Contents

Network-Based EFL Contents for College Freshmen

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This paper presents a semester-length network-based language teaching for EFL college freshmen. According to Crawford (2001), The appearing of the World Wide Web adds a variety of possibilities to the previous world of educational candidates. This project provides extra material for a general English class and is designed to make students accustomed to the target language culture by presenting on-line reading articles and allowing students to search information by themselves. In order to make a student a motivated learner as well as an active researcher, the final project is invented as a writing task, WebQuest, created using the approach of content-based language instruction.

1. Introduction

A number of papers were published and numerous researchers have done tons of materials regarding Network-based Language Teaching (NBLT). Kern and Warschauer (2000) states NBLT is a type of language instruction employing computers linked each other on the Internet. Since technology changes much faster than we can foresee, we are actually overwhelmed by newborn NBLT materials. However, the large portion of these is experimented in ESL atmospheres. Thus, in college EFL classrooms, it is a pity that to adapt any of these "ideal" materials is not an "idea" at all. The worst of it is, with the lack of financial support, it seems totally impossible to present any type of NBLT in the computer classroom. Thus, for the sake of teaching EFL college students, extra online materials are developed.

The purpose of this project is to help learners to build concepts about the target language culture—what they consume, where they go, how they think, how they live, among other things. The online material, *Exploring the States: Where do you want go?,* presents the basic information about cities in the United States. By learning the contents, students will figure out the target language culture. Due to time limits, most of the online tasks are designed for independent learning, such as quizzes for vocabulary and reading comprehension. However, in order to check their comprehension, weekly offline quizzes are given on-site. Also, movie information with beautiful scenes of cities is collected in archives to draw students' interest.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Content Based Instruction

Davies (2003) says Content-based instruction (CBI is a language teaching which stresses on learning about a specific content rather than learning about languages. Especially for college-level ESL classes, CBI has been thought of as an efficient as well as effective method to enhance English language literacy and academic skills of a subject. Moreover, with the advent of the Internet, a click of the mouse can mean exploring a huge collection of authentic English resources on a variety of topics. Kasper (1998) stresses on the usage of the Internet as following:

> Because information is presented through text, sound, and graphics, comprehension is facilitated, concepts reinforced, and learning consolidated, thus better enabling students to articulate knowledge and understanding through various modes of writing. In this way, the Internet becomes an ideal instructional resource for teaching rhetorical skills.

2.1.1 Characteristics of CBI

Stryker and Leaver (1997) states that CBI is like a faith healing approach to EFL. It mentions that CBI-oriented curriculum should present the

following three characteristics: first of all, CBI is based on a subject-matter core; secondly, CBI uses authentic language and texts; thirdly, CBI is appropriate to the needs of a specific group of students.

2.1.2 Benefits of CBI

A number of researchers stress the benefits of CBI in second language instruction, such as Benesch (1988), and Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989). Among these, Grabe and Stroller (1997) narrows down seven rationales for CBI that can be summarized in the following points:

1. In content-based classrooms, students are exposed to a considerable amount of language while learning content. This incidental language should be comprehensible, linked to their immediate prior learning and relevant to their needs… In content-based classrooms, teachers and students explore interesting content while students are engaged in appropriate language-dependent activities… The resultant language learning activities, therefore, are not artificial or meaningless exercises. (p.19)

2. CBI supports contextualized learning; students are taught useful language that is embedded within relevant discourse contexts rather than as isolated language fragments… Thus, CBI allows for explicit language instruction, integrated with content instruction, in a relevant and purposeful context. (p. 19)

3. The use of coherently developed content sources allows students to call on their own prior knowledge to learn additional language and content material. (p. 19)

4. In content-based classroom, students are exposed to complex information and are involved in demanding activities which can lead to intrinsic motivation. (p. 20)

5. [CBI] lends itself well to strategy instruction and practice, as theme units naturally require and recycle important strategies across varying content and learning tasks. (p. 20)

6. CBI allows greater flexibility and adaptability to be built into the curriculum and activity sequences. (p. 20)

7.   CBI lends itself to student-centered classroom activities. (p. 20)

2.1.3 Types of CBI

Davies (2003) and Dueñas (2003) present the basic models of CBI. They assert CBI is the most applicable method for post-secondary education learners. This research follows the version of Davies (2003).

The Sheltered Model

The Sheltered Model (SM) is taught by two types of teachers, a content specialist and an ESL specialist. SM helps learners to understand the regular classes. First, the content specialist gives short lectures on a subject. Then, the ESL specialist checks learners' comprehension and review some important target vocabulary.

The Adjunct Model

As the term "adjunct" shows, the Adjunct Model (AM) is linking classes with "mainstream" ones. Like SM, classes are taught by ESL teachers. They help students to join English L1 learners. Students learn specific target vocabulary, skills for regular sessions such as note taking, skimming and scanning texts.

The Theme Based Model

Unlike SM and AM, the Theme Based (TB) model is designed for EFL classes. Thus, it can be taught by an EFL teacher or by a team of an EFL teacher and a content specialist. After considering the learners' interests, the teacher can collect topics that can be used in class. As network-based EFL contents, this project follows the formats of TB.

2.2 WebQuest

The creator of WebQuest, Dodge (1995) says that "A WebQuest is an inquiry-oriented activity in which some or all of the information that learners interact with comes from resources on the internet, optionally supplemented with videoconferencing. There are at least two levels of WebQuests that should be distinguished from one another". This task best fits for CBI, since it asks students to explore the contents on the Internet to discover the necessary contents for their topics.

2.2.1 Characteristics of WebQuest

Using a WebQuest in your Classroom says that WebQuest consists of five phases: introduction, task, process, evaluation and conclusion. *Introduction* sets the stage for the whole activity. The instruction is clear and catching enough to draw students' attention and provide the task background information. *Task* describes the task more in detail. It explains what products will be expected and which tools, such as task sheets, discussion boards, and links, are given to be used. *Process* gives in-depth description of individual roles of each member. *Evaluation* provides a rubric to assess the product. *Conclusion* summarizes the process as a whole and provides higher level questions which may be researched at another time. Throughout these steps, learners are supposed to collect information in groups. Since it is a type of collaborative tasks, specific roles are assigned to each member.

According to WebQuest 101, "a well-designed WebQuest puts content in contexts." It describes the characteristics of a good WebQuest as follows: (http://www.teachersfirst.com/summer/webquest/quest-b.shtml)

1. Most webquests also have a "hook." This can be a treasure hunt, a game, or some other activity which is embedded in your quest… These "hooks" can be more elaborate, and since they are an important motivating factor, you should use your imagination in creating incentives for your own students.

2. Good webquests also rely on material that is age and ability appropriate… The web's wealth of information also makes webquests a great way to provide lessons which can be experienced at multiple levels. Your links can include a few resources for high-ability students, as well as some for students with limited abilities. By grouping these, a webquest can be a challenge for students of several ability levels.

3. Webquests can be collaborative. Students can work individually or in teams, depending on classroom circumstances and your preference.
4. A good webquest is also highly visual. The web is a visual medium, and your presentation will be far stronger if it includes sites with lots of pictures, maps, animations, or even sounds. These are teaching tools that keep students' interest.
5. Good webquests are easy to use. Students should be able to move easily from one location to the next without a lot of tedious mouse-work. This is one reason that a webquest which is itself a web page can be attractive.
6. Even the best webquest won't help much if it doesn't relate to the rest of your class materials. The more closely your webquest ties into the rest of your in-class content, the more powerful it will be in helping your students learn the topic – regardless of how and where it is presented.
7. Finally, a well-designed webquest contains some sort of built-in evaluation mechanism. This frequently relates to the hook or task that students must complete as part of the quest, but it may also include other tasks or assignments.

2.2.2 Benefits of WebQuest

Learners' Perspective

Unlike textbook-based classroom tasks, WebQuest is a "real-world" and collaborative task.[1] First, learners are supposed to take on roles within a collaborative group, and each of them must be an expert of designated parts. Then, they explore the "real" resource, the Internet, to collect and categorize the information regarding their roles. This way, learners can work on their own paces. By the end of the process, learners would be aware of the direct impact of their individual work on their group's final project. Eventually, this whole process can naturally lead to the learner-centered classes.

Instructors' Perspective

WebQuest is an ideal task for classes with students of diverse proficiency levels. Instructors will find it easy to deal with learners with different ability level since learners can work individually. In this sense, individualized learning is another virtue of CBI.

2.2.3 Types of WebQuest
Short Term WebQuest

A short-term WebQuest is supposed to be finished in one to three class periods. Marzano (1992) states that its goal is knowledge acquisition and integration.

Longer Term WebQuest

Longer Term WebQuest is designed to be completed between one week and a month in a classroom setting. Learners can expand and refine what they learned thoroughly during this extended period. They can produce something new either online or offline by analyzing and transforming this in-depth information. This project is a type of long term WebQuest, since it takes at least three weeks to complete the whole process.

2.3 Computer-Mediated Communication

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is a type of communication that generally takes place between users by using computers. Kim (2002) classifies communication media through network like e-mail, listserv, discussion boards, and chat rooms, fall into the category of CMC.

2.3.1 Benefits of CMC

Warschauer (1996b) stresses the virtues of CMC in a collaborative leaning process. He introduces conceptual framework for understanding the role of computer-mediated interaction based on a socio-cultural analysis of the relationship between text, talk, and learning.

First of all, CMC is text-based and computer-mediated. It extends the concept of communication. Traditionally, the only possible communication has been done "in-class". However, CMC gives students abundant opportunities to have "after-class" communication.

Secondly, CMC enables many-to-many communication; that is,

anyone in the group is free to initiate interaction with other members. This can bring about the positive effects of reactions and responses of a social audience. In class, students are highly unlikely to speak out first. However, in an online discussion activity, they are not reluctant to ask questions and suggest their ideas. Unlike face-to-face interaction, they are not overwhelmed by any possibilities of making mistakes and they can monitor their text-based utterances to some extent.

Thirdly, CMC is time and place independent communication. Whether it is synchronous or asynchronous, teachers and students communicate with each other and do collaborative learning with ease.

2.3.2 Types of CMC

This project asks students to experience two types of CMC, chat room as synchronous CMC and discussion board as asynchronous CMC.

Asynchronous CMC

Asynchronous CMC is online communication not occurring or existing at the same time or having the same period or phase. Asynchronous CMC are done through email, BBS, and Listserv.[2]

Synchronous CMC

Synchronous CMC is communicating with people in real time. Learners can use chat rooms, MOO, messengers and video conferencing.[3]

3. Project Description

3.1 Objectives
3.1.1 The Whole Class

This is an integrated skills course, where four areas of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are integrated and related activities are intended to strengthen overall language development.

The primary goal of this program is to cultivate students' ability to use the language and communicate smoothly in different situations. The secondary goal of the course is to improve effective reading and writing skills. The tertiary goal is to make students accustomed to the

target language culture by presenting additional online reading articles and searching information on their own to publish their final project. This way, students will be exposed to the cultures and customs of the English-speaking world.

3.1.2 Online Material

Students will study about cities in the United States and what popular tourist attractions there are. Online vocabulary quizzes and reading comprehension questions are presented and students will have the similar type of in-class quizzes as well. By the end of this class, they are supposed to create a complete travel brochure with their own categorized information collected from the Internet.

3.2 Class Profile

Table 1.

Target Student Profile

Age / Grade	College Freshmen
Language Proficiency	Speaking: Novice High
	Listening: Intermediate Low
	Reading: Intermediate Low
	Writing: Intermediate Low
Motivation	Students are required to take this course according to the college curriculum. They are interested in the lives of people in the United States. Also, they are motivated when they learn English with authentic materials regarding the target language culture and customs.
Language Experience	Students have been studying English as EFL for six years in public secondary schools. Their previous EFL classes are designed to focus on reading and grammar skills to get higher scores on standardized tests. Speaking has been minimally

dealt with and students have not had enough opportunities to experience authentic materials in the class. Listening has been studied in terms of drill and practice, thus they feel it is hard to understand utterances in some specific target language contexts.

Table 2.

Target Class Profile

Number of Student	55
Type of Class	EFL class in College, General English Class
	Meets once a week
	120 minutes for each class
	Required course of the school curriculum
Textbook	Richard, C. J. (1997). *New Interchange 1*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Class Evaluation	Attendance and Participation – 15%
	Midterm and Final Exam – 30% for each
	Final Project – 15%
	Offline Weekly Quiz – 10%
Computer and Multimedia Setting	a big screen in front of the class
	a computer for the teacher
	a beam projector, a microphone

3.3 Class Procedures

Textbook Material

Two thirds of the classes are done with the textbook materials. Students practice their listening, reading skills with the contents in the book. However, because of the rather big size of the class, exercises for enhancing individual speaking and writing skills are hard to deal with.

Online Materials: Reading Articles and Online Quizzes

Before class, students explore the reading article by themselves. The

schedule and syllabus are posted on the class website, http://sookmyung.ac.kr/~twinmay. Then, they practice what they studied through online quizzes, vocabulary and reading comprehension questions http://sookmyung.ac.kr/~twinmay/weeklyquiz.htm. All the target vocabulary and comprehension questions are given in advance so that students can learn at their own pace.

Offline Quizzes

Students take weekly offline quizzes, which are similar to the online quizzes. This way, teachers can check whether they did their online tasks successfully. After quizzes, students ask questions to teachers or other students about their weekly reading or they spend the time discussing the final project with their group members.

Final Project: Webquest

Students work in groups and create their own travel brochure containing information they searched by themselves and collected from the Internet. A sample form of a brochure is attached in Appendix A.

3.4 WebQuest: Let's go to the States
3.4.1 Introduction

Have you traveled to English-speaking countries before? Are any of you interested in going to the United States? However eager you may want to travel, you cannot just leave at the instant you decide to do so. Such a trip requires careful planning. Then, what do you have to do? You and your friends are going to travel to the States during the winter vacation for two weeks. Where do you want to visit? How much are you going to spend? Where are you going to stay? What are you going to eat? Once you complete this expedition, you and your group members will be expert travelers!

3.4.2 Task

Your final project will depend on the information collected by each of your group members. You are to produce a complete travel brochure with all the information about the cities that you are going to go. You will need

to report what flights you are going to take, how long you are going to stay, where you are going to sleep, what you are going to eat, what you are going to buy, and other plans related to your trip. You are also supposed to provide pictures of places you are going to visit.

3.4.3 Process

Step 1: Finding Partners and Assigning Roles

Find partners that you want to travel with. You are going to travel in small groups of five people. Every group member should be an expert information collector in this trip. Decide who you want to be among the following: *Brian Brain, Amy Atlas, Frank Financier, Andy Assistant, and Ashley Activity.* The description of each role is as follows:

Table 3.

Brian Brain	Brian Brain is the leader of the team. He organizes the plan in detail and checks whether the progress of each member's work is on the right track. Also, he presents the final project in class. He will look for general information about the cities, such as climates, special events, and history of the city.
Amy Atlas	Amy Atlas is the designated driver of the trip. She will be in charge of finding out the route between cities and tourist attractions, places to park, and the hours it takes for the trip.
Frank Financier	Frank Financier is the careful organizer of the group. He takes charge of the budget of the trip and always tries to stick to it. He gets information from Andy and Ashley. He will look for the best prices for every activity, accommodation, and restaurant.
Ashley Assistant	Ashley Assistant is the person who reserves hotels, restaurants, and flights. She will look for

	the most reasonable accommodation, the most delicious places to dine, and the best airline for the trip.
Andy Activity	Andy Activity is the person who plans the daily activities of the trip. He will be in charge of finding out the tourist attractions of the city, the business hour of each place, the hours it takes to explore the places.

Step 2: Choosing Cities

Choose two cities from the eight that we are going to study during this course. You have to share your opinions with your group members, and tell them why you want to choose the cities for the project. Also, you have to share your ideas online more than once, using any types of chatting systems or the discussion board, http://sookmyung.ac.kr/~twinmay/discussionboard.htm, and post the script of your online discussion on board. If you don't get many ideas about the city, you can refer to the film information collected in the resources.

Step 3: Gathering Information

Search the Internet to get information regarding your roles in the trip. You can refer to other group's trip schedule and search the useful links in the resources, but don't follow exactly the same route as they take. While you surf on the Internet, use the planning sheet, attached in Appendix B. Everything should be done within the budget. If you are in the black, it is okay, however if you are in the red, you will not be able to return. The total of your travel budget is $20000 for five members.

Step 4: Reporting

Prepare your interim report one week ahead of your presentation so that the rest of your classmates can preview what you are going to talk about. The guidelines are given in Appendix C. Report your project in the classroom. The guidelines for the presentation are given in Appendix D. If you do it earlier, you can have time to edit. Thus, the earlier you finish,

the better. We will have two group presentations every week after our midterm. Be ready in advance!

3.4.4 Resources

Visit http://sookmyung.ac.kr/~twinmay/archives.htm to find some resources for your trip. If you find any valuable ones other than these, please post it on the discussion board. You can get extra credits for this.

3.4.5 Evaluation

Skills/Points	OK (5 pts)	OK+ (10 pts)	GOOD (15 pts)	VERY GOOD (20 pts)	Total Score (100 pts)
Sharing Opinions among Group Members	Did not post any types of online discussion	Posted at least one type of online discussion	Posted more than three types of online discussion	Posted more than five types of online discussion	20
Organizing Contents	Every content in the right place	Every content in the right place with pictures	Every content in the right place with pictures and provided detailed information	Every content in the right place with pictures, provided detailed information and additional helpful tips from	20

				other travelers	
Accounting Accuracy	Something was miscalculated and results in "in the red"	Everything done within the budget with several miscalculations	Everything done within the budget with minor miscalculations	Everything done within the budget	20
Posting Personal/Group Ideas on the Discussion Board	Did not post any materials	Posted more than 3 materials	Posted more than 5 materials	Posted more than 7 materials	20
Using Resources	Did not provide any resources	Provided more than two resources in each category	Provided more than four resources in each category	Provided more than six resources in each category	20

3.4.6 Conclusion

I hope you enjoyed learning and traveling cities in the United States! Now, all of you are excellent explorers! I'm really proud of what you have done! I am pretty sure that you have learned many interesting things during your travels. Also, you must have be surprised by the amazing number of valuable souces on the Internet.

Would you like to live in one of the cities you researched? If so, write a one-page personal report regarding the city in which you'd like to live. Then, post it on the discussion board.

3.5 Possible Problems

Since the class is fairly large, it is challenging to manage the class with an NBLT activity. Few students complain about using online materials since they don't have any computer at home.

4. Conclusion

This project is to make learners aware of the target language culture and customs by investigating authentic materials and completing authentic tasks with a collaborative team. For years, EFL college students didn't have many opportunities to study with authentic materials. Moreover, most parts of the curriculum didn't show much difference from what they had done in secondary schools. However, with some types of authentic materials, such as video clips, songs, online discussion boards, students recognize other types of EFL learning style, and the potential power of the Internet in network-based language teaching.

Crandall and Tucker (1990) says that content-based learning is "an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes (e.g., math, social studies) within the context of teaching a second or foreign language" (p. 187). Based on this concept, we can see that CBI is not just "learning target languages" but "learning specific content through the target language." This way, students will be more motivated and the learning itself can be more student-centered. In accordance with this concept, this project provides a content-based activity fashioned after WebQuest. While exploring the online contents, learners can be more dynamic researchers in learning a second or foreign language. Also, by using chat rooms and posting ideas on the discussion board, they can balance their writing as well as their speaking skills.

Notes

[1] According to Pantiz (1996), "collaboration is a philosophy of interaction and personal lifestyle whereas cooperation is a structure of interaction designed to facilitate

the accomplishment of an end product or goal". So, cooperative leaning is a type of collaborative learning. That is, collaborative learning is the process of working together. Thus, it is student-centered. Vygotsky (1981) also stressed that collaborative learning can promote a higher level of inter-psychological development through the interaction process, which is filling the gap between what they could accomplish by themselves and what they could accomplish in cooperation with others.

[2] Examples of Asynchronous CMC:

Email: Kepal Project, Collaborative Writing Projects, Email Culture Project, ePals, Email Tandem Project, HUT International Writing Project

BBS: ESL Forum, Ask Grammar, Grammar Lady, ESL Blog, Journal Writing

Listserv: Neteach-L, FLTEACH, Yahoo Group, Google groups

[3] Examples of Synchronous CMC:

Chat: ICQ Chat, Dave ESL Bot (Alicebot), Active World, IRC (Internet Relay Chat), the Palace

Messenger: MSN Messenger, ICQ Messenger

MOO: Lingua MOO, SchMOOze University

Video Conferencing: VOIM, Paltalk, CUSeeMe, NetMeeting, OKBuddy

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WebQuest 101 http://www.teachersfirst.com/summer/webquest/quest-b.shtml

Appendix A

Title of Trip

Name of Group

Members of Group

Name of the City

General Information

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

City History

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Tourist Attractions

Picture	Picture	Picture	Picture

How to Visit

Picture	Picture	Picture	Picture

_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____

Where to Stay

Picture	Picture	Picture	Picture

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Where to Dine

Picture	Picture	Picture	Picture

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

How much to Spend

ITEM		
Transportation		
Accommodations		
Admission		
Meals		
Others		
TOTAL		

Appendix B.

Brief Guideline for planning your trip

Week 1	**Before planning your trip**	**Consideration**
	1. What is the name of your team?	The theme of the trip
	2. What is the title of your trip?	
	3. When do you want to travel and why?	Date, season, weather
	4. Where do you want to visit and why?	Cities to visit
	5. Who is going to take which role?	Assigning roles for the trip
Week 2/3	**Planning your trip**	**Consideration**
	1. Where are you going to stay?	Information about accommodations
	2. Where are you going to dine? What are you going to eat?	Information about restaurants
	3. How much money are you going to spend?	Planning activities within the budget
	4. Which places do you want to visit in the cities?	Tourist attractions
	5. What route are you going to take to visit all the places in the cities?	Reading maps and identifying all visiting spots
Week 4	**After planning your trip**	**Consideration**
	1. How many days did you spend on your trip?	Time limit

| | 2. How much money did you spend? Are you in the red or in the black? | Planning the trip within the budget |
| | 3. Did everybody accomplish their roles successfully? | Evaluating the works of other group members |

Appendix C.

Guidelines for Interim Report

Your interim report should include the followings:

1. Title of the travel
2. Name of the city
3. Group members and their roles
4. Pictures of cities
5. Transportation or vehicles to use
6. Accommodations/Restaurant Information
7. Rough Draft of Financial Report

Appendix D.

Slide 1: Title Slide

Post a creative title for your presentation. Don't forget to write the name of your team or the theme of the trip. Attach introductory photos of the two cities. You can use the clips and lines from the movies if necessary. Don't forget to cite the sources.

Slide 2: City at a Glance

Introduce the city in brief. It should include the following:

☞ City History
☞ City Climate
☞ City Events
☞ "Cite the sources!"

Slide 3: City Map

Present the city map and describe the route of your trip. The map must include:

☞ Places of major tourist attractions

☞ Concise explanation of the sites

☞ Position of parking lots or information on public
transportations

☞ "Cite the sources!"

Slide 4: City in Detail

Show in-depth plan of your trip. You must present information about:

☞ Hotels to stay in

☞ Restaurants to dine

☞ Daily scheduled plan

☞ Business hour of each tourist attractions

☞ "Cite the sources!"

Slide 5: Financial Status

Post the accounting document of your trip. It should include:

☞ Fees for transportation including gas, parking lot, etc.

☞ Hotel rates

☞ Prices of meals

☞ Admission to tourist attractions

☞ "Cite the sources!"

Slide 6: Lines from each Member

Ask each member what they learned in this project.

Developing Writing Activities with Focus on Aspects of Teaching Writing

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The purpose of this project is to introduce writing activities that are focused on different aspects of teaching writing: using materials, controlled writing, and writing process. Depending on the chosen aspect, the writing activities can be different and diverse. It will help the teacher to lead their writing class with diversity and creativity. In the first aspect of teaching writing, the project introduces writing activities using different types of materials - readings and pictures. In the second aspect, controlled writing, the project presents controlled writing activities using an authentic material – a tour pamphlet of an island. In the final aspect, writing process, the project provides writing activities that involve generating ideas, drafting, and revising.

1. Introduction

High school students in Korea think that writing in English is not important compared to other skills like reading and listening because writing is not a part of the college entrance exam. However, once they enter a university or get a job and face the real world where they are supposed to write in English, they realize that they don't have enough knowledge or experience to do so. They get embarrassed to know that they have to start learning English writing for themselves or with the help of a private academy.

In addition, even English teachers in high schools do not feel the

need to teach English writing in their class because the high school English curriculum itself does not focus on writing. However, just as TOEFL included essay writing as a new component a few years ago, English writing nowadays is expected to be a more important skill for language use than ever before. It is an essential language skill not just for studying abroad but also for communicating with people in other countries. The development of electronic communication technology such as email and online chatting also supports that a new type of communication based on writing will be a necessary language skill in the future. English writing should be highlighted in language teaching and learning for practical reasons as well as academic ones.

With acknowledging the importance of teaching writing, English teachers should be prepared to teach English writing in class. Although they don't have any experience being taught English writing in their high school days, they should positively find out effective ways of teaching writing. They will be able to know how to teach writing by sharing their ideas with other English teachers, and this project will be one of such attempts. This project will introduce writing activities with focus on three different aspects of teaching writing: using materials, controlled writing and writing process.

1.1. Purpose

The purpose of this project is to introduce writing activities focused on different aspects of teaching writing. The method of teaching writing can be different, depending on what the teacher uses as an input material for teaching, how much the teacher controls the students' writing conditions or input materials, or which aspects – writing process or writing product – the teacher focuses on while they teach writing. Different types of writing activities will help the teachers to lead their writing class with diversity and creativity.

1.2. Target Students

The target students of the writing activities in this project are third year

high school students. They are 35 students in a class, and they have 5 English classes a week. The focus of their English class is reading and listening, so they don't have many chances to practice English writing and speaking. Their reading proficiency level is intermediate-mid, listening intermediate-low, and writing and speaking novice-high.

1.3. Project Design

This project has three sections of writing activities according to the different aspects of teaching writing: using materials, controlled writing, and the writing process. In the first section, *Using Materials,* two different kinds of input materials will be used for writing activities: reading material and sequence of pictures. First of all, in the part of *Using Readings*, a paragraph in English will be provided at the beginning and two different writing activities related to the reading input will follow: *Analyzing a Time-order Writing Sample* and *Writing a Time-order Paragraph.* The second type of input material is a sequence of pictures. In this part of *Using Pictures*, a sequence of pictures will be presented as the input for the two activities: *Writing a Short Story with Pictures* and *Writing a Screenplay with a Story about Pictures.* In the second section, *Controlled writing* has three writing activities each titled *Making a Plan of Fraser Island Tour, Writing a Postcard to a Friend about Your Tour,* and *Making a Pamphlet to Advertise Your City Sightseeing.* The input used in this section is a real pamphlet for Fraser Island Tour in Australia. The final section, *Writing Process*, has three writing activities based on the theory of writing process: *Generating Ideas, Drafting,* and *Revising*. The theoretical background will be introduced before the writing activities.

2. Using Materials

2.1. Using Readings

Little Billy-Joe-Bob is an active child and his mother has trouble keeping up with him sometimes. He is usually up with the sun and goes out into the yard to look for some animals to play with there. After that, he has a big breakfast of bacon and eggs which his mother makes for him. After breakfast, he usually goes down to the creek and tries to hunt fish and other small animals. By noon he is really hungry, so he runs home and eats a huge lunch of peanut butter and jelly sandwiches. His mother usually takes him to the store with her after lunch. In the store, he runs around a lot and breaks things and makes a lot of noise. After that, they return home and he watches T.V. while his mother cooks dinner. After dinner, while his father watches T.V. and his mother does the dishes, he goes out and chases animals again. Lucky for his mother, Billy-Joe-Bob goes to bed very early.

2.1.1. Analyzing a Time-order Writing Sample
Objectives :

The students will be able to analyze the given reading material and understand how to write time-order paragraph.

Procedure :
  A. Grouping students (Appendix1)
   - Ask Ss to make seven groups of five, and give each group sentence splits of the reading material. Explain that the split sentences should be arranged to make a paragraph.
  B. Figuring out the topic sentence
   - Ask each group to read the sentences and figure out which is the topic sentence. They should be prepared to present why they chose it as the topic sentence. Check answers in front of the whole class, and write down on the blackboard what reasons each group talks about. Summarize the characteristics of a topic sentence using the notes on the board.

C. Arranging the split sentences

- Ask Ss to arrange the split sentences to make a paragraph with a topic, and explain that each sentence has more than one hint that will lead them to figure out the order. Ask Ss to highlight the hints on the split sentences. Check answers in front of the whole class.

D. Completing worksheet (Appendix2)

- Give out a worksheet about the complete reading material. Ask Ss to discuss in groups, write the answers to the questions, and prepare to present their answers. Ask one group to answer one question in front of other groups. Check all answers in class and summarize what Ss have learned with the worksheet.

2.1.2. Writing a Time-order Paragraph

Objectives :

The students will be able to write a time-order paragraph based on the analysis of the sample text.

Procedure :

A. Whole class brainstorming

- Ask Ss to think about what they do in their everyday life according to a certain period of time - e.g. in the morning, in the afternoon, and in the evening. Divide the blackboard into three sections according to the periods of time, and ask Ss what they do in each section and write down their answers on the board.

B. Grouping students

- Ask Ss to make seven groups of five again as in the former activity, and explain briefly that Ss are supposed to write a time-order paragraph of an imaginary person about his or her daily life.
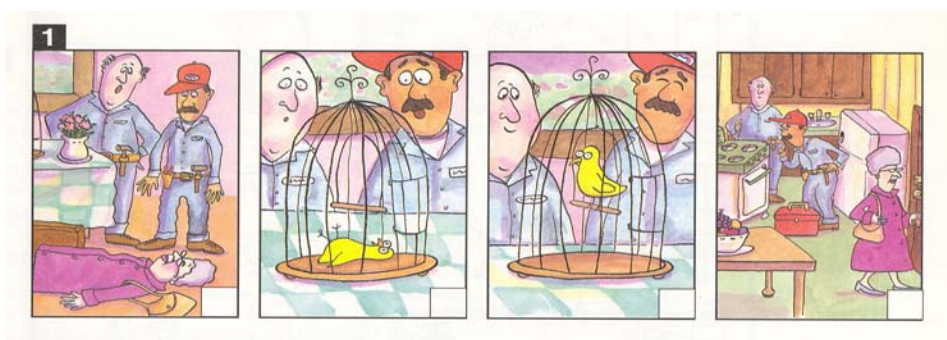
C. Group writing (Appendix3)

- Ask each group, first of all, to give a name to their imaginary person, the hero of the daily life story. Ask them to specify their own imaginary character – for example, name, age, gender, school, hobby, etc. Then, ask each group to brainstorm the character's daily life

according to the time of day – in the morning, afternoon, and evening. In this step, they don't have to write complete sentences. Just writing words and phrases is enough. Third, ask each group to make a topic sentence based on what they have written while they were brainstorming. Fourth, ask each group to choose five or six ideas in each period of time. In this case, they should consider that the ideas should match their topic sentence. They should turn the ideas into neat, complete sentences. Finally, ask each group to write a story using the sentences that they have written in the previous step. The sentences should be put in order of time, so the writing should start from what the character does in the morning, through the afternoon and evening. Also, each group should consider using some devices like transition words or pronouns to make the writing flow smoothly.

D. Group Presentation

- Ask each group to be prepared to present their story. Ask if there is any group that wants to present and have that group present. If there are no volunteers, choose the group that made the best, most interesting story by Ss' voting.

2.2. Using Pictures

(from.. Jones, Leo. (1996) Let's Talk. Cambridge: CUP, p. 69)

2.2.1. Writing a Short Story with Pictures

Objectives :

The students will be able to describe pictures and make a story from a sequence of pictures.

Procedure :

A. Grouping students (Appendix4)

- Ask Ss to make nine groups of 4, and give each group four, half-page sized worksheets having a different picture and a table for the picture description.

B. Writing a sentence about each picture

- Ask each member in a group to have a worksheet and to write down a sentence about the given picture in the first blank of the table. After that, Ss exchange their worksheets with other members in their group, and write a sentence about another picture on the exchanged worksheet. In this case, their sentence should be related to the first sentence that the former student has written. All the members are supposed to write a sentence about each picture.

C. Arranging the four pictures (Appendix 5)

- After finishing all the worksheets, each member has a different worksheet and reads aloud the complete story to other members while showing the picture. Ask each group to discuss the possible order of the pictures depending on the stories that they have written. Ask each group to arrange the pictures and write the whole story according to the sequence of pictures. Ask each group to prepare to present their story to the other groups. Choose the group that has the best story by Ss' voting.

2.2.2. Writing a Screenplay with a Story about Pictures

Objectives :

The students will be able to write a screenplay with the story from a sequence of pictures.

Procedure :

   A. Grouping Students (Appendix 6)

   - Have Ss keep the group from the previous activity, and give each group a sample screenplay writing worksheet.

   B. Analyzing a sample screenplay

   - Ask each group to look through the sample screenplay and discuss the questions below the sample and write the answers. Check the answers in class and summarize what Ss have learned from the worksheet.

   C. Writing a screenplay with the story about the sequence of pictures

   - (Appendix 7) Give each group four worksheets having a different picture that that they have used in the previous activity. Have each group fill out the blanks on each worksheet. They are supposed to write the scene number according to the sequence of pictures that they have decided in the previous activity. They also should write the scene title, a brief explanation of characters, and the script for the scene.

   C. Acting out the script

   - Ask each group to choose the director and the actors, act out their script, and prepare to present their short play. Ask which group wants to act out their script in front of other groups and have the group present their play. Choose the group that showed the best play by Ss' voting.

3. Controlled Writing

Writing Input (Appendix 8 – Fraser Island Tour Pamphlet)

3.1. Making a Plan of Fraser Island Tour

Objectives :

The students will be able to make a plan of an island tour using the tour pamphlet of Fraser Island.

Procedure :

A. Grouping Students

- Ask Ss to make seven groups of five, and explain that each group should plan a tour of Fraser Island.

B. Brainstorming with pictures (Appendix 8)

- Show Ss the pictures of Fraser Island, and have Ss guess the pictures without any explanations. Ask questions about what they want to do in the island.

C. Understanding the writing input material (Appendix 8)

- Give each group the Fraser Island Tour pamphlet, and give 2-3 minutes for each group to figure out the pamphlet content. Ask Ss questions about the pamphlet to check their understanding.

D. Answering the tour checklist (Appendix 9)

- Give each group the checklist for planning Fraser Island tour, and ask them to discuss the answers to questions. Explain that each group had better choose a discussion leader and a note-taker to make their discussion effective. After finishing their discussion, ask each group to write their answers in complete sentences in the checklist worksheet.

E. Group Presentation

- Ask each group to be prepared to present their plan. Ask if there is any group that wants to present and have them present. Choose the group that has the most organized, possible plan for Fraser Island tour by Ss' voting.

3.2. Writing a Postcard to a Friend about Your Tour

Objectives :

The students will be able to write a postcard to a friend about their tour of Fraser Island.

Procedure :

A. Giving directions

- Explain that this activity is for individual writing, not group writing and that Ss will write a postcard to their friend about what they have done in the island for two days.

B. Reviewing the writing input material (Appendix 8)

- Give Ss the Fraser Island Tour pamphlet again, and give 2-3 minutes for Ss to figure out the pamphlet content.

C. Giving a situation

- Have Ss imagine that they have spent 2 days doing various kinds of activities in Fraser Island and that they are going to stay a day more.

D. Completing the worksheet (Appendix 10)

- Give Ss the worksheet for writing a postcard and ask Ss to decide whom they will write a postcard to. In this case, Ss will be supposed to check the address of their friend. Ask Ss to brainstorm the three most interesting, impressive activities that they have done so that they can easily write on the postcard. Ask Ss to complete the postcard, which already contains the beginning and closing parts. Ss are supposed to complete the body part about the most interesting activities that they have done for the last two days.

3.3. *Making a Pamphlet to Advertise Your City Sightseeing*

Objectives :

The students will be able to make a pamphlet to advertise their city sightseeing while considering the sample writing of Fraser Island tour pamphlet.

Procedure :

A. Computer laboratory setting

- Have Ss go to the computer laboratory so that they can use the computer and the Internet to get some information and pictures about the places that they want to introduce in the pamphlet. The computer laboratory in this researcher's school has more than 40 computers in the laboratory, thus allowing each of the 35 students to use a computer.

B. Grouping Students

- Ask Ss to make seven groups of five, and explain that each group should make a pamphlet to advertise a sightseeing tour of their city, while keeping in mind the writing sample from the Fraser Island tour

pamphlet.

C. Giving a situation

- Have Ss imagine that the city has a contest for making a pamphlet to advertise the city tour so that the citizens can get involved in promoting their city and voluntarily participate in developing the city tour.

Completing worksheet (Appendix 11)

- Give each group worksheet for brainstorming in order to make a pamphlet. Ask each group to list tour places in their city. Ask each group to choose three places among those that they have listed, and explain why they chose the places as the appropriate stops for their city tour. Ask each group to get a nice, attractive picture of each place that they have chosen. Ss can get the pictures from the Internet or they can draw pictures by themselves. Ask each group to write a general introduction of their city. This introduction should be related to the three places that they are going to introduce afterwards.

D. Making a pamphlet (Appendix 12).

- Give each group the basic form of a pamphlet, and ask each group to make a pamphlet using what they have prepared in the worksheet. Explain that Ss can change the form of the pamphlet so that they can make it as creative as they can. However, they should contain the basic information – general introduction of the city, and the pictures and introduction of the three places that they want to talk about.

E. Group presentation

- Ask each group to be prepared to present their pamphlet. Ask if there is any group that wants to present and have them present. Choose the group that has the most interesting, attractive pamphlet by Ss' voting.

4. Writing Process

4.1. Theoretical Background

Scott (1996) says that the central understanding of the writing process is to regard writing as "an activity that brings about the discovery of

meaning" (p.32). He also introduced Murray as one of the scholars who defined writing as "discovery." Murray (1980) asserts, "Writing is a significant kind of thinking in which the symbols of language assume a purpose of their own and instruct the writer during the composing process" (citation in Scott, 1996, p.32). Murray says that the three stages of the writing process are rehearsing, drafting, and revising. In each of these stages, there are four forces: collecting, connecting, writing, and reading. He says that these operations happen constantly during the writing process.

Flower and Hayes (1981) proposed a problem-solving model of the L1 writing process, which includes planning, translating, and reviewing. They say that these are the stages of the writing process but they do not happen in a linear pattern, and writers can add optional stages for their writing. In addition to the above stages, they also introduce sub-processes of writing: generating ideas, revision, and recursiveness.

According to Flower and Hayes (1981), *generating ideas* is the first step of writing a composition. In this stage, writers decide the topic and what they will say about it. Through various ways like gathering information and discussion with other people, the writers generate their ideas. Flower and Hayes (1981) say that long-term memory and task requirements are important in this stage, because writers plan their writing according to the assignment and using the information from their long-term memory.

Revising contains reading, examining, changing, and correcting the text. Based on the explanation of Faigely and Witte (1981), there are two kinds of changes: surface changes and meaning changes. Surface changes include checking spelling, tense, modality, punctuation, additions, deletions, and consolidations, all of which are not related to meaning change. Meaning changes include, of course, meaning, summary, and the whole text. Faigely and Witte (1981) indicate that inexperienced writer tend to make more surface changes than meaning changes.

Recursive writing is the last sub-process of writing that Flower and Hayes (1981) suggested. Many researchers have already pointed that

writing is not done in a linear fashion. So, the writers should constantly reread and revise what they wrote, and move back and forth in the writing process. Perl (1980) says that the representative, recursive elements of writing are "rereading little bits of discourse and returning to a key word called up by the topic" (citation in Scott, 1996, p.35) Therefore, good writers do the above sub-processes constantly back and forth during their writing.

4.2. Writing Process Activities

The following activities based on the writing process are all about one task: *controversial essay writing*. Since the students in this experiment are not good at writing, teacher's guide in student writing is essential. The following steps in writing are revised a little, although they still have the basic concepts of the writing process. Each stage will be defined first and then followed by an activity.

4.2.1. Generating Ideas

4.2.1.1. Definition

This is the first stage in the writing process. In this stage, the writers brainstorm ideas and choose what will be the best topic for their writing. This is a prewriting stage in order for the writer to write a good essay. Especially, when students have the fear of writing, enough brainstorming and a well-organized outline will help them overcome the fear and feel confident in starting their own writing.

4.2.1.2. Activity

Objectives :

The students will be able to generate their ideas and get the best topic for their essay writing.

Procedure :

  A. Making options for essay writing

- Have Ss think about some controversial issues that they want to write about, and write down their opinions on the blackboard. Ask Ss to vote to choose three good topics among those on the board. In this case, T needs to lead Ss to choose manageable topics considering their writing proficiency level. Too difficult topics will discourage them to write their essay. Ask Ss to choose one among the 3 topics for their individual writing.

B. Group students (Appendix 13)

- Have Ss make 3 groups according to the topic that they chose. Give Ss worksheet for generating ideas, and ask them to complete the worksheet while they are doing group and individual work in this step. Ask each group to make two thesis statements, each of which presents opposing positions on an in issue. For example, Ss can write two thesis statements, one for smoking and the other against smoking. Ask Ss to write down the statements on their worksheet. Have each group member choose the side that they want to support. Ask each group to make 2 subgroups that will represent the for and against sides of an argument.

C. Subgroup discussion

- Have each subgroup prepare for their group discussion. Ask each subgroup to generate ideas about the side that they chose. Ask each subgroup to write down 5 points to support their thesis statement on their worksheet so that they can remember what they discussed in the subgroup.

D. Group discussion

- Ask each group to discuss the topic for 10 minutes, and ask each subgroup to write down the points that the opposing subgroup talked about so that they can be prepared to answer the problems in their writing.

E. Outlining

- Explain the general form of an essay: introduction, body, and conclusion. Ask Ss to write down 3 main ideas to support their thesis statement for the body part of their individual essay. Have Ss write

some points for each main idea.

4.2.2. Drafting

4.2.2.1. Definition

This is the second stage of the writing process. In this stage, the students begin to write their draft based on their writing outline and what they have brainstormed in the previous stage. If students write a draft without considering their writing outline, they won't be able to handle the overall flow of their writing content. Therefore, the teacher needs to help the students to first follow their outline to write their draft, even though the writer can change some points of their draft in the next stage, revising.

4.2.2.2. Activity

Objectives :

The students will be able to write a draft based on their outline.

Procedure :

A. How to use dictionaries

- Explain how to use various kinds of dictionaries effectively when they need to look up English words or expression to use for their essay. Explain that they need to look up a word in a Korean-English dictionary first, then look it up in an English-Korean or an English-English dictionary in order to choose the most appropriate word for their context and meaning.

B. Writing the body

- Explain how to write the body part of essay, and have Ss take out their outline that they have written in the previous step. Ask Ss to write about 5 or 6 sentences for each main point in the body. Explain that all the supporting sentences should be connected to each other, focusing on the main point as their topic sentence. Ask Ss to make one paragraph with one main idea and the 5 or 6 supporting sentences. Explain that they need to make the main idea the topic sentence of a paragraph, and put it on the top of the paragraph. Ss

will, finally, make 3 paragraphs for the body part. Explain that Ss will need to use devices such as transition words or pronouns to make the content flow smoothly.

C. Writing the introduction

- Explain how to write the introduction part of essay, and have Ss write anything that comes to mind for the introduction part. Their group members, who have the same topic and the same side, might have good ideas for an introduction. Let Ss share their ideas with their group members. Ask Ss to write one paragraph for the introduction.

D. Writing the conclusion

- Explain how to write the conclusion part of an essay, and ask Ss to review what they have written for the body part, and pick up the 3 main ideas. Ask Ss to write down the 3 topic sentences of the body part in the conclusion while putting some spaces between them. Ask Ss to summarize the supporting sentences for each topic sentence, and put them in the spaces, right after each topic sentence. Explain that Ss need to make the flow of three main ideas smooth. Ask Ss, finally, to put their thesis statement at the end of the conclusion.

E. Reading the draft

- Have Ss read their own draft for overall flow of content. Give a few minutes for them to review their writing.

4.2.3. Revising

4.2.3.1. Definition

This is the third stage of the writing process. In this stage, the students read their draft, correct their grammatical or structural errors, change some words or expressions to make their point clearer, change the organization, among other things. Even though writers finish their draft, it's not the end of writing according to the concept of the writing process. Therefore, the revising stage is not defined as the last stage of writing. The writers can go back to their draft and revise their writing whenever they want to. This is what is referred to as the recursiveness of writing, as discussed by Flower and Hayes (1981). The number of revisions depends

on the time limitation of writing and the writers' passion to make their writing better than the previous draft.

4.2.3.2. Activity

Objectives :

The students will be able to revise their draft so that they can make it better and better.

Procedure :

   A. Orientation of editing

- Explain why editing and revising is important for writing. Explain that Ss will check what they need to revise by using checklists – one is individual work and the other is pair work.

   B. Essay writing checklist (individual work) (Appendix 14)

- Give Ss the essay writing checklist and ask Ss to check their writing against the checklist.

   C. Essay writing checklist (pair work) (Appendix 15)

- Ask Ss to find a partner to exchange and check their draft. Give Ss the essay writing checklist for peers. Explain that Ss are supposed to have a partner who holds the opposing opinion about the same topic. In this case, the partner will be sensitive to the content of the writing, and pick up some weak points in the writer's argument. Have Ss write some feedback, especially about the weakness of the argument on paper so that the writer will revise their writing more effectively.

   D. Revising own draft

- Have Ss get their writing draft back from their partner and review the feedback from peers. Ask Ss to revise their draft based on their own checklist and peer checklist. Explain that Ss can go back to revising and editing recursively to make their writing better than the previous version.

5. Conclusion

English writing is not just for students who plan to study abroad anymore. It is an essential language skill for effective communication in the real world. Even though it is not part of the Korean high school curriculum now, English teachers should try to develop ways of teaching writing. They can develop various writing activities with focus on different aspects: for example, using materials, controlled writing, and writing process. Using reading materials can help the students figure out what is good writing by analyzing the materials, and using visuals like pictures can help them to practice writing with more imagination and creativity. Controlled writing is good for students who are not accustomed to free writing because they are supposed to complete a piece of writing with the help of some clues. Finally, activities based on the writing process can help the students to practice free writing like writing an essay. Through the step-by-step writing process, the students can understand how to write an essay and get the confidence to engage in free writing.

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Using Multiple Intelligences to Make Instruction More Learner-Centered

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TESOL 3rd semester

When a teacher conducts English class with young learners under 12, some kids follow the lessons, but some other students lose their interest easily and proceed to do their own thing. As a result, an instructor has difficulty holding the attention of all students in a classroom. Sometimes the teacher tries to find fault in the students and blame them. However, According to Howard Gardner (1983) in a study that came out in the 1980s, there are seven intelligences for everybody with different capacity: linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences. Applying this theory of Multiple Intelligences to a classroom, a teacher can help children understand input more easily and effectively. Also, according to these intelligences, teachers can invent useful activities to satisfy each student's intelligences and their needs.

1. Introduction

If teachers know students' intelligences in language classes, they can design various activities to satisfy all students and help them hold their interest in learning. Usually, many students get bored easily when they are given the same activity repeatedly. They want to have a variety of activities. At first, teachers will not know what their students' intelligences are or how they can be categorized into certain types.

Therefore, teachers can prepare a survey to check learners' intelligences (See Appendix).

2. The Seven Intelligences according to Gardner

In the 1980s Howard Gardner expanded the concept of intelligence by adding his seven Multiple Intelligences. They are linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. Everybody has all seven intelligences with different capacities. He introduced the idea of Multiple Intelligences (MI) in his book Frames of Mind published in 1983.

2.1 Linguistic

Linguistic intelligence is the capacity to use words effectively, as can be found among writers and journalists. Uses include rhetoric (communicating information and intellectual and emotional persuasion), mnemonics (using language to remember information), explanation (using language to inform), metalanguage (using language to talk about itself). Core components are sensitivity to the sounds, structure, meanings, and functions of words and language. People who have this kind of intelligence can learn by listening and are often seen as having other kinds of intelligences on a high level because standard testing tools rely on verbal responses (Jasmine, 1996, as cited in Lavelle, 1998). Linguistic intelligence explodes in early childhood and remains robust until old age (Armstrong, 1994, as cited in Lavelle, 1998). In this intelligence, students are interested in word puzzles, and jigsaw readings. They are experts when it comes to word puzzles.

2.2 Logical-Mathematical Intelligence

Logical-mathematical intelligence is the capacity to use numbers effectively and to reason well (scientists, mathematicians). It includes

sensitivity to logical patterns, statements and propositions, functions, and other abstractions. Categorization, classification, generalization, calculation are some processes used in service of logical-mathematical intelligence (Gardner, 1983).

According to Jasmine (1983, as cited in Lavelle, 1998) people with this kind of intelligence like strategy games and graphic organizers. It peaks in adolescence and early adulthood. Higher math insights decline after age 40 (Armstrong, 1994, as cited in Lavelle, 1998). They like to analyze many things with logical thoughts. They would like to play with Tic-Tac-Toe games and guessing games.

2.3 Spatial Intelligence

Gardner describes spatial intelligence as the ability to observe the visual-spatial world accurately and perform transformations among these perceptions (artist, architect, decorator, and guide). It involves sensitivity to color, line, shape, form, and space. People who display this kind of intelligence learn from movies and pictures, like to draw, paint, or sculpt and they are good in reading diagrams and maps (Jasmine, 1996, as cited in Lavelle, 1998). Topological thinking develops in early childhood, the artistic eye stays into old age. They would like to do activities related to colorful pictures. Teachers can offer drawings or finding differences between two pictures.

2.4 Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence

Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence is the ability to use either the whole body to express ideas and /or to use hands to produce or transform things (actor, athlete, pantomime, craftsperson, and surgeon) (Gardner, 1983). People with this kind of intelligence like to move around, touch people when talking and enjoy physical activities. Developmental factors vary depending upon components (strength, flexibility) or domain (ice skating, basketball). They like to mime what they read or heard as well as all kinds of hands-on activities.

2.5 Musical Intelligence

Musical intelligence is the expertise to perceive, discriminate, transform, and express musical forms (music critic, performer). It includes sensitivity to rhythm, pitch or melody, and timbre (Gardner, 1983). People with musical/rhythmic intelligence often sing or hum during other activities. They play an instrument or make up songs to remember information. Musical intelligence is the first intelligence to develop. Prodigies often go through a developmental crisis (Armstrong, 1994, as cited in Lavelle, 1998). Making chants according to what they have learned during the class and singing along are good for them.

2.6 Interpersonal Intelligence

Interpersonal intelligence is the capacity to perceive and make distinctions in the moods, intentions, motivations, and feelings of other people (counselor, political leader). This can include sensitivity to facial expressions, voice, and gestures (Gardner, 1983). People with this kind of intelligence get the most out of cooperative learning activities. Attachment and bonding develop during the first three years. They enjoy role-plays or skits, which need many people to do. They enjoy every group-work or pair-work. The more people, the better.

2.7 Intrapersonal Intelligence

Intrapersonal intelligence means self-knowledge and to act adaptively on the basis of that knowledge. This intelligence includes awareness of inner moods, intentions, motivations, temperaments, and the capacity for self-discipline, self- understanding, and self- esteem (Gardner, 1983). People who display this kind of intelligence tend to be independent and self-directed and have strong opinions on controversial issues. In developmental terms the formation of boundary between self and other during the first three years is critical (Armstrong, 1994, as cited in Lavelle, 1998). They want to have time to reflect alone on what they have learned

from in class. If teachers give them a certain time to write a journal or diary, they would love these activities.

3. Conclusion

The goal of learner-centered teaching is to satisfy students' needs and to help them apply their experiences to new content in the classroom. Learners already have strength in many different kinds of fields such as, linguistics, logical-mathematical thinking, using visual images, using body parts, music, and/or personal relationships. Teachers can help learners to find out their own strength or learning styles to make input more comprehensible, which will improve outcomes. For this purpose, the use of multiple intelligences can improve learning in the classroom (Lavelle, 1998). Gardner's suggestion can provide a frame for teachers to create many kinds of activities that meet students' interests, and are easy to apply in the classroom (Lavelle, 1998). Even with the same contents, teachers can create many different types of activities to make students participate in the lesson, and demonstrate their understanding through their own styles. Teachers might have difficulties to prepare more activities, but it is worth it to insure that students enjoy their learning. Students like to show their participation by their own choices, as teachers also check their learning in several ways. Multiple intelligences enable students to learn in such multi-faceted fashion.

Appendix

What are my Learning Strengths?

Research shows that all human beings have at least eight different

types of intelligence. Depending on your background and age,

some intelligences are more developed than others. This activity

will help you find out what your strengths are. Knowing this, you

can work to strengthen the other intelligences that you do not use

as often.

Multiple Intelligence Survey 1

Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence	Logical/Mathematical Intelligence
___I enjoy telling stories and jokes	___I really enjoy my math class
___I have a good memory for trivia	___I like logical math puzzles or brain teasers
___I enjoy word games (e.g. Scrabble & puzzles)	___I find solving math problems to be fun
___I read books just for fun	___If I have to memorize something I tend to place events in a logical order
___I am a good speller (most of the time)	
___In an argument I tend to use put-downs or sarcasm	___I like to find out how things work
___I like talking and writing about my ideas	___I enjoy computer and any math games
___If I have to memorize something I create a rhyme or saying to help me remember	___I love playing chess, checkers or Monopoly
	___In an argument, I try to find a fair and

___If something breaks and won't work, I read the instruction book first ___For a group presentation I prefer to do the writing and library research	logical solution ___If something breaks and won't work, I look at the pieces and try to figure out how it works ___For a group presentation I prefer to create the charts and graphs
Visual/Spatial Intelligence	**Bodily/Kinesthetic Intelligence**
___I prefer a map to written directions ___I daydream a lot ___I enjoy hobbies such as photography ___I like to draw and create ___If I have to memorize something I draw a diagram to help me remember ___I like to doodle on paper whenever I can ___In a magazine, I prefer looking at the pictures rather than reading the text ___In an argument I try to keep my distance, keep silent or visualize some solution ___If something breaks and won't work I tend to study the diagram of how it works ___For a group presentation I prefer to draw all the pictures	___My favorite class is gym since I like sports ___I enjoy activities such as woodworking, sewing and building models ___When looking at things, I like touching them ___I have trouble sitting still for any length of time ___I use a lot of body movements when talking ___If I have to memorize something I write it out a number of times until I know it ___I tend to tap my fingers or play with my pencil during class ___In a argument I tend to strike out and hit or run away ___If something breaks and won't work I tend to play with the pieces to try to fit them together ___For a group presentation I prefer to move the props around, hold things up or build a model

Musical/Rhythmic Intelligence	Interpersonal Intelligence
___I enjoy listening to CD's and the radio	___I get along well with others
___I tend to hum to myself when working	___I like to belong to clubs and organizations
___I like to sing	___I have several very close friends
___I play a musical instrument quite well	___I like helping teach other students
___I like to have music playing when doing homework or studying	___I like working with others in groups
___If I have to memorize something I try to create a rhyme about the event	___Friends ask my advice because I seem to be a natural leader
___I an argument I tend to shout or punch or move in some sort of rhythm	___If I have to memorize something I ask someone to quiz me to see if I know it
___I can remember the melodies of many songs	___In an argument I tend ask a friend or some person in authority for help
___If something breaks and won't work I tend to tap my fingers to a beat while I figure it out	___If something breaks and won't work I try to find someone who can help me
___For a group presentation I prefer to put new words to a popular tune or use music	___For a group presentation I like to help organize the group's efforts
Intrapersonal Intelligence	Naturalist Intelligence
___I like to work alone without anyone bothering me	___I am keenly aware of my surroundings and of what goes on around me
___I like to keep a diary	___I love to go walking in the woods and looking at the trees and flowers
___I like myself (most of the time)	___I enjoy gardening
___I don't like crowds	___I like to collect things (e.g., rocks, sports cards, stamps, etc)
___I know what I am good at and what I am weak at	___As an adult, I think I would like to get away from the city and enjoy nature
___I find that I am strong-willed, independent and don't follow the crowd	___If I have to memorize something, I tend to organize it into categories
___If I have to memorize something I tend to close my eyes and feel the situation	
___In an argument I will usually walk away	

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until I calm down

___If something breaks and won't work, I wonder if it's worth fixing up

___For a group presentation I like to contribute something that is uniquely mine, often based on how I feel

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___I enjoy learning the names of living things in our environment, such as flowers and trees

___In an argument I tend to compare my opponent to someone or something I have read or heard about and react accordingly

___If something breaks down, I look around me to try and see what I can find to fix the problem

___For a group presentation I prefer to organize and classify the information into categories so it makes sense

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TOTAL SCORE

_____Verbal/Linguistic	_____Musical/Rhythmic
_____Logical/Mathematical	_____Interpersonal
_____Visual/Spatial	_____Intrapersonal
_____Bodily/Kinesthetic	_____Naturalist

J. Ivanco, 1998, http://www.ldrc.ca/projects/miinventory/mitest.html

Multiple Intelligences Survey 2

_____

Multiple Intelligences Survey

© 1999 Walter McKenzie, The One and Only Surfaquarium

http://surfaquarium.com/MI/inventory.htm

Complete each section by placing a "1" next to each statement you feel accurately describes you. If you do not identify with a statement, leave the space provided blank. Then total the column in each section.

Section 1

_____ I enjoy categorizing things by common traits

_____ Ecological issues are important to me

_____ Hiking and camping are enjoyable activities

_____ I enjoy working on a garden

_____ I believe preserving our National Parks is important

_____ Putting things in hierarchies makes sense to me

_____ Animals are important in my life

_____ My home has a recycling system in place

_____ I enjoy studying biology, botany and/or zoology

_____ I spend a great deal of time outdoors

_____ TOTAL for Section 1

Section 2

_____ I easily pick up on patterns

_____ I focus in on noise and sounds

_____ Moving to a beat is easy for me

_____ I've always been interested in playing an instrument

_____ The cadence of poetry intrigues me

_____ I remember things by putting them in a rhyme

_____ Concentration is difficult while listening to a radio or television

_____ I enjoy many kinds of music

_____ Musicals are more interesting than dramatic plays

_____ Remembering song lyrics is easy for me

_____ TOTAL for Section 2

Section 3

_____ I keep my things neat and orderly

_____ Step-by-step directions are a big help

_____ Solving problems comes easily to me

_____ I get easily frustrated with disorganized people

_____ I can complete calculations quickly in my head

_____ Puzzles requiring reasoning are fun

_____ I can't begin an assignment until all my questions are answered

_____ Structure helps me be successful

_____ I find working on a computer spreadsheet or database rewarding

_____ Things have to make sense to me or I am dissatisfied

_____ TOTAL for Section 3

Section 4

_____ It is important to see my role in the "big picture" of things

_____ I enjoy discussing questions about life

_____ Religion is important to me

_____ I enjoy viewing art masterpieces

_____ Relaxation and meditation exercises are rewarding

_____ I like visiting breathtaking sites in nature

_____ I enjoy reading ancient and modern philosophers

_____ Learning new things is easier when I understand their value

_____ I wonder if there are other forms of intelligent life in the universe

_____ Studying history and ancient culture helps give me perspective

_____ TOTAL for Section 4

Section 5

_____ I learn best interacting with others

_____ The more the merrier

_____ Study groups are very productive for me

_____ I enjoy chat rooms

_____ Participating in politics is important

_____ Television and radio talk shows are enjoyable

_____ I am a "team player"

_____ I dislike working alone

_____ Clubs and extracurricular activities are fun

_____ I pay attention to social issues and causes

_____ TOTAL for Section 5

Section 6

_____ I enjoy making things with my hands

_____ Sitting still for long periods of time is difficult for me

_____ I enjoy outdoor games and sports

_____ I value non-verbal communication such as sign language

_____ A fit body is important for a fit mind

_____ Arts and crafts are enjoyable pastimes

_____ Expression through dance is beautiful

_____ I like working with tools

_____ I live an active lifestyle

_____ I learn by doing

_____ TOTAL for Section 6

Section 7

_____ I enjoy reading all kinds of materials

_____ Taking notes helps me remember and understand

_____ I faithfully contact friends through letters and/or e-mail

_____ It is easy for me to explain my ideas to others

_____ I keep a journal

_____ Word puzzles like crosswords and jumbles are fun

_____ I write for pleasure

_____ I enjoy playing with words like puns, anagrams and spoonerisms

_____ Foreign languages interest me

_____ Debates and public speaking are activities I like to participate in

_____ TOTAL for Section 7

Section 8

_____ I am keenly aware of my moral beliefs

_____ I learn best when I have an emotional attachment to the subject

_____ Fairness is important to me

_____ My attitude effects how I learn

_____ Social justice issues concern me

_____ Working alone can be just as productive as working in a group

_____ I need to know why I should do something before I agree to do it

_____ When I believe in something I will give 100% effort to it

_____ I like to be involved in causes that help others

_____ I am willing to protest or sign a petition to right a wrong

_____ TOTAL for Section 8

Section 9

_____ I can imagine ideas in my mind

_____ Rearranging a room is fun for me

_____ I enjoy creating art using varied media

_____ I remember well using graphic organizers

_____ Performance art can be very gratifying

_____ Spreadsheets are great for making charts, graphs and tables

_____ Three dimensional puzzles bring me much enjoyment

_____ Music videos are very stimulating

_____ I can recall things in mental pictures

_____ I am good at reading maps and blueprints

_____ TOTAL for Section 9

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Communicative Language Teaching
in High School English: A Lesson Plan

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No, I am not suggesting that you throw away your trusty textbooks. I can think of very few teachers who do not use textbooks. They are valuable resources. Ah, that is the key--they are "resources." I recently witnessed a conversation in a faculty lounge. It went like this: "Can you believe that they've adopted this new textbook? I can't teach from that. I'm going to continue to use the textbook I've been using. I'm not about to change all of my lesson plans because of a new textbook. Also, this textbook has more content, and it's too much material to cover in one school year. I can cover the textbook I'm using now in exactly one school year." A textbook should be used as a teaching tool, one of many resources. Another good question to ask yourself is this: "If all of the textbooks were removed from my classroom, would I be able to continue my teaching?" If your answer is "no," then you are relying too heavily on the textbook in your instruction. Remember, textbooks are resources. We teach students, not textbooks (Breau, 2003).

1. Introduction

Teaching English only with textbooks at high schools in Korea causes some problems relating to authenticity and practicality. First, using textbooks prevents students from being exposed to real discourse because materials in textbooks are so modified and controlled that they might not be authentic. In addition, many topics in textbooks are not motivating and interesting to students. Some topics in textbooks are involved with history or hi-tech science, which students are not interested in. The most serious problem of textbooks is that they don't provide enough context to help students study English. Specially in high schools in Korea, textbooks are not 'real textbooks' for both

students and teachers. Most of the teachers who teach third graders just skip the textbook and teach SAT patterns using reference books for reading.

However, it is true that we have been neglecting the importance of textbooks for such a long time. Textbooks usually have refined and carefully-chosen reading materials and a lot of activities for four language skills, whereas authentic materials may be too culturally biased and mixed with too many structures, causing lower level students to have a hard time decoding the texts (Martinez, 2002). Also, the vocabulary in textbooks is comparatively relevant and appropriate to the students' immediate needs. Even though textbooks have these good points, teachers have refrained from using textbooks in class for various reasons. Teachers indicate that textbooks are not practical in real classrooms and activities are not related to the main reading material.

Our aims in this lesson plan are to make activities practical and easy to use for teachers and to connect activities to the main reading materials. In the sample lesson, pre-reading and post-reading activities share the same topic so that they can provide additional contexts for students to understand better the reading material, which is taken from an actual textbook published by Sisa. In addition, activities include guidelines to make them clear for both teachers and students. Also, worksheets are immediately copiable and usable in class. Every activity in this lesson plan is developed based on techniques and principles to improve communicative language teaching.

2. Text Evaluation: Problems

Textbook	High School English (Sisa Publishing Company)
Student Profile	High School 2nd Year
English Proficiency	Intermediate Mid for 4 Skills
Class	1 Hour Period, 4 times per week
Experience	Have studied English as a required subject, without authentic context
Motivation	To get a high score in the College Entrance Exam

2.1 Major Problems of Activities in High School English Textbook

First, activities for the four skills are neither topic-focused nor well-related to each

other even though each lesson has a topic. Second, one activity targets only one skill. The four skills are not integrated in each activity, which makes students only develop each skill separately. Third, activities are mainly lecture-centered and geared for individual testing. Teachers usually lead classes with few group work or pair work. Fourth, tasks are too simple and dependent. All students have to do is to fill in blanks or solve true or false questions. Last, grammar points are de-contextualized. On the page for structure, there is just a list of sentences including each grammar point. It's hard to find any part that provides context for each sentence to help students understand the real use of the grammar points.

2.2 Teachers' and Students' Need Analysis

2.2.1. Teachers' Needs Analysis
The result of the teacher questionnaire shows that teachers use only some parts of activities on the textbook because there are too many activities that they can't handle in a semester. Also, textbooks don't include clear guidelines, worksheets, or printable and copiable materials for each activity.

2.2.2. Students' Needs Analysis
From the questionnaire, students asked for interactive activities to be related to main reading text. Some activities in the textbook are based on totally different ideas even though each lesson has its own topic. Students also put emphasis on the preparation for exams and the need for convenient materials such as handouts or organizers to help their comprehension.

To complement the deficiency, the sample lesson is mainly focused on two aspects. First, all activities are meaningfully based on the main reading text. Every activity can be the context for students to understand the main reading text. Second, each activity has one or two worksheets that teachers can immediately copy and use in class. The sample lesson has three parts that teachers can deal with in three weeks. Specifically, it has pre-reading activities, while-reading activities and post-reading activities. Comparatively, the Sisa textbook has separate activities for listening, speaking, writing, and reading.

3. Theoretical Background and Application: Solutions

This paper explains how theories are applied in the sample lesson to deliver communicative English classes in a Korean situation. The sample lesson consists of three parts: *Warm Up, Dig Up,* and *Wrap Up*. Technically, *Warm Up* is for pre-reading activities, *Dig Up* for while-reading activities, and *Wrap Up* for a post-reading activity. As Finch (1999) suggests, tasks are best if they have preparation ("pre-task") activities, "during-task" activities and follow-up ("post-task") activities. First, pre-task activities are important because they give a chance to introduce new language, ease the language-processing load and push learners to interpret tasks in more demanding ways. Second, during-task activities are concerned with planning, reporting, and decision-making. Lastly, post-task activities help learners hypothesize, consolidate, classify the language structurally and semantically. Based on Finch's (1999) ideas, each part in the sample lesson plan has two activities with tasks that teachers can freely choose from according to student's proficiency level or classroom conditions.

3.1 Communicative Language Teaching(CLT)

This revision is fundamentally based on principles of Communicative Language Teaching. Communicative language teaching focuses on the importance of authentic materials, interactions in class, and meanings (Author, 19XX). The 7th curriculum is based on communicative language teaching, placing emphasis on in-depth and supplementary differentiated curriculum. It shows how teachers can change the form of activities by considering students' proficiency level. It specially focuses on task-based language teaching (T.B.L.T) and cooperative learning for interactions and skills integration, intercultural language teaching and self-access language teaching for authentic materials.

3.1.1 Interaction/Skills Integration

3.1.1.1 Task-Based Language Teaching(T.B.L.T)

As English climber George Leigh Mallory once said, "I climb mountains because they are there," students don't know what to learn unless teachers give them tasks. Students learn language effectively by completing certain tasks individually or in groups. In

addition, tasks help teachers control the students in class. It is easier to make students concentrate on lessons by having students fill in blanks, complete graphs or tables and even group projects. Also, tasks are important to facilitate cooperative activities. Without tasks, students usually lose interest and chat with group members in discussion classes.

To apply this idea into the real classroom, Fried-Booth (1986) suggests one example of T.B.L.T called task-based projects with three steps. First, students work in groups to plan and assign roles. Second, students collect information, do research through interviewing, taking pictures, writing and printing out. They close their project by reviewing, monitoring and getting feedback from the teacher or classmates.

The three parts of this lesson plan—*Warm Up, Dig Up*, and *Wrap Up*—each includes a set of tasks with clear guidelines. Activities in *Warm Up* are tasks that require students to brainstorm ideas, assign roles, collect authentic information, research, write a movie review and present it to the rest of the class. Also, each group receives written feedback from classmates in the form of peer evaluation sheets. Doing peer evaluation is a task that forces students to concentrate on other groups' presentations.

Activity 1 in *Dig Up* is apparently traditional but it has interaction techniques to make students paraphrase, summarize, and answer questions. *Worksheet #6* is helpful for students to skim each paragraph in the article while *Worksheet #7* is for scanning paragraphs. *Worksheet #6* has questions for a main idea and key words for each paragraph. In contrast, *Worksheet #7* includes a cloze activity and questions for words in blanks, or sentences for specific information

Students are required to do a series of things to write an email about a movie recommendation in *Dig up.* They should choose a movie, get specific information according to the presented list, organize ideas, compose sentences, and write an email. Although students learn to write a movie review in class, they just close the textbook and forget everything unless teachers give this kind of task after reading.

3.1.1.2　*Cooperative Learning/Interactive Learning*

Cooperative learning means that students learn by interacting with each other in groups to complete a certain task. Johnson & Johnson (1984) present five elements to make cooperative learning successful: 'positive interdependence,' 'face-to-face interaction'

where students explain, argue and elaborate to learn; 'individual accountability', which requires every member of the group to learn; 'social skills' such as leadership, trust building and conflict resolution; and 'group processing', which indicates how well students are working together. While working together, students interact to share information and negotiate to complete the task. Moreover, it helps students to get four major language competencies as well as nonverbal communication skills.

Activity 1 in *Warm Up* is based on cooperative learning process. Teacher makes groups of four or five, explains the procedure of the activity with a written handout that includes instructions and the task to complete. Students in each group assign roles: a leader, a presenter, source givers, and writers. They collect information from authentic sources such as books, newspapers or web pages. Lastly, students work together to write a movie review about facts and imagination and present it with some visual materials to the rest of the class. While presenting, audiences evaluate the presentation on peer feedback evaluation handout. To prepare the presentation, students read materials to get information, listen to other's opinions, speak their ideas, and also write a movie review.

Activity 2 in *Dig Up* is also a presentation class. The presentation is followed by reading the presented article. Using the handout with clear instructions, students work in groups. It helps students improve their four language skills as well as check their reading comprehension. The writing task in *Wrap Up* is not simple, which requires students to get, read and understand certain information about a movie and produce their own ideas through writing.

Activity 2 in *Wrap Up* is an activity for grammar which is not simple practice but pair work where two students complete dialogues presented in each handout. Students have a conversation and learn a grammatical structure based on meaning through pair work. This is meaningful in that students should interact with each other to complete the dialogue.

3.1.2 Materials Authenticity

3.1.2.1 Intercultural Language Learning

Sandra (2003) says that the purpose of teaching English is to have students use English to tell others about their own ideas and culture. English textbooks in Korea do little to

connect the culture of English-speaking countries with Korean culture. Teachers are reluctant to use culture as a lesson topic even though there are some intercultural activities in textbooks. Therefore, Korean students lose their chances to improve their communicative competence through introducing their ideas and cultures in English. According to Cortazz & Jin (1999), students learn English communicatively using three different cultural materials: Source culture, target culture, and international culture. Based on these materials, activities in English textbooks can be communicative, providing students with opportunities to learn, practice, and understand cultures of English-speaking countries, Korean culture, and even those of non-English speaking nations.

The sample lesson is about facts and imagination in movies. *Warm Up* presents an activity about a Korean movie 'Tae Geuk Gi' (source culture) and target culture is presented in *Read Up* where an article analyzes three movies: *Gone with the wind, J.F.K., and Jurassic Park*. *Wrap Up* provides an activity to write an email about other movies (international culture) that students choose by themselves. Korean culture is presented first in *Warm Up* because it helps students feel easy and comfortable to start a lesson from what they know.

3.1.2.2   *Self-Access Language Learning*

Gardner & Miller (1999) introduce four different kinds of materials in self-access language learning: published language-learning materials, authentic materials, specially produced materials, and students' contributions to materials. The sample lesson requires students to get authentic materials by themselves for each task. Activities in *Warm Up* and *Wrap Up* allow students to select the movie and collect information from movie reviews and official homepages on the internet or movie posters, which are all authentic materials. Students can choose a movie that appeals to them. Moreover, while surfing the internet to gather information for the task, students feel motivated because they can not learn anything unless they find something by themselves. In self-access language learning, students can be active learners.

4. Syllabus: Procedure

Course Description

Targeting students going through the *Common Basic Curriculum* for 10th grade, this course is designed for a high school English class and employs reading materials found in a prescribed textbook.

Course Goals

1. Understand content of general topics.

2. Understand practical and academic information.

3. Understand natural communication in various situations in speech or writing.

4. Understand verbal expressions and cultures of native speakers.

5. Introduce Korean culture to native speakers.

6. Develop appropriate world view through speaking and writing.

Course Objectives

1. Write or say the topic sentence of each paragraph after reading.

2. Orally answer or write the required specific information after reading.

3. Fill in the blanks of the summary of the reading material.

4. Give an oral presentation after a group discussion.

5. Complete peer evaluation sheet while listening to presentation.

Grading / Evaluation

	Percentage	
Midterm	30%	
Final Exam	30%	
Group Presentation ☺	30%	5% for each lesson
Participation	10%	
Total	**100%**	

☺ Group Presentation : Materials, Peer evaluation, Creativity

5. Sample Lesson for a High School English Class

Contents

WARM UP

Lesson 9. Reading Movies

DIG UP

WRAP UP

Guide for Classroom Application
Lesson 9. Reading Movies

WARM UP

Activity 1   **Movie Review**

Teacher Presentation

This is an example of a movie review that Teacher (T) can present to students (Ss).

Worksheet #1 Movie Review: Cloze Activity
While presenting the movie review, T can use this worksheet to have Ss fill in the blanks. Students need some material that they can pay attention to and through which produce a visible outcome.

Student Presentation

Worksheet #2 Guideline for Your Movie Review Presentation
After listening to T and focusing on the main components of the movie, Ss will prepare their own movie review as a group. Use this as a guideline to have Ss prepare by themselves.

Worksheet #3 Peer Evaluation
During Ss movie review presentation, the audience is required to complete this form. The rationale is the same as worksheet #1 and this will count towards Ss grade.

Activity 2   **Movie Poster**
This is an alternative or supplementary reading activity that T could use as a warm up activity.

Let's make a movie poster!

Teacher presents any movie poster available out there, such as images from the internet, newspaper, or a theater.

Worksheet #4 Let's make a movie poster
This worksheet includes guidelines for Ss to make movie poster. T can copy this and hand out.

Worksheet #5 Peer Evaluation
When other Ss present their movie poster, the audience completes this peer evaluation, which targets their listening skill. As with Worksheet #3, this peer evaluation form can be a good resource for overall grading.

Dig UP

Reading Material

Reading Movies – Mark C. Carnes (1995). *Past Imperfect: History According to the Movies.* Henry Holt Reference Book. New York. In Shin, J. H. (Ed.) *High School English I.* Seoul: Sisa

Reading Comprehension

Activity 1

Reading tasks

Worksheet #6 Reading Outline
Use this worksheet for first reading to have Ss get the gist. By filling in the blanks, Ss can outline the reading material.

Worksheet #7 Intensive Reading
Use this worksheet for second reading. After getting the main idea, T and Ss can go into details.

Activity 2

Students Reading Presentation
This one is an alternative or supplementary reading activity that T could use.

Student presentation

Worksheet #8 Reading Passage Presentation
When T makes Ss present a part of the reading material, this can be useful. Corresponding to the three main movies in the main reading article, this worksheet can be best used for each movie not for each paragraph.

Worksheet #9 Let's make a dialogue out of the movies!
This is designed to have Ss make a dialogue based on their reading. Ss are asked to make a dialogue using the sentences in the reading. Again, this worksheet can be best used for each movie not for each paragraph.

Wrap UP

Email Me!

Writing an introduction for a recommendation
T can choose one activity depending on the Ss' proficiency.

Activity 1

Guided Email Writing Activity

Worksheet #10 Email Me!
Focusing on the main components of a movie introduced in this reading material, and also on the main discussion points of facts and imagination, the writing activity carefully guides Ss to write a short introductory email about a movie. Use this to hand out to Ss.

Independent Email Writing Activity

Worksheet #11 Email Me!
Contrary to the guided activity above, the independent writing activity suggests to Ss the major points to be included but lets Ss write as they wish. This can be a good source to check Ss writing proficiency and for future lessons. Use this to hand out to Ss.

Grammar Points

Activity 2

Worksheet #12 Double Dialogue
This is designed for teachers to present 'neither V S' form by making students complete two dialogues as pair work in Activity 1. Teacher cuts worksheet #12 in half and give each to student A and student B accordingly.

WARM UP

Movie Review Teacher Presentation

1 Direction

Teacher	Student
Introduce two movie reviews of '*Tae Guk Gi*' below.	Fill in the blanks in student worksheet #1 while listening to teacher presentation.

2 First Review   http://movieweb.com/movies

Destination Films & Samuel Goldwyn Films

Tae Guk Gi: The Brotherhood of War

"Taegukgi" is the story of two brothers who are unwillingly drafted into the South Korean army following the outbreak of the Korean War in June 1950. The older brother (Dong-gun) strives to protect his younger brother (Bin) on the battlefield while struggling to find a way to have him discharged so he can return to their village and care for the family they left behind. However, as the war progresses, the horror and violence they witness begin to take its toll on each man and severe their bonds as brothers and soldiers. "Taegukgi" offers a unique perspective on "The Forgotten War", which permanently divided a nation and turned friends --and families-- into sworn enemies. The movie is released in September third, 2004. Sony pictures and Samuel Goldwyn Films have all the rights of this movie in America. It's rated R due to some strong graphic sequences of war violence. Runtime is 140 minutes.

3 Second Review   http://www.nixflix.com/reviews/taegukgi.htm

Saving Private Jin-Seok

"Taegukgi" is the big-budget South Korean war film everyone has been waiting for, rumored to be the most expensive production in Korean movie history. No big surprise, considering writer/director Je-gyu Kang ("Shiri") only knows how to do things two ways: big and bigger. "Taegukgi" is without a doubt a nationalistic movie. The film's Korean title translates into something along the lines of "wave the Korean flag."

Movie Review: Fill in the blanks!

🔊 Fill in the blanks while teacher is introducing reviews of the movie '*Tae Guk Gi.*' This information is required for the student presentation. Teacher will give you 10 points for your answers.
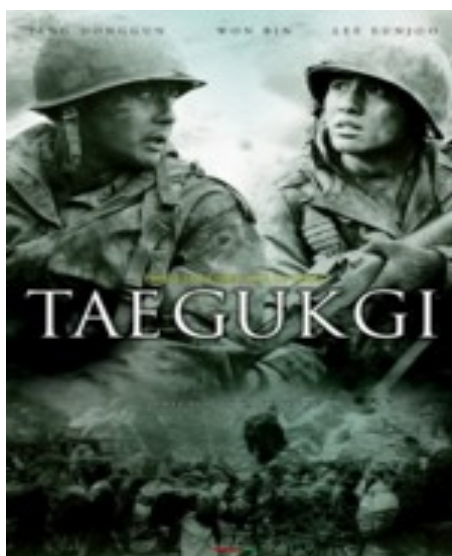
No	Questions	Answers
1	Movie Name	
2	Genre	
3	Director	
4	Writer	
5	Actors/Actresses	
6	Official Homepage Address	
7	Rating	
8	Release Date	
9	Historical Background	
10	Country	

Guideline for Your Movie Review Presentation

🔊 Students make a group of 5-6 members who have the same interests in movies.

🔊 Group members appoint a presenter, a leader, an evaluator. Other group members are source givers to collect information.

🔊 The group chooses a movie that all members are interested in.

🔊 Source givers collect information from all different sources such as internet sites or books.

🔊 Group leaders plan to write a review using collected information with members.

🔊 All members get together to complete the review.

🔊 Presenters prepare for the presentation.

🔊 Your Movie Review is required to include these 5 elements presented below.

1. What are the name and the genre of the movie?
2. Where is the movie from?
3. Who is the director of the movie?
4. Who is starring in the movie? (Cast information)
5. What is the story about?

🔊 Evaluators give points for each element that they take from presentations.

🔊 Evaluators also give points for readiness, presenters' speeches, and attitude, among other things.

TIPS   Genre and Ratings

Genre	Ratings
Drama / Adventure Action / Horror Comedy / Thriller Romantic Comedy War / Romance Science Fiction	1. G (General Audience) : All Ages Admitted 2. PG (Parental Guidance Suggested): Some material may not be suitable for children. 3. PG-13 (Parents Strongly Cautioned): Some material may not be appropriate for children under 13. 4. R (Restricted) : No one under 17 is allowed to see

	the movie.						

Peer Evaluation

🔊 **What to Evaluate?**

1. Movie Summary - Is the summary simple and clear?
2. Director Information - Is the director of the movie presented?
3. Cast – Are actors and actresses presented?
4. Genre – Is the genre of the movie presented?
5. Rating - Is the rating of the movie presented?
6. Readiness – How much is the presenter ready?
7. Speech – Is the presentation clear and easy to understand?
8. Attitude – Is the presenter reading or presenting?
9. Word Choice – Are words in the presentation understandable?
10. Teacher's Point – Teacher can give an additional point.

🔊 **How to Evaluate?**

1. Give 1 point for each element. (0 for Nothing / 0.5 for So-so / 1 for Perfect)
2. Evaluators give points for every group except their own.
3. Evaluators calculate points for each group after the presentation.

---cut here!

🔊 **Peer Evaluation Paper**

	Presenters Movie						
1	Movie Summary						
2	Director info						
3	Cast						
4	Genre						
5	Rating						
6	Readiness						
7	Speech						
8	Attitude						
9	Word Choice						
10	Teacher's point						
	Total						

DIG UP

Reading Movies

Movies have the power to shape our view of the world and the people who live in it. From Julius Caesar to Joan of Arc to Gandhi, many of history's greatest figures have become familiar to us due to their screen images. The same is true of historical events. When most people think of World War II, They tend to remember scenes from Schindler's List, Saving Private Ryan, or Pearl Harbor, which influence how they view the event.

Viewers often think that what they see in movies is real even though they know that the scenes are created by blending fact and imagination. This is because the images provided by the film are so clear and strong that they make a deep impression on their minds. What is the primary goal of a movie? Is it to provide entertainment or to give facts and educate viewers, or both? Should filmmakers make sure that films are factually accurate?

Let's consider the movie *Gone with the wind*. It is the most realistic depiction of plantation life in the American South before the Civil War. The producer went to great lengths to keep the movie accurate. He hired a group of advisers like a southern dialog trainer, an etiquette expert, a historical artist and architect, and a costume designer. The costume designer did a lot of research in Atlanta museums, collecting pieces of cloth for reproduction. The women's costumes for *Gone with the Wind* cost nearly one hundred

thousand dollars to make.

In the film's opening scenes, however, there are some black people picking cotton in the spring, although actual plantations never harvested cotton in the spring. In this scene and in many others, the movie sacrificed accuracy to suit its larger goal of creating the atmosphere of the South.

JFK is a movie that gives an impression of being a factual record about a historical event. The movie follows the life of Jim Garrison, a former New Orleans district attorney. Garrison tried to make a career of disproving the accepted version of the Kennedy assassination. The film's story is based on his understanding of events, and it accuses various high-level groups of people of secretly planning Kennedy's murder. The criminals supposedly did this to prevent Kennedy from removing U.S. troops from Vietnam after his 1964 election.   **-11-**

Many historians and journalist criticized the film for its lack of evidence and for simplifying complex situations. Was there really a secret plot to murder Kennedy? Who were the people involved? What would Kennedy have done if he had lived? Would he have pulled troops out of Southeast Asia? Nobody will ever know for sure. Even though the movie portrays just one view of the assassination, some people consider JFK as the true picture of what really happened.

Jurassic Park tells a story about bringing dinosaurs to life. The movie makes it appear scientifically possible. The movie's plot line is well-known. A businessman sets up a theme park of living dinosaurs. His scientists take dinosaurs DNA from the blood of mosquitoes preserved inside amber. They enlarge the DNA, put together complete sequences, place the code

into some eggs, and cause them to grow. Dinosaurs of many species are thus brought back to life.

The realistic recreations of dinosaurs make viewers forget that they are watching a fictional movie. The scientific explanations given in the movie also add to the impression that the movie is based on fact. But recovering dinosaur DNA is scientifically impossible. It would be like trying to list all the soldiers killed in, for example, the battle of Hwangsan field. There is no way to put together such a record. An organism contains thousands of different genes all necessary to recreate life. DNA is very fragile and can survive for millions of years only under very favorable conditions. The movie makes false claims, but they contribute to the dramatic effect of the movie.

Factual errors and impossible claims in these movies do not reduce the level of success they have achieved nor decrease the entertainment they provide. In the world of the movie, fantastic things can happen in the two hours while the movie is running. From time to time people want to get away from their boring everyday lives and want to be lost in the wonderful world of dreams and imagination. Movies satisfy these needs, and this is one of the primary functions they have. Moviegoers have a right to relax and enjoy themselves while they are watching movies, and filmmakers are allowed to bend the truth to increase dramatic effect. Historical facts and characters are often changed for one reason or another. Have fun at the movies, but remember that they do not always faithfully represent the world, which is often not what they present it to be.

Reading Outline

Parts	P #	Answer the questions!
Introduction	1	What is the topic sentence? _____ _
	2	What are the two main key words? _____ _
Evidence #1 **Movie Title** _____	3	Why is this movie factually accurate? _____ _
	4	Why is this movie imaginative? _____ _
Evidence #2 **Movie Title** _____	5	Who planned the assassination in the movie? _____ _ What was the assassination for in the movie? _____ _
	6	What were the two reasons that journalists and historians used to criticized the movie? _____ _
Evidence #3 **Movie Title** _____	7	How did scientists recreate dinosaurs? _____ _____ __

	8	Is this movie based on scientific fact? Why?
		_____
		_
		_____
		_
Closing	9	What are filmmakers allowed to do?
		_____
		_
		What should people need to remember?
		_____
		_

Intensive Reading

Part	P#	Content
INTRO	1	<u>**Topic Sentence**</u> _____ <u>**Supporting Ideas**</u> World's greatest figures: _____ Movies about the second World War: **_____** _____
	2	<u>**Summary**</u> People think the movie _____ even though facts in movies are mixed-up with the director's _____. Should movies be factually _____ or entertaining?
EVIDENCE **#1**	3	<u>**Cloze Activity**</u> Choose the right word for each blank. (1) This movie is based on _____ life in the American _____ before the _____ _____. (2) The director tried to make this movie factually _____. (3) This kind of accuracy applied to the _____ and rules of etiquette that southern people used, the houses they lived in, and the _____, which cost nearly one hundred thousand dollars to make. <u>**Answer choices**</u> plantation, dialects, costumes, South, Civil War, accurate

Student Worksheet #10

Email Me!

Dear students,

Hello! Suppose you have a plan to go see a movie with one of your classmates next Sunday. Your classmate emailed you that he/she had no idea which movie to choose. He/She asked you to choose a movie where fact and imagination are well-blended.

Please write an email to introduce a movie and persuade him/her to see it. You are required to fill in the blanks below using information you collected from different kinds of sources. Follow three steps below when you write an email.

Dear (1)_____,

Hi! I searched the internet to find the right movie for the two of us to see. I think (2)_____ is worth watching because this movie is a (3)_____ directed by (4)_____. We can see (5) _____ in this movie. The story is about (6) _____. It's rated (7)_____, so we can see this movie. It is factual because (8) _____. However, it is imaginative because (9)_____ In addition, (10)_____.

If you don't mind, I want to see this movie with you next Sunday. Please email me back as soon as possible.

Take care,

_____(your name)

---

(1) **Your classmate**   (2) **Movie Title**

(3) **Genre**   (4) **Director**

(5) **Actors and Actresses**   (6) **A short description about the movie**

(7) **Rating**   (8) **Factual evidence**

(9) **Imaginative evidence**   (10) **Additional information**

Email Me!

Dear students,

Hello! You are supposed to watch a movie next week in class as a post activity. This is the chance that you have been waiting for for a long time. However, I am not sure which movie is the best one for you guys, actually. I want you to recommend me a movie where fact and imagination are well-blended. Please write an introduction of a movie and email me. I will choose one of those movies and show it to everybody next class. Your email must include the two things below.

🔊 Movie Information - Title, Director, Casting, Rating, etc.
🔊 Fact and imagination - How well they are blended

TIPS How to Write!

1. Prewriting!
   - Gather ideas
   - Organize ideas
2. Drafting!
3. Revising!
   - Adding content
   - Removing content
   - Moving content
   - Substituting content
4. Editing!
   - Examining the piece of English accuracy
5. Emailing!
   - Email Address

You didn't? Neither did I !"

(Double Dialogues)

🔊 **Student A and student B take turns talking to complete two dialogues based on meaning.**

Cut here!

<u>**Student A**</u>	<u>**Student B**</u>
1 + Hello, A, How are you doing? + Kate! Does Dennis have a laptop computer?	**2** + Yes, he does. + Well, just fine. Did you watch 'Alexander?'
3 + Not yet. How about you? + Do you?	**4** +Neither did I! How about 'The Incredibles?' + I do! But why?
5 + I need two for my presentation in class tomorrow. Can I use yours? +You mean the animation?	**6** + Yes, I really wanted to see it, but I didn't + Sorry, I need it tomorrow for my homework.
7 + Neither did I. Let's go see the movie after school. + Oh, okay. I can borrow from others then.	**8** + Sorry, I will visit my cousin this afternoon. + Sorry, good luck with the presentation.;

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What's Up?

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TESOL 2nd semester

The lesson is planned for two periods of class time. This lesson plan is designed for high school students. The 1st period of this lesson introduces a song called "You Raise Me Up," and a reading article "What's Up," based on the cognitive linguistics approach of preposition The 2nd period of lesson, the mixture of syntax and semantics also rely on What's Up for the source of grammar with some more examples. The activities adopted for the two periods are combination of efforts to best introduce those ideas or areas mentioned above in a communicative way. For convenience's sake, students profile and overall information is attached as appendix and this journal is dedicated to the introduction of specific classroom activities.

1. Introduction

I first adopted ideas of cognitive linguistics to introduce the preposition 'up.' In student worksheet #2, students are asked to draw the song, especially paying attention to the prepositions, up, in and to. Students are asked to mark the prepositions on the drawing, which will show how they perceive the prepositions. One of our basic cognitive achievements as humans is to understand objects and the way in which they relate to each other in physical space. Therefore, prepositions that show the physical and spatial relationships between objects are one of the first to consider (Lee, Cognitive Linguistics: An introduction, 2001, p. 18).

Student Worksheet #3 is based on the core and extended meaning of up. Up, in its core, has 'the notion of upward vertical position or

movement' (ibid, p. 36), or up means toward the sky or the top of the list as it is described in the reading article, "What's UP." The meaning of up is extended to increase in size or scale and to approach, considering when an object is approaching it increases in its size. If the goal is approaching, or if we approach to the goal, we are getting closer to its completion (ibid, pp. 36-37). In phrases such as brighten up the room, fix up the old car, etc., up is not really necessary but used to put emphasis on the meaning. One might flip up the switch to get the electricity on to bright the room, or fix the car and raise the value of if. The circles in the worksheet represent the radial category of the concepts of up. The bigger the size gets, the broader the concept grows and finally the peripheral meaning does not seem to quite originate from the core. In this way, students can get the meaning of up in a more widened view, which, hopefully, will be applied to some other cases of vocabulary learning.

The 2nd Period of lesson focuses on structure(syntax) and meaning(semantics) of sentences, more precisely phrases. Activity in worksheet #4 is designed to have students notice the difference between one-word verb and multi-word verb and in doing so students can notice multi-word verbs are not just the combination of two words, but rather whole new words from which the preposition (or adverb) cannot be separated. Worksheet #5 goes further in the search of the efforts mentioned above. This time I introduce the pronominal replacement of the noun complements of the phrasal verbs and sentences beginning with the same verbs but different prepositions or same preposition but with additional phrases. This is to give the idea of constituents and constituency.

Following activities #6 and #7 are to reinforce the constituency in that some parts of sentences cannot be separated. This falls on also the area of cognitive area in that the so-called idioms such as 'stir up troubles' and 'line up for tickets', come as a whole not as a part. For, we perceive linguistic phenomena as those that cannot be segmented into word level. Therefore, they should be introduced as such to the students.

2. 1st Period

2.1 Warm-up : Activity

Listening to a song and fill in the blanks of the lyrics and draw.

Students will listen to a song, "Raise me up" of which they are required to fill in the blanks. The blanks are all prepositions down, in, up, on and to in order. After completing the lyrics by filling in the blanks, students will sing together.

Figure 1. Song

```
                You raise me up
                               Josh Groban
   When I am down and, oh my soul, so weary;
   When troubles come and my heart burdened be;
   Then, I am still and wait here in the silence,
   Until you come and sit awhile with me.
   You raise me up, so I can stand on mountains;
   You raise me up, to walk on stormy seas;
   I am strong, when I am on your shoulders;
   You raise me up: to more than I can be.
```

For 2nd activity, students will make a drawing of the song, especially marking on the prepositions. This will show how students perceive the concepts of basic prepositions. Students will compare their drawings with their partners and as a whole class, so that teacher can introduce the major concepts of the prepositions.

2.2. Presentation : Reading article "What's UP?"

Teacher will present the reading material, "What's Up."

Teacher has students speak what the reading article is about and go over the main idea.

2.3 Independent Activity

Teacher induces the meaning of the preposition up from students and makes a conclusion.

The basic meaning of up is upward vertical position, toward the sky or

top of the list. From this, the meaning is extended to the increase in size, scale or strength. The size increase when an object is approaching. When we approach to the goal, we are almost complete our task. Up is also used when it is not really necessary when it does not make difference in the meaning.

Now students are required to list all the phrases with up in the circles of the concept of up.

2.4 Closure
Teacher summarizes what was done in the class and asks one student to make a brief summary on the meaning of 'up.'

2.5 Follow-up
Students are asked to think about the difference between 'dress' and 'dress up' as it is introduced in the reading. The reading material will be used again next time.

3. 2nd Period

3.1 Warm-up
Students are required to match the sentences with pictures. Phrases are; dress – dress up, speak – speak up, give up.

3.2 Presentation
Teacher presents the reading article "What's up?" again and points out some grammatical points as below.

Table 1.

<A>	You can also say…	You cannot say…
We **open up** a store in the morning and **close** it **up** in the evening.	We **open** a store **up**… and **close** the store **up**…	We **open up** it… and **Close up** it….
Look up the word in the dictionary	**Look** the word **up**…. or **look** it **up**….	**Look up** it.

3.3 Guided Practice

With Student Worksheet #5, students will practice some grammatical considerations.

First, students will think about the emphasizing usage of up in the examples; brighten-brighten up the room, light – light up a cigar, lock – lock up the house and fix – fix up the old car. Secondly, teacher will present phrasal verbs and their complements as pronominal replacement. Finally, teacher will present some prepositional adjuncts and have students examine the constituency.

3.4 Independent Activities

Two activities are provided.

One is information gap activity where students, with their partners, are required to fill in the chart which employs the phrases (up) in the reading material.

The other is sentence completion which, again, with their partners students will complete the given sentences with the phrases of the sentences. The sentences are also from the reading material.

3.5 Evaluation & Closure

Teacher will ask some comprehension check-up questions. The questions will be like, for example,

I can open this bottle up, can I open it up? Can I open up it, then?

Teacher will conclude with summary of the lesson.

4. Materials

4.1 Student Worksheet #1 : Fill in the blanks of a song

1. Fill in the blanks while you're listening to the song.

```
        You raise me _____

                            Josh Groban


    When I am _____ and, oh my soul, so weary;
    When troubles come and my heart burdened be;
    Then, I am still and wait here _____ the silence,
    Until you come and sit awhile with me.
    You  raise  me  _____,  so  I  can  stand  _____
```

```
mountains;
You raise me _____, to walk _____ stormy seas;
I am strong, when I am _____ your shoulders;
You raise me _____: _____ more than I can be.
```

2. Compare your answers with your partner.

3. Listen to the song once more and check your answer with the teacher.

4. Sing along!!

4.2 Student Worksheet #2 : Drawing the song

Let's draw this song that we listened.

Before we do that, remember what were the words for the blank; **down, in, up, on, to**.

Directions:

1. You are free to draw anything you want from the song. However, make sure that you include the ideas or concepts of the prepositions: down, in, up, on, to. On your drawing, please mark those prepositions in your drawing using arrows (->).

Example : *on stormy seas*

2. Explain your drawing to your partner.

3. Let's share and find if we have anything in common.

4.3 Student Worksheet #3 : Where the phrases go?

Direction: List the phrases on the circle where you think they belong to. Compare your list with your partner.

not even close,
not necessary

completion

approach

increase

vertical
position

- add up to
- be up to
- brighten up
- close up
- come up
- dress up
- fix up
- light up

- line up
- lock up
- look up
- mix up
- open up
- polish up
- speak up
- stir up trouble

- stop up
- take up
- think up
- tie up
- up for
- wake up
- work up an appetite
- write up

4.4 Student Worksheet #4 : Does ' up' makes difference?

Directions:

Read following sentences. Match appropriate picture for the underlined phrases and give synonyms for each.

She's dressed.

She's dressed up.

❶

❷

Participants are said to speak.

❸

❹

When you face an obstacle, never give up.

❺

4.5 Student Worksheet #5 : Bodies & Parts

1. Compare following sets of sentences and decide if *up* makes critical differences in meaning.

A	B
We brighten the room.	We brighten up the room.
He lights a cigar.	He lights up a cigar.
I locked the house.	I locked up the house.
She fixed the old car.	She fixed up the old car.

2. Please look at the examples of A. From B, circle Yes or No as you compare with A.

\<A\>	You can also say…	You cannot say…
We **open up** a store in the morning and **close** it **up** in the evening.	We **open** a store **up**… and **close** the store **up**…	We **open up** it… and Close up it….
Look up the word in the dictionary	**Look** the word **up**…. or **look** it **up**….	**Look up** it.

\<B\>	Can we also say…?	Circle
John **opened** a store **on** 5th street.	John **opened on** a store 5th street.	Yes/No
John **opened** the door **with** the key.	John **opened with** the door the key.	Yes/No
Look out the window.	**Look** the window **out**.	Yes/No
You have to **look in** the mirror.	You have to **look** the mirror **in**.	Yes/No

3. Sentences are composed of parts that cannot be divided. They are like body parts we have in our body. Consider following sentences.

    A–a. [He tried] [to get up].
    A–b. [He tried] [to get up] [from the bed].
    A–c. [He] [got up] [from the bed] [in the morning].

    B–a. [The officers] [are] [up].
    B–b. [The officers] [are] [up for election].
    B–c. [The officers] [are up] [in front of the generals].

4.6 Student Worksheet #6 : Information Gap
Student A

Find a partner. Fill in the chart with your partner.
Your partner has the information that you don't have.
After you've finished matching, give explanation of the expressions. (You could also draw a picture.)

VERB	COMPLEMENT	EXPLANATION
WRITE UP		
	A CIGAR	
FIX UP		

	THE WORD	
BUILD UP		

4.6 Student Worksheet #6 : Information Gap

Student **B**

Find a partner. Fill in the chart with your partner.

Your partner has the information that you don't have.

After you've finished matching, give explanation of the expressions. (You could also draw a picture.)

VERB	COMPLEMENT	EXPLANATION
	A REPORT	
LIGHT UP		
	THE OLD CAR	
LOOK UP		

	A LIST	

4.7 Student Worksheet #7 Cut & Paste

Directions: Below are the parts of two sentences. Complete the sentences with your partner.

Arrange the numbers in the box. The fastest pair will get the prize!

Sentence 1

People will stir up	,	line up	,
work up	,	think up	
and get tied up	.		

❶ an appetite	❷ excuses	❸ in traffic	❹ for tickets	❺ trouble

Sentence 2

It may take up	,	,	.

❶ a lot of	❷ but	❸ don't give up	❹ if you

| ❺ may wind up | ❻ you | ❼ your time | ❽ with a thousand |

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Appendix I. Reading Material

What's Up?

We've got a two-letter word we use constantly that may have more meaning than any other. The word is UP. It is easy to understand UP, meaning toward the sky or toward the top of a list. But when we waken, why do we wake UP? At a meeting, why does a topic come UP? And why are participants said to speak UP? Why are officers UP for election? And why is it UP to the secretary to write UP a report?

The little word is really not needed, but we use it anyway. We brighten UP a room, light UP a cigar, polish UP the silver, lock UP the house and fix UP the old car. At other times, it has special meanings. People stir UP trouble, line UP for tickets, work UP an appetite, think UP excuses and get tied UP in traffic.

To be dressed is one thing, but to be dressed UP is special. It may be confusing, but a drain must be opened UP because it is stopped UP.

We open UP a store in the morning, and close it UP in the evening. We seem to be all mixed Up about UP. In order to be Up on the proper use of UP, look UP the word in the dictionary. In one desk-sized dictionary, UP takes UP half a page; and the listed definitions add UP to about 40.

If you are Up to it, you might try building UP a list of the many ways in which UP is used. It may take UP a lot of your time, but if you don't give UP, you may wind UP with a thousand.

Lesson Plan

1. Title of Lesson: What's Up

2. Source: Dear Abby Column

3. Profile of Students:

Age/Grade: High School, 2nd Grade

Language Proficiency:

       Speaking: Intermediate Low

       Listening: Intermediate Low

       Reading: Intermediate Mid

       Writing: Intermediate Low

Number of students: 35

Type of class: Public High school, 50 minutes, three times per week

Motivation: English is a required subject at high school. Students want to get a high score on the university entrance exam.

Language Experience:

       Students have been attending English class in the public school system since middle school, but have not had opportunity to practice English outside the classroom.

4. Content: Grammar: preposition *'up'*

       phrasal verbs which include 'up' e.g. speak up, stir up, etc.

       Vocabulary   weary, burden, participant, appetite, drain, polish, wind(v.)

5. Objectives: By the end of the lesson, students should be able to

1. fill in the blanks of lyrics while listening to a song.
2. illustrate concepts of the prepositions in the song on a paper.
3. fill in the circles with phrasal verbs using preposition 'up.'
4. match the phrases with the appropriate meaning.
5. orally differentiate the phrasal verbs from additional phrases with preposition.
6. tell the parts of sentences by matching and arranging appropriate phrases.

6. Materials: Song (mp3 file)   – You raise me up by *Josh Groban*

Reading Material – What's Up?
Student worksheet Handouts #1-7

An Optimality Theoretic Approach to Consonant Clusters of Foreign Loanwords in Korean

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1. Introduction

Korean has borrowed many words from other languages. The Korean vocabulary can be divided into three groups: native, Sino-Korean, and foreign loanwords. Korean phonology, however, does not allow all of the various sounds and combinations found in other languages. Because of this, Korean has to adapt many foreign loanwords to its phonology. This paper aims to investigate the strategies for adaptation of consonant clusters from an Optimality Theory (OT) perspective.

Section 2 gives an overview of the Korean phonological system. Section 3 concentrates on borrowings from English and other European languages and how Korean has adapted consonant clusters to its own phonological system. Section 4 concludes discussing the necessity of distinguishing the various groups of words in Korean and suggesting further research.

2. Overview of Korean Phonology

2.1 Korean Consonant and Vowel Phonemes

With the exception of the velar nasal, all nasals can occur in any position. Korean distinguishes through various features (plain, aspirated, fortis) many different phonemes within one place of articulation. However, these features are neutralized

in syllable-final position. Voicing is not phonemic in Korean though it does appear intervocalically as an allophone of the plain stops.

Korean has eight basic vowels and the diphthongs /ja/, /jɔ/, /jo/, /ju/, /je/, /jɛ/, /wa/, /wɔ/, /we/, /wɛ/, and /ɯj/[1].
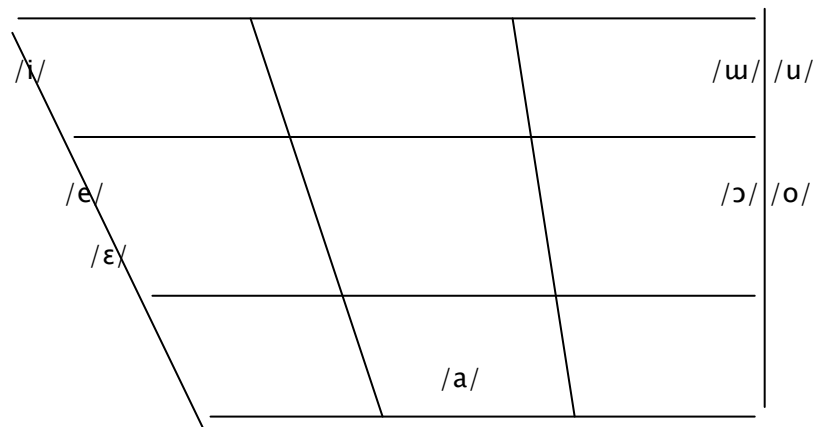
2.2 Some Phonological Constraints of Korean

Korean syllables have the structure (C)(G)V(C): a mandatory vowel (PEAK), an optional one-consonant onset, an optional glide before the vowel, and an optional one-consonant coda. The most important constrain in Korean is PEAK, which requires a vowel at the nucleus of each syllable. Korean additionally allows diphthongs in PEAK position

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[1] According to Rhee (2002), this is a recent spelling pronunciation characteristic of younger speakers

.

	Nasal	Aspirated	Plain	Fortis	Syllable-Final
Bilabial	m	pʰ	p	p*	p
Dental	n	tʰ	t	t*	
Dental Fricative			s	s*	t
Affricate		tʃʰ	tʃ	tʃ*	
Velar Fricative			h		
Velar	ŋ	kʰ	k	k*	k
Liquid			l		l

Distinguishing plain, aspirated, and fortis sounds, Korean adds various features to consonants in order to increase its phonemic inventory. These features, however, greatly neutralize in final position—sixteen oral obstruents reduce to four

1. a. /pak*/ 'outside' → [pak]   b. /mos/ 'cannot' → [mot]

    c. /pʰatʰ/ 'red bean' → [pʰat]   d. /k*otʃʰ/ 'flower' → [k*ot]

    e. puɔkʰ/ 'kitchen' → [puɔk]   f. /ipʰ/ 'leaf' → [ip]

These data demonstrate that Korean ranks CONSTRASTIVECODE above MAX. Not adding a vowel after the final consonant to maintain a contrast reveals that Korean ranks DEP above MAX. The result of this ranking is that in final position, the only contrastive features are nasality, laterality, and place of articulation.

Tableau 1

/pak*/ 'outside'	PEAK	CONTRASTIVECODA	DEP	MAX
[pak*]		*!		
[pa.k*]	*!	*		
[p.ak*]	*!	*		
[pa.k*ɯ]			*!	
[pa.kɯ]			*!	*
☞ [pak]				*

Another important constraint in Korean is *COMPLEX, which does not allow complex onsets or codas. There are two possible ways of resolving this when encountered with a word containing a complex onset or coda. A language can either delete one of the consonants, a violation of MAX, or insert vowels to break up the cluster, a violation of DEP. As seen above, Korean ranks DEP more highly than MAX and applies this to consonant clusters of native words, which only occur in coda position—for consonant clusters of native words[2], Korean deletes one of the consonants.

2. a. /antʃ-/ 'to sit' → [an-]   b. /saks/ 'wage' → [sak]

   c. /kaps/ 'price' → [kap]   d. /halt^h-/ 'to lick' → [hal-]

Native Korean words can have the following (phonemic) syllable-final consonant clusters: /ps/, /ks/, /ntʃ/, /lt^h/, /ls/, /lp/, /lp^h/, /lk/, and /lm/.[3] One of the consonants is deleted only when followed by a consonant or word boundary. When followed by a vowel, both consonants are retained, the second forming a syllable with the following vowel.

Tableau 2 shows the optimal output of the form /kaps/ 'price' with the constraints in the order discussed thus far. The order of constraints produces two possible optimal outputs. However, both variants are not allowed; [kap] is the only acceptable pronunciation in standard Korean. A constraint is necessary to make [kap] the optimal candidate.

---

[2] In native words, consonant clusters only occur in coda position.
[3] The clusters /lh/, /mh/, and /nh/ also exist, but the /h/ is never pronounced. Rather, its presence causes the aspiration of following plain stops.

Tableau 2

/kaps/ 'price'	*COMPLEX	PEAK	CONTRASTIVECODA	DEP	MAX
[kaps]	*!		*		
[kap.s]		*!	*		
[ka.ps]		*!	*		
[ka.pɯs]			*!	*	
[ka.pɯt]				*!	
[kap.sɯ]				*!	
☞ [kap]					*
[kas]			*!		*
☞ [kat]					*

The words in example 2 show that, generally, the first consonant of the cluster is retained and the others are deleted. This consonant is also closest to the peak of the syllable. In light of these data, I propose the constraint PROXPEAK (Proximity to Peak), which prefers the consonant closest to the peak.

3.   PROXPEAK: retain the consonant closest to the peak

The addition of this constraint would yield the following tableau:

Tableau 3

/kaps/ 'price'	*COMPLEX	PEAK	CONTRASTIVECODA	DEP	PROXPEAK	MAX
[kaps]	*!		*			
[kap.s]		*!	*			
[ka.ps]		*!	*			
[ka.pɯs]			*!	*		
[ka.pɯt]				*!		
[kap.sɯ]				*!		
☞ [kap]						*
[kas]			*!			*
[kat]					*!	*

There are, however, some exceptions to this consonant cluster reduction constraint, all involving the consonant /l/.

4. /talk/ 'chicken' → a. [tak]   b. *[tal]   c. *[talk]

   /salm/ 'life' → a. [sam]   b. *[sal]   c. *[salm]

In the standard language, words ending in the clusters /ls/ and /lt^h/ obey
PROXPEAK: the /l/ is retained at the expense of the following consonant. The
clusters /lk/, /lm/, /lp/, and /lp^h/, however, delete the /l/ and retain the second
consonant. Crucial for this distinction is the fact that /s/ and /t^h/ are homorganic
with /l/ and the fact that /l/ is avoided when possible in Korean. When the second
consonant in the cluster is homorganic with /l/, the cluster follows PROXPEAK.
Otherwise, the /l/ is deleted. Two additional constraints are necessary; however, I
am not completely aware of the exact nature of these constraints. For the time being,
I propose HOM /l/, which prefers candidates with a consonant not homorganic with
/l/, and *[l], which prefers candidates without [l]. These constraints account not
only for this difference but also for an assimilation discussed later.

5.   HOM /l/—consonant homorganic with /l/

      *[l]—no [l]

Tableau 4

/talk/ 'chicken'	*COMPLEX	PEAK	HOM /l/	DEP	*[l]	PROXPEAK	MAX
[talk]	*!						
[tal.k]		*!					
[ta.lk]		*!					
[ta.lɯk]				*!			
[tal.kɯ]				*!			
[tal]					*!		*
☞ [tak]						*	*

In order to get the correct output, HOM /l/ must appear above *[l], and both of these
must occur above PROXPEAK and MAX.

Tableau 5

/kols/ 'route'	*Complex	Peak	Hom /l/	Dep	*[l]	ProxPeak	Max
[kols]	*!						
[kol.s]		*!					
[ko.ls]		*!					
[ko.lɯs]				*!			
[kol.sɯ]				*!			
☞ [kol]					*		*
[kos]			*!			*	*

In addition to the above-mentioned phenomena, a number of assimilations occur when consonants appear together intervocalically. The various assimilations involve Identical Cluster Constraints (ICC). One ICC common in Korean is nasal assimilation—when followed by a nasal, virtually all consonants become their homorganic nasal:

6.　　/tok/ + /lip/ + /mun/ →　　　[toŋnimmun] 'Toklip Gate'

　　　/kam/ + /li/　　　　→　　　[kamni] 'Methodism'

　　　/nak/ + /noŋ/　　　→　　　[naŋnoŋ] 'dairy farming'

Nasal assimilation violates both DEP and MAX, so ICC [NAS] must be more highly ranked. However, because the consonants assimilate to become a homorganic nasal, FAITH [PLACE] must be ranked above DEP and MAX but below ICC [NAS].

Tableau 6

/nak/ + /noŋ/ 'dairy farming'	ICC [Nas]	Faith [Place]	Dep	Max
[nak.noŋ]	*!			
[naŋ.ŋoŋ]		*!		
[nan.noŋ]		*!		
☞ [naŋ.noŋ]			*	*

7

The consonant /l/ again shows some peculiarities regarding assimilation. It assimilates in nasality when it occurs *after* a nasal, unlike the other consonants.

7.   /ʧoŋ/ + /lo/   → [ʧoŋno] 'Chongno Road'

      /sim/ + /li/ + /hak/   → [simnihak] 'psychology'

      /sil/ + /maŋ/   → [silmaŋ] 'disappointment'

When in contact with /n/, however, /l/ does not assimilate—instead, the /n/ assimilates to /l/, becoming [l] itself. This has to do with the constraint HOM /l/ established earlier.

8.   /han/ + /la/ + /san/   → [hallasan] 'Mount Halla'

      /il/ + /njɔn/   → [illjɔn] 'two years'

Tableau 7

/il/ + /njɔn/ 'two years'	HOM /l/	ICC [NAS]	DEP	*[l]	MAX
[il.njɔn]		*!		*	
[in.njɔn]	*!		*		*
☞ [il.ljɔn]			*	*	*

The final peculiarity of /l/ is when it occurs after the other consonants. In this position, the /l/ becomes [n] because of */l/ and the preceding consonant assimilates in nasality.

9.   /sip/ + /li/   →   [simni] 'ten li' (*li* is a traditional measuring unit of distance)

Tableau 8

/sip/ + /li/ 'ten li'	HOM /l/	ICC [NAS]	FAITH [PLACE]	DEP	*[l]	MAX
[sip.li]		*!			*	
[sip.ni]		*!		*		*
☞ [sim.ni]				*		*
[sim.li]		*!		*	*	*
[sim.mi]			*!	*		*

[sin.ni]	*!		*	*		*
[sil.li]			*!	*	*	*

In full, the relevant constraints and order thereof in Korean are:

COMPLEX, PEAK, CONTRASTIVECODA>>HOM /l/, ICC [NAS], FAITH [PLACE]>>DEP>>[l]>>PROXPEAK>>MAX

3. Loanwords from English and Other European Languages in Korean

3.1 Sound Substitutions

Lacking many of the sounds present in European languages, Korean has had to adapt numerous sounds to its phonological inventory. One of the biggest differences is the fact that Korean does not have phonemic voicing, unlike most of the languages in Europe. To make up for this, Korean uses its plain stop series for voiced stops. For voiceless stops, Korean uses either its aspirated stop series (for languages, like English, where voiceless stops are aspirated) or its fortis stop series (for languages, like French, where voiceless stops are not aspirated). Other consonant substitutions include those on the table below.

Foreign Consonants	Korean Adaptation		Foreign Consonants	Korean Adaptation
/z/	/ʧ/		/v/	/p/
/ʒ/			/f/	/pʰ/
/ʤ/			initial [l]	/l/ (→ [r])
/ʃ/	/sj/ or /si/		[r]	
/ʧ/	/ʧʰ/		internal [l]	/ll/ (→ [ll])
/ð/	/t/		final [l]	/l/ (→ [l])
/θ/	/s/			

Just for reference, general vowel substitutions are given in the table below. One must keep in mind, however, that there are exceptions to all of these sound correspondences, depending on a number of different factors.

Foreign Vowels	Korean Adaptation		Foreign Vowels	Korean Adaptation
I	i		ɔ	ɔ
ɪ			ɑ	
eɪ	ei		ə	
ɛ	e		ɚ	
Æ	ɛ		ʌ	
U	u		a	a
ʊ			ɑɹ	
oʊ	o		aʊ	au
ɛɹ	ɛɔ		aɪ	ai
V_{nasal}	Vŋ			

3.2 Consonant Clusters

As established above, Korean ranks *COMPLEX quite highly, thus prohibiting consonant clusters in onsets or codas. Native and Sino-Korean lexemes do not contain initial consonant clusters, so there is no real precedence for their treatment. When borrowing foreign words that do, one would expect one of the following results from the ordering established in section 2.2:

Tableau 9

/pllɛk/[4] 'black'	*COMPLEX	PEAK	DEP	PROXPEAK	MAX
[pllɛk]	*!				
[p.llɛk]		*!			
[pll.ɛk]		*!			
[pɯl.lɛk]			*!		
[pɛk]				*!	*
☞ [lɛk]					*

---

[4] These phonemic transcriptions substitute sound for sound from English to Korean based on the charts given in the previous sections. The final output can be derived from this initial substitution.

The expected output is [lɛk]; the actual output, however, is [pɯl.lɛk], which was eliminated because of DEP. If the input contains a final cluster, this order still produces the wrong output:

Tableau 10

/pestʰ/ 'best'	*Complex	Peak	Constrastive Coda	Dep	ProxPeak	Max
[pestʰ]	*!		*			
[pes.tʰ]		*!	*			
[pesɯtʰɯ]				*!		
[pesɯtʰ]			*!	*		
[pesɯt]				*!		*
[pes]			*!			*
[petʰ]			*!		*	*
☞ [pet]						*

All initial and final clusters show the insertion of a vowel in order to maintain faithfulness to the consonants of the original loanword. As mentioned in section 2.2, languages with a highly-ranked *COMPLEX constraint have two options. Interestingly, Korean makes use of both options by applying them to different groups of words. So for foreign loanwords, Korean shows a re-ranking of constraints: MAX >> DEP. This re-ranking leads to the correct output in both initial and final clusters, and the constraint PROXPEAK no longer is relevant.

Tableau 11

/pllɛk/ 'black'	*Complex	Peak	Max	ProxPeak	Dep
plɛk	*!				
p.lɛk		*!			
pl.ɛk		*!			
☞ pɯl.lɛk					*
pɛk			*!	*	
lɛk			*!		

Tableau 12

/pestʰ/ 'best'	*COMPLEX	PEAK	CONSTRASTIVECODA	MAX	PROXPEAK	DEP
[pestʰ]	*!		*			
[pes.tʰ]		*!	*			
☞ [pesɯtʰɯ]						*
[pesɯtʰ]			*!			*
[pesɯt]				*!		*
[pes]			*!	*		
[petʰ]			*!	*	*	
[pet]				*!		

The order of all the other constraints remains the same. Vowel insertion is used to prevent nasal assimilation in foreign loanwords.

Tableau 13

/siknɔl/ 'signal'	*COMPLEX	ICC [NAS]	FAITH [PLACE]	MAX	PROXPEAK	DEP
[siknɔl]		*!				
[siŋnɔl]				*!		*
☞ [sikɯnɔl]						*
[sinnɔl]			*!	*		*
[siŋŋɔl]			*!	*		*

CONTRASTIVECODA prevents a number of syllable-final consonants from appearing in the surface form—a MAX >> DEP ranking, however, inserts a vowel to maintain the original distinction.

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Tableau 14

/sistʰem/ 'system'	CONTRASTIVECODA	MAX	DEP
[sis.tʰem]	*!		
[sit.tʰem]		*!	*
☞ [si.sɯ.tʰem]			*
[si.tʰem]		*!	*
[si.tem]		*!	*

3.3 Filler vowel

Because it does not allow consonant clusters and ranks MAX above DEP in foreign
loanwords, Korean must insert a vowel to maintain consonant faithfulness.
However, which vowel does it choose to insert? Under these circumstances,
languages generally choose the least marked vowel in their system. In Korean, the
vowel /ɯ/ serves as the default filler vowel—it is weaker than other vowels as
demonstrated by the following two points.

Korean still maintains vestiges of vowel harmony in verbal conjugation. If
the final vowel of a verb stem is a bright vowel (either /a/ or /o/), the suffix will
have the vowel /a/. If the final vowel is any other vowel, the suffix will have the
vowel /ɔ/. If a verb stem ends in a vowel, the vowel of the suffix either contracts
with the verb stem (if it is the same vowel) or it forms a "compound" vowel (if it is
another vowel). However, the vowel /ɯ/ is obligatorily deleted before suffixes are
added, unlike the other vowels:

10. a.   kʰɯ– 'to be big'   +   –ɔ =   kʰɔ

    b.   ka– 'to go'   +   –a =   ka

    c.   po– 'to see'   +   –a =   pwa/poa

    d.   kitali– 'to wait'   +   –ɔ =   kitaljɔ/kitaliɔ

    e.   ʧu– 'to give'   +   –ɔ =   ʧwɔ/ʧuɔ

13

A stronger piece of evidence that /ɯ/ is a weak vowel is that if there is a vowel preceding /ɯ/ in the verb stem, this vowel decides the vowel harmony of the whole word, not /ɯ/.

11. a. tɯt– 'to close' + –ɔ = tɯlɔ

  b. pap*ɯ– 'to be busy' + –a = pap*a

  c. jep*ɯ– 'to be beautiful' + –ɔ = jep*ɔ

4. Conclusion

As mentioned in the introduction, the Korean vocabulary comprises three groups: native, Sino-Korean, and words borrowed from other languages. These three groups remain distinct, even differing in constraint ranking in their phonology. This finding might prove to be problematic for OT. In OT, once the constraint ranking order of a language has been established, there should not be variation within the system.[5] One should be able to plug in a word from a foreign language and get the output of a native speaker reproducing the foreign word. This article demonstrates, however, that Korean does have a different rank order depending on the group to which the word belongs. Further in-depth investigation of this phenomenon may lead to further insights.

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[5] One must note, however, that dialectal and idiolectal differences are allowed. But a re-ranking within the system of one speaker or dialect is not theoretically expected.

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Corporal Punishment in School: A Review of the Pros and Cons

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1. Introduction

The history of corporal punishment has been as long as that of education in the world. Since ancient times, corporal punishment has been used as one of effective teaching techniques in Korea and even in western countries for instruction of children. Nowadays, however, the voice of prohibition about corporal punishment is increasing in the world. Following this development, Korea also has started to restrict corporal punishment by law since 1998 (The Fundamentals of Education Act). Nevertheless, there are still many teachers who believe in the benefits of corporal punishment, if used properly in school for maintaining discipline in the classroom. Therefore, after looking at various aspects of corporal punishment, this paper will explain why corporal punishment in school should be gradually substituted by more positive classroom management techniques.

2. Teachers' authority in corporal punishment

To begin, we need to define what corporal punishment means. Excessive corporal punishment like kicking on the shin, hitting on the head with a strong stick, or slapping on the cheek is not corporal punishment any more: it is a kind of violence. Corporal punishment dealt with in this article means absolutely limited educational punishment like spanking on the bottom or on the palm.

Based on this definition, we can start to look into teachers' authority in corporal punishment. First of all, scholars who agree with corporal punishment believe that teachers have the fair right to punish because there is a special relationship between teachers and students by law (김성기, 1994). In other words, teachers can use corporal punishment for realizing educational purposes in a proper range, and teachers, as the subject of educational authority, can restrict students' freedom for pedagogical reasons. Second, these scholars empathize that

to teachers the right from students' parents were transferred, therefore, teachers can instruct students with corporal punishment instead of their parents (김성기, 1994). Contrary to these ideas, scholars who disagree with corporal punishment say that teachers should distinguish between possibility and duty in transfer of parents' rights regarding corporal punishment (김성기, 1994). They think the transfer of parents' rights needs to be considered again according to the present situation and contrary to the past. In addition, based on organic law, they assert the constitutional right of freedom of body and substantive due process as well as procedural due process (김성기, 1994). In the case of pedagogists' opinion, they empathize corporal punishment should be dealt with pedagogical conformity (김성기, 1994). They insist that since corporal punishment is unavoidable in school, teachers should use it with educational purpose, contents, and process. For example, teachers need to keep the purpose of corporal punishment under the constraints of conveying or instructing valuable principles to students. Moreover, they should use corporal punishment for preserving students' spontaneity in moral standards and for developing students' knowledge, comprehension, and learning social manners without any private view or unfairness. Therefore, corporal punishment should be dealt with the idea of making an educational or moral contribution to students and the justice of process, as well as our traditional situation in Korea (김성기, 1994).

3. General status and opinions of corporal punishment

If we look at the general status of corporal punishment in other countries, we can find common ideas of corporal punishment in law. In general, western countries, such as the U.S.A and various advanced European nations, are gradually decreasing the teachers' right of corporal punishment, even by law. For example, since the 1780s, many countries in Europe have started to prohibit corporal punishment by law and nowadays, most of them such as Denmark, Germany, and England restrict corporal punishment in law. On the other hand, lots of undeveloped countries such as Philippines, Thailand, and Russia still allow corporal punishment even by law. Similarly, countries that have ancient traditions that are closely linked to education principles, such as Korea, Japan, and China, corporal punishment are also still used in schools. This is because many of these countries, including Korea, have

regarded teachers' authority equally or in some cases even higher than that of parents. However, as time passes and as more countries develop, lots of them are decreasing corporal punishment in school, often resorting to legal restrictions to do so.

To get a more realistic picture of and more accurate opinions about corporal punishment in Korean schools, this researcher surveyed her own students and coworkers regarding their opinions about corporal punishment. Surprisingly, more than 60% of the students surveyed and almost 81% of teachers agreed with corporal punishment even though they think that there are many negative effects of and alternatives to corporal punishment. They think that although there are many alternatives such as giving black marks, counseling with parents or sending bad students to a professional counselor, and writing regretful letters, among other things, corporal punishment is still a useful teaching technique in school. This is, they claim, because other techniques take much time and effort, and teachers need to give feedback against students' faults immediately to get higher pedagogical effects. Besides, although we can use the bad marks system in school, it will have an effect only on those scared of bad marks, not all students. Therefore, lots of them think that if used properly for educational purposes, corporal punishment can be a useful teaching technique in school. Conversely, some of them think that if alternatives like bad marks system are established well in law, corporal punishment will not be needed in school any more.

Table 1.
▪ *Results of the survey about corporal punishment (C.P.)*

Corporal Punishment	Students (30 persons)	Teachers (36 persons)
Agree & \<Reasons\>	18 persons (60%)	29 persons (81%)

Agree & <Reasons>	▪ C.P needs less time and effort than other disciplining methods. ▪ C.P can be teachers' immediate feedback against students' faults. ▪ Bad marks system is efficient only to those who are scared of bad marks. ▪ Without C.P, students can easily ignore teachers. ▪ Alternatives do not have enough force or control.	
Disagree & <Reasons>	12 persons (40%)	7 persons (19%)
Disagree & <Reasons>	▪ C.P can hurt students' mind as well as body. ▪ There are many useful alternatives to C.P. ▪ Teacher's prejudice can have an effect on C.P.	
Alternatives	▪ Counseling with parents ▪ Writing regretful letters ▪ Giving detrimental black marks ▪ Sending bad students to a professional counselor ▪ Making them serve in class or school	

4. The effects of corporal punishment

There are both general affirmative and negative effects of corporal punishment. For instance, corporal punishment can help students develop their responsibility as well as sociality if it is done with students' enough comprehension of their faults (김정휘, 1998). Because students who have received corporal punishment will try to avoid corporal punishment, they will learn the benefits of good behavior and will ultimately develop responsibility. (이성진, 1983). Second, corporal punishment is good for keeping discipline in the classroom. In Korea, there are still many students in one classroom and most schools do not have effective bad marks system or professional counselors in school. Therefore, teachers need an efficient method for keeping rules in the classroom. As lots of students say, if teachers do not use strong methods to control a problem, they will easily ignore the teacher and his/her directions. For this reason, immediate and strong corporal punishment is

useful to keep discipline effectively in the classroom. Third, corporal punishment is the most effective technique regarding time and effort (김은경, 1999). Following the same principle in economics of society seeking the maximum results for a minimum of labor, education also needs to be done with economy of time and effort in mind. Time constraints and the number of students that a teacher is responsible for seem to make corporal punishment the most efficient method of disciplining. Therefore, teachers always try to teach effectively within the fixed class time, hoping that they would be able to provide appropriate instruction to both good and ill-behaved students. Accordingly, teachers sometimes use corporal punishment because, unfortunately, most techniques take too much time and effort. Even the quick system of dispensing bad marks has smaller effects on correcting detrimental attitudes. All the positive effects of corporal punishment can be realized under proper conditions such as immediate, strong, and consistent performance with students' admission of their faults (문용린, 김계현, 1999).

On the contrary, there are also a lot of negative effects of corporal punishment. First of all, corporal punishment is inefficient in keeping an ill-behaved student from repeating the same offense. If a situation is not dealt with enough self-admission and reflection, students will focus only on avoiding corporal punishment not on the revision of their behavior. As a result, they will not know what was wrong and what errors they committed, thus, they will easily repeat their faults again and again as soon as they forget the physical pain from corporal punishment (권균, 1999). Second, corporal punishment has negative effects not only on studying but also on daily life because students can harbor ill feelings against teachers due to corporal punishment (김은경, 1999). More concretely, lots of students feel hate, fear, and shame after a corporal punishment. Accordingly they come to have negative feelings against the teacher as well as the classes that the teacher handles. A domino effect ensues and the student ends up getting low grades. Third, corporal punishment can increase students' violence and aggression. As Bandura (1973) argues, aggression can be learned by following the model's aggressive action, and the more students are exposed to corporal punishment, the more they become aggressive. Therefore, corporal punishment can teach students violence and aggression. Finally, corporal punishment can cause troubles on students' mind as well as body (권균, 1999). Corporal punishment can give students physical pain

and psychological problems such as fear, anxiety, and even long-range mental problems connected to losing self-confidence and concentration. According to Smith (as cited in Kim, 1999), children who receive corporal punishments usually have lower intellectual power than those who do not receive corporal punishment. Moreover, Kim (1999) asserts that corporal punishment is the main cause of a child's hurt dignity, which may later lead to a negative ego in adulthood.

5. Alternatives and ways to minimize the usage of corporal punishment

There is a need to think about alternatives to minimize the use of corporal punishment in classrooms. As an alternative, we can use various techniques for running a class, such as a sticker system where the collected stickers can be exchanged for rewards. Methods like this help teachers avoid giving corporal punishment. Second, developing ways to coach ill-behaved students also good way. For example, reinforcing the problem students' positive attitudes with praise and recognition will have positive effects on those students (권균, 1999). In addition, having bad students serve for 'Green Classroom' during temporary period will also help them (김은경, 1999). Third, using programs for improving self-control will be useful for disruptive students. If teachers or peers recommend well-behaved students and give them some prize, more students will try to become a model person in school. Lastly, establishing a grading policy for students' behavior in class will make students more conscious of their faults and more willing to change them. A reasonable and realistic bad marks system can be run with specific rules such as receiving punishment after incurring the agreed maximum number of bad marks.

Adding to the above alternatives, we can consider other ways to minimize the usage of corporal punishment. For instance, making and following the exact rules of situations that deserve corporal punishment such as the kind of offense and where and when it was committed will contribute to the diminishment of applying corporal punishment (조동섭, 2001). Working out the details of applying corporal punishment and spending time to explain to students the terms of the punishments can decrease the need to resort to corporal punishment. In addition, limitation of materials and time as well as place for corporal

punishment is needed to reduce corporal punishment. Because if teachers should follow the limitation when they use corporal punishment, it will make them think about their punishment one more time, and finally it will help reduce teachers' excessive or emotional abuse of corporal punishment (문용린, 김계현, 1999). When teachers use corporal punishment, they should use it in the most effective time as soon as the student does the offense, using a proper stick like a bamboo twig. Moreover, they need to use it in a desirable place that does not hurt the student's feelings too deeply. This will differ depending on the student's personality and the type of classroom available.

6. Conclusion

Until now, the various aspects of corporal punishment such as teachers' authority, general status and opinions, affirmative and negative effects, and alternatives as well as ways to minimize usage have been explained. The reality stands, however, that in the larger global setting, the teacher's right to employ corporal punishment has been under fire for some time now. More and more people think corporal punishment yields more negative effects than positive, especially as time passes. On the other hand, sudden prohibition of corporal punishment without effective alternatives will lead to lots of confusion such as absence of teachers' control in the classroom or students' disorder caused from a lack of discipline. Therefore, corporal punishment in school should be gradually substituted by more positive classroom management techniques.

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ABSTRACT

Adaptation of the SSR Program for Korean Middle School Learners

Kim Misun

Many students in Korean Middle school tend to think that it is difficult to develop English language literacy due to their low oral proficiency level. They focus on developing orality more than literacy. They concentrate on concepts of English sound, word, and literate function even while first starting to read. They can acquire representational concepts of writing suitable for each language, English and Korean, they are learning to read. They can enhance metalingusitic insights by accessing two language at the same time. However, they are apt to translate all English words in Korean when they read. They try to map English representational concepts onto Korean ones by one to one correspondence. This practice forces students to read slowly. Students as a slow readers are independently reluctant to read English text as a source of pleasure. Therefore, teachers need to create the proper conditions to change students from slow readers into fast readers. They should create the environment of reading for pleasure and improving reading skills and the positive attitudes toward reading in English.

This research was based on Nuttall (2000)'s two models for reading and Pilgreen (2000)'s SSR program. Nuttall (2000) introduces two models for how reading develops in students: the vicious cycle of the weak reader and the virtuous cycle of the good reader. Pilgreen (2000) claimed that SSR provided better benefits for students in the areas of comprehension and motivation and that SSR was less work and more fun than reading drills. She suggests eight factors of how teachers can try to ensure success in an SSR program: access, appeal, conducive environment, encouragement, staff training, non-accountability, follow-up activities, and distributed time to read.

In this study, there were two research questions. First, can students perceive improvement in reading skills and the positive attitudes toward reading through SSR? Second, can they read materials for pleasure despite their low proficiency level and the fact that their word attack skills are not developed enough to figure out new words?

The subject group was a second-year class at K middle school in Seoul. They were 16 girls and 18 boys with mixed abilities. The experimental SSR period was for 3 months from April 26, 2004 to July 23, 2004.

Before the experiment, the students took a pre-questionnaire. And then the researcher subdivided students into 3 groups according to marks gained on the English mid-term exam. And then around 150 books were prepared and categorized into three levels for students. During the experiment, they read the book which they chose for around 20 minutes every morning in the Language Classroom. She read the book which she chose with her students as a model. Every day, they filled out the form entitled *What Wonderful Books I Read* after reading. Once a month, they wrote down and submitted two kinds of book reports. After experiment, the post-questionnaire was taken.

In this study, questionnaires were first analyzed to confirm the value of the SSR program implemented in a Korean school EFL situation. Next, the data from the students' follow-up activities were analysed in order to independently verify the results of the questionnaires.

According to the data analysis of the pre-questionnaire, the students were in the vicious cycle of the weak reader. In the **p**ost-questionnaire, it is confirmed that the students could perceive in improvement in reading skills and positive attitudes toward reading through SSR and enter into the virtuous cycle of good readers. Next, on the basis of the results from the follow-up activities, the researcher inferred that students enjoyed fast reading and read materials for pleasure even though their proficiency level was low. They showed that the students improved their literacy competence through reading for pleasure during the SSR period. The subjects improved their reading skills, learned new words, discovered how English speakers use English, and found examples of good writing in English.

In conclusion, the students left the vicious cycle of the weak reader and entered into the virtuous cycle of the good reader. The students liked reading and got pleasure from books. They can read quickly due to their enjoyment. They could practice literacy skills because they read 48 books for three months on the basis of fast reading. They learned how to interact with the books. They could know how to catch the meaning, based on such practices. They

understood the story better and got the main ideas from texts with ease. They read for general understanding without understanding every word. It enabled students to enjoy reading and feel comfortable with reading. The subjects could increasingly improve literacy competence.

ABSTRACT

An Analysis of Questions Used for Reading Texts
in Korean Middle School English Course Books

Kim Jongwan

This thesis aims at investigating whether the questions used for reading texts in middle school English books in South Korea help the students with lower reading proficiency to develop literacy. For the purpose of obtaining more practical and meaningful outcomes, the scope of an analysis of questions is confined to five middle school English books. In the research part, the questions used for the reading texts in these five English course books are analyzed on the basis of specific criteria in four categories such as a syntactic structure and vocabulary category, a factual and inferencing information category, a main idea category, and a question format category. Afterwards, out of the results of question analysis, the general properties are drawn and their interpretations are made.

Through analyzing the questions in the five different English course books for the second year students, the drawn conclusions are as follows.

First, the questions used for the reading texts in the five books are designed to focus mainly on new vocabulary in order to develop automatic word recognition which is essential for expert readers. This can facilitate second year students to develop metalinguistic awareness and improve their fledged literacy. The questions are presented in the shapes of alternatives or multiple choices to provide the contextual clues.

Though, the five English course books are short of the questions related with new syntactic structures to develop syntactic automaticity which is necessary for expert readers, in connection with the development of metalinguistic awareness.

Second, the questions are composed mainly of the factual questions which require the second year students to explore what is explicitly stated in the reading texts by employing scanning. The questions also include the rudimentary inferencing questions. The factual and rudimentary inferencing questions are appropriate for the second year students to construct the propositional meaning or literal meanings of the reading text in each lesson in the five middle school English books.

Third, the questions in the five middle school English books have failed to lead the second year students to identify what the reading text in each lesson is about through interactive processing.

Finally, it is suggested that new English course books for the Eighth Educational Curriculum should take the strong points and compensate for the weak points of present English course books for the Seventh Educational Curriculum, particularly in the questions used for reading texts, on the basis of the results of question analysis in this thesis.

A Study of the Effects of Shared Book Experiences on Children's Second Language Word Recognition

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Childhood literacy development is important, and it is critical and essential to establish an appropriate environment for children's literacy development through their learning stages, and it is more important for second language learners. This research plan turns to school environment influence, focusing on the amount of environmental literacy, particularly in second language instruction that supports children's attitude to learn to read and write through a teacher's storybook telling, and it intends to show that storybook telling does help children's word recognition.

The purpose of this thesis was to review the theoretical background about environmental issues affecting young children's word recognition and attitude, and in particularly to focus on how storybook telling activity (one of the positive and critical factors in children's literacy development) affects their reading and writing skill in an EFL situation. The experimental study was worked on groups of young children (two classes of 5 year-olds who were between 55~66 months and two other classes of 6 year-olds who were between 67~78 months) at and English school, 'LCI Kids Club Songpa-Kangdong School' within the experimental period of 4 months that had an emergent program (students were instructed in English, talked to in English, and read to in English) taught only by native English speakers in an English only speaking environment for kindergarten kids. The study was designed to do 20 min. of storybook telling activity for the experimental group every day while the control group did verbal time activity with the same amount of time.

Three research questions such as 1) "Does a 'storybook telling' activity affect literacy development more compared to other reading activities within the same amount of time?" 2) "Do shared book experiences enhance reading habits or reading behavior?" 3) "In which way is storybook telling effective or helpful to the children's reading skill development?" were made on two testing areas which were word recognition and attitude. As a result through word recognition test, it was shown that the storybook telling activity was more effective for young children's literacy development in the area of word recognition than they were exposed to other activity with the same amount of time using the same vocabulary. Storybook telling time also motivated children a lot, and it changed their attitude or behavior especially on their reading areas. Most of them became positive readers and the storybook telling activity became their favorite time at school. Shared book experiences reinforced their interest in reading and helped forming a good reading habit. The teachers' observation with journal writing, answered the third research question. "Repetition and rhyme' and 'Story talk' were the two major methods that made shared book experiences effective.

Abstract

A Study of Stages in the Development of Clarification Requests by Korean Learners of English

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This study focuses on the analysis of English use in discourse. By pinpointing one basic function, requests for clarification, this study analyzes how 30 Korean EFL university learners grouped into three different proficiency levels are able to continue the conversation when they don't understand what is said in the interview situation with an unfamiliar native speaker of English professor. The research investigates how they map their knowledge of clarification onto the function. This employs a pseudo-longitudinal research methodology to posit EFL learner's developmental stages. The results reveal that firstly, how the cross-sections grouped according to proficiency level are either similar or different in their realization of clarification requests. Secondly, similarities and differences between developmental stages of requests of Korean EFL university students studying in Korea are compared with the development of their counterparts studying abroad in ESL environments. The body of research finds that the developmental stages for EFL learners' clarification requests differ from the ESL learners'. EFL learners showed two specific behaviors not found in ESL learners, namely, hesitation and L1 interference such as code switching, code mixing, and L1 transfer before they reach L2 forms onto L2 function stages. Based on this it is suggested that a pre-initial stage be posited for Korean EFL learners of English.

Abstract

Meaning Negotiation in Task-based Videoconferencing

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Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) allows EFL students to have opportunities to practice the language learned in classroom and experience the target culture. Despite its benefits, current research, heavily focused on text-based chatting, suggests that meaning negotiation does not occur as actively as in face-to-face conversation. Also, it is questionable that text-based chatting with only its textual mode can be effective for learners to acquire oral competence. Videoconferencing could have the benefits of CMC and provide a conversation environment close to face-to-face conversation. This study examines, firstly, whether meaning negotiation follows the four phases of the Varonis and Gass model for face-to-face conversation, secondly, how meaning negotiation occurs, moves, and ends, and to address unique features observed in performing spoken English in task-based videoconferencing. Finally, this paper attempts to address the benefits of task-based videoconferencing for L2 acquisition. This data was collected from three-week long videoconferencing sessions of eight university students, majoring in English literature, the post survey, and interviews. The data reveals that meaning negotiation in videoconferencing occurs actively and shows extended meaning negotiation routines, similar to that in text-based chatting.

The Effect of Emotionally Charged Input on Recall and Linguistic Production of Second Language Learners

Joel Koeth

This study endeavors to establish a connection between emotion, memory processing, and linguistic production of second language learners. A direct link has been established between emotionally charged input and a corresponding change in brain processing and memory encoding. This phenomenon might have important implications in second language education if a connection can be established between emotionally charged input and more accurate recall and linguistic production for second language learners. An experiment was conducted to compare the recall and linguistic production of two groups of Korean university students; one group exposed to an emotionally charged written text and one group given a linguistically similar, but emotionally neutral version. One week later, a surprise free recall test was administered in addition to a test designed to target specific linguistic elements such as structure and form. The results of these tests demonstrate measurable differences in subject performance with emotionally charged material being recalled more consistently and produced more accurately than the emotionally neutral text.

A Study of Implicit and Explicit Memory Transfer from L1 to L2 and the Effects on Form Usage

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TESOL, 5th semester

In an EFL environment like Korea, where students often suffer from a paucity of meaningful input in the target language, it would seem that teachers need to carefully choose the precious input they use. One of the ways of selecting input, based on recent bilingual research (Kroll & Scholl, 1992), would be for optimal transfer to occur. Yet, transfer mechanisms are not well understood, particularly in the Korean context. This study seeks to ascertain whether transfer of explicit knowledge in the form of schema does occur from the L1 to the L2 and what the possible effects of such transfer might be on actual L2 usage. The results of the study reveal that specific semantic memories do indeed transfer as is shown by the effect they exude on L2 usage as measured by C-test. Yet, the effects of semantic memory transfer are overshadowed by the transfer of procedural memories which seem to nullify the effects of the former on C-test scores. It is therefore suggested that at different stages in proficiency or experience with the target language different types of transfer might be focused on.

1. Introduction

English is a foreign language in Korea, but distinct from all other foreign languages in that the need to learn English is seen as being very high indeed. Yet, despite this perceived need for English, the English

language in Korea suffers from many of the same syndromes faced by foreign language learning all over the world. First, there is a low probability of encountering English in authentic forms or meaningful contexts outside the classroom. Second, most learners do not spend much time in the EFL classroom, thus very little actual time is devoted to English language study overall. Third, much of what is done in the EFL classroom is often only focused on specific form training or receptive skills which are easily tested and assessed. What is worse, English is still taught based on the linear conduit metaphor wherein students are supposed to pick up linguistic form-focused information as it is passed along from the teacher (Johnson, 2004). Little or no concern is paid to the prior knowledge of the students.

Studies of subsequent bilingual situations conducted since Peal and Lambert (1962) have focused on transfer of knowledge from the L1 to the L2 as one of the main determiners of either an additive or subtractive bilingual acquisition (Cummings, 1979; Hamers & Blanc, 2000). Additive bilinguals use their L1 knowledge to enhance their usage of the L2 by making use of pre-existing L1 form-to-function mappings and extending out from there. Key to this ability to be able to transfer knowledge is literacy for "literacy modifies the way language processing is performed at all levels" (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:105). The advent of literacy allows people to store and organize information differently (Ong, 1982; Bialystok, 2001). For this reason it seems profitable, particularly for the EFL setting, to turn to texts as the main purveyors of knowledge of the L2.

When we learn language we should know what situation this language is used in or the proper way to fit it into conversation following the concept of form-to-function mapping (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). One of the ways to do this is by acquiring and practicing languages in context. Contexts are dialogues or listening and written

texts. Nassaji (2002) said that understanding text includes a profound understanding of the cognitive processes in which knowledge is represented, processed, and used in comprehension. In short, he claims that we rely on schemas to organize such knowledge. Knowledge in schemas is always altered, fixed, and used in understanding peoples, situations and texts. Bartlett (1932), a follower of Gestalt psychology, studied how information in stories and events is reconfigured in memory for further recall. Bartlett believed that understanding and recall take place mainly in the context of past experience and with reference to the relevant information in memory. How L1-accrued memories are used in or affect L2 production, then, will be the focus of this present study.

The study conducted here combines a bilingual developmental perspective with a neurological/memory support base to assess whether such a model really does work in reality. The theoretical framework of this study draws from many theories of memory including dual-store theory (Glanzer & Cunitz, 1966; Terry, 2000) and especially working memory (Baddeley 1986, 1997; Miyake & Shah, 1999).

1.1 The Purpose of the Study

Swaffar (1988) states, "Every L2 study published confirms the theory that familiarity will facilitate reading comprehension" (p. 126). These findings strongly suggest that L2 readers do use schemata. The objective of this study, taking this rather strong claim from Swaffar one step further, is to see if such schema knowledge does indeed transfer even if it is in the L1 and, if it does, to what extent does this knowledge from the L1 affect production outcomes in the L2. To measure the L2 performance a C-test (explained further in chapter 2) was used. Within the domain of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), this study will contribute to finding more effective ways of promoting language

competence among learners of English in Korea through a more complete understanding of transfer phenomenon.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Memory Systems

Central to the idea of transfer of knowledge are theories of how some knowledge is encoded, organized and stored in the brain. The common sense logic is that for transfer to occur then what is transferred must have at some point learned and this means having been stored in memory. This section will, therefore, review some of the most common recent theories of memory design and how memory is actually proposed to work. Below is a table (Table 1) showing some of the main ways that researchers have approached the study of the memory.

Table 1.

Three Approaches to Memory (Terry, 2000: 193)

Memory Components	Stages of Memory	Processes of Memory
Short-term memory	Encoding into memory	Depth of processing
Long-term memory	Storage in memory	Shallow rehearsal
Episodic	Retrieval from memory	Elaborative rehearsal
Semantic		Transfer-Appropriate processing
Procedural		
Priming		

2.1.1 Dual-Store Theory: Short-Term and Long-Term Memories

Many memory theories emphasize the differences between two memory systems, what have become widely known as short-term memory and long-term memory (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968). Liberman (1993) defined short-term memory as those memories that are retained only for relatively brief periods, on the order of minutes while long-term memory is defined as memories that are retained for longer periods, perhaps indefinitely. Current theories suggest that neurons are activated temporally during the coding of a stimulus (short-term memory), and that associations are formed between the active neurons and nodes. If these associations are strong enough, then a permanent record of the experience will be retained (long-term memory).

Short-term memory (or STM) and long-term memory (or LTM) are theorized to have different characteristics. First information in STM dissipates after 15 to 30 seconds in the absence of rehearsal. Memories in LTM are permanent. STM has a limited capacity, holding at most a few items, whereas LTM is assumed to be virtually limitless in size. Next, forgetting in STM occurs when the contents of earlier storage are replaced by more recently occurring items. Forgetting does not easily occur from LTM. In contrast to STM, long-term store is relatively permanent. STM transfers information into LTM. Specifically, rehearsal in STM keeps information available longer for encoding into LTM. The more a person rehearses a specific bit of information in STM, for example phone number, the stronger it will be encoded, and therefore remembered, in LTM. The final difference is a most striking one. Memories in LTM can be encoded in various modalities, an image, a smell, a touch, an emotion, or a rehearsal. Retrieval from the long-term store is generally considered a slower and more effortful process than recalling a memory from short-term store, which only stores items in phonological forms (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968).

2.1.2 Episodic Versus Semantic Memory

One broad division of LTM is between episodic memory and semantic memory and these have often been labeled as 'memory' and 'knowledge' respectively (Tulving, 1985). Episodic memory is our personal memory system and semantic memory is our store of general knowledge (Scott, 2000). Semantic memory includes knowledge, but not the memory of how and when it was learned. Meaning-based (semantic) codes are considered dominant in LTM (Shah & Miyake, 1999). For example, a person may have a great deal of generic knowledge about dogs in semantic memory; for example, they make good pets, they bark, they have hair, and so on. Yet no one recalls how or when he or she learned each fact. Our everyday use of the phrases "I remember" versus "I know" parallel episodic and semantic memory.

Despite these differences in the reality of daily life these two different kinds of memory are not so easily distinguished. This observation applies to typical biographical memories. A person's first college class meetings, for example, produce distinct episodic memories. The day-by-day episodic memories are eventually supplanted by generic memory of what a typical class is like, and rapid loss of memory for individual class meetings (Linton, 1982). This process could be described as the transition from episodic to semantic memory. The unremembered words are forgotten from episodic memory, but they are not forgotten in the sense that the student is no longer able to use or comprehend those words. These words are retained in semantic memory. It should also be clear that much of what is argued to be semantic memory is stored in what is called the mental lexicon, the storehouse of semantic memories related to language (Singleton, 2000).

2.1.3 Distinguishing Implicit and Explicit Memory

6

The meanings of the terms explicit and implicit have evolved in their short story in the psychology lexicon. Some of the contrasting terms used to distinguish implicit and explicit memory are shown in Table 2 below. The terms are sometimes used to refer to separate types of memory, that is, explicit memory systems such as episodic and semantic memory, and implicit memory systems as demonstrated by procedural memory and priming. The terms implicit and explicit are often used to refer to how knowledge is accessed.

Table 2.

Some Contrasting Terms Used to Distinguish Implicit and Explicit Memory

Explicit Memory	Implicit Memory
Fact memory	Skill memory
Declarative	Procedural
Knowing that	Knowing how
Autographical	Perceptual
Memory	Habit
Conscious recollection	Skills

Attention is paid to these differences here because different types of knowledge would be part of different types of memory. Schema knowledge, which is the target of our focus here, is considered part of explicit memory. Skills needed to produce language such as knowledge of how to read would, on the other hand, be considered part of implicit memory. The difference become more striking under the realization that some researchers have posited that implicit memory storage is prey to language code (See Friedlander, 1990 for a fairly recent study). That means that semantic memories have been posited as being coded in a specific language, the language of the context they were encoded in.

Such linguistic effects have yet to be clearly posited for implicit memory (Kasper and Rose, 2002 note linguistic effects on pragmatic transfer, but make no strong claim as to their encoding).

2.1.4 Available and Accessible Memories

Not everything in memory can be recalled. Tulving and Pearlstone (1966) elaborated on Ebbinghaus's idea with their distinction between available and accessible memories. Available memories are those present in the memory store whereas accessible memories are those that can actually be recalled or retrieved when needed. Students are keenly aware of this distinction: It is the difference between having learned the material for an exam (it is available) and actually being able to recall it during the exam (it is accessible). Known information is not accessible during the exam, but is recalled after the test has been turned in. This is an important observation because it means that students may only transfer their background knowledge under the right conditions.

2.1.4.1 The Feeling of Knowing

The feeling of knowing (FOK) is characterized by an "irritating mixture of surety of bafflement. The individual is convinced he knows but is frustrated by the inability to demonstrate his knowing" (Reed, 1979:9). Related to FOK is Tip of the Tongue (TOT). This is a more intense experience in which we feel that not only do we know the sought-word but we are very close to recalling it.

High FOK ratings might suggest that people can somehow directly assess the strength of unrecalled memories or knowledge. People know what they know. However, high FOK ratings can occur for the other reasons apart from actually having a memory for the sought-after information. Respondents often use other information to infer whether they should know the answer. Familiarity with the topic

in the question may mislead one into thinking s/he should know the answer. In these cases, the FOK rating is something of a probabilistic judgment. The participant makes an educated guess that the answer is indeed known (Nelson & Gerler, 1984). FOK may have a strong effect on the present study since it is assumed that there will always be some form of familiarity with the text used here, which may lead to incorrect guessing.

2.2 Learning

What we have learned is in our memories, which furthermore changes our behavior. Terry (2000) says that learning may be defined as a relatively permanent change in behavior, or behavioral repertoire, that occurs as a result of experience. The conglomeration of present and past experiences produces an image. Hunt (1978) states that once the image is formed, the pattern-recognition system maps it into memory, simultaneously changing the state of memory and determining the next input.

Learning is not a unitary process. As learning takes place people modify their knowledge. This means that schemas are modified as a response to experience. When a person mismatches or misinterprets materials due to their schemata, they operated their memory schemata during learning. Although there is not a formal and rigid classification of learning, learning can be classified into these three categories: accretion, tuning, and reconstructing (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978).

Accretion is matching the new information with the previously available schemata, adding to the database of knowledge store, but according to the principles contained within existing schemata. Restructuring is when new information does not fit the currently available schemata, or when the organization of existing data structures is not satisfactory, existing schemata must be restructured. Schema

tuning is adjusting the term to improve accuracy, generalizability, and specificity and to determine default values. Learners build new schemata based upon the patterns of old.

2.2.1 Implicit Learning

Implicit learning "is the process by which knowledge of the structure of a complex environment is acquired largely independent of conscious awareness of specific components of that environment" (Manza & Reber, 1997:73). First language learning is often used as a prime example of implicit learning. In first learning a language, we learn the often subtle patterns of word order, word endings, pronunciation, and stress. Over time, we come to use the rule-like patterns of language far better than we can articulate them. Learning can occur without an intention to learn and in such a way that the knowledge is difficult to verbally express. In such cases, learning is said to be implicit.

2.2.2 Procedural Learning

According to Terry (2000:203), "procedural learning is the acquisition of knowledge of how to do things and includes perceptual skills, motor skills, and cognitive skills." Procedural knowledge has been characterized as `knowing how` rather than episodic and semantic `remembering that`. I know how to skate versus I remember that I once fell (Squire & Cohen, 1984). Procedural learning is characterized by acquisition of general rules for performing as a task, or procedures. Unlike episodic and semantic memory, however, the knowledge may not be accessible to conscious verbal recall.

2.2.3 Priming

Priming refers to the facilitated response to a stimulus that has been recently experienced or has been 'primed' in memory. (Terry,

2000:203). One common priming phenomenon is that the identification of a word stimulus seems to be facilitated by prior exposure to that stimulus. Because the word was encountered recently it is said to be primed. Priming effects have been widely reported and are said to have wide-ranging effects on both explicit and implicit memories. A certain amount of priming may also be necessary for encoding to take place in the first place (Rajaram & Roediger, 1993). Thus, priming is a key element in learning and making use of both facts (such as vocabulary items) as well as procedures (such as those required for reading a text, for example).

2.3 The Role of the First Language

In the traditional view, "The role of the first language in second language performance is often referred to as interference" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983:40). Interference occurs when an acquirer lacks rules or knowledge of the second language so they may fall back on the patterns of their first language. In a different view, Roller & Matambo (1992: 129) say that first language readers use background knowledge (i.e., engage in so-called schema-based, top-down processing) to help them with the L2. Krashen & Terrell (1983) claim that the L1 patterns may not be the same as those of the L2, and errors can result. For them, L1 knowledge helps learners to acquire their L2, but transferring L1 patterns onto L2 situations should be avoided.

One of the key areas of transfer is in the area of lexis, and one way of organizing and accessing lexical items is based in the concepts they code (Singleton, 2000). In a second language learning situation both languages often share the same conceptual representations, but these representations are not equally accessible by L1 and L2 (Kroll & Sholl, 1992: Kroll & Stewart, 1994). Lexical links from the L2 to the L1 are stronger than lexical links from the L1 to the L2, and conceptual links

to the L1 are stronger than conceptual links to the L2. This means that early L2 acquisition entails a strong lexical reliance on the L1. The L1 serves as a lexical intermediary between the L2 and conceptual meaning. Thus, in the early stages of development, students will interpret texts in the L2 through their L1 knowledge of concepts, which may or may not be close to L2 norms.

2.4 The Permanent Hypothesis

In psychology, a large debate has recently erupted over the nature of forgetting. Is forgetting the actual loss of information from the storage or does it result from a loss of access to information that is still in storage? Loftus and Loftus (1980) informally surveyed individuals with graduate training in psychology. Eighty-four percent agreed with the statement that, `Everything we learn is permanently stored in the mind, although sometimes particular details are not accessible`. This is referred to as the permanent hypothesis. In this view, forgetting is attributed to retrieval difficulties, not to loss of memory from storage.

The respondents offered several sorts of evidence for their belief in the permanence of memories. The most often cited finding was the claim that memories can be elicited through electrical stimulus of the brain. Additional support comes from studies focused on learning. As far back as the classical Ebbinghaus studies, it has been observed that people are able to learn things to which they were once exposed faster and more completely than things to which they were not exposed even if they no longer have any memories of that initial exposure. This is called relearning and it is tied in with the idea of priming. Prelearned material is primed and the more recent the priming the greater the effects on the relearning process (Tulving & Thompson, 1973).

2.5 Schemas

Schemas are outlines of general knowledge that are stored in semantic memory. Schemas are called scripts, scenes, or frames and seen as ways of organizing knowledge. Schema theory provided new and exciting developments in the field of cognitive psychology. Schema theory was used to explain and interpret a host of cognitive processes, such as inferencing, remembering, reasoning, and problem solving, and served as an impetus for a large volume of experimental research in learning and comprehension (Anderson and Pearson, 1984; Bransford & Johnson, 1972).

One of the major insights of schema theory lay in its drawing attention to the constructive nature of the reading process and to the critical role of the reader and the interaction between the text and the reader's background knowledge. These developments greatly influenced L2 comprehension research and instruction, resulting in a large volume of insightful research in L2 reading comprehension and instruction (Barry & Lazarte, 1995; Carrell, 1985, 1992; Hudson, 1982; Lee, 1986; Roller & Matambo, 1992), schema defined as 'scripts' (Schank & Albeson, 1977), 'plans' (Schank, 1982), and 'frames' (Minsky, 1975). Schemata have been used to describe the structure of knowledge of ordinary events. They conceptualize the structure and organization of linguistic and discourse knowledge, resulting in the use of a number of other terms such as 'sentence schema' (Wignorad, 1983), 'story schemata' (Johnson & Mandler, 1980; Mandler, 1978), 'formal/ rhetorical schemata', 'content schemata' (Carrell, 1984a), 'textual schema' (Swaffar, 1988) and 'symbolic schemata' (Oller, 1995). That the concept has been used so diversely shows the great importance that researchers believe schemas to have both in organizing and using knowledge.

2.6 Memory Span

Memory span is relevant to our remembering outside of the laboratory. Memory span is not fixed, but is affected by numerous variables. Span can be increased by practice. In one study, adolescent boys with severe learning disabilities were given 10 minutes of daily practice at recalling digit and word strings. After 2 weeks, there was a significant increase in span length, although memory span remained below average for the children's ages (Hulme & Maekenzie, 1992). Terry (2000) claims that the improvement in span could be due to increased familiarity with the tested material or to the incidental acquisition of strategies that aid retention. Here, too, we see priming as having a major effect on the use of stored items in memory.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses
This investigation is based on several important questions.

1. Does schema knowledge encoded in the L1 transfer to the L2?

2. If schema knowledge does transfer what is the nature of this transfer?

3. More specifically, how does L1 schema knowledge affect L2 performance?

Based on these questions several hypotheses were generated, the validity of which will be the focus of investigation here. First of all it was hypothesized that schema knowledge accrued in the L1 is transferable to L2 usage. It was further hypothesized that this schema knowledge would actually enhance L2 performance as regards usage. Enhanced accuracy was expected in relation to vocabulary use, and possibly form, due to the L1 schema knowledge.

3.2 Overview

In order to determine whether L1 schema knowledge does indeed transfer to the L2, a quantitative research design was followed. After an initial survey was given, two groups of Korean-speaking participants were created based on knowledge of a specific story in Korean. Students who claimed to be familiar with the story in Korean were put into one group while those who claimed to be unfamiliar with the story were put in another. The two groups were then tested for their performance on a C-test conducted in English dealing with what was believed to be one of the most salient passages of the story. The results were then calculated and correlated across groups using statistical anaylsis.

3.3 Participants

Two hundred and thirty-three Korean high school students, aged 16 to 17 years, in other words first and second year high school students, participated in the study. The participants were divided into seven different groups. Four groups were in their second year and three groups were in their first year of high school. The experiment was carried out in June and July in Seoul, S. Korea. The participants were tested during their English class. One class consists of 40 to 45 students. The first language of all participants is Korean and their second language is English, but there was a rather wide range of English language experience and proficiency levels reported. Most students use Korean exclusively and do not use English at all outside the classroom, while a small number of students have more regular use of English and a few have even been to an English country for an extended period, but English remains very much a foreign language to all participants, despite varying proficiency levels.

3.4 Procedures

3.4.1 Pilot study

As a preliminary step, a pilot study was conducted 4 weeks before the main study. The purpose of the pilot study was to assess the appropriateness of the materials designed for the subjects of the experiment. According to Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984), native speakers ought to be able to achieve virtually perfect scores on the test: 90 % or higher. If native speakers cannot make scores higher than 90%, then the text should not be used for non-native speakers. As a means of determining if this were true, the same C-test as the one intended for the main study, the end of 'Christmas Carol', was given to 20 native speakers of English in a pilot study. All the participants in the pilot study spoke English as a first language and had minimally a 4-year-college education. Their average score on the pilot C-test was 90.5 points. As the score was more than the 90% suggested by Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984), it was deemed that this test was appropriate.

3.4.2 The Preliminary Survey

In order to break the participants into two groups based on familiarity with the story and to cull out participants whose self-reported proficiency level was markedly higher than the majority of the group, all possible participants were given a preliminary survey. This survey was given in Korean and consisted of several different types of questions. The first types of questions revolved around simple biographical data such as name, grade, and perceived English proficiency levels in different skill areas. Other questions dealt more specifically with their English language experience while more asked about their degree of familiarity with the target story, *A Christmas Carol*. Specifically, the survey tried to elicit whether they know this story and how and whether they had read or heard this story in English before.

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3.4.3 Testing Procedures

To learn how to deal with the main experimental tool (the C-test), participants were first exposed to a practice test. The practice test was designed in the same way as the full test but was taken from a 1st-year-middle school textbook (Lee et al., 2002). They were given five minutes for the practice test and then they went on and did the main test. The practice test was used to simply and easily familiarize the participants with the procedures required to complete the main test, so it was short and easy.

All students took the two kinds of test, one is the practice test and the other is the actual experimental test. The text used for the experiment was *A Christmas Carol* by Charles Dickens. After a 5-minute practice test, they were given the main C-test. The participants were given exactly 35 minutes to finish the second main test. After 20 minutes it was reported by the proctor that they were bored looking at the one test. Thus, the proctor needed to strongly encourage them to figure out the answers.

3.5 The Materials

The text used for the main C-test was *A Christmas Carol* written by Charles Dickens. *A Christmas Carol* is a well-known story that is familiar to younger Koreans, however none of the participants reported ever reading the story in English before. Thus, it was assumed that the subjects had never experienced the original English version. For the C-test the ending section of *A Christmas Carol* was chosen due to its salience and the belief that the students would best remember that portion of the story.

The section chosen for the test comprised a total of 396 words, organized into 25 sentences. Within the 396-word section chosen for

the test 99 blanks were created following the standard C-test design. After the test was created and the blanks themselves assessed, it was determined that the vast majority of the words blanked out were also included in high-school word inventory as published by the Korea Education Center. It was therefore determined that many of the target items in the C-test would be known to the participants, thus making the test results more valid.

3.5.1 Criteria for Selecting Texts
In choosing a text to be used for a C-test there are many variables that must first be considered. The researcher has to think about the age of the participants, their emotional and intellectual maturity, and their interests and hobbies. One difficulty for selecting texts is that individual students within a group vary considerably in their proficiency and literacy background (Lazar, 1993: 53).

3.5.2 Familiarity with the Story
There are many different degrees of familiarity with a story. Even though learners have not read the story, they still might know the story to various degrees. The participants may have some background knowledge. For example, they may know what is going to happen, how it is going to start and finish as well as who the main character is. They may know all this even though they do not know the story in detail or the actual words that the writer chose. The story *A Christmas Carol* was chosen for this experiment because it runs the gamut of these different degrees of familiarity and schema knowledge as reported by the participants.

A story can be designated as unfamiliar if the participants do not have any background knowledge of it. They should not have heard or read about it. Carrell (1984b:90) says that the story schema may also be

thought of as a set of expectations about stories, about the units of which they are composed, the way those units fit together and are sequenced. This cognitive schema guides both the encoding of a story during input (i.e., as it's being read) and during retrieval (i.e., as it's being recalled).

The schema provides a framework of the story indicating which units are more or less important materials and through which readers assume what is going to happen next. Carrell (1984b) states that the process of comprehending a text is an interactive one between the text and certain key elements in it, on the one hand, and the appropriate background schema being activated by the reader, on the other hand. Such schema knowledge should have a clearly identified effect on the C-test if it is, indeed, there.

The story *A Christmas Carol* is one which is readily available to Korean audiences in Korean. Every year at Christmas time *A Christmas Carol* is shown on TV, in movies, or in play form. As a result, the character of old Scrooge is also well-known in Korea. Korean people tend to know the story roughly or well. It is important how familiar the story is to learners and their knowledge of the text should correlate to their performance on the C-test.

3.6 The C-Test
3.6.1 The definition of the classical cloze test

In classical cloze procedure, as originally conceived by Taylor (1953), every n^{th} word of a test is deleted, except that the first and last sentence or two are generally left unmutilated. The n is not specified, but it is commonly 5, 6, or 7. The number of texts and blanks in a test is also unspecified, although it is common to construct a 50-blank cloze test from a single text in the classical cloze test.

3.6.2 The shortcoming of the classical cloze test

Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984:135) discuss certain shortcomings of the classical cloze procedure. They point that systematic n^{th} word deletion does not necessarily produce a random sample of the elements of the text. It means that the blanks in a cloze test may not comprise a truly representative sample to the language. They presented a list of criteria to reduce redundancy. As Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984:136) explain that beginning in the second sentence the second half of every second word is deleted until the required number of mutilations is reached.

3.6.3 The definition of C-test and the way of making C-test

C-testing is basically a type of cloze procedure and is an integrative written test of general language proficiency based on the concept of reduced redundancy. Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984:136) present a list of criteria that an improved test of reduced redundancy should meet. A C-test should use several different texts; it should have at least 100 deletions; adult educated native speakers should obtain virtually perfect scores on the test: 90% or higher. The deletion should affect a representative sample of the text; only exact scoring should be possible; the test should have high reliability and validity. The 'rule of 2' provided a specific procedure, and it is the defining feature of C-testing. As Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984:136) explain:

> A C-Test consists of a number of short texts (usually five or six) to which what came to be called *the rule of 2* has been applied. Beginning in the second sentence the second half of every second word is deleted until the required number of mutilations is reached.

The rule specifies that deletions begin in the second sentence for the same reason that most cloze tests begin with an unmutilated sentence or two: to allow test-takers to familiarize themselves somewhat with the topic and style of the material. The required number

of total blanks is usually 100 items.

C-Tests measure 'general language proficiency'. Raatz and Kein-Braley (2004) state that they do not believe that the C-Test would be a suitable procedure for measuring pragmatic competence as a separate component and would suggest that if assessing this aspect of language proficiency is of supreme importance, then tests devised specifically for this purpose should be used. Nevertheless they would claim that adequate or superior performance in the area of sociolinguistic competence can only be achieved if the basic underlying organizational competence is sufficient. This is precisely the area which C-tests claim to assess.

3.6.4 Validity of the C-Test

C-Tests can claim content validity since they consist of several randomly selected authentic texts. The texts in a C-Test are a sample of all possible authentic texts of the language. Their function is therefore not to be interesting, but to be typical or representative. For this reason they should be as normal as possible. The following rules may help in choosing appropriate texts: texts should be written texts complete in themselves, appropriate in difficulty and content for target group, with no specialized vocabulary and content, and no verbal humor. Possible sources of texts are non-fictional books, newspapers, magazines, brochures, and information booklets (Raatz and Klein-Braley, 2004).

3.6.5 Reliability of the C-Test

In evaluating C-Test reliability the most usual method used to determine its reliability has been consistency analysis, although in some cases retest coefficients have been determined. In the vast majority of cases C-Tests have been shown to have acceptable levels of reliability (Klein-Braley and Raatz, 1984).

In performing a consistency analysis in C-Tests, it is not permissible to define the individual blanks in the test of items, since they are dependent on each other as a result of text structure and content. Consistency analysis assumes that all items entering into the equation are independent.

3.7 Data Analysis

A statistical test from the SPSS software, the T-test, is used in the investigation. The probability level for statistical meaningfulness is *p<.05*, the standard for the applied linguistics field (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). The significance of the statistical results, therefore, is noted for probability measures of 0.05 and less.

To determine the degree to which learners were successful or unsuccessful, a 2 point scale (1 = successful, 0 = unsuccessful) was implemented. Correct spelling and answers were defined as responses that were semantically and contextually appropriate.

0-1 items extensions of the RASCH-model (Rasch, 1980) can be used. The CLA-Model (Moosbrugger and Müller, 1982) is an extension of the RASCH approach for scaled items. This model has been used successfully for C-Tests (Raatz and Klein-Braley, 1984). Zero (0) is if the test consists entirely of errors and 1 is when the test is completely accurate and has no errors.

3.8 Results

3.8.1 C-Test Scores According to Year in School

The first quite striking observation to be made is that there is a meaningful difference between scores on the C-test according to school year. The second year participants' mean score was 2.5424 higher than the subjects in the first year of high school. The highest score for the first year was 84.85 and the highest score for the second year was 73.74.

In addition, the first year participants have a very large gap in scores as compared to the second year participants' scores as calculated between the highest mark and the lowest mark. Therefore, the length of studying English affects C-Test scores. This is shown in Figure 1 and Table 3 below.

Figure 1

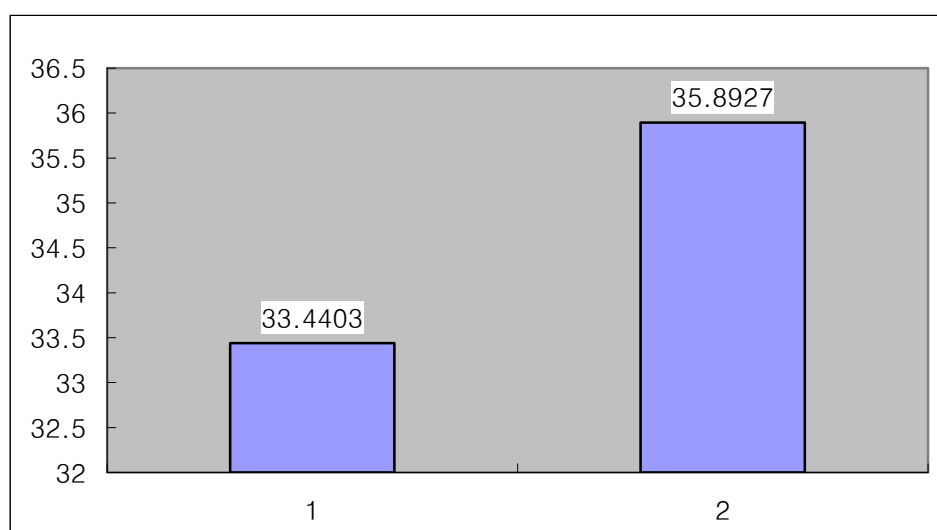*The Mean Scores for the C-Test According to School Year*

Table 3

Total Mean and Deviation C-Test Scores According to School Year.

	The year in school	M ± SD
C-Test Scores	The first year	**33.4403 ± 16.8295**
	The second year	**35.8927 ± 13.9782**

3.8.2 Story Familiarity

After analyzing mean differences between two groups, let us now turn

our attention to the variable of familiarity. Overall, a slightly larger number of subjects (127 or 54%) reported no or extremely limited familiarity with the target story *A Christmas Carol*. This is in contrast to 106 or 45% of subjects who reported a high level of familiarity with the story. These results are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4
Story Familiarity

	YES	NO
Korean high school students (n=233)	**(n=106)** **45.5 %**	**(n=127)** **54.5 %**

3.8.2.1 Story Familiarity for the First Year

Twenty-nine or 34.1% of the first year Korean high school students out of 85 reported a high level of familiarity with the story otherwise. On the other hand, fifty or 65.9% of the first year high school students reported a lack of familiarity with the story. This is shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5
Story Familiarity for the First Year Participants

	YES	NO
The First Year Participants (n = 85)	**(n = 29)** **34.1 %**	**(n = 56)** **65.9 %**

3.8.2.2 Story Familiarity for the Second Year

Seventy-seven or 52% of the second year Korean high school students out of 148 reported a high degree of familiarity with the story *A Christmas Carol*. On the other hand, seventy-four or 48% of the second year high school students reported little or no familiarity with the story. This is shown in Table 6 below. Overall, the second year Korean high school students reported a higher degree of familiarity with the story than their first year counterparts.

Table 6

*Story Familiarity for the Second Year Participants*

	YES	**NO**
The Second Year Participants **(n = 148)**	**(n= 77)** **52 %**	**(n = 71)** **48 %**

3.8.3 The Effect of Story Familiarity on L2 Performance

The mean C-test score for those participants who indicated a positive story familiarity was 38.5077 out of 100 points. However, for those who reported a negative familiarity with the story the mean C-test score was 32.0687 out of 100 points. Overall, the mean score of those who reported positive story familiarity was 6.439 higher than for those who reported a negative familiarity. Based on this it is shown that there are indeed some effects attributed to knowledge of or familiarity with the story through the L1 medium. Thus, knowing a story in Korean seemed to have some effect on overall scores on the c-test. This is shown in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2

Mean C-Test Scores According to Familiarity
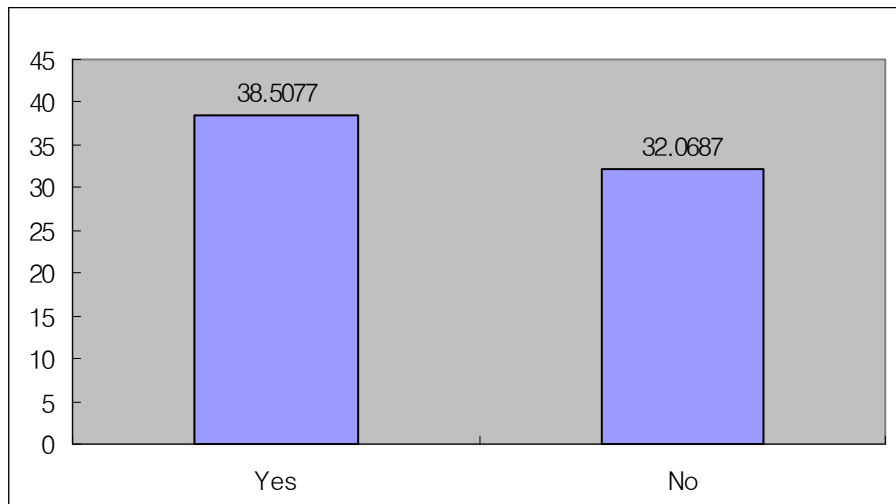
To check if the mean differences reported above were indeed meaningful the results were subjected to a statistical analysis. This analysis revealed that the difference between the two groups was in fact significant. The results of t-test analyses revealed that t = 3.312, P-value = 0.001. This is shown in Table 7 below.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of Variables

|	Story Familiarity	M ± SD	t	P
Scores	Positive	38.5077±15.8684	3.312*	0.001
	Negative	32.0687±13.8023		

*P< 0.001

3.8.3.1 The Effect of Story Familiarity on the First Year

The mean C-test scores for the familiar and non-familiar groups among the first year high school students shows a large difference. The mean C-test score for those who reported a high degree of familiarity with the story was 44.0613. The mean score for those who reported a lack of

familiarity with the story was 27.9401. Therefore, the group who reported knowing the story scored 16.1212 points higher on the C-test than those who reported not being familiar with the story. Thus, it would seem that story familiarity was significant. This is shown in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3

Mean C-Test Scores According to Familiarity for Participants in the First Year
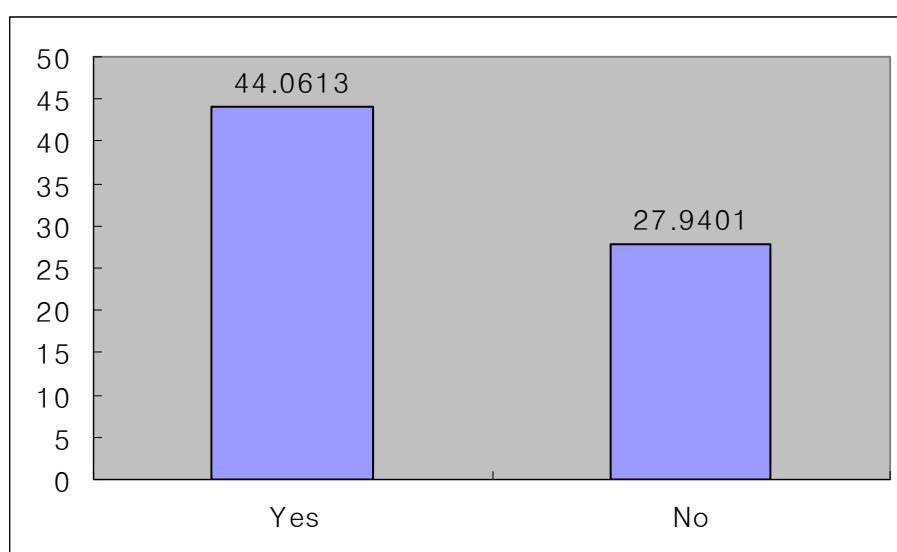
To check if the mean differences reported above were indeed meaningful the results were subjected to a statistical analysis. This analysis revealed that the difference between the two groups was in fact significant. The results of t-test analyses was shown that t = 4.679, P-value = 0.001. This is shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8

*Means and Standard Deviations of Variables for the First Year*

	Story Familiarity	M ± SD	t	P
Scores	**Positive**	44.0613±19.6876	4.679***	0.001
	Negative	27.9401±12.0403		

3.8.3.2 The Effect of Story Familiarity on the Second Year

The mean C-test scores for the familiar and non-familiar groups among the second year high school students shows a small difference. The mean C-test score for those who reported a high degree of familiarity with the story was 36.4161 out of 100 points. The mean score for those who reported a lack of familiarity with the story was 35.3251. Therefore, the group who reported knowing the story scored only 1.0919 points higher on the C-test than those who reported not being familiar with the story. Thus, it would seem that story familiarity was not particularly significant. This is shown in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4

Mean C-Test Scores According to Familiarity for Participants in the Second Year
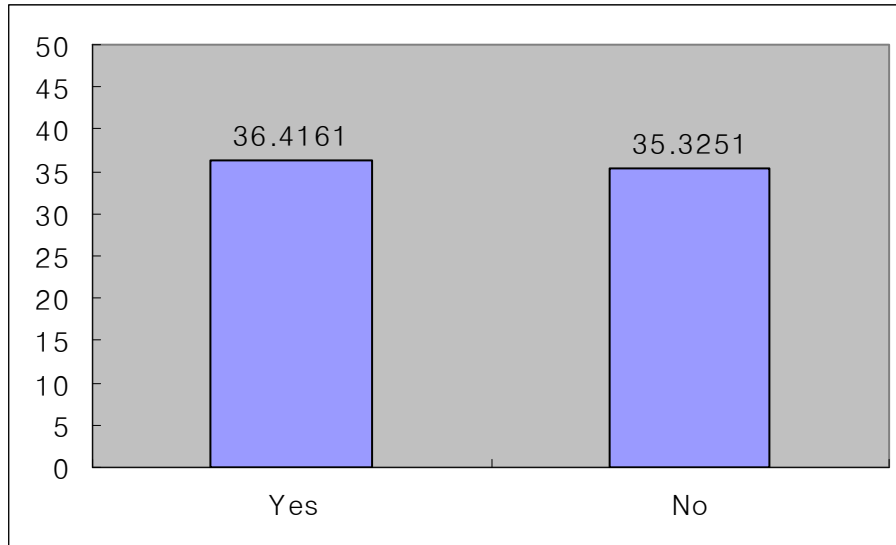
To check if the mean differences reported above for the variable of familiarity for the second year subjects were indeed not very meaningful, the results were subjected to a statistical analysis. This analysis revealed that the difference between the two groups was in fact not significant. The results of t-test analyses was shown that t = 0.473, P-value = 0.637. This is indicated in Table 9 below.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of Variables for the Second Year

	Story Familiarity	**M ± SD**	**t**	**P**
Scores	**Positive**	**36.4161±13.7436**	**0.473***	**0.637**
	Negative	**35.3251±14.3043**		

3.9 Interpretation

In any kind of testing endeavor where differences are noticed, there are always a plethora of potential variables which can be used to explain such differences. For this experiment there are three different aspects of

the results that need to be focused on here. The first interesting result to arise was the difference between the two different groups of subjects in C-test scores according to age and year in school. Then the variable of story familiarity and how that affects C-test scores will be explained before going back and analyzing how different kinds of background knowledge affected each age group.

3.9.1 C-Test Scores: The Age Factor
It was first noticed that the subjects necessarily divided into two groups based on year in school, and presumably age and experience, showed different scores on the C-test. The second year subjects' mean score was 2.5424 points higher than that of the first year subjects. This difference could be attributed to age and general experience, such as in taking tests of this kind or the cognitive ability to concentrate more during cognitively demanding tasks such as a C-test. This is mentioned because proctors reported attention focus difficulties during the administering of the test. Such findings could also be the result of a longer exposure to the target language, resulting, presumably in higher general proficiency for the second year group. The first year students had at the time of the experiment been taking mandatory English classes for 4 years while the second year students had been exposed to five years of mandatory English. Lastly, the difference in C-test scores could be attributed to the variable of story familiarity. The first year subjects showed a wider standard deviation in C-test scores than the second year subjects. At the same time the first year students reported a much wider gap in story familiarity (See Tables 8 and 9 for a comparison). Based on the results there are two possible explanations for this discrepancy. The first of these is that story familiarity and the resulting schema knowledge does indeed affect L2 performance as measured in the C-test. The other explanation is one attributed to a

difference in proficiency between the first year subjects as opposed to the second year subjects. Closer examination of the other results will hopefully provide a clear answer.

3.9.2 The Effects of Story Familiarity on L2 Performance.
An analysis of the C-test scores correlated against the variable of story familiarity alone revealed a statistically meaningful difference. Subjects who reported a high level of story familiarity scored on average 6.439 points higher on the C-Test than those who reported little or no story familiarity. Thus it would seem that story familiarity and the schema knowledge resulting from it does affect L2 performance.

When the variable of story familiarity is correlated across the different age groups, however, we find that the difference is not always meaningful. While a statistically meaningful difference is found among the first year subjects in relation to story familiarity, the difference was not found to be meaningful for the second year subjects. If the variable of story familiarity did indeed have a clearly demonstrable universal effect on L2 performance we would need to find meaningful effects in both groups and not just one. Thus, the results of this study have not clearly shown that familiarity with a particular story in the L1, generating schema knowledge, always affects L2 performance as measured by C-test. Having ruled out story familiarity as a universally meaningful variable, the differences between the subjects in their first year of high school and those in their second year still need to be explained.

3.9.3 Age and Experience Revisited
While the experiment did not conclusively prove its hypothesis that story familiarity in the L1 transfers to and affects L2 linguistic performance, the results, and specifically the differences found to exist

between the two subject groups, behoove explanation. The results here point to some sort of interplay between schema-based knowledge and procedural knowledge. An explanation of how this may be occurring is the goal of this section.

The first possibility would be to look at age factors as a means of explanation. As one group was presumed to be fully one year older in general at 17 as opposed to 16 years than the other group, an age-related explanation would be a simple one. At that age however, both groups would have already passed through the level of formal cognitive development and according to Piaget (1950) would be cognitively developed. Based on this we can reject age as a determining factor. This then leaves open the possibility of experience as providing an explanation for the differences found in the performance of the two groups.

The experiment was conducted on subjects during an important stage in their school life and school English development. There is a marked difference in how students are taught and expected to behave both in general and more specifically in their English classes in high school as opposed to middle school in Korea (교육인적자원부, 1998). While the first year subjects were just beginning their high school experience at the time of the study, the second year students were well into this experience and the results would seem to show that they had already reaped the benefits of such experience, particularly as regards procedural knowledge.

While the C-test was chosen as the primary assessment tool partially because it was expected to be an unknown test format for the subjects, the results would seem to indicate that the advanced experience of the second year subjects group with the study procedures of high school in general and high school English provided them with an advantage over the first year subject group. Lazar (1993) states that

the students' cultural background and their social and political expectations will help their understanding of a text. Since a C-test is a general proficiency exam which relies on both generalized as well as language-specific background knowledge (Klein-Braley & Raatz, 1984), it correlates strongly with Lazar's ideas of literacy. Claims that the Korean high school system is indeed effective in promoting literacy development have been reported in recent PISA studies where South Korea scored first and third in the world for L1 literacy tests in 2001 and 2003 respectively (PISA, 2003). As a result, what can be claimed to be happening in the C-test is that literacy skills, one of the main focuses of Korean high school English class and a kind of procedural knowledge, is one of the main determining factors in C-test scores.

The first year group, because they lacked such procedural knowledge, needed to make more use of their schema knowledge. This is reflected in the results showing that schema knowledge was a meaningful variable in this group. For the second year group, who would, as supported by the PISA results, have more procedural knowledge related to how to deal with texts, there is less need for the schema knowledge in determining the blanks in the C-test. Based on the results for the second year group, which showed no meaningful effects of schema knowledge, procedural knowledge would seem to be more effective. This does not mean that schema knowledge does not transfer for the second group, it just means that knowledge of a schema would seem to be a less important in interpreting a text than procedural knowledge of literacy skills when both are available.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of schema

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memory encoded in the L1 based on exposure to a literary text on L2 learners' performance. In order to determine the effects of L1 accrued schema knowledge on L2 performance, subjects were tested for performance on a C-test generated from what was expected to be a text familiar to some but not all experimental subjects.

The results of the experiment show that there do seem to be some effects based on schema knowledge, but these effects are rapidly overshadowed by the effects of general literacy skills/procedures and possibly proficiency in the L2. Thus, for one subject group, the less experienced of the two, the results of the experiment at least partially positively answer the first question; namely, that schema knowledge encoded in the L1 does transfer to L2 performance. The overall effects of this transfer are, at best, marginal since the C-test scores were still quite low in relation to those of the native speaker experimental group. It was therefore, difficult to determine in the present experiment exactly what the effects of such schema transfer were. This is particularly true since no meaningful effects of L1 schema knowledge were observed in the more experienced of the two groups. Overall, then, it was found that literacy experience with the target language of a more formal nature leading to the transfer of literacy skills from the L1 seemed to have a stronger effect than specific schema knowledge. Thus, the experiment only found partial support for the first two of the guiding questions and the third questions was simply unanswerable in the confines of the present experiment.

The most coherent explanation for the findings of the present experiment is that rather than merely schema knowledge transferring, a general transfer of literacy skills also occurs. As the study conducted here shows, there may be connection to learner's length of study and their use of literacy skills such as dealing effectively with contextual information (Reeder & Shapiro, 1993).

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Assuming that background knowledge forms the basis of how we assess contexts, which in turn govern our language use, language proficiency performance involves not only the familiarity with semantic memory accrued through the L1 but also forming expectations or schema of story. Clearly, subjects more experienced in reading in the L2 are more adept at this. Thus, it was found that the effects of schema knowledge are subsumed by general literacy skill knowledge when this latter type of knowledge is available.

In reconsidering linguistic ability as language educators, we should at least teach English foreign language learners to use language with an acceptable range of linguistic knowledge. It remains to be examined what instructional options are best to help students in different social ages and what contexts improve their knowledge and skills in using the L2 effectively. As shown by this study, the preference of strategies depends on the text familiarity in their memory. The story familiarity based approach may help learners to gain insight into the L2 language.

4.1 Problems and Further Suggestions

While the experiment did manage to generate some findings, these findings are highly tenuous at best. The difference between the C-test scores of the two groups was not subjected to a statistical analysis. Thus, it is not certain if such a difference is actually meaningful. This is a serious point because the scores for both experimental groups were markedly lower than those of the native speaker group, all of whom reported a high level of story familiarity. The rather low nature of the scores themselves sheds light on another problem.

The C-test used here was problematic because it involved a literary text. Klein-Braley and Raatz (1984) state that literary texts are not optimal for use in C-tests. This warning is substantiated in the face

of the low scores achieved by the experimental group on the tests. The original experimental design included the use of two literary texts highly similar except that one was familiar to the subjects while the other was unfamiliar. For reasons beyond the control of the researcher this promising design was abandoned. Based on this original design the so-called literary effects of the text would have been diminished. It would certainly be useful for someone to attempt an experiment following the original research design with the necessary controls, for more specific focus would be shed on the effects of knowledge transfer.

A final suggestion would be for someone to run a more controlled version of the experiment. A chief problem with the data generated here was that there were few controls placed on the subject sample. No attention was paid to general proficiency, or literacy skills as possible variables and as a result not only were no controls applied to them, but they were either not mentioned in or dealt with as a result of the questionnaire. Based on the presumed importance attributed to them in the results of this experiment it would seem that further and much more controlled experimentation is needed to determine the role of schema knowledge in relation to proficiency and/or literacy skills.

4.2 Final Remarks (S.vV.)

It should be clear to all readers that this study, even in its recast form is somewhat problematic because the research design lacked certain necessary controls. As the original data accumulated by the researcher was unrecoverable after her death her original ideas needed to be reconstructed as clearly as possible based solely on a rather small available data set. For this reason it is not at all clear that the results presented here are entirely valid. This is particularly true because there is no accounting for the effects of different proficiency levels or actual literacy skills. For this reason, readers should take this thesis as a raw

example of the potential underlying possible facts. There are several interesting and important ideas here which the original researcher was keen to investigate, for they should be investigated, but which this investigation due to the failing health of the researcher was not able to conclusively deal with. Consider the ideas presented, not the methodology employed, for it is our ideas which carry us forth.

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Appendix 1

Practice C-test

Middle school is different from elementary school. In elementary school I ha___ only on_____ teacher. I___ middle sch_____. I ha_____ many teac_____. In elemen_____ school I ha_____ no unif_____. In mid_____ school I we_____ a uniform. In elementary school I had many old friends. In middle school I have many new friends. I like middle school. It's fun.

Original text (Lee et al. 2001, p.18)

Middle school is different from elementary school. In elementary school I had only one teacher. In middle school I have many teachers. In elementary school I had no uniform. In middle school I wear a uniform. In elementary school I had many old friends. In middle school I have many new friends. I like middle school. It's fun.

Appendix 2

A Christmas Carol by Charles Dickens

찰스 디킨스의 '스쿠루지 영감' 소설 마지막 부분입니다.
이름: _____
학년: _____
이 이야기를 알고 있었습니까? (동그라미 치시오): 네 / 아니요
이 이야기를 영어로 읽은 적이 있었습니까? (동그라미 치시오):
네 / 아니요

The bed was his own, the room was his own. Best and happiest of all, the Time before him was his own, to make amends in!

"I wi___ live i____ the Pa_____, the Pres_____, and th___ Future!" Scrooge repe_____, as h_____ scrambled ou____ of be____. "The spir_____ of al_____ three sha_____ strive with____ me. O____! Jacob Marley! Hea_____, and th____ Christmas Ti_____ be pra_____ for th_____. I sa_____ it o____ my kne_____, old Jacob; o____ my kne_____!"

He wa_____ so flutt_____ and s_____ glowing wi_____ his go_____ intentions, th_____ his bro_____ voice wou_____ scarcely ans_____ to hi_____ call. H____ had be_____ sobbing viole_____ in hi_____ conflict wi_____ the Spir_____, and hi____ face wa_____ wet wi_____ tears.

"They are not torn down!" cried Scrooge, folding one of his bed curtains in his arms, "they are not torn down, rings and all. They are here--I am here-- the shadows of the things that would have been, may be dispelled. They will be! I know they will."

His han_____ were bu_____ with hi____ garments al_____

this ti_____: turning th_____ inside ou_____, putting th_____ on ups_____ down, tear_____ them, mislay_____ them, mak_____ them par_____ to eve_____ kind of extrava_____.

"I d_____ not kn_____ what t_____ do!" cri_____ Scrooge, laug_____ and cry_____ in th_____ same bre_____; and mak_____ a perf_____ Laocoon o_____ himself wi_____ his stock_____. "I am as light as a feather, I am as happy as an angel. I am as merry as a school-boy. I am as giddy as a drunken man. A merry Christmas to everybody! A happy New Year to all the world. Hallo here! Whoop! Hallo!"

He had frisked into the sitting-room, and was now standing there: perfectly winded.

"There's th____ saucepan th_____ the gru_____ was _____!" cried Scrooge, star_____ off aga_____, and fris_____ round th_____ fire-pla_____. "There's th____ door, b_____ which th____ Ghost o____ Jacob Marley ente_____! There's th_____ corner whe_____ the Gho_____ of Christ_____ Present, sa_____. There's th_____ window whe_____ I sa_____ the wande_____ Spirits! It's al____ right, it's al_____ true, it al_____ happened. H____ ha h_____!"

Really, for a man who had been out of practice for so many years, it was a splendid laugh, a most illustrious laugh. The father of a long, long line of brilliant laughs.

Original text

The bed was his own, the room was his own. Best and happiest of all, the Time before him was his own, to make amends in!

"I will live in the Past, the Present, and the Future!" Scrooge repeated, as he scrambled out of bed. "The Spirits of all three shall strive within me. Oh! Jacob Marley! Heaven, and the Christmas Time be praised for this! I say it on my knees, old Jacob, on my knees!"

He was so fluttered and so glowing with his good intentions, that his broken voice would scarcely answer to his call. He had been sobbing violently in his conflict with the Spirit, and his face was wet with tears.

"They are not torn down!" cried Scrooge, folding one of his bed curtains in his arms, "they are not torn down, rings and all. They are here--I am here-- the shadows of the things that would have been, may be dispelled. They will be! I know they will."

His hands were busy with his garments all this time; turning them inside out, putting them on upside down, tearing them, mislaying them, making them parties to every kind of extravagance.

"I do not know what to do!" cried Scrooge, laughing and crying in the same breath; and making a perfect Laocoon of himself with his stockings. "I am as light as a feather, I am as happy as an angel, I am as merry as a school-boy. I am as giddy as a drunken man. A merry Christmas to everybody! A happy New Year to all the world! Hallo here! Whoop! Hallo!"

He had frisked into the sitting-room, and was now standing there: perfectly winded.

"There's the saucepan that the gruel was in!" cried Scrooge, starting off again, and frisking round the fire-place. "There's the door, by which the Ghost of Jacob Marley entered! There's the corner where the Ghost of Christmas Present, sat. There's the window where I saw

the wandering Spirits! It's all right, it's all true, it all happened. Ha ha ha!"

Really, for a man who had been out of practice for so many years, it was a splendid laugh, a most illustrious laugh. The father of a long, long line of brilliant laughs.