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Contents

Ⅰ. Articles

Interactional Resources for Language Learning

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This paper examines five empirical studies in terms of interactional competence (IC) from a pragmatic perspective, especially based on a conversation-analytic approach. It is argued that IC involves knowledge and employment of interactional resources that participants bring to interaction in social contexts. I tried to analyze what kinds of interactional resources L2 learners employ to participate competently in interactional practices. This paper uses some of the concepts of interactional resources, suggested by Young (2008), to evaluate five empirical studies on speech acts, turn-taking, and repair. What I have found from this literature review is that when language learners participate in L2 interactions, they actively draw on an immense stock of social knowledge and interactional resources such as speech acts, turn-taking, and repair while figuring out their way through the moment-to-moment unfolding of their interactions.

1. Introduction

This paper will review empirical studies in terms of interactional competence from a pragmatic perspective, especially based on a conversation-analytic approach. It is assumed that interactional practices and the learner's participation in them promote language learning, and many practitioners have tried to design lessons and tasks which can provide students with ample opportunities ensuring interaction. Essentially, talk is interactional practices which are sequenced moments of face-to-face interaction with interaction being an essential part of everyday life.

According to Mondada and Doehler (2004), interaction is the most basic site of experience and of organized activity where learning can take place. As Vandergrift (1997) stated, an important condition for L2 learning is providing learners with opportunities for social interaction where they can test hypotheses about the language and receive feedback. As Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) noted, it is not just sufficient for the user to have lexico-grammatical competence, knowledge of the syntax and lexical semantics in the target language, but also pragmatic competence, an understanding of "how to use language in socioculturally appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in a communicative interaction and features of the context within which the interaction takes place" (p. 19-20), thus contextual and situational features of interaction must become an integral part of classroom activities. Kramsch (1986) viewed interactional competence (IC) as the basis of successful interaction and it is Kramsch's view "that forms the basis for contemporary understandings of the competence that is created by all participants in social interaction" (as cited in Young, 2011, p. 5). According to Young (2011), the definition of IC includes the pragmatic relationship between participants' employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts in which they are employed. Young (2011) stated that IC is not the ability of a single individual to employ those resources in social interaction but "is co-constructed by all participants in a discursive practice, and IC varies with the practice and with the participants" (p. 6).

An inclination arose to look closely into interaction to see what is actually happening and what learners actually do while engaging in practices in social contexts and to find how to design tasks which encourage learners to draw on interactional resources. Brouwer (2003) stated that classroom interaction itself is an occasion of language use that depends on the competence of the parties to the interaction, thus it is a constitutive feature of the practices of teaching and learning. As a teacher, I would like to help my students to actively use and develop their interactional competence while engaging in classroom interactions to facilitate their learning. Therefore, I posed my research question for this paper: What kinds of interactional resources do L2 learners employ to participate competently in interactional practices?

To answer my research question, I will investigate five empirical studies. This paper is organized as follows. In the part of Theoretical Foundations, I will discuss what conversation analysis (CA) is and investigate some of its main theoretical principles. After that, among those principles, I will examine specifically the concepts of interactional competence and interactional resources and use them as an analytical lens to review studies surrounding the issue. In the Review and Analysis, I will review each of the five empirical studies I read and examine learning situations in each of the studies while applying the analytical lens in the Evaluation section.

2. Theoretical Foundations

This paper adopted the conversation-analytic approach to second language acquisition to examine interactional practices in five empirical studies related to interactional competence. Thus, I will briefly discuss the theoretical foundations for the investigations of this paper.

2.1 Conversation Analysis (CA)

Conversation analysis has evolved from ethnomethodology (EM), a sociological approach to sociological inquiry of the everyday methods that people use for the production of social order (Garfinkel, 2002). CA, which was started by sociologists Sacks and Schegloff, is a sociological naturalistic observational discipline that could deal with the details of social action empirically and formally (Schegloff& Sacks, 1973). According to Kasper and Wagner (2011), EM and CA studies the methods and procedures ordinary people use to participate and make sense in their daily life. From EM-CA perspectives, language acquisition can be viewed as learning to participate in ordinary as well as institutional everyday social environments, and thus "the focus of CA as an approach to second language acquisition is the social aspects of language acquisition and not the more "systemic" aspects of language" (Kasper & Wagner, 2011, p. 117).

2.2 Theoretical Principles of CA

- **The interactional order:**According to Kasper and Wagner (2011), CA's analytical object is talk-and-other-conduct in interaction, and CA is primarily interested in the orderliness of interaction, what Goffman (1983) called the interaction order. CA finds "the interaction order in the methods (procedures/practices) that social members recurrently and systematically use to achieve, maintain, and restore intersubjectivity in their practical activities" (Kasper and Wagner, 2011, p. 118).

- **Learning as a social practice:** According to Kasper and Wagner (2011), CA relocates cognition from its traditional habitat in the privacy of people's minds to the arena of social interaction, so cognition can be viewed not as an individual or universal property but as socially shared and grounded in interaction. From the conversation-analytic perspective, socially shared cognition and learning are publicly displayed in interaction. According to Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of situated learning, learning takes place in the learner's participation in social practice. In addition, continuous adaptation to the unfolding circumstances and activities that constitute talk-in-interaction is not just beneficial or necessary for learning by providing opportunities for learners to be exposed to comprehensible or modified input (e.g., Long, 1996), but it is a fundamental condition for learning and the most basic site in which learning is rooted.

- **Context-dependent and context-renewing methods:** Contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing. Firth and Wagner (1997) argued for the importance of contextual and interactional dimensions of language use.
- **Data:** CA is bottom-up and data-driven and deals with data which are collected in environments where participants are involved in consequential everyday activities and are naturally occurring, which means they are not produced and manipulated for the analyst (Kasper & Wagner, 2011). Seedhouse (2005) suggested we must ask the "Why that?" question at all stages of CA analysis of data. This captures the perspective of interaction as action (why that) which is expressed by means of linguistic forms (in that way) in a developing sequence (right now).

2.3 Interactional Competence

In linguistic theory, the term 'competence', first used by Chomsky (1965), has been taken to mean an individual's knowledge underlying the production and interpretation of well-formed sentences in a language. Later, Hymes (1972) critiqued Chomsky's idea of competence and countered that not only does competence refer to the individual's knowledge of the forms and structures of language, but competence also extends to how the individual uses language in actual social situations. Canale and Swain (1980) developed the idea and defined communicative competence in terms of four components:(a) sociolinguistic competence, referring to knowledge required for understanding the social context in which language is used — the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction,(b) grammatical (linguistic) competence, including knowledge of grammatical well-formedness,(c) strategic competence, referring to the strategies one uses to compensate for imperfect language knowledge or other limiting factors (such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention),(d) discourse competence, comprising knowledge of the connections among utterances in a text to form a meaningful whole. In applied linguistic theory, competence was recognized as a characteristic of a single individual. However, as Mehan (1982) wrote, "competence becomes interactional in two senses of the term. One, it is the competence necessary for effective interaction. Two, it is the competence that is available in the interaction between people" (p. 65).

According to Young (2001), "Interactional competence (IC) builds on the theories of competence that preceded it, but it is a very different notion from communicative competence and communicative language ability" (p. 449) in that an individual's knowledge and employment of the interactional resources is contingent on what other participants do and that IC is not what a person knows, it is what a person does together with others. He and Young (1998) stated that IC adds further components to the four components of communicative competence, such as:

> a knowledge of rhetoricala knowledge of certain lexis and syntactic patterns specific to the practice, a knowledge of certain lexis and syntactic patterns specific to the practice, a knowledge of how turns

> are managed, a knowledge of topical organization, and a knowledge of the means for signaling boundaries between practices and transitions within the practice itself. (p. 6)

Young (2008) extended the list of linguistic and pragmatic resources and wrote that IC includes identity resources, linguistic resources, and interactional resources.

The notion of interactional competence was first coined by Kramsch (1986). According to Walsh (2012), much foreign language teaching adopts what Cook (2003) terms a 'deficit' model, where second language speakers are perceived as being in some way inferior to first language speakers, and where the performance of second language speakers is somehow measured against that of first language speakers. Kramsch (1986) argues that a focus on interactional competence allows us to concentrate more on the ability of learners to communicate intended meaning and to establish joint understandings. Essentially, interactional competence is concerned with what goes on between interactants and how that communication is managed (Walsh, 2012).

3. Analytical Lens

Young (2011) wrote that IC involves knowledge and employment of interactional resources that participants bring to interaction in social contexts. This paper will use the concepts of interactional resources, suggested by Young (2008), to evaluate five empirical studies. Young (2011) suggested interactional resources include:

- Speech acts: the selection of acts in a practice and their sequential organization

- Turn-taking: how participants select the next speaker and how participants know when to end one turn and when to begin the next
- Repair: the ways in which participants respond to interactional trouble in a given practice
- Boundaries: the opening and closing acts of a practice that serve to distinguish a given practice from adjacent talk. (p. 10)

Among these, I will take three interactional resources — speech acts, turn-taking, repair — as the analytical lens and apply them to look into learning situations of the five studies. The reason why I chose those three resources is that I believe they are essential interactional resources that second language learners draw on while engaging in second language encounters.

3.1 Speech acts

In terms of speech acts, as Berlo (1960) noted, an essential part of pragmatics is characterizing the purpose of communication as an act to influence people with intent. Rost (2011) stated that situated speech began to be understood as succeeding or failing on two levels: by the objective truth value of the words spoken and by the subjective intention of the speaker in uttering those words. Thus, to interact competently, participants need to learn a language form conveying different meaning and function according to the context.

3.2 Turn-taking

Conversation is a process of speech exchange between two or more persons, and the process is orderly and speakers take turn. A turn at talk is constructed not by a single speaker alone but is co-constructed by the other participants (Young and Lee, 2004) and knowing when to take and not to take turns is an interactional resource for language learners to employ in conversation.

3.3 Repair

As discussed by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977), CA studies multiple aspects of repair, one of the interactional resources: who initiates it, at which particular moment during the development of a sequence it is initiated, who actually undertakes the repair, and when. When language interaction is posed as a problem, language learners use repair to resolve it by constructing their talk methodically in the moment-by-moment contingencies of interaction (Schegloff, 1991).

4. Literature Review and Analysis

4.1 Study 1

Brouwer's (2003) study investigated word searches in conversations between native speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) with regard to language learning, applying CA as a methodology. The data include a transcribed, 6.5-hour corpus of audio-taped, naturally occurring conversations between native speakers of Danish and Dutch speakers of Danish. Brouwer (2003) built and analyzed a collection of 122 excerpts that appeared to be relevant for the analysis of word searches from the corpus. Brouwer (2003) tried to answer the question in the study: which exactly are the features of the sequences in which participants focus on particular linguistic form (i.e. word search) that have the potential to promote language learning? Brouwer (2003) observed "how the L2 speakers showed through the design of the trouble-source turn whether or not their co-participant(s) were invited to participate in the word search or whether the L2 speaker produced his or her own solution, that is, whether the self-initiated repair projected self- or other-completion" (Kasper & Wagner, 2011, p. 128). Brouwer (2003) identified the characteristics that sequences as language learning opportunities share: (a) the other participant is invited to participate in the search, and (b) the interactants demonstrate an orientation to language expertise, with one participant being a novice and the other being an expert.Brouwer (2003) added that it should be stressed that such an expert need not be a NS, or even a person who is generally better at the language.

Brouwer (2003) addresses all speech acts, turn-taking and repair as interactional resources in her study. Word searches can be described as cases where a speaker in interaction displays trouble with the production of an item in an ongoing turn at talk. Brouwer (2003) stated that explicit word search markers, syntactically, have the form of a question (e.g. "What do you call it?" "What's her name again?"); however, they were taken as requests or invitations to help. According to Brouwer (2003), whether or not the L1 participants were invited to offer their linguistic expertise constituted a crucial factor for learning. In addition, those explicit word search markers do not function as questions to be answered by the other speaker, but often the questions are immediately self-answered.AsSchegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) observed, participants in a conversation orient to a preference for self-repair in various ways, which means that there is a norm that both favors self-initiation over other-initiation and self-repair over other-repair (as cited in Brouwer, 2003).

4.2 Study 2

Lee (2006) used a data corpus that includes three ESL undergraduate composition courses and one speaking class totaling 46 class sessions that were audio/video taped. The students in the classes were either immigrant or international students who were learning English to pursue their academic degrees at North American universities. The speaking class was a part of an ESL program that offered comprehensive and intensive language courses in the area of speaking, writing, reading, listening, grammar and pronunciation. The students in the classes were largely from Arabic or East Asian countries, and they were generally active in both teacher-led discussions and in other small group activities. The teachers in the data sets were female native speakers of English who had taught non-native students for several years in each program. The collected materials were transcribed and transcriptions provide a practical means of describing actual social events in the details of their interaction. Lee (2006) showed that through a descriptive analysis of L2 classroom interaction, L2 learners already bring a full range of competences from their L1 to the interaction despite their lack of linguistic proficiency.

In Lee's (2006) study, turn-taking and repair were dealt as interactional resources for participants to use while interacting with each other, but I could not find discussion about speech acts. Lee (2006) dealt with repair in her study by showing how repair and error correction, which was commonly taken as evidence of students' knowledge deficits, were enabled by students' competence in recognizing trouble, monitoring how talk is sequenced, and initiating or responding to modifications to deal with the problem in interaction. Also, in Lee's (2006) study, I could see how participants used turn-taking as an interactional resource. Lee (2006) observed that the teacher reformulated her questions when she got no response from the students and stated that "it exemplifies the indexical nature of questions whose sense is contingent on the participants' on-going exercise of interpretive work" (p. 368). Lee (2006) showed the participants' work of making meaning was made available to each other in the production of appropriate next turns on time.

4.3 Study 3

Yagi (2007), based on the perspective of situated learning, examined telephone calls between a native speaker (a receiver) and a nonnative speaker of English from Japan (a caller). The participants of the study were three native speakers of Japanese (Taro, Jiro, and Hanako) who were learning English in a short-term intensive English program in Hawaii who had an intermediate level of English proficiency. In the study, the participants were asked to call bookstores in the U.S. ten times within approximately an hour. There were two tasks: (a) to inquire about the availability of a book (three types: popular books which a bookseller could identify easily, textbooks which might be hard for a bookseller to find, books which have not been published), and (b) to inquire about the store's hours. Yagi (2007) found from the study that ESL students were able to learn through their repeated participation in the same situated practice, even with no explicit feedback from the researcher or an instructor and that language learning was made possible by the opportunities for the learners to interact with more competent participants (the booksellers).

In Yagi's (2007) study, I could find that students used speech acts, turn-taking and repair as interactional resources. Yagi found that some students consistently separated the greeting from the pre-request and initial enquiry. As Bowles and Pallotti (2004) indicated, in telephone conversations at workplaces, the pre-request and initial enquiry sequence occurs instead of the "how are you" sequence in ordinary conversation (p. 83-84). One student performed both greeting and pre-request (e.g., "Hello, I'm looking for a book.") or request (e.g., "Hello, I'm looking for a James Patterson's book.") in the same turn, and Yagi reported that generally this student's interactions went smoothly. The students also experienced difficulty with certain phases of the interaction, including inquiring about a book. One student said in his first call, "Do you have [the book's title]?" and ran into communication breakdown. In his second call, once he realized that his initial request was problematic, he rephrased his request to use the expression, "I'm looking for a book." This structure implied that the next turn by the caller will contain the information about that book, thus this structure functioned to prepare the receiver for what the caller would say next in the conversation. In an excerpt illustrating learners' using repair as an interactional resource, one student asked for the store hours by using the words "open hour" in her early calls but the receiver could not understand what she meant. In her third call, when she used the expression again and failed to communicate, she recognized the source of the problem. Later, she picked up the appropriate expression "store hours" from the receiver in the process of meaning negotiation and in her fifth call, she started to use "store hours" and no communication breakdown occurred. According to Toohey (2000), in the learning process, "learners try on other people's utterances; they take words from other people's mouths" (cited in Zuengler& Miller, 2006, p. 42).

4.4 Study 4

Li (2000) examined the linguistic experiences of one Chinese immigrant woman, Ming, as she learned to make requests in English, her second language and tracked the developmental processes and experiences of Ming's language socialization. The subject of the study is, Ming, a 29-year-old newly arrived immigrant woman with a college degree in Chinese language and literature from Mainland China when she enrolled in the Chinese American Association (CAA) program. Ming had had a range of work experiences in China as a high-ranking secretary in a joint-venture company, an amateur fashion model, and a hostess for a special literature talk show on a provincial radio program. When the study started, Ming had been in the United States for just one month. Li (2000) collected data from participant observations (by the author), audio recording of daily interactions, researcher's journals, participants' journals, ESL essays, and formal and informal oral interviews. Li (2000) found that, through exposure and participation in social interactions and with the assistance of experts or more competent peers, Ming learned to make requests more directly than she had been accustomed by adopting certain sociolinguistic strategies and expressions.

Li's (2000) study is mainly about speech acts and does not address specifically turn-taking nor repair. According to Li (2000), when Ming went to the training program director Mary's office to request some job information, Mary thought initially that Ming came to her just to provide information, regarding her own situation, but later Mary perceived Ming was requesting job information. Li (2000) also gave an episode in which Ming ran after her in the hallway to request for assistance preparing for a job interview, but Li thought it was just an ordinary conversation and not specifically a request at first. These examples illustrate Ming's typically indirect style of request. According to Li (2000), this kind of indirectness seemed quite characteristic of Chinese learners and was related to a combination of factors: their L1 (Chinese), cultural background, personality, and circumstances. Using extended 'small talk' in the requesting event was a typical strategy for Ming, who preferred to provide grounders (reasons or background information) to steer the course of the interaction in the direction of her intended goal and to provide chances for her interactant(s) to perform a polite act (i.e. to offer), without her having to perform a face-threatening act (i.e. to make a request). The indirectness in this request was not employed at the level of a single utterance but at the level of the entire discourse. The excerpts of the oral interview with Ming show that she became socialized into new discourse systems and cultures after she tried to solve problems in the L2 workplace. Ming learned to make a request in a more direct way, which she perceived to be in an American fashion, based on the observations and her native speaker colleagues' advice. Rather than avoiding saying something or proceeding in a long and twisting manner, Ming chose what are known as conventionalized indirect requests in English, such as "Could you please…?" whose illocutionary force is quite transparent; it clearly specified what Ming really wanted the other person to do, unlike her previous indirect and evasive style.

4.5 Study 5

Young and Lee (2004) examined reactive tokens (e.g. continuers like 'mm hm', 'uh huh', 'yeah', assessments like 'oh, wow', 'gosh, really?') which are conversational resources by which a listener co-constructs a speaker's turn at talk. Young and Lee (2004) conducted a contrastive study of the use of the resources by Americans in English, and by Koreans in their native language and in English. The data came from eight conversations among females: four native speakers of Korean whose proficiency of English was advanced and four native speakers of American English. All the women were graduate students in their 20's at a university in America. Young and Lee (2004) videotaped eight conversations, and they transcribed and analyzed 13 minutes from each conversation. The Korean women spoke their native language in conversations with other Koreans and the Americans spoke English, but in the cross-cultural dyads, all participants spoke English. Young and Lee (2004) analyzed the forms of reactive tokens in their English and Korean data, and the duration of individual tokens and their frequency of use. They also analyzed the listener's placement of reactive tokens in the ongoing turn at talk and compared the factors that influenced placement by American speakers of English and by Koreans. According to Young and Lee (2004), in Korean, reactive tokens were often elicited by the current speaker and the listener was obligated to provide them. Also, Young and Lee (2004) provided evidence that Korean bilinguals transferred some conversational resources from their native language when they took part in conversation in English.

From the data of Young and Lee's (2004) study, I could find participants used turn-taking as an interactional resource by means of reactive tokens and I could not find the discussion of speech acts and repair in the study. According to Young and Lee's (2004) observations, the function of reactive tokens areto be available as interactional resources to Koreans and Americans to construct a speaker's turn at talk. However, while they are resources by which the listener overtly declines to take the chance for a full turn in English, in many cases in Korean, placing reactive tokens at an intra-turn unit boundary is not simply to decline to take a turn at talk. It is, rather, to provide overt support for the current speaker's turn, an obligation that has been recognized as an interactional burden on the listener. A listener's placement of the continuers occurs very shortly after what Ford and Thompson (1996) have called complex turn transition relevance places (TRPs), that is, places at which a speaker has indicated by means of intonation, syntax, and pragmatics that her turn is complete and transition to another speaker is possible. According to Young and Lee (2004), projecting TRPs in second language conversations is more difficult than in the L1 since L2 speakers have participated in fewer conversations in the L2 and because the construction of syntactic, intonational, and pragmatic units may differ from one language culture to another. Young and Lee (2004) stated that the placement and function of reactive tokens in Korean differ markedly from English since Korean is a language with agglutinative word morphology and has different notions of syntactic completion points. According to Kyu-hyun Kim (1999), in Korean conversations, unit boundaries are often formed while a turn is underway, that is, before a TRP is reached (as cited in Young and Lee, 2004). Kyu-hyunKim addressed the interactional resources that are available at intra-turn unit boundaries, which are formed in such a way that the primary speaker produces the end of a unit with continuing or slightly upward intonation and pauses in the middle of a turn, solicit a brief response (e.g. acknowledgement tokens such as *yey/ney* or *ung*) from the recipient.

5. Conclusion

Studies using CA to investigate L2 talk-in-interaction have contributed greatly to understandings of the indispensable presence of L2 users' interactional competence in L2 interactions. All of the five studies I reviewed abovebegin with the assumption that language learners in L2 interactions possess interactional competenciesrather than treating them as deficient speakers. They showed what these competencies are and how these change over time.

What I have learned from the literature review and analysis of the five empirical studies using CA is that when language learners participate in L2 interactions, they actively draw on an immense stock of social knowledge and interactional resources such as speech acts, turn-taking, and repair while figuring out their way through the moment-to-moment unfolding of their interactions. According to Hall and PekarekDoehler (2011), this competence is socially grounded in that its components are constructed in interaction, and it is shared with social group members in specific communicative contexts. Thus, as Kasper and Rose (2001) proposed, interactional competence should be seen not just as a curricular objective but also as a process that enables L2 learning.

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Interaction between EFL Learners Using Facebook Groups

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Recent studies propose that Facebook (FB) has wider applications that can be applied to language acquisition in EFL classrooms. This study determines whether FB groups help students acquire the target language (TL) outside the four walls of the traditional classroom. Forty students from the University of Incheon interacted in FB groups over a two week period after which both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. The results suggest that motivation in using the TL increased, output was corrected and scaffolded, and interaction between learners increased. Therefore FB groups can be seen as a beneficial platform to not only produce more output and interaction but also to construct meaning.

1. Introduction

The rate of Facebook (FB) users has increased considerably around the world, especially amongst the youth of today. As Yunus, Salehi, Hui Sun, Phei Yen, & Kwan Su Li (2011) state, "…Facebook is currently the leading social networking site with more than 400 million users in March 2010, and growing to more than 500 million active users as of March 2011" (p.75). With the addition of applications in smart phone technology, people can access the FB site wherever and whenever they choose. This has wider applications for interaction in the EFL classroom at University level as it provides a platform to connect with a variety of people, from classmates to professors (Omar, Amin Embi, &MdYunus, 2012). FB enables interaction between people and groups by providing a space with which opinions can be posted online and commented on by other people known as 'friends'.

This paper, therefore, attempts to summarize two studies conducted that analyze interaction and student perception when using FB in online discussions. By replicating the methods used, this study will investigate how

FB groups could benefit student's collaboration and interaction when preparing a group presentation about topics discussed in class. The importance of this study is to investigate whether using FB groups to interact with peers and professors could help university students acquire the TL outside the four walls of the traditional classroom.

2.Intervention

Omar et al. (2012) conducted a study via online discussions using FB groups which investigated learner's participation in the task and analyzed student feedback. 31 students from the National University of Malaysia participated in an online discussion which was evaluated as 15 percent for the course. The students were evaluated by how often they posted and the quality of the posts. Learners were expected to share information and exchange views in groups of four or five members on topics or themes selected by the learners and the course instructor. Participants were required to post six substantial entries, including a summary of an article, pose questions to posts, and reply to questions posed by other learners. The instructor moderated the online discussions by initially inviting the students to the FB groups and encouraging lurkers to join the discussions. The study concluded that FB groups are a great way for students to interact and collaborate outside the classroom walls.It was found that student confidence when using the TL could increase as Omar et al. (2012) suggests, "…its incorporation in class activities could boost learners' confidence and collaboration in generating an authentic and more effective discussion" (p. 72). Furthermore it seemed the participants were less apprehensive about interacting online which could be due to the attention, immediate responses, and feedback provided by the group members (Omar et al., 2012).

A similar study was carried out by Yunis et al. (2011) which focused on analyzing student perceptions when using FB groups. 43 students from the University Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) were required to participate by contributing ideas on Facebook, give opinions, and brainstorm with each other as they each prepared a writing summary. A writing test was then given in class. In this way FB was used as a preparation tool for an essay where students could use the space provided online to interact and collaborate with one another before the writing exercise. The teacher moderated the activity to ensure that the students were keeping the topics related. The results found that students can reduce spelling errors through the use of spell check, Google translate, and other online dictionaries. The quality of messages produced by the students in both studies was enhanced as responses and posts were carefully considered before posting making the output more meaningful. The studies also reached the conclusion that student perception of FB is positive. Students feel that they learn new vocabulary, reduce spelling errors, and opinions of other students help them brainstorm better ideas (Yunis et al., 2011).

This study hopes to replicate the studies from Omar et al. (2012) and Yunis et al. (2011) and analyze the results from an English speaking class at the University of Incheon. 40 students of different majors and proficiencies from two different classes will be required to participate in a FB group over a two week period. Ten groups of 4 students will interact, share opinions, and comment on each other’s posts about a topic that they will choose from their text book. Participants will be required to post an opinion or statement about the topic while also using the grammar “if only” while talking about a regret in the past. They will also be required to comment at least twice by posting questions, or correcting their group member’s posts. This will be worth 2% of their final grade and corrections will be considered as bonus points toward their grade. The teacher will monitor the online discussions to ensure the students remain on topic and to encourage quieter members of the group to participate. As FB is such a popular social networking site, it is assumed that most students will be familiar with the functions of the site.As Ito et al. (2009) suggests, "…these individuals have spent their youth in direct contact with digital media and online communication…" (p.247). However, a 10 minute tutorial will be provided in class around the computer before the activity commences.

Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory suggests that the development of another person's higher mental processes depends on mediating agents in the environment of the learner which could come in the form of an organized learning activity (Kozulin, Gindis, Ageyer, Miller, 2003). By utilizing FB as an interaction tool for students outside the classroom as the organized activity, students can scaffold the output produced in the online discussions to increase quality. This will increase the student's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978), as lower level students grouped with higher level students can improve the overall quality of their output as they will receive input in the form of corrections and comments. This study will encourage the use of corrections by rewarding the students with an incentive of a higher grade. This study will hope to portray that by using FB groups as a platform for interaction among students, the student's ZPD should increase, thereby suggesting that FB is a useful tool for improving student language acquisition.

3.Measuring process

Yunis et al. (2011) used a quantitative and qualitative survey to study student perceptions on the effectiveness of FB groups for improving writing. After a four week period of interaction on FB, students were asked to complete a three part questionnaire. Part one solicited demographic information from the students, part two focused on past activity on FB and how often students have used it, and part three comprised of 10 open-ended items using a 4-level likert scale about questions that refer to motivation, interaction, and over all perception of FB. Mean scores, percentages and frequency were used to describe students' views on FB groups as a means to improve writing. Omar et al. (2012) collected data from the online discussions and also conducted an open-ended questionnaire on the students' opinions of the use of FB groups in the task. Descriptive statistical analysis was undertaken to obtain the frequency count and mean of posted messages across the groups and responses to the questionnaire were categorized into emerging themes (Omar et al., 2012).

This study will use an open-ended questionnaire of 10 items using the likert scale about interaction, motivation, anxiety, improvement, and over all perception of FB, like in Yunis et al.'s (2011), study to collect student opinions on the online group discussions. Statistical data from the posts on the online discussions will also be collected in the FB groups like Omar's et al. (2012) study. Posted messages will be divided into corrections, posts, photos, and comments. By reflecting on this data it is hoped that interaction between students on the FB group discussions can be seen to provide conditions for students' improvement. This will demonstrate that interaction between students on FB groups in this University class can facilitate language learning.

4. Results

4.1 Quantitative results

Statistical analysis of the groups (table 1) on FB revealed the learner's active contributions to the online discussions. This is confirmed by the number of entries posted by the group members. The ten groups posted a total amount of 509 entries in the 2 week period. The groups and participants completed the task with varying contributions with the most active group, Wed 4, generating 101 entries and the least active group, Tues 2, generating 35 entries. The most active group also provided the most comments, 77, and the most corrections, 10.

Table 1

Groups	P1	P2	P3	P4	Total entries	Posts	Comments	Correction	Photos
Tues 1	14	9	12	5	40	10	27	1	2
Tues 2	7	11	17	0	35	6	27	1	1
Tues 3	14	15	15	10	54	6	43	5	0
Tues 4	13	12	6	6	37	11	22	4	0
Tues 5	7	14	7	8	36	11	19	5	1
Tues 6	8	4	15	15	42	6	28	8	0
Wed 1	17	12	32	6	67	8	51	8	0
Wed 2	11	12	20	14	57	13	38	6	0

Wed 3	5	8	9	18	40	6	33	1	0
Wed 4	18	47	19	17	101	12	77	10	1
Totals					509	89	366	49	5

4.2 Qualitative results

From table 2, it is inferred that over half of the participants strongly agree to the statements which lead to the point that FB does help in language development in terms of grammar and vocabulary. Most of the learners also felt motivated and comfortable when using FB to discuss ideas. However the majority of the students would still rather discuss topics in a classroom environment,

Table 2

Question on Likert scale	Strongly Disagree	Neutral	Strongly Agree
FB helped me learn new vocab through the comments.	22 %	26 %	52 %
Using FB helped me organize my thoughts.	22 %	10 %	68 %
Looking at other's ideas helped me with my ideas.	26%	13 %	61%
By correcting grammar in comments it helped me.	23 %	26%	51%
Made me focus on the chapter in the book.	19%	32%	49%

FB was too distracting.	65 %	23 %	12%
Using pics and videos was fun and interesting.	23%	32%	45%
Felt comfortable posting ideas and opinions on FB.	13%	23%	64%
Felt encouraged when group members "liked" my comments.	19%	29%	52%
Prefer to discuss on FB groups instead of in class.	39%	26%	35%

5.Discussion

The results in table 1 suggest that the students were motivated to participate in the online FB activity. This is seen by the total amount of entries produced. As FB is a popular online tool for the participants in the study, the technology may have been a factor in explaining the amount of entries posted. It is also important to note that the students were able to complete the task 'out and about' through the use of the FB application on their phones. As Omar (2012) suggests, "This could be due to the attention, immediate responses, and feedback provided by the group members", (p.70). As students were not physically present when communicating online, they felt more comfortable. This idea can be reflected in table 2 where 64% of the participants strongly agreed that FB provided a comfortable space to post ideas and opinions. This could be a reason why students were able to make a significant contribution to the online discussions. Interaction between participants was high as 366 comments (table 1) were recorded. Learners seem less shy and apprehensive about interacting virtually (Omar, 2012), and all members of the class, except one in group Tues 2, p4, who posted 0 entries, posted more than the required amount. Not only did students post more than the required amount but a few of them posted pictures, which was not even mentioned by the teacher in class, and therefore not a requirement for the task. By using pictures it may have motivated the students to produce more output, and facilitated a better understanding of the topic being discussed.

Corrections were rewarded with bonus points towards the participant's grade during the 2 week activity. Using FB groups where students can help each other correct grammar and vocabulary can increase the student's ZPD. The participants were of varying majors and proficiencies and by grouping the students together, the more advanced students helped the lower level students produce correct output. This can be seen in figure 1 where a student corrects another student's vocabulary. The fact that the student used an online dictionary to find the correct vocabulary suggests that problems in producing correct output can be overcome by tools found online. Therefore the technology online scaffolded the participant's learning, which in turn produced more accurate output from the group members. In this way FB provides a space where students can help each other produce and acquire the TL which reflects Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory.

Figure 1

Even though incentive was given to students to correct each other's posts, a combined total of 49 corrections were recorded. This is a relatively small number compared to the total number of comments of 366. One possible reason for the low number of corrections could be that the students in the study were of various ages. Korea is a hierarchical based society and this could have made an impact on the study as younger students may have felt uncomfortable correcting older student's entries. Another form of correction which was encouraged by the teacher was grammar. Figure 2 depicts a series of posts between 3 participants in not only the correction of grammar but also in the meaning of the task itself. Therefore students collaborated together to understand the activity which was set by the teacher. As a more advanced learner clarified the activity to a lower level learner, again it portrays how this activity on FB can reflect the sociocultural theory. Even though there were only 49 corrections in the study the students found them useful as 52% strongly agreed that FB helped them learn new vocabulary and 51% strongly agreed that it helped them use English grammar correctly (figure 2).

Figure 2

The findings of this study have similarities to the study conducted by Omar et al. (2012). Participants in both studies produced a lot more entries than was necessary to complete the task, as Omar et al. (2012) stated, “the findings also revealed that the average number of entries for each group was 18, that is, three times more than the task requirement”, (p.69). FB also seemed to provide motivation to the learners of both studies as they used images to instigate conversation in their groups. The task also produced better output than in class activities as learners carefully analyzed their messages before posting them. In the case of this study, the students also had the chance to analyze the posts of others and correct them. As both studies collected similar results, it is strong evidence that using FB in EFL classes can increase interaction between learners.

6.Conclusion

This paper has provided evidence that suggests using FB groups in the EFL environment can increase interaction between learners. In view of the positive feedback from the students, FB groups can be seen as a beneficial platform to not only produce output and interact but also to construct meaning through the interactions. Learners received guidance on correct language use through the comments left by their group members. This suggests that more proficient language learners can help the less advanced students in the form of corrections which relates to Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. The students can scaffold each other, thereby increasing their ZPD, which is an important aspect about using FB groups in the classroom.

Participants in the study seemed to take up a more active role in group discussions, perhaps due to the fact that discussing virtually online requires no physical presence and lowers the affective filter. As the teacher played a quiet, monitoring role, it could also have been a factor in why the students interacted a lot as they felt more comfortable producing the TL without the teacher dominating, or correcting utterances in front of their peers (Omar et al., 2012). As much as FB seemed to help the majority of the students learn vocabulary and grammar while interacting in groups, the majority of students would still prefer a classroom environment when discussing in the TL. Table 2 reflects this as only 35% of participants strongly agree that FB is a better place to discuss in the TL. This could be due to the fact that discussions on FB are slowed down as compared to the classroom where students can receive feedback from students and teachers instantaneously (Yunus et al., 2011).

Future studies using FB groups may want to reduce the time limit needed to complete the task. Two weeks may have been too long for this activity, therefore slowing down the discussions in such a way that students may lose interest in the activity over time. By shortening the time limit for the FB activity, the participants are forced to comment and respond in a more timely manner. This time factor could be taken into consideration in a future study and compared with this study to analyze the difference in the perception of the learners using the FB groups.

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What is the Lingua Franca Core? What are its phonological features? And what are the arguments for and against its use as an L2 teaching tool?

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This paper examines the idea of the Lingua Franca Core and explains the phonological features that it consists of. Several academics have argued for the relevance and significance of the LFC as an L2 teaching tool. These arguments are largely predicated on the idea that international intelligibility and communication are more important for the majority of L2 speakers than emulating often outdated L1 models of pronunciation. This paper investigates this argument and also charts some of the counter arguments which claim the tool is not helpful or even viable.

1. Introduction: A tale of two accents

If you are in any way acquainted with British culture you will know that the respective images of Scotland and England are very different. Historically, Scotland has something of an inferiority complex with regards to its more powerful neighbour; England. For long stretches of time Scottish culture, history, politics and social life have been dominated and influenced by England. Furthermore, when England was shaping the world and scaling the heights of geopolitical success during the years of imperialism and colonialism Scotland was left far behind and largely excluded from this illustrious history.

During its colonial history England exported, often forcibly, the very idea of Englishness all around the world. The image of the refined, educated, English gent bringing civilization to the rest of the world was born at this particular historical moment. This image has persisted; for many the idea of ‘Englishness’ still connotes Shakespeare and Dickens, education and refinement, drinking tea and civility. One of the most obvious signifiers of Englishness is the English accent. As such the English accent over time became synonymous with education and privilege (Bryson 1990, Crystal 2003,McCrum 2010). The English accent was eventually codified by Jones (1918) into the so-called ‘received pronunciation’ which became the standard by which other English vernaculars were judged. Received Pronunciation[i] is sometimes referred to as Queen’s or King’s English, Oxford English, after the famous university, or BBC English.[ii]

On the other hand, the Scottish accent has historically been looked down on and stigmatized. The Scottish accent connotes illiteracy, lack of education and a general lack of refinement.[iiiiv] If you are Scottish and you are travelling in England, you will at some point encounter accent based discrimination of one kind or another.[vvi]

It turns out that in recent years this point of view has been growing in certain academic circles. Jenkins (2000) argues that:

> There is really no justification for doggedly persisting in referring to an item as ‘an error’ if the vast majority of the world’s L2 English speakers produce and understand it. Instead, it is for L1 speakers to move their own receptive goal posts and adjust their own expectations as far as international uses of English are concerned…The perhaps unpalatable truth for NSs is that if they wish to participate in international communication in the 21st Century, they too will have to learn EIL. (p. 160)

2.The lingua franca core

Jenkins is a lecturer and researcher at King's College London where she teaches phonology, phonetics and world Englishes. Currently, she is the main proponent and advocate for teaching English as a lingua franca. She argues that ELF removes the historical focus and presumed necessity of teaching learners to emulate native English speaker accents. The term 'lingua franca' is usually defined as "any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language" (Jenkins, 2000, p. 371). Therefore, by definition, a lingua franca has no native speakers. Following this English has been defined as a lingua franca in the following ways:

> [ELF is] a "contact language" between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication. (Firth, 1996, p. 240)

> ELF interactions are defined as interactions between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue. (House, 1999, p. 74)

Jenkins (2002) argues that ELF is of such vital importance now because of the incredible reach the English language has around the globe and the increasing numbers of English learners and speakers. She thinks there has been a fundamental shift in the way people use English; there are now considerably greater numbers of non-native speakers (NNS) using English for international communication than there are native speakers. This shift brings with it serious ramifications for phonological norms and established pronunciation models such as 'Received Pronunciation' and 'General American.' Traditionally, the purpose of learning English as a foreign language was to enable the learner to speak the target language as a 'foreigner' in order to facilitate communication with native speakers of the language. To meet this goal the pedagogic model often adopted by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers was to teach pronunciation sufficiently close in approximation to native speaker accents; preferably, the native speaker accent which would have the widest currency among the learner's target native speaker community. (Jenkins, 2002)

The purpose of learning English as a lingua franca is altogether different. It is not specifically to enable communication with native speakers. Instead, the language is being learned for international communication. The target community is not a native speaker community:

> It is an international community in which all participants have an equal claim to membership. An intrinsic part of this claim, it seems to me, is the right for speakers to express their L1 regional group identity in English by means of their accent, as long as the accent does not jeopardise international intelligibility. (Jenkins, 2002, p. 85)

The model Jenkins (2002) proposes suggests that we should not consider a learner's interlanguage to be fossilised because of their own native, natural accent. Obviously, if we accept this model there are implications for (ELT) English language teaching.

However, we need to ask is English as a lingua franca even necessary? Although Jenkins thinks it is, what evidence underpins her argument? Clearly English as a lingua franca challenges the assumption that British English is the only valid standard of English. It also questions the notion that the native speaker is the only model that all learners should aspire to:

> It offers an alternative to the Anglo centric view of English – A more democratic approach, whereby all varieties of English have equal recognition and status, the differences among them being the result of acculturation and nativisation. (Saraceni, 2009, P. 176)

However, does it truly represent a fundamental change or paradigm shift in English Language Teaching? Jenkins (2002) and her cohorts (Seidlehofer, 2004) argue for the significance of English as a lingua franca based on the following main points:

1. Non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers;

2. Native speakers of English can no longer claim excusive ownership of the language;

3. Native varieties of English, British and American English (Or any other 'native' variety) do not represent relevant models for learners of English around the world, be they in the Outer or Expanding Circle;

4. Native speakers of English should no longer be regarded as the sole repository of truth about the language nor the default choice as language teachers;

5. The distinction between native and non-native speakers should be downplayed as irrelevant and unhelpful; and

6. As English becomes abstracted from Anglo-Saxon culture, the cultural component of ELT and learning should look to other (local as well as global) cultures as reference points.

Historically, the UK, followed by the US, has been considered the centre of the English speaking world. Alongside countries such as Canada, New Zealand, Australia and South Africa the US and the UK form the 'inner circle' of speakers of English. In these so-called 'inner circle' countries, English is the native language, spoken by the majority of the population. Taken as a whole the English speakers in these countries constitute over 300 million people (Graddol, 1997).

There is also an 'outer circle' of speakers of English. This outer circle refers to the many former British colonies which have since become independent countries in their own right. There are dozens of such countries where English has been cited in their constitutions as a co-official language (Graddol, 1997). In these countries English has an official status and shares a place amongst the native languages in educational institutions and government organisations.

> Hence, it is possible to study in India, order food in a Singaporean restaurant, and read newspapers in Trinidad – all in English. Granted, the sounds and choice of expressions could differ remarkably from what is heard on CNN or the BBC. (Van Den Hoven, 2005, p. 12)

As the quote suggests as soon as English is removed from its native context the issue of accent and pronunciation as markers of validity become apparent. The varieties of English spoken in outer circle countries are marked as less valid because they are several steps removed from the English spoken in the inner circle countries. This remove is of course most apparent in the various accents of outer circle speakers. The outer circle accents have historically been regarded as imperfect and therefore substandard attempts at or approximations of native English speaker accents; we refer to these other Englishes as Indian English or Nigerian English i.e. not 'true' English. We call them nativised or indigenous varieties or even non-native varieties. By labelling them in this fashion, we are marginalising them. This indicates just how difficult it is to overcome the idea of 'nativeness' as the sole or even primary indicator of validity in language:

> Innovations in non-native Englishes are often judged not for what they are or their function within the varieties in which they occur, but rather according to how they stand in relation to the norms of native Englishes. (Bamgbose, 1998, p. 1)

Native English seems to be the inescapable yardstick by which all other Englishes are judged. Whilst these outer circle, non native varieties have become relatively well known and accepted and the subject of much scholarly research there is the less well known, less researched 'expanding circle' countries to consider (Crystal, 2003).

Since the turn of the century there has been an increasing amount of interest in the so-called expanding circle of English speakers. These are countries that use English to a greater or lesser extent but where English has no colonial history. The expanding circle encompasses much of the rest of the world's population; China, Japan, Korea, Indonesia, Egypt, and many places in Europe. Some estimates put the number of English users in these countries at 1 billion. Whereas the nativised varieties of English in the outer circle countries have established norms of practice the expanding circle countries are very much in the process of negotiating the kind of English they will use (Crystal, 2003).

Seidlhofer, a supporter of Jenkins, claims that English in the world is in a state of delicate balance, or what physicists call 'unstable equilibrium' –

> While the majority of the world's English users are now to be found in countries where it is a foreign language, control over the norms of the language still rests with speakers for whom it is the first language. (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 209)

Seidlhofer (2004) goes on to argue that "about 80 per cent of verbal exchanges in which English is used as a second or foreign language do not involve any native speakers of English" (p. 209). As such Graddol (1997) concludes that "native speakers may feel the language 'belongs' to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future" (p. 10).

This is precisely where ELF comes in. The waning relevance of the native speaker model leaves a conceptual gap which could possibly be filled by codifying or cementing ELF. It is arguably an unprecedented situation; a language is being shaped more non-native speakers than native speakers.

ELF is like Frankenstein's monster. The native speaker gave birth to ELF but now it is far beyond their control; their power to influence the course of the language has been greatly reduced. The non-native users around the world are powering the momentum for change in the language. The norms established by native speakers are often disregarded by expanding circle speakers (Crystal 2003,Graddol1997).

Jenkins (2002) and Seidlhofer(2004) argue that although this global phenomenon has been recognised little is being done to actually account for and understand the changes that happen to the language itself. In particular they want to refocus attention on what actually happens when non-native speakers use English to speak to each other. Ultimately they want to assert that ELF is a linguistic phenomenon in its own right. Seidlhofer (2004) describes:

> The active role of ELF users as agents in the spread and development of English: they are not just at the receiving end, but contribute to the shaping of the language and the functions it fulfils and so, as speech communities, take possession of the language. Clearly, this is a perspective with very considerable implications for the conceptualization of English as a lingua franca. (p. 214)

She goes on to list 4 serious implications for English language teaching pedagogy:

1. Questioning of the deference to hegemonic native-speaker norms in all contexts.

2. Emphasizing the legitimacy of variation in different communities of use.

3. Highlighting the need to pursue the attitudinal and linguistic implications of the global spread of English.

4. Acknowledging the need for description and codification (p. 214).

This last point is perhaps the most important. Just because ELF inherently defends the speaker's right to use their native accent, it does not mean to say that everything in terms of pronunciation is acceptable. There is a very real and genuine concern that sheer volume and diversity of English users will in some way contribute to a breakdown and disintegration in mutual understanding and intelligibility. Jenkins (2002) states:

> There is a great fear…that English is now used so widely around the world, and is in particular used by so many non-native speakers, that if we are not careful, and very vigilant, the language will quite rapidly break up into a series of increasingly mutually unintelligible dialects, and eventually into different languages. (p. 86)

Research suggests that pronunciation, of all the linguistic variables, is the component which diverges most amongst different speakers of English. The problem is compounded by the intrinsic link between accent and identity. The bleak view suggests this divergence could ultimately threaten the entire rationale behind learning English to communicate internationally. This is what led Jenkins (2002) to develop the lingua franca core:

> In order to prevent the disintegration of international phonological intelligibility there is, it follows, a strong case for pedagogic intervention of a new kind: intervention that is no longer based on idealized NS models or NS corpora, but that is both more relevant (in terms of EIL needs) and more realistic (in terms of teachability). (P. 86)

3. The Phonological features of the lingua franca core

The lingua franca core attempts to delineate the essential phonological features for intelligible communication. The research it is based on was conducted over several years and consisted of investigating and examining various different L1 speakers using English to communicate. The empirical evidence provided by this research forms the main body of a "phonological syllabus for ELF learners" (p. 96). Jenkins (2002) called this syllabus the lingua franca core.

3.1Core items

3.1.1 The consonant inventory, all consonants, with the following exceptions

- (/θ, ð/ (*thin*, *then*), which can be replaced by /f, v/). These substitutions are still intelligible (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).
- Rhotic 'R'. A rhotic speaker pronounces a rhotic consonant in words like *hard*; a non-rhotic speaker does not. This affects intelligibility so do not drop /r/ in *here*, *hair*, etc., (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).
- British English /t/ (Medial /t/) between vowels in words such as 'latter', 'water' rather than American English flapped [r]; (do not voice /t/ in matter nor delete it in winter as in American English). (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).
- Approximations of core sounds are acceptable as long as they will not be heard as another sound (e.g., phonemic distinctions must be maintained). Allophonic variation within phonemes is permissible as long as the pronunciation does not overlap onto another phoneme, for example Spanish pronunciation of /v/ as [β] leads in word-initial positions to its being heard as /b/ (so 'vowels' is heard as 'bowels' etc.). (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.1.2 Additional phonetic requirements

- Aspiration of word initial voiceless stops /p, t, k/ (*pin* /phIn/, *tin* /thin/, *kin* /khIn/) which were otherwise frequently heard as their lenis (voiced) counterparts /b/, /d/, and /g/; (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

- Shortening of vowel sounds before fortis (voiceless) consonants, and the maintenance of length before lenis (voiced) consonants, e.g., the shorter /æ/ in the word *sat* as contrasted with the phonetically longer /æ/ in the word *sad*, or the /I / in 'seat' as contrasted with that in 'seed'. (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.1.3 Consonant Clusters

- No omission of consonants (sounds) in word initial clusters (*promise*, *string*, *proper*, *strap*). (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

- Omission in medial and final clusters only according to inner circle English rules (facts = fax, bands = bans). Omission of sounds in word-medial and word-final clusters only permissible according to L1 English rules of syllable structure so that, for example, the word *friendship* can become /frençIp/ but not /frendIp/ or /fredçIp/. 'Factsheet' can be pronounced 'facsheet' but not 'fatsheet' or 'facteet'.(Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

- Addition (vowel epenthesis) is preferable to omission (product as [par'adAkuta], not ['padAk]). Addition was intelligible to NNS interlocutors, whereas omission was not. (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.1.4 Vowel sounds

- Maintenance of the contrast between long and short vowels, such as the /I/ and /I / in the words *live* and *leave*; seat, sit /i:-I/ or /i-I/; *cooed, could* /u:-/ or /u-o/; *cart/class, cot, caught* /a:-D-o:/ British English or /ar- æ -a-o/ American English). (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

- L2 regional qualities acceptable if they are consistent, except substitutions for the vowel sound as in '*bird*', ('*heard'* distinct from '*hard*') which regularly causes problems. (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.1.5 Production and placement of tonic (nuclear) stress

- Correct placement and production (lengthening) of nuclear stress and contrastive stress (You deserve to be **SACKED** vs. you de**SERVE** to be sacked). (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.2Non core areas

3.2.1 Sounds

/θ/, / ð / and the allophone [l] are designated non-core. (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.2.2 Vowel quality

The difference between /bΛs/ and /bΩs/ as long as quality is used consistently (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004). Jenkins argues (2000) that vowel quality varies between different English dialects; it is "not reasonably stable" (p. 144). This vowel quality variation brings with it an enormous teaching and learning burden (Schmitz, 2012). Therefore for NNSs to ensure intelligibility and comprehensible exchanges with each other Jenkins (2000) claims "L2 consistent regional varieties" (p. 144) are preferred in the LFC framework.

3.2.3 Weak forms

The use of schwa instead of the full vowel sound in words such as 'to', 'from', 'of', 'was', 'do'; in EIL the full vowel sounds tend to help rather than hinder intelligibility.(Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004). Trying to teach students how to differentiate between weak and strong forms can also be burdensome and time consuming. Furthermore, it does not guarantee that their utterances will be intelligible in conversations with other NNSs (Schmitz, 2012). Jenkins (2000) argues the teaching of weak forms as follows:

> It is quite clearly the case in both RP and GA that speakers regularly and dramatically decrease their use of weak forms in situations where they are taking extra care to be understood, for example, in television interviews and conference presentations. (p. 147)

3.2.4Assimilation

Other features of connected speech such as assimilation. For example the assimilation of the sound /d/ at the end of one word to the sound at the beginning of the next, so that /red paint/ becomes / rebpeint/.(Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004). Traditionally the features of connected speech such as elision, assimilation and linking are considered important elements in pronunciation teaching if NS accents are to be obtained. Jenkins (2007) instead argues that placing an emphasis on the teaching of connected speech is “inconsequential and may be unhelpful” (p. 24). Elision may be natural for native speakers but it is not always the case for NNSs.

3.2.5 Pitch direction

Pitch direction to signal attitude or grammatical meaning(Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.2.6 Word stress placement

Word stress placement varies considerably across different L1 varieties of English, so that there is a need for receptive flexibility. (Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004).

3.2.7 Stress-timing – stress-timed rhythm

Stress-timing – stress-timed rhythm(Jenkins, 2000, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2004). Jenkins (2000) argues that stress timing has “no basis in reality” (p. 149) instead arguing that the “lengthening of stressed (nuclear syllables) seem to be crucial to intelligible English pronunciation” (p. 149).

As is clear from the features mentioned the lingua franca core pays more attention to how the L2 English speaker uses the language rather native speaker norms and conventions. It does not encourage learners to adapt native speaker assimilatory features of pronunciation; items like elisions and contractions.

Jenkins (2002) argues that the model that should be applied is one of understandable regional variation. She mentions that in Britain the perceived dominance of Received Pronunciation has faded and dwindled to a point where less than 3 percent of the British population speaks it. The majority of English speakers have one of a variety of regionally modified accents, most of which are now acceptable. Even within a native English speaking inner circle country, she seems to be saying, variation is the rule as opposed to the exception. This model should be extrapolated to a global scale where international, regional variations are acceptable. She goes so far to say that ELF is now the rule and EFL is the exception considering the number of non-native speakers using English and the purposes they use it for.

Jenkins (2002) makes the case for the relevance of the lingua franca core as follows:

> Learners therefore need specific training to enable them to add to their phonological repertoires those features which are most important for intelligible pronunciation in EIL contexts. In addition, they need pedagogic help in order to develop their accommodation skills, so that they become more aware of the importance of making adjustments for specific interlocutors and more able to identify the occasions when this is necessary. (p. 96)

Rather worryingly from the point of view of native English teachers she also claims that the best English teacher is most likely a bilingual English speaker who shares the same L1 as the students they teach. The reason being that this type of teacher will themselves have acquired LFC features of pronunciations but also retain traces of their native regional accent. The example this teacher provides is more appropriate on a sociolinguistic level for students learning English as an L2 than the example that could be provided by a NS teacher.

4. TheArguments for and against the lingua franca core

There are of course those who contest both the viability of and the need for the lingua franca core. One of the first arguments against the LFC was that it may actually lead to diversification in the way language is used and ultimately therefore lead to unintelligible varieties of English (Yamaguchi 2002,Dziubalska-Kołaczyk2005). However, Jenkins (2000) argued against this idea from the time she first started researching and writing about the LFC. We can illustrate this argument as follows; for example, sometimes L2 features such as the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ do not exist in the L1. In these cases the L2 features are commonly substituted. However, this L1 transfer (substitution) will not impair intelligibility because they will be substituted by a limited set of alternatives i.e. the change will always remain within an acceptable framework for intelligibility.

The second argument that should be highlighted is the highly charged nature of opinions and feelings surrounding the shifting ownership of English. Sobkowiak (2005) asserts that the political and ideological positions regarding the use or so-called ‘ownership’ of English are so divisive and controversial that they cannot possibly provide fertile ground upon which to establish new phonological norms or pronunciation standards. However, Jenkins (2007) argues that this claim seems to neglect the fact that the vast majority of English speakers are NNSs who are already changing and in some cases defining how the language is spoken.

Sobkowiak (2005) also raised a third problem in contesting Jenkins' (2000) claims about Received Pronunciation. Jenkins had earlier argued that Received Pronunciation is not even widely spoken amongst NSs and as such it is not appropriate to maintain Received Pronunciation as the pronunciation target of NNSs not trying to achieve NSs accents or pronunciation. Sobkowiak's (2005) issue is that neither the statistical figures nor popularity of a particular variety of English should be used to establish what constitutes a pronunciation error. However, Jenkins (2007) countered by saying that viewing the LFC through this statistical lens ignored the LFC's central or primary concern – intelligibility; intelligibility is the primary concern in interaction and the real foundation upon which the LFC has been based.

A fourth argument or problem concerns the fact that the LFC is not definitive (Jenkins, 2000, 2007). Jenkins has suggested on several occasions that more research needs to be conducted and the contents of the LFC need to be further refined. This refinement is necessary if the LFC is to meet the intelligibility requirement of L2 learners in different contexts. Obviously, students' needs in terms of pronunciation instruction can vary significantly based on the differences in their L1. Sobkowiak (2005) argues that even although the LFC corpus has been arrived at through empirical research, it does not mean that it can meet the pronunciation needs of learners successfully or should automatically become a part of the teaching curriculum. Jenkins (2007) countered by arguing that the LFC is simply another option available to those aiming for intelligibility as opposed to NS pronunciation. Learners should, Jenkins argues, have the right to set their own goals and targets in terms of pronunciation acquisition.

We should perhaps also mention a fifth problem concerning the issue of the attitudes of NNS themselves towards NS accents. Many NNSs, teachers and students, aspire to the NS accent and NS pronunciation. Furthermore, many teacher recruiters prefer to employ teachers with NS or near NS accents and pronunciation (Ali, 2009). This is an important issue because it affects perception. It can influence both the perceived intelligibility and perceived comprehensibility of NNS. This attitudinal issue is one of the fundamental problems faced by the LFC and ELF teaching n general. Jenkins (2007, 2009) has discussed the issue on several occasions but it still remains an ongoing challenge.

We also need to look at some of the arguments in favour of the LFC. The LFC addresses the need to aim at intelligibility as opposed to NS pronunciation. This position of focussing on intelligibility as opposed to NS pronunciation is supported by some other powerful arguments. Lennenberg (1967) identified what he called the critical period that occurs during puberty. The critical period is the biologically determined period of life during which maximal conditions of language acquisition exist. Krashen(1973) would later conduct research that also seemed to support this position. His research suggested that native-like pronunciation appears to be biologically conditioned to occur before adulthood. Therefore, in light of these findings it would evidently appear to be unrealistic and ineffective for teachers and students to aim for NS accents and pronunciation. It follows then that intelligibility should therefore be the primary goal of pronunciation teaching. The LFC therefore provides a teaching model that does not require learners to acquire native speaker models of competence; it focuses primarily on intelligibility.

A second argument in favour of the LFC is that it is potentially more adept at promoting intelligibility amongst and between NNSs than many NS varieties. Several empirical studies have suggested that NNSs might be more intelligible to their NNS counterparts than NSs (Smith & Nelson, 2006). Speaking English with a pronounced foreign accent does not necessarily impede intelligibility or communication and can in fact be highly successful (Munro &Derwing, 1995, 1999). In fact some studies have identified that the lower intelligibility ratings attributed to NNSs may have little or nothing to do with phonology. It may be more to do with attitude, tolerance and perception (Matsuura *et al.* 1999; Rajadurai, 2007).

There are of course contradictory studies (Bent &Bradlow, 2003) but what even these studies suggest is that NNSs need to be intelligible and comprehensible as opposed to being able to mimic NSs. Even NSs need to regularly modify their speech to achieve effective communication. Simply being a NS does not inherently mean an individual can communicate perfectly.

Another important benefit of the LFC introduced by Jenkins (2007) concerns the validation of NNS accents. The LFC attributes equal sociolinguistic rights to L2 speakers as it does to L1 speakers. The LFC promotes the accommodation of difference in terms of pronunciation and encourages learners to reflect their identities when using English. The LFC encourages L2 speakers to focus on the L2 features most important for intelligible communication and does not prevent them from maintaining and incorporating the intelligible features of their L1.

The LFC ultimately argues that for the majority of learners NS pronunciation is simply not necessary for international communication. The LFC allows people to maintain identifiable aspects of their first language identity when speaking English. Perhaps a more relevant goal for learners then should be to achieve internationally understandable English pronunciation whilst retaining some of their L1 accent features.

5. Conclusion

The LFC is a phonological syllabus that aims to promote intelligibility at the expense of achieving NS accents or pronunciation norms. It is designed and built for and targeted at the many millions upon millions of people around the world who are leaning English or need to learn English but are put off by being told they have to acquire an accent that is not their own. Especially as that accent reflects the identity of ‘others’ with whom there is every possibility they will never meet. It is often the case that ELF users can understand each other with far greater ease than they can understand or be understood by a native speaker. Indeed, the question has to be asked of why should the various NNSs around the world – the Europeans, Africans and Orientals for example – feel they are not ‘real’ speakers simply because they do not have a NS accent or conform to grammar rules that are often disregarded by the NSs themselves? The most important goal for NNSs is not and should not be emulating NS accents; it is, and should be, the successful negotiation of meaning with fellow interlocutors whoever they may be. The LFC provides a useful teaching model for achieving this.

The LFC does this by providing a phonological syllabus as outlined in section 3 above. Its goal is to make English intelligible on an international level for the vast multitude of NNSs. The LFC is an approach to ELF phonology that is relatively concise and attainable and inherently aware of what it is possible to teach – nuclear stress placement for example – and what is only learnable – pitch changes for instance.

There have been several arguments to say that the LFC has drawbacks and problems as a teaching tool and methodology. Several concerns have been raised including the possibility for extreme divergence and the fact that the LFC is not definitive or all encompassing. However, at the present moment these caveats seem like issues that will be integrated into the formal momentum of the project as a whole.

Perhaps what we are witnessing is the beginning of the marginalisation of the non-bilingual native English speaker. In 2003, Noam Chomsky took part in a discussion with several other eminent linguists which debated these very ideas. The discussion was called 'The Native Speaker is Dead.' This title links the discussion to Roland Barthes' (1978) famous essay about literary theory called 'The Death of the Author' in which he put forward the postmodern position that the reader was of more importance than the author in understanding a text. ELT is currently in a postmodern phase as old models and ideas lose their currency and are discarded with currently no unifying theory to take their place. Perhaps ELF and the LFC will fill the void, perhaps not. Barthes (1978)famously concluded his essay, 'The Death of the Author', by saying that "the birth of the reader must be at the cost of the death of the author" (p. 78). Perhaps the birth of the non-native speaker must be at the cost of the death of the native speaker.

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Endnotes

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dGT1kt_j-8U – *The Good Life* was an English sitcom that was ran from 1975 to 1978. The character (and the actress playing her) in this clip, Margo Leadbetter, was renowned for having a pronounced Received Pronunciation style British accent. The program often satirised the idea that Received Pronunciation speakers were superior to the common folk. You can see this in her interactions with the work man she speaks with; an interesting example of accent related British identity politics.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=So8eFslN0PI – A 1974 clip of Kenneth Kendall reading the BBC news and another example of a British Received Pronunciation speaker. Kendall was the first newsreader to appear on screen.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Cc55XJY4wEU&feature=related – An example of a Scottish accent.

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2q41zzyIY20&feature=related – A second example of a Scottish accent from a celebrated Scottish film called *Sweet Sixteen*. When this film was released in English speaking countries it had subtitles.

For an example of the international perception of the Scottish accent see Bill Bryson's account of entering a bar in Glasgow from his 1995 book *Notes From a Small Island:*

Eventually I noticed one of the men at the bar eyeing me.
"Haeyanae hook ma dooky?" he said.
"I'm sorry?" I replied.
"He'll nay be doon a mooning." He hoiked his head in the direction of a back room.
"Oh, ah," I said and nodded sagely, as if that explained it.
I noticed that they were both still looking at me.
"D'yehae a hoo and a poo?" said the first man to me.
"I'm sorry?" I said.
"D'yehae a hoo and a *poo*?" he repeated. It appeared that he was a trifle

intoxicated.
I gave a small apologetic smile and explained that I came from the English-speaking world.
"D'yenaehae in May?" the man went on. "If ye dinna dock ma donny."
"Doon in Troon they croon in June," said his mate then added: "Wi' a spoon."
"Oh, ah." I nodded thoughtfully again, pushing my lower lip out slightly, was if it was all very nearly clear to me now.
Then the bar man comes out and he's in a foul mood.
"Fucking mucklefucket in the guckingmuckle," he said to the two men, and then to me in a weary voice: "Ah hae the noo." I couldn't tell if it was a question or a statement.
"A pint of Tennent's please," I said hopefully.
He made an impatient noise, as if I were avoiding his question. "Haeyanae hook ma dooky?"
"I'm sorry?"
"Ah hae the noo," said the first customer, who apparently saw himself as my interpreter.

For an example of English person not understanding a Scottish accent see the beginning of Alex Garland's novel *The Beach*: "Bitch," said a voice. I opened my eyes.

"Fucking bitch. We're both as good as…"
The voice paused for a coughing fit.
"Dead."
I was wide awake now so I sat up in bed.
"Cancer in the corals, blue water, my bitch. Fucking Christ, did me in," the man continued.
He had an accent, but at first my sleep-fogged head couldn't place it.
"*Bitch*," he said again, spitting out the word.

A Scottish accent. Beach.

Influence of a Child's Home Environment ontheir Behavior in School

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The main source of the trouble that children cause is coming from the children's home. I became interested in this boy, "Y", who is infamous in my school. I wanted to observe more of his behavior and do some deep researching about his family background to see if there is a correlation between his family and his problematic behavior. I had the school counselor interview him and used her data. In addition, I analyzed his current homeroom teacher's daily observational notes. Finally, I interviewed Y's third grade homeroom teacher. As a result, I found out he was depressed, had low self-esteem, and was aggressive because of an unhealthy relationship with both parents; he had a mother who is depressed and pessimistic about life, a dad who is busy in the battle of life and often showed violence toward his children who feared him and two troubled sisters who used a lot of violence on Y. Consequently, he built up anger in side him and became an impulsive and aggressive boy who always stands out in class. He lacks concentration and the basic academic skills to keep up in class. He is also very insensitive in a moral sense and thoughtless in that he has trouble keeping normal social relationships with his peers and teachers in school. He needs to be taken care of and not only school should help him but also his family should be in the picture. Is data was enough to help me prove there is a correlation between environment at home and behavior in the school.

1. Introduction

There will always be problems with children in school. Some are so out of control that teachers tend to think they arechronic troublemakers and they won't change no matter what the teacher does. It is true that no matter what teachers do they cannot bring a complete solution. However, it is only partly true that the problem children are the problem itself. This is because the main cause of the problems that children stir up is elsewhere and teachersare not able to help the children enough to straighten them out.

The main source of the troubles that children cause is coming from the children's home. I have many problem children at my school. No matter what I do, I try threatening them and coaxing them, but it only works temporarily and they always go back to themselves or even worse. Then I realized the children with behavior problems have something in common after talking with other co-teachers. Almost all of them come from dysfunctional or single parent families. A lot of them have an absence of one of their parents and were raised by grandparents or both of the parents are working and so busy that they simply do not have enough time to take care of the children.

I became interested in this boy, "Y", who is infamous in my school. I wanted to observe more of his behavior and do some deep researching about his family background to see if there is a correlation between his family and his problematic behaviors. Thus, my research questions that guided this study are:

(1) What kinds of behavior are shown from a child with a dysfunctional family?

(2) What kind of negative family member characteristics influence the child when he/she forms a personality? And how does the environment at home affect the child's behavior in school?

Since the sample was at such a young age the methods I used were edited a little. I did not interview him directly and instead I had the school counselor interview him and used her data. In addition, it was hard to observe him with only a one hour class from which he can be absent; therefore, I analyzed his current homeroom teacher's daily observational notes. Finally, I interviewed Y's third grade homeroom teacher. While I was in the process of collecting data I found out he is not from a single parent or working parents home and yet he shows outrageous behavior that makes it harder for teachers to deal with. Therefore, I became more interested in him to and find out what really bothers him. This paper will show the process and results that show children with troubled behavior in school do come from a dysfunctional family and there is a correlation between a childs' home and school.

2. **Literature Review**

The family is the first social group that a child encounters before a real institute like a school. The negative role of family functioning affects the development of behavior disorders in children. Basically, how he/she is raised under what type of discipline or beliefs of the parents is very crucial in forming a child's personality or social skills. According to Ary and his colleagues (1999), delinquent and antisocial behavior suggests that a child has had poor family management during childhood, especially coercive interaction and poor parental monitoring can explain an association with deviant peers later on (Ary*et al.*, 1999). "That is, aggressive and oppositional behaviors in the young child can place the child at high risk for a series of negative outcomes that ultimately result in antisocial behavior as adolescents" (Ary*et al.*, 1999, p.218). Through this coersive interaction, parents show harsh and inconsistent discipline and monitoring of the child and it shapes further aggressive behavior. Consequently, the child's aggressive behavior becomes more established and later it extends to the school environment. Soon, a child is exposed to rejection by normal peers and academic failure in the classroom (Ary*et al.*, 1999).

According to Davison (1997), "corporal punishment is the use of physical force with the intention of causing a child to experience pain but not injury for the purposes of correction or control of the child’s behavior (Davison, 1997, as cited in Gershoff, p.540, 2002). On the other hand, physical abuse is the infliction of physical injury as a result of punching, beating, kicking, biting, burning, shaking, or otherwise harming a child. Even though, the parents did not intend on hurting a child, the injury may result from over-discipline or physical punishment (National Clearinghouse on Child Abuse and Neglect Information, 2000, as cited in Gershoff, 2002). In short, causing an injury on a child is physical abusiveness and the other way around is corporal discipline; however, Gershoff (2002) mentions that there is no clear boundary between these two and corporal punishment is on the continuum of physical abusive punishment. Also, he said, results of exposure to corporal punishment are aggression of the child, negative mental health and quality of parent-child relationship, etc. Gershoff (2002) said, throughout the many studies of corporal punishment it showed an association with an increase in children’s aggressive behavior because it models aggression and hostile attribution which is a prediction of violent behavior; He also said ”early experiences with corporal punishment may model and legitimatize many types of violence throughout an individual’s life“(Gershoff, 2002, p.541).

Corporal punishment can evoke feeling of fear, anxiety, and anger in a child and it can interfere with a positive parents-child relationship. It will lead the erosion of bonds of trust and closeness between parents and children (Gershoff, 2002). In addition, the coercive technique in disciplining a child and corporal punishment could lead to a mental problem such as a child’s depressive symptomatology and distress (Gershoff, 2002). “Coercive techniques have been associated with decreases in children’s feelings of confidence and assertiveness and with increases in feelings of humiliation and helplessness" (Gershoff, 2002, p.542).

I think evoking anger and negative emotions in a child were the most relative to my research. A child with experience of more positive feelings from parents is more receptive to parents' control while a child experiencing negative emotions such as pain or anger is more motivated toward resistance and retaliation against any responsible events and goals. Fear of distress can motivate children to withdraw from the situation at hand (Gershoff, 2002). Gershoff stated that strong negative emotions that children experience lead to children resenting and ignoring parents' disciplinary messages; when children are experiencing negative emotions they are so consumed with their negative feelings that parents' efforts to making them understand their bad behavior is affecting other people is useless (Gershoff, 2002). Thus, for children, anger is just a counter-attack to inappropriate punishment and eventually it will lead to a decline in a child's mental health. Finally, children who view their parents as a "dispenser of painful stimuli" may fear and resent them and elicit retaliatory aggression (Gershoff, 2002).

When a child enters school after experiencing a significant amount of corporal punishment at home it can cause a socialization problem with other peers and teachers. Parents using physical punishments when disciplining children are showing their children that the aggression is a normative, acceptive, and effective way to get others to behave as they want (Gershoff, 2002).

A child's character and his/her self-image are starting to be formed in early childhood by his/her family. According to DeLamater and Myers (2006), family influences self-esteem and self- concept. Thus, children who receive parents' love, care, trust, and acceptance think of themselves as worthy while ones who are deprived of them may develop low self-esteem

(DeLamater& Myers, 2006). Murphey (1992) mentioned about how particular beliefs influence the socialization process and there is a link between parents' beliefs and child outcomes. Parental beliefs affect the child's outcome indirectly and have an effect on the child's level of cognitive development, a child adopting beliefs about him- or herself and concomitant behaviors and parent-child relationships (Murphey, 1992).

3. Methodology

3.1 Subject

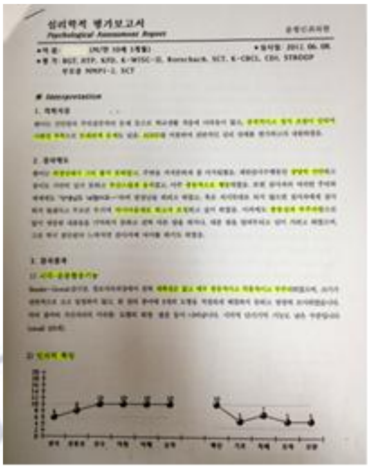
The subject I have picked is "Y". For privacy protection, the sample will be referred to as Y throughout the paper. He is a 10-year-old boy, in fourth grade elementary school. He is infamous for his rebellious acts in school. He is known for being restless and not focusing on the lesson. He is also listless in class,often doing nothing and doesn't care about failing to meet the basic standards. He has fallen behind in math, Korean, and English. He is also aggressive and infamous for acting out impulsively in class. For example, walking out of the class and leaving it when he is upset so he can wander around the school, showing the opposite behavior of what the teacher wants him to do, hitting peers and calling them names, talking back to the teachers, and lacking basic morality by showing thoughtless behavior toward other classmates.

He is not from a single parent family. He has both parents: his father works as a bus driver and his mom is a stay-at-home housewife. However, he came from a family with a very authoritative and strict father who uses corporal punishment as a means of discipline from time to time. His mother is sick and lethargic and never comes to school even though she gets a call about her troublesome boy. He has two older sisters who have a big age difference; one is nineteen and the other one is seventeen. Y has a very negative relationship with his second older sister. It was reported that he gets beat up by his sister very badly and his sister is also a trouble-maker in her school and she gets hit by her dad very often. It is obvious that he was showing typical problem childs' behavior in school and his family background is not good. Therefore, he was an interesting subject to research to find out about the correlation between home environment and behavior in school.

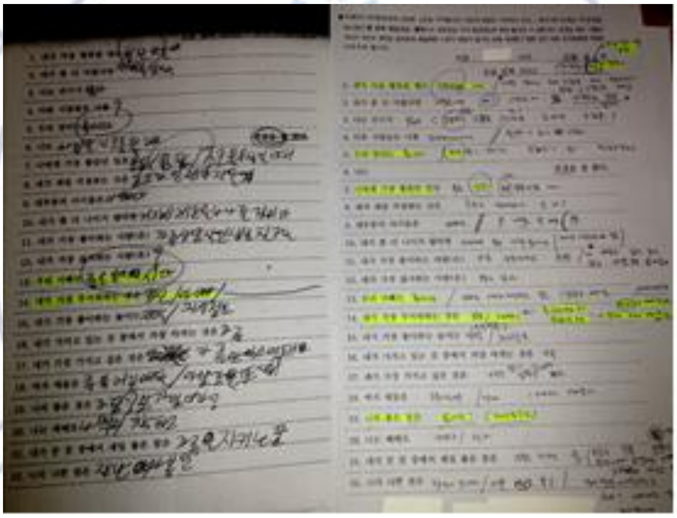
3.2 Measures

Since Y is a very young child, interviewing him was not an appropriate way to get decent data. Thus, I asked the school counselor for help and used her interview with him and received her content analysis. She is an expert on child counseling and child interviews so the data is more valid than my interview with Y would have been. Also, she had a "Sentence Completion Test" result and a result for "Psychological Assessment Report" on Y takenat a psychiatric hospital. They showed Y's concepts on family, self-image, and personal relationships by analyzing his inner side. There was also a psychological analysis of Y's mom allowing me to get a lookat one of Y's family member's state of mind. The next two screen shot pictures are Y's tests on his psychology and the Sentence Completion Test and the counselor's analysis of it.

Picture 1: Psychological Test



Picture 2: Sentence Completion Test and its analysis



In addition, I received a daily observational report on Y from his current homeroom teacher. It's from the first semester of this year and has every detail of Y's behavior in class and a history of how she dealt with that situation. She often referred to Y and his family. Table two shows a screen shot of her daily report. I tried to just keep her objective observations and leave out her opinions or subjective views of him.

Picture 3: Daily Observational Report


3월 27일 화요일

3월 28일 수요일

3월 21일 수요일

3월 26일월요일

3월 29일 (목)

3월 30일 (금)

4월 16일 (월)

Finally, I have interviewed Y's homeroom teacher from third grade last year. She had dealt with him throughout the year so she knows about him and his issues. I was more interested in interviewing her because she does not have him anymore so she can be more objective now. Her interview was recorded and transcribed in English later.

4. Results

4.1 Misbehavior in School

The data was based on the current homeroom teachers' daily observational report and third grade teacher's interview. According to the current homeroom teacher, Ms. Jang's observation, Y often insists on not going to the music teacher's class and tries to leave the class. Also, he fakes being sick to miss classes. She reported:

"Because Y can't stand studying for 40 whole minutes he often fakes illness and tries to go to the nurses room. I told him to go during break but he just went out and did not come back until next class. I asked him what took him so long and he replied 'you said I can go nurse's room during break so I waited till break'.... He did not want to sit down and do math problems in fifth period so he just sat there doing nothing.... I told him to finish it before the after school class but he said 'No, I don't want to.'.."

Ms. Jang also reported several times his tendency of touching her stuff and breaking it and that he does not bother to go back to his seat unless she really looks angry. This shows his lack of basic morality and caring for other people's belongings as if they were his own.

> " In the morning, he did not look so good. He did not listen to me when I told him to take his textbook in the first period and just kept on making noises with my pencil cup. I warned him and lectured on but he ignored me and made more noises...After a while I found him doodling on his book with my pen. I said 'please do not touch my stuff. Put it back in'. He shrugged and tossed the pen aiming at the pencil cup but instead dropped on the floor. 'Y I had enough of that. It is not good to bother other people during class.' This time he knocked down the pencil cup and dropped all the pencils inside..."

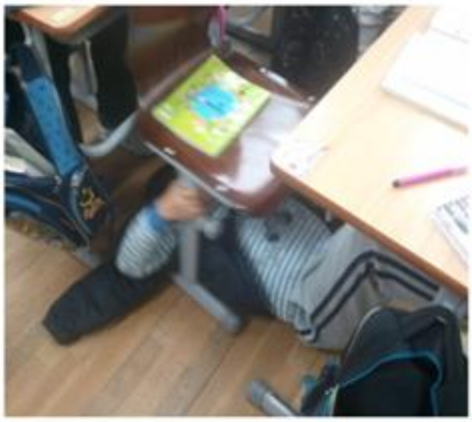
According to Ms. Jang, he never prepares for class. There were many times that she reported that he did not take his books out or would not stay in his seat and when he is told to do something he would not listen and would do exactly the opposite. Y is a willful child who is stubborn like a donkey. I think he has a resistance against authority figures or commands. This hinted to me how to make him listen to me later on in the semester.

> "...During fifth period Y loses self-control even more and act out. He often repeats backward of what I say and destroys the learning atmosphere for other classmates. One time when the class president tried to have students bow he sang a song instead...Another time he huffed irritably coming to class in the morning, he slammed his desk with his bag and did not stirred an inch from his seat all morning. It was because he got into a fight with a sixth grade boy. He said he has to go back and fight him again and I said no because the first period is about to start... He did not go back to his seat even though the class began and just sat on the chair next to my desk."

This observation gives us a usual picture of him and suggests why some teachers thought his behavior is unbearable.

> "As always Y is the same. Not taking out his book and just sitting there. I just continued and all of sudden Y was gone. I asked his partner where he went and he was lying under his chair."

Picture 4: his usual self during class



Last year was no different for Y. According to his third grade homeroom teacher, Ms. Kang, the hardest problem she had with Y was his listless behavior. Her comments showed that Y has academically very low self-esteem because of his experiences of constant failure due to a lack ofacademic guidance which he needed during his early years in school life.

I asked her about any kind of abnormal behavioral incidents she had with Y and she said:

> "There was also an incident in the early part of the semester that shocked me. He slides around riding on friends' fallen jacket in class and I asked him why he has done that instead of picking them up or just leave them there like normal children, He said "they were on the ground so I can do whatever I want with them". He was not aware of other people's things are as valuable as his stuff. It showed he lacked common consideration for others which normal children would have."

In addition, in the counseling report, there were some reports that Y showed aggressive and out of control behavior. She wrote down that Y roams around the classroom bothering other people and one incident when Y kicked the classroom door because he got mad at Ms. Jang slamming the door. She reported him as being from a misfit social group and impossible to control. Obviously, unlike normal children of his age, Y has some anger issues that should be resolved right away or otherwise they will pile up inside him and eventually be a cause of bigger incidents than he is causing at the moment.

4.2 Family and Home environment

From Ms. Jang's journal, Ms. Kang's interview and some documents from the school counselor, I have an idea of the kind of family environment he was exposed to. Like I mentioned before he is not from a single parent home. His dad is working as a bus driver and his mom is a stay-at-home mom. Still, it seemed like he is not getting enough care and love from his parents. From the interview with Ms. Kang, this became very clear. I asked her how she would describe Y, instead of saying a little delinquent who always causes trouble, she said:

> "A victim who was deprived of support from family like love, acceptance and care... That he should get at amount of his age needs.. His hygienic conditions were not that great and he used to wear the same clothes over and over again. During winter he only had one winter jacket that was handed down from his older sister."

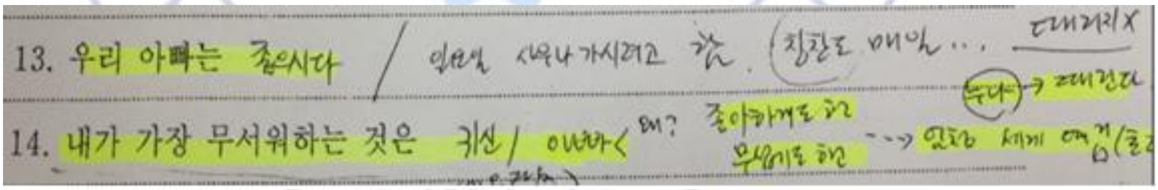
Also, the time when I asked her to describe the relationship Y has with his family members she explained his dad and sister first and told a story of physical abuse in the house. She said the fight with his sister is really serious and that is one of his causes of the anger inside him.

> " He has a rough relationship I think at least it is not a consistent one.

> His sisters are also delinquents at school. One of them runs away from home from time to time.. His second older sister hits Y badly. I'm not talking about a general..normal sibling fight. A real physical abuse.. She gets beat by her father and I think her stress release target is Y. Y just takes it all in I think.. That is why he has anger inside him all the time I suppose. His dad has a rough way of showing affection.. Once Y said his dad punched him in the face..and I asked him why.. He said because his dad loved him.. "

From Ms. Jang's journal his mom said the person that Y is scared of the most is his dad. Also, the Sentence Completion Test showed that is why he is fearful of his dad. In number 13 sentence he completed his sentence "My dad is~" with "a nice guy." However, in number 14, right below the former sentence, he ended the sentence "The thing I get scared the most is~" with "a ghost and dad." This discrepancy tells that there is a possibility that his dad uses corporal punishment when disciplining Y.

Picture 5: Sentence Completion Test and its analysis



Meanwhile his mom is a listless negative person who complains a lot and said she should be dead in front of Y. The psychology test she took with her son proved that she has problems of her own. According to the test, she is insecure, nervous, sensitive, unhappy and distressed. She is uncertain and feels a sense of inferiority all the time. When she deals with others she is dependent, especially when she is under a lot of stress. The causes of her personality are mostly from her unhappy marriage and anger toward her husband. From the school counselor's report I saw the line where she mentioned Y once tried to kill himself by standing at the edge of a window rail with his saying he has no point of living. Also, from the interview with Ms. Kang, Y mentioned many times that he is not worth living and he is worthless.

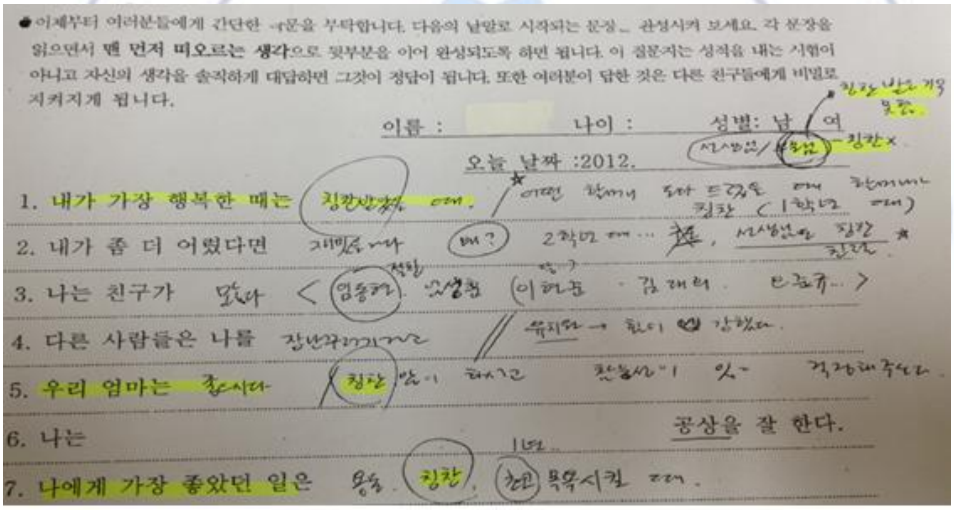
> " The biggest problem is.. I think..is his mom. She is sick all the time and hearing from Y..seems like she complains on and on about her problems to her children. She is always on the search for a new job and I heard she uses a lot of negative comments like - "I should be dead". Y used to mention dying and not worthy of being alive. He had very low self-esteem."

4.3 Self-image/ concepts

In the early childhood period, a child's family is really crucial in shaping a child's self-image and self-esteem. Based on the test results and school counselor's counseling report data, I can verify that Y is constantly craving acceptance and compliments from others. In the counseling report, the counselor analyzed Y as "a kid who rarely got acceptance and compliment" and shows bipolar disorder symptoms. He mentioned that he once tried to kill himself because he felt it was no fun to live and he was not worthy. Similar evidence could be found in the interview with Ms. Kang. According to her Y's mom is so negative that she often says she should die and it is not worth living. It can be assumed that Y was influenced negatively and did not learn that taking your own life is serious.

In the analysis of the Sentence Completion Test, the counselor marked under specific sentences. In number one, he wrote down "I'm the happiest person when I get compliments." In number 5, he said he likes his mom and the counselor asked why as a follow-up question and he answered she compliments him a lot. Finally, in number 7, he finished "the best thing that ever happened to me was~" sentence with "compliments." In the counselor's analysis, she mentioned Y hardly remembers a time when he got a compliment from his parents. I guess it is just his dad because if what Y said is true it will contradict with number 5 that he likes his mom because she gives him a lot of compliments.

Picture 6: Sentence Completion Test and its analysis



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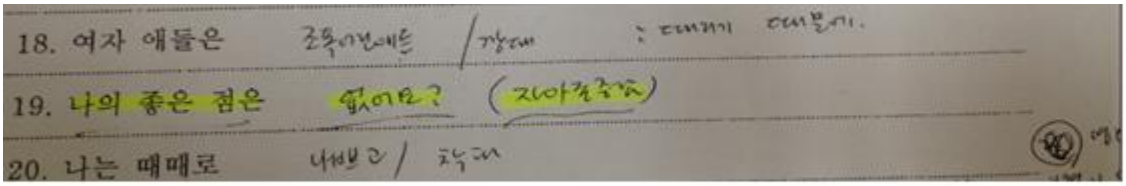
이름 : 나이 : 성별: 남 / 여

오늘 날짜 :2012.

1. 내가 가장 행복한 때는 칭찬받았을 때.
2. 내가 좀 더 어렸다면
3. 나는 친구가 많다
4. 다른 사람들은 나를
5. 우리 엄마는 좋으시다 칭찬
6. 나는 공상을 잘 한다.
7. 나에게 가장 좋았던 일은 칭찬

In sentence 19, Y could not finish the sentence. He could not come up with any merit that he has. Then, there is a little memo from the counselor, "self-worth." I assumed that she thinks it shows Y has no self- worth or very low self-esteem.

Picture 7: Sentence Completion Test and its analysis


18. 여자 애들은
19. 나의 좋은 점은
20. 나는 때때로

There are many findings that could confirm their validity through the Psychological Assessment Report from “Yun Psychiatric Hospital” by Dr.Yang. The interpretation started off with the reason why Y got tested; shows aggressiveness and unable to control his emotions, lacks sociality and he has problems with his peers and wanted to test out for the possibility of ADHD. It also reported the assessment attitude that Y showed during the process. It said:

> “Y’s hygienic condition was not that great… very distracted that he cannot sit still just for one second. Acted very impulsively…insist on doing however he likes when something does not go by his way… and showed impulsiveness and carelessness”

The result was evaluated with four categories: sense of vision and move, cognitive characteristics, logic and cognitive process attributes, and state of personality and emotion. Throughout the report the same assessment appeared in different categories which showed the results that he is impulsive, self-centered, lacks concentration, and is easily distracted when he can have problems academically and socially with his peers and teachers in school.

5. Discussion

There were three research questions that should be discussed. The first one is

(1*) what kinds of behaviors are shown by a child with a dysfunctional family?*At this point, I can say that Y is obviously from a dysfunctional family which is causing his behavior problems in school. The main problem is him showing listlessness in every class caused by an accumulation of deficiencies in the basic skillsfor each subject. He is also a self-centered and aggressive child. He will walk out of the class whenever he feels like it and disturbs his peers and the teacher during the lesson. Also, he ditches classes and insists on not going to some classes, always giving the teacher a hard time to deal with him. Obviously, he is impulsive and aggressive. Ms. Kang said if he goes on like this continuously without proper professional help or the collaboration of both school and family, it will just get harder and harder to deal with him until he is finally out of control and nobody can touch him. According to his psychological test result, he also suffers from depression; he talks negatively about himself and mentioned that it is not worth living. The counselor said he is dealing with serious low self-esteem and self-worth issues.

The second research questions is **(2)** ***what kind of possible negative characteristics can result from family influence when a child forms a personality? And how does the environment at home affect a child's behavior in school?***I wanted to say there is an interrelationship between his misbehavior in school and home environment. Like I mentioned before, family experience is one of the main sources of an individual's self-esteem and Y was suffering from very low self-esteem which means he has not received enough care, acceptance, love, or trust from the people who are most intimate to him. From the research, it was certain that his family is not really offering an optimum place for a child to get security. His dad was exhausted from driving a bus all day and is already stressed out from just handling his two troubled daughters. Y's mom is suffering from her own issues of depression and always complains to Y which eventually has made him depressed too. According to Helter (1984), appraisal of parents has the biggest impact on a boys' self-esteem (as cited in DeLamater and Myer, 2006).

Y showed very low self-esteem from his counsel with the school counselor and he was even evaluated as having low self-esteem in a formal psychological assessment. This refers to the possibility of the negative relationship that Y has with his parents. DeLamater and Myer (2006) said people with low self-esteem tend to be socially anxious, ineffective, easily hurt by criticism, and lack confidence in their own judgments and their own ability to achieve. Also, in school they are less successful academically, set up low goals for themselves, and are less active in the classroom. In addition, low self-esteemed people are depressed, unhappy, discouraged, show frequent anxiety, poor adjustment, and psychological illness (DeLamater& Myer, 2006). This explains why Y easily flies into a rage and frequently shows an underestimation of himself and suffers from depression.

The biggest problems that the teachers had with Y were his lack of interest in class and his regular disturbing of classmates and the teacher. This frequent condition of Y can be explained by his low self-esteem. I also thought that Y is experiencing self-discrepancy. Higgins (1989) explained when there is a self-discrepancy, a component of the actual self is the opposite of a component of the ideal self or the ought-self, we experience discomfort (as cited in DeLamater&Myer, 2006, p.82). There are actual self, the ideal self that we like to be, and the ought- self, the self or role that we must perform. When actual self matches the ideal self we feel satisfaction or pride but when there is a discrepancy we feel dejection, sadness, or depression (DeLamater and Myer, 2006). My assumption is that Y has an ideal self and his current condition in academic ability cannot match up with the constant academic failure. It has made him feel a discrepancy and resulted in dejection, sadness and depression.

Another possible characteristic that affects a child is aggressiveness. DeLamater and Myers (2006) have said a lot of people learn aggressive behavior through watching others perform the aggressive act and then enacting the same behavior themselves (DeLamater and Myers, 2006).There was a Bobo doll experiment on a child about imitating the aggressive behavior of adults by Bandura, Ross, and Ross (1961). Children observed an adult kicking, punching, sitting on the doll, and shouting aggressive words at it. The children who observed the aggressive behaviors were more aggressive toward the doll than those who had not watched the aggressive scene. They performed the same aggressive act and comments toward doll. DeLamater and Myers (2006) also mentioned that "many children learn aggressive behavior from their parents" and "children who are spanked or slapped for transgressions are learning that if someone's behavior breaks rules or makes you angry, it is ok to punish them physically" (DeLamater and Myers, 2006, p.227).

While investigating Y's family and home environment I found out his dad has a violent temper and is the only person Y is afraid of. Also, his sister employs serious violence on Y. From this much exposure, Y would have learned the misconception of employing violence in certain situations is alright. Maybe this is the reason that Y has been aggressive towards his peers or unable to manage his temper in certain situations. Frustration is another cause of aggressive behavior. "Aggression is a direct response to frustration-that is to the blocking a goal-directed activity…Nature of the frustration influences the intensity of the resulting aggression "(DeLamater and Myers, 2006, p.228). Since Y is so young, he could not have done anything about experiencing violence at home and this would have been really frustrating for him. The accumulation of frustration led up to a lot of anger inside him and he used aggressive behavior as a stress relief. Finally, the school would have been the only place that he can express his emotions.

6. Conclusion

Y is a special case child; he is not from a one-parent family; both his parents are working. Yet he is showing deficiencies in many emotions that a child needs to develop properly. He is depressed, has low self-esteem, and is aggressive. It is because of the unhealthy relationship with both of the parents; he had a mom who is depressed and is pessimistic about life, a dad who is busy in the battle of life and who often showed violence toward his children and is feared by them and two troubled sisters who used a lot of violence on Y. He is only 10 and neither of them is good enough to offer Y the intimate relationship he needs. Consequently, he built up so much anger inside him that he became an impulsive and aggressive boy who always stands out in class. He lacks concentration and the basic academic skills to keep up in class. He is also very insensitive in a moral sense and thoughtless in that he has trouble keeping normal social relationships with his peers and teachers in school. According to his homeroom teachers and school counselor, he needs to be cared for and not only school should help him but also his family should be in the picture. Even though, the number of cases is small he had an enough data to help me prove there is a correlation between environment at home and behavior in school.

7. The effect of socio-psychology in improving person's attitudes in L2 learning: Resolution

7.1 Resolution Introduction

In the midterm paper I have chosen an underachiever boy, Y, who is infamous in school for his misbehaviors in class and known for very low academic level. He is a very special case in that he is not from a single parent family or was raised by grandparents like most of the children from a dysfunctional family. Yet he was depressed, aggressive, had low self-esteem, and achieved a very low level in many academic subjects.

In this paper, I will suggest three appropriate methodologies: three affective strategies and one practical in-class strategy. It will be difficult to observe changes in him but hopefully, those strategies will improve Y's perception and attitudes toward learning English and learning outcomes.

7.2 Strategies

7.2.1Supportive and Intrinsic Strategies

According to Delisle and Galbrith (2002), underachievement is deeply related to self-image development; children who see themselves as failures place self-imposed limits on what is possible. Eventually, when they succeed they see it as luck and when they get low grades or achievements they use the experience to reinforce the negative perception about themselves. They often use self-deprecating attitudesand the end product of this is a low self-image where a child sees him/herself as weak in academics (Delisle&Galbrith, 2002). Y often showed his low self-image during the research. I often saw Y saying things like "Why should I do it? I am just going to screw up anyway". Also, he could not state his strong points in the question from "Sentence Completion Test". I concluded in my research that he was so affected by his depressed mom that he became a child who is suffering from depression and low self-esteem.

National Excellence: A Case for Developing America's Talent said, "economically disadvantaged and minority students are offered the fewest opportunities for academic advancement and are the most at risk for underachievement" (*National Excellence: A Case for Developing America's Talent*, 1993, as cited in Delisle&Galbrith, 2002, p. 172). Y's dad is a bus driver and busy in the battle of life. According to a school counselor who once counseled him Y’s father recently had a hard time from a loan-shark. Dr. Yang from the Psychological Assessment Report in “Yun Psychiatric Hospital” mentioned that Y’s hygienic condition was not that great. Summing up all of these reports, I could assume that Y's family is not economically advantaged, rather they are under par compared to other families. Thus, it can be said that Y had very little academic advancement throughout his years in the school and ended up as an underachiever.

Delisle and Galbrith (2002) also said that underachievement is taught and that many highly able students turned are off learning and these students "learn to access their abilities relative to what they have not accomplished instead of what they are capable of doing" (Delisle&Galbrith, 2002, p. 171). From my experience with Y, he is not stupid or slow. He is just an unfortunate underachiever who lacks self-confidence and academic support due to his poor minority family background. Thus, I thought supportive and intrinsic strategies will boost up his confidence. According to Delisle and

Galbrith (2002), supportive strategies "affirm the worth of the child in the classroom and convey the promise of greater potential and success yet to be discovered and enjoyed" and intrinsic strategies are "designed to develop intrinsic achievement motivation through the child's discovery of rewards available...as a result of efforts to learn, achieve, and contribute to the group" (Delisle&Galbrith, 2002, p. 181).

As a supportive strategy, I assigned weekly and daily work in Edu-clinic class which he joined with other underachiever students. I checked his assigned work and when I saw the completion, I gave him a stamp mark which he can collect to get final rewards at the end of the semester. I tried my best to foster a directive atmosphere which hopefully showed him that the teacher is in charge and competent. Thus, he can fix his attitudes of talking back to teachers and not listen to his/her direction and do as he wishes in class.

There are two types of motivation: Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. According to Edward Deci (1975), intrinsic motivation is a reward that is not apparent but the activity itself becomes a reward. On the other hand extrinsic motivation is fueled by anticipation of outside reward: money, prizes, grades and certain types of positive feedbacks (Deci, 1975, as cited in Brown, 2007). According to a lot of research on motivation, intrinsic motivation lasts longer and is more powerful compared to extrinsic. Keeping these facts in mind, I tried to make a balance between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

To apply the intrinsic strategies, I made an instructive speech for students to be clearly aware of the rewards system for completing their work. I constantly gave students in Edu-clinic class bonus points on the board using magnets for attempting and trying out. Eventually, Y volunteered a lot which was unobservable in his regular classes. During the midterm research, I found out that Y is a boy who constantly craves for compliments and acceptance. I thought this was a good sign for me to use frequent verbal praise for any good behaviors or even for tiny progress or attribution. I also used his competitive personality and made him finish his work without distraction or delay by making him compete with other students. When he completes his work I not only gave him a reward, a candy or a stamp, I recognized his work and gave him a big compliment such as "Wow, Y is really good at ~" or "Y, you are so fast and smart!". Not only did I motivate Y extrinsically but also I gave him a chance to observe his stack of completed worksheet files from time to time. Also, I tried to use as fun activities as possible so Y can learn that learning English is fun and the activity itself can motivate him to study autonomously eventually. Though it is hard to observe intrinsically motivated behavior and intrinsic motivation takes a very long time to see any kind of changes, I did find some changes after motivating him extrinsically. Y showed an instant difference when I recognized his good deeds or small advancements in his academic achievement or progress in his misbehavior.

7.2.2 Remedial Strategies

I put remedial strategies in a separate section because I thought it is slightly different from supportive or intrinsic strategies. While the first two are related to help students' affective and emotional state, remedial strategies are relative in students' cognitive state by helping them to actually develop in learning. Thus, Delisle and Galbrith (2002) stated that remedial strategies are "employed to improve students' academic performance in an area of learning in which she/he has evidenced difficulty learning, has experienced a sense of failure, and has become unmotivated to engage in learning tasks" (Delisle&Galbrith, 2002, p. 181).

According to Bialystok (1978), the learner makes use of three types of information in the learning process. These are explicit knowledge, implicit knowledge and other knowledge. Explicit knowledge refers to conscious knowledge about the language such as rules of grammar. On the other hand, implicit knowledge is intuitive information that notifies learners' comprehension or production. He also said that by "formal practicing" learners can transfer explicit knowledge to implicit knowledge and the learners use conscious knowledge of the language to examine and modify or correct linguistic output. This monitoring behavior or formal practicing can be referred to as goal-directed behavior which makes learners behave so as to accomplish the goal. Goals will guide learners and goal-directed behavior can be motivational components. Thus, teachers need to set up appropriate goals for students. A proper level of task will help students build up their confidence when accomplishing it, however, too high or too low goals will be de-motivating.

At the end of the Edu-clinic period I give students a listening test on what we have learned in that period so far. The students are aware that getting more than 70% correct means they are passing the chapter which is a proper goal for their level. They grade their own paper and see the result right away. Most of them pass and get a stamp from me. This goal completion task encourages their confidence and self-esteem as a learner. Y is one of the students who recovered his self-esteem as a student which he can never do in regular class where there are too many high level students.

Remedial strategies and attribution theory link people's past experiences with their future achievement efforts. When one experiences failure on a particular task in the past, the chances are that one will not try the activity ever again. This reinforces one's behavior and a student eventually learns helplessness which makes students end up not doing anything in their classes. To prevent this from happening again, in Edu-clinic class, I encourage students to experience a lot of successes. I lowered the level and cut back some of the lessons' goals for students to attain very basic skills and simple expressions to achieve small academic successes which they hardly ever experience.

Even though Edu-clinic class is a lower level of class there are students who learn and understand faster than the rest of the students and one of them was Y. I put people who were successful on the first part of the task in charge with a partner or in a group. I put Y in charge of a group to tutor them with phonics and spellings. I also asked him to manage peers behavior when they try to wander off and not do their work. Y who once used to be a student who learned helplessness and never does his work done and was infamous for his misbehavior in class not only got his work done but also behaved himself and helped his peers to finish their work.

7.2.3 Role-play

According to Liu and Ding (2009), role play is "an effective technique to animate the teaching and learning atmosphere, arouse the interests of learners, and make the language acquisition impressive" (Liu & Ding, 2009, p.142). Keeping this in my mind, I thought role play is the only one activity that all the levels of students can enjoy. The effect of the role play is to let students have ample fun and get motivated to learn English; it works really well with fairly high levels and also with low levels. Y who is a very active and aggressive boy loves role play activities. It is one of the few moments that he comes alive and participates in class actively.

There are several ways to do role play activities in class, however, usually the basic steps are the same which is “PPP” presented in communicative approach. First P is present. I present the story line by looking at the text book pictures together and make students guess what the story is about. Then I play the video of the story and have them say what they have heard in the video. The role play activity is in fourth period of each chapter so it is easy for students to recall because students are already well aware of the expressions they will be using in the role play activity. The next P is practice where students get full independence to decide which roles they are going to perform and even edit the original story and lines. Since they are too young to have full freedom to come up with whole lines and act out I have always fed them with lines and script but I wanted to give them a space to be autonomous and take charge in learning and be creative.

I have seen that Y becomes very active and alive in class when we are doing a role play activity. He tries to say the lines correctly so I can imagine how many times he has repeated the same line. He comes up with funny ideas which involve a lot of slap stick to make his group's activity different from other teams. He really enjoys being part of the group. Not only does he learn the concept that English is fun but also he learns the key expressions in the role play through several repetitions.

8.Conclusion

Y was an infamous young delinquent since he was in second grade. I taught him through third grade and fourth grade and saw many faults with him and potential that he can be as normal as regular children with an ordinary family background or even exceed them with his own characteristics. Through very little time, once a week, I could help him recover his self-esteem in learning English and foster a rapport with him. This close relationship would not have been possible if there were no time to spend with him once a week. I think I was successful in planting this idea in him - "English teacher likes me". Thus, after I created some rapport with him he did not act unpredictably as much as he did before. I think he came to an understanding that I disciplined him out of love not out of hatred. He has become much better now by getting help from the school counselor, teachers around him and his parents who finally started to realize he needs constant care and help. He even takes medicine for ADHD symptoms. He is still progressing and he has a long way to go however, with constant help from people around him will definitely heal and this will give him a chance to be a normal child without depression and flourish academically with motivation and a real pleasure to learn.

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An Implementation of Activity Theory

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Activity theory has been used as an analyzing tool in various renowned fields. Activity theory is likely to be a valuable approach and it contains practical aspects. Thus, implementation of activity theory should be considered in real situations. Basically, activity theory has six elements: subject, object, mediation artifacts, rules, division of labor and community. These components appear on a triangle diagram. This theoretical building knowledge paper contains reviews of two articles and one book. Through the first article, an overall concept of activity theory was explained. The second article focused on e-learning situations, and the book showed detailed information of activity theory.

1. Introduction

Even though I have learned about activity theory, which is also known as cultural historical activity theory, within the second language acquisition (SLA) field, ithas expanded to be used in many other fields of study. When I did an introductory presentation of activity theory in class, I thought that I had understood activity theory; however, my understanding was limited. Engeström's expanded triangle model consists of six elements: subject, object, mediating artifacts, rules, division of labor and community. However, my understanding of each element does not appreciate the value of activity theory as a practical approach.

While I was searching for activity theory related articles, I realized that many studies utilize activity theory as an analyzing lens. Information and communication technologies, digital technologies as well as foreign language writing are some of the various fields using activity theory as an analyzing tool. The use of these in various fields provide evidence that many scholarsview activity theory as a valuable approach or tool to use for analyzing in their respective fields. Activity theory is not merely just a theory; it contains a practical aspect. Thus, activity theory is meaningful when it is practiced in real situations. Through the reading of authoritative articles,I noticed that I did not know how activity theory can be implemented in real situations which includeSLA.

I reviewed two articles and one book to begin an exploration of what it means to implement activity theory. The first article is “What kind of theory is activity theory?:Introduction” by Holzman (2006). The second article is “Activity-theoretical approach to investigate learners’ factors toward e-learning system” by Liaw, Huang, and Chen (2007). *Sociocultural Theoryand the Genesisof Second Language Development* by Lantolf and Thorne (2006) is the book reviewed. The reason why I selected the first article is that I wanted to get both an overall understanding of activity theory and different perspectives on activity theory. Moreover, I wanted to find examples of activity theory used in a real environment as was in the second article, which describes e-learning situations. The book guided the direction of this paper because it provided detailed information of activity theory. Last, it became a compass for me to stay on the right path while satisfying my intellectual curiosity.

2. Review

2.1 What kind of theory is activity theory?

The first theoretical article written by Holzman (2006) interprets activity theory from a psychological viewpoint. As the title of the article shows, it concisely introduces activity theory. According to the author, “activity theory as a human science perspective originated in the Soviet Union in the 1920s and 1930s" (Holzman, 2006, p.6). The abovequote reveals the initial point of activity theory. Holzman (2006) also mentions several scholars' names who contributed to activity theory: Vygotsky, Luria, and Leontiev. Those scholars achieved success in the first generation of activity theory.

In the article, the author defines the meaning of activity as a "microcosm of human consciousness" (Holzman, 2006, p.9). A definition of activity is important to understand activity theory because the meaning differs from the general notion of the word. It has a much broader and deeper meaning. The author also notes that consciousness is embedded in mutually responsive activity. Activity theory is based on consciousness, which becomes its cornerstone.

The article explicitly points out five different views of activity theory. The author states that activity theory focuses on the human mind within cultural and historical context. Activity theory focuses in on that there are hierarchical structures, internalization and externalization, a goal-oriented object as well as tools that are mediated and developed. To understand human behaviors, culture and activity should be placed at the center of understanding. As a psychological view of activity theory, it focuses on the interactions among an individual, the mediating artifact, which is a tool and other individuals. Activity theory can be recognized as an approach which understands and transforms human life including dialectical human activity in ontology.

2.2 An activity-theoretical approach to investigate learners' factors toward e-learning systems

The second research article, written by Liaw, Huang, and Chen (2007),demonstrates how activity theory is practical as an analyzing lens in e-learning systems. Liaw et al. (2007) clearly states that “based on activity theory, the purpose of this research is to investigate learners’attitude factors toward e-learning systems” (Liaw et al., 2007, p.1906). In general, any type of learning is a complicated process. Jonassen(2002, as cited in Liaw et al., 2007) suggests that meaningful learning should be: active, intentional, constructive, conscious and a socially mediated practice. This notion is matched with activity theory viewpoints of learning. Jonassen (2002, as cited in Liaw et al., 2007) also claims that activity and consciousness are needed to be the central mechanisms of learning in activity theory. This thought aligns closely with the psychological viewpoint of activity theory that was mentioned in the first review. Moreover, Kuutti (1997, as cited in Liaw et al., 2007) argues for activity theory as a cross-disciplinary framework for researching various forms of human practices.

In terms of participants, the subjects were 168 university students taking computer-related courses in central Taiwan. As instruments, a questionnaire that had three major components was selected. Demographic information, computer and Internet experience as well as attitude toward the e-learning systems were the three maincomponents of the questionnaire. In the article, the authors depict the implementation of an attitude triangle model toward e-learning systems. To be specific, six elements of the activity theory triangle were presented. An example would look at: learners as subject, multimedia e-learning instruction as mediating artifacts, learner autonomy as rules, e-learning community as community, teachers who are assisting tutors as a division of labor and problem solving environment of e-learning as object are all equally matched.

Additionally, J.G. Brook and M. G. Brook (1993, as cited in Liaw et al., 2007) note that learners need to encourage themselves within the context of internalizing, reshaping, and transforming information through active consideration. From this study, the authors found that activity theory could be a suitable theoretical lens for understanding e-learning systems. This study also proves that all six elements of the activity triangle in e-learning system situations can encourage active learning.

2.3 Sociocultural Theoryand the Genesisof Second Language Development

The book written by Lantolf and Thorne (2006) explains many of the ideas behind activity theory including historical background, development and theoretical clarification. At the beginning of the chapter, the authors explain activity in a Russian setting with contrasting sets of meaning: thinking and doing, knowing and performing, individual and society, idealism and materialism, use-value and exchange-value as well as internalization and externalization.

Of significant interest, Lantolf and Thorne used Kuutti's (1997) definition of activity theory which is the second article authors' citation (Liaw, et al., 2007). In other words, both authors see important features of Kuutti's (1997) definition to identify activity theory as a well-established contemporary research approach. In addition, Engeström (1993, as cited in Lantolf& Thorne, 2006), a developer of activity theory, sees that activity theory is an "evolving community of internationally dispersed practitioners which itself forms a multi-voiced activity system" (Lantolf&Thorne, 2006, p. 210). Even though different scholars articulate the definition of activity theory in diverse ways, the core concept of activity theory is included. As a critical point, the authors thoroughlydiscuss the second generation of activity theory that Engeström developed. In the second generation of activity theory, activity systems that graphically show six elements are transformed and innovated. An explanation of six elements is then shown in detail.

At the end of the chapter, the authors apply activity theoryto language acquisition. If language is seen as a form of social practice, language can fit into activity theory. Wells (1999, as cited in Lantolf& Thorne, 2006) proposes that “education be approached as an activity of dialogic enquiry” (Lantolf& Thorne, 2006, p. 227). Furthermore, Wells suggests genres in linguistic issues are types of actions relating to activity theory. Along with genres, discourse can be interpreted as meditational means which is the crucial factor of activity theory.

3. What I learned

From the beginning, I wanted to learn about various implementations of activity theory to language acquisition. After reviewing the articles and the book,I learned the practicality of both the first generation and second generation of activity theory in-depth. Originally, Vygotsky, who focused on consciousness and communication, developed the first generation of activity theory in early Soviet Russia. The first generation triangle model has three components: subject, object and mediating artifacts. Fundamental interpretation of the triangle is that the subject performs an activity having a goal-oriented object through using mediating artifacts and generates an outcome.

Engeström (2001), who devised the expanded triangle model, achieved in creating a second generation of the activity theory. In the second generation theory, Engeström's expanded triangle model has six elements: subject, object, mediating artifacts, rules, community and division of labor. Each element of the triangle is interrelated and connected with bidirectional arrows. Basic interpretation of the triangle model is that a subject produces an outcome through activity using mediating artifacts. The outcome is molded and formed by the object. The subject is governed by rules, community and division of labor. Based on this simple interpretation, human behaviors can be conceptualized and analyzed. His contribution has been extended to further the third generation of activity theory, which deals with activity system networks.

Language learning processes are complex. Activity theory can solve this difficulty by using the triangle diagram that makes it possible to visualize the situation. Through this review, I was able to think about activity theory as a well-structured framework for language classes. Activity theory can alsobe adapted and adopted in second language acquisition (SLA). If teachers want certain desired outcomes from students, the teachers should setup proper activities. In other words, the teachers are able to manipulate elements of activities to produce preferred outcomes. Therefore, when it comes to SLA, this framework can be a useful analyzing tool. When teachers design activities for students to promote understanding of lessons, changeabledynamic elements of the framework should be measuredbecause even though the teachers hope to have the same outcomes, every student participating might eventually end up having a different object. For example, when intended activities are not performed well, the teachers are required to come up with either alternative activities or negotiations. Going through the negotiations and the new activities, elements which consist of activities may be modified by teachers.

Using activity theory in the SLA classroom has another benefit.Through activity theory, teachers are able to see related elements that affect students' behaviors. Furthermore, teachers may estimate why and how those elements influence their students. It makes it possible for teachers to understand students better and to predict students' behaviors. Thus, teachers can provide customized activities that can be types of language lessons for their students who belong to different contexts, which are communities, division of labor, rules, object and mediating artifacts.

South Korea has experienced phenomenal popularity in people studying English, which is regarded as a global communication tool. However, both teachers and learners are often frustrated and suffer due to the lack of understanding of language in context. When we look at SLA classes in a Korean context, many classroom activities were designedwithout theoretical consideration because many second language teachers do not have applied linguistics backgrounds. Thus, appropriate pedagogical trainingwould enhance the quality of second language education in Korea.

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Quality Assurance: An Analysis of an ELT Organization

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In this paper, the author's current workplace is analyzed to view the organizational culture and leadership styles and how they affect the quality of the language institution. The target organization is a branch of a large language institution that focuses on programs for elementary students. The organizational structure of the target context is described relating it to the existing culture of the organization. In addition, a branch manager is examined according to the leadership style she possesses. Different aspects of the institution quality are closely examined using Parson's (cited in Christison& Murray, 2009, p. 157) three categories of quality indicators namely, client quality, professional quality and management quality. With the result of the analysis, it shows how important quality assurance is for an English language teaching organization.

1. Introduction

In any English Language Teaching (ELT) organization, quality is the priority to pursue as the success of the organization depends upon quality assurance. Lim (2001) defines quality assurance as "all the policies and processes that are directed to ensuring the maintenance and enhancement of quality." The Marketing Accountability Standards Board (MASB) contends that quality assurance is "the systematic measurement, comparison with a standard, monitoring of processes and an associated feedback loop that confers error prevention." Although the concept of quality does not have a fixed consensus among scholars, it is viewed interms and aspects of such examples as the elimination of errors, conformance to standards, client satisfaction and so on.Furthermore, it is undeniable that quality is the initial and ultimate purpose of every ELT organization. For this reason, it is important to look closely into the quality indicators for analyzing a language institution.

In this paper, the author's current workplace is analyzed in view of the organizational culture and leadership styles and how they affect the quality of the language institution. The target context of this paper is a private English language institute, which has more than 70 branches all over Korea. The author has experienced working in two different branches. Despite the fact that both branches belong to the same organization, some differences in terms of their organizational culture and work atmosphere could be observed. Naturally, there were more similarities than differences but certain aspects were still clearly distinct from one another.

Among many models presented by researchers on quality indicators, the author chooses that of Parson's (as cited in Christison& Murray. 2009, p. 157). Parson divides quality into three categories: client quality, professional quality and management quality. Specific examples are given under each category and explained in detail one by one. Acknowledging the fact that "management of an organization is culturally dependent and therefore the structure and culture of an organization reflect the national culture," (Hofstede, 2001; Mead, 1994) it reviews how the workplace is affected by its wider cultural context. Moreover, different aspects of the program that affect the overall quality are explored. With the analysis results, implications are drawn on what kind of future the branches hold and how ready they are to face future challenges.

2.Quality Drivers and Variables

2.1 Organizational Culture and Leadership

Organizational culture is defined as "a commonly held-in-the-mind framework of the members, which teaches its members the way to perceive, think, feel, behave, and expect others to behave in the organization" (Aiman-Smith, 2004).According to Schein (1999), organizational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered and developed while learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. Organizational culture is an important concept to be looked into regarding quality assurance because this is what reveals the collective values and beliefs of the organization.

To examine the kind of culture or cultures an organization has, it is vital to first look at the structure it is built upon since the structure of any organization "reflects its culture" (Murray &Christison, 2009 p. 126).

2.1.1 Flat and collegial structure

Organizations are usually divided into two categories: flat or hierarchical. Hofstede (2001) defines a flat structure as an organization with the cultural values of low power distance, tolerance for ambiguity and high individualism while a hierarchical structure is characterized by the cultural values of high power distance, need for certainty and collectivism. According to White, Martin, Stimson and Hodge(1991), most schools traditionally use a pyramid structure, but the language institution that this undertaking examines is more of a flat structure than hierarchical. Without a doubt, certain hierarchies exist just like in any other organization, but the layers or levels of management between employees are relatively few. In a hierarchical organization, it is given that every employee is subordinate to someone else in the organization except the CEO or the principal. The target institution of this study is seen as flat because both the administrators and teachers work as equals. Everybody just does their job and take responsibility. High individualism is evident in the work atmosphere. Teachers are responsible for teaching the students and consulting the parents while administrators are in charge of rest of the work that is needed to run the institute such as student enrollment and fee collection. There is only minimal power distance among teachers and managers. Both entities try to maintain good working relationships by supporting each other's work.

With such a flat structure, it can be said that the existing organizational structure facilitates information flow and decision-making across the organization just as indicated by Murray &Christison (2009, see p. 125). It is very important to maintain a fluid information flow in the language institution because withholding important issues from one employee to another seriously harms the quality of the program. Since no rigid hierarchical structure exists in the organization, both the administrators and teachers do not hold a silo mentality. No important information or knowledge is kept from each other for doing so leads only to both parties' loss.

To assist efficient communications, there is a messenger system on the website that both administrators and teachers use.If there is any announcement or information to share, it can be done easily through that system.Furthermore, weekly meetings are held wherein teachers and managers get to talk about different agendas including possible innovations and improvements that the organization needs.

Although there are a number of different organization structure models, one that well illustrates language education institutions is Cope's (as cited in Murray &Christison, 2009).Cope identified that there are five structural types: bureaucratic, collegial, political, anarchical and rational(as cited in Murray &Christison, 2009). The language institution examined in this paper falls under the collegial structural type. It is because the organization is flat in its nature. The collegial structure is characterized by its relatively flat structure with minimal status differentiation. Another feature of this kind of structure is that the members have shared values and open communication. In the target context of this study, every teacher is regarded as an expert in their teaching field andpossesses their own voice. They are oriented towards responsible behavior and self-discipline. They get to participate in the decision-making process. As briefly mentioned above, there are weekly meetings to talk about important matters and issues. All teachers and administrators gather in a room and ask for each other's opinion about the raised issue. Since the organization isone in a chain of a large language school company, core decisions such as curriculum design and student assessment are imposed upon each branch. This means that they do not get to make such major decisions independently. Even so, the teacherswork together to reach a consensus on matters that directly affect the classroom such as teaching methods and pedagogical alternatives. Both teachers and managers normally feel some degree of fulfillment in this arrangement.

2.1.2 Role culture

Considering various definitions of organizational culture, many descriptive models have evolved with one of the most common models being that of Handy's (1985). He describes four types of culture linking toorganizational structure: power culture, role culture, task culture and person culture. Role culture is more prevalent than any other culture in the author's working environment. One of the basic assumptions of a role culture is that a role's function is more valued than the person in the position. It does not matter who fills the position as long as the role continues. People are generally identified according to their role in this situation. Given this condition, it remains a highly defined structure with clearly prescribed roles and procedures. In the target context of the study, there is a set curriculum for every teacher to follow and teachers are supposed to use the textbooks written by the institute. Teachers are even provided with visual aids to use inside classrooms. It is to ensure every teacher uses the same quality teaching materials. However, teachers are never forced to use certain teaching strategies and activities. Teachers make their own decisions on classroom management and activities they do in a class. Given these conditions, the most important thing is to keep functioning according to the role given to them. As much as teachers are respected for their knowledge and skills, they are expected to carry out their role as teacher. Likewise, the same culture applies to the administrators. There are four managers in the institute, and they are in charge of a multitude of things for whichthey are assigned differently. For example, one manager is in charge of student enrollment while another is responsible for online class management. As soon as one position becomes vacant, it gets to be filled in by another staff member. It is not the person who holds the stakes but the role itself. As long as there is someone who is able to carry out the job, it does not matter who does it.

Subsequently, it can be said that the organization is highly individualist in its nature. Prevalence of individualism can be observed in that individuals make their own decisions, relationships with colleagues do not depend upon group identity, task and organization are more important than personal relations, and rewards or incentives are more effective if given to individuals. In fact, the institution encourages teacher competitions in terms of student performance. Since the target students of the organization are relatively young, they hold many events like contests with user created content (UCC). Rewards like incentives are given to teachers who bring out excellent student performance, so it can be said that teachers are usually motivated to participate and bring such events to success.

The concept of uncertainty avoidance is quite high in the organization. In relation to the dominance of role culture in the language institution, both teachers and administrators tend to have high uncertainty avoidance. Since both entities are expected to strictly abide by set procedures in terms of curriculum and student assessment, clear delivery of information and knowledge is very crucial. Also, the teachers are task oriented rather than relationship oriented so they tend to value detailed planning andreporting systems.

2.1.3 Transformational leadership.

Leadership is an integral part of management and plays a vital role in language program managerial operations. Though the concept of leadership and management are perceived and used interchangeably, other scholars have set a clear dichotomy between the two. According to Conger (1992), management is a process of planning, organizing, directing and controlling the activities of others to attain the organizational objectives. Leadership on the other hand, is a process of influencing the behavior of the people to attain their assigned tasks. A successful leader must possess both managerial and leadership qualities for they are complementary concepts rather than conflicting ones. In fact, McCafferry (2004) affirms, “organizational effectiveness… is dependent upon both capable leadership and sound management.”

There are various theories of leadership, and they are conceptualized in different perspectives.Next, the author’s current manager is analyzed using one of the most prominent theories of leadership: transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are geared towards enhancing motivation, morale and performance of the employees. Being a role model, they inspire followers and make them more committed to their work. Theyunderstandan individual’s strengths and weaknesses. For Covey (1990), transformational leadership is value-centered, while transactional leadership is event-centered. The factors that contribute to transformational leadership are individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and last, idealized influence (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978).

Manager A, a femalein her early 30s, is a highly respected leader at the branch where the author is currently working part-time. Specifically, she was a head manager at theDaechi branch two years ago then was promoted to be a franchise head as she came to the Sunae branch. According to Burns (1978), there are four components that make up a transformational leader – charisma, inspiration, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. As attested by many teachers who have experienced working with her, she possesses all four qualities.

She raises the aspirations of not only the teachers but also other administrators in pursuit of a higher purpose by setting a vision and sharing it with them. By doing so, she engenders pride, respect and trust. She provides personal attentions to her staff by giving respect and responsibility. Moreover, she always sets an exemplary model to everyone. The best term to describe her is “workleader” as coined by Murphy (1996). She truly shows authentic leadership by working by herself first and empowering the people around her. To cite a specific example, there is an ongoing event in the institution. It is like there are printed trees posted on the wall and each tree is assigned to each class. The mission of each class is to fill the tree with stickers. Stickers are provided by the administrators and the classes can earn them when students perform something in front of them in English. It could be as simple as making a sentence with given vocabulary and as complex as doing role-play. The point of the event is to provide students with diverse opportunities in making actual use of the language. There are about 20 classes in each time frame, and it is really not an easy job to attend to students whenever they come out to do something, especially for a franchise head like her. She is usually very busy even without having to attend to student performances. However, even with five more administrators working alongside her, she never waits for them to get to the students. She always calls the students upon her and encourages every student to do their best. She always has a smile when attending to them.

2.2 Client Quality

2.2.1 Curriculum

Curriculums are considered the heart of every language program because that is what the whole teaching and learning process revolves around. Administration is also largely affected by the kind of curriculum a program has.

The curriculum of the author's current workplace possesses a number of strong qualities. First, it teaches four language skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) in an integrated way. Rather than compartmentalizing each skill, these are all developed at the same time. Since the target institution of this paper is a private language school that is aimed at helping students achieve their own goals in their schools, it is important to adopt educational changes being implemented attheKorean national level. It is widely known that communicative competence is the major undertaking by the Ministry of Education. To cope with such a goal, the testing system is also going to be changed with the National English Ability Test (NEAT).

NEAT is going to be implemented to replace the English part of the College Scholastic Ability Test.The focus on grammar, which has been the main concentration of English instruction in Korea for a long time, is now shifting to speaking and writing skills (Hwang, 2012). Even English libraries have emerged so that learners get to voluntarily expose themselves to intensive and extensive reading. To keep pace, the institute head office started making curriculum changes and implemented them to give more focus on intensive reading and listening. To help students get ready for speaking tests, students are taught different interview tips. Even actual interview situations with the CEO of the institute are set up to make students practice.

Another component that signals the quality of the curriculum is that it constantly seeks innovation on a regular basis. The institution publishes their own textbooks and they are what get to be used inside each classroom. As teachers implement the published materials in actual classrooms, they are asked to give out their own feedback to the Research and Development (R&D) team. As R&D collects all the feedback from teachers and students, they edit and update the materials. One of the most successful innovations was that they hired writers and illustrators to write storybooks of their own. Before they came up with their own storybooks, they used to use the books that are from outside sources. Even though the books were chosen carefully to fit each level, many books were either too easy or difficult. Some themes of the books were not appropriate to be taught to elementary students. As they have published their own storybooks, considering the exact context of the institution, it came out as a big success. With the written storybooks, teachers who have been teaching in the institution for at least four years developed workbooks. As a result of extensive effort on the part of the R&D team and some teachers, improved textbooks were written.

Lastly, online curriculum is also integrated in that it fully complements the offline classes. The purpose of online classes is to extend the exposure time to English for students and to create an English as a Second Language (ESL) environment. Since the major difference between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and an ESL environment is the exposure to English outside classrooms, the institute opted to provide more hours for which students get an opportunity to use the language. Also, it helps students develop self-directed learning habits, by appropriating them with specific tasks to be completed everyday.

2.2.2 Learner output

Since the target institution teaches elementary students, management has to adjust to what parents want from the program. Currently, parents want to see how their children are doing inside and outside the classroom. Therefore, it is very important to present student output to the parents.

Test of the Skills in the English Language (TOSEL) is one way to show students' proficiency improvements. Such standardized tests measure overall language skills of students and present explicit results. The R&D team gave out statistics on the number of students who achieved a high score in the test, and it was shown to have increased. In the year 2008, 884 students passed the 3rd class of the Junior level, 1,122 in 2009, 1,188 in 2010, and 1,237 in 2011. As the result indicates, the number has constantly improved.

Furthermore, students are always instructed to keep a reading and writing portfolio. Every time students finish a storybook within two weeks, they are asked to make their own output regarding what they have learned. As they complete each, they keep their work in a file. The same process is used with online classes. As they finish their weekly lesson, they are led to make their own portfolio. Everything gets to be compiled and shown to parents when they come for biannual parental conferences. With the collected student works, parents get to keep track of their child's progress.

2.3 Professional Quality

2.3.1 Teacher qualifications and hiring process

Teachers are the core quality holder who has the greatest impact on the success of an ELT organization. Consequently, it is very important for institutions to find qualified teachers. TESOL (2009) notes a list of general qualifications for teachers and it includes a university degree, an endorsement of add-on certification in ESL, a Master's degree, high language proficiency, and teaching potential. To compare what the target institution requires of teachers with that of TESOL, the institution more or less demands similar aspects. Teacher applicants have to be fluent bilinguals and 4-year college graduates. They prefer those with English teaching experience.

In terms of the teacher hiring process, it is not one step process. Teachers need to pass five steps in order to get hired. The first step starts with the teacher applicant submitting a resume and cover letter. The administrators and executives review their personal history, and then they decide whether to call the applicant for a phone interview. After the interview through phone, the applicant is called in for an official interview with human resource associates and executives. Once the applicant makes it through the official interview, he or she is asked to prepare a demo teaching class in a few days of time. In the demo class, executives and human resource associates act as students and teacher applicants have to teach them. If the applicant has passed the demo teaching component, he or she is informed that they will need to have teacher training for a week. In a week, teachers are trained intensively about the organizational culture, curriculum, teaching pedagogies, teaching philosophy, etc. As they go toward the end of the training session, they have to apply everything they have learned in their second and third demo teaching. In these two last requirements, teachers are observed and commented on and scrutinized. If the teachers do not perform well enoughduring these two lessons, they will not be hired. It is a long and arduous process on the part of teacher applicants. This long process shows the extent the institute pursues teacher quality to some extent.

2.3.2Teacher training

______ 1. *Lead in* – Teachers are introduced to targeted practice and a rationale for its use in the classroom and links to research and the literature are made when applicable.

______ 2. *How to* – Teachers learn what they are expected to do and how to carry it out tosuccessfully.

______ 3. *Modeling* – Teacher trainers demonstrate targeted practice through modeling and/or videos.

______ 4. *Practice* – Teachers are encouraged to practice and demonstrate what they have learned to do.

______ 5. *Assessment* – On-the-spot or followup assessment checks are conducted to determine teacher comprehension of training session content. Teachers can receive further assistance if needed.

______ 6. *Application* – Steps are taken to ascertain that teachers apply what has been learned. If teachers have difficulty translating new knowledge into practice, additional training can be provided.

Figure 1. *Checklist for Planning Teacher-Training Sessions (Mercado, 1997 cited in Murray &Christison, 2009, p.131)*

In Figure 1, Mercado (1997) presents a checklist to follow in preparing a teacher training session. In analysis of the teacher training sessions provided by the institution, the author acquired a schedule of teacher training that recently took place and compared it with the checklist. It was seen that the teacher training exactly matched the checklist starting from lead-in to application. The training begins with an orientation which equals the *Lead-in* step in the checklist. As a second step, teachers are given an overview of the program, which covers textbooks, class schedules, teacher tasks, etc. During this time, teachers are told that they are to perform demo classes before the training finishes. It falls under the *How to* part of the checklist. As to the *Modeling* part, the trainers demonstrate the actual classes wherein the trainers act as the teacher and trainees the students. For the*Practice & Assessment* portion, trainees prepare demo classes and perform them in the class. Trainers and co-trainees become the students during this time. Right after the demonstrations, trainers give out their feedback with regards to the trainee performance. The trainees are supposed to carry out three demo classes. As for the *Application* part, teachers are assigned to designated branches and they are to sitin actual classes of other experienced teachers. At the end of another twoweeks of field training, trainees are to do a final demo class with an appropriate assessment.

2.4 Management Quality

2.4.1 Unique learning events

Mercado (cited in Murray &Christison, 2009), while explaining about being a guarantor of quality assurance, emphasizes that ELT organizations have to "strive to differentiate" stating that:

> To maximize a language program's ability to attract new students as well as retain current ones, language program administrators should seek to establish a competitive advantage. This is best achieved through differentiation, which, when applied to language programs, entails providing current and prospective students with unique learning experiences that are of value to them. In this day and age, a program that provides students access to a plethora of state-of-the-art online learning resources that other institutions cannot (or do not) is one example of differentiation. When students participate in cultural events at no cost, this may distinguish one program from another. (p.131)

As described above, the target institution holds diverse unique events such as UCC speaking contests, oneday story camps and summer and winter camps. Also, to facilitate mobile learning, the institution has developed a vocabulary game application so that students can download it and learn the words anytime, anywhere they want to. Cultural events such as Christmas and Halloween events are also offered yearly.

2.4.2 Other services

In consideration of the fact that not all parents can bringtheir children to the institution, shuttle bus service is requiredfor successful institutions. It is a high quality service because first, the institution has acquired a safety certificate issued by the police. It shows to some extent that the institution prioritizes safety. Second, the routes by which the shuttle bus passes by are presented on the website in detail. The parents and students can easily identify where to take the bus and where to get off. Lastly, to prevent children running toward the bus and causing accidents, all the teachers bring down the students to the entrance and see them off to their respective bus.

3. Conclusion

In this paper, a branch of a large language institution that focuses on programs for elementary students was analyzed in view of quality assurance. The organizational structure of the target context was described relating it to the existing culture of the organization. In addition, a branch manager was examined according to the leadership style she possesses. Different aspects of the institution were closely examined using Parson's (1994) three categories of quality indicators.

The institution was identified to have a flat structure where only minimal power distance exists between the administrators and faculty members. High individualism was also characterized as a part of the structure. The organization was described to be under collegial structure wherein a participatory role of teachers in decision-making processes is highlighted along with the significance of open communication and shared values among the members. Following the organizational structure, role culture was recognized to be the prevalent culture in the organization. On top of the analysis of the actual organization, the leader was identified to possess traits of a transformational leader. As indicated in many other research works, transformational leadership ensured more success than other types of leadership such as transactional leadership.

Furthermore, a range of program quality traits was covered in detail. It was confirmed that the curriculum reflects the national context while embracing necessary innovations. Learners' output was clearly displayed to parents, creating a sense of transparency for them. The institution was found to be implementing a very wide series of steps ensuring that only qualified teachers are hired. The institution also aspires to provide diverse cultural immersion type of events creating a sense of quality on the part of clients.

Overall, if questioned whether the institution is ready to face future challenges, it seems like it is not going to be difficult to do so. The institution has shown constantly that it is willing to accept changes and modify the older system whenever the need arises.

However, as identified by some scholars (Massey et al., 1994) "hollowed" collegiality exists in many organizations, and the author's language institution is not an exception. Collegiality is superficial at some points because it is only in minor matters that the teachers get to participate. Even though the teachers themselves know what works best for the students, they cannot make possible changes for substantive things like student assessment and curricular structure. Though the actual teaching field takes a collegial process, the central administration is bureaucratic and hierarchical in terms of its decision-making process. In order to bring better innovations and pursue quality assurance, it has to seek ways to fill this gap and encourage more significant levels of teacherinvolvement.

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Genre Based L2 Learning as Scaffolding : Op-ed Genre Analysis Based on SFL and Move Analysis

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This paper aims at analyzing the op-ed genre in The New York Times and utilizes the analysis into the L2 writing class with intermediate-advanced level university students. The op-ed genre in the newspaper refers to opposite the editorial where public readers of the newspaper can participate to express their opinions and persuade readers. Also, The New York Times receives about 1200 submissions per week. According to the analyzed data based on systemic functional linguistics (SFL), move analysis, and Linguistic features, the op-ed genre can serve as a great source to teach and learn how to write persuasive essays. First, SFL based analysis provides the way of incorporating social contexts of the target language. Second, the move analysis offers ways to find out and practice structural knowledge of persuasive discourse. Finally, linguistic analysis is included, which is the most basic aspect of teaching language. The lesson plan is based on the aforementioned analysis as well as the steps of the teaching and learning cycle, which are often used in the genre-based writing learning class. Also, portfolio assessments and scoring of student’s work as methods for the evaluation are discussed.

1. Introduction

According to Hyland (2003), genre-based writing education includes providing students with explicit contextual settings as well as linguistic structures. He criticizes the conventional process approach mainly in that it does not incorporate the idea of socially situated writing practice. The process approach considers writing as an inside-head process and thus writing teachers assume the role of a facilitator instead of overtly teaching how to write. However, in his point of view, writing is more of a social practice that has specific functions and goals. One thing we should note though is, he argues, that the genre-based approach intends neither restricting the writer's freedom of choice nor only focusing on forms and structures. Rather, by using the concept of genre, it attempts to connect writing practice with real world situations. After all, all language uses have their own purposes. Personally, I am fond of this idea in that I consider the greatest defect of modern public schooling is the lack of purposes and contexts in terms of pedagogical perspectives. If a student has a motive for studying, let's say, math, it is likely to stem from his or her individual reasoning and purpose rather than from the school program.

Due to these aforementioned features of the genre pedagogy, one can assume that it can be also applied to L2 writing classes. Hyland (2007) states that genre knowledge and genre-based teaching can be even more important for L2 classes than L1 classes. This is mainly because L2 writers or learners tend to have insufficient contextual knowledge and lack natural settings in terms of the target language and culture. Therefore, using genre approaches in teaching L2 writing can be an efficient way of instructing learners by offering grounds that they can build up further. In other words, the genre pedagogy functions as scaffolds (Hyland, 2003). Originating in Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, the concept of scaffolding casts a light on understanding how the genre pedagogy plays a role in writing instruction. Scaffolding is collectively constructed support that gives learners opportunities to expand their knowledge (Johnson, 2004). In this sense, the contextual and structural support from instructors can be more valuable for L2 learners who are more or less familiar with the target cultural environment and writing practice. There are two different L2 genre approaches based on SFL and ESP. Hyland (2007) states that SFL and ESP diverge significantly from one another. In the case of "Sydney School," the concept of genre is broader such as narratives and recounts, which were called differently as *discourse modes* by Bax (2011). On the other hand, ESP pedagogies focus more on the education that aims at specific professional and academic groups. Therefore, genres are viewed as the place for discourse communities to use their language for certain purposes.

In this paper, I intend to analyze a genre, The New York Times op-ed articles, based on two theoretical genre approach backgrounds, Halliday's (1978) concept of context: field, tenor and mode and Swales's (1990) move analysis. Lexico-grammatical analysis also will be included. After that, I will be presenting how my analysis can be applied to a lesson plan. The lesson plan follows Rothery's Teaching and Learning Cycle (1996) with an additional feedback and evaluation plan. The following is my hypothesis for op-ed genre analysis.

"It assumes that for public opinion to form there must be a public sphere, a discursive space in which individuals and groups congregate to discuss matters of mutual interest and, where possible, to reach a common judgment" (Hauser, 1998, p. 86). As a space for public discussion and expression of personal opinions, op-ed pages have deep relationships with their social contexts where they originate from. Because of this contextual background that it is the space for public discussion and one-way communication (although newspaper websites have comment sections that can compensate for this argument), their tone of voice is more persuasive than argumentative. That is, they often incorporate differing points of view in their articles to contradict them or show that they are acknowledging them. Secondly, the topics of op-ed articles are commonly in the realm of public interest and thus it is often the topic being issued at the time. Therefore, it usually introduces the topic by bringing up the social events that caused the topic to be surfaced up to the public interest. Also, its linguistic common features are determined by its social purpose; public discussion and individual expressions on common interest. For example, modalities are used to better support its opinion and main claim. Lastly, facts, statistics and examples are being discussed in op-ed articles also for the same reason.

2. Social context of the op-ed genre

Before discussing the social context of the op-ed genre, we need to define what 'op-ed' is. Op-ed is the abbreviation for opposite the editorial page. According to the Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995), Op-ed is defined as "Am (of a piece of writing in a newspaper which is usually printed opposite to the page on which the editorial is printed) expressing personal opinion." Thus, opposite the editorial page does not mean that the op-ed section contained contents opposite to editorials but represents the fact that it was located on the opposite side of paper-version newspapers. (Of course, we cannot see this anymore on internet-version newspapers.) The main difference between editorial pages and op-ed pages is stated by Shipkey (2004), an editor of the op-ed department in the New York Times, as "Op-Ed is different from the editorial page in that it does not represent the views of anyone in the editorial division, even its own editors." In other words, the editorial page is written only by exclusive writers who are members of editorial authors in a certain newspaper whereas op-ed pages are open to the general public. They both are opinion based articles as editorial is also defined as "an article in a newspaper that gives the opinion of the editor or publisher on a topic or item of news" (Sinclair, 1995 as cited in Ansary, 2005, p.278).

Op-ed pages first appeared on Sept. 21. 1970 in the New York Times for the first time and many other newspapers followed this move afterwards. The editors of the op-ed page in 1970 wrote, "We hope that a contribution may be made toward stimulating new thought and provoking new discussion on public problems." (Socolow, 2010, p. 281). According to Socolow (2010), the initiation of op-ed pages was a combined outcome of newspaper companies' economical struggles and heightened demand of public expression. He states that "The Times op-ed page appeared in an era of democratizing cultural political discourse and of economic distress for the company itself. The newspaper's executives developed a place for outside contributors with space reserved for sale at a premium rate for additional commentaries and other purposes" (Socolow, 2010, p. 281). With this background, newspapers started allowing outsiders to participate in the practice of the journalism community. Today, the New York Times op-ed department receives about 1200 submissions per week and they have room for about 1,200 words of type, which means two or three articles per day (Shipkey, 2004). Thus, Shipkey (2004) offers some guidelines for contributors to be accepted. He states that the number of words needs to be limited to 750, and writers should try to avoid Olympian language and bureaucratic jargon. Also, he suggests making arguments more thoroughly, point by point. I believe these social contexts as well as editor's guidelines underlie the common linguistic features of the op-ed genre.

3. Data Collection

9 op-ed articles from the New York Times website are collected for the analysis. I should note that these are not randomly selected articles. Rather, the contents are deliberately chosen to serve the purpose of being teaching materials for university students in Korea. The sample titles of analyzed articles are listed below.

-*Moving Beyond Affirmative Action*

-*Feigning Free Speech on Campus*

-*Suicide by Choice*

-*When grading is degrading*

-*Can the Law Make Us Be Decent*

-*End Federal Flood Insurance.*

-*A minimum tax for the wealthy*

-*Will Privacy Go to the Dogs*

-*America's Failed Palestinian Policy*

There are two reasons why I choose NYT articles. First of all, I have experienced that there are not many L2 materials with a detailed description of context for the learners who move up from intermediate level to advanced level. That is, the market in Korea is filled with beginning and intermediate level materials but when you advance to a certain level, you want to move up to more difficult ones. Thanks to technology, many can access high level English sources such as CNN or BBC. However, what many encounter is not only linguistic difficulties but also contextual difficulties. Thus, I perceive that conducting a class with NYT articles would help students get more social and cultural knowledge. Of course, the US is not the only target culture, so we can expand from here to sources from other cultures. Secondly, newspaper op-ed section articles have a strong social and contextual goal: persuading public readers. To realize this goal, op-ed writers often employ argumentative/persuasive discourse modes so that they can effectively convey their message with logical and organized reasoning. As we can see from TOEFL or GRE writing tests which pay a great deal of attention to how well the examiners can support their own claims, argumentative/persuasive writing is one of the most essential and useful text genres for L2 students.

4. The op-ed genre analysis

4.1 SFL: context level

Figure 1. Halliday's (1978) concept of context

First order field: a semiotic model of social practice

Field — Second order field: a semiotic model of linguistic and other semiotic process, subject-matters (topics of texts)

Context — Tenor — First order tenor: social roles and relations without reference to language

Second order tenor: the speech roles and relations created by semiotics

Mode — inherently second-order

Halliday (1978) suggests that understanding language cannot be detached from its use which can be represented by its context. In SFL, context is a higher-order semiotic system above the linguistic system and it covers the spectrum of field, tenor and mode (Matthiessen, Teruya, &Lam , 2010, p.77). Field (what is going on) tenor (the relationship between participants) and mode (the channel of communication) are realized as register, the language feature in the text. Halliday (1978) states that the context is divided into two orders. The first order is social context without reference to language, and the second order is linguistic context. For example, in a discussion about the affirmative action law, the first order field is discussion as a social behavior and the second order field is the affirmative action law as a subject matter that determines the contents of language use such as vocabulary and the selection of grammatical patterns. Also, in terms of distinction between the first order tenor and second order tenor, a helpful example is shown in Halliday (1978). In the classroom discourse, teacher-pupil relationship (first order tenor) can be represented as questioner-responder (second order tenor). Lastly, Mode is mainly involved with the function of language in the context such as the turn characteristics (e.g. monologic vs. dialogic), the medium (e.g. spoken vs. written), and the rhetorical mode (the symbolic role played by language in the context: e.g. didactic, entertaining, persuasive, polemical etc.) (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010). Therefore, mode is the intrinsic second order. Figure 1 shows how these concepts are organized. Based on this Halliday's (1978) concept of context, contextual analysis of NYT op-ed genre is presented in table 1.

Table 1. Context of NYT op-ed genre based on SFL

Context of NYT op-ed genre based on SFL	
1st order context (social dimension)	2nd order context (linguistic dimension)
1st order *field* of op-ed genre (semiotic model of social process) : place for public discussion and expression of individual opinions on common interest	2nd order field of op-ed genre (semiotic model of linguistic and other semiotic process) : subject-matter, i.e. topics of each op-ed articles e.g. affirmative action law

1st order tenor (social roles and relations without reference to language) : participants (writers) are the members of a society who has urges to promote their thoughts and reasoning to other members (readers) ultimately in order to persuade people to what they believe in regarding certain social issues. There are three social roles in the op-ed genre: the thought promoter, the chooser(editor), the receiver/commenter	2nd order tenor (the speech roles which defined by the linguistic system) : writer – reader (general public) : persuader – judger : one-way relationship
	Mode (textual system, thus inherently 2nd order) : the turn characteristic – monologue : the medium – written : the rhetorical mode – persuasive : linguistic dimension

4.2 Move analysis of the op-ed genre: structure level

According to Mirador(2001), “MOVE is the logical maneuver adopted by the communicator/s in written or spoken discourse. Such a maneuver is evident in the unified functional meaning of a sentence or group of sentences in a written or spoken text. The sentence or group of sentences has a single unifying purpose in relation to the context in which it occurs” (p. 47)Thus, finding moves of a written genre is deeply involved with identifying the writer’s intention and purpose of how he or she wants to manipulate the structure of the text. Here the structure is not just concerning the format of the genre but mainly about functional meaning of each move. Of course, a genre is likely to have more than one move type as writers/speakers have varying intentions. However, finding general or commonly used move types of a genre and using it to scaffold learners will be able to guide them to reach the full membership of the discourse community. (Lave & Wenger, 1991)

I want to note a few points about my move analysis of the op-ed genre. First, as I mentioned above, there are other types of moves. For example, some writers start with the main argument without introducing social events. Thus, this move type that I will discuss below is not definite. Also, there are always headings (title of the article) before move 1 and introducing the writer after move 5. However, I only analyzed the main article part without headings and introductions of the writer mainly because my purpose of the analysis is to apply it to L2 persuasive reading and writing learning. Although learning how to write headings of the article can be helpful for learners, my main concern is more related to the type of writing that the question whether or not the learner agrees with certain social issues is given to students. Moves identified from my sample op-ed articles are (1) Introduce an event/ events (2) State main argument and supports (3) Present differing points of view (4) Suggest counter plans or contradiction of the opposite view (5) Restate the main argument. Table 2 shows the moves of the op-ed genre in more detail.In order to describe moves, excerpts from two op-ed articles will be shown. (For the full script of analysis, see Appendix A and C.)

Table 2. Moves of the Op-ed Section in Newspapers

Moves of the Op-ed Section in Newspapers		
Move 1	Introduce an event/ events	Introduce and describe (a) social event(s) that happened recently to explain why the main topic has been

		raised as a social issue
Move 2	State the main argument and supports	State the main argument and present reasons that support the argument based on facts
Move 3	Presentdiffering points of view	Introduce the opinion that is opposite to the writer's view and reasons for them
Move 4	Suggest counter plan or contradiction of the opposite view	Contradict what is mentioned in move 3
Move 5	Restate main argument	Restate main argument and summarize main reasons for the argument.

Move 1: Introduce an event/ events

Excerpt 1.

ON Wednesday, the Supreme Court will hear oral arguments in Fisher v. University of Texas, the latest in a long line of conservative assaults on affirmative action that dates to the late 1970s.(Appendix A:Moving Beyond Affirmative Action)

Excerpt 2.

DESPITE high youth voter turnout in 2008 — 48.5 percent of 18- to 24-year-olds cast ballots that year — levels are expected to return to usual lows this year, and with that the usual hand-wringing about disengagement and apathy among young voters.

(Appendix C: Feigning Free Speech on Campus)

Both articles begin with describing and introducing an event. The purpose of this can be assumed that first, before providing the argument; the writer can give readers some background information so that readers can activate their schema on the issue. Secondly, because the events are based on what actually happened in the society, it makes the issue and argument more relevant to readers.

Move 2: State main argument and supports

Excerpt 3.

Race-based affirmative action has been a woefully inadequate weapon in the arsenal against inequality. (Appendix A:Moving Beyond Affirmative Action)

Excerpt 4.

Colleges and universities are supposed to be bastions of unbridled inquiry and expression, but they probably do as much to repress free speech as any other institution in young people's lives. (Appendix C: Feigning Free Speech on Campus)

These two excerpts are the beginning sentences of move 2, and also the sentences of the main claim. After this sentence, writers present several supporting examples with facts or statistic numbers. The main claim is located in the first sentence of a paragraph and it is presented clearly.

Move 3: Presentdiffering point of view

Excerpt 5.

To be clear, I believe that race-conscious affirmative action is necessary and often beneficial — though I am not hopeful that the court will agree.Our study showed that eliminating it would reduce the number of black students by about 60 percent, and the number of

Hispanic students by about one-third, at selective private schools. (Appendix A:Moving Beyond Affirmative Action)

Excerpt 6.

Some elite colleges in particular have Orwellian speech codes that are so vague and broad that they would never pass constitutional muster at state-financed universities. Harvard is a particularly egregious example. Last year, incoming Harvard freshmen were pressured by campus officials to sign an oath promising to act with “civility” and “inclusiveness” and affirming that “kindness holds a place on par with intellectual attainment.”

(Appendix C: Feigning Free Speech on Campus)

The beginning parts of move 3 are presented above. They incorporate the opposing point of view and its supporting ideas. Excerpt 5 talks about why he agrees with the affirmative action law although his main claim is that it should be banished. Excerpt 6 also discusses that freedom of speech can be inhibited under the name of civility.There are three reasons for presenting differing points of view. The social field of op-ed genre is a place for public discussion. However, the relationship between the writer and the reader is only one way, i.e. there is no direct discussion between participants. Thus, writers incorporate different positions so that first, to show that they are neutral subjects who can embrace differing opinions, which is highly related to the persuasive purpose. Second, it is to predictthe opposite opinion and contradict it since it is a one way relationship (readers cannot respond to the writer directly). However, in some articles, move 3 is relatively short or even does not appear. In that case, the article presents a more argumentative discourse mode than persuasive and it shows the writer’s opinion in a more assertive manner, presenting that he or she strongly believes in his or her own opinion.

Move 4: Suggest a counter plan or contradiction of the opposing view

Excerpt 7.

If affirmative action is abolished, selective colleges and universities will face a stark choice. They can try to manufacture diversity by giving more weight in admissions to those factors that are sometimes close substitutes for race — for example, having overcome disadvantage in a poor urban neighborhood.(Appendix A:Moving Beyond Affirmative Action)

Excerpt 8.

Civility is nice, but on college campuses it often takes on a bizarre meaning.

(Appendix C: Feigning Free Speech on Campus)

In move 4, writers present alternative options or contradictory facts to the ideas mentioned in move 3 so that they can further strengthen their own argument.

Move5: Restate main argument

Excerpt 9.

However the court decides the Fisher case, affirmative action's days appear numbered. Seven states — Arizona, California, Florida, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire and Washington — have banned racial preferences in college admissions. In 2003, in the Grutter decision, Justice Sandra Day O'Connor wrote that she expected such preferences to disappear within 25 years — by 2028. The children who

> would go off to college that year are already 2 years old.(Appendix A:Moving Beyond Affirmative Action)

> Excerpt 10.
> For reasons both good and bad — and sometimes for mere administrative convenience — colleges have promulgated speech codes that are not only absurd in their results but also detrimental to the ideals of free inquiry. Students can't learn how to navigate democracy and engage with their fellow citizens if they are forced to think twice before they speak their mind.(Appendix C: Feigning Free Speech on Campus)

Move 5 which is a conclusion paragraph of each article is presented above. Writers restate their main argument in move 5 and revisit its main reason or why it is important.

4.3 Lexico-grammatical level analysis

There are three lexico-grammatical features of the op-ed genre. (1) Overall, frequently used vocabulary is highly content dependent. (2) Use of modality is valued. (3) Use of pronoun 'I', is limited but exists. Of course there are many other features also depending on context and writer's intention. For example, some articles use thepresent tensefor claiming sentences and the past or past perfect tense for supporting sentences. On the other hand, some articles use the future conditional (if….will…) to make their point and support their claim. Thus, there needs to be more careful analysis of lexico-grammatical features article by article before we use it in the classroom. These features are furtherexplained below.

4.3.1 In the op-ed genre, the lexical feature is highly topic-dependent.

In other words, most occurring words vary according to their topics. For example, if the topic of an op-ed article is about freedom of speech on campus (See Appendix C), the most frequently occurring keywords run by *lextutor.ca* is as below. Therefore, when the op-ed genre is used in the L2 classroom, building up and activating the lexical knowledge in relation to the topic cannot be overlooked.

(1) 1548.79 campus
(2) 434.16 speech
(3) 295.01 code
(4) 230.51 student
(5) 210.83 constitution
(6) 206.02 college
(7) 140.80 civil
(8) 133.49 university
(9) 113.75 demonstrate
(10) 71.35 free
(11) 49.17 debate
(12) 29.50 argue
(13) 27.10 position
(14) 25.19 percent

At keyness cut-off of 25, there are 14 keywords from a total of 745 words, for a keyword ratio of 0.019
MEANING: .001 is an extememely high keyword text (many words distinct to this text), .009 is a low keyword text (uses general words), and so on.
From http://www.lextutor.ca/keywords/freak.pl

4.3.2 Use of modality is the second feature of the op-ed genre

In the grammatical term, the most used type of modality in the op-ed articles is *deontic* modalitiessuch as 'should', 'besupposedto' or 'must'and *epistemic* modalitiessuch as 'could' or 'be sure to'. According to Simpson (1993), *deontic* modality is "the modal system of 'duty', as it is concerned with a speaker's attitude to the degree of obligation attaching to the performance of certain actions" (p. 43).He also states that the *deontic* system is deeply involved with the strategies of social interaction in relation to the linguistic features of persuasive discourses. In the case of *epistemic* modality, it shows the speaker's confidence or lack of confidence through representing his knowledge, belief, and cognition.

On the other hand, Halliday (1985) notes that "modality refers to the area of meaning that lies between yes and no – the intermediate ground between positive and negative polarity. What this implies more specifically will depend on the underlying speech function of the clause" (p.356). Hallidy's (1985) calls *deontic* modalities *obligation* among two different types of modality: *modalization* (indicative type) and *modulation* (imperative type). Modality has the *value* of modal judgment: high, median, or low (e.g. high- required, median- suppose, and low – allowed). Therefore, depending on how strong a position an author takes on the issue he or she is writing about, the use of *deontic* modality varies. In Halliday's (1985) term, *epistemic* modality is *probability* within the *modalization* type with the value of high- certain, median- probable, and low-possible. In the op-ed genre, high value of *epistemic* modality is more often used.

Excerpt 11: medium value deontic modality use

Colleges and universities **are supposed to** be bastions of unbridled inquiry and expression, but they probably do as much to repress free speech as any other institution in young people's lives. In doing so, they discourage civic engagement at a time when debates over deficits and taxes should make young people pay more attention, not less. (Move 1: main argument, from Feigning Free Speech on Campus)

> Excerpt 12: high value deontic modality use
> The disastrous results of the incentive structure we've created have been on full display in recent days. Moving forward, Washington **must** fundamentally re-evaluate the messages it sends to all parties because we've currently set them on the path to even greater — and potentially unmanageable — escalations in the future. (Move 5: Restate main argument, from America's Failed Palestinian Policy)

> Excerpt 13: medium value epistemic modality use
> A duty to help **would not require** bystanders to endanger themselves or provide help beyond their abilities; it **could simply require** warning someone of imminent danger or calling 911. It wouldn't bring back the two boys, but it **would require** us to accept our fundamental moral duty to help those in grave peril. (Move 5: Restate main argument, from Can the Law Make Us Be Decent?)

4.3.3 The pronoun 'I' is not likely to appear in op-ed articles.

Unusual appearance of these pronouns represents that writers are willing to be projectedthemselves as neutral subjects who can see the event objectively which can strengthen their point of view. On the other hand, there is occasional use of pronoun 'I'. 'I' is used mostly to talk about their personal experience in the process of supporting their claim rather than to express personal opinions. That is to say, there is rare use of the expression of 'I think…' or 'I believe'. However there is an interesting use of pronoun 'I' in the form of expression 'I believe,' in move 3 where the writer introduces the different point of view.

Excerpt 14: use of ‘I believe’ in move 3

To be clear, ***I believe*** that race-conscious affirmative action is necessary, and often beneficial — though I am not hopeful that the court will agree. Our study showed that eliminating it would reduce the number of black students by about 60 percent, and the number of Hispanic students by about one-third, at selective private schools. We also showed that there is no substitute policy, including preferences based on socioeconomic class, which would generate as much racial and ethnic diversity as affirmative action, given the large numbers of working-class non-Hispanic whites and Asians in the applicant pool. (move 3: Present differing point of view, from Moving Beyond Affirmative Action)

Excerpt 15: use of ‘I’ pronoun to support the claim with the writers’ personal experience

I went to lunch recently with a fine history teacher, Derrick Davis, who is better known in my neighborhood as the basketball coach at Reagan High. He has a particularly wide vantage on the decline of Reagan High, which opened in the 1960s as the pride of the city, complete with consecutive state football championships, national academic recognition and a choir that toured Europe. (Move 2: State main argument and support, from when grading is degrading)

5. Implication in L2 education

5.1 Op-ed genre based lesson plan

Rothery’s (1996) teaching and learning cycle consists of five pies: building the context, modeling and deconstructing text, joint construction of the text, independent construction of the text and liking the related text (see fig. X). I have added one more pie to include in the evaluation part (see fig. X). According to Feez (2002), the teaching and learning cycle reflects Halliday and Vygotsky's notion of learning. That is, "education as enabling people to learn…to learning in an organized, progressive and systematic manner according to some generally accepted principles about what people ought to know" (Halliday, 1981, p.1). Also, Vygotsky's learning through interaction, i.e. collaborative learning, and education through scaffolding are realized in the cycle. To be more specific, the cycle itself serves as scaffolding for learners while withdrawing its support step by step for the independent production. Hyland (2003) also notes that "this model represents a *visible pedagogy* in which what is to be learned and assessed is made clear to students, as opposed to the invisible pedagogy of process approaches" (p.26). Table X shows detailed contents about what students are expected to do in each step of the cycle.

Table 3: Detailed steps of Rothery's teaching and learning cycle

1. Building the context (SFL) Field:	**Building field, tenor, and mode** (Second order field and tenor always changes as the topic of model text changes since they are in the realm of language dimension rather than social dimension)
	First order field – finding social purpose of the genre through a group discussion Second order field – getting background knowledge about contents and topic through various other sources such as video, internet, and photograph (it changes every time when the topic changes e.g. Affirmative action law, Freedom of speech on campus)
Tenor:	First order tenor – finding social relationships between participants the genre through a group discussion

Mode:	Second order tenor – discussing participants relationship from the text
	Finding language mode of the op-ed genre as groups Discussing linguistic (lexico-grammatical) feature of the genre as groups e.g. word brainstorming about the topic
2. Modeling and deconstructing text (ESP/ Move analysis)	Identifying genre structure and features from the model text as groups Finding moves of the text by identifying main ideas of each moveas groups Finding linguistic (lexico-grammatical) feature of the model text as groups
3.Joint construction of the text	Group activities focusing on setting up students' own ideas and initiation of text
4.Independent construction of the text	Individual writing activities
5. linking the related texts	Comparing texts with other texts e.g. (1) Ss exchange their text with other Ss' text to compare them with their own e.g. (2) Ss get a new newspaper op-ed article that has similar topic to compare it with their own Self-Evaluation Peer feedback activities
6. Evaluation	Feedback and Evaluation from the instructor (written feedback of error correction and portfolio assessment)

Table 4 is a sample lesson plan based on table 3. I should note that this plan is for one topic and thus details of the plan need to be changed as the topic covered in the class throughout a semester changes every two weeks. Thus this plan covers two weeks among sixteen weeks (one semester).

Table 4: A sample genre-based lesson plan

Genre	Newspaper op-ed articles [Moving Beyond Affirmative Action: See Appendix A]
Social purpose of the genre	Public discussion and persuasion to the readers
Target level of learners	College juniors in Korea(EFL) who have advanced reading and intermediate writing abilities. They are in a reading and writing class that aims at improving students' general reading and writing ability.
Lesson purpose	At the end of the newspaper op-ed genre study, students will be able to understand social contextssuch as 'Affirmative Action' in the USA and how to write persuasive/argumentative discourse essays in English by learning about the newspaper op-ed genre.
Activities	
1. Building the context	1.1 (2nd order Field) Building social/situational context: watching the movie "Bring it on 3" to realize the social situation that led to 'Affirmative Action Law' and discuss what they saw in the movie as a group. [See Appendix B]
	1.2 A sample text of news article from opinion section called 'Moving beyond affirmative action' in New York Times is provided to students after discussing the movie. [See Appendix A]
	1.3 (1st order Field & Tenor) Building genre context: Discuss sections of newspapers and the social purpose and relationship of participants of the op-ed section as a group.

	1.4 (Mode) Building language context: Discuss what 'Affirmative Action' might mean as a group, discuss some important lexical items in the sample text that are necessary to understand the contents.
2. Modeling and deconstructing text	2.1 Students will indentify each paragraph's main ideas individually and then compare them with their group members and later with the whole class. They discuss where they find the main ideas of paragraphs and the role of each paragraph in the whole article. Ultimate goal of this activity is guiding students to find move steps and contents of each step
	2.2 Students will discuss the meaning of some grammar structures in the article.
	2.3 Students will be provided with the same article with blanks in the sentence level which consists of main ideas in each move steps. Mostly the blanks will be the first sentence of the paragraphs because that is the place wherethe main argument of the paragraph locates. They will discuss with their group member to recreate those sentences.
3.Joint construction of the text	Students will discuss with their group to establish their own opinions about the Affirmative Action law. Students will be regrouped according to their opinions (agree/disagree/others) and then construct outlines and come up with supporting examples for their own paper as groups. The group works will be compared in the whole class level at the end.
4.Independent construction of the text	Students will outline their own essay about affirmative action in the classroom activity individually and will write a whole 400 word essay at home as homework.

5. linking the related texts	5.1 Students will exchange their written material within the group and then they will find move steps and argument statement as well as supporting sentences in others' work for the peer feedback. After the peer feedback students will have time to fix their work. (Peer feedback)
	5.2 Students will also be provided with another article about affirmative action from a different newspaper opinion section in order to compare it with the model article and their own article. (Self evaluation)
6. Evaluation	6.1 The teacher will gather students' work and return it to students later with written feedback and error correction. The work also will be evaluated with scores and this score will be included in the final evaluation. The scoring rubric will be provided to students.
	6.2 After the teacher's feedback, students will fix their work and resubmit it. The teacher and students will keep all students' written work about different topics throughout the whole semester for the portfolio assessment. (See further discussion below)
	6.3 At the end of the course there will be an exam (in class), and students will have to write a 400 word persuasive essay within one hour for the exam. This will be included in the final evaluation.

5.2 Portfolio assessment and scoring

Hyland (2004) notes that "portfolios are multiple writing samples, written over time and purposefully selected to best represent a student's abilities, progress, or most successful texts in a particular context" (p.177). My main focus on portfolio assessment is observation of progress throughout one semester. The lesson plan above will be repeated with different topics and thus, at the end of the course, students will have written about 8 essays total at least (assuming that one topic takes 2 weeks and the total weeks are 16 in one course) In order to reflectthe efforts each student put in throughout the course rather than students'previously existing ability, the portfolio assessment will focus on how much individual students have developed their writing skill from beginning to end. Table 5 illustrates how I will be measuring portfolios. Also, appendix D and F shows the scoring rubric as well as the competence statement to grade individual written work and the final exam.

Table 5. Dimensions for assessing portfolios (Weigle, 2002, p. 219; Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000)

Consistently present or high	**Characteristics of the Writer** ←→ Fit between reflection/evidence in portfolio Metacognitive awareness beyond task at hand Critical distance/perspective on self as writer/learner Quality of reflection about work (thoughtful or literal discussion?)	Consistently absent or low
Consistently present or high	**Characteristics of the Portfolio as a Whole** ←→ Variety of tasks Variety of modes of thought Awareness of reader/writer context Sense of task/purpose/conceptualizing the problem Choice and management of form(s) or genre(s)	Consistently absent or low
Consistently present or high	**Characteristics of Individual Texts** ←→	Consistently absent or low

	Engagement with subject matter Significance of subject matter Sense of topical context Resources brought to bear Amount of writing (bulk; copia) Quality of development/sustained depth of analysis Critical perspective in relation to specific subject matter	
Consistently present or high	**Intratextual Features** Control of grammar and mechanics Management of tone and style Coherence/flow, momentum, sense of direction Control of syntactic variety and complexity	Consistently absent or low

6. Conclusion

So far, I have introduced the social context of the op-ed genre, and analysis based on Halliday's (1978) concept of context and Swale's (1992) move analysis. Of course the corpus used for the analysis is not abundant enough to be considered high-profile. However, I should note that the ultimate goal of this genre analysis is applying it to teaching a reading and writing course. On the other hand, overtly teaching what I have analyzed is also not the goal of this paper. As I have presented above, the student-centered instruction is the main theme of the lesson plan and students are expected to find contextual, structural, and lexico-grammatical features of the genre through scaffolding and collaborated learning activities. By doing so, it is hoped that students can internalize the knowledge that they have discovered by themselves, which could serve as fundamental groundwork to develop their writing skills. I think the genre approach is a brilliant way of transferring writing instruction from an implicit way to an explicit one. Of course, the actual effectiveness will vary depending on how well individual teachers practice it in the classroom. However, I believe that it will lead to better learning because at least teachers are doing something instead of waiting for students to draw something out from their brains.

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[Appendix A]Moving Beyond Affirmative Action

Move 1

ON Wednesday, the Supreme Court will hear oral arguments in Fisher v. University of Texas, the latest in a long line of conservative assaults on affirmative action that dates to the late 1970s. Nearly a decade has passed since the court, in Grutter v. Bollinger, approved the continued use of race as one factor in an individualized, “holistic” review of an applicant’s qualifications for higher education. Now even such limited consideration of race is being challenged.

Abigail Fisher, who is white, graduated from a Texas public high school in 2008 and barely missed out on automatic admission to the University of Texas at Austin under the Texas Top 10 Percent Law. When she was later denied admission after an evaluation that considered a candidate’s race, she sued, alleging racial discrimination.

Supporters of race-conscious affirmative action in higher education are not optimistic that it will survive. But they shouldn’t despair. A Supreme Court ruling against the university might put ethnic and racial diversity on college campuses on a firmer footing for the long term. It would spur Americans who care about racial inequality to seek alternatives to affirmative action by addressing the deeply entrenched disadvantages that lower-income and minority children face from the beginning of life.

Move 2

Race-based affirmative action has been a woefully inadequate weapon in the arsenal against inequality. It treats the symptoms but not the root causes of an underlying social problem. It is limited to the more selective private and public colleges (those that accept fewer than half of all applicants), which together account for about 20 percent of all freshmen. By my estimate, between 10,000 and 15,000 black and Hispanic students enroll in selective colleges every year through race-conscious policies. This is about 1 percent of the entering freshman class nationwide and just 1 percent of all black and Hispanic 18-year-olds.

Graduation rates are higher for all students, not just underrepresented minority students, at more selective colleges. The trade-off is that students who are admitted through affirmative action (and who often have weaker academic credentials than their peers) are more likely to graduate toward the bottom of their class. Analyzing data from eight elite colleges (five private, three public) from 1999 and 2003, my colleague Alexandria Walton Radford and I found that one-half of black students and one-third of Hispanic students graduated in the bottom 20 percent of their class.

We also found that self-segregation dilutes the educational benefits of diversity that proponents of affirmative action rightly prize. Only half of the students in our sample reported having a roommate or close friend of a different race (or a different Hispanic ethnicity) during college. Finally, when asked about their level of satisfaction with the academic and social aspects of their college years, upper-middle-class white students reported the greatest satisfaction and working-class black students the least.

Move 3

To be clear, I believe that race-conscious affirmative action is necessary, and often beneficial — though I am not hopeful that the court will agree. Our study showed that eliminating it would reduce the number of black students by about 60 percent, and the number of Hispanic students by about one-third, at selective private schools. We also showed that there is no substitute policy, including preferences based on socioeconomic class, that would generate as much racial and ethnic diversity as affirmative action, given the large numbers of working-class non-Hispanic whites and Asians in the applicant pool.

Most important, our study found that without affirmative action, racial diversity could only be preserved if there were no racial differences in learned skills and knowledge or in college preparedness.

The racial and socioeconomic gap in academic performance is America's most pressing domestic issue. When they enter kindergarten, black children are about one year behind white children. When they graduate from high school, black teenagers are four years behind white teenagers.

Despite the No Child Left Behind law, the Race to the Top initiative and endless debate over K-12 school reforms — accountability, standards, smaller classes, more effective teachers, better pay, charter schools, extended day, yearlong schools — the performance gaps have persisted, especially at the later ages.

Move 4

If affirmative action is abolished, selective colleges and universities will face a stark choice. They can try to manufacture diversity by giving more weight in admissions to those factors that are sometimes close substitutes for race — for example, having overcome disadvantage in a poor urban neighborhood. Or they can take a far bolder step: putting their endowments and influence behind a comprehensive effort to close the learning gap that starts at birth. Higher education has a responsibility for all of education. The job of those atop the academic pyramid is not over once they've enrolled a diverse freshman class.

We need more research into the impact of factors like diet and nutrition, the amount of time parents talk and read with their kids, exposure to electronic screen time, sleep routines and the way stress outside the home affects family life. But we already know that an expansion of early-childhood education is urgently needed, along with programs, like peer-to-peer mentoring, that help low-income families support their children's learning. The first few years of life are the most critical ones, when parental investments and early-childhood interventions have a higher payoff than at later ages, particularly for disadvantaged children. Economists have estimated that the net taxpayer benefit from converting a high school dropout to a high school graduate is $127,000.

Move 5

However the court decides the Fisher case, affirmative action's days appear numbered. Seven states — Arizona, California, Florida, Michigan, Nebraska, New Hampshire and Washington — have banned racial preferences in college admissions. In 2003, in the Grutter decision, Justice Sandra Day O'Connor wrote that she expected such preferences to disappear within 25 years — by 2028. The children who would go off to college that year are already 2 years old.

Thomas J. Espenshade, a professor of sociology at Princeton, is a co-author of "No Longer Separate, Not Yet Equal: Race and Class in Elite College Admission and Campus Life."

http://www.nytimes.com/2012/10/05/opinion/moving-beyond-affirmative-action.html?_r=0

[Appendix B] A movie titled 'Bring it on 3'

A transfer student to a rough high school tries joining the cheer-leading squad and she not only faces off against the head cheerleader, but against her former school in preparation for a cheer-off competition.

http://www.imdb.com/title/tt0490822/

From this movie, it is hope that students can see the social problem that the USA has in relation to races. This is because when the main actress transfers to a high school in a poor area, we can see that the main race in the high school is different from her formal rich school where white students were predominant.

[Appendix C] Feigning Free Speech on Campus

Move 1

DESPITE high youth voter turnout in 2008 — 48.5 percent of 18- to 24-year-olds cast ballots that year — levels are expected to return to usual lows this year, and with that the usual hand-wringing about disengagement and apathy among young voters.

Move 2

Colleges and universities are supposed to be bastions of unbridled inquiry and expression, but they probably do as much to repress free speech as any other institution in young people's lives. (main argument) In doing so, they discourage civic engagement at a time when debates over deficits and taxes should make young people pay more attention, not less.

Since the 1980s, in part because of "political correctness" concerns about racially insensitive speech and sexual harassment, and in part because of the dramatic expansion in the ranks of nonfaculty campus administrators, colleges have enacted stringent speech codes. These codes are sometimes well intended but, outside of the ivory tower, would violate the constitutional guarantee of freedom of speech. From protests and rallies to displays of posters and flags, students have been severely constrained in their ability to demonstrate their beliefs. The speech codes are at times intended to enforce civility, but they often backfire, suppressing free expression instead of allowing for open debate of controversial issues.

Last month, Christopher Newport University in Newport News, Va., forbade students to protest an appearance by Representative Paul D. Ryan, the Republican vice-presidential nominee. Why? According to university policy, students must apply 10 business days in advance to demonstrate in the college's tiny "free speech zone" — and Mr. Ryan's visit was announced on a Sunday, two days before his Tuesday visit.

Also last month, a student at Ohio University in Athens, Ohio, was blocked from putting a notice on her door arguing that neither President Obama nor Mitt Romney was fit for office. (She successfully appealed.) And over the summer, a federal judge struck down the University of Cincinnati's "free speech zone," which had limited demonstrations to 0.1 percent of the campus.

In a study of 392 campus speech codes last year, the Foundation for Individual Rights in Education, where I work, found that 65 percent of the colleges had policies that in our view violated the Constitution's guarantee of the right to free speech. (While the First Amendment generally prohibits public universities from restricting nondisruptive free speech, private colleges are not state actors and therefore have more leeway to establish their own rules.)

Some elite colleges in particular have Orwellian speech codes that are so vague and broad that they would never pass constitutional muster at state-financed universities. Harvard is a particularly egregious example. Last year, incoming Harvard freshmen were pressured by campus officials to sign an oath promising to act with "civility" and "inclusiveness" and affirming that "kindness holds a place on par with intellectual attainment." Harry R.

Lewis, a computer science professor and a former dean of Harvard College, was quick to criticize the oath. “For Harvard to ‘invite’ people to pledge to kindness is unwise, and sets a terrible precedent,” he wrote on his blog. “It is a promise to control one’s thoughts.”

Move 3

Civility is nice, but on college campuses it often takes on a bizarre meaning. In 2009, Yale banned students from making a T-shirt with an F. Scott Fitzgerald quotation — “I think of all Harvard men as sissies,” from his 1920 novel “This Side of Paradise” — to mock Harvard at their annual football game. The T-shirt was blocked after some gay and lesbian students argued that “sissies” amounted to a homophobic slur. “What purports to be humor by targeting a group through slurs is not acceptable,” said Mary Miller, a professor of art history and the dean of Yale College.

Move 4

Elsewhere, rules that aim for inclusiveness do more to confuse students than to encourage debate. Earlier this year, Vanderbilt prohibited student groups (if they wished to receive university support and financing) from barring students from leadership positions based on their beliefs. The apparent goal was to prevent evangelical Christian groups from excluding gay students from leadership positions — but the policy also means that a Democrat could be elected as an officer of the College Republicans.

A 2010 study by the American Association of Colleges and Universities of 24,000 college students and 9,000 faculty and staff members found that only 35.6 percent of the students — and only 18.5 percent of the faculty and staff — strongly agreed that it was "safe to hold unpopular positions on campus."

Move 5

For reasons both good and bad — and sometimes for mere administrative convenience — colleges have promulgated speech codes that are not only absurd in their results but also detrimental to the ideals of free inquiry. Students can't learn how to navigate democracy and engage with their fellow citizens if they are forced to think twice before they speak their mind.

Greg Lukianoff, the president of the Foundation for Individual Rights in Education, is the author of "Unlearning Liberty: Campus Censorship and the End of American Debate."

http://www.nytimes.com/2012/10/25/opinion/feigning-free-speech-on-campus.html

[Appendix D]the scoring rubric for grading

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

STUDENT DATE TOPIC

	SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
CONTENT		30-27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic	
		26-22	GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail	
		21-17	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic	
		16-13	VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate	
ORGANIZATION		20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive	
		17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing	
		13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development	
		9-7	VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate	
VOCABULARY		20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register	
		17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage *but meaning not obscured*	
		13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • *meaning confused or obscured*	
		9-7	VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate	
LANGUAGE USE		25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions	
		21-18	GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions *but meaning seldom obscured*	
		17-11	FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • *meaning confused or obscured*	
		10-5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate	
MECHANICS		5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing	
		4	GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing *but meaning not obscured*	
		3	FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • *meaning confused or obscured*	
		2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate	

TOTAL SCORE READER COMMENTS

The Effect of Pairing/Grouping on Collaborative Writing of EFL University Students

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TESOL4th semester

This action research draws on peer-peer scaffolding from sociocultural theory in order to explore how different pairing affects collaborative writing tasks of undergraduate students with a wide range of English proficiency. The investigation focuses particularly on the least proficient students' engagement in language production during pair work. Six pairs were observed over four weeks while different pairing schemes were employed. Each target student was paired up with 1) a peer whose proficiency level is similar to his/hers, 2) a peer whose proficiency level is higher than his/hers, 3) a peer whose personality is similar to his/her and 4) a peer whose personality is similar to his/hers and intervened by a group leader. In the meantime, the whole class participated in collaborative writing tasks consisting of formal letter writing, descriptive writing, opinion essay writing and compare and contrast essay writing. At the end of each class, a questionnaire was given to solicit how group leaders perceived the effects of different pairings on the target students' collaboration in the writing process. The results show that 53% of the group leading teachers felt that pair work enhanced peer-peer collaboration 1) when the target students were paired up with a peer whose personality was similar to his/hers, and 2) when the teachers themselves intervened with the target students. In addition, the data revealed that pair work facilitated vocabulary and writing skills of the target students most. This study also discusses a qualitative side of the data by describing general comments from the group leaders each week. They generally felt that positive scaffolding occurred when the target students worked with more advanced peers as well as peers whose personality matched with the target students'. These findings lead the researchers to conclude that less proficient learners' performance in language production can be facilitated by their peer, especially when s/he offers to scaffold their less proficient partner rather than to dominate their interaction.

1. Introduction

This action research is to explore potential effect of grouping on collaborative writing and conducted by Christina, Kyoung-Mi and Ji-Eun, the teachers-in-training in the practicum course at Sookmyung Women's University Graduate School of TESOL. In this practicum course, we are designing lesson plans in writing instruction to prepare undergraduate GEP (General English Program) students to take the writing section of the MATE (Media Assisted Test of English) which consists of eight tasks and teaching the lesson plans we designed. We also facilitate student writing activities during the class and providing feedback on reading and writing assignments. The class consists of 26 undergraduate students who have different majors and different educational experiences at Sookmyung Women's university. Students take the GEP class to prepare for the writing section of the MATE which is one of the qualifications for graduation. We meet with the students every Tuesday from 7:50 pm to 10:30pm. The class is composed of seven groups that have three to four students having different English proficiency levels with one or two "big sisters" who are TESOL MA Practicum students that function as group leaders.

At the beginning of the semester, we noticed that the students had a wide range of proficiency, and the majority of the writing tasks centered on collaborative writing, which required collaboration among learners. Thus, less proficient students' engagement in language production of the target forms during the pair work needed to be improved. In addition, less proficient students demand a higher level of assistance or scaffolding from the teacher which results in less autonomy, less interaction with peers and less opportunity for the teacher to scaffold higher proficiency students. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to explore the effects of various group arrangements to alter less proficient students' engagement patterns in collaboration during pair work as well as to examine group leaders' perceptions about the use of pair work in the collaborative writing process.

2. Literature review

Collaborative tasks with pair and group work have become a more common practice in second language education around the world (Shehadeh, 2011) providing more opportunities for interaction in the L2 which is believe to cultivate L2 proficiency (Liang, Mohan& Early, 1998). There is no shortage of research reporting the pedagogical benefits of learner-learner interaction in an L2 context. Early studies on learner-learner interaction not only confirm that pair and group work increases learners' L2 production significantly more than the teacher-fronted class, but also helps learners produce a wider range of language functions (Liang, Mohan & Early, 1998). Recent studies also support the use of pair and group work to facilitate language learning in the classroom. For example, McDough (2004) investigated the effect of learners' engagement in pair and group activities on production of target forms in a Thai EFL context. The results indicated that learners who had participated more in pair and small group activities demonstrated significant improvement in terms of their production of those target forms (i.e., real and unreal conditionals) (McDonough, 2004).

From a theoretical perspective, a social constructivist perspective of learning justifies implementing pair and group work in the L2 classroom (Shehadah, 2011). The social constructivist perspective of learning postulates that learning occurs through social interaction as more able members of society (e.g., teachers, experts) provide learners with the appropriate level of assistance, which is referred to as scaffolding (Vygostky, 1978). Scaffolding stretches the learner's ability to perform a task that goes beyond his or her current level thus enabling the learner to perform the task independently (Vygostky, 1978). Research reveals that scaffolding also occurs in the L2 classroom in peer-peer interaction while both cognitive and linguistic development happen (Shehadeh, 2011).

From a pedagogical perspective, peer collaboration in pairs and groups can bring pedagogical advantages to the L2 context. McDonough (2004) suggests multiple benefits in L2 development as collaborative pair and group work provides learners with more opportunities for language output than teacher led activities, encourages learner autonomy and allows teachers to assist individual students. Moreover, peer-peer interaction may reduce learners' anxiety, which hampers L2 development (McDonough, 2004).

Research studies reporting the benefits of collaborative writing (CW) in a second language are less common compared to those on collaborative dialogues, yet there is no shortage of research on exploring the benefits of CW and research in this area seems promising. Shehadeh (2011) examined the effectiveness of CW in a second language and students' perceptions of it while working with 38 freshmen at a large university in the United Arab Emirates. The target students wereof low-intermediate proficiency.The students created writing samples before and after a 16-week treatment period which were then compared for data analysis. The results indicated that CW had a significant effect on students' L2 writing in terms of content, organization and vocabulary. Also, most students in the CW group found the experience positive largely because it created a good social atmosphere conducive to learning. However, some students felt that being given a choice to write alone or together would be preferable and that CW would facilitate learning only if they had a good partner.

Storch (2005) also conducted research to investigate whether CW altered the product, process and ESL student reflections on L2 writing. Students (N=23) were recruited from ESL writing classes at a large-sized Australian university and given a choice to write in pairs or individually. For data analysis, texts produced by pairs and those produced individually were compared after a four week experiment period. The results indicated that pairs produced shorter but better texts in terms of task fulfillment, grammatical accuracy and complexity. The researcher explained that pair work afforded the learners more opportunities to co-construct texts as well as gather linguistic ideas by scaffolding each other. Additionally, students' attitude to CW was assessed by interviews. Most students were positive about CW; however, a couple of students felt that pair work would be more suitable for oral activities. Moreover, some students made a comment about the fear of losing face because of their perceived poor English ability and being distracted by their peer partner during CW sessions. The concern about losing face was also mentioned in Swain and Miccoli's (1994) research. It documents a Japanese learner's strong feelings of anxiety when working in a small group completing a university course in Canada.

Proficiency differences among learners have been commonly observed in an L2 context and teachers often perceive them as a negative factor that hampers learners' acquisition. Recent studies on collaboration have also documented interesting findings about the impact of learners' proficiency (i.e., pair dynamics) on their language production and behavior during pair and group work. Kim and McDonough (2008) examined if proficiency influenced the occurrence and outcome of the target language (i.e., Language Related Episodes [LRE]) during collaborative dialogue and found that collaborating with more advanced learners contained significantly more lexical LREs and correctly resolved LREs. However, regarding patterns of their interaction, learners generally felt that they could not express their ideas working with a more advanced interlocutor. Interestingly, the learners' role was influenced largely by their interlocutor's proficiency. Watanabe and Swain (2007) also examined whether proficiency differences in pairs would affect patterns of interaction on L2 learning. Differently from Kim and McDonough (2008), they found out that learners engaging in collaborative patterns of interaction were more likely to achieve higher post-test scores regardless of their partner's proficiency. However, their conclusion is similar to that of Kim and McDonough's (2008) in that grouping different proficiency peers can provide benefits from working with one another. Thus, this is conducive to L2 learning as long as they are collaborative. Seo and Kim (2011) recently conducted research on collaboration among different levels of L2 proficiency engaged in pair and individual writing. They investigated how three pairs of Korean middle school students with different levels of L2 proficiency interact with each other and how the patterns of interaction would be reflected on CW tasks. The findings suggested that less proficient peers were able to provide assistance to more proficient peers during pair interaction, and most students showed positive attitudes toward the CW.

Results of studies on collaboration among peers in an L2 context are generally positive and supported by sociocultural theory, yet studies on collaborative writing as well as the effect of grouping on CW are relatively rare. Moreover, the pairing or grouping of learners at different L2 proficiency levels seems to influence patterns of interaction among learners, which effects L2 writing. Additionally, both more proficient and less proficient students in L2 classrooms can be beneficiaries of pairing/grouping. The GEP class is highly diverse regarding English proficiency among students, and the end goal of this class is to design/conduct collaborative writing lessons that are beneficial to all students regardless of their language abilities. Therefore, the current study sets out to examine if the pairing or grouping affects students' writing performance and behavior when they work with others (i.e., peers, teacher) in class. In order to find this out, we attempt to elicit the group leaders' perceptions on pairing and grouping and its effect on collaborative writing. Since collaborative writing is usually very challenging for lower proficiency students, we were determined to observe the students at the lowest proficiency level in the groups. We believe that this investigation would be a good initial stage to help us gain some insights into learner interactions in L2 contexts. We broke down such inquires into the following three specific questions:

1. Do the group leaders perceive that the target student's performance and behavior differ when s/he is paired up with different peers based on language proficiency and personality?
2. Do the group leaders perceive that pair dynamics help the target student improve specific linguistic areas and which linguistic areas do they perceive to have benefited?
3. Do the group leaders perceive that the target student's performance and behavior differ when the leaders intervene?

3. Method

3.1 Participants and instructional context

Twenty-five female and one male EFL learners (N=26) enrolled in the undergraduate GEP writing class at a large women's university in Seoul, Korea. They ranged in age from 18 to 27 years old. Each student had taken the MATE test, an English aptitude test made by the university, prior taking the GEP course. Their scores on the MATE test, the universities entrance and graduation English exam, vary from Rudimentary to Commanding. Prior to university, these students had studied EFL (except one with 10 years in America) in their middle school and high school for six years.

For the action research project, six target students (1-2 from each group) with lower proficiencies were chosen. The participants L1 backgrounds were Korean, Chinese and Mongolian. According to the MATE test, the six target students were considered to be lower leveled in comparison to other members in their groups. They were accustomed to predominantly teacher-centered instruction, rote learning, memorization and solitary work in their previous learning experiences. It is important knowing that the writing skills of the participants were rather basic because their previous experiences in English writing beyond the sentence level were extremely limited. For some students, their speaking proficiency was low compared to their writing proficiency which limited the amount of interaction and hindering the overall writing process. Therefore, lower level students met with adversity when carrying out CW tasks.

Based on these considerations, the research sought to shed light on (a) how effective CW would be if they were paired in different arrangements, (b) whether the group leaders perceive the pair dynamics differently when a lower proficiency student was paired up with a higher proficiency peer, teacher or with a similarly leveled student. It was also an aim of the research to find out how these students felt about the activity.

3.2 Materials

Four weeks of collaborative writing tasks that elicited the target structures in context of the unit theme were created by each week's group leaders. Each class involved five tasks, starting with a warm-up task and ending with a final task of writing collaborative essays in pairs.

3.2.1 Data collection and analysis

The data was collected by a questionnaire that was given out to the group leaders after each week of the four week experiment.

① Group leaders' perception (see Appendix A)

The questionnaire included two Likertscale questions regarding pair activities and one multiple-choice question about the aspects of different pair work arrangements observed by the group leaders.

② Group leaders' general comments (see Appendix A)

The questionnaire also included a box in which they could write the comments after they had competed the Likertscale questions.

3.2.2 Procedure schedule

The experiment was conducted over four weeks with target students paired up with different peers as illustrated in Table 1. Target students were paired up with peers according to their proficiency or similar personalities. Student proficiency levels are marked next to the name of students according to the results of the MATE test students took at the beginning of the course. From each group, one target student was selected and observed with care from each group leader. The target students were selected either by low proficiency either in writing or speaking. Since target students were occasionally absent or paired with each other, not all of them were observed in certain weeks.

Table 1 Target Students

	Week 9		**Week 10**	
	Target Student	Similar Proficiency Peer	Target Student	Higher Proficiency Peer
Group 1	Zhang (MM)	Goeun (MM)	Zhang (MM)	Kate (MM)
Group 2	Yeonsoo (MM)	Angela (MM)	Yeonsoo (MM)	Yeji (MH)
Group 3	Shine (R)	Namuunaa (MM)	Shine (R)	Lydia (MM)
	Namuunaa(MM)	Shine (R)	Namuunaa (MM)	Maria (MH)
Group 4	Haena(ML)	Diana (MM)	Haena (ML)	Yeji(MH)
Group 5	-	-	Youngeun (ML)	Sarah (ML)
Group 6	Sarah (ML)	Linda (RH)	-	
	Week 11		**Week 12**	
	Target Student	Peer with similar personality	Target Student	TS pair with teacher intervention
Group 1	Zhang (MM)	Seungmi (MM)	Zhang (MM)	Sarah (ML)
Group 2	Angela (MM)	Sarah (ML)	Angela (MM)	Namuuna (MM)
Group 3	Shine (ABSENT)	-	Shine (R)	Namuunaa, Lydia (MM, MM)

	Namuunaa (MM)	Maria (MH)	Namuunaa (MM)	Lydia. Shine (MM, RH)
Group 4	Haena (ML)	Yeji (MH)	Haena (ML)	Yeji (MH)
Group 5	-	-	Young eun (ML)	Seong mi (MM)
Group 6	Sarah (ML)	Angela (MM)	Sarah (ML)	Zhang (MM)

MATE LEVELS: ***R*** *(rudimentary),* ***ML****(moderate low),* ***MM****(moderate mid),* ***MH****(moderate high)*

The experiment was conducted over four weeks as illustrated in Table 2. Following the course syllabus, all writing tasks were at the five paragraph essay level and consisted of formal letter writing, descriptive writing, opinion essay writing and compare and contrast essay writing. Due to the lesson plans, the main writing tasks were conducted near the end of the classes and students were given approximately 30 to 40 minutes to complete the writing tasks.

Table 2 Writing prompts

Week	Prompt	Function
Week 9	The theme was jobs and careers with students required to collaboratively write a cover letter in pairs during class. The group leaders observed the target student during the final writing task to see how effective it was for the target student to work with the peer who had a similar writing proficiency.	**Formal letter writing**
Week 10	The theme was shopping with target students required to collaboratively describe a graph with a higher proficiency peer. The first observation was done during the third task	**Descriptive writing**

	when target students had to write a description about a graph in pairs. The second observation was made during the fifth task in which they had to describe a graph about shopping which they had generated in groups by carrying out a survey.	
Week 11	The theme was music where target students worked together with a comfortable peer during the fourth and fifth tasks. The groups were divided into pairs to compose a full essay. After they had composed different parts of the essay, they revised and published the essay and gathered them to create one whole essay.	**Opinion essay**
Week 12	Students wrote a point by point analysis for the third task and a block formatted compare and contrast essay for the fifth task. The third task students wrote about Western and Eastern cultural differences. Pairs were to write different parts of the essay and collect them together to form into one essay. For the fifth task, students wrote a block essay and compared the similarities and differences of French and Indian food.	**Compare & contrast essay**

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Survey questions

① How helpful was it?

Figure 1 Survey question 1

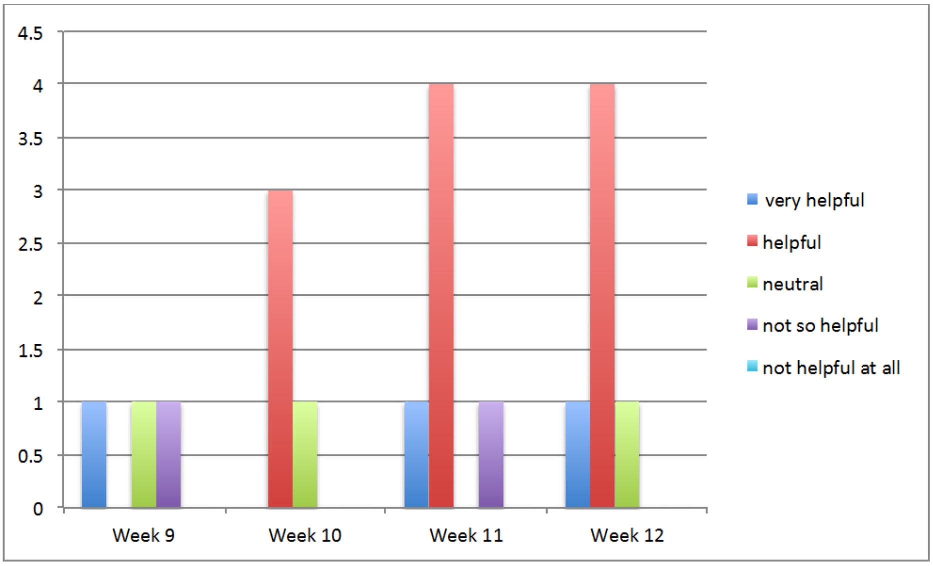

Figure 1 indicates how helpful different types of pair work was viewed in collaborative writing tasks. Week 11 and Week 12 drew the most positive results. <u>10 out of 19 group leaders (53%)</u> felt that it was helpful when the target student was paired up with a peer whose personality is similar to his/hers and when the teachers themselves were involved in the pair with the target student.

② Which linguistic area did it help?

Figure 2 Survey question 2

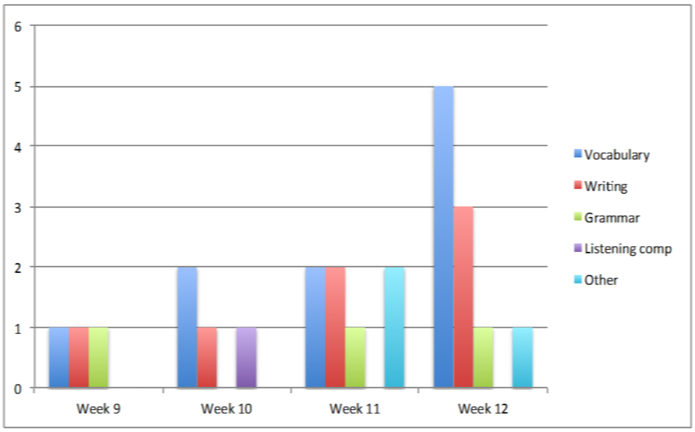

Figure 2 shows which linguistic areas pair work helped in general. It depicts that the teachers (72%) felt that pairing or grouping benefited vocabulary and writing among different linguistic areas. Vocabulary (40%) was selected most frequently followed by writing (32%). Grammar (12%) and other areas (e.g., spelling) (12%) were third, and listening comprehension was least selected (4%).

Students needed vocabulary and to be aware of the writing format in order to complete collaborative writing tasks. These linguistic areas were scaffoldedby the teacher and materials. Theywere also reinforced in the class while being improved by practice. However with respect to grammar and listening comprehension, the results show that pairing was not effective. The lack of significance in grammar was surprising because it was expected that in CW, in view of the social constructivist perspective, it would lead to improved accuracy in student writing. Indeed, other studies (Storch, 2005; Strorch& Wigglesworth, 2007) did find significant differences in favor of CW for grammatical accuracy. It is possible that students were unable to provide the necessary scaffolding for each other ofthe needed grammar accuracy due to their low proficiency in English. In terms of listening, although students had to interact with each other in order to fulfill tasks, it was not an area that was emphasized upon during the course. Therefore, it is possible that the students could not acquire the skills that could lead to improved listening.

③ How comfortable did the target students seem to be?

Figure 3 Survey question 3

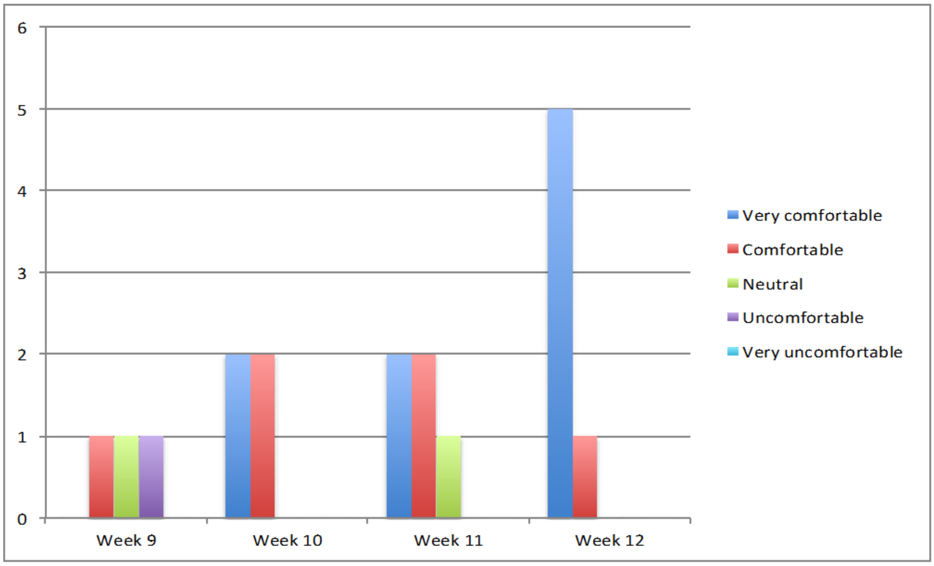

Figure 3 shows the results on how comfortable the target student appeared to be when they were paired with peers with different levels of proficiency. Teachers indicated that the target students seemed to be *very comfortable* as the treatment weeks progressed. In week 12, *very comfortable* received the most votes from the leading teachers throughout the entire treatment period. <u>5 out of 9 teachers (55%)</u> indicated that the target students seemed to be very comfortable when the teachers themselves intervened in week 12.

4.1.1 General comments

① Week 9

In week 9, students were to write a cover letter with a peer with similar proficiency.

Table 3 General comments of week 9

Groups	Teacher Comments
Group 1	Zhang and Go-eun cooperated actively. They did a great job. But sometimes Zhang was a little bit shy to speak. I hope to see him become confident about speaking.
Group 2	Yeon-soo only passively responded to Angela. I hope to see them being more interactive and cooperative as equal partners. However, it helped in linguistic parts; Angela took the role as a teacher and this helped provide Yeon-soo with directions which were helpful to complete the tasks.
Group 6	Linda was so disturbing to Sarah that she had difficulty in doing the task. Completing the task was very challenging.

Week 9 had mixed perceptions from the teachers. Some teachers commented that they “cooperated actively” or it was “helpful to complete tasks”. On the other hand, teachers also mentioned that the target students were shy or took a passive role in general. Group 6 had extremely negative results due to the low level of the target student and peer and personality differences. In general, week 9 had the most neutral or negative comments from the group teachers.

② Week 10

In week 10 target students worked together with a peer with a higher proficiency describing a graph based on their own surveys.

Table 4 General comments of week 10

Groups	Teacher Comments
Group 1	Zhang and Kate worked really hard and they tried to cooperate a great deal.
Group 2	Angela and Go-eun became good friends after this class. Angela showed a lot of affection for Go-eun. They were helping each other. Angela took a more active role which differed from my expectations.
Group 3-a	Namuunaa seemed comfortable working with Maria.
Group 3-b	In Shine and Lydia's case, Shine didn't have time to complete her reading homework, so she couldn't participate much. Lydia had some difficulties because she was doing the writing mostly alone. Shine constantly apologized to Lydia that she couldn't help Lydia with the tasks.
Group 4	To avoid the dominance issue, we encouraged them to help each other. Haena seemed comfortable working with Yeji when making sentences.
Group 5	Doona was very sick, so couldn't perform as well as usual and wasn't very helpful.

In general, most of the groups worked better when they were paired with a peer with a higher English proficiency than the previous week. Groups 1, 2, 3-a, and 4 drew positive results according to the group teachers. In the case of groups 3-b and 5, one target student didn't complete her homework and another was severely sick. The results show that other variables affect collaborative pair work.

③ Week 11

Target students worked with a comfortable peer writing an opinion essay about Korean pop music.

Table 5 General comments of week 11

Groups	Teacher Comments
Group 1	Their characters and personalities are really good and it enhanced their cooperation.
Group 2	Even though Angela and Sarah are good friends with each other, their proficiency levels are very different. I think Sarah's low proficiency inhibited them from getting the tasks done effectively.
Group 3	Namuunaa seemed comfortable working with Maria which was different when she paired with her in the beginning. Maria has a higher proficiency and Namuunaa always seemed to be shy. Today, Namuunaa received help from Maria and did great collaborative work.
Group 4	Haena wanted to be Yeji's partner, but she had her own parts to write. When it came to making sentences, Yeji helped Haena a lot. However, since Haena completed her homework well, she also wanted to use some new words which she got from her homework but was still shy to make in her own voice. She needed my help for checking whether it was okay or not.
Group 6	Sarah and Angela had a wide proficiency gap, therefore it was not that helpful.

Target students worked better when they were paired with a comfortable peer. Most of the teachers assigned their target students to a peer who had a slightly higher proficiency, indicating this lead to positive results in CW.

Only groups 2 and 5 drew negative results that were significantly different from others. The difference between the two groups and the others is that the rest of the target students worked with their original group members, while the target students from groups 2 and 6 were paired with another group member because the group leaders were to be the class teachers of that week. The target students had never been paired up with the peer before to fulfill a task. It shows that even though students know each other well, they were not well enough aware of each other's strengths and weaknesses to collaborate with each other effectively.

④ Week 12

Target students collaboratively wrote a compare and contrast essay with a comfortable peer with involvement of the group teacher.

Table 6 General comments of week 12

Groups	Teacher Comments
Group 2	It worked really well for the group with my target students. It's probably because the target students trusted the teacher and because she was scaffolded additionally.
Group 3	Students were paired with a different group with different personalities. Namuunaa and Shine felt rather shy and didn't participate as much. However, when they paired with Lydia, they performed better. I think this is because they have been working together for a long time, and they feel

	comfortable around me too.
Group 4	Haena had some great ideas but when she had to put those things together, she needed Yeji's help.
Group 5	Young-eun really did a lot of writing tonight, which helped her confidence. I think she felt comfortable with me because we've been working together for the past few months.
Group 6	Sarah worked well with her partner because she had worked with her numerous times. She seemed comfortable with my presence.

Week 12 drew the most positive results of the experiment. Most of the target students actively participated in the collaborative writing process. Also, it is indicated that students felt comfortable with the tasks and their partners since they have been involved in the course for many weeks. It is possible that the target students and the teacher knew each other well enough to give and receive effective scaffolding to accomplish tasks.

However, group 3 had significantly different responses compared to other groups. In the case of this group, target students were to join a different group. The teacher commented they were too shy to participate because the new members were relatively outgoing. The group they were combined with was group 2 which paradoxically showed that they had success in collaborative writing. Possible reasonsfor these conflicting results are proficiency and personality factors. The target students in group 2 have a higher English proficiency compared to the students in group 3. Also, the target student in group 2 is much more outgoing and less afraid to make mistakes in general than in group 3. Another reason is that these target students have never collaborated together in the past. This indicates familiarity and personality variables affect the collaborative process as well as proficiency factors.

4.1.2 Answers to research questions

① Research Question 1

Do the group leaders perceive that the target students' performance and behavior differ when

s/he is paired up with different peers based on language proficiency and personality?

- ***Yes, the results show that the group leading teachers perceived that their target students' performance and behavior were affected by their peers with different language abilities and personal traits.***
-

② Research Question 2

Do the group leaders perceive that pair dynamics help the target student improve in specific

linguistic areas and which linguistic areas do they perceive to have benefited?

- ***Yes, the group leadersperceived that different pairing and grouping affected the target students' performance in particular linguistic areas (i.e., vocabulary & writing) positively.***
-

③ Research Question 3

Do the group leaders perceive that the target student's performance and behavior differ when the leaders intervene?

- ***Yes, the group leaders perceived that their intervention affected the pair dynamics in a positive direction by indicating that most target students (83%) seemed to be very comfortable in week 12.***

5. Conclusion

This small scale investigation revealed that pair work was perceived to be more helpful in collaborative writing when target students were paired with comfortable peers and their teacher. Towards the end of the study, the results showed more positive responses. Specifically, the target students seemed to feel more comfortable and familiar with the tasks and their peers which can serve as a barometer of success in collaborative writing.

However, this treatment has some limitations. First, the number of surveys that were carried out was different each week due to the absence of the target students in certain classes. Therefore, it was difficult to measure the target students' involvement in certain weeks. Furthermore, in terms of measuring linguistic areas, the results were fully dependent on the group teacher's perceptions. Since each week revolved around different functions of writing, there was no output to compare the linguistic areas that were aided during each week's collaborative writing process.

The findings have implications that targets students' performance in collaborative writing is affected by pair dynamics. Therefore, in order to facilitate constructive pair work in L2 classrooms, teachers may need to prepare learners more carefully for group and pair work. Prior to assigning learners in pairs or groups, teachers may also need to consider important factors such as personality and previous knowledge and experience of the students. In addition, teachers need to pay attention to pair dynamics in class to facilitate CW. Furthermore, less proficient learners may feel more comfortable interacting with advanced learners if the more proficient learners assume an expert role rather than a dominant role. Storch (1998) and Williams (2001) claimed that low-proficiency students may not benefit from collaborative tasks with respect to their language accuracy. Therefore, teachers may need to encourage more advanced learners to take on a roll more like that of a facilitator when interacting with their less proficient peers.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire: Group leader survey

Type 1A *lower English proficiency student is paired up with a peer whose proficiency level is similar to his/hers.*

1. How helpful was it when the target student was paired up with a peer whose English proficiency is similar to his/hers? Please check one.
   1) Very helpful
   2) Helpful
   3) Neither helpful nor unhelpful
   4) Not so helpful
   5) Not helpful at all
2. If it was, which linguistic area did it help? Check all that apply.
   1) Vocabulary
   2) Writing
   3) Grammar
   4) Listening comprehension
   5) Other (explain)
3. In general, how comfortable did the target student seem to work when s/he was paired up with a peer whose English proficiency is similar to his/hers? Please check one.
   1) Very comfortable
   2) Comfortable
   3) Neither comfortable nor uncomfortable
   4) Uncomfortable
   5) Very uncomfortable

General Comments:

Appendix B

Type 2A *lower English proficiency student is paired with a peer whose proficiency is higher than his/hers.*

1. How helpful was it when the target student was paired up with a peer whose English proficiency is higher than his/hers? Please check one.
   1) Very Helpful
   2) Helpful
   3) Neither helpful nor unhelpful
   4) Not so helpful
   5) Not helpful at all
2. If it was, which linguistic area did it help? Please check all that apply.
   1) Vocabulary
   2) Writing
   3) Grammar
   4) Listening comprehension
   5) Other (explain)

3. In general, how comfortable did the target student seem to work with a peer whose English proficiency is higher than his/hers? Please check one.
   1) Very comfortable
   2) Comfortable
   3) Neither comfortable nor uncomfortable
   4) Uncomfortable
   5) Very uncomfortable

General comments:

Appendix C

Type 3A ***lower English proficiency student is paired with a peer whose personality is similar to his/hers.***

1. How helpful was it when the target student was paired up with a peer whose personality is similar to his/hers with? Please check one.
   1) Very helpful
   2) Helpful

3) Neither helpful nor unhelpful
4) Not so helpful
5) Not helpful at all

2. If it was, which linguistic area did it help? Please check all that apply.
    1) Vocabulary
    2) Writing
    3) Grammar
    4) Listening comprehension
    5) Other (explain)
3. In general, how comfortable did the target student seem to work with a peer whose personality is similar to his/hers? Please check one.
    1) Seemed comfortable a lot
    2) Comfortable
    3) Neither seemed comfortable nor uncomfortable
    4) Uncomfortable
    5) Very uncomfortable

General comments:

Appendix D

Type 4*A pair of lower English proficiency students intervened by the group leader.*

1. How helpful was it when the target student was paired up with a peer whose personality is similar to his/hers and intervened by the group leader? Please check one.

1) Very helpful
2) Helpful
3) Neither helpful nor unhelpful
4) Not so helpful
5) Not helpful at all

2. If it was, which linguistic area did it help? Please check all that apply.

1) Vocabulary
2) Writing
3) Grammar
4) Listening comprehension
5) Other (explain)

3. In general, how comfortable did the target student seem when working with a peer whose

personality is similar to his/her and had been intervened by the group leader? Please

check one.

1) Seemed comfortable a lot
2) Comfortable

3) Neither seemed comfortable nor uncomfortable
4) Uncomfortable
5) Very uncomfortable

General comments:

Ⅱ. Special Contribution

Choosing a Thesis Question

Jeran Miller

For many of those making their way through the Master's degree program, the final hurdle is writing a long, academic paper known as a master's thesis. Your professors are likely to encourage you to be thinking about the thesis long before it's actually due – often over a year in advance. But, no matter how long you delay it, you will eventually have to select a thesis topic. This article can help you with that part of the process.

The first thing to understand about the early stages of planning a thesis is that it's not enough to simply say, “I'm going to write about X,Y, or Z”. Instead, you should be thinking in terms of a *specific question* that you want to answer. For example, instead of saying “I'm going to write about teaching reading”, you might ask, “What effect does a short reading warm-up have on the speech rate of sixth-grade Korean students of English?”. You want to formulate this question as precisely as you can. It gives you and your professors the clearest idea of exactly what it is that you'll be doing, and it allows you to begin thinking about your project's methodology.

There are four primary things to consider when deciding on your thesis question, which the rest of this paper will address in detail. They are as follows:

1.) Research interests

2.) Previous research

3.) Practicality

4.) Simplicity

The first consideration is research interests, because more than anything, you're going to want to work on a question that you find personally interesting. After all, you'll be spending a great deal of time and energy on your project, and by the time most people are finished, a lot of them feel completely burned out on the subject matter they've chosen. Ask any professor: students in their last semester are notoriously hard to motivate and often struggle to stay on schedule. Part of this is that they simply get sick of working on the same thing every day. Choosing a topic that you enjoy learning about is one of the best ways to fight this fatigue and maintain your momentum throughout the thesis semester.

It is also important to try to harmonize your thesis work with the interests of whatever professor(s) will be advising you. As you can imagine, it makes your work infinitely easier when the person you're consulting actually knows what you're talking about. Because they are familiar with your chosen field of research, they're likelier to suggest helpful sources, provide good direction, and correct your errors when necessary. The end result will almost certainly be better, and your project will have proceeded more smoothly as a result. Consider the recent case of a TESOL student who spent hours upon hours creating a corpus of spoken language for the purposes of his or her project, only to learn during a chance meeting with another professor that better such corpora are already available for free. Having an advisor who shares your interest in the thesis topic could potentially save you a lot of trouble.

Once you know what interests you, also take some time to browse through some of the academic work that's already been done in that area. As you're reading, look for gaps: places where questions remain to be answered. There is, in every field of research, the possibility of doing something new and different. Try to find where that space exists in your particular area of interest. A great resource for this kind of information is the discussion sections of existing articles, since they often suggest places where more research work could be done. Ideally, you want to find a thesis question that is both appealing to you and important to others in the field, but hasn't yet been addressed properly by someone else. The only way to do this is to read, familiarizing yourself with the research done on whatever engages you.

At this point, it would make sense to begin writing down a few questions that you've formulated as a result of your reading. Once you have this list of possibilities, begin considering the practicality of the various questions. Ask yourself if you would actually be able to answer them. Do you have the resources that you would need – the equipment, the subjects, the money, etc.? Do you also have the time? You'll have to consider your project's time table and how busy your daily schedule is going to be. Remember, you will need a lot of time to revise and edit your writing, so your research will need to be finished well before the actual due date. If you're uncertain, talk to your advising professor, who may have a good idea of which questions are really feasible for you.

The question of how much time is needed to complete the project is probably the most under-considered factor in choosing a thesis project. Read this and take it to heart: you want to make your project as simple as you can, while still meeting the standards of a master's student. The odds are that you have other, important responsibilities to attend to, and you're likely to find it harder to stay on schedule than you anticipated. Moreover, some students find themselves bogged down in overly ambitious projects, with questions that require more time and effort to answer than they are able to commit to. Your project will get bigger than you expect, so remember to keep it simple.

Your thesis project will be a big commitment of time and energy. It is, after all, the culmination of your efforts in the MA program. You'll want to pick a good thesis question to build it around, so consider your interests, previous research, your time, and the resources at your disposal. Try to enjoy it, and create something that demonstrates your passion and competence in foreign language instruction.

Ⅲ. Student Addition

Exploring Bilinguality

Sukyoung Chon (Sue)

1. Introduction

Determining what bilingualism is is an extremely daunting challenge. Bilingualism is a complicated and diverse concept in its academic definition, but in day-to-day life it is a relatively simple issue and the number of bilingualsin the world has been growing. In this essay I will seek to analyze two main issues. I will do this through referring to the book *Bilingual: Life and reality* by François Grosjean (2010). The first issue to be covered is how we define being bilingual. After reading the definition of a balanced bilingual, as some who can activate in two languages perfectlyand effortlessly, I started to doubt whether I could define myself as bilingual. The second issue is how to support children in the learning of two languages simultaneously. It has been shown that children face a range of different challenges when acquiring a second language in relation to adults. My focus in this essay through is to evaluate appropriate education programs and family support which can protect children from losing their weaker language after inactivity. My reference text *Bilingual: Life and reality* is composed of personal dimensions to demystify bilingualism in as simple a manner as possible, and the 15 myths about bilinguals are discussed and clarified with real world references.

2. Criteria for Bilinguals

The fourth myth of this book is comparable to my first area of interest about being a bilingual. Since I started learning my second language in middle school, I have had a non-native accent when speakingEnglish and my second language is not perfectly fluent and sometimes broken.Especially, when I am trying to translate what is in my head and express myself in the language I am using, I feel I do not perform well. On the other hand, I am able to switch between two languages pretty often without noticing while speaking to Korean monolinguals and English native speakers. If I am speaking, I think in the language I am speaking at the time. Thus,I was confused with the criteria and definition of bilinguals in the text. I hope to find a clear definition fitting my situation and to clarify its vague explanation. In the fourth myth one of the definitions the author proposes is that bilinguals have equal and perfect knowledge of their languages (Grosjean, 2010: 20). To be specific, one bilingual writer Nancy Huston mentioned those who learn to master two languages in early childhood and who can move back and forth between them smoothly are true bilinguals. The book also references a diplomatic interpreterwho believes that bilinguals actually have no accent in their different languages. In effect, they are equally fluent in both languages, and they do not allow one language to interfere with the other. (Grosjean, 2010: 19). What the above sources have defined for bilinguals is contrastingly labeled as a myth by the author of the book and demonstrates the difficulty of constructing a clear and concise definition of bilingualism. Most bilingual people tend to underestimate their own language competence. In this sense, they often avoid revealing themselves as bilinguals and hide their knowledge and accent in the weaker language. I feel the same about my weaker language (English) as they do. However, the author, in fact, argues that mastering both languages perfectly without any accent in each language is an exceptional and rare condition. Most bilinguals are not like that. Many bilinguals have a stronger language and weaker language and some may not even know how to write or read in their weaker language. In conclusion, the specific type of bilingual a person ends up being peopleis often dependent on theirneeds for the language, their guiding purpose and whom they speak to. They use their languages to the degree that they need them. As a result, bilinguals are a very diverse and different group. This is good news for me, one who does not native-like fluency and accent because now I also am able to confidently state that I am a bilingual.

If bilinguals are such a diverse group, as they seem to be, is there any definitive criteria for being bilingual? If bilinguals use their different languages with different aims and with different people, how can we label them as bilingual? In the case of the United States, there are many migrants with different ethnic backgrounds. Needless to say, the knowledge and skills of their languages are highly variable. Some might be outstanding at speaking but have difficulty in reading and writing. Others may be professional translators who can read and write in the host country's language, but can hardly speak in the same language. However, the aspect they all share is that they can handle their lives by using two or more languages. There are two distinct criteriahere; language fluency and language use. Grosjean (2010) explains the current definition of bilingualism puts more emphasis on language use on a regular basis. In addition, we need to take account of the relationship between the languages the person uses and consider if the person is still acquiring the language or whether they have stopped using it(Grosjean, 2010: 25)

In consequence, the functions of the bilingual's language useare being taken into account. In the light of all the factors I clarified above, as a bilingual, my attitude on my language competence and skillshave positively changed, as the environment changes and the needs for particular language skills also change. I am able to expect that there would be new interlocutors, new domains and new situations that require new linguistic needs. Whenever

I come across them, I will think it is high time to learn new language skills and terminology of the field and go for it.

3. Ways to support children to retain their acquired languages

It is not surprising to see children acquire two or three languagesseemingly effortlessly and perfectly. As a personal example, regarding my nephew in the USA, his mother used mostly English and father spoke to him in Korean. His nanny was Mexican and used Spanish with him. He was aware of all three different languages at the same time in his early childhood, though it took more time for him to acquirefluency in those languages compared to monolingual children of the same age. What I found was, however, he went through language loss in Spanish after his nanny no longer took care of him. When he started to spend more time with his English-speaking peers at the kindergarten, his Korean became less fluent. He seemed to revert back to being a monolingual. What really interests me here is how education programs and other support might not only encourage children to learn a new language but also retain the language that they have already acquired. A case mentioned in Grosjean (2010) discussesthelanguageacquisition and loss of Stephen (Grosjean, 2010: 168). He accompanied his parents to the Garo Hills district of Assam in India. He quickly started using Garo words within a few weeks upon their arrival. When his family traveled aroundIndia, he picked up English and became a bilingual child. However, within six months after they left the Garo region, he had problemsrememberingGaro words and sentences (Grosjean, 2010: 169). The interesting point here is that a child is able to pick up languages quickly and recover a language acquired in very early childhood, and vice versa they can also orgetthose same language in a very short time.

Therefore, to encourage children to develop their language learning,especiallya second or thirdlanguage, we need to know what theirfacilitators and tools are. Grosjean(2010) suggests the language learners must have a need for the language. If a child feels that he or she really needs a particular language to communicate with caretakers, peers and familymembers or participate in activities, they choose to use the language (Grosjea, 2010: 171).

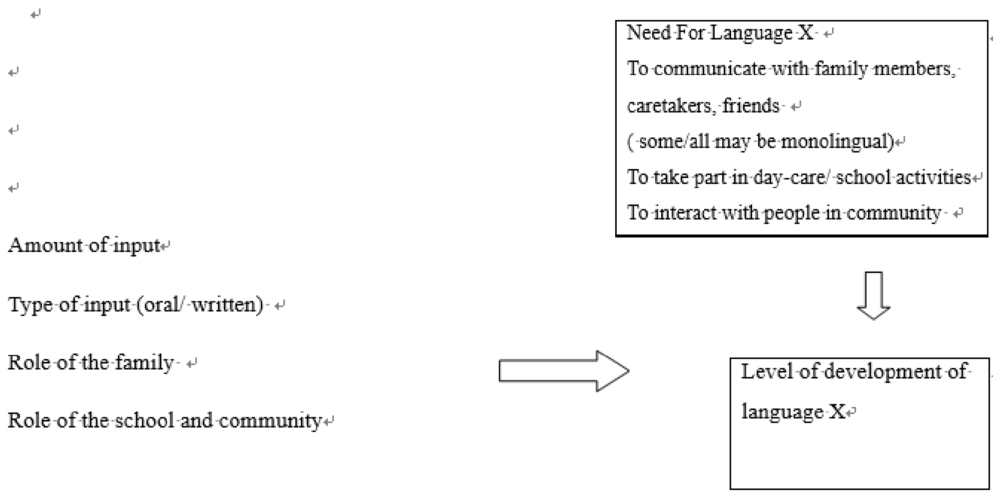

Figure 1

Factors leading to the acquisition and maintenance of another language in childre

Figure 1 (Grosjean 2010, p172), demonstrates the factors and input, that children need to receiveso as to develop a language. Arenowned specialist on childhood bilingualism, De Houwer (Grosjean, 2010: 123), describes that children must have enough input in a variety of situations from people who influence them like parents, friends and their community and school. For the role of family members, if they realize that their children are going through a languageacquisition process, they need to establish some strategiesto reinforce the weaker language at home so that the children are able to equally use both languages. If the weaker language cannot be supported at school and home, it will face a danger of being lost and replaced by the stronger language. According to Caldas (2006), he and his wife successfully taught their kids aminoritylanguage in the USA, French, and raised their children as bilinguals by providing a constant stream of reading material, videocassettes and so on. They were very disciplined in their approach to using the non-societallanguage as much as possible. The non-societal language was cherished at home. Their children had access to an authentic academic immersion program to teach reading and writing skills in their weaker language. In sum, authentic language exposure and the necessity for the development of a language are all good methods to retain an acquired language with a societal language.

Through my teachingexperience having been part of various education programs, I found some shortcomings about what language programs in Korea have been offering in regard to bilingual and bicultural immersion programs. In general, most language teachers tend to teach English in Korean and prefer to teach students only grammar and reading. Also, students are less likely to use English in class since classes under the public school system in Korea are teacher-centered. Even though there are some private education programs offering English camps and immersion programs, the length of periodis too short in order to provide enough input to language learners. As a resultmany goabroad to English-speaking countries but risk losing English upon their return to Korea. To change this tendency and the environmentdiscouraging bilingual students to acquireand retain their weaker language, we need to put more effort on making language immersion programs conducive to further activity as bilinguals. Language teachers would also be better served to speak only English in class for more language exposure and create activities for communication. By doing so, students might feel more comfortable and confident with using their own English.

4. Conclusion

In my day-to-day life I am surrounded by people who read, write and speak two or more languages. Bilingualism is a worldwidephenomenon and a valuable aspect of the human condition that we should keep researching and studying. When it comes to the relationship between education and bilingualism, promising education programs all over the world are being established to help students have real knowledge of the people and cultures involved as well as acquire two languages (Grosjean, 2010: 242). In Korea, however, our language education programs seem to lack these important attributes. We should take it as a serious goal to create environment for bilingual learners in order to make a bridge between a strong language and weaker language and continue to retain their acquired language.

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Changing English in the Light of Complexity Theory

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TESOL 2nd semester

1. Introduction

Language has always been with human beings since the dawn of man, making human beings distinct from other living species and contributing to the development of the human community as a most efficient communication tool. As that human community has been changing continually so too have those languages also changed (Schmitt & Marsden, 2006). Englishitself cannot be free from this general paradigm. Regarding changes in language, complexity theory offers a possible theoretical explanation by describing language as a complex adaptive system.The winter reading book by Schmitt and Marsden (2006) provided a short background about how English has developed while being affected by the national and social histories of English speakers.

Complexity theory sees language as a complex adaptive system. According to Larson-Freeman (2011), language changes constantly through “interactions of multiple agents in speech community” (p. 49) in adaptation to new circumstances. Language as a complex system itself is open and adaptive to energy coming into the system and self-organizes into a more complex order (Larson-Freeman, 2011). In addition, Port (2010) said that the speech community, in which language emerges from interaction with multiple agents, is also a complex adaptive system. In this perspective, “a language is a kind of social institution” (p. 313), which composes the culture of community with other social technologies, and it changes to adapt its culture over generations.

Schmitt and Marsden (2006) asserted that “there may be as many as 6,000 languages spoken in the world today”(p. 16), and state further that languages change continually and that the effect of the national and social histories of those speakers cause language change naturally and spontaneously in the way that “the historical events that affect people also affect the languages they speak” (p. 16). Furthermore, they focused on English and gave the historical framework about how English has developed over the centuries by giving specific examples of English grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling.

This paper will comment on, based on the examples that Schmitt and Marsden (2006) offered, how English as a complex adaptive system has changed while interacting with its speakers and its national and cultural environments in light of complexity theory.

2. Changes in English over time

According to Schmitt and Marsden (2006), the history of English can be divided into four major periods.Each of thesetime periods has distinct characteristics: Old English (c. 450-1100), Middle English (c. 1100-1500), Early Modern English (c. 1500-1700) and Modern English (c. 1700-present day). Over 1,500 years, there have been a number of small and big historical occasions that affected the English language until the point of today’s English has been reached.

2.1 Changing English grammar

English started its history as the language spokenby Germanic invaders into the British Isles. Under the influence of its Germanic roots, Old English was dependant on inflection and preposition“to mark the grammatical relationship between the different elements in sentences” (Schmitt & Marsden, 2006, p. 25). However, through prolonged interaction with Old Norse-speaking Scandinavian settlers in the speech community, the grammar of Old English was changed in that word order became important and even central in conveying meaning.

I observed that, through the history of English, grammar is greatly influenced from actual language use in the speech community rather than individual social, economic, or cultural forces. In many situations where speech communities meet there is a dynamic blend. The above-mentioned case of the effects of Old Norse on English syntax is a well known example. Lesser known would be examples related to Irish. As the new language of English was introduced into Ireland through a series of subsequent invasions, the aboriginal language, Irish, was marginalized and indigenous settlers started using the new language, but in their own way affected it through their native language (Harris, 1984). However, their unique usage of the language eventually formed the grammar of Hiberno or Irish English nowadays. As with this example, English grammar in all its variants emerged from the actual use of language speakers.

In terms of the emergence of grammar, Complexity Theory claims that the grammar of a language is the result of self-organization. According to the study by Ellis (1996) that Paterson (2012) cited, “in both L1 and L2, lexical items are first represented as ordered phonological strings, then there is a focus on their collocations and their sequential probabilities in word strings, and only later are these patterns of occurrence analyzed to allow syntactic and semantic classification”(p. 32). It means that regularity does not apply to language use top-down rather thanthat the grammar emerges from interaction between the parts, which are words, chunks or collocations "when they are rearranged, or dismantled and reassembled, in different ways" (p. 32).

Entering the Modern English period, however, the Enlightenment's faith in science and rational thought became dominant over England.In the case of language, like an ideology, Latin was held up as an example and many scholars or grammarians tried to write the grammar of English with regard to the Latin model. It invented prescriptive grammar to decide a set of fixed grammatical rules and correct usage of the English language (Schmitt& Marsden, 2006).As we can see historically, however, prescriptive grammar created serious confusion between the grammar that should be used and grammar that is used in reality among English speakers and learners. Grammar is not an overt invention, rather, it is the result of emergence bottom-up use of language.

2.2 Changing English vocabulary

The main characteristics of complex adaptive systems are that they are open and adaptive. It means according to Prigogine, who Larsen-Freeman (2011) cited, complex adaptive systems are open to energy coming in from the outside and continue to change and adapt to the internal dynamic present.

This feature appeared in the diachronic alterations and changes of English vocabulary. English as a complex adaptive system has always been open to borrowing many other languages' words depending on the political, economical or cultural influence of the nations that affected the speech community and to create new or compound ideasin order to be able to express new ideas or technologies as the social community developed. For example, the Old Englishborrowed many Latin words following the introduction of Christianity.In the late 8th century, Old English vocabulary was affected by Old Norse following the attacks and subsequent settlement of the Vikings. During the Middle English period, English absorbed a great number of French loanwords from 1250-1400 because of the effect of Norman French dominance over England. The Early Modern English period faced the new learning of the Renaissance with new ideas and words to describe and express them were borrowed or created mainly from Latin, French and from many other languages. The Modern English period was preoccupied with the Enlightenment's faith in science and rational thought, so the new specialist terms for science and technology were borrowed or compounded from Greek or Latin(Schmitt& Marsden, 2006).

The concept of changing vocabulary, I think, is not new or surprising because words as principle carriers of meaning cannot avoid the cycle of creation and extinction as the human community is changing ideologically and technologically. In addition, vocabulary is relatively easier to adapt from other languages as opposed to closed functional systems such as grammar and pronunciation. Korean as well as English is open to borrow vocabulary from other languages according to national power or culture fads. That is why we can hear sentences mixed with a variety vocabulary items from other languages in our conversations.

2.3 Changing English pronunciation

As Schmitt and Marsden (2006) said, "most languages are indeed very tolerant of variation" (p. 111), English also has varied depending on the speech community still does so even today. About the variation of language, the Complexity Theory perspective claims that "a language is a kind of social institution, which is inherently distributed over space and time and represented differently in its real-time behavioral details in the brain of each speaker" (Port, 2011, p. 313). This means that even one same language can be used in different ways by the different speech communities at different times. Spoken language especially cannot be divided into "discrete units like alphabetical notations; rather, it is a rough inventory of conventional speech patterns" (Port, 2010, p. 318), which is"the set of conventions about speech shared by some community" (p. 323).

The pronunciation of English, in the same way, has varied according to the region speakers come from or their competence in the language and continues to change over time (Schmitt & Marsden, 2009). During the Old English period, four main dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish, were distinguishable before the West Saxon dialect developed as a kind of standard Old English owing to the political and cultural dominance of Wessex. Throughout the Middle English period, English pronunciation was affected by French through the borrowing of French wordson the strength of Norman French dominance. From this time, the process of lengthening short vowels and The Great Vowel Shift caused "a systematic change in the values of all the long vowels of English" (p. 33) during the Early Modern English period. By the early 20thcentury, educational and official institutes taught Received Pronunciation, the way the ruling classes spoke.

I realized that we seem to speak English with the alphabet and spelling, but the sound of English is the result of interaction among regional, social, and cultural environment and speakers in the community. Not surprisingly, I can always recognize differences in the pronunciation of my foreign friends even those from same country, and my one Scottish friend, one Indonesian friend, and I were surprised to determine that we all pronounced the number *30 (thirty)* differently. When it comes to pronunciation, therefore, mutual intelligibility should be focused in the given time and space rather than seeking one specific standard set of acceptable features and their realization.

3. Implication of changing English in teaching/ learning English

As an English teacher in Korea, knowing that English changes even now can help us escape from the constraining belief that English teachers should teach learners absolutely fixed rules of English. This in turn gives us a new direction to teaching English. Language changes can happen radically so that we can see and apply them at that moment, but sometimes the changes are so small and piecemeal that we can see them only through looking at the past. For this reason, the purpose of knowing changes in English is not for keeping up with every change but for helping English learners make sense of English in its proper specific context. Even a person who is competent in English can hear words that the person has never heard, expressions that prescriptive grammar books did not provide and very awkward pronunciation. However, the person can infer and negotiate the meaning and continue to communicate regardless of many variant contingencies. Therefore, the purpose of teaching and learning English should be improving learners' communicative competence, not mastering absolute and faulty linguistic knowledge and fictitious rules of English. In terms of communicative competence, Hymes (1972) explained that communicative competence helps us convey and interpret message and negotiate meaning with interlocutors within specific contexts. It implies that our communication is interpersonal and context-embodied, and communicative competence requires the functional aspects of communication as well as linguistic aspects.

When I look back my reading class, however, I always gave my students the list of new vocabulary items and grammatical points first, and then they interpreted the text with their knowledge of vocabularies and grammar. I realized that this way helped students improve their linguistic knowledge of English only. From the perspective discussed above, I can adapt my teaching style into the way in which I let my students be exposed to the new text first, and interpret the text through guessing using the context or discussion with peers and the teacher so that my students learn how to negotiate meaning within specific contexts.

4. Conclusion

Through reviewing Complexity Theory and the history of English, we can see that language changes continually as a living system itself and adapts to the national and social environment of the speech communities in which the language is used. This provides implication in teaching and learning English focused on the communicative competence rather than mastering fixed rules.

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Ⅳ. Thesis Abstract

ABSTRACT

The Effects of Hyperlinks on Vocabulary Retention for Korean University Students

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Vocabulary learning in second language can be a daunting task for L2 learners. Through reading sourced material in L2, it is suggested that vocabulary learning provides a deeper, and successful process compared to traditional grammar translation methods. It is proposed (Hulstijin, 2001)that L2 learners infer the meaning of unknown words in a reading source provides more mental effort, thus leading to deeper storage and retrieval of given unknown words compared to when they are given the immediate translation of given unknown words. Moreover, through the use of annotation hyperlinks in a multimedia environment on vocabulary learning, it is argued (DeRidder, 2002) that this also is a beneficial method for L2 learners' word retention, but which also provides greater text comprehension from a given reading source.

The purpose of this paper is to determine if hyperlinked annotation that are provided in a given reading source provoke students to use them, and evaluate the effects on vocabulary learning and retention in the short and long-term memory. The participants for this research were 15 Korean L1 speaking university students who were given a pre-test of 8 target words

(with 10 distractors) to match with the correct definition for each target word. The second stage involved them reading the provided reading text, which included those 8 target words in a computer lab using hyperlinks that provided both L1 and L2 definitions. Following this task, the participants were then given a reading comprehension test followed by a vocabulary definition-matching test, which was the same as the pre-test. They were then given a delayed post-test to compare retention ability of the given 8 vocabulary items. All collected data was inputted in EXCEL spreadsheets and were analyzed using a Pearson Correlation calculation through SPSS (Statistical Package for the SocialSciences).

The results indicated that the use of the annotation hyperlinks was used by less than half of the participants, but of those who did use them showed an increased improvement of vocabulary learning. Furthermore, when analyzing the relationship between post-test retention and delayed post-test retention of vocabulary items, the participants demonstrated a stronger correlation with post-test retention and were more successful in vocabulary learning with the use of annotation in short-term retention. Therefore, it can be concluded that this method of vocabulary learning is beneficial for L2 learners in the Korean context, and that for L2 instructors, such a method is a viable tool to enhancing vocabulary learning for their L2 students.

ABSTRACT

The Process of Visualization Strategy Training for Young EFL Readers

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This study investigates the process of Visualization Strategy training for young readers in Korean EFL context in-depth. The purpose of this research is to determine how students improve the use of visualization strategy before, during, and after the training, which can help teachers consider some ways of applying it in the Korean teaching field. Two main questions are addressed in this study. The first one is "How do EFL young students improve the use of visualization strategy over time?" and the second one is "What are EFL young learners' perceptions of visualization strategy training?" In order to answer the questions, the visualization strategy test (VST) was used four different times and the survey in terms of the perception toward visualization training was provided after the training to 11 fourth to fifth grade elementary participants. The findings of the study generally demonstrate that individuals have different timing to develop the visualization strategy use, even though the relationship between the process of visualization strategy and the individual's aspect was not discussed. Also, their perception about Visualization Strategy was unanimously positive.

ABSTRACT

The Effect of Using Video Materials on Student Engagement in EFL Classrooms

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of video materials on middle school students' engagement levels and their affective domain by conducting English lessons utilizing video materials. For this study, three eighth grade classes from a middle school in Yongin were selected on the basis of the test of prior homogeneity. A pre-survey and post-survey were conducted before and after the experimental lessons to find out whether a significant difference occurred in students' engagement level and the results were compared. Also, observational journals recorded by the native English speaking teacher and the researcher before and during experimental lessons were compared to look for changes in students' engagement level. After the experimental lessons, students were interviewed to find how using videos during lessons influenced their engagement and interest levels for English lessons. The survey results showed that class engagement significantly increased when videos were used as compared to when textbooks and CD-ROMs were used. Results from comparing the observation sheets recorded by the native teacher and the researcher also indicated that class engagement was higher during lessons utilizing videos. The individual interviews revealed that most of the students found the videos' based lessons useful and interesting, and in particular low-level students showed more interest and

were better engaged during the class when videos were used. These results suggest that appropriate use of videos during lessons is necessary in order to raise students' engagement level and the interest for English subject.

Abstract

The Importance of Images in Language Memory

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The awareness that a particular images have a positive results on students' language achievement and attention in class, is the main reason of this research. This study brings us to understand the contributions of pictures to the overall development of children's language skills. In particular, well selected images set the right context to the language, providing a set where students can put a deeper understanding in second language acquisition. This research is very helpful to understand how to select images in a teaching environment and how to discover students' preferences when teachers have to select good images. According to the results during students' images selection, students have precise ideas of what they like and dislike. When the teacher has that piece of information, the right images aside with a good teacher's guide, can be the key to a good language lesson.According to the students' test, the results are greater when using non-conventional images (well selected images). It seems that higher is their level of interest better is their language achievement. Moreover when using good images, students respond with emotions and this helps their linguistic memory as studies prove that emotions and memory are highly connected. The conclusion of this research is that images used in English books should be selected with particular attention, in order to have an impact on students learning. The images have the power to reflect the interest of each student. The images

helps the creative minds to discover new realities, find solutions to problems, being curious about their world.

ABSTRACT

Addressing Issue in Motivation and Linguistic Ability of Korean Elementary School Students

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The purpose of this study is to help students who have shown difficulties developing their motivation and linguistic improvement in their current English education by implementing new instruction so that they directly benefit from it. Moreover, this study is to provide teachers a more comprehensive view of the Korean elementary school learners' needs as CBI course-takers and a better way to implement instruction for them. In order to fulfill this purpose, this study employed a format of action research. In particular, the eight steps of Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001)'s action research cycle is adapted: (1) the identification of a problem, (2) some sort of preliminary investigation to obtain the baseline data on the issue in question, (3) reflecting/forming a hypothesis about the source of the problem, (4) planning the action to take and the activation of the intervention strategy, (5) monitoring/collecting data, and (6) observing the outcome. The second cycle begins with (7) reflecting on the result of an initial cycle and (8) planning another intervention and enacting the next cycle in the process.One finding of this research was that the use of CBI materials promoted greater motivation and encouragement among the students for learning English than traditional lessons did. To serve as better practice for improving learners' motivation, the level of difficulty of language input, especially vocabularies,

should be carefully adjusted so that learners will not be overwhelmed or lose their motivation to learn.Secondly, the material for CBI education in an EFL context, such as Korean elementary schools, should have two essential characteristics: firstly, it should suggest familiar topics for learners with the appropriate level of difficulty of language input; and secondly, it should provide learners repeated exposure through various activities and tasks to which students can apply new information and concepts. To develop better teaching practices and to help learners, two treatments were suggested through the discussion with the three participating teachers.

ABSTRACT

Comics and Collocations: Implications for Language Teaching

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This thesis project uses a three-pronged approach to examine the potential of comic strips to teach collocations to learners of English, especially intermediate readers. First, it analyses the text and a sample of collocations therein to determine whether or not the collocations meet minimum requirements of learnability suggested by previous research. Second, the uses of the collocations from the text are compared to their uses within a corpus of spoken English. Finally, a survey is taken of primarily intermediate learners to determine whether or not they already have partial knowledge of the collocations. The results suggest that the collocations extracted from the book of comic strips are generally learnable, natural, and logical target language content for learners of intermediate reading ability. This conclusion offers further evidence for ESL and EFL teachers to take comic books seriously as language input, especially in extensive reading contexts.

ABSTRACT

An Action Research Exploring the Effects of Tasks on Student Interest and Participation in Grammar Lessons in a Korean High School

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This thesis examines the effect of tasks integrated in grammar lessons in a Korean high school to increase student interest and participation in class. Compared to GTM (Grammar Translation Method), the task-based language approach was considered an effective way to increase the students' participation and revive the class atmosphere through learner-centered tasks which require natural interaction between students (Ellis, 2003). The thesis was conducted as an action research which had three cycles with three different grammar lessons respectively. Each cycle was composed of four steps following Burns (2010); planning, action, observation, and reflection. For data collection, students' surveys, attitude scales, interviews, and observations during the lessons were used. Throughout the three research cycles, task-based grammar teaching was shown to not only bring a lively and interesting environment but also increase the learners' participation in the high school English class.Most of the students found task-based grammar lessons more motivating and engaging than the GTM lessons. If task-based grammar teaching can show its benefits in improving English scores related

to the tests, it would be more welcome to most Korean high school students who are caught in a double bind between interest and test scores.

ABSTRACT

Effects of Creative Thinking Enhancing Activities on Underachievers in Technical High School

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The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of creative thinking enhancing activities (CEA) on underachievers who attend a technical high school in Korea. The study was designed under the assumption that cognitively appropriate challenge should be provided even to the students with low English proficiency. This study was different from other studies on creativity which were conducted in Korea because it targeted underachievers who attend a technical high school. This student population has been excluded from past research which employed activities enhancing creativity. This research was conducted with 21 third grade students who attend 'S' Technical High School located in Seoul. They took both types of classes in which rote learning (RL) or CEA was used for seven weeks. In the CEA centered classes, activities which were designed to develop characteristics of creative people were used. Students were allowed to express their ideas by drawing or using Korean in consideration of their low English proficiency. Various tools such as survey, interview, tests, and diary studies were adopted to investigate the influence of CEA on the participants. The results of the research questions are as follows. Firstly, the participants came to have a positive perception toward CEA. There were many participants who perceived that CEA are effective in their learning. It was noticeable that the

students who had lower proficiency among the participants had more positive perception towards CEA and they benefited more in their test scores than the others. Secondly, it could be said that participants' learning attitudes improved in that they participated more actively in the class, they enjoyed working with other classmates, and they increased the amount of their speaking (L1 and L2) in the English class. Thirdly, the participants had opportunities to reflect on their lives and they improved their test scores. Contrary to these positive findings, the participants responded that they wanted to learn English through RL methods in the future. It can be interpreted that the time span of the experiment was too short for the participants to change their perception as much as they want to learn English through CEA.

ABSTRACT

The Effect of Using Gloss and Pictures in Young Learner's L2 Vocabulary Learning

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This study reviewed the importance of gloss and picture use in second-language (English) vocabulary learning for young learners. It examined the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses plus pictures. 36 seven-year-old students participated, separated into 6 groups, using different types of glosses while reading a passage: 1) L1 (Korean) gloss, 2)L1 gloss plus picture, 3) L2 definition gloss, 4) L2 definition gloss plus picture, 5) only pictures, and 6) no gloss (control group). This study was examined in three phases depending on different forms of grammar: 1) First phase, nouns, 2) Second phase, adjectives and adverbs, and 3) Third phase, verbs. Each phase was examined using one pre-test, and two post-tests, with two different kinds of tests at each time, definition test, and recognition test. A pre-test was done one week before the experiment, a test immediately taken after the lesson, and a recall test two weeks after the lesson were taken by all groups of students. The research shows that in the immediate-test, L1 gloss using groups (L1 gloss group and L1 gloss plus picture group) had significantly higher result than other groups, however the same expected result was not shown in the recall test. This revealed that the use of L1 gloss is clearly helpful for students to gain a simple and clear meaning of target words, whereas L2 gloss plus

picture was more effective for longer vocabulary retention. As the study was to measure effectiveness, how the participants understand the clear meaning quickly and maintain the gained knowledge in a long-term memory, L1 translation usage was not the most effective method for vocabulary learning.

ABSTRACT

A Multi-Perspective Approachto Investigating Perceptionsof English Immersion Programs in SouthKorea

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The purpose of this study was to investigate Korean parents, teachers, and students' perceptions of English immersion programs based on the core features of prototypical immersion programs. In order to meet the purpose, this study addressed two research questions: (1) What beliefs do the parents, teachers, and students in Korea have about the core features of a prototypical immersion program? (2) How do the parents, teachers, and students conceptualize English immersion programs? Through surveys and interviews with the participants, the significant finding was that the core features of a prototypical immersion program are more suitable for application in countries where students learn English as a second language. The core features should be referred to in order to implement English immersion programs in Korea. However, this should be reconstructed based on the Korean context as Korean students learn English as a foreign language in schools. From the findings, it was concluded that the immersion curriculum should come from the L2 curriculum. Regarding classroom culture, the beliefs of the participants emphasized that immersion programs should follow the culture of English speaking countries. It was believed that students should be grouped with the same or similar level of L2 proficiency. Finally, this study attempted to examine how the beliefs from the survey and interviews should be applied to immersion programs. English immersion programs should be implemented as there is an emphasis on the importance of

English education in Korea due to globalization. It was also emphasized that the lower grades of elementary school are a suitable time to start immersion programs if students are to learn efficiently.

ABSTRACT

An Exploratory Study of the Efficacy of a Collaborative, Task-Based English Writing Class in a Korean University

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Current trends in EFL in Korea aim towards a more practical use of the English language. Traditional English classes have focused on the receptive skills of Reading and Listening at the expense of the productive skills of Speaking and Writing. While strides have been taken to enhance the quality of speaking instruction (through the employment of more native speaking English teachers and better training of in-service teachers), writing has, by and large, been left behind. As such, it is important to observe, notate, and consider how to best improve the quality of ESL/EFL writing instruction and integrate it into second-language curricula at all levels. The purpose of this study was to observe and illustrate a particular approach to English writing instruction, with an eye towards understanding the several issues at work (collaborative learning, task-based learning, culturally-based concerns, student appreciation and enjoyment) in the class, and understanding the effect of the classroom approach on the students' writing ability. Tools used for analysis include proficiency test (MATE) scores, readability indexes, researcher observations, and student evaluations. The results showed that the approach was successful in improving the students' overall writing ability,

that the positive effect was visible in students of all levels, and that the students enjoyed the class. This study concluded that though this particular approach is more demanding of the instructor and the student, the positive effects on the student's writing ability cannot be ignored. Further, instructors of English in Korea could benefit from adopting an approach similar to that described in this study.
