness. They combine their experience and knowledge to select some patterns and produce them through utterances from a very early age. The ability of combination and production through language is recognized as creativity in some studies.

According to López (2002), the learner uses his or her own creativity to combine the limited number of items in a language to produce an infinite number of utterances during a great deal of learner interaction in learning situations; especially in FL (Foreign Language) classroom. His hypothesis was based on the existence of a LAD (Language Acquisition Device) which was a metaphor used by Chomsky. Following Chomsky's proposal, he claimed that creativity is one of the tools for mastering a language and it can be the goal to promote in FL.

Language play often connects with creativity because it occurs spontaneously and in a mode of randomness. As the term of 'creativity' is defined as the feature of novelty and appropriateness in contexts while people generate ideas of things (Starko, 2014), language play can be also one piece of evidence to suggest that children use their creativity subconsciously for fun, and it can be a tool to activate their creativity.

4. Methodology

4.1 Participants

12 children ranging from age 5 to 7 who have been exposed to English for less than 6 months at home, in nursery care or monolingual kindergartens were the subjects in this study. 10 children were in first grade and 2 in the second grade in an elementary school in an Eastern province of Seoul, Korea. 8 participants were male and 4 were female. At the time of this study, they were attending an English novice class, specializing in phonics at a language institution. Classes were three times a week and lasted 80 minutes in length.

The students were expected to use English for the entirety of the lessons with the teacher interrupting only when the participants stop producing utterances for extended periods. A proficiency test was not conducted as they were considered novice low when they enrolled in the course.

Name	Grade	Gender
Christin (SCn)	1st grade	female
Denny(SD)	1st grade	male
Henry (SH)	1st grade	male
James (SJms)	1st grade	male
Jenny (SN)	1st grade	female
Jennifer (SJNF)	1st grade	female
Justin (SJN)	1st grade	male
Kenneth(SK)	2nd grade	male
Mark (SM)	1st grade	male
Roy (SR)	1st grade	male
Sean (SSn)	2nd grade	male
Sharon (SSrn)	1st grade	female

Table 2: Participants

4.2. Data collection and analysis

This study collected data from interviews with participants' parents and classroom discourses by audio recording over two sessions: April and May. Interviews were used to analyze participants' personal backgrounds and audio recording were examined for analysis of participants' discourse by extracting the types, frequency, and degree of language play. In order to bring successful analysis and results, this study aimed to explicitly understand the definition and examples of language play as well as its types on stages of development.

5. Findings

5.1. The frequency of second language play
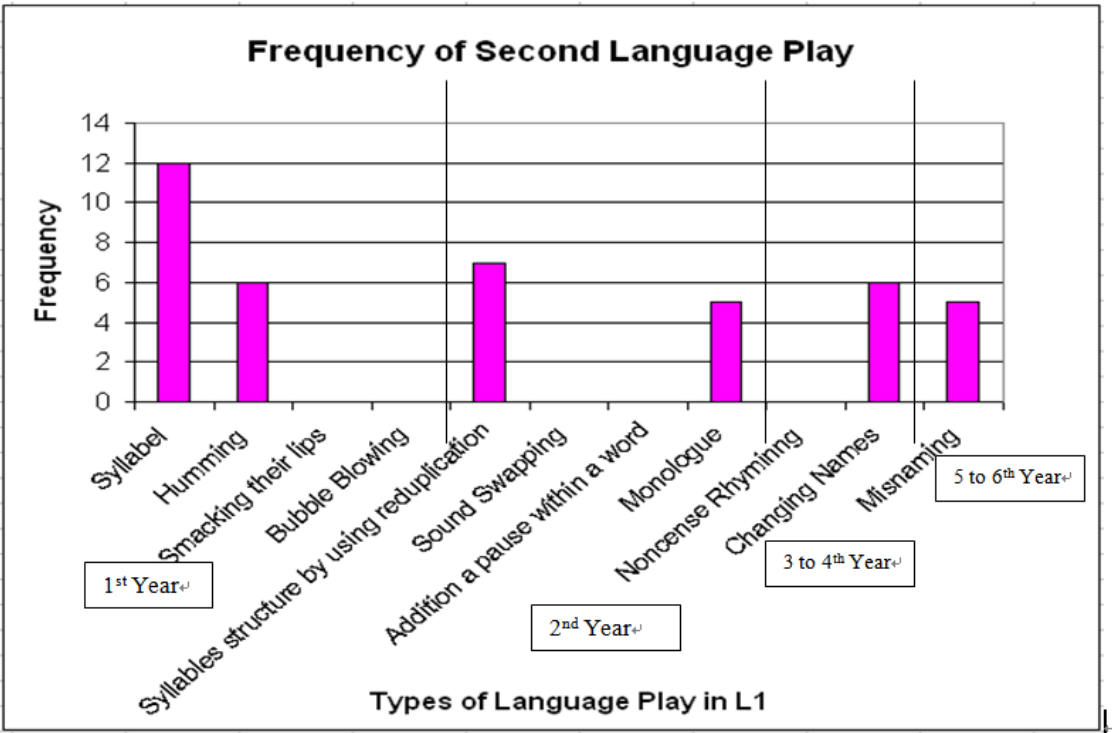
Table 3: The frequency of second language play in an EFL novice classroom

The above data shows that participants produced language play in the form of syllable, humming, syllables structure by using reduplication, monologue, changing names, and misnaming in this EFL classroom. Use of the type of syllable appeared to be the most frequent language play in this study. Syllables appear by the end of first year of infancy in L1 acquisition (Crystal, 1996). The syllable structure by using reduplication; such as poo-poo, boogie-woogie, chit-chat, etc. appeared as the second most frequently used. Next, the participants played with language by changing names, or they produced language in the mode of a monologue. Sometimes children made nonsense words and misnamed objects, however instances of this infrequently occurred.

However, some types of language play did

not appear; such as smacking their lips, bobble blowing, addition of a pause within a word, sound swapping, and nonsense rhyming. As Cook (1997) mentioned, it takes approximately five years for children's first language acquisition to be achieved, skipping some features can be interpreted as the degree of their first language acquisition for the participants may have already mastered certain play characteristics in their first language that are carried over into their second.

5.2. The types of second language play

5.2.1. Syllables The followings are examples of second language play that were extracted from daily classroom interactions between the teacher and students, or among students. Syllables appeared at a high rate, not exactly at the speed infants make, but participants tended to produce some rhythm or animal sounds. They however did not seem to have an audience while producing syllables.

(Example 1)

SJIN: *teacher ~ A woo (Wolf sound) A woo A woo*
Ss: *a woo a woo a woo ~~~*
T: Okay that's right! Here you go. Everyone A B
SK: B ~ (very strong in base tone)
SD: *B ~ok b oh b oh b oh b oh b b o b o b o   b o (with high speed)*
T: *ok ....b .. b*
SD: *b o b o b o   b o (with high speed)*
T: That's right, B very good!

(Example 2)
Ss: Owl
Ss: *o wow ow ow   awooooooo awoooooo awoooooo*

(Example 3)
T: Oh one by one   big 'I'.
Ss: Big 'I'.
S: *Wooooooo ~~ (with different tune)*
T: Very good Justin!

(Example 4)
SK: Kenneth, Kenneth
SD: L L
T: Next Roy will do it ok?
SD: *L L L L Ellen L*
T: Kenneth very good ok, Oh ok…Roy what?

(Example 5)
T: And that's right Sharon good job M … Denny !
SD: ABCD EFG ~ (Singing the alphabet song alone)
T: LMN ____
SJms: *O O O O (with different tune)*
SH: Short screaming!

(Example 6)
T: Henry ~ LMN
SH: *N? N? N? N? big n? big n?*
T: Big N

(Example 7)
T: That's right!
Ss: Banana ~ haha- Banana (Imitating SH's pronunciation).
SD: *oo   ing   in   gin babababbabbabbabbabab*
Ss: Car!

5.2.2. Syllable structure by use of reduplication The data presented showed the types of syllables structure by use of reduplication such as poo-poo, hickery dickery, and boogie-woogie etc. When participants listened to the teacher's talk or new sounds from the material, they seemed to imitate or practice them

immediately. The articulation was not completely perfect but they tried to add some musical rhythm in reduplication. Sometimes it was meaningful, but other times it was not.

(Example 1)

SSn: van
T: Van we didn't learn very good you did a good job!   okay
         you stand up ~ over there! you stand up   ~over there
Ss: *over there over there over there over there over there*
T: That's right!
SK: *of of of there of of of there of of of over there (with rhythm)*
T: Everybody team name! Kenneth Team name! Justin team name!

(Example 2)
T: Finished? OK   HIJK   that's right Roy good job….
SK: *good good   Denny good good (like rap)… no no*
T: every body ABCDEFG one more ~

Example 3
T: Oh my god!
SH: *teacher Potray teacher Potrary*
T: What's wrong?
SM: *Robot Robot Robot Robot (Keep saying without breathing)*
T: That's right! What's wrong?
SH: *teacher potray, teacher potray Kenneth potray*
SK: haha ha ha ha ha

Example 4
SH: *arirorir oo rio ri or rior o (ten little Indian boy) peek a boo peek a boo peek a boo*

Example 5

SJn: Teacher ~ Ellen teacher ~
T: You have to do this right?   Oh that's right! Very good!
SJms: *num num num num gy gy gy (with very bold voice like uncle)*
T: Ok here every one…

Example 6
SJy: Teacher ?
T: That's right Kenneth good job! Okay okay here for the next one. Can you handle?
SK: *ttoo tata ttoo tata too ttoo tata ttoo (with rhythm)*
T: Hahah!
SK: I am done!

5.2.3. Monologue Monologues usually appears before sleep as a solitary behavior while playing with various objects during L1 acquisition. It appears with rhythm or pure monologue. Participants mostly sang songs such as the alphabet song, nursery rhymes like the alphabet train, peek-a-boo or alone, which suggested they did not care for an audience. It seemed that their monologue was for the purpose of rehearsal.

Example 1
Ss: I am done (thump thump). I am done (thump thump). I am done (thump thump).
T: LMN ~ O
SH: *I ~am ~done ~ I ~am~ done~ (with different pitch)*
Ss: I am done (thump thump). I am done (thump thump). I am done (thump thump). I am done (thump   thump).

Example 2
T: Sharon good job Denny
SD: *I am Denny ~ (in tune)*
T: V W XY Denny VWXY_
Example 3

SK: Nina nina nina nina ni…
SH: *Ellen teacher I am done ~ (with high tune)*
SJms: *I ~ Am ~ done*
SH: Teacher teacher I am done!
SH: *Ellen teacher I am done (strong stress in the beginning /e/)*
        Ellen teacher I am done. Ellen teacher I am done.
SSn: teacher book back?
SH: *Ellen teacher I am done (Shouting with rhythm)*
T: No ~~ no

5.2.4. Changing names The data showed that participants were able to change names by adding or changing some alphabet letters. This language play was shown in individual letters as well as in a sentence. Sound was the most influential factor for this creation. Example 2 and 4 showed that participants created a different or nonsense word such as Erasy, May Kain, or Penry. They also could find the same sound as their first language and pronounced it while the teacher made and checked participants' pronunciation. This process appeared fun and enjoyable during interactions.

Example 1
T: (touch screen to go to the next page)
Ss: Enter
T: huh?
SJIN: *umprella*
Ss: *unplower*
Ss: *umbrella*
T: (touch screen to go to the next page)

Example 2
T: So what are you going to do … just look at this one…
SH: *Justin no English (with rolling his tongue.), Erasy*
T: Ok don't do that! Sit down Mark. Come here. Mark ~

Example 3
SR: Who can do it? Who can do it? Who can do it? Who can do it?
SK: CDE
T: We can do it right ok~?
SH: *Who can do it? We can do it! Who can do it? We can do it!*

Example 4
Ss: Ball ball~ ball !
Ss: Pig
SH: *may kain ~ (with wicked voice)*
Ss: Panda, panda, panda
Ss: Pig,   pig, pig
Ss: Pen
T: /p/
SJs: *pech pench (with strong and confident voice)*
T: Hehehehe
T: Mark, what is that?
SM: *Penry*
T: what?
SM: *Penry*
SH: hahahahahahahahhahha
T: Penguin
SH: *Banguy (방귀 means fart)*
Ss: hahahhhahhahah
T: *Penguin not 방귀*
Ss: hahahahahahahah
T: That's right. Penguin

Example 5
T: Very good!
Ss: (raising their hands) ah ah   *who can do it who can do it who can do It who can do it.*
T: Sharon
SH: *who can do it, I can do it, Who can do it, I can do it*
SR: Ellen teacher ~ Ellen teacher~

5.2.5. Misnaming Older children tended to use names of people or things

incorrectly for fun. Misnaming is not easy because they need to understand the sounds of target language clearly in order to do this. Then they have to decide the right place to switch the sounds. Even though they are at the very beginning level of English, the following examples suggest that misnaming is not difficult for participants. In addition it proposed that their language play can be related to their creativity.

Example 1

Ss: Ellen teacher I am done (thump thump). Ellen teacher I am done (thump thump). Ellen teacher I am done (thump thump). Ellen teacher I am done (thump thump).

SH: *Alliga~*

T: Alligator ~?

SJN: *Alligator I am done (thump thump) Alligator I am done (thump thump).*

T: I am Ellen.

SJN: *Ellen teacher.*

T: That's right!

SK: *Alligator.*

T: Okay!

Ss: Hehehhe.

Example 2

T: So what are you going to do … just look at this one…

SH: *Justin no English (with rolling his tongue.), Erasy*

T: ok don't do that! sit down Mark come here.. Mark ~

Example 3

Ss: Nimo go nimo go.

T: That's very good! Nimo go

Ss: Swim.

SK: *Daddy go~daddy go~ (looking at Merlin (Nimo's dad).*

T: That's right!

SK: *Denny go Denny go (Using a peer's name).*

Ss: *Haha Denny go Denny go.*

SK: *Denny go Denny no go.*

Ss: *Denny no Denny no.*

SD: *Denny no Denny no.*

SK: *Denny no.*

SH: *No English.*

SJms: No no no no.

S: English no.

6. Discussion

The first research question in this paper was what type of second language play children produce in novice EFL classroom. Based on the developmental stage of L1 language play, young children produced language play in the type of syllable, humming, syllable structure by using reduplication, monologue, changing names and misnaming. They changed their tone of voice when they repeated some sentences and words. Sometimes they imitated their peers and the teacher's style of speech exactly. Musical rhythm is the key to perform language play for more fun and enjoyment. When they play with language individually or as a choir, the types of language play were produced in rhythmical way such as chant or rap. This behavior sometimes appeared with unexpected or nonsense words, and rational connection or reasoning with the given lesson could not be found.

The second research question was whether their second language play follows the developmental steps of L1 language play. According to table 3, the participants showed the possibility of skipping some stages of language development and chose the stages which they could possibly perform for fun and practice. It suggests that second language play does not tend to follow the stage of language development although children used the type of syllable most frequently. As their L1 acquisition

progressed, they seemed to incorporate their metacognitive knowledge, such as monitoring, which they already have from their previous language learning experience. Therefore, their second language play features can be revealed in all stages of language development in one lesson. It appears as though it is the matter of how much they are expose to a new language and language learning experiences. Therefore, language play may speed up a children's new language acquisition.

7. Conclusion

This paper suggests some reasons as to why teachers should include language play in the EFL classroom. First, as children's language play is a natural and normal behaviour while acquiring L1, it may also be effective when they acquire a second language. It is not a priority to learn or recognize, but it is helpful for learning new languages in the classroom (Cook, 1997).

Secondly, children play with language for self-amusement or fun (Cook, 1997 as cited in Broner and Tarone 2001), and they engage it for rehearsal to show their awareness and the process of learning (Saville-Troke, 1988, as cited in Broner and Tarone, 2001). This paper investigated that they produced playful language based on their resources of new language information and consistently used familiar forms with repeated patterns. Participants did not seem to distinguish between rehearsal and fun, but they appeared to practice in funny. Subsequently playing with language might speed up their second language acquisition.

Thirdly, language play can be used for measuring their proficiency and creativity. Belz (2002) claimed that second language play might represent learners'

multicompetence. Cumming (2007) suggested that creativity can be revealed by language play connecting their pre existing experience.

Finally, this paper suggests further research be completed to investigate the relationship between language play and children's creativity. The examples in this paper were not intended for or planned to be produce in the classroom. It is all from their own resources, learning style, pre existing language learning experience, and creativity. Therefore, further research might be useful to determine sufficient reasons for learners' specific playing style.

References

Bell, N. D. (2005). Exploring L2 language play as an aid to SLL: A case study of humour in NS–NNS interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, *26*(2), 192-218.

Belz, J. A. (2002). Second language play as a representation of the multicompetent self in foreign language study. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, *1*(1), 13-39.

Broner, M. A., & Tarone, E. E. (2001). Is it fun? Language play in a fifth-grade Spanish immersion classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *85*(3), 363-379.

Bushnell, C. (2009). 'Lego my keego!': An analysis of language play in a beginning Japanese as a foreign language classroom. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(1), 49-69.

Cekaite, A., & Aronsson, K. (2005). Language play, a collaborative resource in children's L2 learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *26*(2), 169-191.

Cumming, R. (2007). Language play in the classroom: encouraging children's intuitive creativity with words through

poetry. *Literacy*, *41*(2), 93-101.

Cook, G. (1997). Language play, language learning. *ELT Journal*, *51*(3), 224-231.

Cook, G. (2000). *Language play, language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Crystal, D. (1996). Language play and linguistic intervention. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, *12*(3), 328-344.

López, F. J. A. (2002). Mental imagery: A tool to promote creativity in the FL classroom. *Elia: Estudios de lingüística inglesa aplicada*, (3), 187-202.

Starko, A. J. (2014), *Creativity in the classroom*, Routledge

Szerencsi, K. (2010). The need for linguistic creativity in foreign language classroom discourse. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae Philologica*, *2*(2), 286-298.

Implementing Readers Theater in a Young Learners Classroom

Krystle Harkness

Teaching Reading

Introduction

English has been implemented as a mandatory foreign or second language subject for elementary school students in many different countries throughout the world. South Korea is no exception to this trend, and beginning in 1997 English became a mandatory subject for elementary school students starting from the third grade of elementary school. Additionally, the seventh national curriculum encourages teachers to try to increase students' intrinsic motivation by having them participate actively in a learner and activity centered language classroom (Back, 2013). In large mixed level classes, however, creating an active learner-centered environment can be challenging, thus a combination of cooperative learning and group work is normally recommended (Tsou, 2011). Readers Theater (RT) is an example of co-operative work that can be done within the language classroom that promotes active participation, collaboration with other students and reading instruction all at the same time (Tsou, 2011).

RT is a project where students engage in assisted and repeated readings of a written script, followed by a performance (Young & Rasinski, 2009). Both assisted reading and repeated reading are well researched and supported methods of increasing reading fluency, which is especially important for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners (Tsou, 2011 &Young & Rasinski, 2009). Assisted reading is a procedure where the learner reads the text while listening to a fluent execution of the same text, whereas repeated reading is a process where learners read the same text over several times until they are able to read it fluently. Reading fluency involves reading rapidly, accurately, automatically and with prosody in such a way that it sounds like regular speech (Young & Rasinski, 2009). Fluency is important because it plays an important role in reading comprehension (Grabe, 2010). This is echoed in the Laberge-Sameuls model of automatic information processing which postulates that reading fluency is a good indicator of one's general reading proficiency (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). This is because, according to this theory, reading requires the use of several different skills and each requires quite a lot of cognitive attention. Paying close attention to each skill, however, would overload the cognitive abilities of an individual and thus there is a need for several of these skills to become automatized in order to free up the cognitive resources for reading comprehension. Fluent readers are able to automatize several aspects of reading, such as decoding, allowing them to pay attention to comprehending what they are reading instead of focusing on decoding it. Since RT combines assisted and repeated reading it has a strong potential for increasing students reading fluency, but since it also includes a performance aspect is also

provides motivation and a context for reading the same text repeatedly (Moran, 2006).

This paper reports on a short research project involving the implementation of RT in a young learner EFL class. The following sections will describe the intervention, results and implications of this study which investigated the two following research questions:

1. How does Readers Theater affect young learners reading fluency?
2. How does Readers Theater affect young learners participation in EFL reading classes?

Relevant Literature

There are two studies which are highly relevant to using RT in young learners EFL classes in order to strengthen reading fluency. First, Tsou (2011) investigated the effects of RT instruction on the reading proficiency of a group of fifth grade students in southern Taiwan. Similar to Korean elementary schools, these students were in large mixed level classes of approximately thirty students. In this study, one class served as a control group and one class served as the experimental group, who participated in the RT intervention. For the experimental group, RT scripts were created based on six stories from the actual student's textbook. The scripts contained the same key words and phrases as the original stories and were also written to include built in repetition. The RT scripts had a word count of about 1.5 times that of the original stories due to the repetition included.

The experimental readers theater program was based on three previous studies and a pilot study (Keehn, 2003; Prescott, 2003; & Walker, 2005; in Tsou, 2011). The RT teaching method contained several steps. First, the teacher engaged the students in assisted reading by modeling the text expressively. Next, the students broke into small groups and read the lines aloud expressively while the teacher monitored and provided feedback. After this step, students negotiated the meaning of the text amongst themselves and then chose their own individual roles for the performance. Finally, the students rehearsed their presentation and then performed in front of an audience.

Similar to Tsou (2011), Jeon and Lee (2013) also studied the effects of using RT in a large mixed level elementary school EFL classroom. In their study, Jeon and Lee (2013) implemented RT in a class of sixth grade students in South Korea. This study contained only one experimental group and no control groups. Like Tsou (2011) the researchers in this study also created their own scripts as opposed to using readily available scripts. This was done in order to control for length, vocabulary, and grammar. The scripts were created according to students' interest areas and also included vocabulary, phrases and grammar from their textbooks.

The RT procedure employed in this research was adopted from Lee (2011, in Jeon & Lee, 2013) and included three main steps, pre-, while-, and post- reading. The pre-reading steps were comprised of prediction and vocabulary study in a whole class structured teaching environment. The while-reading step involved assisted reading, repetition after the teacher's dramatic reading, checking the main idea and group choral reading, also in a whole

class grouping. The post-reading step included assigning roles, rehearsing the script and putting on a performance in small groups.

The procedure carried out by Jeon and Lee (2013) differed from Tsou (2011) in several key ways. First of all Jeon and Lee (2013) employed direct vocabulary instruction by the teacher prior to the initial reading of the script. Jeon and Lee (2013) did this in order to introduce new vocabulary to the students. Additionally, Jeon and Lee (2013) included a reading comprehension aspect as part of the lesson which took the form of checking the main idea. This was carried out by the teacher in a whole class setting. Tsou (2011) addressed vocabulary and reading comprehension in a different way. In that study, students were encouraged to negotiate meaning amongst themselves instead of learning directly from the teacher. Thus, they did not include a teacher centered vocabulary introduction or comprehension check in their procedure. Finally, students were encouraged to make predictions in Jeon and Lee's (2013) procedure, which was not included in Tsou (2011).

Measuring progress

This intervention was carried out by adapting and integrating the procedures from both Jeon and Lee (2013) and Tsou (2011). Similar to Jeon and Lee (2013) this study included one experimental group and no control groups. The intervention was carried out in an after school reading class at an English literacy center in Seoul, South Korea. The class contained 12 elementary school aged students, including four boys and eight girls. Students ranged from grade 2 to grade 4. See Table 1 for a further breakdown of participants. The class met once per week for ninety minutes and the study was carried out over four weeks. Scripts (Appendix A) were written based on stories from the course reader, *Henry and Mudge and the Best Day of All* (Rylant, 1997) in the same manner as was employed by Tsou (2011). The class procedure was carried out four times over the course of four weeks and involved three stages including whole class grouping, small grouping and a presentation. This procedure is summarized in Figure 1.

Participants Grade Level	Number of Boys	Number of Girls
Two	1	1
Three	2	7
Four	1	0

Table 1 Summary of participants

Whole Class	Group Work	Presentation
• 1. Students make predictions according to the script title • 2. Teacher will model expressive and fluent reading	• 3. Students read all of the lines aloud and decide the appropriate expressions • 4. Teacher observes and provides feedback • 5. Students negotiate meaning and choose their roles	• 6. Students rehearse for their presentation • 7. Groups perform their presentation for the class

Figure 1: Teaching method.

RT supports learning in several different ways. This can include increasing reading fluency, reading comprehension, motivation, increased participation, reduced anxiety, writing skills, and confidence (Jeon & Lee, 2013). The study by Tsou (2011) defined learning as increased reading fluency, writing fluency and motivation, while Jeon and Lee (2013) defined learning as increased reading fluency and comprehension as well as reduced anxiety, participation and confidence. The current study investigated two research questions including looking at changes in reading fluency and participation in class. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, learning will be defined as increased reading fluency and increased class participation.

The previously reviewed studies by Tsou (2011) and Jeon and Lee (2013) both collected data through quantitative and qualitative means. Both studies employed pre- and post-tests in an effort to measure changes in students reading proficiency. These tests measured the accuracy, fluency and comprehension of students reading. Tsou (2011) used the AlphaAssess kit for reading testing (Hill & Feely, 2004, in Tsou, 2011). In the AlphaAssess assessment there are three sections, accuracy, fluency and comprehension, each amounts to 100 points. In order to assess accuracy, the student reads a 100 word passage and a point is deducted for each inaccurately read word. In the fluency section the 100 points are based on appropriate phrasing, expressiveness, punctuation use, smoothness and appropriateness of reading rate. Comprehension is assessed through five comprehension questions scored out of 100. The pre- and post-test data were analysed through mixed design ANOVAs to look for statistical significance. Furthermore, 2x2 mixed design ANOVAs were calculated to look at the different effects in the experimental and control groups. Jeon and Lee (2013) employed t-tests to look at the significance of the effects of the RT treatment.

In this study, the quantitative methods from both of these studies were adapted to assess any changes in reading fluency. Jeon and

Lee (2013) defined fluency as the accuracy, automaticity and metricality of reading. For the purpose of this study, fluency was defined according to Young & Rasinski (2009) such that reading fluency is a measure of reading rapidly, accurately, automatically and with prosody in such a way that it sounds like regular speech. In order to measure changes in fluency, pre- and post-tests were carried out according to the method used in Tsou (2011). Reading passages for the pre and post-tests came from leveled readers from the same level and series as the course reader as described in Table 2, the scripts can be seen in Appendix B. However, this study did not look at comprehension, so this part was excluded from the pre- and post- tests. Since the definition of fluency includes accuracy, this section was included in the pre- and post- tests. Thus, the pre- and post-tests only assessed fluency based on (a) automaticity and expressiveness – which included appropriate phrasing, expressiveness, punctuation use, smoothness and appropriateness of reading rate, (b) accuracy, in the same manner as Tsou (2011). Similar to Jeon and Lee (2013) pre- and post-test scores were analysed for statistically significant changes through the use of paired t-tests.

Pre-test	Book title: Henry and Mudge and the Tall Tree House Author (Year): Cythia Rylant (2003) Pages: 5-10
Post-test	Book title: Henry and Mudge and the Starry Night Author (Year): Cythia Rylant (1999) Pages:5-11

Table 2 Pre and Post reading fluency assessments scripts.

Both Tsou (2011) and Jeon and Lee (2013) collected data in order to investigate students affective domains in their studies. Jeon and Lee (2013) used pre- and post-study questionnaires and interviews to do this. The questionnaires assessed student interest, anxiety, confidence and participation. Results of these surveys were coded and analyzed for statistically significant changes using paired t-tests. Tsou (2011) collected qualitative data about the affective domains through open ended interviews with students in small groups in order to assess the learning motivation of the students.

This study looked for information about only one affective domain, namely, student participation. Jeon and Lee (2013) defined participation as student commitment towards the entire class. For the purpose of this study, participation was defined as the students' contribution to group and class activities. This was assessed through the use of pre- and post-intervention questionnaires adapted from Jeon and Lee (2013) (Appendix C). Questions focused on assessing students perceived participation in their English classes. Surveys were then coded and evaluated using paired t-tests as in Jeon and Lee (2013). Due to time and scheduling constraints in the current study, student interviews were not conducted.

Results
Research question 1

To examine the effects of RT on fluency pre and post-test assessments were analysed for statistical significance using paired t-tests. Automaticity/expression and accuracy pre and post tests were compared separately and the maximum possible score for each was 100. Figure 2 shows the results of the students' pre and post-tests in the measures

of automaticity and expression. Figure 3 shows the results of the students' pre and post-tests as measured for accuracy. The results of the statistical analysis of both automaticity/expressiveness and accuracy are summarized in Table 3 below. The mean of the automaticity and expression pre-test was 67.917, while the post-test mean score was slightly higher at 70.250. Results of the paired t-test indicated a p value of 0.004 indicating statistically significant results. Thus, there was an increase in automaticity and expression after the RT intervention, showing that students read faster and with more expression than before the intervention. The accuracy pre-test mean score came to 76.750 and the mean of the accuracy post-test was 77.917. The paired t-test resulted in a p value of 0.1935 indicating that the two means are not statistically different. Therefore, there was not a significant change in the participants' accuracy as a result of the RT intervention.

	Test	Mean	S. D.	N	t	p
Automaticity & expressiveness	Pre	67.917	10.220	12	5.007	0.004
	Post	70.250	10.332			
Accuracy	Pre	76.750	8.915	12	1.385	.1935
	Post	77.917	8.816			

Table 3 Statistical analysis of fluency pre and post test data
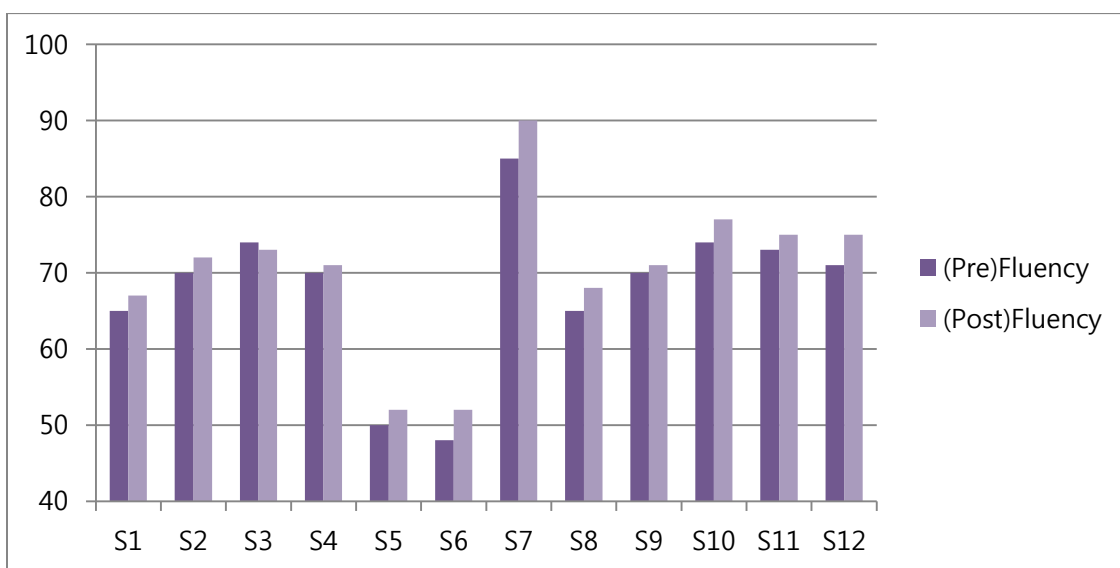
Figure 2 Comparison of pre and post test results of automaticity and expression
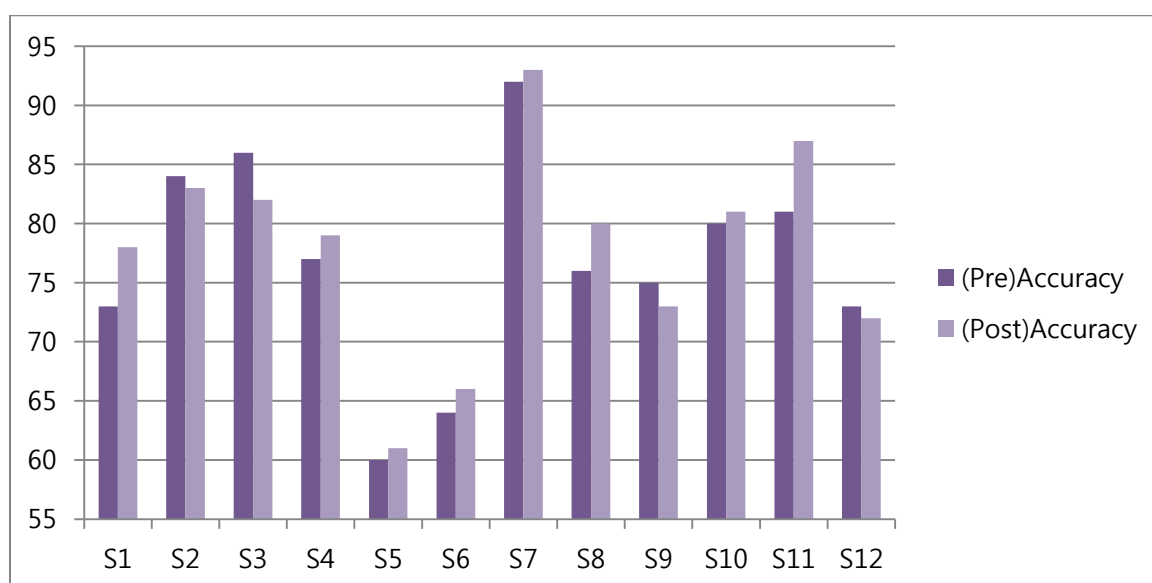
Figure 3 Comparison of pre and post test results of accuracy

Research question 2

To investigate the impact of RT on student participation, pre and post intervention questionnaires were administered to participants. Data was coded and analysed using paired t-tests for each of the five survey questions. Results of the paired t-tests are presented in Table 3 and Figure 4.

	Test	Mean	S. D.	N	t	p
Question 1	Pre	3.833	1.193	12	0.561	0.5863
	Post	3.917	1.311			
Question 2	Pre	4.250	1.215	12	1.483	0.1661
	Post	4.417	1.165			
Question 3	Pre	4.083	1.165	12	2.159	0.0538
	Post	4.500	1.168			
Question 4	Pre	4.250	1.215	12	1.000	0.3388
	Post	4.333	1.231			
Question 5	Pre	4.250	1.215	12	0.364	0.7227
	Post	4.333	0.778			

Table 2 Statistical analysis of fluency pre and post test data

This analysis did not show any statistically significant changes in the pre and post intervention participation of participants as indicated by the p values, which ranged from 0.0538 for question 3 (During English class I participate actively in classroom activities) to 0.7227 for question 5 (I try to use English expression that I learn in class). This data indicates that there was the greatest change in question 3 and the least

change in question 5.

Figure 4 Comparison of pre and post treatment participation survey

Discussion
Research question 1

Results of this study showed that through the RT intervention, participants were able to improve the automaticity and expressiveness aspects of their reading fluency. It is possible that students' expressiveness was improved as a result of the assisted reading that they partook in as part of this study. Assisted reading helps to improve expressivity or prosody of reading because it serves as a model for students of expressive reading (R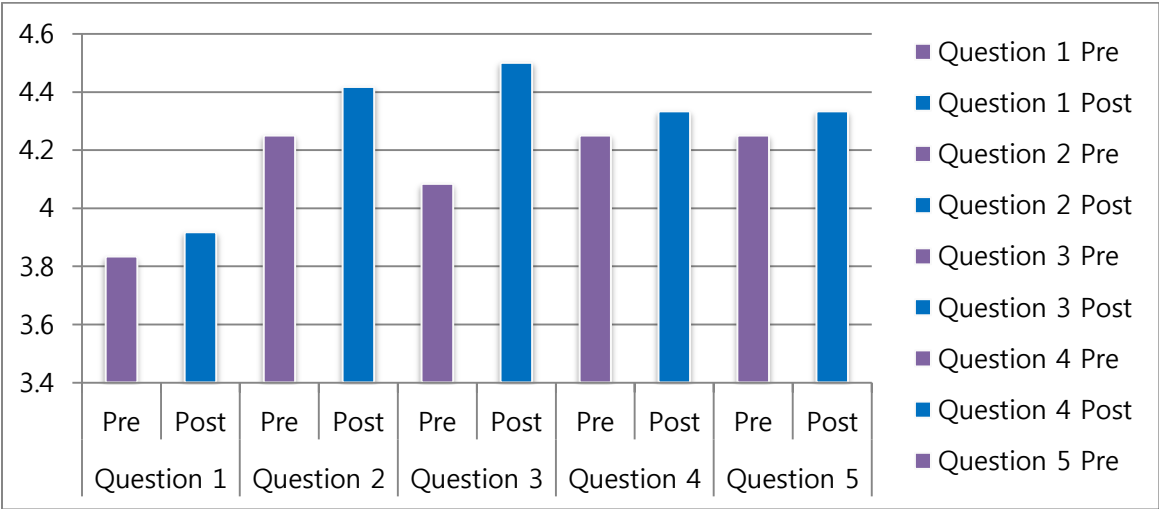asinski & Hoffman, 2003). Each RT session consisted of assisted reading as the text was modeled by the teacher. As far as the increased automaticity which participants displayed in the post-test results, this was expected as well based on the repeated readings that students engaged in during the RT sessions. Repeated reading has been shown to increase fluency, particularly automaticity, in studies involving EFL students (Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). The results for these particular aspects of fluency were similar to those of both Tsou (2011) and Jeon and Lee (2013). Both of these studies found substantial improvements in the expressiveness and accuracy of the participants in RT. The results found in the present study were not as great as either of these studies; however, the present study lasted for a period of 4 weeks while Tsou (2011) and Jeon and Lee's (2013) studies both took place over a whole semester.

The second aspect of fluency that was looked at was accuracy. The comparison of the pre and post test results found no significant change in participants' accuracy levels. This was unexpected because increased accuracy is commonly associated with both repeated reading and assisted readings (Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). Jeon and Lee (2013) found that their students showed impressive gains in accuracy after participating in RT, though they also reported high level students showed the least gains. They speculated that higher level students had less room to improve in this particular area. This was likely not a factor in the present study as the students were not high proficiency

40

readers in English. In her study Tsou (2011) found that students who participated in RT showed increased accuracy after participating in RT, but in this same study, the control group, who had no exposure to RT, showed negative gains in accuracy. Though the present study did not show losses in accuracy, it did not show significant increases either. It is likely that, as previously mentioned, the short time frame of the current study was likely a factor in the lack of significant results. Furthermore, the present study also had less participants (n=12) than Tsou (2011) (n=60) and Jeon and Lee (2013) (n=25).

Research question 2

The pre and post intervention surveys were administered in order to assess whether the readers theater intervention had any effect on the levels of participation amongst students. Five questions were asked to assess the participation levels. Statistical analysis revealed that there were not significant changes in students' participation before and after the intervention. However, for question 3 (During English class I actively participate in class activities) students responses were promising and the p value was the smallest (0.0538) of all the questions, showing that students were trending towards more active participation in class. Jeon and Lee (2013) looked at participants' participation in small groups of low proficiency (n=8), medium proficiency (n=9) and high proficiency (n=8) and also did not find any significant changes in student participation. However, when they looked at the class as a whole (n=25), they did find a statistically significant result. This may indicate that the small number of participants in the current study impacted this result. Tsou (2011) conducted open ended interviews with participants who responded positively

to RT and felt that they had participated actively in the class. Open ended interviews were not conducted in the present study due to time and scheduling constraints; however, it is likely that they could have provided richer data regarding student feelings about participation.

Implications for the future

The current study provided an interesting foray into RT in the EFL reading classroom. This was a stimulating and interactive activity that allowed for a lot of reading practice in the classroom. As a result, participants did show some increased aspects of reading fluency indicating that this could be a fruitful method of teaching reading, especially reading fluency in a young learners EFL classroom. If I were to recreate this study in the future, there are several important changes I would make. First, like Tsou (2011) I would include a control group that would allow for baseline comparisons to be made which would has the potential to give much richer data as to the changes in students reading fluency. Also, I would like to have more participants and conduct the study over a longer period of time. Having a greater number of students allows for greater generalizability and more accurate statistical analysis (Tsou, 2011). Additionally, one or two semesters of RT instruction, if possible, would allow for much more robust tracking of students' fluency development. Finally, I would include open ended interviews with students to capture their feelings about RT in greater detail. This will allow for much richer data about students' perceptions of their participation as well as investigating other affective domains, including anxiety, motivation and confidence at the same time (Tsou, 2011). However, I think that the teaching and lesson flow used in this study was very successful and I would keep that

the same. However, I would also like to extend the procedure to include writing aspects, as well. Several studies, including Jeon and Lee (2013) and Tsou (2011) found that RT could have positive effects on students writing abilities.

Conclusion

The present study attempted to investigate the effects that readers theater had on the reading fluency and participation of young EFL learners in an after school library program in South Korea. The RT intervention was implemented over the course of three weeks and data was collected in two primary ways. Pre- and post-intervention reading assessments were used to collect data about changes in participants reading fluency. In order to assess changes in participation, a pre- and post-intervention survey was administered.

The data collected in this study was analyzed statistically using paired t-tests. Results revealed that participants showed some improvement in their reading automaticity and expressiveness while reading aloud. However, there was no observed improvement in participants' reading accuracy. This study defined reading fluency as including three factors: reading with expression, automaticity and accuracy so that it sounds like normal speech. From this definition, this study found that RT affected two out of three aspects of reading fluency positively. Next, in this study participation was investigated and for this purpose was defined as a student's contribution to class and group activities. The survey attempted to elucidate the students' perceptions of their own contributions through the pre- and post-intervention survey. Analysis of survey results did not show any significant change in student

participation from beginning to end of this short study.

In conclusion, this study attempted to address the use of RT in a young learners EFL context and showed some positive results. However, the short time frame and limited number of participants did not provide a rich source of data. In the future I hope to investigate the effects of using RT in a long term study. Additionally, as students seemed to enjoy participating in this activity in class time I think that it would be useful to investigate the effect of RT on other affective domains such as anxiety, motivation and confidence, as well as participation. Furthermore, there is also potential to take readers theater beyond reading fluency and look at its effects on writing as several studies have already done (Jeon & Lee, 2013, Kabilan & Kamaruddin, 2010, and Tsou 2011).

References

Back, J. (2013). A review of assessment in language learning: How can you assess L2 performance by young learners. *Studies in Modern Grammar, 75*, 215-235.

Grabe, W. (2010). Fluency in reading - thirty-five years later. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 22*(1), 71-83.

Jeon, M., & Lee, D. (2013). The effects of using creative readers' theater scripts on primary English education. *Primary English Education, 19*(3), 31-56.

Kabilan, M., & Kamaruddin, F. (2010). Engaging learners' comprehension, interest and motivation to learn literature using the reader's theater. *English Teaching: Pravtive and Critique, 9*(3), 132-159.

LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. (1974). Toward a theory of automatic

information processing in reading. *Cognitive Psychology, 6*, 293–323.

Moran, K. (2006). Nurturing emergent readers through readers theater. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 33*(5), 317-323.

Rasinski, T., & Hoffman, J. (2003). Theory and research into practice: Oral reading in the school literacy curriculum. *Reading Research Quarterly, 38*(4), 510-522.

Rylant, C. (1999). *Henry and Mudge and the starry night.* New York: Simon Spotlight.

Rylant, C. (2003). *Henry and Mudge and the tall treehouse.* New York: Simon Spotlight.

Rylant, S. (1997). *Henry and Mudge and the best day of all.* New York: Simon Spotlight.

Tsou, W. (2011). The application if readers theater to FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary Schools) reading and writing. *Foreign Language Annals, 44*(4), 727-748.

Young, C., & Rasinski, T. (2009). Implementing readers theatre as an approach to classroom fluency instruction. *The Reading Techer, 63*(1), 4-13.

Appendix A – Readers Theater Scripts

Henry and Mudge and the Best Day of All - (A Colorful Morning)

Henry   ** Father ** Narrator 1 ** Narrator 2

Narrator 1: On the first day of May Henry woke up early and said to his big dog Mudge

Henry: I'm having a birthday today!

Narrator 2: Mudge wagged his tail, rolled over, and snored.

Henry: Mudge!   Wake up!   I'm having a birthday today!

Narrator 1: Mudge wagged, rolled over and snored some more.

Henry: Mudge!   Birthday cake…

Narrator 2: Mudge opened one eye.

Henry: Ice cream…

Narrator 1: Mudge opened the other eye.

Henry: And lots of crackers!

Narrator 2: Mudge jumped up and he shook Henry's hand.

Narrator 1: Henry was having a birthday and Mudge would be having crackers.

Henry 2: The first day of May is looking pretty good!

Narrator 1: Balloons were all over Henry's house.

Henry: Dad likes balloons.

Narrator 1: Mudge licked a yellow balloon and wagged his tail.

Narrator 2: Henry's father came in with a camera.

Father: Pictures!

Henry: Oh no! Dad likes pictures too.

Narrator 1: Henry's father took lots of pictures.

Narrator 2: After the pictures, Henry's mother fixed Henry's favorite breakfast

Father: Let's eat some pancakes with strawberries!
All: Yum!

Henry and Mudge and the Best Day of All - (Crackers from the Sky)

Henry ** Father ** Mom ** Narrator 1 ** Narrator 2

Narrator 1: Henry had invited his friends for a party at three o'clock.
Narrator 2: But at first everyone was shy and they didn't know what to do. So Henry's mother said:
Mom: Everybody outside!
Father: We fixed lots of games!
Mom: There are ringtoss, go-fishing, and potato sack races!
Henry: And a piñata!
Narrator 1: Hanging from the tree was a big blue piñata shaped like a donkey.
Narrator 2: The winners at ringtoss got decoder rings.
All: Yeah!
Narrator 1: The winners at go-fishing got baby goldfish.
All: Cute!
Narrator 2: The winners at potato sack races got bags of potato chips.
All: Yum!
Father: It's piñata time!
All: Yeah!
Narrator 1: Henry's father tied a cloth over Henry's eyes.
Narrator 2: He put a stick in Henry's hand.
Father & Mother: Ready, Set, Go!
Narrator 1: Henry started to swing.   And everyone shouted:
All: ONE, TWO, THREE!   BANG!!
Narrator 2: On the fourth swing the piñata cracked open.
Henry: WOW! There is suckers, bubble gum, taffy …
All: and crackers!
Narrator 1: Everyone was happy and Mudge most of all.
Narrator 2: He never knew that crackers could come from the sky.

Henry and Mudge and the Best Day of All (Best Day)

Henry ** Father ** Narrator ** Kid

Father: It's time for cake and ice cream!
Narrator: Henry's father brought out a very wide birthday cake.
Henry: Wow! It looks like my fish tank!
Kid: Yes! It had water, colored rocks, and stripped and spotted fish.
All: Sniff, Sniff!
Henry: Mudge! It's a cake, but it's not for you!
Narrator: After the fish-tank cake was eaten up it was time to open presents. Ribbons and

paper went flying through the air.
Henry: I got an airplane model!
All: A robot!
Henry: A stuffed snow leopard!
All: A basketball!
Father: And dog treats?
Henry: Hey Mudge, this must be for you!
Narrator: When the party was over, everyone went home.
Kid: I'm so full of taffy, bubble gum, suckers and potato chips.
Henry: I'm full of cake and ice cream.
Father: I think Mudge is full of crackers!
Narrator: Henry and Henry's parents and Henry's dog Mudge sat in the back yard.
All: I'm so tired!
Narrator: They closed their eyes, listened to the birds and rested.
Narrator: And they all dreamed about birthday wishes on the best day of all.

Appendix B – Fluency assessment pre and post test scripts

Fluency Pre-test: Henry and Mudge and the Tall Tree House (p.5-10)

One day Uncle Jake came to visit Henry and Henry's big dog, Mudge,	13
and Henry's parents. Uncle Jake was very big. Henry's father called	24
him "burly."	26
"What does 'burly' mean?" Henry asked his father.	34
"Big, hairy, and plaid," said Henry's father.	41
That was Uncle Jake. Henry like Uncle Jake a lot. Mudge liked him	54
even more. Mudge like Uncle Jake because Uncle Jake wrestled.	64
Mudge and Uncle Jake would get on the floor and wrestle and	76
wrestle. Mudge always won. This time when Uncle Jake came to	87
visit, he had something special in his truck. He had boards.	98
"What are/ the boards for, Uncle Jake?" asked Henry.	100/107

Fluency Post-test: Henry and Mudge and the Starry Night(p.5-11)

In August Henry and Henry's big dog Mudge always went camping.	11
They went with Henry's parents. Henry's mother had been a	21
Camp Fire Girl, so she knew all about camping.	30
She knew how to set up a tent. She knew how to build a campfire.	45
She knew how to cook camp food. Henry's dad didn't know anything	57
about camping. He just came with a guitar and a smile.	68
Henry and Mudge loved camping. This year they were going to Big	80
Bear Lake, and Henry couldn't wait.	86
"We'll see deer, Mudge," Henry said.	92
Mudge wagged. "We'll see raccoons," said Henry.	99

Mudge / shook Henry's hand.	100/103

Appendix C – Pre and Post Intervention Survey

- Read the statement carefully and circle the choice you agree with

Contents	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
During English class I try hard to answer the teacher's questions.	5	4	3	2	1
During listening activities I try to listen intently.	5	4	3	2	1
During English class I participate actively in class activities.	5	4	3	2	1
Even though I make mistakes I try to speak English in class.	5	4	3	2	1
I try to use the English expressions that I learn in class.	5	4	3	2	1

Political Economy of Language Use in an International ESL Teacher Relationship in South Korea

Mark Rasmussen

History of English

1. Introduction

This study intends to examine the intersection of bilingualism, biculturalism and globalization in the private and public lives of international romantic relationships. It is something of a cliché to mention the ever-globalizing world when prefacing research which appears to be due in part to the technological and educational effects of globalism. However, in addition to the political and demographic interest this subject holds for many people, researchers and lay-persons alike, this particular crossroads of language use provides an elusive opportunity to examine language acts which are, by definition, private.

The Korean context of international marriage is an interesting setting due to historical governmental restrictions on the practice and the now open phenomena in the globalized. Little sociolinguistic research into the language use of these new couples has been completed as of yet (see Lim, 2010). This current study will begin first with laying the foundational theoretical work and tools used by previous researchers to examine language use in international couples. Then, using that framework as a guide, we will provide a methodology for examining a small case study of international couples in Korea.

2. Theoretical Background and Terms

2.1 Language ideology and the sociolinguistics of globalization

Hymes (1967) is credited with laying out the foundational work between theoretical linguistics and what has come to be sociolinguistics. For Hymes (1967), the study of language was more appropriately situated in the communicative practice of speakers and not in the traditional Saussurian concept of language itself as an object of study, divorced from the speakers. Since then, Susan Gal and Judith Irvine (1995) established the basic conceptual framework for most research in the interaction of gender, power and language use. For Gal and Irvine (1995), language ideology is based in the concepts of indexicality, iconicity, recursion and erasure.

While most work in the area of sociolinguistics has followed the ideas established by Gal and Irvine, Jan Bloomaert (2010) has suggested that a paradigm shift is needed in the theory of sociolinguistics that more accurately accounts for the phenomena of globalization and its effect on the sociology of language. Bloomaert's (2010) sociolinguistics establishes some key terms

that both relate and contrast with Gal and Irvine (1995), including indexicality of truncated mobile resources which exist in polycentric localities and are used on different scales of directed speech.

This review will briefly contrast both Gal and Irvine's (1995) language ideology and Bloomaert's (2010) sociolinguistics of globalization before reviewing the literature related to international couple's language use.

2.1.1 Indexicality and iconicity vs. indexicality and scales of reference

Indexicality refers to how certain linguistic features tend to be associated with, or point to, specific social groups of people. This can work at the level of the concept, such as "jeong" which indexes what many Koreans may purport to be an untranslatable emotion specific to the Korean language. Indexicality can also work at the very basic levels of phonology, such as how the inability of Korean-speakers of English to produce English tense and lax vowels indexes them as non inner-circle speakers.

For Gal and Irvine (1995), this indexicality of language use to social groups creates iconic forms of those speakers and forms. This iconicity is reinforced by language ideologies that link certain linguistic forms with certain groups and acts as though those two things are inherently established features. Early conceptions of this sort of language ideology are popularly known today as shibboleths and people often make both conscious and sub-conscious decisions about their speech and the speech of others based on these language signs of iconicity.

Bloomaert (2010) however, views indexicality in reference not only to groups, or language, but history as well. He describes the relationship of history to indexicality in terms of scales and suggests that the historical situatedness of a language act indexes more than the "horizontal" features (such as gender, age, race, socioeconomics) but also indexes vertically to the traditions, history and expectations of a place.

2.1.2 Recursiveness vs polycentricity

Recursiveness as a concept attempts to tease apart traditional forms of dichotomy in language ideology. Speakers and their language repertories are often categorized simply in terms such as "private" or "public", "formal" or "informal". Recursiveness suggests that each of these dichotomies can be imbedded within each other and that neither fully captures the communicative act without this embedding. Within an intimate relationship, conversation in a public space may be carved out and the speakers may create their own temporary private space within that public space. The "private" conversations in public restaurants, centered around private tables within a public building are examples of recursiveness. How speakers choose to establish the linguistic space around them suggests how they wish to present both their identities and the power they wish to show.

Bloomaert (2010) understands the idea of recursiveness in his term polycentricity. The "center" refers to an "evaluative authority" which can be any given person or collective. The "poly" of polycentricity suggests that at different levels, there are different centers, each with their own authority that has power over the communicative acts. At the highest, global level, we might have English and its central authority being the standard dialects of the

United States or England. However, within the "center" there are multiple centers. And if there is a center, there is a periphery, or groups that is subject to the authority and power of the center. This recursive structure of power takes us beyond just the ideas of "private" and "public", and allows us to see the authorities that may govern a speech act at a low periphery from a very detached global center.

2.1.3 Erasure and orders of indexicality

Finally, Gal and Irvine's (1995) erasure refers to the silencing or ignoring of specific linguistic features, acts, or entire linguistic systems. At the individual level, erasure may refer to the explicit repression of specific linguistic features, such as a Korean English-Learner's effort to naturalize their r-sounds, or a switch from a local dialect to a more prestigious one when a worker comes to Seoul. Importantly, erasure can be both a willful or forced act, depending on the context.

Bloomaert (2010) recognizes the importance of erasure, but utilizes it in reference to the local situation of a given linguistic act. For any given act of communication, the indexicals of the language, and their erasure, are ordered. At certain levels of discourse, in certain places such as the local center, some forms may be more acceptable than others, whereas the exact opposite may be true in the periphery. It is not just the socially weak who exclude certain types of communication. Within their own localities, communities of speakers may limit what is acceptable speech and the speech of a higher register or standard may not be as welcome.

2.2 Political economy of language and identity in intermarriage language use research

Though researchers have been examining international relationships for some time now, Bloomaert's sociolinguistics of Globalization paradigm is, as of yet, not common in this area of research. Gal and Irvine's (1995) language ideology has set the stage for most sociolinguistic research into international marriages such as Gal's (1978) own work on Hungarian-German intermarriages and language shift, as well as sparking greater interest in the language use of international couples' language use. This study intends to use the current research from Gal and Irvine's (1995) perspective and interpret it together with this current study using Bloomaert's (2010) sociolinguistics.

2.2.1 Political power and language choice

Walter's (1996) study of English-speaking wives in Tunisia asked what "value" the varieties of language repertories (e.g. English, French, Standard Arabic or Tunisian Arabic) these wives had in with their partner, extended family or in public. Then, how these repertoires and the language attitudes that accompanied them, index broader social systems of power and how the unequal distribution of that power affected language use. He found that among the wives in his study, the majority felt that their ability in various linguistic codes constituted real power that they used to manipulate and navigate relationships. Additionally, the choice of using French as opposed to any variety of Arabic was a demonstrative and often explicit act of agency.

Similar to Walter's (1996) study, Ingrid Piller (2008) found that acts of identity-formation and unequal power relationships were often navigated through the use of

different language repertoires. In contrast with the Tunisian or Hungarian wives, the participants of Piller's (2008) research were from western English-speaking countries and Germany. Most studies in this area find that bilingual couples tend to use the language of the community they live in, but Piller (2008) found that not necessarily to be the case for her participants. Often the participant couples would continue to use the language or the variety of language that they used when they first met or were courting. Bartzen's (2013) dissertational work found that many bilingual couples express linguistic intimacy primarily in one language, as one participant markedly said, "[my partner] fell in love with me in English" (p. 37).

2.2.2 Agency and language use Important for Piller (2008), and indeed much of the sociolinguistic exogamy research in modern, globalized societies, a native English speaker living in their partner's home culture and language tends to enjoy greater-than-average prestige than the bilingual Hungarian women of Gal's (1978) study, who after marrying a Germany speaker, tended to not use Hungarian at all in their homes. The presence of English in a globalized setting provides the native speaker of English extra political power in the home and also often in the broader society. Some participants in Piller's (2008) research suggested that even though both partners spoke German well-enough, they would never use it together. A parallel example of this also occurred with some of Walter's (1996) participants.

Jackson (2008) however found that in her case study of an American business man living with his Japanese wife and family in Japan, the positive view of English from his wife and in general Japanese society, was perceived by the husband as associating him negatively with the English-Teaching industry. As such, the husband went to great lengths to not use English even in the home. The husband's identity as "anything but an English teacher" (p. 348) and also as a Japanese speaker were important acts of power and positioning both in his home towards his family and to the imagined listening "other" of Japanese society (Bloomaert, 2010).

In contrast to the linguistic situation of an American male migrating to Japan with his Japanese wife, Piller and Takahasi (2010) examined the experience of Filipina migrant workers in Japan. In response to the increased presence of women in traditional spaces of male labor, but the unequal response in the expectations of traditionally female reproductive work (i.e. housework or childcare), female migrant workers have found abundant work opportunities. The power relationships of the socially-inferior Filipina migrant worker and their socially-prestigious, and often rich host family, is contrasted in language by the Filipina's more complete English repertoire compared to their Japanese employers. Piller and Takahsi (2010) point out that the Filipina migrant workers tend to be well-educated and often feel humiliated by the work they are expected to do, but find a source of power and identity through their use of English and in many cases the non-expectation, or their refusal, to learn Japanese.

2.2.3 Economy of language and South Korea and research questions In the Korean context, no specific research of the sociolinguistic language use in intermarriages has been conducted as of yet, though it has been documented to a certain degree by

demographic, sociological and anthropological researchers (Lim, 2010). Particularly important for the Korean context is the recent explosion of international marriages. Due to the long history of sexual exploitation of Korean women, the social attitudes towards these intermarriages ranged from explicit discrimination to ambivalence. Lim (2010) notes importantly that the children of these relationships were seen particularly as "non-Korean" and they probably belong more appropriately in the foreigner male's country (p. 64).

Since the 1990s however, migrant marriages from Southeast Asia with rural Korean men has increased dramatically to as high as 11% of all marriages in South Korea in some recent years. Little is said about the linguistic context of these marriages, but given the demographic context, it is unlikely the language-at-home is anything other than Korean. With the migrant wives expected to fully adapt and adopt the Korean language and culture (Lim, 2010).

Little has been said, however, of the relationships related to the English mania in South Korea. To address this gap, this study attempt to add to the comparative literature by examining the language use of an international couple in South Korea. The research questions for this particular study are:

1) How does code-switching change between private and public use in an international couple in South Korea

2) How do the partners in this international relationship use language to address the unequal power distribution between Korean and English by acts of agency?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

Following the insights gained from Piller's (2008) experience in collecting data from German-international relationships, there is a strong possibility that even participants, who have accepted the challenge of answering questionnaire and conversation questions (Appendix A and B), will find themselves unable to do so. This study, in attempting to find couples who could participate, encountered such a situation. While several couples agreed initially to do the survey and participate in the conversation analysis, for several reasons they were unable to complete either of the tasks, or only partially completed them.

The participant couple in this narrative research therefore is the researcher himself and his partner who will be called Kim for the purposes of this study. The researcher is a 28 year old Caucasian male from the United States and the partner is a 26 year old Korean female who grew up in the Gwangju area during her elementary school years before moving to Seoul to attend high school. The researcher is a Native English Teacher at a private elementary school in Seoul and has been teaching for nearly three years in South Korea. Kim works for a large pharmaceutical corporation in Seoul as a marketer and has done that for one year and a half.

This case study thus presents a fairly rare situation in the history of linguistic exogamy research, where the focus in western situations has been on the migrant woman (Gal, 1978; Walters 1996; Piller 2008; Piller & Takahashi, 2011) and in the case of some South American cultures, has been based on culturally codified principles of linguistic exogamy in which marriages

required to be made between cultural groups, and where cultural identification is done through language code (Campbell & Grondona, 2010). The present case study, however, will focus primarily on the male-as-migrant international couple situation.

3.2 Data triangulation and tools

Following the standards set forth by Nunan and Bailey (2009), the current research will use several types of data, from divergent sources and making use of multiple theories for grounding and understanding the data provided by the participants. The methods for data collection will include a private, English-Korean bilingual questionnaire (Appendix A) to establish demographic, language history and current language use and attitudes of each participant. Following Piller's (2001) methodology, participant couples will also be given a short set of open-ended questions to answer together (Appendix B).

Finally, the primary data that was examined for code-switching was two 15-minute conversations, one in a public setting (going to and eating in a popular district of Seoul) and the other a private conversation in the researcher's home. The conversations were coded, highlighting important themes using the table in Appendix C.

3.2.1 Questionnaire The questionnaire for this study comes from a web-based language history questionnaire by Li, Ping, Sepanski, and Ziaowei (2006). The primary purpose of the questionnaire was initially to gauge bilinguals and their history. It has been modified to fit the aims of this study.

The questionnaire has a few main purposes. First, it will identify demographic information related to age, gender, nationality and importantly previous language use and cultural contact. It then asks several questions related to language ability, and asks the participant to estimate their language use between English and Korean for several situations. This information, in addition to the discussion questions may elicit interesting information related to the different contexts that the participants use language, particularly with their partner. Finally, a few questions related to attitudes towards language and the sociolinguistic situation of English in South Korea may provide additional insight into the agency and identity of the participants' language use.

3.2.2 Discussion starter questions The discussion starter questions will address areas of language use between the couple in private/public, language and culture and both the couples' attitudes towards bilingualism and biculturalism; as well as their perception and experience of outsiders' views of those topics. This particular type of analysis has several benefits as well as limitations that make it particularly useful for the current study. First, although the presence of discussion starters itself limits both the range and type of language likely to be elicited by the participants, gaining access to each couple individually and recording their daily actions would be far more intrusive, less likely to be completed and present a much greater challenge to the researcher in terms of data manipulation. The discussion starters on the other hand, present the participants with a clear objective for their communicative task while also getting rid of the physical presence of the researcher. The discussion starters also provide a type of experimental data, in that each participant couple is responding to the same questions (Piller,

2001).

3.2.3 Conversation analysis coding

The recorded data will be coded by distinguishing between different motivations for code switching along with who is doing what switching in which situations (See appendix C). For the purposes of this study, cases of code-mixing will be based on the primary language being used in the previous utterance. In addition to code-switching, four basic areas for code-switching are predicted to be common. They are: 1) to express intimacy, 2) to provide general information, 3) to create distance and 4) to provide language assistance. In addition to the participant data, free-recorded conversations from my partner and I in both public and private settings will provide an additional set of data for which to further develop the responses to the other data. This data itself will be used to gauge the perceptual accuracy of the researcher couple's views of their language use versus praxis.

4. Results

4.1 History and the truncated repertoires of international couples

Before moving forward with the analysis of private vs public talk between the couple, it is important that we establish the history of the individuals in the relationship and what their experience with English and other languages may reveal about how we communicate in either setting (Bloomaert, 2010).

4.1.1 The researcher

As an American, I was born in the global center, but in peripheral locality of that center. The view of Utah within the United States is often one of weirdness due to its Mormon history and long-standing isolation in its foundation. Within that peripheral, I am from a rural town about two hours from Utah's center, Salt Lake City. The local dialect of my home area is highly stigmatized with Utah and displays features such as "were/was" merging. My family comes from a fairly long line of educators and entrepreneurs, such that my personal dialect lacks these locality indexing features and approximates more closely the local center, or Salt Lake dialect. Within Utah, the Utah dialect is also routinely denigrated as "Utah talk", indexing discomfort from the speakers of the peripheral center with their peripheralness to the nation.

In high school I studied Spanish for one semester before giving up. It wasn't until I moved to Brazil at the age of 19 that I began learning languages again. The experience was one of utility: intense language learning with only the necessary cultural learning. I was able to talk with comfortably with individuals on the street or in their homes and this gave me a very false sense of language learning accomplishment. But in reality my Portuguese is highly truncated, with a much higher level of ability in casual personal communication in very specific genres.

At 21 I moved back to Salt Lake City to attend university and study Theoretical Linguistics. After completing a bachelors, I immediately got a job in South Korea, Gyeonggi-do, Yeoncheon-gun, a very rural farming town. My attempts at learning Korean were frustrating compared to Portuguese. I studied Korean mostly via self-study textbooks and formal language-exchange partners. It was through such an exchange with a mutual friend that my partner and I were introduced, in a

university study-room style building in Seoul.

4.1.2 Kim's repertoire Kim, as a Korean, was born in a global periphery, especially during her childhood in the 1980s and early 90s when South Korea really began to build its economic structure and stabilize its democratic politics. Additionally, Kim was born as a lower-middle class second child in the local periphery of South Korea, Gwangju. Due to her parent's divorce, Kim was able to leave the Gwangju periphery and move to the Seoul center at a young age to go to high school, and live with her friend's family while she attended school.

This mobility is not common for most Koreans born in the local peripheries and led to Kim self-identifying more as a Seoul Korean than a Gwangju Korean, though she personally doesn't see much meaning in that. Kim's English education was, however, fairly typical of most Koreans in her socio-economic range. She began learning English in the 3rd grade and did not attend after-school English programs until she began preparing for university. She had native English teachers, primarily from Canada, all throughout her primary education. Her memory of English education was one of repetitious memory drills and vocabulary learning; typical of the TELF-focused English education still seen today.

Before university, she didn't place much interest in English, as her primary interest was interior design, when she entered university she decided to study international business. At this point, her interest in English was much more real, but still primarily academic. Kim studied English in small study groups, private

hogwons like *Wall Street English* and did a short 3 month sojourn two years ago to Baguio City in the Philippines to an English language school.

Kim, like most Koreans her age, had been studying English for at least 13 years by that point in her life, though primarily as an academic subject and not as a tool for communication. We met during her process of job-hunting because job interviews often ask interviewees to speak in English in a casual, but formal, style for 2 or 3 minutes and she was interested in improving her ability to function in that capacity.

4.2 Code-switching in public and private conversation

4.2.1 The Super-addressee Much of the previous research has found that many international couples use one language either entirely or for specific genres or registers, such as affection, or in the home (Bartzen, 2013). The conversational analysis of my partner and I however initially showed that one feature that changed between private and public conversation was the amount of code-switching. In private, I particularly can spend long stretches of conversation in English, often behaving in a way more similar to Campell's (2010) observation of exogamic Argentinians, Kim jumping between English and Korean and me staying entirely in English.

Mark: So like go fish.. kind of thing

Kim: "Go fish" 뭐야?

Mark: card game… anyway, you- you ask, you hold up your card and you hold up your color .. and then you make the animal sound.

Kim: ah, only I can see?

Mark: Yeah- well.. this is how you

communicate.

Kim: 자기 어떻개 했어?

My refusal to switch into Korean strikes me as odd at first, especially when considering that in public, when one of us switched languages, we were both equally as likely to also switch our response to match the language of the other person (me = 53% of the time, Kim = 47%). In private however, this changes drastically, and I only switched to match Kim's language, either English or Korean, 38% of the time.

It seems likely to me that Bloomaert's (2010) "super-addressee" may answer part of the reason we are more likely to match each other's language use in public, but not in private. Like the husband in Jackson's (2008) study, I struggle with the English teacher stereotypes that exist in South Korea and it seems to me that I make efforts to distance myself from these stereotypes. When walking in a crowded district in Seoul, while talking with Kim, there is another "addressee" towards which we are both communicating, the collective stereotype of American men and Korean women couples. By code-switching in and out of English and Korean, and in particular by matching the language use of the other, we demonstrate intimacy not only to each other, but also that we break stereotypes and English isn't the only language we use together.

4.2.2 Function word code-switching How we each code-switch, however is slightly different from each other. Overall, Kim code-switches much more often than I do, due to code-switching between function words and anaphor. That she was switching specifically function words was not something she was aware of, though in discussing this with her, she says

she does it to help comprehension. For example:

Kim: 자기 자기
Mark: The sticker?
Kim: the sticker. 그.. 나… 나.. 다른 co-worker
Mark: uh-huh
Kim: 근데 약간 awkward. 그 사람 GEP lead. So I asked her where she got [the sticker]. suddenly she gave it to me…
Mark: 아 진짜?

It is interesting to note that function word code-switching is asymmetrical across languages. When either I or Kim perform this type of language use, it is always Korean function words, mixed with English nouns and adjectives with a final English or Korean verb. This formula is almost absolute in the small data sample examined here. For Kim, it is not probably the case that her repertoire is limited in such a way that she needs to use Korean function words. She displays ability to use several such English function words in the above example. Additionally, this mixing is done both in private and public. It appears to me that the mixing of languages indexes certain intimacies between us regarding our identities as both English and Korean speakers.

The asymmetry of usage then, becomes an interesting phenomenon of order. Why the primary content words are English and the function words Korean suggests a sort of asymmetrical relationship between the languages themselves in our usage. It's possible that because our combined repertoires favor English over Korean, that English has an even more privileged

position in our relationship.

A final word on repertoire from the example given, my final reply is typical of my code-switching throughout: formulaic. To my mind, this indexes the highly text-book oriented way I began learning Korean through phrasal memorization and my very truncated repertoire, even though I knew that was a sub-optimal strategy. Throughout conversations, in both public and private recordings, opportunities to use simple phrases like "really" in Korean are almost always done in Korean.

4.2.3 Private conversation and locality

Kim's function word code-switching is basically regular whether in private or public settings and much of my code-switching, such as topic-switching or function word use, is also regular. There were two areas however, where the amount that either of us was likely to code-switch changed very much: expressing intimacy and switching languages with the other person.

In public, Kim expresses intimacy regularly in a playful way familiar to most Koreans, known as aeigyo. When discussing how often she expresses intimacy, she described herself as a "flatterer" though she rejected the idea that she was flattering me. Instead she draws a distinction between the use of flattery with her boss and using similar genres with me based on the idea of intentionality. It is interesting then, that the rate of intimate language is much higher in public, suggesting again perhaps the super-addressee.

It seems to me that Bloomaert's (2010) idea of polycentricity and orders of indexicality are perhaps helpful in this situation. Although I am from the global center, the United States, my history of peripheral living and my status as an English teacher in Korea keeps me aware of my relationship with the local center, Seoul. When in public, I am much more aware of what intimate language may perhaps index to others around us and that meta-awareness may perhaps censure what I am comfortable saying, so as to not propagate the "ugly foreigner".

In private, and in particular in my own home, there is a recursive center now, where the authority listening into our conversation is now much more limited. I would argue there is still a super-addressee, such as the people Kim is likely to talk with about me, such as her mother and close friends, however the censuring authority of the local center and my position relative to it is not present in my home, freeing me to some degree to express more intimacy. For Kim then, if her expressions of aeigyo are at least partially addressed to the super-addressee, it would make sense for it to be limited in the home, where other forms of intimacy are then expressed.

Kim: 자기 안녕!
Mark: mmm. You smell good.
Kim: I smell?
Mark: mhmm.
Kim: 야 don't smell me!

The lack of code-switching to the partner's language however, represents an interesting act of agency and perhaps identity. Like in Piller (2008), the use of a language in public and one in private can give the spouse outside of their home culture some level of power and expertise when their language is privileged in the

home. It would be a mistake I think to compare my lack of switching to the language my partner uses to the multiplicity of language use observed in Campbell's (2010) study of Argentinian exogamy.

The first reason being that I acknowledge and often do switch freely into Korean with my partner, which is not the case for Native Argentinian exogamy. Secondly, I also recognize that I *can* speak Korean to some degree. South American exogamy represents several interesting code-switching phenomena that seem to also occur in other exogamous relationships, however, it does not seem like the same principles of language economy are being displayed in each.

4.2.4 Conversational burdens

A final thought however, relates to what Piller (2008) has described as the "conversational housework" in the relationships she examined. While it's not clear this is a product of international relationships, code-switching couples generally have one dominant partner who is in control of the code-switching. In my relationship, this person is Kim. And in Piller's (2008) study, she found it was also the female generally tasked with conversational upkeep. In every code-switching category, except "not switching to match partner's language use", Kim has a much higher count, revealing that she also does most of the talking in our relationship.

Whether or not this is a function of personality, or implicit gender roles that have been learned from both of our youths, is not entirely clear. However the pattern found in previous work of conversational workload, also appeared in the conversational analysis here.

5. Conclusion

5.1 Comparison to Previous Research

Comparing to past research, it appears that this relationship patterns fairly similarly with others already examined, particularly to Jackson's (2008) Japanese-American family. Bloomaert's (2010) globalized sociolinguistics helps shed even more light on why the private and the public show the differences they do in ways that previous language ideology research has not fully explored. Particularly useful explanatory ideas found in this study were the polycentric localities, which determined the frequency and types of code-switching observed in public and private. And the orders of indexicality, with their super-addressee, helps us understand individual differences and preferences such as my own and Jackson's (2008) husband's distaste for certain stereotypes that neither he nor I actually face in day-to-day communication.

5.2 Future research

A Bloomaertian approach to the sociolinguistics of international relationships is, as far as I am aware, an undeveloped area. While Bloomaert's (2010) ideas are built around the world that globalization has created, it would be interesting, and perhaps necessary to unify the sociolinguistics of exogamic and international relationships. At the present moment, it appears that the phenomena found in each case, of traditional societies and modernized centers of the globalized world, that each are quite different from each other.

However, this study has found that similar effects appear to occur even in modern globalized international relationships. Additionally, understanding the repertories

of mobile resources in terms of voice between these two types of relationships would present interesting comparisons.

Finally, this work has examined, as far as I am aware, the only account of a TESOL educator's experience of language use in international relationships. Considering that it is becoming more widely known as the commodification of English continues to grow, the communities of practice that will grow will represent opportunities to examine what appears to be possibly the quintessential globalized relationship between global centers and peripheries.

6. References

Bartzen, E. (2013). *"He fell in love with me in English": Language negotiation in the bilingual couple* (Ph.D). University of Cape Town.

Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Campbell, L., & Grondona, V. (2010). Who speaks what to whom? Multilingualism and language choice in Misión La Paz. *Lang. Soc.*, *39*(5), 617-646.

Gal, S. (1978). Peasant men can't get wives: language change and sex roles in a bilingual community. *Lang. Soc.*, *7*(01), 1-16.

Gal, S., & Irvine, J. (1995). The Boundaries of Languages and Disciplines: How Ideologies Construct Difference. *Social Research*, *62*(4), 967-1001.

Hymes, D. (1967). The anthropology of communication. In F.E. Dance (Ed.), *Human communication theory: Original essays*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Jackson, L. (2008). The political economy

of language in intermarriage: Bilingual childrearing in Japan. 立命館言語文化研究　立命館大学国際言語文化研究所, *20*(1), 339-357.

Li, Ping, Sepanski, S., & Zhao Ziaowei. (2006). Language history questionnaire: A web-based interface for bilingual research. *Behavior Research Methods*, 38 (2), 202-210.

Lim, T. (2010). Rethinking Belongingness in Korea: Transnational Migration, "Migrant Marriages" and the Politics of Multiculturalism. *Pacific Affairs*, *83*(1), 51-71.

Mercado, S. (2008). *Linguistic citizenship*.

Nunan, D., & Bailey, K. (2009). *Exploring second language classroom research*. Boston, MA: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Piller, I. (2001). Linguistic intermarriage: language choice and negotiation of identity. In Pavlenko, A., A. Blackledge, I. Piller, & M. Teutsch-Dwyer. Eds. *Multilingualism, Second Language Learning and Gender*. Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 199-230.

---. (2008). 'I always wanted to marry a cowboy:' bilingual couples, language and desire. In Karis, T.A. & K.D. Killian. Eds. *Intercultural Couples: Exploring Diversity in Intimate Relationships*. London: Routledge, 53-70.

Piller, I. & K. Takahashi. (2010). At the intersection of gender, language and transnationalism. In Coupland, N. Ed. *Handbook of Language and Globalization*. Malden, MA: Blackwell, 540-554.

---. (2011). Language, Migration, and Human Rights. In Wodak, R., P. Kerswill & B. Johnstone. Eds. *Handbook of Sociolinguistics*.

London: Sage, 573-587.

Walters, K. (1996). Gender, identity, and the political economy of language: Anglophone wives in Tunisia. *Lang. Soc.*, *25*(04), 515-555.

Appendix A – Language Use Survey

Couple-Language Survey

Thank you for your participation. Please answer each question to the best of your knowledge. Your information will be kept completely confidential and will not be disclosed at any point of the research.

1. Age (in years):

2. Sex (circle one):   Male   /   Female

3. What country are you from?:

4. Have you ever, or do you now, live in a country other than your birth country?

>   Yes   /   no

>   If yes, list each country and   for how long you have lived in each foreign country.

Country	Amount of time lived in years and months
	Years and Months
	Years and Months
	Years and Months
	Years and Months

5. What is your native language? (If you grew up with more than one language, please write all)

6. What other languages do you have some ability to use? (List all)

7.   For the following, please estimate your ability in each of the following categories for both **English** and **Korean.** Draw a '|' mark on the line between the terms "low" and "high"

Example: Ability to play baseball

Low -----------|-- High

English
A) Speaking ability

Low --
High

B) Listening ability

Low --- High

C) Writing ability

High --- Low

D) Reading ability

High --- Low

Korean

E) Speaking ability

Low --- High

F) Listening ability

Low --- High

G) Writing ability

High --- Low

H) Reading ability

High --- Low

---

8. Estimate the amount of time you use English and Korean in the following situations in percentages.

	% of time using **English**	% of time using **Korean**
EX) Playing baseball	*50%*	*50%*
A) At work	%	%
B) With your friends	%	%
C) With your family	%	%
D) With your partner **in private**	%	%
E) With your partner **in public**	%	%
F) With your **partner's family**	%	%

9. Please rate your level of acceptability for the following opinions.

In my relationship with my partner:

A) If we need to, my partner and I can communicate using just English.

agree --- disagree

B) It is important to me that the non-native Korean speaker in my relationship learns

to speak some Korean.

agree -- disagree

C) Having a foreign partner improves my ability to use my second language (either Korean or English).

disagree -- agree

D) It bothers me when foreigners in South Korea do not try to learn Korean.

Disagree -- agree

10. As best you can, estimate the percent of time you use English and Korean for the following situations.

Situations	Percent of time you use each language with your partner for the given situations.	
	English	Korean
EX) Playing baseball	*50%*	*50%*
A) Eating in a common restaurant or café	%	%
B) Doing a fun activity at home with your partner	%	%
C) Fighting with your partner	%	%
D) Expressing affection or love to your partner	%	%
E) Telling jokes or laughing with your partner	%	%

11. How, if at all, has your perception of your partner's native culture changed since you began dating them?

12. Is there a difference in your language use with your partner when you are in private vs. in public?

13. If there is anything else that you feel is interesting or important about you or how you and your partner use Korean and English?

14. Do you have additional questions that you feel are not included above?

Appendix B – Discussion Starter Questions

With your partner, please discuss the following questions in a comfortable setting. Spend as little or as much time as you like on each question. Use as much Korean or English as you feel comfortable or is natural for you and your partner.

1. To start, describe the setting you have chosen to have this conversation and why you chose it.
2. How did you meet each other? What was the main language you used together at that time?
3. What challenges, if any, does speaking two different languages present to your relationship? What benefits do you see?
4. What changes in your language use when you are in private vs. in public?
5. What is your experience as a multinational couple living in South Korea?
6. How do you communicate in each other's social setting? With friends?
7. How do you handle communication with each other's families when you are all together?

Appendix C – Coding Tools

	Korean Partner	**Foreign Partner**
To express intimacy	(Example: ‖‖)	(Example: ‖)
To change topic		
Language information		
To create emotional distance		
Switching with partner		
Not switching with partner		

The Effects of Collaborative Dialogue Writing on Learners' EFL Vocabulary Retention

Hyo Jeong Gang

Research Methodologies

Chapter 1 Introduction

Most second language educators and learners are well aware of the fact that learning a second language (L2) involves learning very large amounts of vocabulary. Second language learners should know at least 2000 to 5000 of the most frequent words for an assessment of general or academic competence (Milton, 2009). Learners need considerable vocabulary knowledge before they can begin to function independently. From this point of view, vocabulary learning can be one of the most crucial components in second language acquisition (SLA).

Despite those aspects, there are some problems in vocabulary learning. It is not easy to remember lots of L2 vocabulary, especially some vocabulary which is related with conceptual or denotative meaning. Vocabulary learning is truly here today, gone tomorrow. Allen (1983) indicated that the vocabulary problem might interfere with communication when people used wrong words in their conversation. EFL learners often face the difficulties during the communication when they cannot express or communicate clearly in English, due to their lack or loss of vocabulary knowledge. The EFL learners are likely to give their much conscious effort to remember the vocabulary, but it is not easy.

Learning the meaning of new words needs conscious processing at the semantic and conceptual levels (Milton, 2009). Through semantic processing, the learners can learn vocabulary implicitly or explicitly. Craik and Lockhart's (1972) depth of processing hypothesis stresses that new information will be stored in long-term memory by the depth with which it is initially processed. In this theory, depth of processing gives learners an elaborate, longer-lasting, and stronger memory trace during encoding, so learners can remember the words better than when they have rote learning. More recent research findings have supported the notion of depth of processing (Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997). Depth of processing has recently been related to other concepts such as amount of attention and level of awareness during processing (Gardiner & Richardson-Klavehn, 2000; Leow, 2012). Also, several frameworks accounting for the initial stages of L2 learning assign an important role to depth of processing.

In Tomlin and Villa's (1994) view, awareness can result in enhanced processing. Schmidt (2001) concurs with Tomlin and Villa through his concept of detection which enables further processing

of a stimulus at higher levels. Moreover, Craik (2002) has related depth of processing with elaboration and a high degree of consciousness. From these points of view, depth of processing activates more relevant knowledge than shallow processing, and this activated information becomes associated with the word to form a more elaborate memory trace. The more learners elaborate new words, the better learners remember the words. Elaborate traces might lead to long retention of vocabulary knowledge. A number of theorists have emphasized the importance of differentiation or trace distinctiveness in memory (Hunt & Einstein, 1981; Nairne, 2002; Nelson, 1979; Stein, 1978).

Another trend that has surfaced in SLA research is collaboration. This paper focuses on collaborative dialogue, that is, "dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building" (Swain & Lapkin, 2001 p. 102). It is necessary to require students to generate language forms as in a "pushed output production" condition (Swain and Lapkin, 1995). In this collaborative dialogue process, the learners are likely to engage in language-mediated cognitive activities, such as formulating and testing hypothesis, offering and assessing new input, or correcting themselves or others (Swain, 2000). The collaborative dialogue that occurs in LRE, which is defined as "any part a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others" (Swain and Lapkin, 1998, p. 326). In this study, collaborative dialogue writing makes language learners interact and develop their L2 vocabulary knowledge, because they have to focus on the meaning of vocabulary items and to negotiate a dialogue story to make their own dialogue through group work.

From these points of view, the intention of this paper is to investigate the effects of depth of processing on L2 vocabulary retention through collaborative dialogue writing. To examine such possibilities, mixed methods will be addressed. A convergent mixed method-design, a type of design in which qualitative and quantitative data are collected respectively, analyzed separately, and then merged, will be used. In this study, pretest, post test, and follow-up test will be used to test the theory of depth of processing that predicts cognitive elaboration through collaborative dialogue writings will positively influence L2 vocabulary retention for EFL learners in Gyenggi province, South Korea. The survey and semi-structured interview will explore learners' perception for this treatment. The reason for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data is to explain and to verify the results of this study.

This paper will begin with introduction to the term of information processing system, STM and LTM, depth of processing hypothesis, and collaborative dialogue writing with previous studies which formed the basis of the research design in this study. There are two groups, experimental groups and control groups. To compare the effects of depth of processing, there will be comparisons between the experimental groups (depth of processing group) and the control groups (shallow processing group). The shallow processing groups (SP groups) just copy the textbook's dialogue and write down the sentences in their English notebook, while the depth of processing groups (DP groups) make their own dialogue collaboratively with the given words in their group. To have depth of

processing, the collaborative dialogue writing activity is used for semantic and cognitive encoding. This will be followed by an explanation of the intervention and a presentation of the results. Those results will be analyzed and interpreted through the framework of depth of processing hypothesis and the tool of LREs (Swain and Lapkin, 2002) in the subsequent section. In all these applications, this paper will conclude with pedagogical implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Vocabulary teaching has a long history of more than a century, it has turned into a prominent specialist area of research over the past few decades with different aspects of direct and indirect acquisition of vocabulary (Laufer, 2009). There are bulks of studies about vocabulary learning (e.g., Laufer & Girsai, 2008; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Laufer & Nation, 1995; Laufer, Elder, Hill, & Congdon, 2004) and still is ongoing in SLA.

2.1. Information processing system

According to Cowan (1988), the model of the information processing system deals with the relationships among sensory, short-term (STM), and long-term memory (LTM). There are four processes in this model: Attention, rehearsal, encoding, and retrieval. Attention is the process by which information is moved from sensory memory to STM. Rehearsal is the process of working and doing something with new information. One must maintain attention through rehearsal in order for information to be retained. Encoding is the process of connecting new information to existing knowledge in order to make it more meaningful. Information is thus transferred

from STM to LTM. Retrieval is the process of moving information from LTM to STM. Something which is detained for a long time needs to be taken out of LTM and that is what this process does.

2.2 Short term memory and long term memory

A popular theory of memory, according to which the major components of the memory system are a short-term and a long-term store (e.g., Atkinson & Shiffrin 1968; Glanzer, 1972; Waugh & Norman 1965). Every presented list word enters the short-term memory, which is of rather limited storage capacity. The short–term memory is working memory, which has capacity limited memory (five to nine units). Large amounts of knowledge require structure and to elaborate the information from STM to LTM. This paper is concerned with the process of elaborating the new words by collaborative dialogue writing.

2.3 Depth of processing

Depth of processing hypothesis, which refers to the chance that some piece of new information will be stored in long-term memory is not determined by the length of time, but rather by the shallowness or depth with which it is initially processed (Craik & Lockhart, 1972, p. 6). In depth of processing hypothesis, the concept, "depth" means a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis, and the process of semantic or cognitive production leads the learners to remember more words than when they memorized with rote learning (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). According to Craik (2002), the "deeper" means meaning, inference, and implication, in contrast to "shallow" analyses such as surface form, color, loudness, and brightness. According

to Craik and Lockhart (1972), the "depth" comes from 1) one's familiarity with materials, and 2) one's cognitive structures. These factors can be stored by personal relevance, elaboration, effort, and distinctiveness. Nation (2002) argued for a systematic approach to the teaching of vocabulary, which is an essential part of a language course. The depth of processing which is included in systematic processing, is a systematic approach in a language course.

2.3.1 Levels of Processing Craik and Tulving (1975) indicated that what is important for retention is not the presence or absence of semantic encoding, but the richness with which the materials is encoded. The levels-of-processing effect refers to the finding semantic encoding of lexical items resulted in higher retention than perceptual, phonological, or orthographical processing. That is, depth of processing is better than shallow processing regarding retention of words.

The term "levels of processing" suggest a continuum of processing from articulatory, phonological, lexical, and conceptual stages (Lockhart, Carik, & Jacoby, 1976). There are three levels: shallow processing (articulatory), intermediate processing (phonetic), and deep processing (semantic). To store the information longer, learners need to have semantic processing.
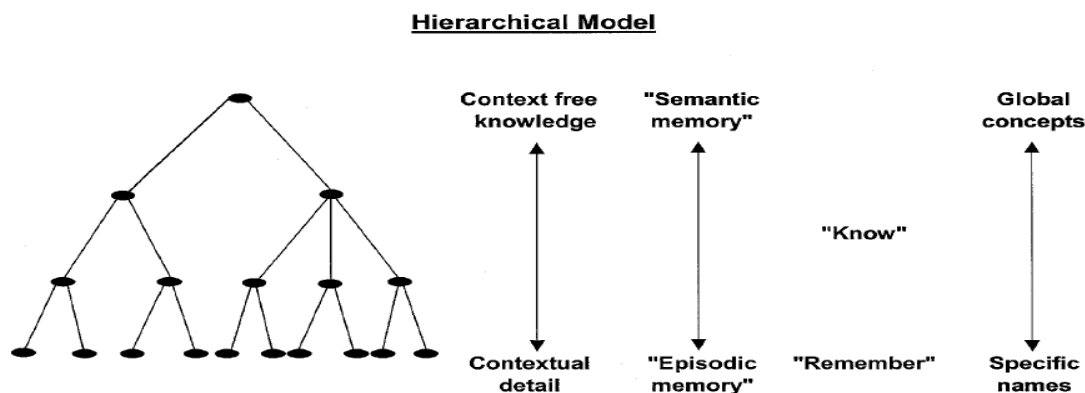

Hierarchical Model

Figure 2. A hierarchical view of cognitive representations.

Figure 2.1 Hierarchical view of cognitive representations. From Craik (2002)

2.3.2 Elaboration in Depth of Processing Anderson and Reder (1979) showed us the effects of elaboration in depth of processing. According to Anderson, a person is better at elaborating some information with which she or he has had the most experience, for example, an astronomer can extensively elaborate star patterns, whereas most people cannot. As we see the graph below, we can easily remember semantic elaboration rather than the typographical elaboration (see Figure 2.2). When something is relevant to personal life, it can be remembered longer than when it is not. In the depth of processing, learners cam generate more

elaboration of the input with their personal relevance, that leads them to store the information in the long-term memory.
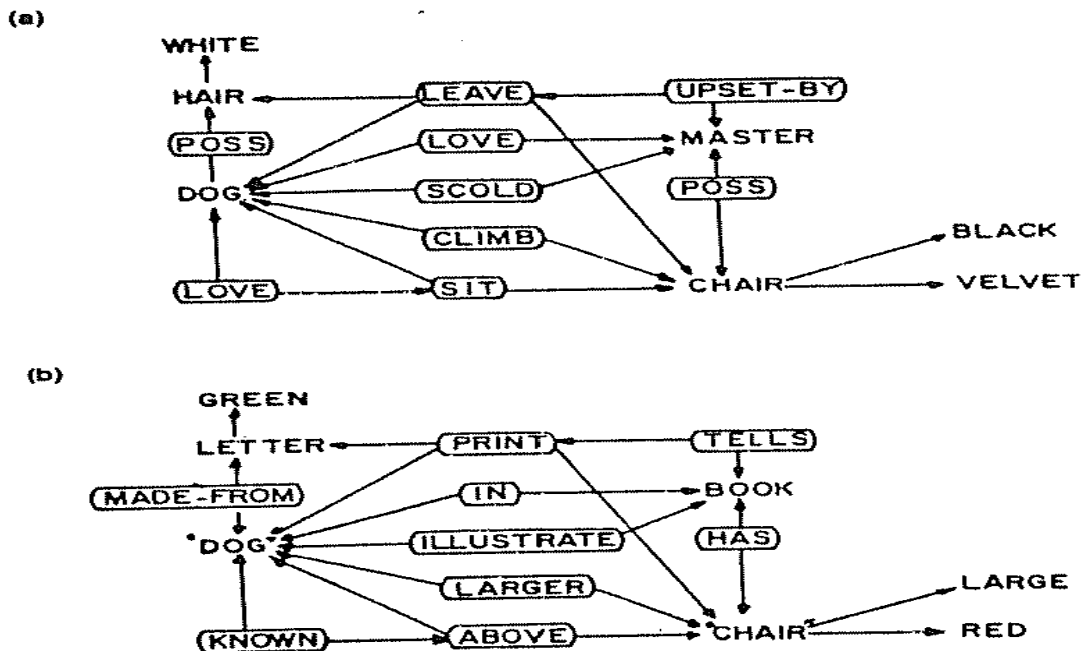
Elaboration (a). The dog loved his masters. He also loved to sit on the chairs. His masters had a beautiful black velvet chair. One day he climbed on it. He left his white hairs all over the chair. His masters were upset by this. They scolded him.

Elaboration (b). The word *dog* is in the book. The word *dog* is also known to be above the word *chair*. The book has the word *chair* printed in large red letters. On one page, the word *dog* is larger than the word *chair*. The word *dog* has its green letters printed beside the word *chair*. The book tells about this. The book illustrates the word *dog*.

Figure 2.2 A graph structure illustration the connectivity among concepts in (a) the semantic elaboration and (b) the typographical elaboration. From Anderson (1976)

2.3.3 Previous Studies in Depth of Processing Hyde and Jenkins (1973)

examined the effect of depth of processing. Two word lists were prepared for recall

experiments. One consisted of moderately associated with word pairs, the other of unrelated words. Each list was presented to 11 different groups of subjects (22 groups in all) The control group was simply instructed to remember the words; five groups performed orienting tasks but were not informed that they would have to recall the words; five groups performed the tasks and were informed about subsequent recall. Two orienting tasks required that subjects process the meaning of the words; two tasks required syntactic processing; and one task required processing the orthography of the word. The participants with semantic tasks had much greater recall and greater organization of recall than those who with the non semantic tasks.

Craik and Tulving (1975) conducted a series of experiments to explore levels of processing and memory. In each experiment there were between 12 and 36 participants who were visually exposed to a word, before which a question was asked to induce them to process the word to one of three levels of analysis. Questions required an analysis of the word's physical structure (lower level of processing), phonemic level (medium), or semantic category (higher). Participants took a retention test (free recall, cued recall, or recognition) of the words viewed. Results showed that when deeper level questions were asked about a word, subsequent retention of the target words was enhanced. Overall results hint that depth of processing is not a continuum. Crucially, "structural analyses do not shade into semantic analyses" (p. 290).

Loucky (2013) investigated various studies of 40 vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) through a logical depth of lexical processing (DLP) in a traditional text-based or CALL-enhanced methods. The participants were 112 Japanese students in five groups (Japanese freshman engineering students in four groups and engineering graduate students in one group for just a one-semester-only at the same university). Most of them have studied English for 7.32 years. In this study, there was one measure conducted: surveys on the VLS taxonomy and DLP scale at the beginning and end of each year as pre-and post assessments over a five year period. The eight phases of vocabulary learning in the DLP scale that were assessed in each group: assessing (check words), assessing-connect words, archiving, analyzing, associating, anchoring, activating, and reassessing (reviewing and recycling). The results suggest that using a bilingual dictionary (N=44), guessing form context (N=36) were the most highly preferred strategies for learning new words. The most proficient undergraduate students (Group3) had the highest average use of electronic dictionaries and the highest average use of VLSs (41%). This shows us that systematic use of electronic dictionaries can help foreign language learners to focus more time and attention on essential VLSs. Ironically, 74% of the students thought the phase of DLP scale was useful, but they used it only 45% in assessing part in reality. This study supports the depth of processing help use VLSs which increases vocabulary learning.

Gallo, Meadow, Johnson, and Foster (2008) examined effectiveness about depth of processing in vocabulary tests. There were twelve university of Chicago undergraduate participants. In this study, 120 words were drawn from the online MRC database (Coltheart, 1981). The 120 words were presented once (60 in the shallow list, 60 in the deep list) and 60 words were presented twice each shallow list and deep list across subjects. Half of the words contained a

single letter "e" (shallow judgement = e-check judgement); for the other list they decided whether the words were pleasant (deep judgement=a pleasantness judgement). New words were presented visually in the center of the computer screen, and to further ensure that subjects made the appropriate response, a visual prompt indicating the upcoming judgement ("have e?" or "pleasant?") If the participants entered "yes" or "no" on the keyboard, the next prompt was presented 500ms after each response. Results suggest that hits to words studied only in the shallow list (M=.46) were lower than hits to words studied only in the deep list (M=.94). On the standard test, the score of standard (.94) and deep test (.94) were higher than the score of shallow test (M=.46). Finally, on the deep test, deep test (.85) got higher score than shallow false alarms (.25) and new false alarms (.13). This study shows us that the pleasantness judgements (deep judgements) were easy to remember after three tests. Gallo et al., (2008) proved that large levels of depth processing were much more effective than shallow processing. The more participants encode words, the better they remember the words.

All of the above studies proved the effects of depth of processing in L2 vocabulary retention.

2.4 Collaborative Dialogue Writing

Collaborative dialogue means, "dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building" (Swain & Lapkin, 2001 p. 102). In this collaborative dialogue process, the learners are likely to engage in language-mediated cognitive activities, such as formulating and testing hypothesis, offering and assessing new inputs, or correcting themselves or others (Swain, 2000). The collaborative dialogue that occurs in LRE, which is defined as "any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others" (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, p. 326). Therefore, collaborative dialogue writing makes language learners interact and develop their L2 vocabulary learning, because they have to negotiate their own story to flow their dialogue naturally, focusing the meaning of new words in group works.

2.4.1 Previous Studies of Collaborative Dialogue Writing Kim (2008) examined the effectiveness of collaborative and individual tasks in L2 Vocabulary acquisition. Transcript data from 32 KSL (Korean as a second language learner) who were placed in one of four levels from basic to advanced. They are from China, Japan, Kasakhstan, Nepal, Ukraine, and Vietnam. The learners participated in dictogloss in pairs and the other half worked individually with thinking aloud tasks for a 3-week period. The data was collected from vocabulary items and analyzed by the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) based on Paribakht and Wesche (1997). The study found that the learners who participated in the collaborative tasks performed better on the vocabulary tests than the learners who worked individually.

Ahmadian (2014) examined the impact of collaborative dialogue and individual writing in L2 Vocabulary acquisition. Transcript data was gathered from 64 Iranian lower intermediate EFL learners who were homogenized by Oxford Placement Test, and were randomly divided into two collaborative and individual

groups. For 18 hours, the learners participated in the six tasks which were divided into three stages: pre-task, during the task, and post-task (e.g., dictionary search, speech, glossary, vocabulary log). The data was collected from the pre-test and posttest and follow-up test and was analyzed by the 20th version of SPSS and descriptive statistics, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, and t-test. This study found that the learners perform better in tasks when they work collaboratively rather than when working alone.

Dobao (2014) examined the opportunities that pair and small group interact in collaborative dialogue and L2 vocabulary learning. Transcript data was collected from 110 intermediate-level learners of Spanish as a foreign language. They were divided into groups (N=60), and in pairs (N=50). The learners participated in a 15-minute grammar review lesson, writing the story making task for 10 weeks. The data was collected from the audio recording of interaction between pairs and the groups as well as group and individual writing task. The data was analyzed by the frequency, length, resolution of the lexical LREs, based on Swain and Lapkin (1998), the vocabulary pre-test and post test. The non-parametric Independent-samples Mann-Whiteny U test was used to compare variable factors in pairs and groups. This study found the collaborative learning can benefit from a lot of knowledge and linguistic resources.

Baek (2012) examined how learners' English proficiency and text difficulty affect collaborative dialogue during a dictogloss task. Twenty-four first grade middle school students (N=24) were divided into six groups of four members: two high homogeneous groups, two intermediate homogeneous groups, and two high-intermediate mixed groups. The students participated in two dictogloss tasks targeting present and past tense, once with a relatively easy text and once with a more difficult text. Their performances were recorded and analyzed in terms of the amount, type (word, sentence, or discourse level), and outcome (correct, incorrect, or unresolved) of focus-on-form episodes (FFEs). This study found that all groups tended to focus on forms, including target forms. The mixed and intermediate groups showed the most frequent FFEs and the better resolution of them in dictogloss with an easy text. When the text became difficult, the lower level learners were likely to be more sensitive to text difficulty in dictogloss.

Darooneh (2015) examined the effect of collaborative language related episodes of language learners in writing tasks. Seven intermediate levels of EFL learners participated in a text reconstruction task and a writing composition for three weeks. The data was collected by learners' task and interviews and was analyzed for accuracy. This study focused on the importance of micro-genesis in the investigation of language learning which was happening during interaction. Also, this study showed how the learners gained control over the tasks in hand during collaborative activities. Furthermore, collaboration is helpful for learning and mental functioning.

All of those studies prove that collaborative dialogue writing is one of the ways to open the gate for learners in vocabulary retention.

2.5 Summary and Research Questions

Learning Vocabulary is one of the key issues in second language learning. Educators and learners are struggling to teach and learn vocabulary in EFL situations, because vocabulary items are easy to forget in reality. To remember vocabulary items, information needs to be deposited in the long-term memory. To store the information in LTM, learners have some depth of processing. In depth of processing, it is important to use semantic effort with the information, not by the length of time repetition (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). The meaning, inference, and implication are much more related with deeper processing, rather than surface form, and loudness (Craik, 2002). Also, Anderson and Reder (1979) emphasized the importance of elaboration in depth of processing. When elaboration is encoded with personal experience, relevance, effort, and emotion, the memory is not easily forgotten. Like a thread, if it is tangled, it is not easy to loosen the thread. From this point of view, it is necessary to combine the vocabulary items with semantic effort in the depth of processing. Semantic effort can be more effective when the learners work collaboratively in groups.

Critically, there are few previously published studies which have investigated how depth of processing has employed collaborative dialogue writing. Therefore, this study seeks to compare the effect of depth of processing versus shallow processing through collaborative dialogue writing for vocabulary retention. To have depth of processing, the collaborative dialogue writing activity is used for semantic and cognitive encoding. There is a hope that depth of processing through collaborative dialogue writing leads learners to promote their vocabulary retention. Considering all these studies and

aspects, my research questions are the following:

1) Does collaborative dialogue writing affect participants' EFL vocabulary retention?

2) What are the differences between the heterogeneous groups and the homogeneous groups, according to the results of a vocabulary test?

3) How do EFL participants perceive collaborative dialogue writing after this treatment?

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Overview

This study will investigate the effects of depth of processing through collaborative dialogue writing on vocabulary retention. The purpose of this study is to examine whether or not learners' ability to remember the meaning of target words is better when they have depth of processing through writing dialogues with the given words collaboratively in small groups, compared with the shallow processing groups, just copying the given dialogue sentences. In this study, the deep processing groups (DP group) have to create their own dialogue sentences with the given words collaboratively, and the shallow processing groups (SP group) have to copy the textbook's dialogue sentences and read a choral reading. In the DP groups, there are homogeneous groups and heterogeneous groups, according to the result of pre-test (VKS). Rates of vocabulary retention will be compared between the deep processing group and shallow processing group. Also, in the deep processing groups, there will be comparisons between the two groups by the results of vocabulary post-test, follow-up

test, and audio recordings. A survey and a semi-structured interview will be conducted with only the DP groups to gain participants' perception about this intervention.

3.2 Setting

This study will be conducted in an Elementary school in Gyeonggido, South Korea. The school is located in the north west of Gyeonggi province. The English class meets three times a week, 40 minutes each, over an eight-week period. The background survey of the participants (see Appendix A), pre-test of 45 vocabulary items were already conducted. There was an English achievement test about 4th grade English textbook which was published by ChunJae Education, according to the 2015 standard of Korean Educational National curriculum (see Appendix B). The mean of the assessment test score was approximately. There was no significant difference among the chosen participants.

3.3 Participants

Among 174 students, only 64 participants were chosen by a 45 vocabulary item pre-test, Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Weshe & Paribakht, 1996). From the background survey, the 64 participants, who were 10 years old, have been studying English for two years in school. Most of them have attended a private English institution for approximately 1.5 years; only 28 participants out of 174 participants do not attend a private institution (Hagwon in Korean). However, the participants do not have a high score on the pre-test and English textbook's assessment, so attending a private English institution cannot be a significant variable factor in this study.

The reason to choose these participants are

the following: first, they have never stayed in an English country, including travelling abroad. Second, their age is well suited for cognitive development which is related with depth of processing. According to Piaget (1999)'s cognitive development theory, there is the third stage, the concrete operational stage (7-11), is characterized by the appropriate use of logic. During this stage, a child's thinking processes become more mature and "adult like". The participants' thinking process stage is just appropriate for the development of depth of processing in this study. These participants are willing to try and think about logical thinking, so depth of processing will be effective. Third, I taught them last year, so I understand them better than any other students in this school, according to last year's teaching experience.

3.3.1 Proficiency

Vocabulary learning is affected by language proficiency, because learners with a high proficiency are likely to recall vocabulary better than those with a lower proficiency. To control effects of proficiency on this intervention, the groups will be distributed equally, according to their pre-test and an English assessment test. The participants were pretested on their target 45 vocabulary items (see Table 3.2) from their English textbook by using the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Wesche & Paribakht, 1996). From the result of these scores, the groups will be formed as identical as possible to control proficiency variables. The participants who have high scores on this test will be excluded.

3.3.2 DP groups vs SP groups Before the treatment, the participants had an English assessment test about their 4th grade English textbook, and the perfect

score was 100. The mean of the participants score was 68 and there were no significant different factors in the both groups, except four students. In both groups have two students who have the lowest scores (45, 50).

	Mean	SD
English textbook assessment test	68.8	6.5

3.1 English Assessment Test

The 64 participants were divided into experimental groups (N=32) and control groups (N=32) randomly. DP groups (Deep processing or experimental groups) were divided into homogeneous groups (N=16), heterogeneous groups (N=16), according to their pre-test (VKS). The pre-test was 45 target vocabulary items from English textbook. DP and SP group members got the correct number of VKS from 15 to 0. For the heterogeneous groups, the participants got the range from 0 to 9 in VKS, they make groups with the excluded participants who have mostly correct answers from 42 to 45. For the homogeneous groups, they make groups with the participants who have the similar numbers of VKS from 10 to 15. There were four members in each group for both the DP groups and the SP groups.

3.4 Materials

Forty five target vocabulary items out of eighty four are used in this study. The target forty five items were chosen from the current English textbook, the other vocabulary was from the other English textbook. DP groups write collaborative dialogues with the target words and do a role-play with their dialogue, while, the SP groups read and write the textbook dialogues.

3.4.1 Target Vocabulary The forty five target words are from the current English textbook. These are common and basic English words, according to the Korean Educational Ministry (2015).

Lesson 4	Lesson 5	Lesson 6	Lesson 7
bank	early	but	black
block	every	buy	curly
bookstore	first	cheap	famous
clock	get up	expensive	find
excuse me	home	fly	glasses
hospital	festival	heavy	hair
left restaurant shop	report	kite	long
slow straight	show	light	miss
theater	future	may	pants
turn	delicious	over	people
			puppy
			wear

3.2   Target Vocabulary Items

3.5 Research Instruments

3.5.1 Vocabulary retention test To answer the first two questions, weekly vocabulary quizzes are conducted at the end of the weekend for eight weeks. The

post-test will be conducted after two weeks after the last lesson and the final follow-up test will be conducted after four weeks. The ordering of words will be different from the pretest, and the different test forms will be provided with learners to enhance the validity and reliability of the test. The data will be analyzed by the 20th version of SPSS, descriptive statistics, and t-test.

3.5.2 Group video recording and audio recording

To answer the second question, in the DP groups, the classroom group-work interaction will be captured with video recordings or audio recordings. There is the tool of the interaction will be conducted by the numbers of frequency of LREs in video and audio recording of the group work (Swain and Lapkin, 2002). Each time one person speaks, it will be counted as one turn. So it will be calculated the ratio of turns per LRE by each person in the DP groups.   .

3.5.3 A survey and a semi-structured interview

To answer the third question, I will do a survey about students' perception of collaborative dialogue writing in depth of processing after this treatment. There will be interviews with the participants in the DP groups randomly to elaborate on the survey responses.

3.6 Procedures

This treatment was carried out three times a week, 40 minutes for each class, over an eight-week period, from May to July in 2015. There were six classes of 5th graders, and the six classes were divided into two groups: DP and SP groups, which consisted of 64 participants.

3.6.1 Pre-test

There are 45 target vocabulary items among eighty four vocabulary items. The pre-test was conducted by VKS before the treatment. The participants who got more than 30 correct answers were excluded from this study. The 64 participants who got 0 to15 answers out of 45 vocabulary items were divided into DP and SP groups randomly.

3.6.2 DP and SP group activities

The English textbook consisted of six periods. Both groups studied the same textbook. Every week, during the first (or the fourth) time, the textbook activities were conducted for 40 minutes. During the second (or fifth) and the third (or sixth) time, the textbook activities were conducted for 15 minutes, another 20 minutes consisted of different activities and the last five minutes were for a short quiz in the both groups. For the different activities, four new words were given to the participants for both groups.

The DP groups write their own dialogues collaboratively with the given words, and do role-play with their creative dialogue writing. There was a form for collaborative dialogue writing (see Appendix C). In groups of four, each member had to make a dialogue writing with the target words. They had to take turns in speaking their dialogue equally, preventing the group from dominating students. While the SP groups copied the textbook's dialogue (see Appendix D) and read aloud in their groups, the SP groups had a choral group reading together with the intention of shallow processing.

3.6.3 Weekly quizzes

At the end of the week, there was a short weekly quiz for both groups. The whole six classes take a short weekly quiz, just writing about the meaning of the words in Korean. Most

participants wrote the answers within 3 minutes. After the weekly quiz, if they had wrong answers on the quiz, the DP groups wrote dialogues with the words in their English notebook, while the SP groups wrote the words two times in their English notebooks.

3.6.4 Outline of six period lesson

The DP and the SP groups have the same textbook procedures, except the treatment which is conducted by depth of processing or shallow processing, controlling other variables.

Time Allotment		6 periods / 40 minutes each	
Period	Section	Contents	Teaching Aids
1	. Ready . Look & Listen . Listen & Repeat . Fun with Sounds . Listen & Play	. Listen to the new 8 vocabulary and expressions . Listen to the dialog and see what happened . Listen and repeat the dialogs . Identify a sound and repeat the sentence . Do "the textbook activity"	CD-ROM, place cards
2	. Let's Read . Sing Along . Speak & Play ☻ **Depth of processing** **Vs** **Shallow processing**	. Read the passage . Sing a song . Do "the textbook activity" .**Collaborative dialogue writing and do a role-play** **/ sentence copying and read a choral reading**	CD-ROM, sticker, place cards, students' notebook
3	. Read & Do . Write & Do ☻ **Depth of processing** **Vs** **Shallow processing** ☻ **A short quiz**	. Read words and sentences aloud . Fill in the blanks to complete the words. .**Collaborative dialogue writing and do a role-play** **/ sentence copying and read a choral reading** .**8 words quiz**	CD-ROM, map, place cards, phrase cards, , students' notebook

4	. Listen &Speak . Read & Write . Join & Play	. Listen to the new 8 vocabulary and expressions . Listen and repeat the dialogs . Correct the underlined parts and complete the sentences . Do "the textbook activity"	CD-ROM

5	. Story & Great People . Into the World ☻ **Depth of processing Vs Shallow processing**	. Listen to the story, "Kim Jeongho's Map" . Read the story . Learn about various maps in the world **. Collaborative dialogue writing and do a role-play / sentence copying and read a choral reading**	CD-ROM, , students' notebook
6	. Your Page . Work Together ☻ **Depth of processing Vs Shallow processing** ☻ **A short quiz**	. Review the lesson and check . Do textbook activity **. Collaborative dialogue writing and do a role-play / sentence copying and read a choral reading** **. 8 words quiz**	CD-ROM, whole paper, markers, students' notebook

3.3 Procedural Protocols

An outline of 6 periods of one lesson with treatment is listed above.

3.7 Data Analysis

The data for analysis will be obtained from VKS pretest, post-test, follow-up test, weekly short quizzes, a survey, and a semi-structured interview. Also, video or audio recordings will be obtained for their interaction in the DP groups. The first research question will be addressed by the data of vocabulary tests. The second research question will be addressed by the data of vocabulary tests and the numbers of frequency of LREs in video and audio recording of the group work (Swain & Lapkin, 2002). Each time one person speaks, it will be counted as one turn. So it will be calculated the ratio of turns per LRE by each person in the DP groups. Lastly, the third question will be addressed by examining the DP groups' responses from the survey and the semi-structured interview

Chapter 4 Conclusion

This research investigated the effects of depth of processing through collaborative dialogue writing in small groups on L2 learning. There were three research questions; the first one was concerned about the effects about collaborative dialogue writing on participants' EFL vocabulary retention. The second one was concerned about differences between the heterogeneous groups and the homogeneous groups, according to the results of vocabulary test. The last one was concerned with the participants' perception of collaborative dialogue writing after this treatment. This treatment was done for eight weeks, but I'm still collecting and analyzing the data. I can predict more positive effects of depth of processing than shallow processing on vocabulary retention, because semantic and elaborative processing can lead learners learn vocabulary and retain vocabulary items longer than copying the words without depth of thinking.

For future research, I want to examine some practical and interesting activities which deal with depth of processing with a large sample size for a long period. Many educators try to find the best ways to teach and learn vocabulary, I hope the depth of

processing can the light to guide learning and teaching on L2 vocabulary learning.

References

Ahmadian, M., Amerian, M., & Tajabadi, A. (2014). The effect of collaborative dialogue on EFL Learner's vocabulary acquisition and retention. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 3*(4), 38-45.

Anderson, J. R., & Reder, L. M. (1979). An elaborative processing explanation of depth of processing. *L.; S.Cermak and FIM Craik, Eds., Levels of Processing in Human Memory (Erlbam, 1979), ,* 385-404.

Atkinson, R. C, and R. M. Shiffrin. 1968. Human memory: A proposed system and its control processes. In K. W. Spence and J. T. Spence, eds, *The Psychology of Learning and Motivation.*

Baek, S., & Lee, J. (2012). The effects of English proficiency and text difficulty on collaborative dialogue during dictogloss. 응용언어학, *28*(1), 87-114.

Cowan, N. (1988). Evolving conceptions of memory storage, selective attention, and their mutual constraints within the human information-processing system. *Psychological Bulletin, 104*(2), 163.

Craik, F. I. (2002). Levels of processing: Past, present... and future? *Memory, 10*(5-6), 305-318.

Dobao, A. F. (2014). Vocabulary learning in collaborative tasks: A comparison of pair and small group work. *Language Teaching Research, 18*(4), 497-520.

Darooneh, P. S., & Valadi, A (2015). *Collaborative writing: A micro-genetic analysis of articles and prepositions with a focus on language related episodes*.

Eckerth, J., & Tavakoli, P. (2012). The effects of word exposure frequency and elaboration of word processing on incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition through reading. *Language Teaching Research, 16*(2), 227-252.

Gardiner, J. M., & Richardson-Klavehn, A. (2000). *Remembering and knowing*.

Glanzer, M. (1972). Storage mechanisms in recall. In G. H. Bower, ed., *The Psychology of Learning and Motivation*.

Huckin, T., & Coady, J. (1999). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*(02), 181-193.

Hunt, R.R., & Einstein, G.O. (1981). Relational and item-specific information in memory. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 20*, 497–514.

Hyde, T. S., & Jenkins, J. J. (1973). Recall for words as a function of semantic, graphic, and syntactic orienting tasks. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 12*(5), 471-480.

Khoii, R., & Sharififar, S. (2013). Memorization versus semantic mapping in L2 vocabulary acquisition. *ELT Journal, 67*(2), 199-209.

Kim, Y. (2008). The contribution of collaborative and individual tasks to the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(1), 114-130.

Laufer, B. (2009). Second language vocabulary acquisition from language input and from form focused activities. *Language Teaching, 42*, 341–54.

Laufer, B. & Girsai, N. (2008). Form focused instruction in second language vocabulary learning: A case for contrastive analysis and translation. *Applied Linguistics, 29*, 694–716.

Laufer, B. & Hulstijn, J. (2001). Incidental

vocabulary acquisition in a second language: The construct of task-induced involvement. *Applied Linguistics, 22*, 1–26.

Laufer, B. & Nation, P. (1995). Vocabulary size and use: Lexical richness in L2 written production. *Applied Linguistics, 16*, 307–22.

Laufer, B., Elder, C., Hill, K., & Congdon, P. (2004). Size and strength: Do we need both to measure vocabulary knowledge? *Language Testing, 21*, 202–27.

Leow, R. (2012). Attention, awareness, and noticing in second language acquisition. *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics.* Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell

Lockhart, R. & Craik, F. (1990). Levels of processing: A retrospective commentary on a framework for memory research. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 44*, 87–112.

Lockhart, R.S., Craik, F.I.M., & Jacoby, L.L. (1976). Depth of processing, recognition and recall. In J. Brown (Ed.), *Recall and recognition* (pp. 75–102). New York: Wiley.

Nairne, J.S. (2002). The myth of the encoding—retrieval match. *Memory, 10*, 389–395.

Nation, P. (2002). Best practice in vocabulary teaching and learning. *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*, 267-272.

Novak, J. D. (2001). The theory underlying concept maps and how to construct them. *Florida Institute for Human and Machine Cognition, 1*.

Nelson, D.L. (1979). Remembering pictures and words: Appearance, significance and name. In L.S. Cermak LOP: PAST, PRESENT, AND FUTURE 317 & F.I.M. Craik (Eds.), *Levels of processing in human memory*

(pp. 45–76). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.

Milton, J. (2009). *Measuring second language vocabulary acquisition.* Multilingual Matters.

Piaget, J. (1999). *De la pedagogía.* Paidós.

Shen, H. H., & Xu, W. (2015). Active learning: Qualitative inquiries into vocabulary instruction in chinese L2 classrooms. *Foreign Language Annals, 48(1), 82-99..*

Stein, B. (1978). Depth of processing reexamined: The effects of the precision of encoding and test appropriateness. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 17*, 165–174.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 16*(3), 371.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(3), 320-337.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2001). Focus on form through collaborative dialogue: Exploring task effects. *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching and testing*.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research, (37)*, 285–304.

Waugh, N., & Norman, D. (1965). Primary memory.

Wesche, M., & Paribakht, T. S. (1996). Assessing second language vocabulary knowledge: Depth versus breadth. Canadian Modern Language Review, 53(1), 13-40.

Rolling for Symbolic Competence: Historicity and Performativity in a Classroom Role-playing Game

Daniel Brown

Theoretical Foundations of CALL

Introduction

When Hymes (1972) unleashed the notion of *communicative competence* upon the world, it was a much heralded response to the dominant language curriculum that had favored memorization and decontextualized sentences over the sociolinguistic, the discursive, and the strategic (Savignon, 1976; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). The subsequent ubiquity of that competence pervaded for years in journals and classrooms alike as both researchers and practitioners adhered to the perceived tenets of communicative language teaching. Lately, however, the fervor over communicative competence has noticeably wavered since the seismic social shift in language learning (i.e., Firth & Wagner, 1998). With this restructuring of the playing field, the notion of symbolic competence (Kramsch, 2006) has emerged to complement the hegemony of the former. Drawing on ideas of complexity (Larsen-Freeman, 1997) and ecology (van Lier, 2004), this new competence builds upon its predecessor by acknowledging speakers as subjectivities that traverse both time and space with the ability to both shape and redefine the game in which they are a part of.

Kramsch and Whiteside (2008) laid out four dimensions of symbolic competence: subjectivity, historicity, performativity, and reframing. In regards to subjectivity, interlocutors' interactions have "to do less with the calculations of rational actors" (p. 665) than with "heightened awareness of the embodied nature of language" and the "sedimented emotions" associated with it. Subjectivity thus indexes the identities, assumptions, and values of different symbolic systems as subjects negotiate different positions of power. The historicity aspect of symbolic competence involves the understanding of cultural memories evoked by symbolic systems. Accordingly, subjects carry the effects of their accumulated past socialization experiences across various geopolitical realms, with meaning emerging during discourse "as the result of creating semiotic simultaneity" (Blommaert, 2005, p. 126) across these disparate spaces. Performativity relates to the creation of alternative realities through discourse. Via acts of discourse, subjects can shift power relations and create new contexts for interaction in order to promote their own agendas. Lastly, the reframing aspect of symbolic competence relates to the ability of an interlocutor to change the context of previous utterances in a way that best suits their own interests. Taken together, these four dimensions explore facets of human interactions that are less about information transfer than about "the ability to shape the . . . game in which one

invests . . . and to reframe human thought and action (Kramsch, 2008, p. 667)".

Despite its initial proposition occurring nearly a decade ago, little research has been carried out using symbolic competence as a theoretical framework. In addition, researchers have all but failed to explore the use of contextualizing language classrooms as role-playing games (Brown, 2014). This points to a clear and present gap in the literature on these two crucial issues. This short paper aims to address this void by focusing on two aspects of symbolic competence, historicity and performativity, and asking:

- Did symbolic systems evoke cultural memories as students worked through missions in the CRPG?
- Were students using language to perform and create alternative realities as they engaged in the CRPG?

This paper starts by reviewing two articles that address the notion of symbolic competence. The first of these articles looks at schools for the Chinese in Britain, while the second is a narrative account of a bilingual Swedish academic navigating daily life in two languages. I will then describe the procedures of obtaining the data before moving on to presenting the results and discussing them.

The phenomenon

Wei (2013) took the theoretical concept of symbolic competence and wove it together with the constructs of *funds of knowledge* and *translanguaging* to examine Chinese schools in Britain. Wei's aim was to investigate how those teachers and pupils "utilize and negotiate the discrepancies in their linguistic knowledge and socio-

cultural experience in the learning and construction of language, cultural values and practices, and identity through co-learning" (p. 161). The data, obtained through extensive ethnographic observation, were organized into three categories in the results section of the paper.

The first category showed discrepancies in linguistic knowledge between the students and the teacher. One example focused on how the Chinese teacher translated a sentence from their Chinese book into "took grandfather to the home" in English. A student took this translation as meaning that the grandfather was being sent to a care center, rather than his home, and tried to clarify this with the teacher. The teacher, however, could not recognize the nuance, and the student eventually gave up on the issue. That illustrated how difficulties can emerge unless co-learning is engaged in by the teacher.

The second category of discourses considered the values and practices of cultural knowledge. In one example, when the teacher illustrated the use of the Chinese word for *unite,* the issue of whether Taiwan is its own country was raised. The students asserted that it was, since it had its own Olympic presence, and was akin to being a nation in the same way as Scotland. The teacher, however, adamantly opposed Taiwanese sovereignty, and even Scotland's nationhood, claiming that the latter was situated in the United Kingdom. This situation showed that discrepancies in cultural knowledge can lead to language learning as well as attempting to impose cultural values.

The last category dealt with the co-construction of identity in the classroom. In a classroom example, the teacher goes over all the different terms used to represent

people of Chinese ancestry living abroad. The students were mainly interested, though, in how they themselves should be addressed, such as whether to be regarded as Chinese-British or British-Chinese. Rather than being a technical lesson on terminology, it turned into a meaningful discussion on all their identities, leading them to new ways to position themselves. The researcher concluded that though the complementary schools were set up to transmit Chinese culture to the students, the negotiation of diverse symbolic competencies undoubtedly had an "impact on the development of the socio-cultural identities of both the teachers and the pupils" (p. 177).

Hult (2014) also used the framework of symbolic competence when analyzing the presentation of the self during intercultural social encounters. The data for the study came from three of the researcher's own personal vignettes. Unlike transcribed audio or video, these vignettes were remembered and given in narrative form. In addition, the researcher also included a detailed autobiography of the Swedish and English sociocultural settings of his upbringing.

The first vignette recounted a visit to a pizzeria with another Swedish-English bilingual, whereupon they debated in English the appropriateness of pepperoni being listed as a vegetarian topping. They addressed the pizza guy in Swedish on this point, who motioned to a container of hot peppers and curtly explained to them what pepperoni was. The author used this vignette as an example of discongruence between linguistic and situated knowledge, stating that "the nature of symbolic competence transcends the ability to use a language proficiently; it is an awareness of

and the ability to manage circulating discourses about languages and interaction to accomplish an ecologically valid presentation of self with respect to one's interlocutors" (p. 73).

In the second vignette, the author spoke to a building manager in English to obtain a library keycard as an international visiting lecturer, but later inadvertently responded and conversed in Swedish with an assistant manager from the same office. That put him in a situation where two people who saw each other regularly could have different versions of who he was. According to a symbolic competence viewpoint, we shape the game that we play in. In this vignette, in each situation the author chose among instruments to "shape two different truths" (p. 75), although those "two independently credible realities could collide across time in the space of the building manager's office".

The final vignette had the researcher using English to request guidance in the library so as not to seem incompetent for not knowing how to use many of its services. The author noted that using English served both interpersonal as well an intrapersonal ends. Interpersonally, it allowed them "to follow the cultural script" (p. 76) of helpful librarian assisting hapless outsider. Intrapersonally, it allowed him to manage his self-image as a functional adult, despite his inability to do some basic activities in Sweden that he could perform easily in the United States. Symbolic competence thus served a purpose more than just communicating meanings, but regulating the presentation of self along with strategic and emotional aspects of language.

Using Wei and Hult as points of reference, the current study explores how my students shaped and were shaped by the worlds they

inhabit. Unlike the multilingual contexts of some of the studies concerning symbolic competence, this study looks at predominantly monolingual speakers of Korean. Kramsch (2008) noted that symbolic competence is not limited to just multilingual speakers in multicultural settings, but also in exchanges between monolingual speakers, where "the meaning of utterances there too lie not only in the way participants orient themselves to the ongoing exchange, but in the way they implicitly ventriloquate or even parody prior utterances and thereby create affordances in ways that are favorable to them" (p. 667).

Given that the need to negotiate symbolic competence should also be observable in monolingual learners of English, I will seek evidence historicity and performativity through recordings of my own classes. Similar to how Wei looked at transcripts of everyday classroom interactions, I will also examine transcripts from an everyday activity in my class. This activity involved the students participating in a classroom role-playing game (CRPG) facilitated in a CALL environment.

Observing and measuring

The audio data were collected in the fall semester of 2014. The students were first-year university students at an institute associated with a prominent university in Seoul, South Korea. Over 100 hours of audio was captured as students worked through missions while engaged in the CRPG *League of Explorers*. In this CRPG, students assumed the roles of international investigators as they travelled to locations around the world to solve problems. The procedures that the students followed were typical of classroom role-playing games (Brown, 2014) in that students created

identities that they embellished upon with their own skills, traits, items, fears, and goals. They then role-played together to address dangerous situations.

The iterative mission format included pre-task, task and post-task segments. The pre-task involved the students' precursory examination of the mission and their strategizing on how to handle it. The actual task segment consisted of them recording their role-play as they acted out the mission. The post-task occurred after their role-play recording was shared on the network and the teacher came to resolve the outcome of the mission. For this study, only data from the pre-task was considered, as it was in that stage that student-to-student interactions involve the most intertextual references and negotiations of the fictional occurrences.

For the most part, students worked in the same groups of three or four throughout the whole semester. There were 13 groups in total. One group was randomly selected for this study, and their full body of work was closely analyzed. This group consisted of three students: one male referred to as JH, and two females referred to as YR and BY. They were ostensibly level tested as novice-mid on the ACTFL (2012) scale. After listening to their recordings multiple times, excerpts were taken and transcribed from each of the 45 mission iterations completed in which only these participants worked together. Of these excerpts, two were selected that showed elements of historicity and two that showed elements of performativity. Transcription conventions are shown in Appendix A.

This type of data collection is similar to the approach taken by Wei in his account of Chinese schools in Britain. This is because Wei looked directly at transcripts, so the

actual moments he was looking for were captured and systematically analyzed. On the other hand, Hult's accounts were based off of recollections, and not actual recordings. In addition, Wei's recordings came from the class, while Hult's encounters were out in the wild.

Results

The first research question explored historicity and asked if cultural memories were evoked by symbolic systems as students engaged in the CRPG. In one mission, the students were in Ireland and presented with the task of rescuing Miss Chu, who was stranded on a rocky island near some cliffs. Example 1 shows a short extract of the students' pre-task dialogue as they worked through that situation.

1	JH	*XXX*. I camping fire.
2	YR	Why?
3	JH	Helicopter come.
4	YR	So...
5	BY	SOS.
6	JH	Helicopter is down.
7	YR	Save two people. Ok, Ok.
8	JH	What danger?
9	YR	Burn…
10	JH	Burn island?
11	YR	Burn *XXX,* burn four-leaf clover, so angry…
12	JH	Leprechaun.
13	YR	Leprechaun?
14	JH	Leprechaun.
15	YR	Leprechaun is *XXX*, "Why you burn all four-leaf clover?"
16	JH	Miss Chu do. Miss Chu….
17	YR	So Miss Chu…
18	JH	Miss Chu, leprechaun attack Miss Chu, Miss Chu…stomachache.

Example 1: Students had to rescue Miss Chu from an island in Ireland.

In this short extract we see that the learners draw not only from linguistic resources and what is available in the immediate context, but rather pull from cultural knowledge they have of Ireland. In this case, through negotiating the situation, they brought out their collective knowledge or Irish symbols such as leprechauns and four-leaf clovers. These symbols were integrated into the framework of the CRPG which encourages problems to emerge which the students can subsequently attempt to fix.

In another mission, the students were in Germany where they encountered a filmmaker looking for extras for his movie. Example 2 shows an extract of the students' interactions in this mission.

1	YR	Enemy
2	JH	Enemy, enemy. Actor. Enemy actor.
3	YR	But I make, I misuse my spell, so I make a goblin. Many goblin. So we make a war movie, but make a fantasy movie.
4	JH	And you?
5	YR	And cry.
6	BY	Why?
7	JH	Why?
8	BY	Why?
9	YR	Cry acting.
10	BY	Cry acting? Suddenly?
11	YR	Yes, cry acting. What the danger?
12	BY	We need to use beer.
13	YR	Beer.
14	BY	Next?
15	YR	You say, "I want to drink beer, but I…"
16	JH	No, no, no. Goblin is not actor. Real, real, real goblin. Enemy. Real enemy.

Example 2: Students had to be extras for a movie director in Germany.

From this example, we can see the shared experiences of the group coalescing to produce an image of a plausible filmmaking session in Germany. In this case, even though the type of film was not specified, the group settled on the idea of the filmmaker wanting to make a war movie. From that we can see how cultural memories of Germany in World War II are

brought into the present moment. In juxtaposition, however, goblins are accidentally summoned instead of soldiers by the students as they create problems to move their own adventure along. We can thus see how modern popular gaming culture, filled with Tolkien-esque creatures, is woven in to create a uniquely intertextual narrative.

Considering both examples given, it is clear that historicity is one feature of the interactions between students in a CRPG. In both cases, the students drew on their cultural histories to juxtapose their understandings of the past into present circumstances. Through this semiotic simultaneity, jointly agreed-upon meanings emerged from their dialogue.

The second research question asked if performativity was observable through the students' creation of and performance in alternative realities. Example 3 shows a mission that took place in Russia which asked the students to help a character suffering from bad dreams.

1	BY	Let's see the child animation to make *XXX*.
2	YR	Ok.
3	JH	But what happened?
4	BY	Headache. Mind headache
5	JH	I know, know. Why? What we happened. For example, we buy a ero movie. We, I'm a...
6	YR	Why you buy ero movie?
7	JH	Only listen, listen. Maybe I'm not adult. We got one danger. But kid, I buy. I can see it, very *XXX*.
8	YR	No, no.
9	JH	Finish, no help.
10	BY	We buy a kid movie, but we play, it's not a kid movie. Horror, kill, *XXX*.
11	YR	Your mind terrible...
12	JH	Second, I borrow...
13	YR	We another think.

Example 3: Students helped someone with bad dreams in Russia.

In the preceding example, we can see the interlocutors vying for tertiary authorship (Hammer, 2008) to the shared fictional world. When JH's original idea of showing the afflicted character an erotic movie is dismissed by the females in the group, BY offers an alternate solution which involves the showing of a violent film. YR, not happy with either of these versions of the story, demands another approach in the last line. While the utterances in this dialogue may not tangibly affect the world outside the classroom, they do shape the imagined world which has been authenticated amongst themselves and those who actively observe it.

In another example, the students were on a mission in Japan. As an open mission, the students were only given a non-playable character as a prompt with which they had to create their own mission around. Example 4 shows the students interactions as they tried to define the mission around the character Chi.

1	BY	Chi want to Cosplay...
2	YR	Costume play?
3	BY	Yes, but he...
4	YR	He want to Cosplay like a Jenny. A bunny girl cosplay. Cosplay, but "I don't know how. Can you help me?"
5	HJ	Chi's a man?
6	YR	It's a chi.
7	BY	It's a chi.
8	HJ	No, no, no, I can't.
9	YR	He's very beautiful.
10	HJ	I can't.
11	YR	Why? It's fiction.
12	HJ	Fiction is real. Normally, normally.
13	YR	You make a story.
14	HJ	Chi love animation. Chi want to go animation shop, but he don't know how to go. Or, Chi want to buy an animation, but he have dollar no, and "Help me."

Example 4: The students created a mission based on a character.

Just as in example 3, we can see that the students vie for authorship of the narrative. In this case, JH is not interested in the female members' idea of having Chi, a character who appears as an old man with a long beard, partaking in a session of cosplay as a bunny girl. Instead, he wants to bring in what he considers normal, such as wanting to buy an animation, but not having money for it. We can thus see him recreating the fictional environment from his own scale of space and time to project upon others his notion of normalcy. This projection allows him to reframe the balance of power.

Considering these two extracts, it is clear that performativity is a characteristic of the discourse of students engaged in a CRPG. The students actively manipulated linguistic codes to create alternate realities even within the fictional environment. In one extract, YR's utterance "We another think" has the perlocutionary effect of dismissing the others' contributions to the story. In the other, HJ must reconfigure the environment to avoid a situation he deems abnormal.

Discussion

This study has suggested that two aspects of a symbolic competence — historicity and performativity — are both present as students engage in a CRPG. Historicity was observed in the intertextuality across different timescales and places of the discourse the students created as they worked on their narratives. Performativity was evidenced by the agency and authority with which students projected their worldviews to shape the CRPG storylines to their own subjective likings.

Compared to Wei's study, this study chose to focus on historicity rather than replacing the notion of *funds of knowledge*. By focusing on historicity, this study shed light on the subjectivities of the individual learners, rather than viewing the learners as a solid cultural group. This approach allowed for not only accounting for the juxtaposition of leprechauns, four-leaf clovers, and fires in a rescue mission in Ireland, but also to ponder the individual's own proclivities toward starting fires in the first place.

While Wei looked at the linguistic and cultural discrepancies between the teacher and students, this study only focused on the interactions of students with each other. In addition, while Wei was looking for learning potentials in the negotiation of cultural values and practices, this study did not consider the potentials, but only sought evidence of performativity and the shaping of realities associated with it. Lastly, while Wei looked at the co-construction of identity in the classroom, this paper did not address the concept of identity or subject positioning in its research questions.

Compared to Hult, this study did not take the broad scope of analyzing every aspect of the encounters, but instead sought to find specific examples of specific instances of symbolic competence. However, in Hult's second vignette, his exploration into creating separate versions of himself which could collide at a future point in time can be seen as similar to how the learners in this study argued for separate versions of fictional truth.

If I were to run this class again, I would have students come to class with more in-depth cultural knowledge of the place where they would be performing missions for that day. Since the locations for

missions had no official link to other course content, the students sometimes did not have any knowledge of the more obscure locations they were sent to. Lacking knowledge of some of the target cultures, it was difficult for them to make their historicities as relevant as possible. This CRPG should therefore be tightly woven into an appropriate coursebook and syllabus.

If I were to do this study again, I would transcribe more data from the students' missions. Then, similar to how Hult did his comprehensive analysis, I would look at the data from many more perspectives to get a better understanding. This extra analysis would consider the two other aspects that Kramsch includes as part of symbolic competence: subjectivity and reframing.

Conclusion

In making the case for symbolic competence, Kramsch and Whiteside (2008) argued that previous approaches were useful but "presuppose a social reality bound by the usual constraints of time and space" (p. 658). On the contrary, interlocutors "are physically and emotionally living on several axes of space and time that are embodied in their daily practices". Symbolic competence considers this embodiment in how it accounts for the ability of individuals to access contextually relevant histories as well as "play a game of distinction on the margins of established patrimonies (p. 664)". This study asked two simple questions regarding both those aspects of symbolic competence in relation to CRPGs. The first research question concerned historicities and asked whether the symbolic environment of the CRPG evoked cultural memories. The second research question concerned performativity and asked whether the learners performed and created alternative realities.

Concerning the first research question, it was determined that cultural memories were evoked and juxtaposed into the missions of the CRPG. In regards to the second research question, it was determined that learners did in fact engage in discourse where they tried to steer the narrative into their own preferred directions.

After conducting this research, there are still innumerable things left to be explored. First, the data could be examined to determine if subjectivities and reframing — the two other aspects of symbolic competence — can be discerned. Also, the data could be reconsidered using Kramsch's (2011) notions of symbolic representation, symbolic action, and symbolic power. In addition, the ways in which learners' development of fluency, accuracy, and complexity change over time while using CRPGs should be studied.

References

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012). *ACTFL proficiency guidelines 2012*. Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/

Blommaert, J. (2005). *Discourse: A critical introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, D. (2014). Imagined selves in imagined worlds: Identity and power in negotiated communities. *Issues in EFL, 10*(2), 20-28.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 1-47.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative

language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.). *Language and communication*. New York: Longman.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA research. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*(3), 285-300.

Hammer, J. (2008). Agency and authority in role-playing "texts". In M. Knobel & C. Lankshear (Eds.), A new literacies sampler (pp. 67-94). New York: Peter Lang Publishing.

Hult, F. (2014). Covert bilingualism and symbolic competence: Analytical reflections on negotiating insider/outsider positionality in Swedish speech situations. *Applied Linguistics, 35*(1), 63-81.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-283). Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin Books.

Kramsch, C. (2006). From communicative competence to symbolic competence. *The Modern Language Journal, 90*(2), 249-252.

Kramsch, C., & Whiteside, A. (2008). Language ecology in multilingual settings. Towards a theory of symbolic competence. *Applied Linguistic, 29*(4), 645-671.

Kramsch, C. (2011). Symbolic dimensions of the intercultural. *Language Teaching, 40*(3), 354-367.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997). Chaos/complexity science and second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 18*(2), 141-165.

Savignon, S. J. (1976). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice*.

van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning. A sociocultural perspective.* Dordecht: Kluwer Academic.

Wei, L. (2013). Negotiating funds of knowledge and symbolic competence in the complementary school classrooms. *Language and Education, 28*(2), 161-180.

Appendix A

Transcription Conventions

1. Participant's initials are used for Ss real names (e.g., BY, JH, BR).
2. XXX is used to indicate speech that could not be deciphered.
3. Italicized *XXX* is used whenever the participants used their L1.
4. Underlined text indicates overlapping speech.
5. Backchannels and simple expressions (e.g., 'mm', 'ah' and 'oh') were not transcribed in all circumstances;
6. however, repeated words and phrases were transcribed across all iterations.

Social Networking Platforms and Their Potential to Aid in the Development of L2 Writing Skills

Michael McCauley

Teaching Writing

1. Introduction

Since the introduction of the personal computer in the late 1970s, the rapid expansion of computer technology into non-pedagogical functions has forced practitioners in the field of CALL (computer-assisted language learning) to continually make use of technological advances that were originated for some purpose other than education (Hanson-Smith, 2003), and similar strategies have been adopted in the overlapping fields of ICT (information and communications technology) and CMC (computer-mediated communication). With the emergence and widespread adoption of web-based social networking as we know it today, this trend of creatively co-opting existing tools for pedagogical purposes has grown to include social networking platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, blogs, and other online services that collectively form what is now known as *Web 2.0.* This internet technology pervades nearly every aspect of students' lives and, as a result, teachers are now turning their attention towards interactive tools and media platforms that demand learners be actively engaged in reading and writing (Safieddine, 2014).

Web 2.0 is slowly making its way into foreign language writing classrooms, and with good reason; the internet is not only interactive and dynamic, but it also has the important characteristics of being participatory, authentic, immediate, and socially engaging (Antenos-Conforti, 2009, as cited in Kim, Park, & Baek, 2011). In addition, Web 2.0 provides students with a means of writing collaboratively with each other as well as with teachers which, according to Storch (2011), encourages students to reflect on their use of language as they are using it. Also, unlike many traditional classroom writing exercises, writing online automatically provides both an authentic audience and easy access to authentic texts which may be used in the learning process (Suthiwartnarueput & Wasanasomsithi, 2012). Alexander (2006) sees Web 2.0 as an alternative platform for peer editing which fosters ownership of what is written and a sense of writer autonomy (Tsui & Ng, 2000), and Saffiedine (2014) believes that Web 2.0 also forces students to seriously consider the audience when writing online, and that such awareness will result in focusing students' attention on meaning as they attempt to compose their thoughts clearly. Writing on a blog or in a social networking environment also has the added effect of giving students a "sense of voice" as they participate and interact with a community

of English writers (Sollars, 2007).

This paper will examine the usage of Web 2.0 as a teaching tool for writing students from several perspectives. The pedagogical merits of Facebook, Twitter, and blogs for L2 writing instruction will be discussed, and student attitudes towards social networking and blogging in the L2 context will also be addressed along with potential drawbacks.

2. Facebook

With over 1.4 billion users worldwide (Facebook, 2015), Facebook.com is by far the largest social networking platform in the world (Bennett, 2014) and is designed for users to share their personal experiences and views with a closed social circle of individuals who, typically, are personally known to the user. Users are able to create a personal profile which consists of a profile photo and basic personal information such as name, location, and place of employment and, through this profile, users connect with Facebook "friends" who are often real-life friends or acquaintances. Interaction between users can take a variety forms such as sending private messages, sharing personal "status" updates, sharing and commenting on pictures, news articles, and other items of interest, and there is also the option of "liking" individual posts by friends or Facebook pages that reflect personal interests.

Reid (2011) argues that Facebook, with its focus on social interaction, is a "literacy practice" which is governed by a set of unspoken values such as relationship building, brevity, negotiation of identity, and immediacy, all of which lend themselves in various ways towards making writing on the social network enjoyable and meaningful. Blattner and

Fiori (2009) add that students' affective learning and motivation are positively impacted when they engage with other learners in a community setting, and Limbu (2011) posits that the use of Facebook in writing classes is aided by the inherently user-centered nature of the social network and that students are able to respond to each other rapidly thanks to Facebook's widespread availability across various devices. In the process of making these and other claims, many researchers have turned to Facebook Groups, one of the service's more prominent features which allows an individual to create a page for interacting with the public or with invited members only. Through this feature students and teachers can write, post photos, share external content found elsewhere on the web, and "like" or comment on each other's posts. For these reasons, along with the privacy afforded to students who may not want their personal Facebook profiles "invaded" by teachers and classmates, Facebook Groups have been the testing ground for numerous studies involving collaborative writing exercises between adult English language learners.

Shukor and Noordin (2014) investigated the differences between writing collaboratively in a face-to-face L2 setting versus collaborating with fellow student writers via Facebook Groups. 33 undergraduate ESL students at Universiti Putra Malaysia were tested, divided into pairs with higher scoring students being paired with those who achieved lower scores, and then taught by the study's author (Shukor) over the course of two meetings. Following this instruction, collaborative writing activities were spread out over a six week period, and then a post-test was administered. The comparison group, who did their writing activities face-

to-face, showed significant improvement in overall performance as well as three of the five components of Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) ESL Composition Profile, those areas of improvement being content, organization, and vocabulary. No significant improvement was shown in the areas of language use and mechanics. However, the treatment group, who used the Facebook group designated for this study, showed similarly significant improvement in overall performance as well as all five components of the ESL Composition Profile including language use and mechanics, thus indicating that the use of the Facebook group did indeed enhance the students' writing performance after instruction had been provided. Shukor and Noordin (2014) note that the comment feature made the process of learning "more easy and fun" for students, also speculating that using Facebook can help students connect formal classroom writing activities with meaningful communication outside of class (p. 96).

These results dovetail with a similar study that was conducted with 83 Thai university students who were encouraged to use the social networking platform to post questions, leave messages, and chat with the teacher and each other (Suthiwartnarueput & Wasanasomsithi, 2012). Pre- and post-test results led to the conclusion that grammatical and writing competence improved as a result of the functions of Facebook that afford students the ability to "discuss, negotiate, collaborate, and share their thoughts with the teacher" (p. 208) as well as friends and other Facebook users.

Shih (2011) conducted peer review exercises through Facebook and found that students improved in several aspects of writing including organization, grammar, vocabulary, and spelling. Shih also echoes Shukor and Noordin's (2014) claim that Facebook's features make learning more enjoyable, and credits the social network's popularity and accessibility with increasing student motivation.

Although research on Facebook's viability as a pedagogical tool is not necessarily uniform in goals and results, there seems to be universal agreement that Facebook helps students improve their language skills "reflectively and collaboratively" (Aydin, 2014, p. 70) and that the peer interaction makes it an enjoyable experience overall. Erdmann (2013) punctuates this student enthusiasm with the observation that students' interest in integrating Facebook into L2 classrooms may be an indication of their level of dissatisfaction with traditional classroom learning alone and, if true, this view could likely be applied to the integration of other forms of Web 2.0 as well.

3. Twitter

Facebook's various features and technology favor writing forms that are generally shorter than those found in classrooms, but there is no limit imposed on the length of content that users create. Twitter, on the other hand, does impose a limit of 140 characters on anything that is written in what has been termed a *tweet*. Tweets are user responses to Twitter's signature question of "What's happening?" and are used for any number of purposes that could include telling others what is actually happening in one's life at any given moment, sharing interesting web content, giving or asking for information, or expressing personal views and opinions. Unlike on Facebook, content posted to

Twitter is typically available to anyone who wants to see it and there is no underlying need to have a real-world connection with others. Users simply "follow" Twitter accounts they find interesting or useful without needing permission from the account's owner to do so, and tweets from followed accounts appear in reverse chronological order on the user's Twitter home page. In addition to the "feature" of forced brevity, Twitter offers a number of functions that help users interact and stay connected with one another such as the ability to address tweets directly to others, send direct messages that only the recipient can see, and mark tweets as "favorites" so that they can easily be referenced at a later date.

So widespread is Twitter usage that it is now considered synonymous with *microblogging*. Borau, Ullrich, Feng, and Shen (2009) posit that using Twitter's "short turn" post format (the *tweet*) provides students "a huge advantage" over long turn formats (such as discussion boards and, by extension, full-featured blogs) in that short turns are, by nature, far simpler and can be produced more quickly. According to Swain's output theory (1985, as cited in Craig, 2012), noticing, hypothesis testing, and metalinguistic function are the three functions of output in second language acquisition and Craig (2012) argues that Twitter's short turn format serves all three; Twitter's short turn tweets enhance noticing as a result of the focused text form, hypothesis testing follows as the writer considers and possibly edits the language produced before broadcasting it to other Twitter users, and metalinguistic function is executed upon receiving feedback whereupon the writer can decide if the hypothesis testing was successful.

In keeping with Craig's (2012) view, Hattem (2012) studied the use of Twitter in structured grammatical tasks through the lens of Schmidt's (1992) noticing hypothesis in which "noticing" must occur in order for input to be converted into acquired knowledge (as cited in Hattem, 2012). 49 high-advanced ESL students participated in the study where Hattem would use the Twitter "favorite" function to let students know that a certain tweet by a student was correctly written; marking a tweet as a favorite would cause the writer to receive a notification of the action, thus increasing the likelihood of the example being noticed. Incorrectly written tweets were responded to with corrective feedback that would be directed to the student who originally wrote the tweet and would be visible to others as well. Hattem found that the vast majority of students did, in fact, notice form, vocabulary, and structure in both their own and other students' tweets, citing students' keen awareness of their audience as the cause of increased noticing of output, thus supporting Saffiedine's (2014) view of the audience's role in L2 writing via Web 2.0. Also significant is the students' "high percentage of uptake" following corrective feedback and their own belief that their output resulted in "proceduralization and memorization of new forms and...errors" (p. 57, 60).

Kim et al. (2011) worked with Korean students in grades 5, 7, and 11 who also showed signs of writing improvement via Twitter that are consistent with Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. Swain (2000) argues that, through speaking or writing, learners can "stretch their interlanguage to meet communicative goals" (p. 99) and various subjects within Kim et al.'s (2011) study did just that through noticing their own errors and self-correcting over time.

The observation that "it (was) undeniable" (p. 131) that low proficiency learners also noticed and self-corrected supports this study's claim that students who use Twitter actively draw from what they have learned either in class or through self-study facilitated through microblogging. Furthermore, lending support to the connection that Erdmann (2013) has drawn between students' apparent dissatisfaction with traditional learning and their willingness to embrace social networking as a classroom tool, Kim et al. (2011) also speculate that students may prefer using Twitter for learning. Grosseck and Holotescu (2008), in their evaluation of Twitter for educational purposes, agree, stating that "(Twitter) promotes writing as a fun activity (and) fosters editing skills."

Grosseck and Holotescu (2008) and Ilonasbonia and Syafei (2013) both support Craig's (2012) and Hattem's (2012) view that Twitter's 140 character limit focuses attention on form; also supported in Grosseck and Holotescu's evaluation is Hattem's claim of improved retention and the near-universal agreement that, as a Web 2.0 learning tool, collaborative writing is also facilitated. A recurring theme throughout much of the limited research that has been undertaken with regards to Twitter and writing is the overall benefit of the type of output that is being produced and, based on the encouraging results discussed in this paper, it would seem that further research is certainly warranted.

4. Blogs

Web logs, or *blogs*, as they have come to be known, offer users the opportunity to post articles on a personal website, typically in the form of personal diary entries with the most recent entries appearing at the top. Blogs differ from traditional classroom journal writing in that they offer students the possibility of a wide audience and it is common for entries to draw comments from outsiders (Jones, 2006). Ferdig and Trammell (2004) argue that blogs' usefulness as learning tools stems from the space they provide for student reflection as they publish their thoughts and ideas, and feedback in the form of comments is cited as a benefit as well. In addition, they also suggest that the possibility of an authentic audience may prompt students to pay greater attention to content and form, a notion also offered by Saffiedine (2014). Reflection is also mentioned by Richardson (2004) who states that blogging has "great value in terms of developing...critical thinking (and) writing skills" and that it gives students the opportunity to not only reflect on what they are writing but also to write about a single topic over an extended period of time, perhaps even a lifetime. Richardson also points to the relationship between author and audience, which is conspicuously absent in many traditional classrooms, and how that relationship could lead to further writing (as cited in Istifci, 2011). Galien and Bowcher (2010) add that blogs have the potential to be utilized in improving several aspects of language in addition to writing such as reading, listening, vocabulary, and grammar (as cited in Istifci, 2011).

Sun and Chang (2012) also found that blogs facilitate reflection and writing improvement in their study of seven graduate students at a university in Taiwan; the students were required to write a blog post at least once per week throughout the semester as part of a writing course and were also expected to comment on each other's blogs. The results of the study showed that the blog experience allowed the students to develop their academic

writing in several ways; building on prior knowledge and restating newly-learned knowledge improved their performance as academic writers. They recognized the need to expand their vocabulary in order to express themselves more accurately and, through commenting on each other's blogs, they engaged in a great deal of reflection which led to new discoveries about writing skills and their own language use. The students, who were "keenly aware of their relatively-novice status compared to native-English-speaking academic writers," (p. 54) were also shown to have developed a sense of authorship as academic writers with concrete beliefs about scholarly writing and confidence in themselves as researchers.

As with Twitter and Facebook, an authentic audience is a benefit that accompanies students' use of blogs as a learning tool. Jones (2006) found that students who blogged as part of a collaborative writing study were motivated by the presence of an authentic audience in both their writing and interactions with each other. The students "derived a sense of fulfillment from publishing for the public" (p. 246) and also enjoyed the commenting feature that blogging offers. As posited by Richardson (2004), students were eager to receive responses to their blog posts and, as a result, they wrote more and offered explanations for their writing (Jones, 2006). Jones also saw support for Saffiedine's (2014) assertion that students' writing could improve as a result of audience awareness (Jones, 2006) and that blogging aided collaboration, particularly for students who were ill at ease with face-to-face interactions with classmates. The students who participated in this collaborative writing study produced blog entries that served as models that enhanced critical thinking skills through the opportunity to

read, evaluate, and learn from their own work as well as the work produced by other students.

The findings of Jones (2006) and Sun and Chang (2012) are supported by Istifci's (2011) study of elementary school bloggers which saw similar results with regard to improved writing skills, reflective and critical thinking skills, and positive interactions with classmates. Overall, the benefits of blogging and Web 2.0 in general as outlined by Ferdig and Trammell (2004), Saffiedine (2014), Richardson (2004), and others are well documented despite the limited pool of research available; blogs offer opportunities for students to write for an authentic audience, improve writing skills and revise beliefs about writing and authorship through reflection, and engage with each other and possibly outsiders as well through commenting.

5. Student Attitudes Towards Using Social Networking Tools to Improve Writing

The integration of social media into second language classrooms is a relatively new trend and, as such, researchers are still exploring student attitudes regarding using such tools as a part of their education.

Shukor & Noordin (2014) did not collect data on student perceptions of their use of Facebook groups, but a study of attitudes and perceptions towards using Facebook as a tool to improve writing received mixed results from a group of 42 students at Irbid University College, Al-Balqa' Applied University in Jordan. Students overwhelmingly agreed that using Facebook groups was beneficial in aiding the writing process (Bani-Hani, Al-Sobh, & Abu-Melhim, 2014). Yunus, Salehi, and Chenzi (2011) found nearly identical results

in a similar study where Malaysian university TESL students used Facebook groups to enhance their writing capabilities. Near-uniform acceptance of Facebook was also found in the Jordanian participants with regards to affect, but, in an interesting twist, nearly half of the participants said they prefer a traditional classroom setting (Bani-Hani et al., 2014). Yunus et al. (2011) did not collect this data in their Malaysian study.

Jones (2006) found that her student bloggers had generally positive feelings with only one student expressing an overtly negative opinion of using technology in learning. This one dissenter, however, did acknowledge the value of the interactivity by saying, "I actually like editing on the others' papers...because you can learned different styles of how the way they writing, and get some ideas" (p. 153). Of the nine out of 16 students who participated in an end of semester survey, all but two had positive feelings about receiving critical feedback from their peers, giving comments such as "I love them because I learned a lot of things" and "I'm happy to know what's was wrong and correct the mistakes." Some students, however, also expressed a lack of trust in corrective feedback from classmates, instead preferring to receive corrections from the teacher (p. 140-142).

Hattem (2012) experienced similar success in his students' perception of using Twitter for pedagogical purposes. The vast majority showed enthusiasm for using microblogging as a grammatical learning tool with one student commenting, "I think that Twitter is a very important tool and it is helping me a lot to improve my grammar" and another demonstrating uptake of the "only if" grammar learned in class by tweeting, "Only if I practice what I learn here in twitter, will I be able to improve English skill" (p. 52). Nearly three quarters of the students either agreed or strongly agreed that the use of Twitter was a positive learning experience.

Despite its popularity in Hattem's study, however, Twitter was not well received by a group of 35 EFL learners at a Thai university. After participating in a study on student perceptions of the microblogging platform, over half of the students said they would not recommend it to the next year's students. The primary reasons were "access difficulties, usability issues, and the perceived lack of the technology's popularity in Thailand" (Lakarnchua & Wasanasomsithi, 2014, p. 334). In the midst of this rejection of Twitter as a learning platform, nearly 20% of the students volunteered Facebook as an alternative, suggesting that the rejection is not of technology itself but of the specific use of Twitter.

6. A Summary of Web 2.0 Benefits for Educational Purposes

Blogging as well as social networking via Facebook and Twitter are more popular than ever, and the features that make these online activities so enjoyable for the general public are the very same ones that benefit the learning process. Antenos-Conforti's (2009) observation that web-based activities are participatory, authentic, immediate, and socially engaging (as cited in Kim et al., 2011) is also a fair summary of the reasons that Web 2.0 works for learning. Jones (2006) refers to Vygotsky's zone of proximal development for its relevance to the social aspect of writing insofar as a student can be assisted by a more knowledgeable individual, and she also cites the Neo-Vygotskyian concept of

the joint construction of knowledge as one of the primary reasons that social learning environments benefit students. Blogs and social networks are built around social interaction, and joint construction of knowledge is the cornerstone of Web 2.0's success as a leisure activity and as an increasingly viable option as a pedagogical tool. The presence of an authentic audience has been shown to motivate students to write more carefully (Hattem, 2012) and commenting is of great benefit as it can lead to reflection (Sun & Chang, 2012) as well as increased writing output and motivation (Jones, 2006). These interactions not only benefit written competence (Suthiwartnarueput & Wasanasomsithi, 2012) but also help to make learning fun and enjoyable (Shukor and Noordin, 2014). Even the short turn format found in Twitter's 140 character limit offers great possibilities with regard to Swain's (1985) output hypothesis. Erdmann's (2013) position that students have become bored with traditional classroom learning is one that is difficult to deny, so it would seem prudent for teachers to at least consider and explore the possibilities that blogging and social networking offer.

7. Possible Drawbacks of Social Networking as a Pedagogical Tool

Three main drawbacks of social networking pedagogy have been identified by Yunus, Salehi, & Chenzi (2012). First and foremost is the potential for distractions, particularly on a website such as Facebook which offers a host of services including games, chat, email, and status updates from friends. The aforementioned Jordanian students echoed this concern when over 85% of them claimed that such features are distracting for them (Bani-Hani et al., 2014). Another

potential pitfall of social networking is the use of "informal short forms" that typify mobile communications through which social networking services are often accessed. For example, "you" might be shortened to "u," "easy" becomes "ez," etc. A third concern is the almost universal adoption by online services of automatic spellchecking, a convenience that could be of detriment to students' abilities to spell properly in the future (Yunus et al., 2012).

8. Conclusion

It is widely agreed that students are best served when they have interaction, creative ideas, and an audience to aid them in their writing efforts (Chan & Yap, 2008), and the research involving social networking platforms has shown that they are quite suited to providing such an environment. Yunus, Norfin, Salehi, Embi, and Salehi (2013) astutely point out that "the current generation of students are different in terms of their creativity and self-discovery skills" and that traditional methods of teaching ESL writing invariably results in bored students (p. 4). Much of the research explored in this paper has been executed as part of a blended learning strategy in which traditional face-to-face classes are conducted in parallel with a self-study element where, as CALL is concerned, the student usually engages in some type of web-based activity (Chiappero, Massa, & Schander, 2013). As with most approaches to teaching and learning, it is rare that a strictly one-sided approach is ideal and I believe that EFL pedagogy is also subject to this rule; research indicates that social networking services can improve second language writing skills in a variety of ways, and I contend that a measured approach that balances in-class hours with online interaction is needed. Students, despite

some reservations, have shown that they are able and willing to leverage technology to improve their writing skills. Furthermore, services such as Facebook, Twitter, and blogs possess immense potential to facilitate this improvement and, if combined with a complementary classroom environment, writing skills across all phases have the possibility to see marked improvement. Although each online service might be best suited for different writing purposes, opportunities abound for students and teachers who are willing to embrace the promise that this ever-evolving technology holds.

9. References

Alexander, B. (2006). Web 2.0: A new wave of innovation for teaching and learning?. *Educause Review*, *41*(2), 32.

Antenos-Conforti, E. (2009). Microblogging on Twitter: Social networking in intermediate Italian classes. *The next generation: Social networking and online collaboration in foreign language learning*, 59-90.

Aydin, S. (2014). EFL writers' attitudes and perceptions toward E-portfolio use. *TechTrends*, *58*(2), 59-77.

Bani-Hani, N. A., Al-Sobh, M. A., & Abu-Melhim, A. R. H. (2014). Utilizing Facebook groups in teaching writing: Jordanian EFL students' perceptions and attitudes. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *4*(5), p27.

Blattner, G., & Fiori, M. (2009). Facebook in the language classroom: Promises and possibilities. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, *6*(1), 17-28.

Bennett, S., (2014). *The 10 biggest social networks worldwide.* Retrieved from http://www.adweek.com/socialtimes/largest-social-networks-worldwide/504044

Borau, K., Ullrich, C., Feng, J., & Shen, R. (2009). *Microblogging for language learning: Using twitter to train communicative and cultural competence. In Advances in Web Based Learning.* Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Chan, M. Y., & Yap, N. T. (2008). A framework for an online forum for a writing course. In *International e-Learning Conference 2008 (IEC2008), November 20-21, 2008*.

Chiappero, M. C., Massa, A., & Schander, C. E. (2013). 20 Computer and Internet mediated narrative construction in EFL. In *Roots & routes in language education: Bi-multi-plurilingualism, interculturality and identity Selected papers from the 38th FAAPI Conference* (p. 248).

Craig, D. (2012). Twitter for academic writing. Retrieved from http://www.danielcraig.com/2012/09/06/twitter-for-academic-writing-2/

Erdmann, S. (2013). Facebook goes to college; Recent research on educational uses of social networks. *Nordic Journal of Modern Language Methodology*, *2*(1).

Facebook (2015). *Company info*. Retrieved June 11, 2015 from: http://newsroom.fb.com/company-info/

Ferdig, R. E., & Trammell, K. D. (2004). Content delivery in the'Blogosphere'. *THE Journal (Technological Horizons In Education)*, *31*(7), 12.

Galien, P., & Bowcher, W. L. (2010). Using blogs in ESL/EFL teaching and teacher-training. *Asian EFL Journal*, *42*, 4-23.

Grosseck, G., & Holotescu, C. (2008, April). Can we use Twitter for educational activities. In *4th international scientific conference, eLearning and software for education, Bucharest, Romania*.

Hanson-Smith, E. (2003). A brief history of CALL theory. *CATESOL Journal*, *15*(1),

21-30.

Hattem, D. (2012). The practice of microblogging. *Journal of Second Language Teaching & Research*, *1*(2), 38-70.

Ilonasbonia, S. A., & Syafei, A. F. R. (2013). Using Twitter to teach writing for beginning level of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students. *Journal of English Language Teaching*, *1*(2), 318-322.

Istifci, I. (2011). Opinions of elementary level EFL learners on the use of weblogs. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, *12*(1), 212-222.

Jacobs, H.L., Zinkgraf, S. A., Wormuth, D. R., Hartfiel, V. F., & Hughey, J. B. (1981). *Testing ESL composition: A practical approach*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Jones, S. J. (2006). Blogging and ESL writing: A case study of how students responded to the use of weblogs as a pedagogical tool for the writing process approach in a community college ESL writing class. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas Libraries.

Kim, E. Y., Park, S. M., & Baek, S. H. (2011). Twitter and implications for its use in EFL learning. *Multimedia Assisted Language Learning*, *14*(2), 113-137.

Lakarnchua, O., & Wasanasomsithi, P. (2014). L2 Student Writers' Perceptions of Microblogging. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *11*(2), 327-340.

Limbu, M. (2011). Processing first-year college writing via Facebook pedagogy in linguistically and culturally diverse first-year composition classes. *Journal of International Students*, *1*(2).

Reid, J. (2011). "We don't Twitter, we Facebook": An alternative pedagogical space that enables critical practices in

relation to writing. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *10*(1), 58-80.

Richardson, W. (2004). Metablognition. Weblogg-Ed. Retrieved May 1, 2015.

Safieddine, Z. N. (2014). Interactive web 2.0 technology in L2 writing classrooms. *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education, 2(2)* 139-145.

Schmidt, R. (1992). Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *13*, 206-226.

Shih, R. C. (2011). Can Web 2.0 technology assist college students in learning English writing? Integrating Facebook and peer assessment with blended learning. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *27*(5), 829-845.

Shukor, S. S., & Noordin, N. (2014). Effects of Facebook collaborative writing groups on ESL undergraduates' writing performance. *International Journal of English Language Education*, *2*(2), 89.

Sollars, V. (2007). Writing experiences in a second/foreign language classroom: From theory to practice. In M. Camilleri, P. Ford, H. Leja & V. Sollars (Eds.), *Blogs: Web journal in language education* (pp. 15– 24). Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

Storch, N. (2011). Collaborative writing in L2 contexts: Processes, outcomes, and future directions. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *31*, 275-288.

Sun, Y. C., & Chang, Y. J. (2012). Blogging to learn: Becoming EFL academic writers through collaborative dialogues. *Language Learning & Technology*, *16*(1), 43-61.

Suthiwartnarueput, T., & Wasanasomsithi, P. (2012). Effects of using Facebook as a medium for discussions of English grammar and writing of low-intermediate EFL students. *Electronic*

Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, *9*(2), 194-214.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. *Input in second language acquisition*, *15*, 165-179.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*, *97*, 114.

Tsui, A. B., & Ng, M. (2000). Do secondary L2 writers benefit from peer comments?. *Journal of second language writing*, *9*(2), 147-170.

Yunus, M. M., Salehi, H. A. D. I., Sun, C. H., Yen, J. Y. P., & Li, L. K. S. (2011). Using facebook groups in teaching ESL writing. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Arts and Culture (ICAC11)* (Vol. 75).

Yunus, M. M., Salehi, H., & Chenzi, C. (2012). Integrating social networking tools into ESL writing classroom: Strengths and weaknesses. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(8), p42.

Yunus, M. M., Nordin, N., Salehi, H., Embi, M. A., & Salehi, Z. (2013). The use of information and communication technology (ICT) in teaching ESL writing skills. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(7), 1.

The Effects of Anxiety in the Foreign Language Classroom

Yejin Kim

Human Learning and Cognition

1. Introduction

It is common to feel anxiety when faced with a challenging situation. Learning something new, a job interview, the arrival of a new baby, preparing exams are situations where anxiety is common. In this paper, however, it will focus more on the effects of anxiety in the foreign language classroom.

Learning a new language is demanding for people. One of the factors that makes it feel demanding is the anxiety. Most language learners have experienced anxiety in the process of language learning. A number of students report that they feel anxious while learning a foreign language. The feeling of anxiety can arouse many problems in the acquisition and production of the language which affects their grades compared to their more relaxed peers (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). It suggests that language learning in an anxious environment may cause potential problems for language learners.

According to Swain (1985), in order to acquire a language, learners need to produce comprehensible output. Moreover, another important concept of Krashen's theory is the affective filter (Krashen, 1980). Krashen (1980) explained that if the affective filter, which is imaginary boundaries related to motivation to learning, goes up students may be too distracted to concentrate on learning from nervousness or stress. Based on these theories, we can notice that students can be motivated to learn languages in low anxiety classroom environments.

Much research has shown that anxiety affects students in foreign language classroom as well as other classrooms. However, the question remains: What factors cause anxiety in language learning? Although language teachers acknowledge the existence of foreign language anxiety in classroom and how it affects language learning, they barely attend to this issue. However, it is crucial to investigate the learner's perspective on language learning anxiety in order to figure out what factors make them feel anxiety. Hence, this paper will investigate factors that cause anxiety in foreign language classroom and suggestions for reducing foreign language anxiety. By understanding the causes and effects of language anxiety and their relationship between anxiety and achievement can guide for language teachers to develop the understanding of language learning.

2. Concept of anxiety

Anxiety is subjectively feeling nervousness which affects the individual's self-perception associated with behavior and learning. According to Spielberger (1983),

anxiety is a subjective feeling of tension, nervousness, apprehension, and worry associated with an autonomic nervous system. Abu-Rabia (2004) also states that anxiety is feeling fear, panic, and worry. It is the subjective unpleasant feelings of anticipated events, such as the feeling of certain death (Davison, 2008). Anxiety is not the same as fear, which is a response to a real or perceived immediate threat (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Horwitz et al. (1986) explained that anxiety is the subjective feelings, psycho-physiological symptoms, and behavioral responses of the anxious learner are essentially the same as for any specific anxiety. Aida (1994) suggests that students with anxiety of negative evaluation might become a passive learner in the classroom. Moreover, in the worst case, the students may skip lessons or classes in order to avoid anxiety situations, and thus they are left behind.

There are three different types of anxiety were defined; trait, state, and situational anxiety (Spielberger, 1983). Trait anxiety is that the feeling more anxious and more likely to become anxious regardless of situation. That is, anxiety is a part of their character or an aspect of a more serious disorder. On the other hand, state anxiety is those who are able to identify situations accurately as being threatening or not reasonable limits and a social type of anxiety that occurs under certain conditions. For example, a person may not be anxious normally but becomes so anxious when he or she is asked to make a presentation in front of many people. Sometimes symptoms occur before we know situation such as an exam, air travel, concert performance, etc. which make people feel nervous and anxious. This is called situational anxiety.

2.1 Two models of anxiety: self-efficacy and expectancy-value

General theories of anxiety can be conceptualized with using two models: Pekrun's (1992) Expectancy- Value Theory of Anxiety (EVTA) and Bandura's (1991) theory of self-efficacy. Each model uses different types of appraisals to explain and predict anxiety reactions in individuals. According to these two models, concepts of worry and disturbance firstly relate to identifying of situations as threatening or not and to lead learners to make decisions for their efficacy in dealing with these situations (Katalin, 2006).

Pekrun's (1992) EVTA model combines situation-outcome expectancies and an individual development their ability to achieve an effective solution based on the beliefs and values. In terms of negative side, potentially harmful events which people cannot recognize themselves as effective mediators often produces anxiety. Similarly, Bandura's (1991) theory of self-efficacy postulates that the anxiety is dependent on an individual's perception of their ability to deal positively with that threats when a person perceives the specific situation as threatening. Bandura (1991) also argues that self-esteem can act as an alleviating factor for anxiety-producing situation. In a learning situation, when learners see the situation as threatening, it can have a negative effect on learning because people with higher anxiety often lead themselves to be in a state of divided attentional resources, so they are too distracted to concentrate and be successful in learning tasks (Eysenck, 1979). In other words, when students are constantly exposed to the environment with the threatening learning situation, they cannot fully concentrate on that task.

At the early stage of learning, students use many attentional resources for achieving basic tasks which they have not yet learned how to complete automatically (Schallert, 1991). Highly anxious learners are not able to automatize actions effectively because their attentional resources are distracted by task-irrelevant processing brought by high levels of anxiety. In addition to faced challenges, learners sometimes engage in self-deprecating behavior such as "I am not good at this" or "I can't do this" and self-focused thoughts that hamper feelings of high self-efficacy. These thoughts negatively affect a student's ability to use given learning opportunities, affecting students' ability to believe themselves as successful learners (Gibbons, 1991). Anxiety is a highly complicated concept and this concept depends on not only an individual's feelings of self-efficacy but also identifying the potential and perceived threats in certain situations. These assessments influence the process of completing tasks and it also can negatively affect the learning process which students are often not even aware of(Tobias, 1986).

Additionally, in terms of self-concept and identity, Guiora (1983) addressed that language learning can be extremely traumatic for some students because it threatens their sense of self and world view.

A risk of the language learning situation would lead language learners to perpetuate or stop their language acquisition. Hence, in general, anxiety can be associated with self-efficacy and appraisals of situations as threatening.

3. Correlation between anxiety and language learning

A feeling of nervousness and anxiousness connected with language learning is termed as language anxiety (LA) (Awan, Azher, Anwar, & Naz, 2010). Na (2007) asserts that high anxiety tends to make learners get discouraged, lose faith in their abilities, avoid from participating in classroom, and do not make an effort to learn a language well. Therefore, the learners with high anxiety often get low achievement and low achievement makes them feel more anxious about learning. Foreign language anxiety can be associated with three factors; a fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and communication apprehension. In specific situations such as language learning, negative evaluation, test anxiety, communication apprehension, threats, etc. to individual's sense can decrease self-efficacy and increase the possibility that learning foreign language situation will be recognized as threatening for them.

Item. No	Causes	F	% age	Category of anxiety
2	Speaking in front of others	84	55.3	Output
5	Worried about grammatical mistakes	71	46.7	Processing
11	Could not respond quickly or smoothly	69	45.4	Output
3	Worried about pronunciation	66	43.4	Output
8	Embarrassed to use simple or broken English	54	35.5	Processing
10	Worried if my English is understood or not	54	35.5	Output
14	Worried about one's ability level compared to others	53	34.9	Processing
13	Talking with unfamiliar classmates	46	30.3	Output
6	Did not know how to respond to the teacher's question	43	28.3	Processing
1	Did not know how to say something in English	42	27.6	Processing
17	Had no idea or opinion about the topic	42	27.6	Processing
4	Being called on by teacher and waiting one's turn	40	26.3	Input
20	Did not understand long written sentences	40	26.3	Input
12	Remained silent (mind went blank)	37	24.3	Processing
18	Misunderstood teacher's question	36	23.7	Input
7	Confused between English and Urdu	31	20.4	Processing
9	Did not understand teacher's question or comment	31	20.4	Input
19	Did not understand spoken English	29	19.1	Input
15	Did not understand other students	27	17.8	Input
16	Talking about personal affairs	24	15.8	Output

Table 1. Frequency and Percentage of Causes of LA as reported by the Students at each stage of Language Learning (Awan et al., 2010)

Awan et al. (2010) found that the anxiety-provoking experiences described by 55% of the students included speaking in the target language in front of others. Students are also worried about grammatical mistakes, pronunciation and being unable to respond quickly, and these factors are rated as the biggest causes of anxiety. It is also observed that students experienced difficulties when they learned and thought in a target language which is in the processing and output stage of learning. The least important causes of anxiety are related to understanding teachers' questions, and peers and teachers talk which is the input stage of learning. Their study explains that students feel anxious and experience fear of negative evaluation mainly related to saying something in the target language, but they are not as worried about the element of understanding teacher's question or peer and teacher's talk in the target language.

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) argue that people who feel confident in their native language can feel reduced confidence when they are asked to use their second language. Additionally, foreign language learners are often influenced by threats to their self-perception in the foreign language classroom environment.

Horwitz et al. (1986) conceptualized foreign language anxiety as the feeling of difficulties, worry, nervousness and apprehension experienced when learning or using a second or foreign language. These feelings may come from any second language context whether associated with the productive skills. They distinguish foreign language anxiety from communication apprehension which individuals who do not show communication apprehension in their native language will often show foreign language anxiety. It is more than communication apprehension to include a fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety.

4. The foreign language classroom environment

In a foreign language learning situation, simple tasks such as greeting and introducing oneself in English may turn into a needlessly complicated and frustrating endeavor for the foreign

language learners who are about to introduce themselves in front of a classroom full of native speakers or other learners of higher target language proficiency levels. This factor is especially evident in foreign language classroom group discussions in which learners of lower target language proficiency are grouped with higher-level learners. Thus, it causes zero output and willingness to communicate to be demonstrated by the lower-level learners because of their anxiety and fear of being judged by others based on their target language abilities.

As previously mentioned, according to Awan et al. (2010), the study shows that students feel anxious and experience fear of negative evaluation when it comes to saying something in the target language, but they are not much worried about the element of understanding others. The factors high in ranking are speaking in front of others, being unable to talk spontaneously, and worried about pronunciation. The reasons for this result could be that students feel anxious speaking in front of others and are worried about making mistakes. The existence of anxiety in the foreign language classrooms can be affected to classroom atmosphere. With respect to the high-rated anxiety factors, teachers need to generate more positive speaking experiences which make the students feel relaxed, motivated and confident rather than the anxiety-provoking experience which is negative one.

Piniel (2006) highlights the teacher's role as a potential key factor for alleviating students' language learning anxiety. He also directly points out specific events in the foreign language classroom that can raise anxiety. First of all, if the teacher does not clarify why the student is being corrected and the teacher does not give students positive feedback for what the students did well. Secondly, the fear of being corrected by the teacher for every mistake are made. Lastly, the teacher posing questions that students have not prepared for, and inappropriate pace of the lessons.

5. Anxiety in the Korean EFL classroom

Learning English as a Foreign Language has been a problematic area for Korean English language learners. Since English was taught as a required foreign language in secondary school after the Korean War in the 1950s, learning how to use English has become more and more important to Koreans. Since 1997, English has been integrated into the primary school curriculum in accordance with developments in information, technology, and globalization (Cho, 2004). Learning English is one of three major subjects, along with Korean and Mathematics in Korea. Since secondary school is widely considered to be an important stage for entering university, obtaining a high GPA is crucial. This tends to make students extremely exam-conscious, which leads them to feel anxious both in and outside of the classroom.

The educational system of Korea is a centralized bureaucracy in its emphasis on educational accomplishment, in its focus on the university entrance examination which administered by the state is mainly in a multiple-choice format where only one correct answer must be selected (Cho, 1995). Basically, middle schools are standardized, and there is no admissions examination to attend high school except for a few special high schools. That is, the entrance examination for the university is

the one and final battle ground for Korean students and it causes competence-based anxiety. Because of this English education system, English teachers tend to focus on the skills needed to answer the exam questions. Thus, many Korean teachers in secondary schools intensely focus only on reading and listening, while paying less attention to writing and speaking due to the university entrance examination (Cho, 2004).

In colleges, students invest much time and use energy in preparing for EFL examinations such as TOEIC, OPIc etc. which is necessary to qualify for company employment. Korean companies require applicants to submit an EFL test score report card and consider it an essential requirement before they have a job interview. Although the press Hankookilbo and Joongang Daily pointed out the significant discrepancy between the applicants' test scores and their English proficiency (2005; as cited in Choi, 2008), students still spend much more time studying EFL examinations for employment both in and outside school.

Additionally, Seipp and Schwarzer (1996) found that Korean students reported one of the highest test anxiety levels among 14 different nations. Also, Woodrow (2006) investigate the second language anxiety as a two-dimensional construct reflecting communication within the classroom and outside the classroom. She found that there was an indication from the study that English language learners from Korea was more anxious language learners than other ethnic groups such as European, Vietnamese etc. Reasons given for the results were authoritarian parenting and the high stakes examination system in Korea. Finally, another factor that we need to

consider is the high expectations of Korean parents and teachers for their children and students. Such high expectations usually do not encourage students and often result in more anxiety. Therefore, these affective factors and environment distract Korean students from language production as well as arouse anxiety in the classroom.

6. Reducing Foreign Language anxiety

Students with less anxiety tend to initiate their responses more quickly and to be correct more often (Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992). Feeling nervous or pressure in a learning situation leads learners to lack a free. Thus, teachers need to consider how to make relaxed environment for learning language.

We know that learners need to adopt attitudes and strategies that succeed in terms of low anxiety, high motivation, and ultimately in the ability to deliver information and communicate ideas and feelings. To discuss what we can do to reduce language anxiety, we must not only identify sources, but also recognize expressions of learners stress. Teachers' beliefs about language teaching are further source of language anxiety. According to Brandl (1987), the majority of the teachers considered a little bit of anxiety necessary and it is a supportive motivator for promoting students' performance. Additionally, most teachers considered their role in the language class to be less a counselor and friend and more authoritative in the student-teacher relationship. Teachers who believe their role is correcting students mistakes or errors whenever students make any error, who feel that they cannot have students working in pairs because the class may get out of control, who believe that the teacher should

be doing most of the talking and teaching, and who think their role is more like a trainer than a facilitator may be lead to learner language anxiety. At this point, therefore, teachers should be aware that the environment that the teacher sets up in the classroom can bring tremendous results for the learners.

The natural approach developed by Tracy Terrell and supported by Stephen Krashen, is a language teaching approach which asserts that language learning is a reproduction of the way humans naturally acquire their native language. There are some teaching and testing approaches have been found to be less anxiety producing for many students. For example, Young (1991) found that secondary language students preferred and felt more comfortable participating in oral activities in small groups rather than in front of the whole class, and Koch and Terrell (1991) found that even within Natural Approach classes which a language teaching method designed to reduce learners' anxiety learners were more comfortable participating in some activities, such as pair work and personalized discussions focus on communication-oriented.

As Young (1991) suggested, in order to reduce anxiety associated with classroom procedures, teachers can do more pair work, play more games, and design their activities to the affective needs of the learner. Group work addresses not only the affective concerns of the students, but also it increases the amount of student talk and comprehensible input and output. In the Natural Approach, there is a concern to reduce the learners' affective filter. This is done in several ways. In addition to group work, it is the personalized aspect of the Natural Approach that makes students feel more comfortable. Personalizing instruction include using pictures to present vocabulary and associating the vocabulary with students and bring objects in class, personalizing grammar, and pairing students to work with another student or other students. The Natural Approach also emphasizes listening comprehension and the first period where students do not have to speak in the foreign language. Krashen (1988) suggests that the best way to reduce language anxiety is to make the message so interesting that students do not recognize that it is in another language. According to Krashen (1988), when the teacher starts talking about something really important which can draw attention, students listen. In other words, if the context is more meaningful, it is easier to acquire the language.

7. Conclusion

The purpose of the paper was to see how anxiety affect students in Foreign Language classroom. Thus, this paper investigated several negative factors of anxiety in foreign language classroom. There are two models of anxiety which are self-efficacy and expectancy-value affect to learners' self-perception and learners with low self-efficacy and expectancy value can be hampered and be failure in learning tasks.

This paper has found that foreign language anxiety can be associated with a fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and communication apprehension factors. Foreign language learners may feel fear of receiving bad evaluation such as low test scores and speech in the target language in front of others. Some researchers found that most students are afraid of speaking a target language in the classroom due to grammatical mistakes, pronunciation and responding slowly and they feel fear of

being judged by others based on their target language abilities. Especially, in Korean EFL classroom, Woodrow (2006) found that Korean students feel more anxious in foreign language learning when compared to students from other countries because the educational system of Korea puts an emphasis on educational accomplishment, in its focus on the university entrance examination.

Consequently, the learners should know that making a mistake is not a matter of life and big problems and they are not the only people making mistakes in learning a foreign language. It is important to make students feel comfortable in the classroom in order to help them produce the language. Therefore, the paper suggested that the classroom environment should be quite friendly, encouraging and motivating for students to produce language with less anxiety. Also, Young (1991) suggested that work in small groups, do pair work, and personalized language instruction focus more on communication can reduce language anxiety.

In conclusion, a language teacher should endeavor to understand both learners' linguistic challenges and affective filter that can affect learning because language learners are not only learning new language but also learning life. Therefore, it is important for language teachers to be aware of the issues in terms of language learner's perspective.

References

Abu-Rabia, S. (2004). Teachers' role, learners' gender differences, and FL anxiety among seventh-grade students studying English as a FL. *Educational Psychology*, *24* (5), 711-721.

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Copes construct of foreign language anxiety - The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*, *78*(2), 155-168.

American Psychiatric Association (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (Fifth Ed.). Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric Publishing.

Awan, R.-u.-N., Azher, M., Anwar, M. N., & Naz, A. (2010). An investigation of foreign language classroom anxiety and its relationship with students' achievement. *Journal of Teaching & Learning*, *7*(11), 33-40.

Bandura, A. (1991). Self-efficacy conception of anxiety. In R. Schwarzer & R. A. Wicklund (Eds.), *Anxiety and self-focused attention*. (pp. 89-110). New York: Harwood Academic Publishers.

Bodas, J., & Ollendick, T. H. (2005). Test anxiety: A cross-cultural perspective. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, 8*(1), 65-88.

Brandl, K. (1987). Eclecticism in teaching communicative competence. *Master's thesis*, University of Texas.

Cho, B. E. (2004). Issues concerning Korean learners of English: English education in Korea and some common difficulties of Korean students. *The East Asian Learner*, *1*(2), 31-36.

Cho, H. (1995). Children in the examination war in South Korea: A cultural analysis. In S. Stephens (Ed.), *Children and the politics of culture* (pp. 141–168). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Choi, I.-C. (2008). The impact of EFL testing on EFL education in Korea. *Language Testing*, *25*(1), 39-62.

Davison, Gerald C. (2008). *Abnormal psychology*. Toronto: Veronica Visentin.

Duvernay, D. (2009). Motivation and anxiety in the Korean EFL. *Classroom Kling*, *3,* 1-20.

Eysenck, M. W. (1979). Anxiety, learning and memory: A reconceptualization. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *l3*, 363-385.

Gardner, R. C., Day, J. B., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). Integrative motivation, induced anxiety, and language learning in a controlled environment. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *14*, 197-214.

Gardner, R. C. & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study: Who says it isn't effective. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*, 57-72.

Gibbons, P. (1991). *Learning to learn in a second language*, Newtown, N.S.W.: Primary English Teaching Association.

Horwitz, E.K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a Foreign Language Anxiety Scale. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*, 559-562.

Horwitz, E.K. (1996). Student affective reactions and the teaching and learning of foreign languages. *International Journal of Educational Research, 23*(7). 573-579

Horwitz, E.K., Horwitz, M.B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125-132.

Horwitz, E. K., & Young, D. J. (1991). *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Jang, J. D. (2004). Korean EFL learners' anxiety levels and cross-cultural learner differences. *언어과학회, 28*, 257-274.

Katalin, P. (2006). Foreign language classroom anxiety: A classroom perspective. *Empirical Studies in English Applied Linguistics*, *39*, 38-58.

Na, Z. (2007). A study of high school students' English learning anxiety. *The Asian EFL Journal*, *9*(3), 22-34.

Pappamihiel, N. E. (2002). English as a second language students and English language anxiety: Issues in the mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *36*(3), 327-356.

Pekrun, R. (1992). The impact of emotions on learning and achievement: Towards a theory of cognitive/motivational mediators. *Applied Psychologies: An International Review*, *41*, 359-376.

Schallert, D. L. (1991). The contribution of psychology to teaching the language arts. In J. Flood, J. M.Jensen, D. Lapp, & J. R. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 30-39). New York: Macmillan.

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *RELC Journal*, *37*(3), 308–328

Young, J. D. (1991) Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, *75*, 426-439.

How to Provide Equal Speaking Opportunities for University Students in an English Speaking Class

Hyeyoung Kim, Yeonhee Sung, Sujung Kim

Practicum

1. Introduction

This action research was done with 27 students in the 'English in Action Speaking' class at Sookmyung Women's University for five weeks in 2015. It was a 110-minute-long class held twice a week, and each week focused on one specific language function such as giving descriptions or expressing opinions. To facilitate the main goal of increasing their English speaking proficiency we, as "big sisters," helped students improve their language performance through task-based learning. For better and more efficient results, we focused on providing students equal speaking opportunities throughout the whole class. To do this, each week we tried to provide our students with equal opportunities through different interventions and then carried out a survey on the effectiveness and acceptability of the interventions and the degree of students' participation. A self-reflection survey was also given. This action research suggested the need to take into account the relationship of theme and function dealt with in the class through the number of tasks, students' readiness before participating, and their personal characteristics as were relevant to their participation in the class.

2. Context of the Study

There were 26 undergraduate students and one graduate student ranging in age from 20 to 27. Out of those 27 students, more than half were seniors and the remainder was comprised of six juniors, three sophomores, and one freshman. The graduate student was in her last semester. Six of the students were international students from China, Cambodia, and Senegal. The students' majors were varied but most were majoring in English Literature (12 students) or TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language, eight students). Out of this group of students, seven participated in this study.

The name of the class was "English in Action Speaking" which was designed to be truly student-centered and focused on helping students build their global English speaking competence through interactive tasks. The whole class was planned around having students perform real-world tasks which were designed and arranged according to ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages)

proficiency guidelines. A needs analysis was conducted in survey form during the second week of the semester to get information about the students' interests and their backgrounds. According to the results of the student survey, the majority of the students had greater confidence in listening, reading, and speaking than in writing and grammar. In the same week of the student survey, they also took the first of three speaking assessments as a preliminary test. The test showed that students' speaking proficiency levels were distributed between intermediate mid to advanced high based on ACTFL proficiency guidelines. However, the majority of students' speaking abilities appeared to be between intermediate high and advanced low.

The class was led by 12 graduate students who were taking practicum courses as their final semester in the TESOL MA program. Three of these graduate students were designated 'big sisters' and the seven participating undergraduate students were called 'little sisters.' Each big sister led a group of two or three little sisters. The main role of the big sisters was to be facilitators who would help and guide their little sisters in improving their English speaking skills and, at the same time, encouraging them to enjoy the class. Big sisters also took turns each week teaching the whole class under the supervision of their practicum professor.

3. Problem Areas

One of the main goals of this English in Action Speaking class was to give the students an opportunity to develop skills and strategies for increasing their global speaking proficiency in English. We, as group leaders and facilitators, had the responsibility of helping all students,

including reticent and dominant, to have regular speaking opportunities in speaking activities. However, we became concerned that at least one student in each group in the class seemed to have fewer speaking opportunities, possibly due to their lack of speaking proficiency or their own personality traits. According to our observations, students who were silent, shy, and inactive needed more chances to speak during their group work. It was also seen that more active students seemed to be bored while a reticent student was speaking, so they sometimes interrupted by jumping in the middle of the reticent student's speaking opportunity.

The big sisters who observed this situation wrote about it on the reflection board where we shared various aspects of previous lessons. For example, one of them mentioned that "There is H (the student's initial) whose speaking level is noticeably lower than other two little sisters in my group. As a result, H could get less chance to speak out." Moreover, other classmates had similar concerns, stating that "my little sisters are in different speaking level... I felt that I have to think about my own strategies to make my sisters participate in the class more actively." It was also remarked that "it (was) also hard for me to handle with multi-level students," and "our group had a same problem because one of my little sister's speaking ability is lower than others." Since this English in Action Speaking class focused on Task-Based Learning (TBL), students needed to be actively engaged in order to complete their tasks successfully. However, those reticent students seemed to feel more pressure so they often hesitated to speak their minds. As a matter of fact, students who spoke a lot tended to share their ideas and opinions among only themselves, excluding the

more quiet students. Students were expected to take responsibility for their own learning by speaking as well as listening, but reticent students seemed uncomfortable with their role in the observed classes. One of the reticent students said she did not feel like speaking during tasks because other students in her group seemed to speak much better than her.

These findings from the class observations convinced us to create effective strategies to provide fair speaking opportunities for all members in each group and consequently in the class as a whole. It was important for us to consider that taking advantage of opportunities to practice speaking in class leads to language development as well as students' successful learning experiences. Such participation is meaningful and helps to maximize the benefits of providing fair speaking opportunities to all students. Therefore, the goal of our action research was to explore whether the interventions that we used during group work would be effective for providing equal speaking opportunities. We expected to see, at the end of the class, not only dominant but also reticent students being more involved in communicative and interactive task-based learning with the assistance of the big sisters.

4. Research Question

How can we provide equal speaking opportunities for university students in an English speaking class?

5. Interventions

Task-based activities in second language classes may provide opportunities for students to integrate their linguistic and cognitive competence in their language learning process (Riggenbach, 1999).

Through this process, students can more actively produce what they have learned if they are responsible for contributing to the content of the class (Slimani & Block, as cited in Riggenbach, 1999). This implies that providing fair opportunities for practicing the target language to all the students in the class can be crucial in second language teaching because active participation in task-based activities gives students more chances to practice and produce the second language. Because we were focused on task-based instruction, the tasks in the English in Action Speaking class generally consisted of group work. However, one of the primary reasons for low achievement in second language can be that students do not have enough opportunities to practice the target language (Long & Porter, 1985). In consideration of this, Long and Porter proposed that group work in second language learning classes may allow students to have increased opportunities for language practice. In other words, the group work may bring about interactive language use because students can be required to interact in order to complete the task. However, if there is reticence or dominance in speaking tasks, the group dynamic may not work well and then some students may not see second language development due to uneven opportunities for practicing the target language. Since we discovered some unfairness in speaking opportunities in the English in Action Speaking class when the students were performing the tasks in groups, we planned our interventions to provide the students with fair speaking opportunities to get all the students engaged so as to improve their second language acquisition.

The background reason for setting these interventions is that Tsui (1996) found that

the unequal allocation of speaking turns can be caused by teachers. Therefore it may imply that we as big sisters may take action to allocate fair speaking turns for students in the speaking class when they perform tasks. Taking this into consideration, the five interventions outlined below were implemented by teachers and big sisters during the five week class.

1. Helping the quieter students by asking more questions to elicit their opinions (Bailey, 2005)
2. Giving them a chance to speak first and pointing out the next speaker by turns (Bailey, 2005)
3. Letting the students write down their ideas first and then speak in pairs/groups (Bailey, 2005)
4. Pointing to a student who is going to speak
5. After a student finishes speaking, having the student ask a question to another student who hadn't yet spoken a lot

The interventions (a) through (c) were taken from Bailey's suggestions. The reason for the first intervention is that we expected the quieter students to speak more during performing tasks through teacher-initiated questions. The rationale for the second intervention is that it may prevent disruptions by more dominant students of quieter students' speaking turns. Regarding this, it can be expected that the second intervention may guarantee the quieter students the certainty of having speaking opportunities. The third intervention is related to the students' learning styles such as reflective (reticent) learners and impulsive (dominant) learners. We not only expected that the step of letting the students write down their ideas first and then speak in pairs/groups could give the reflective

learners time to plan what they wanted to say, it could also reduce their anxiety and encourage them to speak more during the class. The fourth intervention is a teacher-centered method which is opposite to the second intervention. We thought that having the teacher point to the speaker could be a way to manage the dominant learners who speak more than others and also limit their unexpected interruptions more effectively. The last intervention was derived from the second intervention through having a student ask a question to another student rather than just pointing out the student. Through having a student ask a question, both students may ask and answer the question and thus they would have equal speaking opportunities. In addition, we expected that the conversation would flow smoothly in the end.

6. Data Collection

For the quantitative and qualitative data of our action research, three kinds of data were collected from major stakeholders: big sisters who were in charge of this action research and their little sisters. Verbal consent was obtained from all seven little sisters before conducting the student survey. Data was collected in the following formats during the intervention period:

1. Student survey (7 little sisters)
2. Observation checklists (3 big sisters)
3. Reflection notes (3 big sisters)

6.1 Student survey

In order to see how students perceived different types of interventions that we provided for equal speaking opportunities, we implemented a student survey (see Appendix C) for all little sisters in each

group from our Action Research team. Students did the survey every Thursday after class during the five week intervention period. The first question of the survey asked whether their group had equal speaking opportunities through the week's intervention that their big sister provided. For the second question, we asked the students how they felt when receiving a speaking opportunity from their big sister. The last question in the student survey asked whether they felt they had received enough speaking opportunities. We used these survey results as our quantitative data and examined how they perceived having equal speaking opportunities from the five different interventions.

6.2 Observation checklist

The big sisters who were in charge of this Action Research also did an observation checklist (see Appendix D) to see how they ran the interventions with their little sisters in their groups. This observation checklist was filled in every Thursday after class as the little sisters did their surveys. The observation checklist addressed four aspects of the class which were whether the big sisters accomplished the interventions, how their little sisters accepted them, how much their little sisters participated, and whether they had equal speaking opportunities when they were performing tasks.

6.3 Reflection notes

In order to triangulate our data, we also used the big sisters' weekly reflections as observation data to gauge the effectiveness of each intervention and how they actually worked during the class. This qualitative data enabled us to see what was actually happening during the interventions and assess not only the effectiveness but also

any negative impacts and other unexpected situations.

7. Findings & Analysis of Data

7.1 Little sisters' survey analysis

From the results, we can see that students thought they had the most equal speaking opportunities from the 1st intervention of receiving more questions to elicit their opinions. Meanwhile, they felt they had the least opportunity from the last intervention of asking a question to another student who hadn't spoken a lot. Regarding their comfort levels during the interventions, students felt the most comfortable when they had more questions from us (week 6) whereas they were the most uncomfortable when they were pointed to as the speaker during the tasks (week 10). As for participation, it is shown that letting students write down their ideas before speaking (week 9) was the most effective in encouraging their involvement, but giving the quieter students a chance to speak first and having them point to the next speaker (week 7) was not helpful in promoting their participation in the task.

7.2 Big sisters' observation checklist analysis

Interventions	
Week 6	Helping the quieter students by asking more questions to elicit their opinions (Bailey, 2005)
Week 7	Giving them a chance to speak first and pointing out the next speaker by turns (Bailey, 2005)
Week 9	Letting the students write down their ideas first and then speak in pairs/groups

	(Bailey, 2005)
Week 10	Pointing to a student who is going to speak
Week 11	After a student finishes speaking, having the student ask a question to another student who hadn't yet spoken a lot

For the first statement of whether the intervention was completed successfully, 'giving them a chance to speak first and pointing out the next speaker by turns' and 'pointing to a student who is going to speak' were the most effective in implementing the interventions to provide students with equal speaking opportunities. However, having students ask a question to another student who hadn't spoken was the least effective intervention. Regarding the big sisters' perception of the little sisters' participation in the tasks, the week 6 intervention of 'helping the quieter students by asking more questions to elicit their opinions' was the best for getting students to actively participate in the class, but the week 9 and week 11 interventions were the least effective for participation. With respect to the big sisters' perceptions of little sisters' equal speaking opportunities when they were performing tasks, the week 10 intervention, which was pointing to a student who was going to speak, was the most successful. Week 7 and week 9 interventions were the least successful. With regard to the big sisters' perceptions of the little sisters' comfort level with the interventions, the week 6 intervention, which was 'helping the quieter students by asking more questions to elicit their opinions,' was the most effective. The week 9 and week 11 interventions were the least useful in making students feel comfortable.

7.3 Outcomes of the action research

Among the five interventions, the most effective interventions for providing equal speaking opportunities were the first and the fourth interventions which were 'helping the quieter students by asking more questions to elicit their opinions' and 'pointing to a student who is going to speak.' After conducting these two interventions, both little sisters and big sisters generally felt that the students could have equal speaking opportunities with comfort on the whole and, thus, they generally seemed to be well engaged in the tasks. The reason these interventions showed positive results may be that Korean students are accustomed to being asked or pointed out to speak by a teacher in the class, and they may feel that teachers can control the equal speaking opportunities well. In this respect, the interventions can generally be effective in providing students with equal speaking opportunities. In the fourth intervention, however, teachers should consider whether the students are ready to speak because, even though we try to elicit their speaking through pointing them out, some students may not be ready to do so.

On the other hand, the second and the fifth interventions, 'giving them a chance to speak first and pointing out the next speaker by turns' and 'after a student finishes speaking, having the student ask a question to another student,' were not so effective for providing equal speaking opportunities in general. This could be because students seemed to feel that these interventions were not natural for them because they were less comfortable with asking other students to speak. From this, we found that it can be better to have them ask a question whenever they want to

instead of requiring them to ask a question to someone.

7.4 Overall reflection and discussion of the interventions

Through the five interventions, we found two considerations which are the impact of the themes and functions on students' comfort in speaking and participating which can affect their speaking opportunities, and the influence of the students' unique characteristics on their speaking such as content knowledge or readiness to speak. First, the overall result of the interventions showed that themes and functions can affect the implementation of the interventions and students' comfort with speaking and participating which, in turn, may affect their speaking opportunities. The first intervention and the fourth intervention started with the big sisters asking more questions to a quieter student or pointing to the student. However, the results of the two interventions for students' comfort were different. When we implemented the first intervention, the function of the week was description of a personal routine and the theme was dating which is generally familiar to the students. On the contrary, the function of week 10 was abstract description which may have been more challenging for the students because they had to describe graphs or charts, a task which may not be as familiar as describing their personal routine. Thus, even though the interventions in both weeks were started by the big sisters in a similar way, the students showed different reactions to the interventions. The big sisters also had similar thoughts on this issue when they compared the two.

Regarding the effects of the theme on participation, although week 7 and week 11 interventions were similar in terms of

having students point to or ask other students to speak, the effects on participation were different. It can also be assumed that the different themes affected participation because the theme of week 7 was jobs and careers and the theme of week 11 was movies. From this, it can be surmised that the familiarity of the themes may have affected the participation in speaking class in spite of implementing similar interventions for speaking opportunities. Considering these different results for comfort and participation, we realized that the themes and functions may have influenced students' comfort levels with speaking and we should consider those situations in the future when implementing such interventions.

Second, we discovered that we should consider the students' individual characteristics. In other words, it would be better if we consider whether they have enough content knowledge for the topic and whether they are ready to speak before asking them to do so. That is because, when we implemented the interventions, even though we tried to elicit more speaking opportunities sometimes students were not ready to speak. In consideration of this we realized that, before implementing the interventions to get students to speak during class, we should consider whether or not students have enough content knowledge and their readiness for speaking.

Having implemented all five interventions, we would like to suggest two points. First, teachers should consider that the interventions can be affected by the themes and functions of class elements. Thus, teachers need to employ appropriate interventions flexibly considering the different themes and functions of the class. Second, teachers should also consider the

students' personal characteristics because, even though the interventions (the first and the fourth) which were initiated by the big sisters' questions were generally effective, sometimes students were not ready to speak. In this context, the third intervention which was 'letting the students write down their ideas first and then speak in pairs/groups' can be considered a means of compensating for the situation because we found from our reflection notes that students can make use of ideas from writing as a source for their speaking. Again, it is also worth noting that having students ask other students to speak may not be natural for them.

7.4.1 Little sisters' perceptions on the effectiveness of equal speaking opportunities

According to the survey results, students thought that their group members had equal speaking opportunities, especially when the quieter students were asked more questions by their big sisters as well as when their big sisters pointed out a student who was asked to speak. Here, we see that the common aspect between these interventions is that they were initiated by the big sisters. Through asking more questions and pointing out the speaker by big sisters, it is assumed that through those two interventions the big sisters could manage the dominant students who spoke more than others and finally the quieter students could speak more during performing tasks. As a result, we can see the connection with what Tsui (1996) found in her study. According to Tsui, teachers need to allocate student turns for equal learning, and the uneven allocation of turns is seen by the teachers as depriving some students of the opportunity to practice the target language. On the contrary, the little sisters thought that their group members were unable to get equal speaking opportunities from the

intervention of having them ask a question to another student who hadn't spoken a lot. This can be seen as students not being accustomed to initiating questions but are accustomed to being asked or pointed out to speak by a teacher in the class. This phenomenon is also evident in other research in which Tsui (1985) studied two ESL classrooms and found there were almost no instances where the students initiated questions. Wu (1991) analyzed four ESL lessons in Hong Kong secondary schools, and his observations were very similar to Tsui's in that almost no student took the initiative to seek clarification or check for confirmation from the teacher, and there was almost not a single learner's question.

Overall, the little sisters were comfortable with receiving speaking opportunities from the five interventions that we implemented. Based on the results of their surveys, they were more comfortable when their big sisters helped the quieter students by asking more questions to allocate equal speaking opportunities. However, they were less comfortable when their big sisters pointed out a student who was to speak. Here, we find it interesting that the little sisters seemed to think that, even though it was one of the most effective interventions for equal speaking opportunities to be pointed out as a speaker, it was simultaneously the least comfortable to them. Pointing out a student to speak can be regarded as forcing them to speak even when they are not ready. According to Tsui (1996), this may create a great deal of anxiety for students who are still learning the target language because it is often impossible to produce an immediate response in the target language. They might need more time to process the question and formulate the answer using the target language.

Nevertheless, the majority of our little sisters thought they fully participated in the task overall with enough speaking opportunities. Apart from the intervention, we assume that we were able to get this kind of result from students because they were always involved in group work to complete certain tasks. In other words, students were positioned to participate and interact with their group members for successful task completion. Nobody can deny that participation is very important in successful language learning. When producing the language students are studying, they are testing out the hypotheses they have formed about the language. When students are engaged in group work, it may allow them to increase opportunities for language practice through interacting and responding to the teacher's or other students' questions, raise queries, and give comments so that they are actively involved in the negotiation of comprehensible input and the formulation of comprehensible output (Swain, 1985) which are essential to language acquisition.

7.4.2 Big sisters' perceptions on the effectiveness of equal speaking opportunities

Based on the survey and reflection notes, the big sisters could see their little sisters actively participating in the tasks. They could thus accomplish the interventions more successfully, especially when they helped the quieter students by asking more questions to elicit their opinions and pointed out students for speaking opportunities. This finding is in line with the little sisters' perception that asking more questions to quieter students and pointing out a student to speak were the most effective interventions. However, all three big sisters had difficulty with implementing the intervention of having students ask a question to another student who hadn't spoken a lot. In accordance with the big sisters' reflection notes, the reason this intervention was not implemented effectively was that we couldn't anticipate three particular aspects. First, as mentioned above in the students' perception, students are not accustomed to initiating questions. Second, quieter students would feel uncomfortable with frequent questions from their group members. Last, forcing students to ask questions to other students who didn't speak a lot could interrupt the flow of their conversation. In order to accomplish the intervention more successfully, these unexpected aspects should have been taken more into account.

Similar to the perceptions of the little sisters, the big sisters also thought that their little sisters had quite equal speaking opportunities when they were pointed out to speak by their big sisters. Again, this confirms what Tsui (1996) found from her study in which the unequal allocation of speaking turns may have been caused by teachers. In other words, the big sisters took action to allocate fair speaking turns for the little sisters such as pointing out who was going to speak. While the little sisters thought they had fewer equal speaking opportunities from the intervention of having them ask a question to less vocal students, the big sisters thought it could be successful if the quieter students were given a chance to speak first and then allowed to point out the next speaker. Moreover, the result was similar when letting the little sisters write down their ideas first and then speak in pairs or groups.

In terms of the little sisters' affective aspects, the big sisters thought their little sisters accepted the intervention of asking

more questions to quieter students with comfort which is similar to the findings from the little sisters. The little sisters felt uncomfortable when their big sisters pointed out a student who was to speak while big sisters felt that their little sisters didn't seem to accept the intervention of writing down ideas first before speaking. Additionally, we found that the themes and functions for the five weeks were sometimes inappropriate for implementing certain interventions. That is why those interventions, such as 'letting the students write down their ideas first' and 'having the student ask a question to another student who hadn't spoken a lot' were used in an unplanned way as unsuccessful interventions for providing equal speaking opportunities.

8. Limitations

Due to the small sample size and the short duration of the research, conclusions and suggestions based on the data are intended to be suggestive. Among twenty-seven students in the class, there were only seven participants for this AR, and these seven students were divided among three big sisters who each had two or three. This means the number of little sisters each big sister needed to control was too small for the interventions. The interventions, such as pointing out the next speaker by turns or asking a question to another student, sometimes ended up as a ping-pong turn between two students. Thus, this small group structure is not appropriate for the interventions. Also, we conducted the interventions only for five weeks of the fifteen-week course. As mentioned earlier, every week the class had been conducted with a different theme and function such as movies and giving opinions. During the five-week interventions, without theme and

function co-switching, each intervention with a particular theme and function was conducted only once. That is, when we evaluate the effectiveness of our interventions respectively, it is not possible to identify the main problem accurately regarding whether the theme was not relevant to the intervention or the function was not fitted to the intervention. Students' personal characteristics might also have affected the result of any given week. Thus, five weeks may have been be too short of a timeframe to see any significant gains. One thing we missed during the interventions was the amount of speaking each student had during the tasks. We only focused on the number of speaking turns, not the total amount of speaking time even though frequent speaking opportunities don't necessarily equate to abundant speaking utterances. A greater sample size and longitudinal research would increase the robustness of our findings in future research.

9. Conclusion

This small-scale research has provided some empirical evidence for how to provide equal speaking opportunities for university students in an English speaking class. The results suggest that teachers should consider how the theme and function of a lesson can affect the students' voluntary involvement in trying to have speaking opportunities according to familiarity or formality. Teachers should also consider the students' academic readiness before asking for participation. Students' personal characteristics that govern participation during class need to be taken into account for specific research goals. In addition to the pedagogical factors, teacher-initiated speaking turns seem to be more well received by the students and
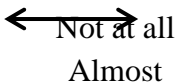
more successful in providing more equal speaking opportunities in small group activities, especially in Asian contexts where students are accustomed to receptive learning such as teacher-centered approaches which have been conducted at most schools including universities for a long time.

References

Bailey, K. (2005). *Practical English language teaching: Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Long, M., & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly,19*(2), 207-228.

Riggenbach, H. (1999). *Discourse analysis in the language classroom: Volume 1. The spoken language*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. *Input in second language acquisition*, *15*, 165-179.

Tsui, A. B. M. (1985). Analyzing input and interaction in second language classrooms. *RELC Journal*, *16*(1), 8-30.

Tsui, A. B. M. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In K. M. Bailey and D. Nuan (eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press, 148-164.

Wu, K. Y. (1993). Classroom interaction and teacher questions revisited. *RELC Journal*, *24*(2), 49-68.

Appendix A

Student Survey Form for Action Research

<table>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">Survey</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">English in Action Speaking</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">Spring 2015</td></tr>
<tr><td>Student Name</td><td></td><td>Date</td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6" align="center">Rate a degree of the statement according to the following criteria.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2" align="center">Statement</td><td colspan="5" align="center">Criteria
← Not at all →
Almost</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>I think my group members including me had equal speaking opportunities.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>I was comfortable when receiving a speaking opportunity during performing the tasks.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>I fully participated in the tasks with enough speaking opportunities as much as I wanted.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
</table>

Graduate Thesis Abstracts

Action Research on Using Role Play Activities in a Korean Kindergarten EFL Class

Riza Gay Estores

This action research explores the use of role play in a low level, young learner's speaking class. Three role plays were implemented in an attempt to achieve the most effective way of using role play activities to meet the needs of the class and improve their speaking performance. Data was collected through vocabulary assessments; video recordings of role play performances, and researcher's field notes. The result of this action researched showed that the students responded positively to role plays and their role play speaking performances improved in each progressing role play activity. The result also showed that for role plays to be effective, preparation is important. Using the principles of CLT in implementing the activities have proved useful especially in the use of PPP approach. The nine role play stages made for this action research also proved to be helpful in organizing the activities and lessons which made role play more effective. This action research clearly showed that when properly implemented, role play is a very effective teaching tool in helping improve the speaking performance of young learners and making them become more confident in speaking English.

Altering Timing of, and Adding Video to, Corrective Feedback in Speaking Activities, and the Effects on Grammar Test Performance

Richard Hawkes

This study examined the effects of altering the timing of corrective feedback (CF) given to four pairs of Korean, TESL undergraduates. They took part in a series of English language activities designed to elicit modal and conditional use. In one session, the participants received CF while also watching video recordings of themselves. The participants took pre- and post- grammar tests; the differences in test scores were compared to determine if the participants had benefited from one kind of CF over another. The study showed that altering the timing of corrective feedback from immediate to delayed had no effect on the participants' test score gains, but that the addition of video to the CF resulted in better test performance overall.

Comparing Reading Strategy Use and Effectiveness between Higher and Lower Proficiency University EFL Readers

Yihwa Kang

While a number of researchers acknowledged that strategic knowledge was one of the critical factors which could compensate for students' lack of reading skills and examined L2 readers' strategy use focusing on different L2 levels, a relatively small number of studies were conducted in Korea. Furthermore, not many L2 reading studies have examined the effective rate of the strategies used. Therefore, this study aims to investigate 26 EFL Korean university students' reading strategy use focusing on the types of strategies employed and the differences in terms of frequency, diversity, and effectiveness of the strategies used by the higher- and lower-proficiency readers. For this study, the participants were expected to work in pairs on the 10-week-long reading task and the data collected from the pairs were analyzed based on the modified CSRS (Lin & Yu, 2013). The results indicated that while the higher-proficiency readers employed more strategies than the lower-proficiency readers, there were no differences regarding the types of strategies used. However, in order to explain the reasons for their answers (for the three tasks), the higher-proficiency readers applied not only more strategies but also used a wider variety of strategies than the lower-proficiency readers. Although the strategies employed by the higher-proficiency readers result in more correct answers than the lower-proficiency readers, the lower-proficiency readers' rate of effectiveness in the use of strategies was higher than the higher-proficiency readers'.

The Metacognitive Awareness of EFL Female High School Students in Listening in English

Jungsok Kwon

This study was to explore the correlation of the metacognitive awareness of the Korean EFL high school listeners and their listening proficiency. In addition, the features of the metacognitive awareness in the use of listening strategy according to the level of the listening proficiency were identified. To get the results, 518 female high school students participated and responded to both quantitative and qualitative data were used; the National Listening Test, Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), and interviews. The results of data analysis shows that Korean high school listeners have medium level of metacognitive awareness in the listening strategy use and higher level listeners showed positive correlation in the metacognitive awareness in the use of listening strategy use with their listening proficiency. Also, Korean higher level listeners showed high frequency use in problem-solving strategy and directed attention listening strategy.

Pwning Pragmatics through Digital Games: A Case Study

Andrew Carl Langendorfer

This thesis explores the potential of mobile games, and their accompanying online resources, in helping students develop interlanguage pragmatic competence within such communities. It also examines the extent to which dynamic feedback can assist learners in becoming more aware of pragmatic functions and sociopragmatically-appropriate forms thereof. The students in this exploratory study reported noticing a range of functions in their gaming, and demonstrated the ability to appropriately use multiple newly-acquired forms. They judged the feedback they received to be helpful to this end. The main findings suggest that mobile games hold potential for interlanguage pragmatic development with minimal teacher expertise in specific speech communities.

Implementing Blogging with Young L2 Users: An Action Research

Victor K. Mui

This action-research study examines how weblogs (a Web 2.0 technology) can be utilized in creating opportunities for Korean students (~150) at D. Elementary School (located in Seoul, South Korea) to use English outside the traditional classroom environment. Inspired by the studies carried out by Badrinathan (2013) and Dick (2002), this study attempts to find if there are any possibilities for promoting participation and autonomy by creating individual classroom blogs with Blogger.com. In the first step of the study, the students' extra-curricular English activities were measured to see if English was used outside of their regular school setting. With the collected data, the next step was to create blogs for each 5th grade classroom and assign different tasks within three cycles. After each cycle was completed, adjustments were made for the succeeding cycles to ensure that participation could be increased. Overall, a total of five assignments throughout 3 cycles were presented to the students. At the end of the study, it showed that with certain assignments there were some students there were able to show signs of L2 autonomy and participation. However, this paled in comparison with the amount of non-participating students. It can be concluded that blogs do have the possible potential to promote L2 autonomy depending on learning environment, cultural expectations, and participants.

Features of Two Types of Peer Feedback in a Fifth Grade Elementary EFL Class

Daniel Wakeford

The purpose of this study is to examine the use of peer feedback in two different writing modes: online (blogs) vs. traditional pen and paper. The students' perceptions of peer feedback and how they give and receive it, in both online and in written form are the main focus of this thesis. This mixed methods study took place in the fifth grade of a Korean private elementary school. The peer feedback given by both the Experimental Group (EG) (using blogs) and the Control Group (CG) (using pen and paper) on four writing assignments was analyzed quantitatively for the type of feedback and how it was responded to. Exit interviews were conducted to provide qualitative data on the student's perceptions of the peer feedback. The findings showed that both the EG and CG had unique positive features. The EG gave more positive feedback and participated over and above what was required in their online community. The CG were more direct in their feedback and responded more to the feedback they received. The present study suggests that both peer feedback given online and in written form can be effective in different ways for students to enhance their writing abilities.

Lexical Analysis Comparing Korean and American English Language Cartoons

Seongwon Yoon

Vocabulary learning is important for the second language learners of English. In order to have fluent or authentic use of English, not only the individual word knowledge is important but also the lexical combination that comes with the word is an important aspect. Previous research has shown that cartoons or comic strips can be effective language learning material due to containing expressions of the English language that English natives use in their daily lives. This thesis examines four cartoons using a lexical analysis comparing Korean and American English language cartoons available in the Korean book market. The data were collected through analyzing textbook and extracting collocations and lexical chunks from the cartoon text. Collected collocation and lexical chunk data were compared with the corpus data to check the authenticity of real use of the native speakers. The result suggests that the collocations and lexical chunks extracted from Korean and American English language cartoons have no significant difference in authenticity. This conclusion offers that Korean English cartoons are also a valid English learning material for the second language learners of English in Korea.