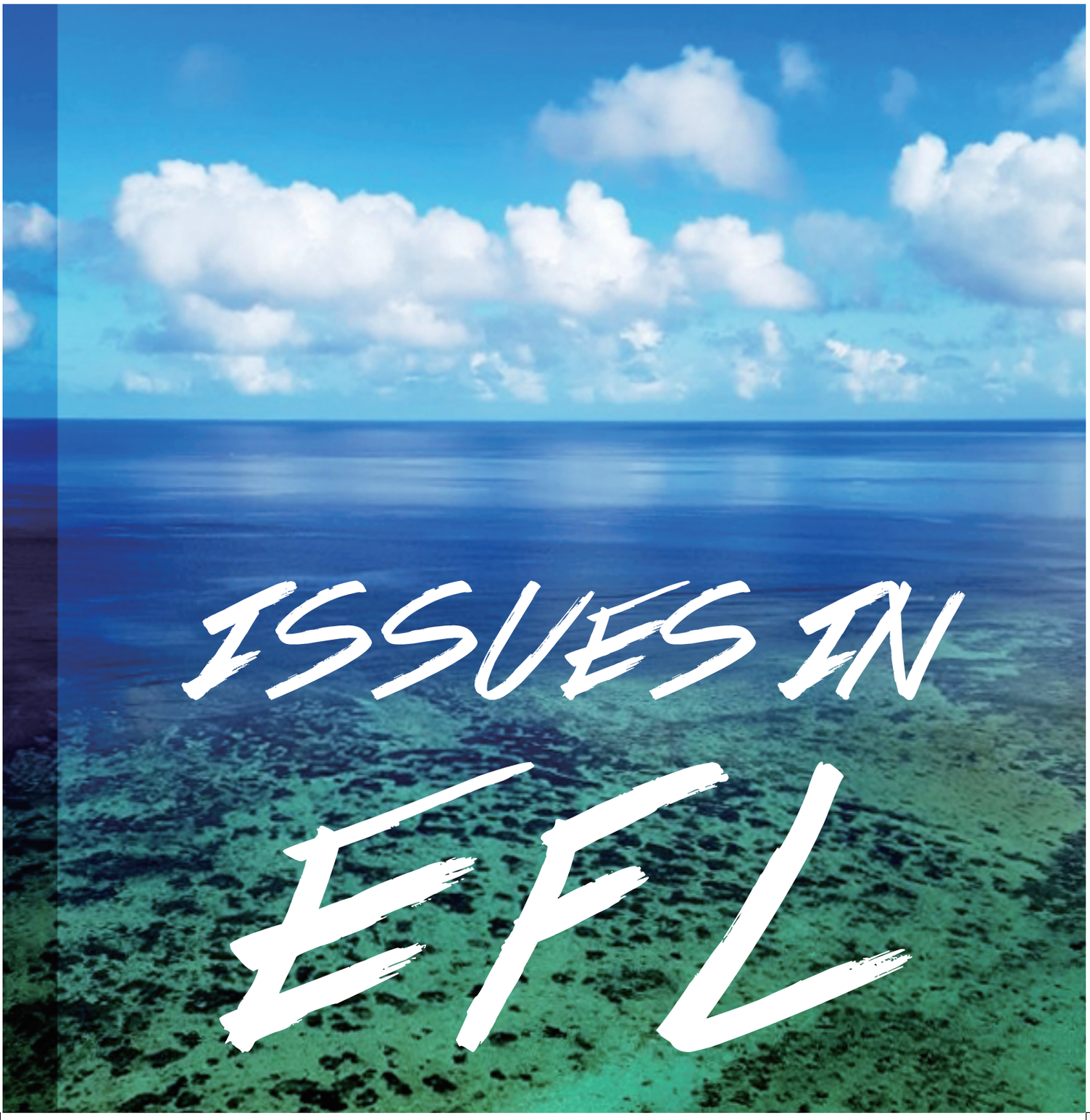
# MA TESOL JOURNAL

Fall 2017 Vol.13 No.2



# Issues in EFL

SOOKMYUNG WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY
MA TESOL JOURNAL
Fall 2017 Vol. 13, No. 2


*Cover Artwork by Yunseon Kim.*

*The picture on the front cover is a morning scenery of the Tumon beach in Guam and the picture on the back cover is a view of the sunset at the same place.*

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## Mission Statement

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

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## Special Thanks


Many thanks go to everyone who contributed and helped to make this journal an amazing piece of work. In particular, all the members of the Fall 2017 Journal Committee's efforts are highly appreciated. In addition, some of the MA students graduating this August, Yejin, Geonyeong, and Yoonjung made special contributions to improve the journal despite the tough schedule of having to complete their thesis. Our thanks also go to SMU TESOL Student Union for managing the budget for the printing costs. As such, without MA TESOL students support, this journal would not have seen the light. Finally, the Journal Committee would like to express special thanks to Professor Stephen P. van Vlack for his guidance and assistance throughout the editorial and publication process.

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

# Focus Questions:
# Why We Need Them and Tips on Answering Them

**Bernadette Manalastas**
MA TESOL 2nd semester

About 12 out of the 16 weeks of a semester are devoted to answering the Focus Questions. These recurrent tasks may compel students to reflect on why they need to answer them and how to answer them efficiently. Focus questions generate labyrinth of ideas that need to be weaved together by interactions and students' own personal experiences to create a bigger picture. This bigger picture represents our teaching fields where an evolving and better understanding of that field can be applied in real life teaching contexts.

This article hopefully illuminates some of the essential points on why and how to answer focus questions based from multiple perspectives contributed by our professors and fellow students.

## A. Why do we need Focus Questions?

### 1. Focus Questions help students stay "focused".

Focus Questions play a central role in running the class. The pace of the semester is quite fast and it is very easy for students to get lost. Focus questions not just provide a way for students to relate to the reading materials, but also gives them time to ponder the central ideas and enables them to participate in class. Students are prepared and ready to better understand what occurs in the class.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

Focus Questions compel us to focus our attention on main ideas to support our development and knowledge growth as well as spur probing and awareness. They scaffold to understand the reading materials and in-class discussions where reading materials come to life. FQs are aimed at getting us dig deeper, not simply skimming through the readings, and explore the theme and issues as well as our curiosities.

*– Annami van der Merwe, 5th semester student*

### 2. Focus Questions can be applied to students' own teaching context.

Well-designed FQs stimulate students to think more deeply about the content in order to apply it to their own teaching contexts. They help students read for a particular purpose, which is more meaningful than just reading for some general idea.

*- Professor Diane Rozells*

### 3. Focus Questions provide fuel for discussion.

They help us prepare for class and give us insight to what we should pay closer attention to. There could be something that does not click and the FQs either help us begin to unravel it on our own and remind us to ask or discuss it in class.

*– Alexandria Malfitano, 3rd semester student*

If students do not read or think about their topic beforehand, their learning would be more passive because they would just be listening to the professor or other students and not have very much to contribute.

*- Professor Diane Rozells*

### 4. They help students think critically.

The questions guide the students in thinking

critically about the reading materials, with the way they are composed, conducted, as well as the validity of their claims. FQs help students develop their ideas. There is no absolute truth in our fields so students need to get used to building an argument for their own views anticipating skepticism of others.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

### 5. Focus Questions can improve students' academic writing, reading, and thinking skills.

Focus Questions familiarize students with the style that is used in academic writing in several fields. Students need models they can emulate. These are models for writing as well as conducting research.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

In the long run, after doing FQs week after week, students can improve significantly in their writing, reading, and thinking skills.

*- Professor Diane Rozells*

### 6. Focus Questions can help students choose their topics for midterms, finals, and even thesis.

FQs can be the catalyst to spark a student's interest in a particular topic for further research for midterms, finals, and even thesis in the future. - Bernadette Manalastas, 3rd semester student

## B. TIPS from professors and students

### 1. Focus on clarity and answer the questions to the point.

Quality of the composition relates to the clarity of ideas presented. Clarity is achieved through the dexterous use of forms, how those forms are organized, and the relatedness of the ideas presented. This includes the format of the answers.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

Students should answer the questions to the point. Well-written answers show that the student understood the content using his or her own words (i.e paraphrasing). Answers should not be excessively long. Two to three pages (depending on the questions) should be sufficient and anything longer than that (unless there are diagrams or images) usually contains unnecessary information.

*– Professor Diane Rozells*

### 2. Bring in personal experiences and relate to own teaching context.

Students should understand the content and can relate it to their past, present, and future teaching context. Each teaching context is different and what may work in one context may not work in another. Students should think about their own context and how their reading applies in their own class.

*– Professor Diane Rozells*

A good answer to a Focus Question entails bringing in ideas from one's experiences.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

Include your own experiences, reflections, and examples.

*– Eunice Minjoo Hong, 2nd semester student*

Try to find connections between theory and practice and describe those links, similarities, and differences. As soon as I try to find examples in my own teaching content, the reading materials come to life and I am able to illustrate the answers while using examples.

*- Annami van der Merwe, 5th semester student*

### 3. Be critical. Be truthful!

Criticize the readings if you must. You do not have to always agree with the author's opinion. Add your own opinions and reflections truthfully. Make your readings yours!

*– Eunice Minjoo Hong, 2nd semester student*

Read critically, and question what you read. Keep in mind that each teaching context is different and what may work in one context may not work in another. Answer the questions in justifiable manner since many times there is no one right answer.

*- Professor Diane Rozells*

It is important to remember you are writing this for yourself to help you understand the concepts that will be talked about in class rather than for anyone else and should be written as such. Try to be as explicit as possible when answering and be honest with yourself about whether a point is relevant before you write it. – Michael McLaren, 4th semester student

## 4. Cite outside sources.

The depth of content relates to the ideas themselves. A good answer to a Focus Question entails marshaling outside support for the ideas presented. Depth means not only citing what was in the reading itself but moving outside of the reading from other sources.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

Check out other sources! Do not be afraid to look up definitions, examples, and additional information. You can add it into to your response, or save it for expanding your knowledge. Try not to confine yourself to the readings.

*– Alexandria Malfitano, 3rd semester student*

Make sure that each answer has information from outside sources in it. They help to support the claims we are trying to show and help to further expand and enrich our own knowledge of the topic.

*– Michael McLaren, 4th semester student*

I find that when there are more articles on the subject or issue at hand, I am able to understand the papers better. Re-reading the articles using a new lens and fresh eyes are very important. Even though you end up not quoting those papers or made direct reference to them, they are still useful to broaden our thinking and show us different perspective on the same issue.

*- Annami van der Merwe, 5th semester student*

## 5. Reach out to your peers and professors but do not rely on others for answers.

Students should communicate with each other and discuss the questions. It is through language, discussion, that ideas are formed, changed, and developed. In this way, simply thinking is no enough. We need to express those thoughts to others to refine them. Face-to-face chat is the most efficient way. Social media tools such as Facebook and Kakao are also useful. FQs are not a type of tests and not to be tackled alone. Any reading students are asked to do represents the top of the tip of the iceberg. Students need to know where these fit into a larger frame of reference and that means interacting with what is out there and with those around them. It would good if we could form a wider, larger community of practice for and by our students.

*– Professor Stephen van Vlack*

Discussing with other students may contribute to students' learning but the danger is that students could copy from each other. Discussions are great but they are only good after students have already written or at least thought about their answers beforehand. That way, students are forced to think for themselves, and not rely on others for the answers.

*– Professor Diane Rozells*

Do not hesitate to ask your classmates and professors for help. There is no harm in admitting that you do not understand something. Two heads are better than one.

*– Annami van der Merwe, 5th semester student*

## 6. Time management: Eat the elephant one bite at a time.

Self-regulation and diligence is important when it comes to managing time. I usually check how many articles, how many pages, and then finally how many focus questions there are. I divide my week into "sections" for reading and answering questions and stick to this schedule and not fall behind. Once you feel behind, overwhelming feelings start to step in, affecting the quality of our homework. Plan extra time to spare as not to feel rushed and stressed out. Do not procrastinate. Sometimes, the homework takes longer than we expected and we have to make some compromises. I have read complete articles while taking the train, waiting at the bank or the doctor, and traveling from point A to B. Time management is always hard when you have a full-time job and completing the FQs and readings require some sacrifice, in relation to our hobbies, socialization, etc.

*– Annami van der Merwe, 5th semester student*

Time management for me starts as soon the weekly questions are posted. I read the questions and usually download them to my phone so I can refer to them easily. I make use of my travel time on the subway to do the weekly readings, highlighting parts that I will use to answer the questions later. When writing, I set myself a time limit of a few hours to complete everything spending no more than 30 minutes per question. Because I have already highlighted the useful parts of the weekly readings, I can quickly paraphrase them and use my remaining time to locate and use outside sources to back up my responses. I typically write only a couple of paragraphs per question and I make sure to take a quick five-minute break every so often as to not strain my eyes when staring at the computer.

*– Michael McLaren, 4th semester student*

## 7. Save time for revisions.

Finishing the readings and questions sooner and then going back to revise them is always helpful. That meant getting my focus questions done on two or three days, and then on a fourth day, revising them and going back to the readings. Some readings are dense so one can go back to it later and read it with a fresh approach. Just always save time for revisions.

*– Alexandria Malfitano, 3rd semester student*

I also like to make time to go back and re-read everything a day or two later to make sure citations have been done correctly and it all makes sense, and to refresh my memory of what I wrote.

*– Michael McLaren, 4th semester student*

## 8. There will be good days and there will be bad days.

In spite of thorough planning of answering the FQs, factors such as illnesses, work load, family affairs, or even having zero motivation can affect our performance. Try to continuously be consistent despite the setbacks and do not be hard on yourself.

*- Bernadette Manalastas, 3rd semester student*

Try to keep things in perspective as assignments are only usually worth a small percentage of your overall grade for the class, so they are neither worth getting stressed over nor worth spending hours answering. Just remember, it will get easier over time.

*– Michael McLaren, 4th semester student*

Given all these reasons and tips, there is nothing more effective than students choosing the methods that best works for them. Let the advice here be a guide to weave ideas and concepts to understand the bigger picture of our teaching fields and our own teaching contexts.

# MEDICAL INSURANCE UNION
## at Sookmyung University

JIMIN PARK
MA TESOL 2nd semester

Health Care Center provides an excellent health care service for student, faculty and staff, and is affiliated with hospitals in Yongsangu. There are about 257 hospitals that are located near the university, and the hospitals are consisted of several departments such as dental, surgical and internal disease affairs. In addition, health care center works specifically for prevention, early detection and first-aid treatment as well as for the improvement of public health on the campus.

Today, I would like to talk about medical insurance union that is one of the most important works in health care center in Sookmyung University. For instance, if a student pays for the medical insurance fee which is included in the tuition fee for a semester, he/she can receive the benefits offered by the medical insurance union. To be specific, health care center supports the medical expenses, so it reduces the burden students should take when he/she see the doctor. Here is some detailed information about medical insurance that will help you.

### *"How to Apply?"*

Get medical treatment
↓
Submit documents for medical insurance
(the documents is good for a month from your medical treatment)
↓
Health care center deliberates your medical insurance expenses
↓
You can get medical insurance expenses in your bank account.

## Documents for Application

- Medical confirmation including name of a disease or written diagnosis
- One copy of a hospital bill.
- One copy of an application form about medical insurance (including your bank account number)

## Allowance Criteria

| Treatment Institution | Classification | Allowance Rate | Limited Amount (won) | Remarks |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hospitals in Yongsangu | Outpatient Treatment | 60% | 150,000 (won) | If your medical expense is less than 50,000 won, health care center is going to pay you back 100% of the medical expenses. If it is more than 50,000 won, you can get 60%. |
| | Hospitalization | 60% | 200,000 (won) | |

If you need further information, you can visit the health care center website http://health.sookmyung.ac.kr. It provides the list of affiliated hospitals and specific process about application of medical insurance. Also, you can get the information by coming in person at health care center. The location is at Sunheon building in the basement #009, and phone number is 02) 710-9145.

In conclusion, I hope that my article will be helpful and useful to your campus life, and remember, every student needs to get a checkup every year, even when they are not sick to make sure they are healthy.


The image above is created by Photoroyalty - Freepik.com.

# HOW TO DEAL WITH STRESS DURING THE SEMESTER

HYESHIN KIM
MA TESOL 2nd semester

As the new semester begins, we cannot deny our stress builds from the tension of simply knowing what we will go through during the academic semester. Many of us may have already experienced symptoms of stress during the semester. Moreover, even though we all understand that stress can be very hazardous to our health, we easily get overwhelmed by stressful situations rather than coping with them appropriately. However, the good news is that there are many ways to cope with stress, and here are three major methods to reduce stress.

*Many of us may have already experienced symptoms of stress during the semester. The good news is that there are many ways to cope with stress*

## 1 Minimalism: Stay Selected and Focused

The term 'minimalism' or minimalist lifestyle has recently been coined, which is defined as "being or possessing no more than what is required or essential." The reason I am strongly suggesting "minimalism" is because most people gain stress from their overloaded multitasking issues on their shoulder such as the work, family and social life, lack of sleep, and tight timetable in addition to studying during the semester. As we juggle with all these responsibilities, it leads us to anxieties and pressures.

Therefore, to deal with these unavoidable stressful situations during the semester, it is essential to make 'to do lists', selecting and focusing what should be prioritized and what can be avoidable or postponed for later. Since all the resources are limited, it is impossible for us to accomplish all the goals perfectly without selecting and giving full concentration. In addition, this method is not only effective, but also necessary to manage stress while taking many challenged roles during the semester.

## 2 'Goal Oriented Mind' rather than Success Oriented One

The achievement of academic success is indeed meaningful during the semester though, we should have a goal-oriented mind than a success-oriented mind. The difference between them depends on, either if we give attention to the process to achieve

the academic goal or to focus on the success or failure. To emphasize, a goal-oriented mind tends to embrace the process, to be open to help others and create positive energies, be flexible, and problem-solving focused. On the other hand, a success-oriented mind tends to go with the shortcuts, having a closed mind, becoming rigid and stubborn with anxiety and fear of failure. In the end, anxiety would not be helpful for us to achieve what we aim for.

## 3 A Sound Mind in a Sound Body

As the proverb says, "The mind and the body act closely on each other." For instance, if we are worried, it influences our body to become weaker because such worries may cause headaches or other physical illnesses. Conversely, if we are ill, we will become worried or cause lots of unhappiness to the people around us. In other words, if we can keep our body healthy, we can have sound mind too. Here are suggestions to keep up the healthy body and mind.

# SLEEP

When we have a lot of things to do, we all experience the shortage of time. We reduce the time of sleep to invest more time for work. Unfortunately, insufficient sleeping time and stress can become the vicious cycle to harm to your physical health. Therefore, it is necessary for us to sleep for adequate hours or on proper time, and most suggested time to sleep is during so called 'prime time zone for sleep' which is between 10 pm to 2 am. People can have a deep sleep to maximize recovery during this time.

# BREAKFAST

Eating breakfast helps our brain and body to be more revitalized and it can also enhance the concentration with the active brain and body activities, resulting improvement of work efficiency causing our body to reduce stress and tiredness.

# NUTRITION

Having food with appropriate nutrition not only makes our body healthy, but helps our brains work well. Low-fat, high-fiber, carbohydrate-rich meals with sufficient fruits and vegetables can give nutrients our body need to enhance our immune system as well. Some examples with high-fiber, carbohydrate-rich foods are baked sweet potatoes, minestrone soup or sautéed vegetables over rice.

# EXERCISE

Regular exercise especially aerobic exercises such as walking and jogging for two or three times a week can relieve stress as well as to obtain a healthy body. The reason we feel stressed out is because of the stress hormones built in our body. However, aerobic exercises reduce the stress hormones. In addition, its repetitive movements help release hormones that make us feel more pleasant.

Reference links:

http://www.theminimalists.com/minimalism/

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are-you-goal-oriented-or-result-oriented/

http://skullchristal.tistory.com/179

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http://www.pcrm.org/health/health-topics/
how-to-eat-right-to-reduce-stress

# Quitting a job to write a thesis

## Interview with Mallory Moser

**Annami van der Merwe**
MA TESOL 4th semester

Annami: You decided to quit your job just before your last semester of the MA TESOL program. It is not easy to quit your job that gives you a steady income and security. It takes a lot of guts. What made you or pushed you to make this decision?

Mallory: I decided to quit my job to write my thesis because I wanted to actually enjoy the thesis process. From the beginning of the program, I knew it would be hard to work and study at the same time. Therefore, I planned to quit my job during the thesis semester so that I could put all my energy and time into writing a good thesis. Since then, I budgeted and planned my finances to have the flexibility to quit my job and write the thesis. This process also included me learning how to minimize and become efficient. I moved to a much smaller house and sold a lot of my old stuff. It was really freeing!

Annami: What was the hardest part of not having a job?

Mallory: At first I felt really happy because I have been was so exhausted from working and studying at the same time. However, as the time passed, I kind of felt that I am wasting my time especially after I finished the thesis. That feeling of time-wasting was the hardest part. Because of this, I have taken up some part-time jobs and invested more time in church to have more volunteer opportunities. Now, I feel less like I am wasting time and am enjoying my time off.

Annami: Would you recommend others who are in your position to do the same? Why?

Mallory: I was really stressed with my job. In addition, the natural stress of having to write a big important paper will just wear you down. If you are in a similar position and if it is financially possible, I actually do recommend that, you take some time off work (if that's an option) or quit your job. I think you will find that the time off gives you some space to think, and you won't feel like you are wasting time because you will be busy with writing your thesis. Then, when you graduate, you will be fully prepared to take the next step and you will have the energy to find a job you really want because you won't be worn out from being overworked!

# FINAL PAPERS

# Teaching Reflective Writing to Mid-to High Intermediate Level Adults

**Bernadette Manalastas**
*Teaching Writing*

***Abstract***

*This paper presents teaching reflective writing as essential to learners' growth as writers and their overall well-being. Reflective writing incorporates multiple perspectives, engagement with prior experiences, surrounding issues, and meta-cognition. Through reflective writing, learners may result to conscious efforts to determine what actions the learners should take or knowledge they should acquire to develop and improve their performance in the future. Three lesson plans are presented in this paper which show how to teach reflective writing processes. Specifically, the learners reflected on two points: their writing performance and their daily consumption of sugar as their goal is to be better writers and to improve their health. A self-assessment table, a rubric, peer review, and teacher's feedback were tools used as guides and criteria. The criteria include critical thinking, personal experiences, organization, and surface features. The final result was the writers were able to establish plan of actions to improve their writing skills and their health. From the teacher's perspective, this paper was used as my own reflective writing. I was able to reflect on the weaknesses and strengths of my lessons, acquire knowledge on how to systematize them, and hone the approaches that will be used to teach reflective writing in the future.*

## 1. Introduction

This paper presents teaching reflective writing to mid-to-high intermediate adults in an informal setting. The purpose of this paper is to illustrate through three lesson plans how the learners can effectively reflect on the content of the article, learn English expressions and skills through writing, and the application in their own personal lives for their overall improvement as a person. The teaching pedagogy is based on principles of teaching writing through task-based learning and interactions. From the lessons, they are able to self-assess, peer review, and use rubric to develop their writing skill. Finally, they could add their work to their portfolio to monitor their progress.

## 2. Background

### 2.1 Educational Setting and Learners

The institution is a Seowondong Community Center, Sillimdong, Seoul. The class is an informal speaking class. Students are adults, aged 20 to 60, meet twice a week for one hour each meeting. The level of the learners is from mid-to-high intermediate in terms of writing skills based on the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. According to ACTFL writing proficiency standards, the learners at the Intermediate High sublevel are able to write compositions and simple summaries related to work and/or school experiences. However, these writers may be inconsistent in the use of appropriate major time markers, resulting in a loss of clarity. The vocabulary, grammar and style of Intermediate High writers essentially correspond to those of the spoken language. Intermediate High writing, even with numerous and perhaps significant errors, is generally comprehensible to natives not used to the writing of non-natives (www.actfl.org, n.d.).

The learners have an extensive reading assignment once a month where they write a reflective writing about it and read it aloud in class. It is optional for the students to hand in their written work. As a teacher, I corrected only the grammar parts of the writings. Revision is also optional. Students check their corrections and proceed to next reflective writing. I believe this method was inefficient to teach writing. This course has encouraged me to design these lesson plans for my students. The plans designed are the first formal writing lessons the students would experience in our class. They were excited as I announced these

lessons and were eager to participate in the writing processes.

### 2.2 Learning Goals

The lessons have 3 goals:

a. Be able to generate ideas and brainstorm after reading an article

b. Be able to compose a reflective writing that involves critical thinking

c. Be able to self-monitor progress and provide feedback to peers

d. Be able to apply reflective writing into a plan of action for the improvement of their lives

## 3. Reflective Writing

### 3.1 Definition and Content

Reflective writing incorporates multiple perspectives, engagement with prior experiences, surrounding issues, and meta-cognition (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012). The focus is knowing what one knows, having strategies for getting and using that knowledge, and knowing that one has those strategies and how to utilize them to resolve issues and concerns. The capacity of students to reflect should be developmental and progressive in nature. Through reflective writing, a learner may result to action which includes conscious efforts to establish belief upon evidence and rationality (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012).

Reflection is thinking that involves turning a subject over in the mind to give it a serious consideration. It identifies five phases of thinking. These are problems, suggestions, reasoning, hypothesis, and testing (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012). The problem phase relates to see the big picture rather than discrete, small entities. Reasoning involves linking ideas in order to extend the knowledge of the subject. In hypothesis, it reconsiders a suggestion and the effect of it. After that, the hypothesis can be tested in testing stage.

Reflection is thinking about a situation in a conscious and structured manner (McKendry, 2016). The aim in doing so is to:

a. Think about and analyze your actions and way of thinking and the reasons behind them

b. Explore and explain events in a critical manner rather than simply describe them

c. Analyze anxieties, errors, and weaknesses as well as your strengths and successes

d. Determine what action you should take or knowledge you should acquire to develop and improve your performance in the future

Reflective writing can be referred differently in each discipline (Williams, 2012). The emphasis will differ; however, all these of forms of writing include an element of reflection on:

a. yourself (student's)

b. how you learn

c. how you learn from what you have done, thought, experienced, created

d. how your knowledge and understanding have developed

e. how you link theory and practice

f. how your learning shapes further learning academically or at your practice over time

Reflective thinking is also a disciplined way of thinking. It requires attitudes that value the personal development of oneself. Reflective writing helps to get insights and understanding of relationships between what took place, the purposes intended, and difficulties which arose viewed within broader cultural perspective (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012).

As a conclusion, reflective writing is defined by its analytical characteristics, critical thinking methods, and applying it to one's writing improvement.

### 3.2 Benefits of Reflective Writing

Reflective writing has numerous benefits for the writer, the classroom, and the teacher. As a writer, students could experience and take some risks on form, style, and voice (Fulwiler, 1987). In reflective writing, journals can be used as a monitor for students to observe themselves. They are able to assess values in relation to the material they are studying. Reflective writing captures the shifting and even colliding of continually developing thoughts and self-knowledge (Fulwiler, 1987). This self-knowledge provides the motivation for other knowledge to be learned and absorbed. Without an understanding of themselves, students are not likely to fully understand why they study English. In the end, all knowledge is related; reflective writing helps clarify the relationships (Fulwiler, 1987). To conclude, reflective writing encourages writers to become conscious, through language, of what they are experiencing both personally and aca-

demically (Fulwiler, 1987).

In the classroom, reflective writing can engage students into a class. Teacher can ask students to read their journal aloud. It could be rewarding for learners when their works generate a response from classmates (Fulwiler, 1987). It stimulates classroom discussion, starts small group activity, clarifies hazy issues, reinforces learning, and promotes imagination.

Teachers benefit from students' reflective writing. They could easily see students' growth in their writing ability. The teacher can examine the students' writing for topic initiation, elaboration, variety, use of different genres, expression of interests and attitudes, and awareness of process of writing (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). Also, the teacher can keep her own anecdotal notes on improvement or variations in each student's writing in her own record book. Moreover, the teacher can pinpoint the learners' individual weaknesses and strengths through a feedback. Further, the teacher can reflect the language pedagogy approaches used in the class and using the same technique, the teacher could also reflect on her own class and how to improve the writing processes. A teacher may adapt new plans, materials, arrange subject matter content, and teaching methods and evaluation.

As a conclusion, reflective writing is beneficial to the students, classroom interactions, and the teacher. I believe these are sufficient reasons to teach reflective writing continuously to the students. Further, informing the students these benefits would encourage them to write more in their journals.

## 4. Teaching Reflective Writing Pedagogy

### 4.1 Principles for Teaching Writing

The principles for teaching writing are meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development (Nation, 2009). First, meaning-focused input means learners should bring experience and knowledge to their writing. They are most likely to be successful if they are well prepared with the topic. Second, meaning-focused output means learners should practice various genres of writing. They also should write with a message-focused purpose, with the aim of communicating a message to the reader. Third, language-focused learning means learners should know about the parts of the writing process and should be able to discuss them in relation to their own and other's writing. Finally, fluency development focuses on learners should increase their writing speed so that they can write simple material at a reasonable speed through repetitive activities and familiar materials (Nation, 2009). As a summary, the principles of knowledge above are utilized to design the lessons which focus on meaning, purpose, and understanding of writing processes through interactions.

## 5. Lesson Plans

There are three lesson plans presented in this paper. The three lesson plans will be divided into 3 parts of process: generating ideas, writing the first draft, and revising. The topic was brought from the article, "How Much Sugar is Good for me?" from www.nhs.uk (Appendix A). The students are already knowledgeable of the article. This serves as the source of their topic sentence.

### 5.1 Lesson 1 – Generating Ideas and Outline

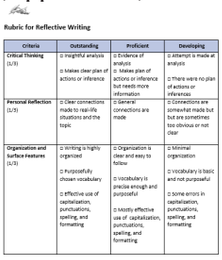
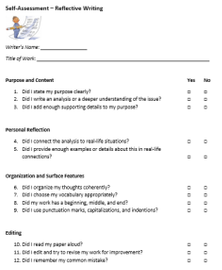
A. Goal: Learners are expected to reflect on their own lives in English for their life improvement using an article they read

B. Terminal Objectives:

1. Learners should be able to generate ideas on how to reflect on their sugar intake every day.

2. Learners should be able to write an outline that would help them write their reflective journal.
3. Learners should be able to understand the use of a rubric and self-assessment.

| Time | Content Activity | Interactions | Materials/ Preview |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10:00-10:05 (5 mins) | Warm up:<br><br>What comes to your mind when you hear "reflective writing"? | Whole class |  |
| 10:05-10:10 (5 mins) | Discuss why reflective writing is important, its purpose, and audience in pairs.<br>1. What is reflective writing?<br>2. Why is it important in learning English and in life?<br>3. Who is the audience?<br>4. What is your purpose? | Pair Work | |
| 10:10-10:15 (5 mins) | Discuss the answers all together. Focus on the importance of purpose and audience. | Whole Class | |
| 10:15-10:25 (10 mins) | Generating ideas:<br>1. Skim again the article which was previously discussed.<br>2. Brainstorm for topic sentences to write for reflective writing. These topic sentences could be related to the health of the students.<br><br>Examples from teacher:<br>a. The amount of sugar I add when making side-dishes is harmful to my family's health.<br>b. Sugar in my coffee and juice is highly addictive for me.<br>c. Diabetes runs in my family so there are many steps I should do to avoid sugar and prevent diabetes.<br>3. Teacher walks around the class and gives feedback. | Group work of 3 |  <br>How much sugar is good for me? (Appendix A) |

| Time | Content Activity | Interactions | Materials/ Preview |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10:30-10:40 (10 mins) | Presentation of rubrics:<br>1. Skim the criteria rubric for re flective writing.<br>2. What does insightful analysis mean?<br>3. What do examples of real-life experience mean?<br>4. What does highly organized writing mean?<br>5. Ask the students if the rubric is uncomplicated.<br>6. Ask the students if the rubric provide meaningful information and gives them the type of feed back they can use.<br><br>Presentation of self-assessment:<br>1. Find the similarities and dif ferences of the rubrics and self-assessment.<br>2. Ask the students to use them as guides when they write. | Whole class | Rubrics for criteria (Appendix B)<br>  <br>**Rubric for Reflective Writing**<br>**Criteria** / **Outstanding** / **Proficient** / **Developing**<br>**Critical Thinking** (1/3) — ☐ Insightful analysis ☐ Makes clear plan of actions or inference — ☐ Evidence of analysis ☐ Makes plan of actions or inference but needs more information — ☐ attempt is made at analysis ☐ there were no plan of actions or inferences<br>**Personal Reflection** (1/3) — ☐ Clear connections made to real-life situations and the topic — ☐ General connections are made — ☐ Connections are somewhat made but but are sometimes too obvious or not clear<br>**Organization and Surface Features** (1/3) — ☐ Writing is highly organized ☐ Purposefully chosen vocabulary ☐ Effective use of capitalization, punctuations, spelling, and formatting — ☐ Organization is clear and easy to follow ☐ vocabulary is precise enough and purposeful ☐ Mostly effective use of capitalization, punctuations, spelling, and formatting — ☐ Minimal organization ☐ vocabulary is basic and not purposeful ☐ Some errors in capitalization, punctuations, spelling, and formatting<br><br>Self-Assessment (Appendix C)<br>  <br>**Self-Assessment – Reflective Writing**<br>Writer's Name: _____<br>Title of work: _____<br>**Purpose and Content** — Yes / No<br>1. Did I state my purpose clearly? ☐ ☐<br>2. Did I write an analysis or a deeper understanding of the issue? ☐ ☐<br>3. Did I add enough supporting details to my purpose? ☐ ☐<br>**Personal Reflection**<br>4. Did I connect the analysis to real-life situations? ☐ ☐<br>5. Did I provide enough examples or details about this in real-life connections? ☐ ☐<br>**Organization and Surface Features**<br>6. Did I organize my thoughts coherently? ☐ ☐<br>7. Did I choose my vocabulary appropriately? ☐ ☐<br>8. Did my work has a beginning, middle, and end? ☐ ☐<br>9. Did I use punctuation marks, capitalizations, and indentions? ☐ ☐<br>**Editing**<br>10. Did I read my paper aloud? ☐ ☐<br>11. Did I edit and try to revise my work for improvement? ☐ ☐<br>12. Did I remember my common mistake? ☐ ☐ |
| 10:40-10:50 (10 mins) | Students write individual outline of their thesis statements. It is recom-mended that the outline covers three parts: analysis, personal experience, and plan of actions. The teacher walks around the classroom to give feedback.<br><br>The teacher walks around and gives verbal feedback. | Individual | |

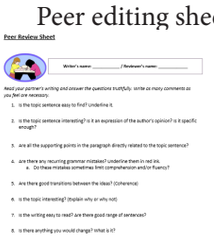
## 5.2 Lesson 2 – Writing the First Draft

A. Goal:

Learners are expected to write a plan of action to improve their lives using in terms of sugar consumption.

B. Terminal Objectives:

1. Learners should be able to provide feedback to their peers.
2. Learners should be able to revise and edit their works.

| Time | Content Activity | Interactions | Materials/ Preview |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10:00-10:05 (5 mins) | Warm up:<br><br>1. What did you have for breakfast which contained sugar?<br>2. What did we study last meeting? | Pair Work | |
| 10:05-10:15 (10 mins) | Review previous lesson and discuss their experience in writing the first draft:<br>1. Go over the importance, purpose, and audience of reflective writing again.<br>2. How was writing your first draft? What part did you like doing?<br>3. What was the difficult part?<br>4. Did the self-assessment and rubric help you?<br>5. What are your suggestions to improve the rubrics and self-assessment?<br>6. Was it time consuming? | Whole Class | |
| 10:15-10:25 (10 mins) | 1. Give peer editing sheet to learners and discuss among members. | Group work of 3 | Peer editing sheet (Appendix D) |
| 10:25-10:35 (10 mins) | Teacher teaches how to do peer editing.<br><br>1. Emphasize on the STRENGTHS of the writer. Eg. "I liked how you focused on the specific dishes you cook regularly that contains too much sugar."<br>2. Tell the students to comment on a major error in a positive manner. Eg. "I liked how you focused on the effects of sugar but please limit the technical words." | Whole class | Peer editing sheet<br>  <br>Peer Review Sheet<br>Writer's name: _____ / Reviewer's name: _____<br>*Read your partner's writing and answer the questions truthfully. Write as many comments as you feel are necessary.*<br>1. Is the topic sentence easy to find? Underline it.<br>2. Is the topic sentence interesting? Is it an expression of the author's opinion? Is it specific enough?<br>3. Are all the supporting points in the paragraph directly related to the topic sentence?<br>4. Are there any recurring grammar mistakes? Underline them in red ink.<br>a. Do these mistakes sometimes limit comprehension and/or fluency?<br>5. Are there good transitions between the ideas? (Coherence)<br>6. Is the topic interesting? (Explain why or why not)<br>7. Is the writing easy to read? Are there good range of sentences?<br>8. Is there anything you would change? What is it?<br>9. What is the strength of the writer? |
| 10:35-10:40 (10 mins) | 1. Students show each other's works, read each other's works, and do peer review.<br>2. Teacher walks around to give verbal feedback. | Pair work | Peer editing sheet |
| 10:40-10:50 (10 mins) | Students return works to their partner and peer review sheet. The learners explain verbally their written feedback to their partners. | Pair work |  <br>Peer Review Sheet<br>Writer's name: _____ / Reviewer's name: _____<br>*Read your partner's writing and answer the questions truthfully. Write as many comments as you feel are necessary.*<br>1. Is the topic sentence easy to find? Underline it.<br>2. Is the topic sentence interesting? Is it an expression of the author's opinion? Is it specific enough?<br>3. Are all the supporting points in the paragraph directly related to the topic sentence?<br>4. Are there any recurring grammar mistakes? Underline them in red ink.<br>a. Do these mistakes sometimes limit comprehension and/or fluency?<br>5. Are there good transitions between the ideas? (Coherence)<br>6. Is the topic interesting? (Explain why or why not)<br>7. Is the writing easy to read? Are there good range of sentences?<br>8. Is there anything you would change? What is it?<br>9. What is the strength of the writer? |

| Time | Content Activity | Interactions | Materials/ Preview |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10:50–10-55 (5 mins) | Wrap up and Homework:<br>1. Students are asked to revise their work based on peer editing and teacher's verbal advice.<br>2. Advise the students to internalize the rubric so that it becomes a natural part of their editing process as they review their own work at home (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).<br>3. Use the self-assessment as a guide again. | Whole Class | |

## 5.3 Lesson 3 – Final Draft

A. Goal: Learners are expected to reflect on their own lives in English for their life improvement.
B. Terminal Objectives: Learners should be able to revise and reflect their work.

| Time | Content Activity | Interactions | Materials/ Preview |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10:00-10:05 (5 mins) | How was your experience on revising your work? | Pair work | |
| 10:05-10:15 (10 mins) | 1. What are the major revisions you did on your writing?<br>2. Did peer review help you?<br>3. Did the teacher's verbal feedback help you?<br>4. Did you use the rubric and self-assess ment again?<br>5. Was it time consuming? | Whole class | |
| 10:15-10:30 (15 mins) | Students are asked to read their works aloud. | Whole class | Sample work of student (Appendix E) |
| 10:30-10:40 (10 mins) | Teacher collects samples of student work that represent different levels of effective writing (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).<br>Examples:<br>a. "Stella's work provided good analysis of sugar content of fruits."<br>b. "Janie's writing provided good examples of real-life situations where sugar can be beneficial in her life instead of damaging." | Whole class | |

| Time | Content Activity | Interactions | Materials/ Preview |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10:40-10:50 (10 mins) | Ask the students to reflect on their strengths and major errors. They should provide feedback verbally. | Pair work | |
| 10:50–10-55 (5 mins) | Wrap up.<br>Hand in revised work to teacher for feedback. | | |
| BREAK | | | |
| 10:00 -10:05 (5 mins) | Hand back the work to students. Discuss the general rule on feedback. | | |
| 10:05–10:15 (10 mins) | 1. Discuss the teacher's written feed back. Ask the learners for clarifica tions. Ask the learners to add their first revised writing to their portfolio.<br>2. Conferencing with students after class if necessary.<br>3. Ask the students to add their writing to their portfolio.<br><br>Proceed to next topic. | | |

## 6. Lesson Plan Defense

The lesson plans above were based on the literature discussed in the introduction section. The most important factors are:

1. Why do the learners need to study reflective writing? Is it useful for them?
2. How will they effectively develop their writing skills and improve their health?
3. How will I develop a lesson plan that integrates speaking, listening, and reading and interactions under this lesson?

The sole focus is not only to write reflective writing itself but have the learners learn how to evaluate their peers and themselves. In the beginning, the learners reflected on the definition and content of reflective writing. The main parts of the lessons are centered on the writing processes of reflective writing.

### 6.1 Lesson 1 (Importance of Journal Writing, Generating Ideas, Rubric, and Self-Assessment)

The first part of the lesson was discussion with the students why they write a reflective writing based on their needs. Their goal is to improve their well-being which includes their health and their writing skills. Through reflective writing, a learner may result to plan of actions which includes a conscious effort to establish belief from evidence and rationality (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012). The learner is able to analyze her actions and the reasons behind them, explore and explain events in a critical manner. Finally, the learner determines what actions she should take or knowledge she should acquire to develop and improve her performance in the future. These are the reasons why reflective writing should be taught.

The second part of the lesson was generating ideas. This was done through brainstorming. The

learners were trained to produce topic sentences that are specific, a statement of belief, and iconic. They should take consideration their purpose which was to provide a deeper understanding of a topic, make inferences, connect real-life experiences with the topic, and provide a plan of action if possible. They generated ideas through brainstorming, quick writing, using tree diagrams or concepts diagrams, list making, and cubing. Learners are encouraged to use all six senses when exploring a topic (Nation, 2009). They should also organize ideas according to importance, level of generality, chronological, or any appropriate way for the purpose of their writing.

After generating the topic, the criteria in the form of rubric was presented to the students. This rubric represents the content and expectations the learners should follow. Rubrics are used as students familiarize themselves with the criteria of assessment (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996). The learners could also participate in creating the rubrics that would cater their needs. Students can provide the most meaningful information and type of feedback they need.

Self-assessment was also introduced in tandem with the rubric. They could be used all throughout the writing process to monitor the students' performance themselves. The reason for adding this is self-assessment in writing encourages the type of reflection needed to gain increased control as a writer (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

In summary, the first lesson plan heavily focused on the reasons, the expectations, and idea generation. All of the activities were done through interactions.

### 6.1.1 Lesson 1 Reflection – What Worked Well

The first lesson went through smoothly as the learners have done reflective writing before and generated ideas before and read them in class. However, it was their first time that it was systematically presented with a rubric and self-assessment. They were enthusiastic to utilize the given rubrics and self-assessment. One topic sentence generated was, "Neither brown nor white sugar is important but the amount of sugar I consume every day." The possible supporting details were discussed with their peers.

### 6.1.2 Lesson 1 Reflection – What Did Not Work Well

Writing is not for everyone. Although most students were enthusiastic with the discussion in class, some were still reluctant in writing and find writing stressful and time-consuming. It would take some practice and rewarding experience for them to be able to change their minds about writing. The class is informal so writing is optional. 9 out of 12 students participated. Hopefully, this number increases in the future. Lastly, the final limitation was there was not enough time to discuss all the topics discussed above. What took time was the explanation of rubrics and self-assessment as it was the students' first time. Another point that took more time is writing the outline and selecting their specific topic. This skill needs more practice and students will be able to use time efficiently later.

## 6.2 Lesson 2 – Writing the First Draft, Peer Review Rubric, and Peer Review

The first draft was done at home to provide the students enough time. From the class discussion, students reported that it was a good experience. However, it was time-consuming. The previous lessons were reviewed about the importance of reflective writing, generating ideas, rubric, and self-assessment.

The second part of the lesson was introducing a peer review sheet. The learners discussed the review sheet with one another. Peer review has its advantages. From the introduction, students can evaluate each other's writing. This eases the burden on the teacher in evaluating every paper. Questions such as "What did you like about my paper?" and "What changes could be made to improve the paper?" may encourage the students to recognize their strengths and communicate with other students. When writers learn how to evaluate the work of their peers, they are extending their own opportunities to learn how to write (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

The third part was selecting a sample peer review from the class as a good example of peer review. I walked around the class while the students are reviewing each other's work and they asked me how to utilize the peer review sheet more. This gave the class ideas on how to peer review and recognize their classmates' strengths and weaknesses.

### 6.2.1 Lesson 2 – What Worked Well

A few learners were eager to participate in the peer review and asked how to correct errors of their peers. I emphasized positive reinforcement. The role of positive feedback is important as to have potentially demotivating impact on the writers (Hyland, 2006). Example is, "Your vocabulary is great but grammar in

the topic sentence is not accurate and made your idea a little difficult to understand." Hedging could also be used when necessary for the comments. Example is, "There is possibly too much information here."

As reiterated in the introduction, combining criticism with an honest praise or a suggestion is encouraged. Each student has unique needs in terms of feedback so the teacher or another student should be aware of an individual's needs. Students vary considerably in what they want from their teachers in the form of feedback. Teachers should monitor their feedback so it is consistent, clear, helpful, and constructive (Hyland, 2006).

### 6.2.2 Lesson 2 – What Did Not Work Well

Not everyone wanted their work to be read by their peers. Some students said they felt anxiety when they saw their peers reading their works. They considered peer review as "looking for my mistakes" activity. As a teacher, I should have emphasized that the goal of peer review is mainly looking for the writer's strengths and focusing on major errors. They also shared that they were hesitant to be truthful of their opinions as they do not want to hurt their peer's feelings. Further, they felt that they are not qualified to check other people's work as everyone is a second language learner. All in all, more students did not favor peer review.

To be able to utilize peer review in the future, peer reviews should be structured properly for maximum benefits. Carefully designed peer review activities can be extremely beneficial to individual students (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). The following suggestions may improve peer review in my class in the future:

1. Students follow the style, pattern, and substance of the teacher's commentary so the teacher should be aware of this and should present appropriate model verbal and written feedback (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998).
2. Generally, students tend to revise based on grammar or surface issues rather than text-based changes (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). The following categorization of suggestions can be adapted depending on the needs of the activity:

    a. Content changes - This means addition or deletion of materials and altering an idea or argument.
    b. Structural Changes - This refers to organization and paragraphing i.e. moving whole paragraphs or creating new ones.
    c. Stylistic changes - This encompasses the lexical change and phrasings used.
    d. Surface changes - This refers to punctuations, spelling, capitalization, pluralization, etc.

Knowing such scheme and telling the students which to concentrate can help peer review be more organized and useful.

3. Utilizing peer review frequently, consistently, and varyingly throughout the term may accomplish certain goals (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). The teacher should design a particular peer review to a session to match a specific goal, purpose, procedure, and audience.
4. Peer review should follow a format of encouragement and emphasis on the writer's strengths to avoid the "looking for mistakes" perception of peer review.
5. Teachers should certainly be aware of and sensitive to students' feelings by thoughtful matching of participants to pairs and groups and pointing out the advantages of peer review.

Using the five suggestions stated above may help students take into account their comments to their peers when they revise.

## 6.3 Lesson Plan 3 (Revision, Reading in Class Aloud, and Teacher's Feedback)

The third lesson focuses on the revision of the paper. The learners were again asked to use self-assessment, peer review, teacher's verbal feedback, and rubric to guide them when they revise their work at home. Their experience of revising was discussed in the beginning of the class. They were asked what they learned about editing their work and how much the time and efforts they put into writing their works.

The second part of the class was the learners read their works aloud in class. This was meant to establish their audience and to communicate with others effectively. The class commented on the strengths of the work. It could be rewarding for learners when their works generate a response from classmates (Fulwiler, 1987).

### 6.3.1 Lesson 3 – What Worked Well

The best part of the lesson was reading the works aloud in class and emphasizing the strengths of the learners. Some learners received applaud after reading their works. This may have boosted their self-confidence. Some students said it was worthwhile students. Please see sample work of student (Appendix E).

### 6.3.2 Lesson 3 – What Did Not Work

I did not provide enough time to deliver personal feedback in the beginning part of the writing process.

After peer review, I could have brought the works home immediately to correct them for greater impact on the revisions of the works. I would have to plan the lesson plans more accordingly. This is because the teacher's feedback to student writing is more successful when it is provided in the preliminary and intermediate rather than the final drafts (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998).

Another point which did not work well was that when giving feedback, the teacher and the adult students may have conflicting views. As a feedback while reading one student's work, I wrote, "Conclusion, please? (to unite intro and end part)." The student, however, said that the class was an informal class and we should keep the writing free-flowing rather than a strict academic setting. I was taken aback by the comment and told the student that it was a "suggestion" rather than an "order." I should encourage a relaxed and stress-free atmosphere in the future.

## 7. Conclusion and Reflection

Teaching reflective writing was worthwhile for a teacher and students. I have noticed that my students became aware of their daily sugar consumption and be able to use that knowledge and analysis to improve their health. The writing process and interactions helped them understand their own writing skills, their strengths, and weaknesses. They were also able to experience evaluating their peers' work which gave them a different perspective as a reader. Finally, they have learned an efficient way of writing reflective writing in the future.

From the lesson plans, I realized the students' impression on writing as a fun activity rather than a burden also can be influenced by the atmosphere of the class. Moreover, I concluded that some students need sentence level practice more rather than a whole writing practice. Furthermore, it takes practice over time for the learners to incorporate self-assessment techniques, peer review, teacher's feedback, and rubric into their writing. All in all, it was a learning experience not only for the learners but for me as a teacher and it would take time and correct approaches to hone our skills for success.

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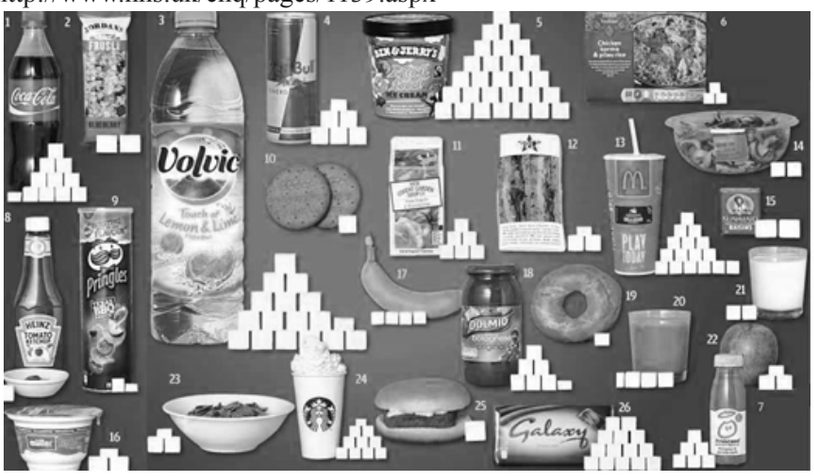
# Appendix A

## How much sugar is good for me?

http://www.nhs.uk/chq/pages/1139.aspx




As part of a healthy balanced diet, you should eat fewer foods and drinks that are high in sugars.

Sugary foods and drinks can cause tooth decay, especially if you have them between meals.

Many foods that contain added sugars also contain lots of calories, but often have few other nutrients.

Eating these foods often can contribute to you becoming overweight.

Being overweight can increase your risk of health conditions such as:

• heart disease , type 2 diabetes, stroke

What is sugar?

All sugars are carbohydrates found naturally in most foods. Their main nutritional value is in providing energy. However, sugar is also added to lots of foods such as sweets, chocolate, cakes, and some fizzy and juice drinks.

In the ingredients list, sugar added to food may be called:

• glocose
• sucrose
• maltose
• corn syrup
• honey
• hydrolysed starch
• invert sugar
• fructose
• molasses

***How much sugar?**
Added sugars shouldn't make up more than 5% of the energy (calorie intake) you get from food and drink each day. This is about 30g of sugar a day for those aged 11 and over.
Fruit juice and honey can also count as added sugars, as they're sometimes added to foods to make them sweeter.
Fruit juice is still a healthy choice (one 150ml serving). However, the sugars can damage your teeth, so it's best to drink it with a meal and no more than one serving a day.
This is because sugars are released during the juicing process. Sugars in whole pieces of fruit are less likely to cause tooth decay because they are contained within the food.
You shouldn't cut down on fruit as it's an important part of a healthy, balanced diet.

* **Check food labels**
Read the nutritional information on food labels to see how much sugar the food contains. Remember that sugar has many different names. The nearer the beginning of the ingredient list the sugar is, the more sugar the product contains.
Look for the "Carbohydrates (of which sugars)" figure in the nutrition label to see how much sugar the product contains for every 100g:

- more than 22.5g of total sugars per 100g is high
- 5g of total sugars or less per 100g is low

If the amount of sugars per 100g is between these figures, that's a medium level of sugars.

# Appendix B

## Rubric for Reflective Writing

| Criteria | Outstanding | Proficient | Developing |
|---|---|---|---|
| Critical Thinking **(1/3)** | ◻ Insightful analysis<br><br>◻ Makes clear plan of actions | ◻ Evidence of analysis<br><br>◻ Makes plan of actions but needs more information | ◻ Attempt is made at analysis<br><br>◻ There were no plan of actions |
| Personal Reflection **(1/3)** | ◻ Clear connections made to real-life situations and the topic | ◻ General connections are made | ◻ Connections are somewhat made but but are sometimes not clear |
| Organization and Surface Features **(1/3)** | ◻ Writing is highly organized<br><br>◻ Purposefully chosen vocabulary<br><br>◻ Effective use of capitalization, punctuations, spelling, and formatting | ◻ Organization is clear and easy to follow<br><br>◻ Vocabulary is precise enough and purposeful<br><br>◻ Mostly effective use of capitalization, punctuations, spelling, and formatting | ◻ Minimal organization<br><br>◻ Vocabulary is basic and not purposeful<br><br>◻ Some errors in capitalization, punctuations, spelling, and formatting |

# Appendix C

## Self-Assessment – Reflective Writing

*Writer's Name:* _____

*Title of Work:* _____

| **Purpose and Content** | **Yes** | **No** |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Did I state my purpose clearly? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 2. Did I write an analysis or a deeper understanding of the issue? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 3. Did I add enough supporting details to my purpose? | ☐ | ☐ |
| **Personal Reflection** | | |
| 4. Did I connect the analysis to real-life situations? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 5. Did I provide enough examples or details about this in real-life connections? | ☐ | ☐ |
| **Organization and Surface Features** | | |
| 6. Did I organize my thoughts coherently? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 7. Did I choose my vocabulary appropriately? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 8. Did my work has a beginning, middle, and end? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 9. Did I use punctuation marks, capitalizations, and indentions? | ☐ | ☐ |
| **Editing** | | |
| 10. Did I read my paper aloud? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 11. Did I edit and try to revise my work for improvement? | ☐ | ☐ |
| 12. Did I remember my common mistake? | ☐ | ☐ |

# Appendix D

## Peer Review Sheet

**Writer's name: _____ / Reviewer's name: _____**

*Read your partner's writing and answer the questions truthfully. Write as many comments as you feel are necessary.*

**CONTENT**

1. What did the author want to change about her/his sugar habit?
2. Did he/she talk about why he/she has that habit?
3. Are there clear connections of that habit in real-life situations?
4. Did he/she talk about how to change her habit and her plan of actions for the next 7 days?
5. What's the best part of her/his journal?

**Organization and Surface Features**

6. Are there good transitions between the ideas? (Coherence)
7. Are there any recurring grammar mistakes? Underline them in red ink.
8. Were the punctuations, spelling, and formatting effectively used?
9. Did the author use at least 4 lexical chunks? List them.
10. Is there anything you would change? What is it?

# Appendix E

## Sample Writing from a student

Watermelons can kill you Stella. April 2017

Are fruits one of the safest foods we can eat in our daily life? No. To our astonishment, it's not the case. Especially people with diabetes should be careful about consumption of sugary fruits.

Last summer I came to be in danger after eating a watermelon. A watermelon was my favorite and for a while I made a habit to devour a whole watermelon instead of eating a normal meal in hot summer days whenever I have a chance. At that point my idea about watermelons was like this; Watermelons are doubtless good for me because it is cool and juicy, has high fiber and most of all it's not processed food. Even though it has a sugary component, it comes from nature without any artificial process. It wouldn't cause any health problem. However I had to pay the price of my ignorance that night. Some strange cramps on my calves and awkward dizziness made me wake up during the midnight. I couldn't think of any culprit except a whole watermelon I devoured on that day.

Back then I didn't take the importance of the amount of one serving into account. I ate too much at a time. Furthermore researches from dieticians and nutritionists let me know the concept, GLYCEMIC INDEX which is a value assigned to foods based on how quickly those foods cause increases in blood sugar levels. The very watermelon is the fruit high on the glycemic index along with mangos, papayas and pineapples.

Now I can put all puzzles together. Even though I am not a diabetic but unfortunately that disease runs in my family so maybe I'm genetically at risk of diabetes. It means I should be extra careful about consumption of sugar. I have to bear two things in mind to avoid developing potential

diabetes. First, sugar even in fruits cannot be a free pass. Sugar is just sugar. There's no exception. Second, consider the glycemic index. It is very helpful, however, it's not an everyday word. On a daily basis we can't evaluate every food item with an elaborate index whenever we eat fruit. So I came up with an easy guideline with the consumption of sweet fruits; Enjoy fruits as a dessert or a snack, not a meal. Moderation is everything.

Sugar is one kind of carbohydrates which turn into energy in our body. In addition sugar literally makes our life sweet when we feel blue or down. When we lose its control, however, it can eat us up with medical issues including diabetes. This summer I'll still stick to my preference for sweet watermelons but will not devour a whole watermelon at one setting anymore. It's because I hope my life remain sweet with my loved ones.

# The Effectiveness of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training

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***Abstract***

*This literature review examines the results of research which investigated the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy training on the reading comprehension of learners in ESL and EFL settings among various age groups, cultures, genders, and L1's. The majority of the studies examined underscore the importance and effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training based on pretest and posttest results. Although there are a few exceptions, there is a general consensus on the significant correlation between metacognitive strategy training and reading comprehension.*

## 1. Introduction

Where in a first language, linguistic input is generally obtained through listening, it is mostly achieved through reading in second or foreign languages. Therefore, reading, for most second language learners, is considered a crucial skill to master in order to provide success in learning as a whole. Learners with good reading skills are likely to achieve better results in separate areas of language as well. Despite the importance of reading in L2 the average reader's ability is generally far below their reading ability in their L1 which hinders academic progress.

There are several disciplines apart from education, such as psychology and linguistics, that are involved in the research of reading skills. Thus, research methods display great variety from remarkably controlled psycholinguistic experiments, for instance tracking saccadic eye movements to reaction times to certain linguistic stimuli, to studies that focus on participant observation, documentation, and discussions with subjects in authentic reading settings over long periods (Griffiths, 2008).

There are numerous challenges faced by both language teachers and learners in the classroom. Teaching learners how to utilise knowledge and skills they acquired through their first language, improve their vocabulary, their reading comprehension, and monitor their own progress are only some of the components which language teachers need to consider when preparing for an L2 reading class. In the case of the learner, learning to read in an L2 is a procedure that entails acquiring skills, new vocabulary and patterns, as well as developing the ability to transfer those skills from classroom settings to the real world.

L2 readers who are perceptive are essentially aware of proper strategies and employ them while learning. The general aim of reading-strategy use is to improve the performance of L2 reading comprehension. Strategies can be defined as conscious actions taken by the learners to improve their language acquisition. Strategies can be divided into two general categories; *observable* and *mental strategies.* Observable strategies, as the name suggests, can be observed, such as a learner taking notes during a lecture and comparing them with a peer or the textbook to improve understanding as well as recall of that information. Mental strategies, on the other hand, can be in the form of thinking about what is already known about a certain topic prior to reading about it. Due to the fact that strategies are conscious the L2 reader is actively involved in their selection and application. The main goal of this paper is to examine such mental reading strategies, precisely metacognitive reading strategies and their effectiveness on L2 reading comprehension.

## 2. Definitions of Terms

### 2.1. Reading Comprehension

Reading is defined as 'gaining access to meaning from printed symbols' by Ziegler and Goswami (2006). It is essentially the process of decoding

symbols into phonological forms with the goal of accessing the meaning of the printed material. Comprehension involves three elements; the reader who is tasked with comprehension, the text which is to be comprehended by the reader, and the activity in which comprehension is a part (Snow, 2002).

## 2.2 Reading strategies

Reading strategies, in simple terms, can be defined as any sort of interactive process which has aims to acquire meaning from the text, and associated reading skills that function inside the context of such strategies (Hudson, 2007). Chaury (2015) lists four general categories of reading strategies that have been identified in the literature: *cognitive*, such as bottom-up (e.g. scanning, skimming a text), or top-down, for instance predicting, *metacognitive*, such as planning and monitoring, *socio-affective*, for example collaborative reading, and *test-taking strategies*, such as reading the questions in the test prior to the text related to them (Chaury, 2015, 4).

## 2.3 Strategy instruction

Strategy instruction has been the focus of researchers and teaching professionals alike for many decades now. Rubin (1975) notes that 'if we knew more about what the successful learners did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their record of success (Rubin, 1975, p.42). Based on the same idea, that is what good readers do when they read Duke and Pearson (2002) provided a model of reading strategy instruction. According to this model the strategy should be explicitly described by the teachers and their content as well as its intended use need to be explained. Secondly, a model for the learners should be provided, and the strategy should be employed collectively where learners are scaffolded until they reach the point at which they become autonomous learners.

## 2.4 Metacognition

William James's introspective observation, Jean Piaget's directed thought and decentration, and Lev Vygotsky's inner speech and reflective consciousness are often cited as early works on metacognition (Fox & Riconscente, 2008). However, John H. Flavell is most commonly cited as the researcher who coined the term metacognition. A child psychologist, Flavell in his 1976 article, stated that metacognition can be defined as 'one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and outcomes or anything related to them (Flavell, 1976). Flavell further defines that metacognition is "the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective" (Flavell, 1976). Since the very early stages, his studies were focused on developmental psychology and, specifically, on children's thinking about their own thinking processes.

Flavell's (1979) model of metacognition consists of four categories: (1) metacognitive knowledge, (2) metacognitive experiences, (3) goals/tasks, and (4) actions/strategies. Flavell (1979) notes that individuals monitor their own cognitive process with the help of these four components. Metacognitive knowledge, in simple terms, is a person's knowledge and beliefs about the factors that influence cognitive operations. It is essentially gained knowledge about one's own cognitive process and the diverse "cognitive tasks, goals, actions, and experiences" (Flavell, 1979, p.906) and includes three variables; *person, task*, and *strategy.* The person variable is about any knowledge or awareness regarding how the individual learns as well as processes their cognitive pursuits. The person variable also comprises the capability of a learner to assess their strengths and weaknesses in reading, that is the overall awareness of their abilities. The task variable is basically the knowledge related to the nature of the task and requirements of the task in question. The strategy variable, finally, includes the strategies that are essential for the accomplishment of goals.

Metacognitive experiences refer to the inner responses that people retain related to their metacognitive processing. According to Flavell (1979) these are 'any conscious cognitive or affective experiences that accompany and pertain to any intellectual enterprise' (Flavell, 1979, p. 906). The third category in the model, goals or tasks, are 'the objectives of a cognitive enterprise' (Flavell, 1979, p. 907). For instance, if a learner is trying to find the similarities between primates this would constitute the goal of that reading task. The final category, actions or strategies, are employed by learners in order to accomplish both their cognitive and metacognitive aims.

## 2.5 Metacognition versus Cognition

Metacognition was mainly based on the work of John Flavell yet it applied to the language learning and teaching work of Wenden (1998). The difference between the terms *cognitive* and *metacognitive* developed into an explicit distinction of *knowledge* and *self-management* which eventually turned into *knowledge* and *procedures*. Although knowledge, for

instance knowledge of strategies, or self, would display differences depending on the learner, procedures do not because they are the underlying management process (Griffith, 2008, p. 11).

### 2.6 Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Baker and Brown (1984) note: "Since effective readers must have some awareness and control of the cognitive activities they engage in as they read, most characterisations of reading include skills and activates that involve metacognition" (Baker & Brown, 1984, p. 354).

Metacognitive reading strategies can be divided into three group: ***planning, monitoring,*** and ***evaluation*** strategies (Israel, 2007, p. 6). This framework of strategies is essentially a reflection of before-, during-, and after-reading processes when aiming for effective reading comprehension.

*Planning strategies* generally coincide with the pre-reading phase and are employed to improve comprehension. The following planning strategies are applied by metacognitive readers prior to reading: activating prior knowledge, overviewing information in the text, previewing the title of the text, pictures or illustrations, headings, or subheadings. These strategies generally help learners to perceive the overview of the text.

*Monitoring strategies* usually utilised during reading of a text in order to assist the reader in paying greater attention to meaning construction also helps to correct any sort of breakdowns in comprehension. These strategies include the following: determining word meaning, questioning, reflecting, monitoring, summarizing, looking for important information.

*Evaluation strategies* are strategies that are appropriated after reading which allow the learner to think from a critical perspective in order to make cognitive and affective judgments. The list of evaluation strategies include thinking like the author, evaluating the text, and anticipating use of knowledge (Israel, 2007).

## 3. Research on the Effectiveness of the Metacognitive Reading Strategies

There is a significant amount of literature on metacognition and it is continuously growing. A relatively recent research found 123 empirical studies published between 2003 and 2007 on metacognition and academic learning (Dinsmore et al., 2008, p. 395).

## 4.Research questions and hypotheses

This paper, in general, is looking into the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy training (***MRST***). For this purpose, various research papers are going to be examined in order to answer the following questions:

1. How effective is metacognitive reading strategy training compared to traditional ways of teaching reading?

2. Does the age, gender, L1 and the level of proficiency of the learners have any effect on success of the metacognitive reading strategy training?

Hypotheses regarding the above research questions are as follows:

a. Students who receive metacognitive reading strategy training are going to achieve much better comprehension test results.

b. Young adult and adult learners, due to their maturity, are going to apply the strategies better compared to younger learners. Gender, L1 and proficiency level of the learners are not going to affect the success of metacognitive reading strategy training.

## 5. Research on the effectiveness of MRST

### 5.1 Research on MRST with limited or no effect on reading comprehension

Despite the fact that there are numerous studies that have proven the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy training on learners' reading comprehension there are studies that actually display different results. The following studies' findings indicate either no effect on the reading comprehension of the learners who followed MRST or merely insignificant improvements on some specific group of learners.

A study by Mehrdad, Ahghar and Ahghar (2012) investigated the effects of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on the reading comprehension of elementary, intermediate, and advanced level learners. The participants were 180 undergraduate EFL students, both male and female, aged between 18 and 31 years old, who spoke Persian as their L1. The strategy training of the experimental group involved ten 90-minute sessions, which entailed strategies such as monitoring, evaluating, skimming, scanning, planning and so on. The results of the study found that strategy training had no effect on the reading comprehension of the elementary and advanced level learners whereas intermediate level learners pre- and post-test reading comprehension displayed

significant improvement. The research team concluded that MRST affects learners from different proficiency levels differently. The fact that elementary learners lack in depth text interpretation and they process it only on a surface level has a bearing on the effectiveness of strategy training. Learners at the advanced level have already developed various reading strategies and they are at a point where they can be considered autonomous learners and this fact alone suffices to explain the lack of improvement from strategy training. On the other hand, intermediate level learners are considered beyond the threshold level, that is they have already moved from skill-oriented reading to strategy-oriented reading.

This next study, Albazi & Shukri (2016), examined the extent to which MRST can improve the reading comprehension of 14 freshman, female college students, between the ages of eighteen and nineteen who spoke Arabic as their L1. The strategy training followed, which consisted of nine sessions each lasting 90 minutes, and used the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategy Inventory (MARSI) designed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). MARSI (see APPENDIX) consists of three categories: global reading strategies (*GLOB*) which take place pre-reading and are composed of predicting and problem-solving strategies (*PROB*), that is to find solutions to problems which occur when reading, and support strategies (*SUP*), which are strategies including note-taking and summarising. Following the completion of treatment participants took a post-test. Although there was improvement in the case of overall reading comprehension, there was nearly no difference between the scores of True or False questions pre- and post-treatment. The reason for MRST having no effect on this question type according to the researchers might be linked to either this specific question style or the validity and reliability of the tests.

The final study (Pei, 2014) in this section, set out to answer the following question: Does instruction of metacognitive strategy training have any significant effect on EFL learners' reading comprehension?

The participants of this study were 66 freshmen, 31 males and 35 females, at the lower-intermediate level of proficiency, with Chinese as their L1. The MRST of the experimental group took place once a week for 15 minutes each session for a period of 8 weeks. After the completion of the training of the experimental group, both the experimental and control groups took another reading test. The findings revealed no significant differences between the pre- and post-treatment of the test results of the experimental group. The main reasoning of the researchers was the low input, merely 15 minutes of training each session, of the treatment. Therefore, in order to achieve desired results longer training sessions are required.

## 4.2. Research on MRST with positive effect on reading comprehension

Research, as mentioned previously, on the effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy training is burgeoning. Most of the research on the topic reveal positive correlations between strategy training and learners' reading comprehension. The following studies in this section are from various countries, including different levels, ages, and L1 learners.

Habibian's (2015) study set out to answer the question: Do explicit instructions of using metacognitive strategies enhance students reading performance? Participants in the study were a group of 48 undergraduate learners, at beginner level whose L1 was Malay. The strategy training of the experimental group took twelve weeks, three days a week and an hour each session. The training focused on three different strategies, that are; planning, monitoring, and assessment. *Planning strategies* are mainly about stating a specific goal, selecting operation, guessing desired results, identifying potential errors and certain ways of recovering from them. *Monitoring strategies* include keeping the goal in mind, spotting errors, knowing when one of the goals is achieved, knowing how to recover from errors, deciding when to continue and so on. In the case of *assessment strategies*, which include judging accuracy and sufficiency of the results, assessing goal achievement, error management, and general evaluation of procedure appropriateness, the results of the post-test revealed that learners in the experimental group employed monitoring and assessment strategies successfully which in return resulted in significantly higher scores. The researcher concluded that MRST was effective in improving learners reading comprehension. Othman et al. (2014) examined the same relationship between MRST and reading comprehension with another group of 60 Malaysian students aged between 10 and 11. The results revealed the nearly indisputable positive correlation between MRST and reading comprehension.

Lian and Seepho (2012) investigated the effects of MRST among 58 third-year undergraduate students who spoke Chinese as their L1 on an 18-week-long study. In their study researchers (Lian & Seepho, 2012) incorporated basic metacognitive components of planning, monitoring, and evaluating, into reading instruction for the experimental group. In the post-tests participants from the experimental group outperformed the control group participants leading researchers to be convinced of the effectiveness of MRST. On a similar study, Lian and Seepho (2013) looked into the metacognitive strategy use of 33 high and low proficiency level third-year undergraduate students in which they found

that the higher proficiency level learners employed more strategies compared to their lower proficiency counterparts.

Wang (2014) looking into the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training with Chinese learners, as Lian and Seepho (2012, 2013) did, investigated 63 sophomores for a period of ten week, two periods a week which amounted to 100 minutes. The experimental groups MRST included three methods: verbal reports, also known as think-aloud method, interactive teaching, and knowledge interaction. Interactive teaching followed Palincsar and Brown's (1984) Reciprocal Teaching methodology in which students take turns assuming the roles of tutor and tutee. In knowledge impartation learners of the experimental group took part in lectures where they had received information about the origin, and elements of metacognition as a well as metacognitive strategy applications and meaning. The comparison of the pre- and post- reading tests of the learners in experimental group indicated significant improvement.

Another study (Wichadee, 2011) investigated the effectiveness of MRST over a 14-week semester with 40, first-year undergraduate students with Thai as their L1. MRST conducted for ten weeks (first and last two weeks of the semester spent on data collection), in which learners received 45 minutes of reading strategy instruction each session. The comparison of the pre- and post-test results of the experimental group as well as the comparison of experimental and control groups revealed the significant improvement achieved by MRST. Following the completion of the MRST both groups of learners, experimental and control groups, took a post-test. Significantly improved test results for the experimental group's reading comprehension test scores, according to the researchers, indicated the strong relationship between MRST and reading comprehension.

Tavakoli and Koosha (2016) researched 100 English majors, 80 males and 20 females, ranging in age from 19 to 28, speaking Persian as their L1. The MRST took place at five different stages; preparation, presentation, practice, self-evaluation, and expansion and was spread over a twelve-week semester, with each session lasting 60 minutes per week. After the MRST both control and experimental group participants were given a post-test. Results displayed that students in the experimental group achieved much higher scores compared to control group students, suggesting the positive effect of MRST.

Participants in Razi (2014) were 46 undergraduate EFL learners, whose L1 was Turkish. The study (Razi, 2014) set out to examine whether there was a difference between post MRST of the experimental and control groups. The author implemented a version of metacognitive reading strategy training named Metacognitive Reading Strategy Training Programme or METARESTRAP (see APPENDIX) which introduced a set of strategies such as planning, background knowledge, annotating and so on explicitly. The treatment of the experimental group lasted for six weeks, included 60-minute sessions two times a week in which participants were taught how to employ aforementioned strategies. Upon the completion of the treatment both groups, control and experimental, took a post-test. The results revealed considerable differences between control and experimental groups in which experimental group achieved significantly better scores.

A study by Boulware-Gooden et al. (2007) looked into the effectiveness of MRST on reading comprehension among third-grade students. The participants of this study were 119 third-grade students from two urban elementary schools. The students in both schools received 30-minute-long reading classes for five weeks, however, only the learners at the experimental school group received MRST training. The training of the learners in the experimental group included schema activation, making word webs, think out loud procedures, summarisation, and a stage that is adapted from QtA (Beck & McKeown, 2001) in which the teacher initiates a discussion with a set of questions and gradually learners assume the same role. Post-test results of the study revealed that the learners who underwent MRST, achieved better results compared to control group learners. Similarly, Muñiz-Swicegood (1994) in her study focused on third-grade learners, aged 8 and 9, L1 being dominantly Spanish. Their were 95 learners, 53 girls and 42 boys. After a six-week long MRST learners in the experimental group performed much better compared to the learners in the control group.

## 5. Discussion

The first research question of this literature review was about the comparison of MRST and traditional reading instruction and the null hypothesis was that learners who receive MRST are going to be more successful. Considering the findings of the studies (Habibian, 2015; Lian & Seepho, 2012, 2013; Wang, 2014; Wichadee, 2011; Tavakoli et al., 2016; Razi, 2014; Boulware-Gooden et al.,2007) it is safe to assert that, although there are some exceptions, MRST is far more fruitful than traditional reading instruction and learners who receive MRST achieve much better comprehension test scores.

The second research question of the review was regarding learner differences, that is their age, gender, L1, and level of proficiency and the effect of MRST on them and the null hypothesis was that although young adult

and adult learners are more likely to apply the strategy training into their learning better than young learners, the success of metacognitive reading strategy training would not be effected by other variables, that is the age, gender, L1 and level of proficiency of the learners. The results of the studies display that learners aged 8 and 9 (Boulware-Gooden et al., 2007) can benefit from the MRST as much as young adults aged 19 to 28 (Tavakoli et al., 2016). Also, considering the L1 of the learners, it is apparently not a negative factor on the effectiveness of MRST whether the learners L1 is Turkish (Razi, 2014), Thai (Wichadee, 2011) or Chinese (Wang, 2011). Given the fact that apart from one (Albazi & Shukri, 2016) all of the studies examined both males and females, gender does not seem to have any effect on strategy training. Considering there is merely one study (Mehrad et al., 2012) in the literature reviewed above, the effect of proficiency level of the learners on the success of metacognitive reading strategy training cannot be easily determined and it requires further research.

## 6. Conclusion

This literature review has investigated the role and effectiveness of metacognitive reading strategy training on L2 learners reading comprehension. It is evident from the previously mentioned studies that the explicit teaching of metacognitive strategies is one of the keys for achieving better reading skills as a whole. Students benefit greatly from receiving direct explanations about strategies that would improve their comprehension. However, it is imperative to teach not merely declarative knowledge, which is about knowing what strategies are, but also procedural knowledge, namely knowing how to employ these strategies, as well as conditional knowledge, that is identifying when, where, and why to use them and assessing their application. As Anderson (2002) notes students should be given explicit instruction on how to employ these strategies, and they need to be aware of the fact that no single strategy would be employed at every instance. Learners should also be taught how to choose the strategies that would give the learners best results.

According to Anderson (2004) one of the most important skills regarding reading that second language teacher can give to their learners is metacognitive awareness of the reading process. It can be easily understood from the aforementioned studies that it is necessary for learners to be metacognitively aware of what they are doing. Essentially when learners think about their learning strategies, they can have better chances to determine consciously what should they do to promote their own learning which would also lead the way for them to become autonomous learners.

It is suggested that learners who lack skills or knowledge bases in a specific area have tendencies to overestimate their ability in that area (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Therefore, as Grabe (2002) notes the focus should be on developing strategic readers rather than on reading strategies. as demonstrated with the findings of the aforementioned studies metacognitive strategy training equips learners to become strategic readers who have a better understanding themselves as well as the texts and tasks they are dealing with.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1

**Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory**
**(MARSI) Version 1.0**
Kouider Mokhtari and Carla Reichard © 2002

**DIRECTIONS**: Listed below are statements about what people do when they read academic or school-related materials such as textbooks, library books, etc. Five numbers follow each statement (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) and each number means the following:

- **1** means "I **never or almost never** do this."
- **2** means "I do this **only occasionally."**
- **3** means "I **sometimes** do this." (About **50%** of the time.)
- **4** means "I **usually** do this."
- **5** means "I **always or almost always** do this."

After reading each statement, **circle the number** (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that applies to you using the scale provided. Please note that there are **no right or wrong answers** to the statements in this inventory.

| TYPE | STRATEGIES | SCALE | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| GLOB | 1. I have a purpose in mind when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 4. I preview the text to see what it's about before reading it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 6.I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 8. I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 9.I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 12. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 13. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 14. I decide what to read closely and what to ignore. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 15. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 16. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 17. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 18. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 19. I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 20. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 21. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 22. I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 23. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 24. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 25. I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 26. I try to guess what the material is about when I read. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 27. When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| SUP | 28. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| GLOB | 29. I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| PROB | 30. I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

**Reference**: Mokhtari, K., & Reichard, C. (2002). Assessing students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94 (2), 249-259.

**Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory**
**SCORING RUBRIC**

Student Name: _____ Age: _____ Date: _____

Grade in School: [illegible]

1. Write your response to each statement (i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
2. Add up the scores under each column. Place the result on the line under each column.
3. Divide the score by the number of statements in each column to get the average for each subscale.
4. Calculate the average for the inventory by adding up the subscale scores and dividing by 30.
5. Compare your results to those shown below.
6. Discuss your results with your teacher or tutor.

| Global Reading Strategies (GLOB Subscale) | Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB Subscale) | Support Reading Strategies (SUP Subscale) | Overall Reading Strategies |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. _____ | 8. _____ | 2. _____ | GLOB _____ |
| 3. _____ | 11. _____ | 5. _____ | |
| 4. _____ | 13. _____ | 6. _____ | PROB_____ |
| 7. _____ | 16. _____ | 9. _____ | |
| 10. _____ | 18. _____ | 12. _____ | SUP _____ |
| 14. _____ | 21. _____ | 15. _____ | |
| 17. _____ | 27. _____ | 20. _____ | |
| 19. _____ | 30. _____ | 24. _____ | |
| 22. _____ | | 28. _____ | |
| 23. _____ | | | |
| 25. _____ | | | |
| 26. _____ | | | |
| 29. _____ | | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| _____ GLOB Score | _____ PROB Score | _____ SUP Score | _____ Overall Score |
| _____ GLOB Mean | _____ PROB Mean | _____SUP Mean | _____Overall Mean |

**KEY TO AVERAGES**: 3.5 or higher = High 2.5 – 3.4 = Medium 2.4 or lower = Low

**INTERPRETING YOUR SCORES**: The overall average indicates how often you use reading strategies when reading academic materials. The average for each subscale of the inventory shows which group of strategies (i.e., global, problem-solving, and support strategies) you use most when reading. With this information, you can tell if you are very high or very low in any of these strategy groups. It is important to note, however, that the best possible use of these strategies depends on your reading ability in English, the type of material read, and your purpose for reading it. A low score on any of the subscales or parts of the inventory indicates that there may be some strategies in these parts that you might want to learn about and consider using when reading (adapted from Oxford 1990: 297-300).

# Appendix 2

**Appendix A.** Strategies in METARESTRAP

| |
|---|
| Pre Test<br>❖ Reading test (90 minutes)<br>❖ The MRSQ (15 minutes) |
| Week 1<br>*Introduction to MRSs*<br>❖ Introduction to metacognition and MRSs.<br>❖ Why do we need to learn MRSs?<br>❖ Principles of METARESTRAP.<br>*Planning strategies*<br>❖ Plan your time, identify your goals, and motivate yourself to read.<br>❖ Preview the text to find out information relevant to your reading goals (skimming, scanning, skipping) |
| Week 2<br>*Background knowledge strategies*<br>❖ Identify the genre of the text<br>❖ Activate your relevant schema (e.g.: refer to the title or pictures)<br>❖ Distinguish between already known and the new information.<br>❖ Check the text against your schemata. |
| Week 3<br>*Question generation and inference strategies*<br>❖ Form questions from headings and sub-headings.<br>❖ Anticipate/Self-question the forthcoming information.<br>❖ Answer your questions/Clarify your predictions while reading.<br>❖ When information critical to your understanding of the text is not directly stated, try to infer that information.<br>❖ Infer pronoun referents. |
| Week 4<br>*Annotating strategies*<br>❖ Underline/highlight important information.<br>❖ Paraphrase the author's words in the margins.<br>❖ Summarize.<br>❖ Write questions/notes in the margins to better understand. |
| Week 5<br>*Visualizing strategies*<br>❖ Draw graphic logs.<br>❖ Refer to graphic organizers (semantic mapping/clustering). |
| Week 6<br>*Context-based evaluative strategies*<br>❖ Re-read the text in case of difficulty.<br>❖ Read the text in short parts and check your understanding.<br>❖ Determine the meaning of critical unknown words.<br>❖ Distinguish main ideas from minor ones. |
| Post Test<br>❖ Reading test (90 minutes)<br>❖ The MRSQ (15 minutes) |

**Appendix B.** Principles of METARESTRAP

1. When you learn a new strategy, tell what the strategy is, demonstrate how to use it, explain why you need it, when and where you can use it, and how you can evaluate your use of the strategy.
2. Prepare yourself for reading the text by activating your relevant schemata previously, engage in reading interactively while reading, and reduce information in accordance with its importance while retaining important information after reading it.
3. Read as much as possible after school on a wide range of topics which are appropriate to your level by practising newly learned strategies to transfer them to new situations.
4. Read individually and silently. Subvocalize as little as possible.
5. Read different texts by using various strategies and also adjust strategies in accordance with your aims and/or problems you encounter in reading.
6. Guess unknown words by getting help from the content and also by paying attention to prefixes, suffixes, familiar roots, grammar which may indicate information, and semantic clues related with the topic. Use dictionary only as a last resort in case of prevention of overall meaning.
7. Pay attention to discourse markers while reading since they indicate relations and discriminations of ideas.
8. Tolerate ambiguity in a text and try to maintain reading for a while even if you are unsuccessful.

# Reducing the Gap between Perception and Practice of L1 Use through Raising Awareness in Korean English Kindergarten Teachers

**Jeehee Kim**
*Research Methodology*

***Abstract***

*In Korea, a lot of English kindergartens and institutions pursue English only policy and immersion program. On the contrary, many studies claim that students' first language can be the main tool to help them understand new words and utterances in context when the use of L1 is strategic, judicious, or monitored. However, the problem is teachers are often unaware of their behavior in the classroom, especially on their own language use. In addition, teachers feel uncomfortable and guilty using students' L1 because of the idea of maximizing input in the target language. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers use L1 with conscious awareness in an effective, strategic and judicious way. In an attempt to help teachers feel more comfortable about using L1 in an effective and judicious way, this study examines 1) whether raised awareness influences a teacher's language use and perception on their L1 use, 2) if a mini-workshop can raise the participants' awareness and 3) how the participants' language use and perception on L1 use changes.*

## 1. Introduction

In Korea where English ability is considered important for success, a lot of English kindergartens where children from 3 to 5 years old learn and immersed on the language have been established responding to the wish of many parents for their children start learning English early. A lot of English kindergartens and institutions pursue English only policy and immersion program and parents expect English to be used all the time. However, considerable number of teachers struggles in the classroom using only English because they encounter the situations where using students' first language seems to be more effective for several different reasons. Even though the teachers are the ones who know the classroom situation best and can make the best decision for the learners, they would still feel troublesome and conscious using students' L1 because of the notion on maximizing input in the target language. As opposed to the view of maximizing input in the target language by using only the L2, a lot of studies advocate using L1 for L2 learning (Baker, 2011, Jee, 2012, Anton & DiCamilla, 1998, Iida, 2014, and Inbar-Lourie, 2010). Cummins (2007) argues that students' L1 can function "as a stepping stone to scaffold more accomplished performance in the L2" (p. 238) when used as a cognitive and linguistic resource. What these studies argue is that L1 can be valuable and useful when it is used "well". As Gaebler (2013) states, "a more contemporary view is therefore that the judicious, strategic, or monitored classroom use of L1 can aid in the acquisition of L2" and many researchers studied the effective ways of using L1 (Cook, 2001; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Harbord, 1992, as cited in Jee, 2012). However, the problem is teachers are often unaware of their behavior especially of their own language use in the classroom. Jingxia (2010) studied English teachers in China regarding their code-switching and found out that teachers use code-switching to their first language "automatically or unconsciously" (p. 15) in a lot of cases. In addition, English teachers sometimes use L1 impulsively because of frustration and then feel guilty about it. Moreover, the value of L1 use is neglected and omitted in the TEFL methodology literature (Afzal, 2013). Thus, the opinion that only the target language should be used in the classroom and that L1 should not be used is more widely spread and makes most teachers feel responsible even if it is necessary. Teachers and parents should then acknowledge that L1 can scaffold students' learning efficiently. More importantly, it is suggested that teachers use L1 with conscious awareness in an effective, strategic and judicious way.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to aid teachers to feel more comfortable on using L1 in an effective and judicious way through raising their language use awareness and to guide them using L1 in a strategic and effective way in the classroom. The research examines how awareness can influence the teachers' perception and actual use of L1 for young learners in Korea and whether a mini-workshop can increase the awareness and lead to change in their perception and practice. The purpose is to guide teachers on using L1 in a more strategic, consistent and planned way along with high level of awareness, rather than impulsively use out of frustration or anger. Regarding perceptions and beliefs, this study aims to help teachers see the positive sides of using L1. Along with that, this study also intends to reduce the gap between teachers' perception and practice after the mini-workshop by recognizing the positive effect of L1 and using L1 effectively and systematically. The research questions are as follows:

*1. Is there any difference in a teacher's language use and perception on this due to raised awareness after a mini-workshop?*

*2. Does a mini-workshop about strategic language use, planning and reflection raise teachers' awareness about language use in the classroom?*

*3. How does a teacher's language use and perception on L1 use change?*

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1 Previous studies advocating L1 use in classrooms

As opposed to the traditional view that L1 should be avoided in L2 learning, a lot of studies argue that L1 can be a useful tool and resource in L2 learning. Cook (2001) refutes avoiding the L1 in the classroom, identifying and contradicting three arguments for L1 avoidance from L1 learning, compartmentalization of languages, and the maximum provision of L2 input. According to Cook (2001), one of the reasons for avoiding the L1 in L2 learning classroom is the idea that successful L2 acquisition can be achieved when L2 is kept separate from the L1. In this view, L2 learning should be done "solely through the L2 rather than being linked to the L1" (Cook, 2001, p. 407). However, Cook (2001) argues that the two languages are interwoven and integrated in every aspect of language, including vocabulary, syntax, phonology, and pragmatics. Therefore, avoiding the use of L1 just because L1 and L2 should be kept separately does not make sense. Cook (2001) suggests that L1 can be used more positively when deliberately involved, such as a way of conveying meaning, explaining grammar, and organizing the class. Unlike first language acquisition where a child "cannot fall back on another language" (Cook, 2010, p.147), second language and foreign language learners have their first language that can be used as a useful resource in their processing. Teachers can make second language learning achievable by using L1 as a way of scaffolding and use in collaborative interactions with students rather than merely sticking to the target language.

According to sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), learning takes place during social interactions, especially on collaborative interactions with others who are more knowledgeable and capable than the learner. During these interactions, adults guide the learner within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) through scaffolding. According to Du (2016), a lot of studies (Anton and DiCamilla 1999; Brooks and Donato 1994; Brooks et al. 1997; Villamil and De Guerrero 1996; De Guerrero and Villamil 2000; Swain and Lapkin 1999; Donato and Lantolf 1990, cited in Du 2016) show the role of L1 in collaborative interactions between students and between the teacher and students. Anton and DiCamilla (1999) expressed using L1 is beneficial and stated "it acts as a critical psychological tool that enables learners to construct effective collaborative dialogue in the completion of meaning-based language tasks by performing three important functions: construction of scaffolded help, establishment of intersubjectivity, and use of private speech" (p. 245). Mulia (2015) argues that students' first language can be a great source for understanding new words and utterances and that the teachers use of code switching helps young learners to connect the new linguistic form from their existing knowledge and past experiences. Mulia (2015) also stated "scaffolding techniques should be used by pre-school teachers, particularly in ways which support children's cognitive development in constructing new meanings based on their first language experience" (p.2). Cummins (2007) argues that students' L1 can function "as a stepping stone to scaffold more accomplished performance in the L2" (p. 238) when used as a cognitive and linguistic resource. Moreover, learners perceive code-switching as a positive strategy. Ahmad & Jusoff (2009) found significant relationships between teachers' code-switching and learners' affective support and teachers' code-switching and learners' learning success. Therefore, students' L1 can be a great source both emotionally and

cognitively, and teachers and parents should acknowledge that L1 could scaffold students' learning efficiently. More significantly, teachers need to be guided and trained to use L1 not randomly but effectively, systematically and selectively so that they can be assertive in their L1 use.

### 2.2 Raising awareness for principled and systematic use of L1

A lot of studies examined teachers' L1 use in L2 learning and showed that teachers are less aware of the extent to which they use L1. Copland & Neokleous (2010) found that teachers were "less aware of the amount of L1 they use in class or the purposes for which they use it, underreporting and 'differently' reporting their L1 practices" (p.271). According to Edstrom (2009), it is stated that many foreign language teachers are unaware on how much L1 and L2 they use by Polio and Duff (1994) [Note: I do not know why this one is cited here] and that they themselves find the mismatch between their perceptions and actual practice (Edstrom, 2003, 2006; Oskoz & Liskin-Gasparro, 2001, as cited in Edstrom, 2009). In addition to the amount of L1 use, teachers are also unaware of the specific functions they use L1 for (Edstrom, 2009). Much of our language use is automatic with less awareness if we have enough proficiency in that language that explains why teachers are less aware of their L1 use. When behavior is habituated and automated, we unconsciously do not consider about the consequences of that behavior and this is called habitual behavior that is a form of automatic and routine behavior that people repeat because it is "easy, comfortable or rewarding" (Egmond and Brunel, 2007). For language teachers, L1 use is a habitual and automated behavior and so is teaching practice, which leads to little thinking when using languages in the classroom. However, according to Edstrom (2009), "such awareness is the key to evaluating the appropriateness of their language use" (p. 13).

Therefore, this limited awareness of their own pedagogical practices and language use in the classroom should be raised. Kim & Elder (2005) concludes that "teachers need to be made aware of their language choices in the interest of providing a classroom environment that is sufficiently rich in TL input to enable language acquisition to occur" (p.358). Raising awareness can be a major contribution in reducing the gap and discrepancy between beliefs and practice. As Edstrom (2009) claims, it is important to make teachers be aware of their L1 use so that they can evaluate their language use. When teachers find inappropriateness or problem in their L1 use, they would have intention and goal to change their practices. Thus, increasing the awareness is the first step in changing one's behavior.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Participants

The participants of this research are three female English teachers. They are teaching 6 years old children in the same English kindergarten. Although the number is not big, the participants were chosen carefully. Years of teaching ranges from 6 to 10 years, and more specific the years of teaching kindergarteners are from a few months to 3 years. The participants' English learning experience and teacher training experience varies. Therefore, it is reasonable to claim that the participants represent various teachers working in an English kindergarten.

#### 3.1.1 Teacher E

Teacher E has been teaching English for six years. She has been teaching kindergarteners for two years. Her students are six years old and have been learning English in the same school since they were five years old. In terms of teacher training, teacher E has not taken any education related course or TESOL program before. Her English learning experience focused on listening and speaking in the early phase. She learned English through stories, listening to tapes, and had private tutoring with an English speaker for pronunciation. However, when she entered middle school, her English learning focused on grammar and memorizing vocabulary.

#### 3.1.2 Teacher KT

Teacher KT has been teaching English for four years and teaching in an English kindergarten for three years. Like teacher E, teacher KT is a homeroom teacher for six years old children who have been learning English in the same school for two years. As for teacher training, teacher KT majored in Education in Hawaii for her bachelor's degree but she has not taken a TESOL program. Regarding her English learning experience, teacher KT also learned English in an institution focusing on listening and speaking rather more on grammar and vocabulary after entering a middle school.

### 3.1.3 Teacher KR

Teacher KR has been teaching English for ten years but it was her first time teaching young learners in an English kindergarten. It has been only a month that she has started teaching children when the research began. She is teaching six years old children. Unlike the other two teachers' students, it was the first time for teacher KR's students to learn English in an English kindergarten. Teacher KR majored in English language and literature and took some education related courses in the university. In addition, she took a TESOL certificate program in Korea. She learned English through private tutoring with Korean teacher before elementary and she was taught using lessons and words on the textbook.

## 3.2 Data collection

The data were collected using mixed methods, triangulating qualitative data and quantitative data: (a) questionnaire; (b) semi-structured interviews with the teachers; and (c) classroom observations. Convergent parallel model where different data sources were compared with one another and used in order to see if the participants' beliefs match with their practice.

### 3.2.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was used to check the participants' beliefs and perceptions about language learning, language teaching and classroom language, and get general information such as teaching experiences and English ability (see Appendix A). Questions asking beliefs and perceptions about language learning were taken from BALLI focusing on Foreign Language Aptitude, nature of learning and strategy. Questions about language teaching were from the questionnaire used in Grijalva & Barajas (2013)'s study. Questions about classroom language use were from Gaebler's (2014) study and Jee's (2012) study. Participants were asked to check how much Korean or English should be used for a classroom situations. The options were (a) nearly all Korean; (b) mostly in Korean; (c) Half English / Half Korean; (d) mostly in English; and (e) nearly all English. Thirteen situations were provided, including "teaching new vocabulary" and "explaining grammar points". 5-likert scale type questions were also used where the participants were to mark how much they agree or disagree to the statement. The goal of using the questionnaire was to understand how the participants deliberate and feel about using Korean and see if there is any factor that affects such beliefs on their perception on their English proficiency level and general beliefs about language learning.

### 3.2.2 Interviews

Two interviews were conducted, before and after the mini-workshop. The interviews were semi-structured with the aim to learn about the participants' backgrounds as language learners, language teachers and their opinions about teaching and classroom language use in depth, based on their answers to the questionnaire. During the first interview, various questions about their learning experiences, teaching experiences, teacher training experiences and difficulties in teaching English to children were asked (see Appendix B). The second interview after the workshop and observation was conducted to see changes in the participants' beliefs about L1 use in the classroom and perception on their own L1 use (see Appendix C).

### 3.2.3 Classroom recordings

Like the interviews, there were two phases of classroom observation, before and after the workshop. Video recording and voice recording were used to see the participants' practice and real use of the language in the classroom. The recordings were conducted from Monday to Friday, including all the classes with different subject such as art, science, cooking, English language, songs and so on. In addition, teachers' language use during the lunch time was recorded to see if the amount of L1 use is different during regular classes. After the mini-workshop sessions, the classroom practices were observed in order to see the changes in the participants' language use in the classroom. The main focus was on whether they use L1, following the plan they have made only in situations where they think L1 is necessary rather not impulsively or unplanned. To prevent the participants from knowing the purpose of the study on checking any differences before and after the workshop, the recordings were continuously used during the mini-workshop sessions as well.

## 3.3 Procedure

The procedure of data collection in this research can be summarized into 5 major steps: questionnaire, pre-interview, pre-observation recordings, post-observation recordings, and finally post-interview. Between pre-observation recordings and post-observation recordings, a mini-workshop hosted by the researcher took place. The procedure is presented in the figure 1 below.

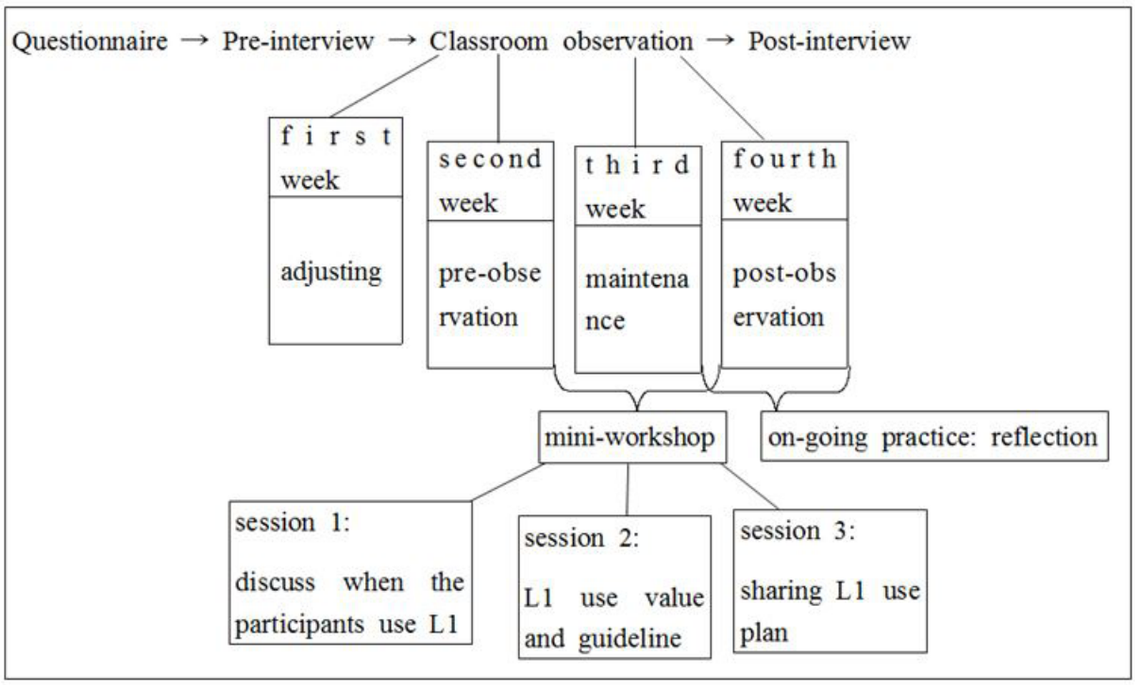


Figure 1. Data procedure

The classroom recordings during the first week were not analyzed because the first week was for the participants to adjust and get used on being recorded. The second week's recordings were the actual data that are to be analyzed to examine the participants' actual use of Korean before the mini-workshop. The classroom recordings were maintained during the mini-workshop period so that the participants would not need to adjust to being recorded again. After the workshop, the post-observation data were collected with an aim to see if there is any change in their L1 use. After the observation, the post interview was conducted to see changes in the participants' beliefs and perception about their L1 use in the classroom.

*A mini-workshop*

Follwing the second week of classroom observation, a mini-workshop was held. It is called as the "mini" workshop since there were only three sessions and each session was only 30-minute long (see appendix D). The mini-workshop was hosted by the researcher and designed to raise the participants' awareness in language use and suggest guidelines for effective use of L1. For the first session, the participants discussed situations they think they used L1 based on their memory and experiences, and the intention was to check if they were aware of their L1 use. For the second session, the value of L1 in L2 learning was explained by the host and the guideline was provided to help the participants think about using L1 in an effective way in their class. The guideline used in the workshop was from Pan & Pan's (2010) study which categorizes teachers' appropriate and effective code switching into three major categories based on previous studies: for curriculum access, for classroom management discourse, and for interpersonal relations. After the second session, the participants were given assignment and asked to think about the best practices of using Korean for their own students and bring a written form of the rough plan on when to use Korean and its rationales. For the last session, the participants shared the plan they made, critically discussed about them and made the plan sophisticated. At the end, they were asked to write reflections about their L1 use after every class.

## 3.4 Data analysis

With the intention to see if there is any change in the participants' practice and perception of L1 use in classroom, data from the questionnaire, interviews and observation will be analyzed and compared to one another. More specifically, in order to see the changes in the participants' perception and attitude toward L1 use and changes in the gap between their perception and practice, four things will be examined in this mixed method research: gap before a mini-workshop, gap after a mini-workshop, change in gap and change in perception (Figure 2). First, to see a gap between the participants' perception and practice in L1 use "before" a mini-workshop, the situations that

they marked as when they should use L1 on questionnaire will be compared with the actual situations they use L1 from the observation.

In order to code classroom observation data, teachers' L1 use will be divided into and identified with one of the 13 categories, according to the function of the L1: starting class, giving instructions for classroom activities, teaching new vocabulary, explaining grammar points, asking questions to check students' reading or listening comprehension, giving instructions for homework, informing school's special events, engaging in casual conversation and building rapport with students, providing clarification when students don't understand in English, disciplining students, giving individual help to students, answering to the students' questions, and giving feedback (Jee, 2012). The incidents of the participants using Korean will be checked and put into one of the situations on the observation rubric sheet (see Appendix E). The same categories are presented on the questionnaire for the question upon knowing when the participants think they should use L1. Thus, for comparison, the accordance between the answers from the questionnaire and the observation data will be examined. For each situation, the percentage of the use of Korean out of utterances will be calculated from the observation recordings and will be compared with the answers from the questionnaire focusing on whether the percentages are matching or not for each situation. Gap "after" a mini-workshop will be examined similarly by comparing the classroom observation data after the mini-workshop and the plan on the use of L1 that the participants prepared in the mini-workshop. Then the calculated gap "before" the mini-workshop and "after" the mini-workshop will be compared to see if there is any change in the gaps. Change in perception will be examined in a qualitative way by comparing the answers in the interview "before" the mini-workshop and "after" the mini-workshop. Data from the interviews will be analyzed focusing on expressions and words used by the participants in their answers, categorized as positive and negative.

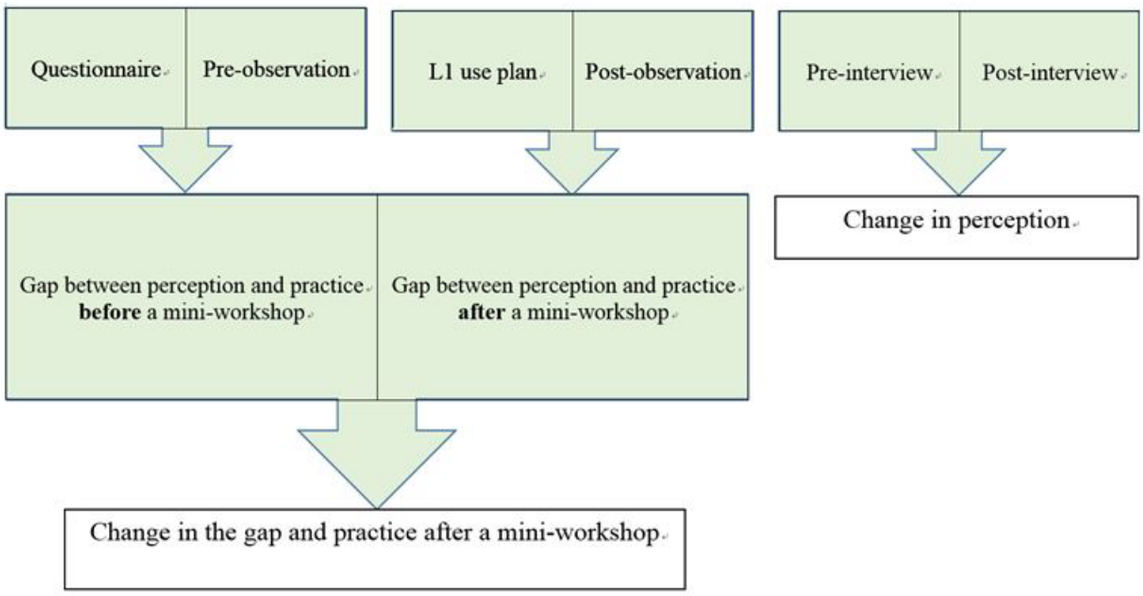


Figure 2. Data analysis

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# Reviewing Student-centered Learning Environments in Technology-mediated Classrooms

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*Introduction to CALL*

***Abstract***

*Student-centered learning offers learners what traditional educational methods could not. It provides learners with an optimal class environment where they become the center of learning. With the recent advancement of technology, much of research in the field of CALL has been devoted to promoting a student-centered learning environment in both the physical and virtual world of learning. Hence, the purpose of this paper is to identify the foundational ideas of technology-mediated student-centered learning environments (SCLEs). First, this paper will review SCLEs and technology-mediated learning environments broadly and separately from a theoretical perspective. Second, different research studies that have implemented student-centered learning in technology-mediated classrooms will be reviewed. Many studies have been conducted to show the implementations of technology in student-centered environments. However, the results often vary depending on content, learner differences, task design, and length of the studies naming but a few of many more variables. Third, this paper will propose a possible technological tool that can be utilized to promote SCLEs. Lastly, this paper will outline some limitations of SCLEs in technologically mediated classrooms and the drawbacks of encouraging such an approach in environments where second language is taught and practiced.*

## 1. Introduction

Education that aims to change the type of questions asked from "What will we teach?", "How should we teach?" and "What should we use to teach?" to "What will they learn?", "How can they be assisted in learning?" and "To what extend did they learn?" is well on its way of being more student-centered (Cubukcu, 2012). A student-centered learning approach considers its learners as active participants in learning. Learners are involved from the beginning of deciding what to learn, the process of how to learn, and the result of what was learned and how learning was meaningful to them. Hence, student-centered learning concentrates on accommodating to the needs, demands, and interests of the learners and the aim is to appropriate these factors into learning. Ultimately it hopes to produce far more engaged and interactive, highly motivated, and self-governed learners (Hannafin, Land, & Oliver, 2012).

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 Student-centered Learning Environments

"Student-centered" is often used in conjunction with words such as processing, environment, learning, and teaching. Student-centered learning refers to an idea where the learners are the main experiencers of learning. Student-centered learning environments refer to space – both physical and virtual – or learning platforms that are created for learners to explore and experience the ideas of student-centered learning (Easter & Jonassen, 2011). The power of learning lies in the learners rather than the teachers. This does not ensure less of a demand or responsibility on the teachers. Teachers still take on an active role, but what they do is different than that of a traditional classroom. They must initially facilitate the class, guide students, instruct clearly, correct when necessary, and always be intentional and present in case

assistance or scaffolding is necessary (Jonassen, Land & Oliver, 2012).

SCLEs are typically based on two psychological foundations. These are social cognition and constructivism (Hannafin & Land, 2000). While social cognition focuses on the importance of social context of learning, constructivism looks at the relationship between cognition and context (Greeno, 1997; Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1988). At the heart of social cognition and constructivism is how students interact and determine what learning is and how they make it personally meaningful. SCLEs can be manifested in many different types. Some include learning communities, problem-based learning, communities of practice, collaborative learning environments, computer simulations, and virtual worlds (Beldarrain, 2006).

SCLEs can be understood as settings that determine and drive the goals of learning. Student-centeredness first evolved through the reconsideration of learner and teacher roles in learning (Hannafin, Hill & Land, 1997). These environments were specifically designed to support the individual learners in their own development of meaning as they engage and interact in the learning process and performing of the tasks. The tasks are designed to enable learners to approach learning personally according to their own interests, demands, and needs. This is dramatically different from traditional classrooms where learners are given instructions to simply follow and produce in order to achieve the correct outcome. In a SCLE, there are various perspectives to look at learning. There is no single correct answer. Rather, there are many different possible answers and interpretations in SCLEs, even though the learners are working on the same task (Hannafin & Land, 2000). As mentioned, student-centered learning is often look at in contrast to traditional learning which focuses more on the importance of teachers and their presence in the classroom. Other major differences between student-centered approach and traditional instructional approach include goals, roles and responsibilities of teachers and students, motivation, assessment, and interaction which mainly consists of some form of collaboration amongst the students (Pedersen & Liu, 2003).

Student-centered learning is an approach that birthed many different theories and methods of teaching. One design that is commonly practiced is related to interaction and collaboration in classrooms (Klinger & Vaughn, 1998). The main idea here is that learners approach a task through interacting with their peers by sharing ideas collaboratively. Problem-based learning (PBL) is also another popular type of SCLE (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007). Here, learners are supported and empowered in their process of developing the most optimal solution to an issue. The key to PBL is that the frame of learning is authentic and applicable to real life. Learning community is another example of a SCLE. Learners work together in learning communities to model authentic practices and collectively make effort to understand each other as well as what they are learning (Land & Jonassen, 2011).

## 2.2 Technology-mediated Learning Environments

In technology-mediated (or technology-enhanced) learning environments, learning takes place through or with the guidance of a technological medium such as a computer, tablet PC, phones, as well as the programs and applications used through these technological tools. In classrooms where technology such as the computer is used to enhance learning, engagement and interaction through student-centered learning activities are often promoted (Hannafin, 1992). In language classes, computer-based materials for language teaching, referred to as CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) programs were introduced. As Information and Communications Technology (ICT) became more prevalent, a more integrated CALL known as Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) entered the scene. TELL became more widespread because the use of technology was not limited to simply computer or machines, but anything that is available on the Internet. This enabled greater accessibility with less financial restrains (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007).

However, not all classrooms that are computer-mediated practice student-centered learning or promote student-centered learning. In a teacher-centered learning environment where technology has been implemented, much of the learning still takes place with the teacher as the center of learning – very much like the traditional classrooms (Wu & Huang, 2007). This emphasizes the role and importance of teachers. Teachers must guide learners through lectures, demonstrations, and explanations. As technology is anticipated to transform a classroom environment of how things are taught and learned, many scholars have expressed their disappointment when it comes to classrooms that use technology, but still insists on a teacher-centered learning environment (Dwyer, Ringstaff & Sandholtz, 1991). Despite the few disappointing cases, various successful teaching methods and practices have been implemented in classrooms that have incorporated student-centered learning approaches in a technology-mediated learning environment. While there are still growing number of concerns with using technology as a tool in classrooms, many

research studies, such as the ones that will be mentioned shortly, have shown how successful and beneficial student-centered computer-mediated learning really is when met with optimal learning environments (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007; Meskill, 2013; Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008)

Yet, with growing number of failed cases and concerns on the feasibility of implementing technology to promote student-centered learning, many researchers that supported student-centered computer-mediated learning, faced criticisms and mockery (Salomon, 1998). However, there are exceptional and exemplary case studies where it shows how SCLEs that are technology-mediated can flourish greatly, if not, achieve greater learning outcomes compared to traditional classrooms (Hannafin & Land, 2000). In addition, applying new, innovative, and creative alternatives to teaching were sometimes limitations faced in an offline classroom. With technology, however, these barriers were often overcome.

## 2.3 Previous Research Studies

As interest in the relationship between learning, technology, and student-centeredness has been growing continuously, various kinds of research studies have been conducted on SCLEs. For example, some studies look at teacher's perceptions and beliefs on SCLEs (Dwyer, Ringstaff, & Sandholtz, 1991), others look at the level of student engagement in SCLEs and the actual feasibility of technology in such learning environments (Wu & Huang, 2007). Some validate the use of a certain technology (Bangert-Drowns, 1993), while some promote the effectiveness of a particular type of technological tool (Von der Emide, Schneider, & Kotter, 2001). This paper will review various types of studies that highlight different aspects of student-centered technology-mediated learning environments. The focus of the studies differs, some looking into language learning while others look at other content-related subjects. However, they all use a specific technological tool and claim to promote student-centered learning.

*Technically Speaking: Transforming Language Learning through Virtual Learning Environments (MOOs) – Silke von der Emide, Jeffrey Schnieder and Markus Kotter (2001):*

This particular study is known to have revised a technological tool, MOO (multiple user domains object-oriented), that has proven to have failed in yielding success or any significant gains from the use of it. In this study, the authors used MOO and conducted a 7-week exchange course between German learning students in America and English learning students in Germany. The purpose was to enhance their level of language proficiency by providing the students with authentic use of language. Through its chat and speaking functions, MOO enables learners to speak to their counterparts in real-time, allowing for an authentic learning environment. MOO also highly promotes interaction as its main function is to have students speak and chat synchronically online.

While the study does not indicate any pretest and posttest differences, the qualitative data analysis indicates tremendous improvements for both learners. With MOO creating a natural SCLEs, the learners had the freedom with how they discussed language related topics with their partners. There were no strict regulation as to how the students had to carry out the discussions, and teachers did not monitor each and every chat transcript nor obliged the students to record or take notes of the calls. Whenever there were assignments that needed to be completed, the students also used the "Noteboard", a function within MOO that allows students to post their assignments. In short, MOO enabled the learners to be highly engaged and collaborative while becoming autonomous, self-directed and taking responsible for their own learning.

*The Word Processor as an Instructional Tool: A Meta-Analysis of Word Processing in Writing Instruction – Robert L. Bangert-Drowns (1993):*

Bangert-Drowns (1993) reports a meta-analysis study of 32 different research studies conducted on the implementation of Word Processors as a language learning tool, specifically in writing. All 32 of these studies met four criteria. First, there had to be an experimental group and a control group to compare the use of the tool. They also they required that the same instructions were given with the only difference in how they produced language (through writing or through Word Processor). Second, the studies needed to be accessible in university libraries. The author used this as one of the criterion for reliability of the studies. Third, the results had to be quantitative in nature. Lastly, reports were not allowed to show severe flaws in their methodology.

The author looked for 21 different characteristics that fall into these four different categories. The categories are Instructional treatment, Research Methodology, Study Setting, and Publication features. The characteristics are then:

> Instructional treatment: 1) Presence of direct instruction, 2) Frequency of computer use, 3) Time of computer use, 4) Computer use in prewriting, 5) Computer use in composing, 6) Use of text analysis, 7) Computer use in revision, 8) Source of writing feedback
>
> Research Methodology: 9) Subject assignment, 10)

Study duration, 11) Control for teacher effect, 12) Control for researcher bias, 13) Control for posttreatment writing conditions, 14) Methodological design

Study Setting: 15) Grade, 16) Writing ability, 17) Type of computer, 18) Location of computer, 19) Assignment of students to computer

Publication features: 20) Source of report, 21) Year of report

As for the results, majority of the studies quantitatively concluded that the weaker writers or lower level writers benefited the most from the use of the Word Processor as a learning tool. This means that their quality of the writing greatly improved in comparison with their previous writings. Qualitative data analysis shows that students wrote faster and longer when using Word Processor, but this did not automatically mean that they perceived Word Processor positively or had positive attitudes towards writing and the tasks they needed to complete. Out of the 32 studies, nine studies had subsections where it was devoted to learners' perception of using Word Processor. Here, the results revealed that there were more positive responses than negative in terms of using the tool. Although five studies stated strong correlation between attitude towards writing and the quality of writing, positive perception did not always equate to higher quality of work nor did negative perception equate to lower quality.

Another consideration made in relation to perception, learners noted the helpfulness of peer feedbacks and the atmosphere of a stress-free environment when completing tasks. Some also reported that using Word Processor in itself provided feedback due to its revision functions. As Word Processor helped students with minor issues, students felt less anxious in regards to grammar mistakes, spelling errors, or sentence structures before going to their peers. However, the author points out that only 11 studies reported information on the source of writing feedback. Others viewed the computer or teachers as a source of feedback.

In general, other than lower-level writers, the posttreatment conditions remained the same for more than half of the studies. The author suggests employing far more engaging instructions and utilizing various functions and features of the Word Processor to increase the leaners' interest. Also, the author mentions that some teachers and researchers in some of the studies claimed to be student-centered, but a lack of student-centeredness was found in how the studies were carried out. Thus, Bangert-Drowns (1993) emphasizes the importance of incorporating student centered learning far more explicitly and directly. In particular, other than small group discussions and peer feedbacks, there seems to be a lack of collaboration and interaction among the students, which are key components of a SCLE. Many of the research studies claimed some form of interaction between the learners with their peers or with the computer (virtual assistance and relationship) was taking place, but these all does not always promise a SCLE.

*Ninth-Grade Student Engagement in Teacher-Centered and Student-Centered Technology-Enhanced Learning Environments – Hsin-kai Wu and Ya-ling Huang (2007).*

In a study conducted by Hsin-Kai Wu and Ya-ling Huang (2007) in Taiwan on ninth-grade students, the level of learner engagement in teacher-centered and student-centered technology-enhanced learning environments were measured and compared. The total number of participants were 54 learners studying science. The student-centered class had 25 and the teacher-centered class had 29 learners. Prior to this study, all 54 and majority of the other courses were taught in a teacher-centered learning environment. The study was conducted during the 45 minute classes over 3 weeks.

For the teacher-centered group, the classes consisted of lectures, brief whole class discussions, without computers. The only technology used in classroom was a projector linked to a laptop which was controlled by the teacher to demonstrate computer-based simulations. The student-centered classes comprised of short lectures (referred to as minilectures by the instructors), small group discussions, and computer simulations by using the computers in the school laboratory. Learners mostly worked in pairs to manipulate simulations and complete tasks together. The tasks were designed in ways where it allows the learners to manipulate and control the simulations rather than purely receiving information one-way. Both groups used a computer simulation program called "Physlets" created by Wolfgang Christian (1999). One of the biggest advantages of Physlets is that it provides the learners visual representations of concepts that are otherwise difficult to understand.

The study sought out to see the differences between teacher-centered learning environment and a SCLE in which only the latter group had the learners use technology themselves as part of the lessons while the teacher-centered group had the teacher use it and show through the projector screen. Their level of engagement was measured through the analysis of the video recordings, computer activity recording which recorded the student-centered group's computer use, field notes, and self-reported questionnaires. The results indicate that learners in both groups showed significant improvements in understanding force and motion (the unit they were on for 3 weeks) after having Physlets, a technological tool,

implemented in their class. Whether it was the teacher demonstrating in the teacher-centered class or the learners being able to manipulate the tool like in the student-centered class, the results showed no significant difference between the two groups. However, the level of engagement greatly differed between the two groups. The student-centered group was far more engaged, interactive, and collaborative. Statistically, students in the student-centered class showed higher emotional engagement towards their peers and teacher. When compared with the teacher-centered group, the student-centered group of students had lower anxiety level, greater confidence, and positive attitude toward using technology in their classrooms.

The authors reemphasize how greater engagement did not affect their learning achievements and outcomes, at least in short-term considering that the application of the tool and SCLE implementation were only for 3 weeks. Hence, the only major difference from the teacher-centered class to the student-centered class is that the students were interacting with their classmates, discussing and sharing collaboratively during their tasks. Salomon, Perkins, and Globerson (1991: 4) description seems to accurately portray this situation: "Although intelligent computer tools offer a partnership with the potential of extending the user's intellectual performance, the degree to which this potential is realized greatly depends on the user's volitional mindful engagement." The authors also agree to this statement and claim that the different ways instructions were understood by the learners do not lead to dramatic differences in performance and achievements of the students. Rather, these different ways of approaching and instructing leads to different ways of engaging in learning (Wu & Huwang, 2007).

*Teachers' Beliefs about Issues in the Implementation of a Student-Centered Learning Environment – Susan Pedersen and Min Liu (2003).*

For one whole academic year, Pedersen and Liu (2003) conducted a study on 15 middle school teachers. Their teaching experiences varied from as little as a year to maximum of 25 years. These teachers used "Alien Rescue" which is a computer-based program that was designed to teach middle school level science. Alien Rescue was designed so that it would form a question for the students to solve. Students become "scientists" as they are given different tasks that required different solutions. Data was collected through interviews, observations, reflective journals, and concentration on the focus groups. Below are some of the sample questions provided by the researchers that were used during the interview.

Table 1 ☐ Sample questions from each round of interviews.

| *Interview* | *Question* |
|---|---|
| First | • What do you see as the most important aspects of your role as the teacher in your classes?<br>• Do you feel that group work is beneficial? Why or why not?<br>• Are you primarily responsible for evaluating students' work? Do you feel that this is the best way to handle evaluation?<br>• How do students learn vocabulary in your class? Why do you use this approach?<br>• How would you define student-centered learning?<br>• Would you describe your classes as student-centered? If so, in what ways?<br>• Do you believe that students are capable of making decisions about what to do with their class time?<br>• Do you believe that students are capable of evaluating their own work? |
| Second | • Do you regard Alien Rescue as a successful experience for your students? Why or why not?<br>• Did you feel that students were able to use their time effectively during Alien Rescue?<br>• Did students collaborate during Alien Rescue? How did that work?<br>• How did you evaluate students during Alien Rescue? Why did you do it this way?<br>• Did you feel that you were able to use Alien Rescue in a student centered manner? Explain.<br>• Did your students enjoy using Alien Rescue? Why or why not?<br>• Do students learn science content better through programs like Alien Rescue?<br>• Is collaboration important during programs like Alien Rescue? Why or why not?<br>• Do you see any advantages to student-centered learning over approaches with more teacher direction?<br>• Do you see any drawbacks to student-centered learning? |

The major assignment for the students was to "rescue" aliens. There are 6 outer space species that are in need of a home in the solar system. All 6 of these species have very different attributes that the learners must consider when choosing the right homes for these species. In order to do this, learners must know the alien species, the different planets, and the whole solar system thoroughly. Alien Rescue is specifically designed to promote student-centered learning by supporting development of cognition, reflection, and collaboration during tasks. As learners engage in group work, the teachers are expected to encourage learners to collaborate and construct ideas through discussing possible answers and solutions. Teachers also need to help bridge learners' prior knowledge with the new scientific concepts learned, and probe and challenge students to become more critical thinkers of the introduced concepts in Alien Rescue.

The researchers' intent for observing classes was to see the classroom practices of the teachers while they used Alien Rescue in their classrooms. An important aspect of this study is that the teachers came together to define what SCLE is. As expected, these meetings were contentious due to continuous disagreements on defining student-centered learning environments, but they were able to narrow down to four unsatisfying definitions.

Table 2 ☐ Teachers' definitions of student-centered learning.

| *Definition* | *In student-centered learning. . .* |
|---|---|
| 1 | The teacher considers the interests and needs of the students in the class, and then provides instruction based on them. The teacher tries to make sure that students acquire the information and understand the concepts presented before moving on to more difficult material. The teacher takes into account individual differences and makes adjustments to accommodate individual students. |
| 2 | The teacher prepares an activity that requires students to be actively engaged. These activities are often "hands-on" and collaborative, but they do not need to be. The teacher explains the steps students need to go through in the activity, and helps to redirect students if they have trouble following the steps. |
| 3 | The teacher presents students with a complicated activity but does not tell students how to complete it. Students must figure out what to do, which means that they sometimes try things that don't work. Teachers question students about their thinking, but do not solve their problems for them or tell them what to do. When students encounter difficulties, they turn to their peers for support; therefore collaboration grows naturally out of student-centered learning. |
| 4 | The teacher presents a topic students are supposed to learn about, then allows each student to investigate whatever aspect of that topic interests him or her. This means that students are often working on widely different projects that they themselves have developed. If students have difficulty choosing what to investigate or finding materials, the teacher helps them by asking questions, but does not tell them what to do or provide a model or detailed expectations for a product. The teacher questions students about their work and students present what they learn to their classmates. |

As shown on table 2, the commonality the definitions share is that a student-centered learning is creating an environment where the learners are the active participants. Teachers are facilitating bystanders that intervene to provide help and support only when necessary. If learners are lost, it is usually through discussions or the help of one's peers that they can resolve an issue. There may or may not be hands-on or collaborative activity, but learners are always interacting with their materials, tools, or knowledge to carry out the tasks.

An important finding from this study is that all the teachers agreed on the importance of collaboration in class. Although the degree of how much collaboration should take place varied from teacher to teacher, they believed that collaboration and general interaction between learners produced far greater performance and achievements. Not only that, but the teachers found it beneficial for these learners because working collaboratively with one's peers is a skill set necessary in the future. The teachers who thought this way were thinking that collaboration enabled skill growth that is not only beneficial in school and classroom settings, but outside of school in society. Some teachers expressed how certain learners "lacked" collaborative skills. These learners were controlling, dominating, rude, and off-topic which required the teacher to interrupt these particular groups more frequently than others. However, they believe that collaborating can teach learners how to

collaborate. Hence, all teachers in this study thought generally positively about collaboration despite certain flaws and limitations.

Teachers also believed that SCLEs support in building up intrinsic motivation. Students that were typically always engaged stayed engaged, and learners that were typically less engaged were also found to be more engaged than their traditional classroom tasks. Teachers believed that this was due to the nature of SCLEs. Learners are motivated because they have a reason, a purpose, and goal to their learning. As in this case study, teachers explicitly stated the purpose of learning, and the learners were often found to remind each other why they needed to complete the task.

### 2.4 Application (Suggestion for a technological tool)

It is important to not only have a theoretical but practical understanding of the ideas in Student-centered learning communities along with these communities that embrace technology as a learning tool. Above, previous studies have been reviewed to see how schools and teachers create an environment for their learners in order to promote both student-centeredness and the use of technology. For this portion of the paper, there will be suggestions on the type of technological tools or Internet-based resources that can be utilized for language learning in a student-centered technological environment. The paper will introduce potential internet tools that can be employed to enhance student-centeredness, both in a physical- and virtual classrooms.

Brandl (2002) suggests three types of lesson plan designs that integrate Internet-based resources into foreign language learning curriculum. These are: Teacher-determined Lessons, Teacher-facilitated Lessons, and Student-determined Lessons. While the former two focuses on environments that are highly teacher-centric, the latter lesson involves looking at learning from a more student-led and student-centered perspective. In this type of lesson, learners become highly autonomous, self-directed, and facilitative as they explore learning in a multidimensional way while determining what and how they will learn, what their goals are and when these goals should be met, what requirements need to be met for task completion, and how these tasks and their performances will be evaluated. In the process, the teachers act as facilitators and intervene only when requested or necessary.

Introducing Project-based Learning (PBL), Stoller (1997) proposes six important pedagogical benefits of PBL that can help create learning environments that are more student-centered learning in the virtual world. First, learners must focus on contents rather than linguistic aspects of language learning. Second, learners are the focus of learning while the teachers exist in the classrooms in supportive role. Third, learners must work cooperatively with their peers. Forth, projects are authentic and requires learners to engage in real-world tasks. Fifth, projects should aim to become a form of a product that can be shared among one's group or with one's class. Lastly, project works are beneficial for the learners' affect, helping them to grow in being motivated, empowered, challenged, and encouraged.

With these in mind, one computer-based medium that can enhance SCLE are Blogs. Blogs can be used in the form of a synchronous and asynchronous teaching tool. Thus, it can be used in class with all the learners present at the same place or outside of classroom with learners working in different places and different times (Beldarrain, 2006). However, for online distance education purposes, Chickering and Ehrmann (1996) suggests seven principles that can guide new technology implementation in education. Classroom environments should be:

1) Encouraging contact between students and teacher
2) Developing reciprocity and cooperation within learners
3) Using active learning techniques
4) Giving feedback
5) Emphasizing time spent on task
6) Communicating expectations
7) Respecting various talents and different methods of learning

Platforms such as Blogs, Vlogs, Wikis, and Forums give learners opportunities and platforms to share information such as the affordance to freely upload different types of visual and audio files including writing documents, photos, video files, and voice files. Blogs provide a platform for learners to engage in extended dialogue with one's peers without having to face difficulties such as limitation of time, saving face, and turn-taking in a regular offline classroom (Glogoff, 2001). Teachers can use these media platforms to create in- and out of classroom tasks where learners share information, but also give and receive feedback. This becomes possible when the teacher creates a virtual space for the students to upload their assignments visible to others. Privacy settings can be adjusted, but while considering a mutual and collaborative environment, teachers often choose to allow learners see the

works of other students (Downes, 2009). Often, learners are hesitant to reveal their language ability, which they find is insufficient, to others. However, due to student-centered environment's nature, a low-anxiety and cooperative environment is created, where the platform to share and receive information is much friendlier than traditional classrooms (Glogoff, 2005).

Blogs can be used in many different ways. Looking at language learning in particular, teachers can utilize Blogs to create tasks to improve both receptive and productive skills. For example, in writing class, learners can write on their Blogs as a platform to show their writing. Learners can come and read other learners' works and leave comments. For speaking and listening, teachers can choose between audio or video blogs (Audioblog or Vlogs) and have learners upload a voice file and have other learners listen and write up comments. Teachers can also choose to give their feedbacks and grades as comments (privately through messaging or inbox features) or through voice files. Again, the setting can be managed by the teachers when it's public class blog or the settings can be private and only accessible to a learner and a teacher in the case of a learner blog. Teachers and learners can also ask questions, like certain comments and posts, suggest links and so much more on Blogs. Some online spaces that allows for this is Wordpress, Blogspot, Audioblog, freevlog, and Blogger.

Another advantage mentioned by Beale (2007) is that Blogging can be a highly reflective practice hence promoting engagement and self-directed learning, the key components of student-centered learning. Easy sharing of ideas and information, one of the essential features of Blogs, is possible through a simple activation of a function. Teachers can use this as a way of having learners collaborate with each other by providing feedbacks and comments which then can be used to add or take out from their work.

Focusing on a more student-centeredness, the teachers can choose topics of the learners' interest if it is not a regular content course. They can also have level tests in the beginning, before choosing an online platform, to see the type of task that are possible with the learners. Especially in a language class, topic selection is difficult because teachers cannot accommodate to all of the learners. However, in a SCLE, there is no right or wrong answer. Teachers must recognize learner differences and give learners the freedom to express and explore learning. This then comes down to how they will be evaluated. In a SCLE where there is no correct answer, it becomes difficult for teachers to assess individually because the learners are very different. Teachers must create a reliable and valid assessment method for themselves, but also for the learners in order to guided them in a certain direction (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007).

While language ability is a problem learners face, teachers sometimes face difficulties in staying up-to-date with current technology. They worry about not being able to use technology because they do not know how to. However, as Dudeney and Hockly (2007) mention, the biggest advantage of using a social software such as Blogs and Wikis is that they are easy to set up. There are also various types of Blogs for different purposes. While using the same platform, the teacher can set up tutor blogs (for the teacher to manage), learner blogs (for learners to manage), and class blogs (managed by the learners and approved or authorized by the teacher).

## 3 Limitation and Challenges

Simply having computers in schools, sitting learners down, and giving instructions is only the tip of the iceberg. Not all learners will prefer this learning style. Also, learners are still very uncertain about their own ability to produce language with positive outcomes. Because teaching through appropriate use of technological tools is relatively new, there are only a few institutions or modeled frames that teachers can refer to use as guidance. Both teachers and learners must be aware of successful models of technology combined with educational instructions to produce the most optimal learning outcomes. In a technological environment, providing a framework or a system of rules will not restrain the learners but rather, give guidance and direction in the right way (Roschelle, Pea, Hoadley, Gordin, & Means, 2000).

Another challenge while reviewing different studies is the lack of availability of research studies. While many computer-mediated studies, student-centered learning studies, and computer-mediated student-centered learning studies on content subjects are available, there are not many studies that shows the effect of using technology in language learning or to improve a certain language function in a SCLE. When it is a computer-mediated and student-centered study, it does not focus on language. When it is a language focused student-centered study, it does not use technology. Where it uses technology and focuses on language, it is not guaranteed that the learning environment is student-centered. Therefore, it is very difficult to find legitimate and reliable studies that consists of all three factors (uses technology, is student-centered,

and focuses on language learning). The implications made by previous researchers on second or foreign languages is as little to none. This calls for more second language researchers to dive deeper into seeking data within this context.

## 4. Conclusion

The shift from traditional classrooms to more SCLEs are not only advantageous, but needed in some areas of learning. However, as shown above, not all learning environments will benefit from a SCLEs, especially with technology implemented in the lessons. As with the numerous research studies conducted thus far, there can be a high possibility that the failed cases may have worked if different technology was used. Likewise, for the successful cases, certain technology-mediated lessons may not have been applicable. Hence, it is reasonable and safe to say that the results do not depend on how good the learners are or how amazing a certain technological tool is. What matters is how environments, tools, and knowledge is appropriated and acculturated to a certain learning setting. There are uncountable number of variables and differences that can only be compensated by teachers and the knowledge they have of their learners. After all, teachers know their learners best. If they do not know this, it becomes their responsibility to observe and analyze what is needed and best for their learners.

The first study used MOO, a technological tool that allowed learners to chat in real-time with leanres from other countries, for the purpose of learning language. The study showed great improvements on the learners level of English and German proficiency, albeit no test results existed to confirm this outcome. The revised version of MOO creates a natural SCLE, but the limitation of this study is that there are not many other studies available to validate its findings. The implementation of MOO is still regarded as ineffective due to the unsuccessful applications of previous studies. In the near future, more studies need to be done to confirm and justify the findings of this study. In addition, the research studies need to be held over a longer period of time, as 7 weeks is too short to observe any stable improvements for language learners.

For the second review of the study, Word Processor was used as the technological tool to learn language (writing). More than learners that completed writing tasks by hand-writing, learners that completed writing tasks through using Word Processor showed higher quality in their writing. Also, low level learners benefited the most from the use of this technology. Without the teachers' constant assistance, learners were able to use editing functions of Word Processors to revise their work before receiving further feedback. Qualitative analysis revealed a mixture of positive and negative responses of the learners. While some found it helpful and beneficial, others preferred the traditional methods of writing and revising. While the use of Word Processor to learn writing is a beneficial method, there are some questionable aspects to these studies that are left intact. For example, how can teachers truly know the original written product if learners are already coming for feedbacks after it has been revised once? While traditional writing does not elicit grammar and spelling errors, Word Processors have it as a common function. Also, it is difficult to say that all 32 of these studies were highly student-centered. While they include certain aspects of a SCLE such as the high consideration of learners' needs and interest (writing topic selection, flexible format in writing etc.), a highly important aspect, collaboration, is missing in action in most of the studies.

For the third study, what can be concluded from this study is that learners did benefit from technology use, but it did not matter as to what kind of instructional approach was taken. Whether it was a teacher-centered approach or a student-centered approach, both groups of students had similar learning outcomes. The only difference was their level of engagement. However, this can depend greatly on the way SCLE is defined. While some scholars see this test as the comparison between two contrasting instructional environments (teacher-centered versus student-centered), others may see that the teacher-centered classroom has many features similar to a student-centered classroom. It is the interactive and collaborative factor with peers and the technology that was different, but this is not always necessary in a student-centered computer-mediated classroom. Thus, it depends on how one defines and looks at SCLEs.

The forth study also shows how the environment depends on how the teachers define what student-centered learning is. The teachers agree on certain aspects of SCLEs, but disagree on some. This group of teachers taught the same grade, similar level learners at the same school, yet they could not come to an agreement. If teachers from all over the world were to define student-centered learning and carry out tasks only one way, while success may follow for some teachers, there is bound to be failures for others. It is important for teachers to consider their learners and their learning environments.

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# The Effects of Task-based Language Teaching on the Motivation of Students

**Yonghwan Kim**
*Current Issues in EFL*

***Abstract***

*This study is designed to delve into the effect of task-based language teaching (TBLT) on the motivation for language learning. The reason for this approach being selected is that the pros and cons of the TBLT on improving the motivation of L2 learners show wavering results with neither one having the definite winner's hand in addition to the limited small number of experiments to decide which one beats the balance. 36 students consisting of 19 male and 17 female at Tong-Il elementary school participated and their age range was about 11 years old. No proficiency test to divide students according to their homogenizing level was performed because this research is intended to investigate broad influence of task-based language teaching on the motivation of entire students. Students carried out two different tasks and after these activities, they were asked to fill in survey to present the degree of their favor toward English. The overall results showed that participants became more motivated compared with conventional class, approximately 40% of participants reshaping their attitude in favor of English as well as being more productive through TBLT. However, the problems that lower level students find it difficult to participate owing to their lack of language skills and some students continue negative standpoint or alter into negative position after task activity still remains to be coped with.*

## 1. Introduction

Motivation is one important pillar to support second/foreign language (L2) learning achievement, and it is not an exaggeration to say that not one moment in any language class passes without teachers' efforts to light the fire of learners' soul into their active attention and enthusiastic participation. However, especially in the Korean context, where there is no need and urgency to master English for most of students, it is very difficult for learners to take serious interest in language learning of their own, not to mention intrinsic motivation.

According to Reeve (1992), the definition of motivation is addressed with three distinct properties of (1) power to lead learners to behave into a specific goal, and (2) function to modulate the intensity of effort devoted to attaining the goal and (3) individual variances in motivation. With what is mentioned above, the increase of motivation will bring great benefits and play an important role for students who do not have particular reasons and motive for language learning. Out of various approaches that can affect this motivation, task-based language teaching is chosen for this research. The task-based language teaching approach is believed to be an effective strategy with the assumption that the more engaged a learner is in tasks, the better the language skills will be improved. The advantages of TBLT, which is stated by Frost (2004), such as student-centered, free of language control, a natural context, sufficient and varied exposure to language input, the language produced by learner's needs, meaningful communication and enjoyable quality are considered to increase the motivation of learners. In contrast to these benefits, other researchers claim that task-based language learning is not what is most wanted by many students during class activity and may be resisted and objected, at least in its first introduction. Comparing these two stances, if the result shows that task-based language teaching has positive effects on the increase of language learner's motivation, this approach tuned and refined appropriately for cognitive, affective, cultural level of each one will be sturdy stepping stones for the improvement of language students.

The organization of this paper is as follows: an introduction on the topic and the reason of its importance. After three literature reviews about the effects of task-based language teaching on motivation according to the order of chronology, followed by the state-

ment of one question, is the experiment that was performed with primary students is analyzed and discussed with the conclusion placed in last part.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 Pietri (2015)

This research was designed to investigate the impact of task-based learning on Thai students' skills and motivation to learn English, the level of effectiveness of task-based learning on the quality of the students' answers, and the perception of using task-based learning as an overall teaching strategy by the students.

On one hand, the researcher of this study reveals the positive aspects of task based approach by drawing the advantages of task based language teaching summarized by Frost (2004) and Willis' (1960) claims that the benefit of TBLT is the meaningful use of language for genuine purpose with real communication. On the other hand, he unveils the weak points of this approach through presenting the statement of Cheng (2011) that TBLT is not necessarily the expected method of use in the language class from the students' position; and therefore is sometimes resisted or objected. Olgivie & Dunn (2010) argues that the implementation of TBLT will be hindered due to the low level or lack of language skills of students. The danger of fossilization that describes L2 learners' state to maintain grammatically and syntactically erroneous but communicatively functioning expression (Skehan, 1996), too much focus on task and communication while neglecting form that also leads to inappropriate and ungrammatical use of target language (Seedhouse, 1999), and the tentative and invalid position of hypothesis claiming that the effect of TBLT is superior to conventional methods by Swan (2005), are added to the limitation of TBLT.

Bearing these two contending stances in his mind, Pietri (2015) carried this experiment involving the motivation factor in two perspectives of cognitive and psychological effects.

The participants of this study were thirty-one students consisting of female and male ranged between the ages of 18 to 22 years. Their language levels are mixed from beginner through intermediate to advanced speakers. They were divided into control and experimental groups through a random sequence and then performed a task that was conducted in two separate groups according to the students' affinities: cooks, waiters, and guests respectively. Each team was then assigned different tasks, ensuring that the requested efforts were distributed on a fair basis.

The focal point of this study is to find out the potential of task based language teaching in enhancing the motivation of language learners. The result shows that task based language teaching facilitates the engagement of students, improve the quality of answers and promotes the learner's motivation.

Though the interpretation of this study indicates the positive effects of TBLT, the matter of how to help the few students incapable of participating who got low score is to be considered, in addition to whether the high score originated from the activity of TBLT, or could get from other activity of different approach or learner's own ability because there are no pretest to examine the language skills of learners and comparison with control group.

### 2.2 Sabet (2014)

This study is designed to delve into the relationship between the students' motivation and their performance in writing research article abstracts, and the effect of TBLT on students' motivation during this writing process.

The author chose a writing abstract as a main activity for this study because it plays key role for the success of academic career and seems to be very difficult to accomplish for most students. He brings the issue of motivation forward quoting Dörnyei (1998) that even linguistically advanced individuals cannot achieve long lasting projects without sufficient motivation. Writing an abstract is assumed to be a complex activity and requires systematic approach to motivational conditions (Bruning and Horn, 2000). To shed a light on this matter, task based language teaching is selected due to its properties such as real world related activities, enough autonomy, rewarded efforts and useful feedbacks (Lam & Law, 2007).

The participants in this study were sixty-eight EFL university students at intermediate level of proficiency. Thirty-two of the students participated in the class based on Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) where three phases of pre-task, task-cycle and post-task as proposed by Swan (2005) were used, and the opportunity to do tasks in groups was offered to students. The other thirty-six students took part in Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) approach where the teaching was divided into presentation, practice and production phases and the activities were done individually. After receiving treatment for

eight sessions, students were asked to write an abstract for a research article. In addition to this, a motivation questionnaire adopted from Lam and Law (2007) was distributed among the participants which included the following motivational constructs: challenge, real life significance, curiosity, autonomy; recognition and evaluation.

The findings demonstrated that students' motivation is positively related to their abstract writing performance. Moreover, results of task-based approach showed the increase of motivation for the students. Therefore, the data suggested that students with higher motivation can have better performance in writing abstracts and students' motivation can be enhanced by the teaching approach in use.

### 2.3 Namaziandost et al (2017)

The aim of this literature tries to investigate the effect of task-based language teaching on motivation and grammatical achievement of EFL junior high school students of Ahvaz.

The researchers mention the importance of English as lingua franca, stating the claim of Cohen (1990) that English is cordially adopted from many countries because it is recognized as the language of the Internet and modernity, both in and out of school, and also is a medium to convey experience and information through travel, email, phone and video-conferencing. Out of various factors leading into improving English, the authors emphasize the role of grammar borrowing the assumption that one must have sufficient knowledge of grammar due to its close relation to four language skills used in daily communication because a language cannot be built into right form without grammar knowledge (Afandi et al., 2013). The reason to select TBLT as main activity is that the authors try to solve the failure of conventional product approach with new perspective descending from communicative language teaching which is considered more proper to improve motivation with its diverse advantages.

Eighty female participants aged between 16 and 17 were selected after a homogeneity test (Oxford Quick Placement Test) administered to 100 students at the junior high school. They were divided into control and experimental groups, respectively for conventional drilling and practice class and TBLT. At the initial step, pre-test, which consists of materials to be covered during treatment, which means task-related activities, was carried to both groups. In addition, a motivation questionnaire was given to both groups at the beginning and at the end of the session. After 12 sessions of treatment, the two groups were administered the same teacher-made grammar test as posttest.

The findings indicated that the experimental group significantly performed better than the control group. Generally, the experimental groups outperformed the control groups. Furthermore, the results of motivation questionnaire show that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' motivation in the post-test of questionnaire which implies that the experimental group's motivation increased significantly. The results suggest that task-based language teaching can be used in English classes to develop grammar ability among Iranian EFL learners.

As the above mentioned studies show, task based language teaching has positive effect on the increase of motivation. However, there are few studies that have investigated the effect of different types of task based language teaching on improving motivation, especially in the Korean context. Therefore, the present study aims to answer the following research question: How does task based language teaching affect the motivation of learners to participate in classroom?

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Participants

This study focuses on the effects of task based language teaching on motivation, and was conducted with the 36 participants who consisted of 19 male and 17 female students in Tong-Il primary school in Paju, Korea. Their average age was 11 years and all students were in sixth grade. No homogenizing proficiency test to divide students according to their level was performed because this study was tried to delve into the general influence of task based language teaching on the motivation of entire students.

### 3.2 Tools

Two task based activities were used in this study

#### 3.2.1 Activity 1

The goal of this activity is to find the correct animals and fill in the blanks with the obtained numbers to arrive at the assigned answer. Students are presented with a handout with two lines of six blanks and a clipped picture with animals of different kinds and numbers. On the handout, the blank of first line is the name of each animal and the second one is the number of the respective animals. Students walk around the classroom and ask their peers what

animals and how many are in the picture. The students answer the name and number based on what they have without showing their picture. They should fill all the six name blanks with different animals and the acquired numbers to be added must equal to the sum that is provided as prerequisite condition.

### 3.2.2 Activity 2

This activity is related to problem-solving. Students were asked to provide their own answer and reasonable ground to support their comment to solve a situation where Noah watched animals going into the ark. He was counting the animals and after 20 minutes when 16 animals gathered on the central room, there was a big mess of fight and flight because they were packed into without classification. He tried to solve this problem by placing each animal in the proper category. What will be the best answer to handle this matter?

### 3.3 Procedure

The participants of this study were divided into six groups following their class seats fixed at the beginning of the year. Each group consisted of mixed levels of students from low level to high intermediate level. Proficiency test to homogenize the participants was not performed because this study is designed to investigate the general effects of mathematical creative activity on the motivation of diverse levels of students.

Students were assigned each activity and followed the procedure described in each activity aforementioned above. With one condition that they could not change the question or direction presented as a constraint, no other limitation was presented. Participants were encouraged to freely participate and search for solutions through communication and collaboration with peers. Instructor informed participants that there is no one and unanimous-method but many diverse ways from their experience and knowledge are better than the conventional and entrenched ideas. They could ask each other and freely come to teacher for the word that they wanted to express but did not know.

In activity 1 and 2, the participants were asked to fill in questionnaire to show the degree of their favor toward English and anonymously describe their opinions about their feelings or thoughts about the task activities performed.

## 4. Results

The results will be presented and discussed first as a whole and then in detail according to the relation between the degree of change.

*Table 1 Degree of Motivation before and after activity 1 and activity 2*

| Degree of Favor | Very Much | Much | Average | Not like | Dislike | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Before | 4 | 7 | 12 | 7 | 6 | 36 |
| After | 5 | 8 | 16 | 3 | 4 | 36 |

As shown in Table 1, the overall results of the effects between task-based activity and the motivation indicated that participants became more motivated after the activity. Out of 36 participants, 12 students moved from negative attitude toward positive stance.

Considering the nine participants already took favorable position toward English learning, only three students from this group shifted to unfavorable proclivity, while 11 children kept remained in the same group, and approximately 40% of all participants converted their attitude in favor of English through task-based activity.

However, this study also showed that both 8 participants with average feeling and 7 children not-liking and disliking English continued their resisting posture, and 2 students with benevolent sentiment transformed into less favorable state.

Further, the results of both activities revealed that the participants became more productive. Even the students who were always shy hiding behind the friends and hesitant whether to take part or withdraw into the crowd of peers vigorously and dynamically participated, and were eagerly to provide their products.

## 5. Discussion

What is observed during research concerning the behavioral patterns of the participants makes it inevitable to notice the paramount features flowing along the cognition and emotion of the children. Affirmative correspondence between the change of attitudes and the task-based activity performed can be recognized from the differences developing from behavioral patterns. The promoted motivation of language learners scarcely escapes to be sensed from the improved rate of participation, animated communication of thoughts between children, and voluntary collaboration and question both to peers and teacher to obtain the meaning of an unknown word with the intention of completing and solving the confronting problems. Besides, the protracted attention time and the boosted focus to task-solving echoes the elevated passion of students.

The findings also show how much students' level of foreign language anxiety can influence on their preference for TBLT. Therefore, L2 instructors are demanded to be more sensitive of the range of task anxiety students experience in the classroom and should devote efforts to decrease the

affective filter of students by providing a relaxed and less demanding environment.

## 5. Conclusion

In this paper, the effects of task-based language teaching on the motivation of language learners were investigated. Each area of research respectively paid specific attention to how different formats of task-based activities concerning grammar, quality of answer, and writing abstracts influence the motivation. The results of my research question are as followings.

This literature review and the small experiment with primary students, present clear evidence that task-based language teaching has substantial influence on language learning and especially motivation in grammar, quality of answer, and writing abstracts. This study bestows insight how to install task-based language teaching suitable and beneficial to learners to facilitate and improve language learning. However, more studies need to be investigated because the three papers are not sufficient and have slightly different results to draw final conclusion for applying the dealt task-based activities on actual class. Moreover, the current practice in schools focusing on scripted curriculum that represents accuracy, memorization of formula, speed, and skills, while ignoring the essential features of children's psychology, falls apart and takes away the scintillating eyes of children from classroom. As shown through this study, the way to bring back life to the school and students' mind is not just conveying and cramming knowledge and information, but rather helping and facilitating students think, which demands teachers to withdraw from conventional and insipid custom and to transform and move into new paradigm and perspective.

Therefore, teachers of foreign language are required to be keener on, and more knowledgeable about, learners' motivational levels, rather than solely focusing on students' cognitive development. Besides, they also need to construct environment and carry on task based activity for students willingly to take initiative and risks, endure the ambiguity, bridge the gap with their own efforts supported with teachers' indirect help, find their own solutions and defend their own position by connecting cause and effects, etc., which have never been caught with one clear cut sentenced definition.

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# How Do Children of Different Ages Learn Vocabulary Using Games?

**Jiwon Yoon**

*Techniques in working with 12 year olds and under*

***Abstract***

*Over many years, strong evidence has suggested that games are an effective tool for teaching vocabulary to young learners. The goal of this study was to assess the effects of games in learning English vocabulary, especially based on the Piaget's stages of development theory (1973). So this study attempted to show how games differently affect students who are in the concrete-operational stage when teaching words of two different categories, which are concrete and abstract nouns. The result showed that games didn't really help students in learning abstract nouns, because abstract concepts are difficult to accept for those who are at the concrete-operational stage. From this research, I realized that to maximize the effect of games for young EFL learners, appropriate target language that considers their cognitive level should precede the game. Overall, this paper deals with a literature review of games including the definition, role, and types of games. Additionally, games have been categorized based on the cognitive development theory proposed by Piaget. In the research, one research question is introduced and the procedure, results, and a discussion of the research are follows.*

## 1. Introduction

Vocabulary, as one of the knowledge areas in language, plays a great role for learners in acquiring a language (Cameron, 2001). Furthermore, it is essential for successful second language use, because without an extensive vocabulary, we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have learned for comprehensible communication (Rivers & Nunan, 1991, p.117). However, there is so much vocabulary that learners have to acquire, and the most commonly presented way to learn those words is memorizing the meaning of words. In order to learn vocabulary in a meaningful and effective way, it is crucial for students to have enjoyment and interest in learning. Moreover, they should be encouraged to use the language in a fearless and creative manner. Thus, in this paper, I would like to examine how games affect students' learning as an effective vocabulary instruction.

This paper is divided into two parts. The first part deals with a literature review of games in the classroom including the definition, role, and types of games. Specifically, to discuss the role of games, Vygotsky's Sociocultural theory, Gardner and Lambert's Motivation theory, and Krashen(1985)'s Affective filter theory have been stressed. In addition, games have been categorized according to four different stages of cognitive development based on the theory proposed by Piaget and to other 4 different reasons as well. The second part introduces an example of vocabulary learning through a game and analyzes the game giving reasons why it is appropriate for young learners. The third part describes the methodology of research introducing one research question. For the fourth part, the findings and results of research are analyzed. Finally, I will discuss what was found from the research and give a conclusion to the overall paper.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 The Definition of games

A game is played when one or more players compete or co-operate for a pay-off according to a set of rules (Jones, 1986). Alternatively, gaming is goal-oriented, rule-governed, competitive, and has a closure (Rodgers, 1981). Games are closed activities that have a beginning and an end with a winner who defines the end of the game (Rixon, 1981). Considering all these definitions stated by many theorists, the key characteristics of a game are these: games are activities governed by rules, games involve competition between the players, have closure after achieving the goal, and provide fun and motivation. In addition to this, the players are happy to have luck during the

game, because it makes them more interested to play a game.

## 2.2 Roles of games

One of the biggest roles of games is motivation. Games motivate students since they naturally want to play. Pedagogically, motivation has been proposed for two types, which are instrumental and intrinsic motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Instrumental motivation comes from external factors of students such as praise, recognition, or a system of rewards. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation comes from within the students or from factors inherent in the task. For example, a student who loves to read is intrinsically motivated to read, even though there's no reward for reading. Games usually instrumentally motivate students when learning a second language, because there's always a specific goal to achieve in a game.

Another role of games is interaction. Students develop their language by interacting and communicating with other players. Wells (1981) found that a child who has a lot of opportunities for negotiating meaning develops language skills more rapidly that a child who does not. Moreover, Vygotsky (1978) stated that the social environment, the cultural context, and the influence of peers, teachers, and parents engaged in interactions with children are also a major source of learning and development. He also believed that there is a zone of proximal development (ZPD) in which the students achieve knowledge with support of more knowledgeable partners. Games provide the situation where children need to communicate and interact in order to have a turn at playing, retain the fairness between players, deal with problems together, and finally to accomplish their goals.

The last role of games is a communicative approach to English language teaching. First of all, games are based on task-based activities which enhance learning without conscious analysis of language. As a game has clearly defined goals, students try to achieve the goal by solving the problem against other players or co-operating with other players. Thus, for students, it may be seen as tasks rather than language learning. Accordingly, this learning environment creates a comfort and positive emotions for learners, which means lowering the affective filter. The affective filter was first proposed by Krashen (1985) and he sees the affective filter as being the emotional disposition of an individual which acts upon learning processes. The affective filter goes up when learners are bored, tired, stressed, or threatened, while it goes down when learners feel comfortable and relaxed.

## 2.3 Types of games

Games that are used in teaching an L2 can be categorized according to many different criteria. One way of dividing games is by categorizing them according to what the teaching is focused on. That is, at this pedagogical level, the focus of the game should match what the teacher wants to teach. The teaching focus can be any one of the major skills of language such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. For example, in 'Spelling Bee', the game emphasizes the accuracy of spelling by asking students to pronounce and spell the word. Another example is 'Simon says' which focuses on instructions, imperatives, and vocabulary for parts of the body (Julia Khan, 1996).

Another way of dividing games is by categorizing them into patterns of organization. Some games are played in pairs, some in groups, and some with the whole class. This pattern of organization can help the teacher decide what language activity would be appropriate and expect the outcome of the game. For instance, one of the pair games named 'Find the difference' involves extensive oral interchange. On the other hand 'Vocabulary Snap' which is played in groups, involves reading practice of a limited number of words and repeated oral production of "snap" (Julia Khan, 1996).

The other way of categorizing games is to consider 'ludic' principles. The ludic principles or playing spirit of a game may derive from a number of elements which give the game its particular tone. There could be some games that involve an element of luck so that students can be more excited regardless of their skills. Other ludic principles are competition and co-operation. Some games may be driven by competition between players, while other games may require co-operation in order to precede with the game.

The last category is whether a game is for language practice or for communicative language teaching. Language practice games are focused on the language itself. Thus, those type of games contain repeated use of particular language items and are very controlled and accuracy and practice oriented. For example, 'Word Scramble' which represent letters out of order and makes children reorder the letters and then find the word. On the other hand, communicative language teaching is somewhat different because it uses the medium of the language. That is, it offers task-oriented activities that engage their students in

creative language use. For example, in 'Making Ice-cream', children read out loud a recipe and make ice-cream following the instructions. There are no steps for learning vocabulary, but children find it comprehensible by looking at and touching the materials. In addition to this, games can be also categorized according to materials and equipment used for playing them, such as cards, boxes, blackboards, or balls.

### 2.4 Games for the different stages of development by Piaget

When it comes to deciding what games to use in teaching English to young learners, teachers need to consider the learners' cognitive development according to age. It is useful for teachers to refer to Piaget's four stages of development theory because teachers often work with very different age groups with different interests. According to Piaget, children's cognitive development passes through four stages. These, are the Sensorimotor, Preoperational, Concrete operational, and Formal operational stage.

In the sensorimotor stage, a child who is from 0 to 2 years old learns through senses and focus on the reflexes. During this time, the child relies on physical activities such as sucking, reaching, and grasping. Thus, to support cognitive development in children under two, teachers should hold their interest by providing a rich stimulating environment to touch and explore. For example, allow the child to play with cause-and-effect toys that make noise such as a rubber duck and a rattle. Another example can be playing peek-a-boo because it helps babies to develop Object Permanence which is a fundamental part of early life learning (May 29, 2013, PippoDaHippoKids). For children of this age it is more appropriate to let them play with stimulating toys rather than learning language with games.

The pre-operational stage of children who are from two to seven years old is characterized by egocentrism and a lack of logical thinking. They form ideas based on their perception and can only focus on one variable at a time. Moreover, they tend to overgeneralize based on limited experience. Considering these children's cognitive development, it would be appropriate to teach a second language with games using their senses and body. Examples include showing pictures or flash cards, doing active language practice using their body, and listening to songs.

Children from seven to eleven years old represent the concrete operational stage. In this stage, children start logical and adult-like thinking. They are able to apply logical reasoning in several areas of knowledge at the same time, yet limited to familiar objects and events. Thus, children around this age group are proposed to practice language classifying objects and ideas and using analogies to show the relationship of their knowledge. An example of an appropriate game would be 'Odd One Out' which is finding the odd word or picture in a list with an explanation of the proper reason.

The formal operational stage, which is the last stage of Piaget's theory, is for children from eleven years and onwards. This period is characterized by applying their logic directly to real objects or situations. They are able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract terms. For this age group of children, the teacher should try to teach broad concepts rather than just facts. So, the games for this age group might be complex in terms of rules and tasks.

## 3. Methodology

This study examines the effectiveness of games in students' vocabulary learning. In this section, the research question is stated. Next, the participants in the experiment are introduced. Thirdly, the game used for the research is described with the reason why I chose it for this experiment. Lastly, the procedures of research including methods are explained in detail.

### 3.1 Research Question

RQ1. *"Based on the stages of development theory, does the game still help 10 year old (internationally) children to learn and retain words easily regardless of whether they are concrete words or abstract words?"*

### 3.2 Participants

For this research, the participants in the study were 2 students of 10 years old and 2 students of 9 years old internationally. They study at Chunho public elementary school which is located on the east side of the city. The language level of the learners is between novice and novice-high, which is distinguished by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). At this level students are able to provide information using words, phrases, and short sentences, and speak confidently on practiced subjects like giving basic information about themselves. Moreover, they can describe their surroundings and people using words they've learned. They are aware of basic sight words and able to connect

sentences with "and" or "with". One student who is a 10 year old boy has learned English for 2 years, one of the female students who is 10 years old has learned English for 1 year, and the rest of the 9 year old female students have learned for 8 months. They all learn English at both school and in a private academy.

## 3.3 Description of the game

The name of this game is 'Pictionary' (howdoyouplayit.com, 2016). The goal of the game is to guess what the "picturist" is trying to communicate through the pictures that they draw. In this game, the teacher holds the flash cards and shows them to the picturist and students are divided into two groups. In each group, one person should be a "picturist" who draws on the board, and the other should guess the word looking at the drawing on the board. When the picturist draws something that is on the flashcard, the others guess what it is and say the answer. The allowed time for each word is 1 minute and they should not talk or give gestures for hints. Whoever says the correct answer first gets one point for his/her team. During this game, students will practice some concrete nouns and abstract nouns. The concrete nouns are vegetable, swimsuit, policeman, dove, legs, friend, and bracelet. The abstract nouns are pain, peace, anger, fear, health, love, and promise.

The primary reason I chose this game is because nonverbal thoughts and concepts such as images and pictures help students to retain vocabulary better than just verbal thoughts. As we learned Paivio (1986)'s "Dual Coding Theory", the information that is conveyed both verbally and non-verbally supports each other and enables greater ability to recall information. Even abstract ideas and concepts that are difficult for children to understand can be represented more concretely by symbolizing the abstract meaning. Secondly, students must be involved to see and represent the word as image. They need to move their hand and draw the picture on the board. The other players then turn that drawing into a word. During this game, they experience physical, visual, and mental skills, and integrate them in learning vocabulary. Lastly, regarding to the growth patterns of typical 10 year old children, they work very well in groups and are able to enjoy cooperative and competitive activities. Thus, students might have fun with this game which involves not only cooperation within the groups but also competition between the groups (Wood, n.d.).

## 3.4 Procedure

To conduct this experiment, I performed one class for an hour from 3-4:00 p.m. on June 13th. To examine the effectiveness of games on learning both abstract and concrete words, pre-test and post-tests were administrated for the students who I mentioned above. During a one hour class, for the first 5 minutes, the concept of concrete and abstract nouns was introduced to the students. For the next 15 minutes, students went through the 7 concrete nouns and 7 abstract nouns with flashcards. At the same time they were asked to answer questions such as "What can you see in this picture?", "What is he doing?", and "How does he feel?". After introducing the words, they categorized the 14 words into 2 categories which things we can and can't see hear, touch, or taste. Then a pre-test was administrated for 10 minutes to check their understanding about those words they learned. As they finished with the test, they were introduced to the rules of the game "Pictionary" and began to play for 20 minutes. Then, they had a post-test for 10 minutes after the game. Finally, to wrap-up the class a survey was conducted.

## 3.5 Methods

For this research, the students were taught both concrete and abstract words first with flashcards and then the vocabulary game followed. Before and after playing the game, the pre-test and the post-test were conducted to check how the game affected students in learning vocabulary (Appendix B). At the end of the class, a survey on the overall class was conducted(Appendix C).

### 3.5.1 Contents and vocabulary

Vocabulary was randomly selected from the list of concrete nouns and abstract nouns that was retrieved from the website k5learning.com. Those lists were categorized in the 3rd grade level section. Seven concrete nouns (swimsuit, policeman, dove, friend, bracelet, vegetable, and legs) and seven abstract nouns (pain, peace, anger, fear, health, love, and promise) were prepared for the lesson. To lower students' affective filter, at least 1 or 2 familiar words were included.

Flashcards were also prepared to introduce vocabulary more effectively to the students. In terms of abstract nouns, pictures were chosen to as close as possible symbolize the words (Appendix A).

### 3.5.2 Lesson structure and Activities

Lessons for this research were structured into four parts: warm up, teaching (vocabulary learning using flash cards), playing the game, and wrap-up (see Table 3.1). In the warm-up, the concept of concrete and abstract was introduced using familiar words. Students were taught the concept of concrete as something that they can see, taste, touch, and hear. Conversely, they were taught the concept of abstract as something they can't see, taste, touch or hear, but they can feel and think of it. In the teaching part, students' were taught 7 abstract and concrete nouns each using flashcards. They were asked to describe the picture and answer to the teacher's questions. Then, they played the game 'Pictionary' in which students draw the picture and guess the word. For the last part of this lesson, students were asked to do a survey on the overall lesson. Additionally, a pre-test was conducted before the game and a post-test was conducted after the game.

*Table 3.1 Lesson structure*

| | Activity | Time |
|---|---|---|
| Warm-up | Introducing the concept of abstract and concrete | 5 mins |
| Teaching | Introducing 7 abstract and 7 concrete words with flashcards | 15 mins |
| Pre-test | | 10 mins |
| Playing game | Palying Pictionary in groups of 2 | 20 mins |
| Post-test | | 10 mins |
| Wrap-up | Conduct a survey | 5 mins |

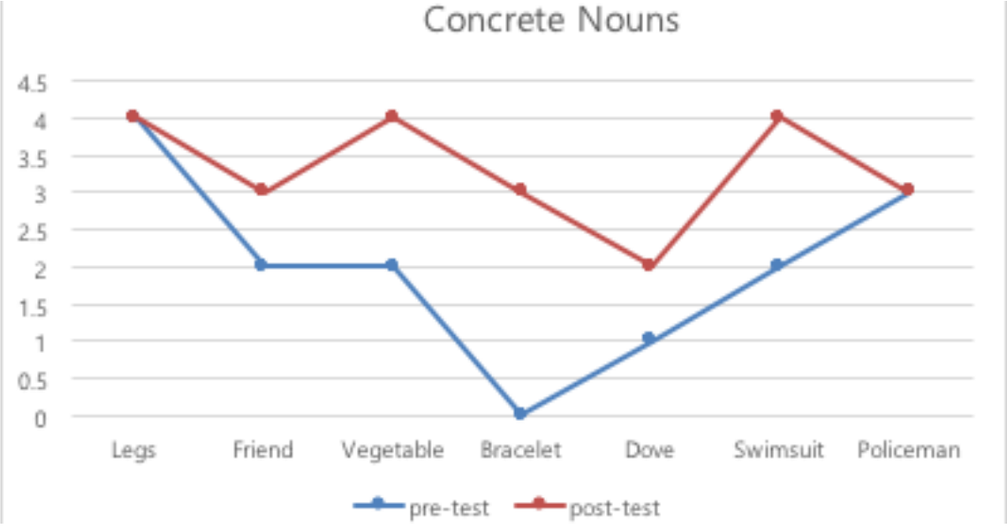
## 4. Results

This section describes the results comparing the pre-test and post-tests that were conducted before and after the vocabulary game. In addition to this, the analysis of the survey on the overall lecture is described.

### 4.1 Comparison between pre-test and post-test on concrete nouns

To examine the effect of the game on learning vocabulary which has a concrete form, the scores of the pre-test and post-test were compared. Each score means the number of student who wrote the correct word corresponding to the picture. As shown in Table 4.1 below, we can see the progress in acquiring new concrete nouns after learning vocabulary through the game. That is, more student answered the correct word corresponding to each picture of Friend (2 to 3), Vegetable (2 to 4), Bracelet (0 to 3), Dove (1 to 2), and Swimsuit (2 to 4) after the game except for Legs and Policeman, which means that students were originally familiar with those two words; Legs and Policeman.

*Figure 4.1 Comparison between pre-test and post-test on concrete nouns*

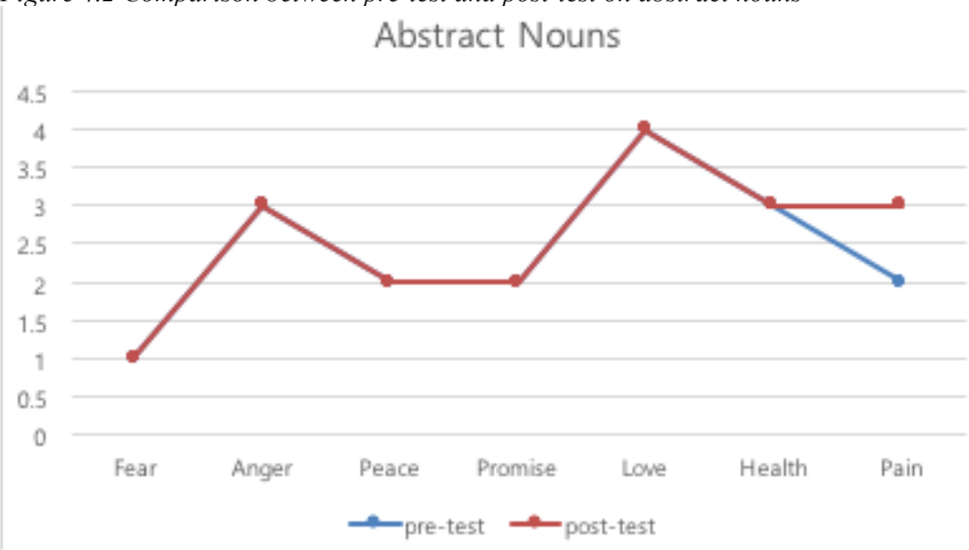



## 4.2 Comparison between pre-test and post-test on abstract nouns

To examine the effect of the game on learning vocabulary that has an abstract concept the scores of the pre-test and post-test were compared. Each score means the number of student who wrote the correct word corresponding to the picture.

As shown in Table 4.2 below, there is almost no progress in acquiring new abstract nouns after learning vocabulary through the game. To explain in detail, most students answered the post-test the same as the pre-test, except for Pain. In case of the word Pain, there was a little progress from 2 students to 3 students who answered correctly.

*Figure 4.2 Comparison between pre-test and post-test on abstract nouns*



### 4.3 Analysis of survey

In reference to the survey sheets (Appendix C), four out of four students in the class said that this game was fun and it helped them to learn new vocabulary easily. The data shows the most difficult words they learned from this class were Fear, Pain, Bracelet, and Vegetable. The word Fear was chosen most by students as difficult for them to remember, and the word Bracelet was the next with two students answering it was difficult. Also, for one of the students, the word Pain was difficult among all words. This survey shows that students are struggling with matching the word and meaning in terms of abstract concepts.

## 5. Discussion

The research question for this study is ""Based on the stage of development theory, does the game still help 10 year old (internationally) children to learn and retain words easily regardless of whether they are concrete words or abstract words?". To discuss this research question, the purpose of this research was to examine the effect of the game in learning abstract vocabulary. The results showed that the effect of the game in vocabulary learning was different between the concrete words and the abstract words. This finding supports Piaget's stage of development theory. According to Piaget (1973), children from seven to eleven years of age are in the concrete operational stage. In this stage, children start logical and adult-like thinking. They are able to apply logical reasoning in several areas of knowledge at the same time, but this ability is restricted to the immediate context, which is very concrete and physical. Those children are not able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract terms yet. Thus, it wasn't very effective to learn vocabulary through a game when it comes to abstract nouns in the experiment. In contrast, students easily learned the concrete nouns through the game and they could match the word and the meaning correctly.

## 6. Conclusion

We have discussed why games are effective in teaching English to young learners and what things should be considered when choosing a game for different reasons. Because games are not for learning but for playing, they motivate students naturally because they are fun. Overall, games do help young learners improve their L2 by just playing without pressure, especially in learning vocabulary. However, it is important for teachers to consider student's cognitive development before they teach. Teachers can tailor lessons for students' maximum learning capacity using games as long as the teacher understands students' cognitive

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# Appendices

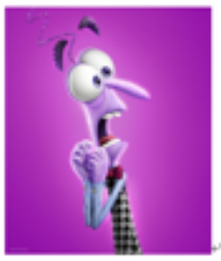
## Appendix A. Flashcards for concrete nouns and abstract nouns

**Abstract Nouns**

pain

Promise


Peace



Fear

Anger

Health

Love

# Appendix B. Pre-test & Post-test

**Vocabulary test** **Date:** _____

**Name:** _____

<Word bank>

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vegetable | Peace | Swimsuit | Policeman | Promise | Dove | | |
| Friend | Bracelet | Anger | Health | Love | Pain | Legs | Fear |

◆ let's find the right word for each picture!

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____


NO
WAR

## Appendix C. The survey on the overall lecture

**Survey** **Date:**_____

1. Did you have fun with 'Pictionary' game?
   a Yes
   b So so
   c No
2. Did this game help you to match the word and meaning better?
   a Yes
   b So so
   c No
3. What was the most difficult word for you?

   _____
4. Why were they difficult for you?

   _____

# Four Lessons: Teaching Phrasal Verbs Through Movement

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***Abstract***

*This is a series of four lessons designed to help students with remembering and properly using phrasal verbs. Total Physical Response (TPR) is employed in these lessons to teach phrasal verbs by pairing them with meaningful representative actions. Lessons take place in three main parts: a training session where students learn associated movements to accompany phrases, a practice session where the phrase-action associations are reinforced, and then activities where students use the learned phrasal verbs in an authentic manner. In the initial three lessons, ten new phrasal verbs are learned per lesson and paired with gestural movements. The phrases and gestural movements are further associated by being sequential sets of actions that people are familiar with in their daily lives. The fourth lesson employs the same method as the first three but gives an idea of how a teacher might use this method to teach the less literal, metaphoric meanings of phrasal verbs. The efficacy of using TPR is based on the growing evidence that the body and movement play a significant role in cognition, memory, and language. These lessons are based on the hypothesis that representative gestural actions learned in sequential order can improve the understanding and memory of language items.*

## 1. Introduction

There is growing evidence that the body and movement play a significant role in cognition, memory, and language. These lessons are based on the hypothesis, and supported by research, that representative gestural movements can improve the understanding and memory of language items, in this case phrasal verbs. The theory of embodied cognition suggests that the physical properties of the human body influence the mind, just as the mind influences the body (Madan, 2012). According to Mark Johnson (2016) and his embodiment approach, "you have to delve deep into the body to see how humans understand and communicate". Willem and Casasanto (2011) state that there is sufficient evidence for a theory of what they call "embodied semantics" in which parts of our action and perception systems (sensori-motor regions) are involved in language understanding and this involvement contributes to the construction of meaning. Based on previous research (Barsalou, 2008; Fischer & Zwann, 2008; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999), Madan (2012) has also hypothesized that actions and gestures can improve memory performance. Studies have shown that participants remember actions they perform slightly better than actions they see, and actions they see better than actions they simply hear uttered (Cohen, 1981 in Madan, 2012). It is thought that this "enactment effect", as it is now referred to, occurs because performed actions involve richer and more elaborate representations and deeper processing that engages motor systems (Madan, 2012). It is this enhancement of understanding and memory provided by physical movement I am trying to take advantage of in these lessons.

This series of three lessons is designed to address problems students have with remembering and properly using phrasal verbs. I chose phrasal verbs because, in my experience, these have been notoriously problematic for students to learn. They are difficult first because they are two or more words performing doing the job of one part of speech. Second, they are numerous in English but do not seem to follow any consistent pattern. Many students feel they must simply be memorized, and faced with such a daunting task choose to avoid them. By doing this, they will develop difficulties in understanding the phrasal verb heavy speech of native speakers.

Total Physical Response (TPR) is employed in these lessons to teach phrasal verbs by pairing them with meaningful representative actions. To decide on what actions to use in all three lessons I talked with students to see what movements naturally came to mind when they heard the phrases and chose the most

common responses. I did this because I might have my own cultural bias about how an action is performed and many common gestures can carry different meanings in different cultures. Each lesson takes place in three main parts: a training session where students learn associated movements to accompany phrases, a practice session where the phrase-action associations are reinforced, and a final activity where students can use the learned phrasal verbs in an authentic manner. Each lesson is approximately 55 minutes. These lessons can serve as a supplement to a larger curriculum and possibly be presented on a weekly basis.

TPR was developed decades ago, but there is now much more evidence of the significant role movements and the body play in cognition and language at different levels. Although TPR is often used with beginner levels and children, it can be used successfully with higher levels and adults if the language is adapted accordingly. In fact, research into TPR has shown that adults do very well with the technique, often outperforming children (Asher, 2009). TPR is a teaching method created by Dr. James J. Asher. This method seeks to emulate the way a child encodes and acquires language through physical response before actually speaking. TPR can be very useful in teaching students specific types of target language such as actions, procedures, and the sequential use of phrasal verbs in these lessons. Other positive aspects of TPR are that it can be used with large or small mixed level groups, it apparently involves both left- and right-brained learning, and it can be a fun respite from the usual, often static, adult classroom environment.

More specifically, I am trying to get my students to associate new English forms to already understood bodily movements. The meaning of these phrasal verbs is essentially already known to the students in that they perform and understand these actions in their day-to-day lives. The TPR and activities link the new forms to representative movements that carry the meaning without invoking and reinforcing the Korean forms.

## 2. Lesson Plan 1: Set A: Good Morning

TITLE: GOOD MORNING

LEVEL: LOW INTERMEDIATE- INTERMEDIATE

DESCRIPTION: TPR FOR PHRASAL VERBS

COMMUNICATION FOCUS: PHRASAL VERBS

| Step | Time | Content | Intercations | Materials |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Part 1 | 20 min | Phrasal verb and associated action training | - Teacher (T) says the phrases in sequential order and demonstrates an action for each phrase. Students (Ss) copy and follow the T's actions without speaking x 2 or 3 as needed.<br>- T performs the actions in sequential order without speaking and Ss repeat the action and utter the phrase. | None |
| Part 2 | A. 10 min<br><br>B. 10 min | Practice activities to reinforce phrase-action associations<br><br>A. Watch and say<br><br>B. Phrase chaining game | A. Ss get into groups of four. One S is given a sheet with the target phrase (Set A). They choose two of the phrases and perform the action. The other Ss produce the phrase. (This can be done without any reference sheet if Ss are sufficiently confident)<br>B. S 1 says the first phrase and performs the action. S 2 says and performs the first phrase and then the second, and so on until a S says and performs all 10 phrases. If a S fails to remember the sequence or makes a mistake, the game starts again form that person. | Set A phrasal verb sheet (Appendix A) |

| Step | Time | Content | Interactions | Materials |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Part 3 | 10 min | Morning routine discussion | Ss discuss their daily sequence of actions in the morning using question prompts.<br>Prompts:<br>1. What time do you wake up?<br>2. What do you do first, second, etc. after waking up?<br>3. Tell others in your group everything you do between waking up and arriving at school/work/other place.<br><br>Note: All Ss will be given Set A phrasal verb sheet as a handout to keep for reference. | Set A phrasal verb sheet |

## 2.1 Lesson One: Good Morning Defense

These three lessons were designed to take advantage of compelling evidence that physical movement can enhance the learning and memory of language. Many studies suggest that gesture and speech are closely bound in that complex motor functions and language production share neural networks (Ratey, 2002). Furthermore, certain nonverbal behaviors, such as iconic gestures, can have a powerful impact on the way we comprehend and remember pragmatic communication because they contribute to meaning (Kelly, Barr, Church, & Lynch, 1999). Asher (2009)'s extensive research supplies ample demonstration that action based phrases "internalized" with TPR leads to significant improvement of retention in the long term. There is also evidence for adults out performing children after both had undergone TPR learning suggesting that TPR can be a valuable tool for teaching adults at different levels, not just beginner child students. More recent research by Macedonia and Knosche (2011) finds enactment (performing representative gestures during encoding) to be a tool that empowers foreign language instruction and learning. They found that enacting, what they also call a kind of embodied cognition, enhances memory of not only single words but also for text (phrases). In addition, enactment enhances memory of abstract as well as concrete words. Their study goes on to show that enacted items were recruited more often and used in novel sentences. Based on their research, it seems likely that acting out linguistic items helps with later retrieval and use of those items.

Lesson one makes use of TPR to help students learn ten phrasal verbs in a narrative with sequential order. Because it is difficult for students to find a clear grammatical logic behind the use of phrasal verbs, the use of motion can help them better notice and encode the meaning of these famously tricky English phrases. The narrative in this lesson, and by extension the following two lessons, provides a context and a sequence that allows students to build schemas or even make use of schemas they already possess in their L1. The first "watch and say" practice activity simply gives students an opportunity to reinforce the phrase-action pairs they have just learned. Here, students must produce the language for the action they see. They will perceive the movement, engage their memory of the movement, and then retrieve and produce the associated language. The second "phrase chaining activity" is also designed to reinforce the associations but provides a bit more of a challenge. In this activity, students are not only engaging their own memories but taking cues from and being reinforced by the memory of the group. Also, as they have to pay attention to where they are in the sequence, they have to continually review it as each person takes their turn. This practice with maintaining sequential information in accurate order for a finite period of time will help students process the phrases for reorganization and later use in novel utterances (Ratey, 2002).

The final discussion activity allows students to apply the phrases they have practiced to talk about their own lives and routines. People usually have similar but different morning routines, so each student will have to reorganize the sequence of events to varying degrees. Students make authentic use of the phrases to accurately describe their lives to others the same way they would in any natural conversation.

## 3. Lesson Plan 2: Set B: Good Morning + At Work

TITLE: AT WORK
LEVEL: LOW INTERMEDIATE- INTERMEDIATE
DESCRIPTION: TPR FOR PHRASAL VERBS
COMMUNICATION FOCUS: PHRASAL VERBS

| Step | Time | Content | Intercations | Materials |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Part 1 | 10 min | Review of previous lesson's training. Phrasal verb and associated action trainer of 5 more verbs related to work. | -T reviews the phrasal verbs from the previous lesson and set by saying the phrase and eliciting the movement x 1.<br>-5 more phrases from set B are added and Ss are trained for these in the same manner as lesson one. | New phrasal verbs:<br>-clock in (with explanation)<br>-turn on your computer<br>-pick up the phone<br>-talk about the meeting<br>-tidy up your desk |
| Part 2 | 20 min | Practice activities to reinforce phrase-action associations<br>Last one out game | Ss stand in a circle. T says the action phrase. The last S to perform the action is out and stands with the T to watch for other slowest Ss. Eventually, the last S remaining is the winner. The game can be played again with the winner calling out the phrases. | Set A and B phrasal verb sheet (Appendix B) (if deemed necessary) |
| Part 3 | A. 15 min<br>B. 10 min | A. Ss create 5 more movements for the set B narrative. | A. Ss are given the set B phrasal verb handout. Ss work together in groups of at least 5 to come up with appropriate actions for the additional phrases on the handout.<br>B. T goes over the Ss created actions and the class comes to consensus on one action for each phrase.<br>T then reviews the new and previous actions by performing and having Ss produce the language.<br><br>Note: All Ss will be given Set B phrasal verb sheet as a handout to keep for reference. | Set B phrasal verb sheet |

## 3.1 Lesson two: At Work Defense

Lesson two builds upon lesson one with the addition of five more phrasal verbs. These five verbs are taken from set B. Set B revolves around actions at work that extend the morning narrative to the next step, going to work. The previous lesson's phrase-action pairs are reviewed to the extent that seems necessary. After this and before introducing the new pairs, it could be good to let students intuit what some of the phrases will by asking them what they do next in their daily lives. Then, students are trained for the five new phrase-action pairs as in lesson one.

Again, as in lesson one, there is an activity to give students practice with the associated pairs. The "last one out" activity was a suggested activity I found online that is used with TPR (Frost, n.d.). I have never done this exact activity, but I have done similar activities and this seems like a viable way to practice the pairs.

The final communicative activity for lesson two is somewhat experimental. Groups of students are given the set B handout on which there are five additional (to the five already practiced) phrases to add to the work place narrative without any associated actions assigned. The groups must work together to decide what actions to assign to these new phrases. Once groups have decided on their actions, the class comes back together to train these movements based on a whole class consensus. This activity allows students to engage in negotiation of meaning to clarify and confirm that they all understand what stereotypical action the phrase represents. Students must then analyze the phrases to select the best action to represent them. This creative process requires students to understand the phrase conceptually and then visualize how it should physically appear. Based on the research behind TPR, it seems this can also create a link between physical movement and linguistic meaning.

## 4. Lesson Plan 3: Set C: CLEANING DAY

TITLE:CLEANING DAY
LEVEL: LOW INTERMEDIATE- INTERMEDIATE
DESCRIPTION: TPR FOR PHRASAL VERBS
COMMUNICATION FOCUS: PHRASAL VERBS

| Step | Time | Content | Intercations | Materials |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Part 1 | 10 min | Review of previous lesson's training. Phrasal verb and associated action training of 5 more verbs related to house cleaning. | -T reviews the phrasal verbs from the previous lesson and set by saying the phrase and eliciting the movement x 1.<br>-5 more phrases from set B are added and Ss are trained for these in the same manner as lesson one:<br>Listen and perform action x 2<br>Watch and produce phrase x1 (more if necessary) | New phrasal verbs:<br>-pick up your dirty clothes<br>-put away the clean dishes<br>-take out the trash<br>-wash the dirt off your hands<br>-look around at your clean house |
| Part 2 | 20 min | Practice activities to reinforce phrase-action associations<br><br>Simon says game | T explains the rules of the game and briefly demonstrates before selecting a S to take over as Simon. | Set A, B, and C phrasal verb sheet (Appendix C) (if necessary but students will be encouraged to play without it) |
| Part 3 | A. 10 min<br><br>B. 15 min | A. Write a story<br><br>B. Tell a story | A. Ss write a sequential story (about a paragraph) about their day making use of the phrasal verbs they have learned. They can write about their whole day from morning until night.<br><br>B. Ss then takes turns and rather than read their stories they are encouraged to just tell their story to others in the group or a partner as naturally as they can. | Set A, B, and C phrasal verb sheet as reference (if necessary) |

### 4.1 Lesson Three: Cleaning Day Defense

Lesson three follows the same pattern as the previous two lessons. It begins with a review of the previous lesson's phrase-action pairs using TPR. The teacher elicits the actions for the phrasal verbs in a sequential order (possibly skipping some of them) and then elicits the phrases form actions. Five more phrasal verbs related to house cleaning are then trained for. The house cleaning verbs are less intuitively sequential than those of set A and B but can easily fit into the narrative.

The practice activity for this lesson is Simon Says. As before, this simple game gives students a way of reinforcing and reorganizing the already established and new associations. If necessary, the student acting as Simon can use the set sheets as reference but the participants cannot. A student is out if they break the Simon rule or fail to perform the action.

The final activity is again focused on getting students to use the target language in a personalized and more authentic way by writing a short, about a paragraph in length, story about their daily schedule. By first writing a story in which they use the phrasal verbs they have learned they have time the time to carefully think about their daily schedule and which of the phrasal verbs help describe that schedule. Although the physical movement (performance of the actions) component is absent in writing, this activity should

help them access their procedural memory as they visualize the steps they take each day. Plus, the act of writing often lends itself to procedural thought. Once students have completed their stories, they then take turns with partners to describe their daily routine based on what they wrote. They will be instructed not to read off of their papers. This activity should help students think about and then make use of phrasal verbs in speaking in the context of their own lives.

| Step | Time | Content | Intercations | Materials |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Part 1 | A. 10 min<br><br>B. 10 min | A. Introduction of figurative meaning of known and new phrasal verbs.<br><br>B. Creation of representative gesture for figurative phrasal verbs. | A. Ss get into 3-4 groups of 2-5 people. T hands out three phrasal verb paper slips with literal and figurative sentence examples and explains the task to the Ss. Ss discuss each verb, decide what they think it means, and write the meaning on the slip. T visits each group to check if students have discovered the new meaning of the verb phrase and offers a paraphrased definition as clarification if need be.<br><br>B. Ss work in their groups to develop a representative gesture for the new figurative meaning of their three verbs. T uses this time to write the phrasal verbs (9, 10, or 11 verbs depending on class size). | Phrasal verb slips (Appendix D) |
| Part 2 | A. 10 min<br><br>B. 10 min | A. Mingle and teach<br><br>B. Simple charades | A. Ss take one phrasal verb slip and mingle with the other Ss to teach them the new figurative expressions by reading the sentence and performing the action.<br><br>B. Ss groups take turns coming to the front of the room, by the board, to perform their representative actions. The other groups use this input to guess the correct phrasal verb from the board. After all 9-11 verbs have been guessed, T and Ss review by saying each phrasal verb and performing the movement. | Phrasal verb slips |
| Part 3 | A. 5 min<br><br>B. 15 min | A. Travel Story handout and explanation (Appendix E)<br><br>B. Travel Story task in pairs | A. T hands out the Travel Story prompt sheet (or use PPT), explains the instructions, and answers any Ss questions. T gives their personal example and demonstrates both natural and in-class created gesturing.<br><br>B. Ss get in pairs and tell their partner about a vacation or trip they have taken using the prompt to guide them. Ss are instructed to use natural spontaneous gestures as well as consciously try to incorporate the phrasal verbs and created actions into their story telling. | |

## 5. Lesson Plan 4: Vacation

TITLE: VACATION
LEVEL: LOW INTERMEDIATE-UPPER INTERMEDIATE
DESCRIPTION: TPR WITH FIGURATIVE PHRASAL VERBS
COMMUNICATION FOCUS: FIGURATIVE PHRASAL VERBS

### 5.1. Lesson four: Vacation Defense

In the previous lessons, the more literal action-based definition of the phrasal verbs is being focused on. Many of these verbs, however, have non-literal more abstract or metaphoric meanings. For example, we can "pick up" the phone, but we can also "pick up" some Spanish on a trip to Barcelona. Lesson four extends and continues the previous three lessons but focuses on the metaphoric and figurative meanings of phrasal verbs. Gestures and movement used to represent the literal meaning of phrases can also represent

figurative meanings. In Hand and Mind, McNeil (2007) describes three types of spontaneous gestures: drumming gestures for rhythm and emphasis, iconic gestures to represent real objects and actions, and metaphoric gestures to represent concepts and ideas. In this lesson, students will first invent new gestural movements for phrasal verbs and then teach other students these movements in a mingling activity where they both say the phrase in a sentence and perform the gesture. Students should be able to come up with representative actions for the figurative meaning of phrasal verbs because metaphoric gesturing is actually quite natural and often occurs spontaneously. McNeil even recorded mathematicians producing a wide variety of metaphoric gestures as they described abstract concepts (Johnson, 2016). Willems and Casasanto (2011) make a convincing argument that metaphoric meaning is connected to movement in the mind and body:

*According to theories of metaphorical mental representation, people understand abstract words and concepts, in part, by activating representations in more concrete domains, particularly the domains of space and motion (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). There is now abundant behavioral evidence that spatio-motor representations contribute to people's understanding of many abstract domains, including time (Boroditsky, 2000), preference (Casasanto, 2009), goodness (Meier and Robinson, 2004), intimacy (Williams and Bargh, 2008), social dominance (Schubert, 2005), kinship (Enfield, 2005), musical pitch (Rusconi et al., 2006), and similarity (Casasanto, 2008). Some of these studies show connections between bodily action and abstract mental states that may seem, at first, to directly support the claim that abstract concepts and word meanings are embodied. (n.p.)*

In the first task of discovering the new meaning the first sentence on the slip reinforces the learned meanings of the phrasal verbs. Then second sentence introduces alternative meanings of the verbs which students can identify through context and the overall meaning of the sentence, thus lending awareness of polysemous meanings and lexical enrichment. In addition, both sentences provide examples of collocation. Hopefully, by allowing students to create the associated movements they will make a stronger representation that is better remembered. I chose to do a mingling activity because studies have shown that people remember a speaker who is also gesturing better tha a speaker not gesturing or gestures without speech (Thompson, 1995; Kelley et al., 1999 in Madan, 2012). The final activity is intended to let Ss use the phrases and movements to express their personal experiences. Ss are encouraged to use natural gesturing to express themselves to better include the consciously created actions. In addition, recounting travel experiences may access memories outside the Ss' usual, at home context that are possibly associated with the use of English.

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## Appendix A: Phrasal Verbs Set A

| Set A: Good Morning | |
|---|---|
| Phrasal Verb | Associated Movement |
| 1. wake up | Close and open eyes/close and open hands beside face |
| 2. turn off your alarm | Push an imaginary button on palm |
| 3. get out of bed | Stand up and stretch |
| 4. take off your pajamas | Mimic taking off a shirt |
| 5. turn on the shower | Make a turning motion with one hand |
| 6. dry off | Mimic drying off one's back |
| 7. put on your clothes/make up | Mimic putting on pants/shirt or lip stick |
| 8. get on the bus | Take two steps and raise the right hand to grab a handle |
| 9. take out your phone | Put hand in pocket and take hand out |
| 10. doze off | Fold arms and mimic sleeping |

## Appendix B: Phrasal Verbs Set B

| Set B: At work | |
|---|---|
| Phrasal Verb | Associated Movement |
| 1. clock in | Press with index finger and make "beep" noise sound |
| 2. sit down at your desk | Sit down/sitting motion |
| 3. turn on your computer | Low underhand push with index finger |
| 4. log on | Mimic typing |
| 5. pick up the phone | Mimic picking up phone with hand like a phone |
| 6. talk about the meeting | With phone say "blah, blah, blah" |
| 7. Lunch time: take out your credit card | Mimic taking card out card to hand to someone |
| 8. tidy up your desk | Mimic stacking/straightening papers |
| 9. screw up the report | Hold hands to head and mimic screaming |
| 10. Cheer up! Don't be upset | Fold arms and mimic sleeping |

## Appendix C: Phrasal Verbs Set C

| Set B: At work | |
|---|---|
| Phrasal Verb | Associated Movement |
| 1. pick up your dirty clothes | Mimic picking up from the floor/chair |
| 2. put your clothes in the washer | Mimic opening small door and throwing something |
| 3. hang up you wet clothes | Mimic shaking and hanging clothes |
| 4. put away the clean dishes | Mimic putting something up high/at head level |
| 5. take out the trash | Hold hands together to carry something heavy and waddle |
| 6. change out the trash bag | Pull up with the right hand and push down with the left |
| 7. don't tip over the plant! | Make a surprised face |
| 8. wash the dirt off your hands | Mimic washing hands |
| 9. something smells. clean out the refrigerator | Wave hand in front of face. Make over hand digging motion |
| 10. look around at your clean house | Put hands on hips and look around with a happy face |

# Appendix D: Figurative Phrasal Slip

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**TAKE OFF**

1. Take off your shoes before coming inside.

2. They take off tomorrow for Thailand.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**PICK UP**

1. Help me pick up this heavy box.

2. I picked up some German when I was in Berlin.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**PUT AWAY**

1. Put the groceries away as soon as you get home.

2. I put away money every month for a trip to Europe.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**TURN OFF**

1. Turn off the light.

2. The strong smell of the soup turned me off.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**TAKE OUT**

1. Take out your computer at airport security.

2. Let me take you out Friday night.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**CHECK OUT**

1. You must check out at 2 PM.

2. I can't wait to check out the Louvre.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**LOOK FORWARD (TO)**

1. During the test, look forward and do not talk.

2. I look forward to going on vacation.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**POP IN**

1. Popcorn will pop in the oven.

2. I need to pop in the bank.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**HANG AROUND**

1. Hang your headphones around your neck.

2. Let's hang around at a café.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**KICK BACK**

1. Kick the ball back to me.

2. Let's go to the beach and kick back with a beer.

- _____

Write the meaning of the phrasal verb in the second sentence.

**SOAK UP**

1. Soak up the water with tissue.

2. I soaked up a lot of sun.

- _____

Paraphrases / Figurative meaning

Take off: they depart/leave for Thailand

Pick up: learn by experience

Put away: save for later

Turn off: I feel disgusted or dislike something

Take out: To take someone to a place and usually pay for them

Check out: Look at or explore

Look forward to: wait for eagerly or happily

Pop in: to go in some place quickly for a short time

Hang around: to spend time at a place or with someone

Kick back: to relax

Soak up: absorb sunlight or knowledge or anything

# Appendix E: Travel Story

Tell your partner about a vacation or trip you took. As you talk, use your body and gestures freely and naturally to help describe your trip. Also, try to use at least three of the phrases and movements we learned today.

Here are some ideas of what you can talk about:

- How did you get there?

- What fun things did you do?

- What sights did you see?

- What did you eat?

- What did you buy?

- Did anything go wrong?

- How did you communicate with people?

Teacher's example story (variable):

I went Mui Nae beach in Vietnam. First we went to Ho Chi Minh and stayed at a hotel. We had dinner and checked out the night life in the park. The next morning we took off for the beach. At the beach we could just kick back and soak up the sun. It is very windy there and there are kite surfers. You can watch they kites flying through the air. A few times we popped into a bar for a cocktail. I look forward to returning to Vietnam someday.

# Action Research: How Can We Give Clear and Effective Instructions in a Speaking Class?

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*Practicum*

***Abstract***

*The aim of this action research was to see how three intervention plans: modeling, simple PPT, and comprehension check regarding instructions were effective in university speaking class. It was carried out with 18-21 undergraduate students in S university in Seoul, Korea. The intervention plans were established for clear and effective instructions to enhance students' comprehensibility in class. In order to see the effectiveness of our plans, we examined the reflections from big sisters who led the class or participated in the students' group as a group leader, observed video clips of the class, and conducted surveys to students for five weeks. In this study, it was discovered that the three strategies: modeling, simple PPT, and comprehension check for instructions were effective in students' comprehension of instructions. However, there were some variables affecting the effectiveness of the strategies from week to week.*

## 1. Introduction

The English in Action speaking class was designed for students who expected to improve their speaking skill. It allowed students to have many opportunities to practice the language to improve their proficiency for use in real world. This class enabled students to speak English in real word environment where 6 teachers, called big sisters from TESOL MA program who participated in the class as a teaching group or group leaders to facilitate students' use of target language, were in the presence. In this class, the trained teachers always gave students feedback in order for students to improve their speaking proficiency for attaining a high score on the on the ACTFL OPI and OPIC speaking tests and considered student's interests in designing every lesson plan. In sum, this class was totally student- centered class, which in turn class was designed according to students' interests and needs and materials were also designed according to their preferences of materials in order for students to have interest in their class.

The class started with 21 female undergraduate students in S Women's University in Seoul, Korea and their age ranged from 20-25 years old. Their proficiency level varied from intermediate low to advanced level. The majority of students were Korean but there were three Chinese students. According to the data of students' survey, more than half the students thought English was their friend but 17 students out of 21 expected improvement of English speaking from the class. As for the confidence in English, the results of the survey showed that 15 students out of 21 had confidence in reading, pronunciation, and listening and 6 students had confidence in test preparing, speaking, and grammar. However, more than half the students had a lack of confidence in vocabulary and writing. In addition to that, the data of the survey showed that the learning task types that they wanted to do were mainly vocabulary, describing, storytelling, pronunciation practices and debating. As for the materials, more than half students wanted to use pictures, movie clips, cartoon, and video in class and 10 students out of 21 wanted to use social media as their material. The most interesting five topics that they chose were food, travel, art/music, fashion, and movie.

For the class, students met twice a week, Tuesday and Thursday for two hours from 6p.m-8p.m. One professor was always in the presence to observe both the teachers, big sisters, and the undergraduate students. He took video of every class for big sisters' reflections and did not participate much in the class. Each teaching group consisting of two big sisters took turns to teach the class and the other 4 big sisters played a role as a group leader in a group. When one teaching group led the class, their assigned students, called little sisters, were reassigned to the other big sister's groups. Thus, each one of the four big sisters worked with 5-6 little sisters. However, as one student dropped the course and there were changes in attendance, the number of students differed from week to week.

In every class, the big sisters gave their group members feedback for 10 minutes in the beginning of the class regarding students' reading and speaking assignment. As for reading assignment, it was given to students prior to each week's class and designed for building students' background knowledge of each class. The speaking assignment was given to students after each week's class and designed for giving students a chance to apply what they learned in the class as they recorded their responses in the given context. During the rest of class time, the teaching group conducted activities for each week's theme and language functions were selected based on the students' interests and needs from the survey. The other big sisters facilitated their group members as they checked students' comprehension and encouraged students' usage of the target language expressions.

Working language of the class was English. This means all official aspects of the course including all assignments, presentations, and in-class discussion was conducted in English. In order for students to improve their speaking proficiency, students in the class were always engaged in the activities for the entire class session. In other words, students learned in a student-centered learning situation.

## 2. Research Question and Rationale

Issues related with instructions had arisen since the actual teaching had started in the third week of the class. From what we have observed, big sisters often had to ask a teaching group for clarification or a teaching group had to go around tables to make sure whether instructions were delivered well. Reflections from big sisters also proved that we needed clearer instructions for activities. Comments about instructions in the reflections are below.

*"There was a couple of activities in particular in which there was a complication of understanding the directions. ... It was during when the little sisters had to go around the classroom to get information of the various islands, during the second time that they had to go around, there was a lot of confusion on where to go. If these activities were to be conducted again, it would be nice to give more descriptive directions."*

- Big sister A's reflection in week 3

*"The fluency practice one where the students had to repeat the same sentence saying it to the left and then asking, "What?" to the right, was a bit hard to understand what we were supposed to do."*

- Big sister D's reflection in week 3

*"They had a hard time understanding the activity and to come up with the outputs. It would have been better to review what an adjectival phrase is in the beginning of class. In addition, more explanation about creating caption and more examples would be helpful."*

- Big sister F's reflection in week 4

"Even though the direction were on the screen, they didn't seem to be clear. They were simple but they didn't explain exactly what the little sisters had to do. I think they did good in keeping the instructions up, but they spent a lot of time going around and clarifying what needed to be done."

- Big sister D's reflection in week 5

> "On Tuesday, each teacher gave different instructions as they came to our table to support. Little sisters were confused and asked me for clarification."
>
> - Big sister F's reflection in week 5

It was apparent that instructions made in class were often unclear causing confusion. More descriptive directions, review and more examples of target language functions had been suggested to avoid the confusion.

This study had started with the question: *How can we give clear and effective instructions in a speaking class?* Based on reflections and discussions about previous teaching weeks, we had planned to intervene the class with three strategies: *Modeling, Simple PPT, and Comprehension Check regarding instructions*.

## 3. Literature Review

This action research was carried out based on three intervention plans: modeling, simple PPT, and comprehension check for clear and effective instructions. Considering that the emphasis was on the comprehension of instructions in order for students to do the tasks actively during the class, three intervention plans played an important role in students' understanding of instructions that teachers were delivering.

The first intervention plan was modeling. Taylor and Pearson (2002) mentioned that modeling is the primary way through which teachers can demonstrate for their students how students can interact with texts. In other words, teachers enable students to interact with text or content of instructions that students should understand for learners' language performance, which will lead to increasing students' comprehensibility of the instructions, stating directions orally and demonstrating what the students are expected. Simply put, by showing what students have to do through modeling, teachers can help students understand instructions that teachers want to deliver clearly.

Walqui (2006) also emphasized that clear examples of what is requested of learners to imitate should be provided. She mentioned that it is necessary for learners to see or hear what a developing product looks like when a new task or working format is introduced, suggesting that demonstration through interaction or the first trial of activity in class is fundamental step in instructional scaffolding. She also asserts that modeling "appropriate language use for the performance of specific academic functions, such as describing, comparing, summarizing, evaluating and so on" (p. 13) is essential to support learners' language performance.

The second intervention plan was to improve the comprehension of the instructions using technology. The PowerPoint is a way of presenting content of instructions that allows more individual student access to intellectual engagements with the content that students will learn. According to Bhaerman and Selden (1970), the use of new technology was based on its contribution to the outcomes of education. This means that the use of technology such as PowerPoint can have influence on the outcomes of educations. In order to yield a positive outcome of educations or learning, we tried to use the PPT in an effective way when giving students instructions during the class.

According to Bartsch and Cobern (2003), PowerPoint presentations should be as simple as having only text on a colored screen to use in an effective way. In other words, when we use the PowerPoint, we should make each slide simple enough for students to understand the text without difficulty. According to De Wet (2006) in order to make the PPT simple, the number of lines of text per screen should be limited, namely, it should be used less than five lines of text to draw students' attention in an effective way, by showing "the simple PPT as a visual aid for teachers not only facilitate students to understand the content or text of instructions clearly but also draw students' attention."

The last intervention plan was for the clear and effective delivering of instructions. Comprehension check also plays an important role in clarifying the instructions of the tasks for learners' language performance. Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003) showed a variety of techniques for checking understanding to ensure that students understand the language used in instructions. One of the techniques is that teachers ask students both factual question (e.g., Who? and What?) and referential question (Why? And what would you do if…?). By asking students both questions, teachers are able to check whether they understand instructions related to each activity. In addition to those questions, teachers and students would ask comprehension-check questions whether students understand the instructions instead of asking closed questions. The examples of comprehension-check questions would be 'How do we make _____?', 'What is the first step?' and more. Through this comprehension check, students will be able to show and confirm their understanding.

For students' understanding of instructions better, Rosenshine (1983) mentioned that it is best that checking for understanding takes place often and frequently so that the teacher can provide corrections and do re-teach when necessary. Because checking for understanding involves teachers in asking questions, it would be best that these questions should be prepared beforehand. Fisher and Frey (2015) also emphasized the importance of prepared questions. According to Fisher and Frey, questioning, which can be done orally, is the most common way that teachers check for understanding. Unfortunately, not all questions are worthy of instructional time. To be useful, the initial questions teachers ask should be planned in advance.

Taking every theory above regarding comprehension of instructions into account, *modeling, simple PPT, and comprehension check* play a vital role in delivering clear and effective instructions for students.

## 4. Intervention Plans

*1) Modeling*

The first method of intervention for incorporating better instruction was by modeling an activity. A teaching group did a trial run to show what an actual activity looked like and how to produce appropriate language in the task. This strategy was important because throughout the previous classes, there always seemed to be confusion amongst the students on how to carry out activities as well as how to apply language functions into tasks even though instructions and language functions were stated in the beginning of each activity. Having descriptive modeling would help students see a clear picture of activities and allow to decrease the amount of possible confusion to happen in the class.

*2) Simple PPT*

The second method of intervention for incorporating better instruction was by making the instructions in PowerPoint Presentation much simpler. Many students did not seem to look at the screen for getting or clarifying the instructions of the activities but rather relying on the big sisters. Therefore, in order to provide appropriate and more source for students' comprehension, it would be best to just have key words in PPT shown on the screen instead of having too many sentences of descriptions.

*3) Comprehension Check*

The third method of intervention for incorporating better instruction was by having a teaching group and big sisters always being the role of making sure that the little sisters understand the instructions. The teaching group and big sisters asked students factual questions which were suggested by Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003) and/or comprehension questions to check whether they understood instructions related to each activity. Through this strategy, the teaching group and big sisters were able to confirm students' understanding and provide scaffolding if it is necessary.

## 5. Data Collection Plans

Methods of data collection consist of surveys, reflections, and video observations. Firstly, we used surveys as the quantitative data which means presenting our data in numerical form. We conducted a survey for a teaching group and big sisters after each intervention week to see whether the intervention plans actually happened in the class and how helpful each intervention was. Moreover, a survey for students was also conducted after each intervention week to look into the effects of each intervention plan. As we gathered data from three different groups: a teaching group, big sisters, and students, we were able to see the effectiveness of each intervention plan and the overall trend of the intervention weeks.

Next, we examined reflections as a qualitative data. All six big sisters had written a reflection of the class after each week's intervention. Also, issues raised in the reflections were discussed among them and with a professor in the graduate class. Through the reflections and discussions, we were able to get positive and negative feedback of each week's intervention.

Lastly, we observed video clips of the class as the qualitative data as well. From the video clips, we were able to confirm what actually happened in the class. The objective of the records ensured that we did not rely on only personal memory or opinions.

The three methods: surveys, reflections, and video observations had ensured that the data was reliable.

## 6. Results

Throughout 5 weeks of intervention, it appears that students have benefited from the three interventions. They were able to understand instructions better which led them to initiate and proceed activities in class. First of all, the observation of each week's video and the result of teaching groups' survey proved that

all three interventions were implemented during the intervention weeks. Moreover, the majority of students responded in the survey that modeling, simple PPT, and comprehension check helped them to understand instructions clearer and better. In addition, the big sisters and the professor agreed that interventions had positively affected the lessons and the students in their reflections or in class discussions.

To look into the effectiveness of each intervention, three intervention plans are analyzed separately by different methods: video observations, surveys, and reflections as in the following.

*1) Modeling*

All teaching groups had acknowledged the importance of modeling especially, when the specific language outcomes were expected. Thus, it was not difficult to see the teaching groups' modeling of activities in the video of each intervention week. Depending on a teaching group, it was different how often and explicitly it was demonstrated, however, it was seen that each intervention contained at least one modeling of an activity.

Students were asked how helpful was the modeling strategy to understand instructions and were given five scales from not *helpful* to *very helpful*. In order to see the amount of positive effects of modeling, the number of answers selecting *helpful* and *very helpful* are combined and answers selecting not *helpful, slightly helpful*, and *somewhat helpful* are excluded. Each week had different number of students therefore, data is converted in percentage (Figure 1).

As shown in Figure 1, modeling was highly beneficial for students to comprehend instructions. The ratio of positive responses (*helpful* + *very helpful*) remains in the range of 81% to 100% throughout the intervention weeks. It should be noted that the ratio of positive responses had increased from week 7, which was the first week of intervention. It proves that there was improvement in modeling strategy usage as weeks proceeded. One of the reasons which made the improvement was that the big sisters learned how to make appropriate modeling. From the video observation and reflections from big sisters, it was learned that modeling should not be done excessively. It was witnessed in the video that one modeling in week 7 was too long and gave unnecessary examples which made modeling strategy less effective.

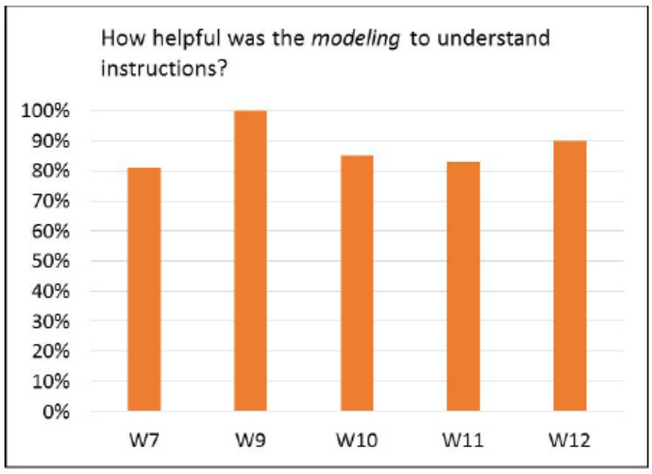


**Figure 1.**

One of the big sister's reflection also confirms that students were benefitted from the modeling. She commented that,

> *"Something else that went well was the modeling of what the students had to do. ... the teaching group doing the pair modeling for the little sisters was beneficial for them."*
>
> - Big sister D's reflection in week 9

In addition, another big sister indicated that,

> *"... the little sisters understood them and were able to conduct the activity without me helping them. There was some good form of modeling conducted."*
>
> - Big sister A's reflection in week 12

Although the positive effects remain higher than week 7, the ratio fluctuates between weeks. It seems that week 9 was the week when students have benefited the most, however, week 10, 11, and 12 showed less positive effects than week 9. It appears that there were several factors affecting the intervention.

In week 10, students had to formally describe figures and tables. Describing graphs was not a familiar task for them even in Korean. The unfamiliarity of content challenged students a lot in week 10. When the content got more complex, more simplified instructions and more specified modeling should had been provided. One of the member of the teaching group in week 10, however, recalled her modeling being unclear. In her reflection, she commented that,

> *"I did sort of model, but I think it wasn't clear enough. I had to go and clarify to each table."*
>
> - Big sister D's reflection in week 10

In week 11, it seemed there was confusion because of the way in which modeling was delivered. Big sister A claimed that,

> *"... it was hard to understand on who the actual instructor was of the particular activity, due to big sister B and C going back and forth in delivering the instructions. So, there was times when I felt a bit confused to grasp the content. It seemed to be same case for the little sisters as well."*
>
> - Big sister A's reflection in week 11

In the video clip of week 11, it could be also observed that one big sister suddenly cut in the other's modeling to support but it led students to confusion as the flow of instructions were interfered.

Similar to week 10, the content of week 12 seemed challenging for students. Students were given the context in which they had to create their lifestyle blog with suggestions for better and healthy life. Many of them had difficult time to come up with elements and ideas for their blog. Big sister A wrote that,

> *"... on Thursday as we went on to doing the challenging activities, they seemed to struggle. I'm assuming it is because this is a topic that they are not completely familiarized with."*
>
> - Big sister A's reflection in week 12

It seems that there are many other factors: the complexity of activity, the unfamiliarity of content, or the skill of delivering instructions among the teaching groups, affecting the success of delivering instructions clearly and effectively.

*2) Simple PPT*

From the video observation of intervention, simple PPT instructions could be spotted throughout the weeks. All of the teaching groups simplified instructions and organized them in PPT slides. When contexts or activities were complex, more explanation was made in PPT, however, it did not seem that it interfered students' comprehension rather providing authenticity to the tasks.

As soon as the intervention plan was applied in week 7, the positive feedback could be seen in a reflection. One big sister mentioned that,

> *"Their instructions in PPT were simple so I was able to read them quickly and carry out the activities whenever I was not sure what to do."*
>
> - Big sister F's reflection in week 7

The one of the big sister's reflection also proves that the intervention actually happened in the class and had positive effects in students' comprehension. She commented that,

> *"I got to say that I was very pleased with this week's instructions ... the instructions were much on point this time. There was not much need for me to help the little sisters in understanding of how an activity was conducted ..."*
>
> - Big sister A's reflection in week 9

The result of surveys from students also shows the effects of the intervention. The responses selecting helpful or very helpful for the question, "How helpful was the simple PPT to understand instructions?" are combined to see the overall impacts of simple PPT instructions throughout the intervention weeks (Figure 2). As shown in Figure 2, from 72% to 89% of students answered it helped them to understand instructions for activities in class. Moreover, during the discussions about each week's intervention with big sisters and the professor, it was found that students and big sisters were able to easily recheck the instructions in PPT slides since the PPT contained concise instructions.

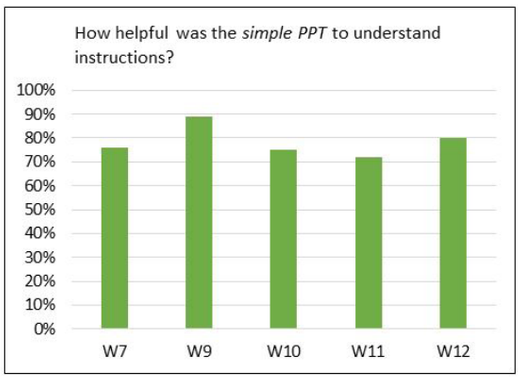


**Figure 2.**

Even though the high ratio of positive effects of simple PPT instructions is maintained, it differs between weeks like the modeling intervention. The complexity of activity, the unfamiliarity of content, or the skill of delivering instructions among the teaching groups are also regarded as variables in week 10, 11, and 12. However, there is evidence that there were more factors than those discussed in the result of modeling section above.

Students were asked in the surveys to choose the reason of not being able to understand instructions. 6 out of 20 respondents selected 'use of complicated expression' as a reason in week 10. In week 11, 6 out of 18 respondents selected 'too many steps' as a reason. One member of the teaching group in week 11 also recalled that,

> *"The second activity and last activity had many steps for students to follow in turn it was easy for us to give confusion when giving instructions. Even though the PPT was simple, I could not but give instructions without seeing the PPT because of too many steps."*
>
> - Big sister B's reflection in week 11

In the last week of intervention, week 12, 5 out of 20 respondents selected 'not fully focused when instructions were given' as a reason for not being able to understand instructions.

From the selected reasons by respondents and the reflections from big sisters, it is believed that more factors: the language of instructions, the number of steps for activities, and the affective behaviors, are in existence.

*3) Comprehension Check*

The video observation of intervention weeks confirms that all teaching groups always walked around tables to provide additional instructions or to clarify instructions. Big sisters also helped students in their own table understand instructions and proceed activities. It is certain that the intervention plan, comprehension check had happened in class, however, it is impossible to hear what the teaching groups and big sisters said at the tables and how well students were instructed from the video clips.

The result of surveys proves that the comprehension check strategy was the most beneficial one for students among three intervention plans. Students were asked to choose one selection in the scale from not helpful to very helpful for the strategy. The ratio of positive responses between helpful and very helpful was maintained as high, between 83% and 100% throughout the interventions. It verifies that the strategy had helped students comprehend instructions.

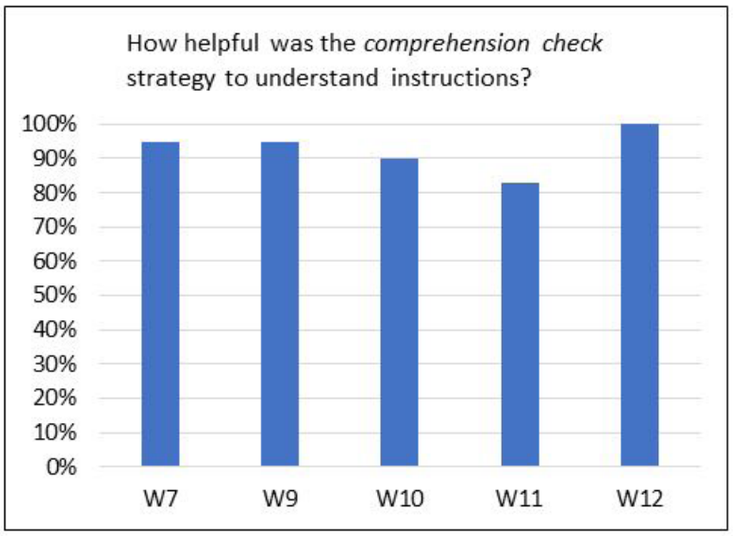


**Figure 3.**

One reflection shows the intervention strategy was in use. A big sister explained that she intervened in her group to check students' comprehension. She claimed that,

> *"(My little sisters) were not able to understand instructions from the teaching group and waited for me to clarify or ask questions to the teaching group."*
>
> - Big sister F's reflection in week 11

Another reflection of one member of the teaching group in week 12 confirms that the comprehension check strategy worked well. She commented that,

*"With big sisters' help and our clarification about the instructions as we moved around the tables, students quickly initiated the activity."*

- Big sister F's reflection in week 12

As shown in Figure 3, the ratio of positive effects of the strategy fluctuates from week to week and it seems that there are several factors causing these changes. Since the strategy checks the overall comprehension of instructions, it appears that all factors discussed in the other two interventions' results - the complexity of activity, the unfamiliarity of content, the skill of delivering instructions, the language of instructions, the number of steps for activities, and the affective behaviors - affect students' comprehensibility. There is evidence verifying one of the factors, which is the unfamiliarity of content. One member of the teaching group in week 12 stated that,

*"Even though my teaching partner and I checked little sisters' comprehension and gave some recommendations, creating something for the unfamiliar topic seemed too much for them."*

- Big sister F's reflection in week 12

Furthermore, it seems that there are more factors which influence students' comprehension. As big sisters had reached to the day of the exam for their MA program, the anxiety level had arisen. During the discussion about the intervention weeks with professor, all of them admitted that they were too nervous and worried to concentrate on other matters. One member of the teaching group in week 12 also mentioned in her reflection that,

*"What I observed to be the most challenging was ... the interference of big sisters. ... the big sisters didn't wait to intervene when needed but almost retaught the activity as they saw fit immediately after instructions."*

- Big sister E's reflection in week 12

She also added that,

*"I think a lot of the time that students did not successfully complete an activity was because of time off task. ... the same group also took liberty to just talk about the lifestyle blog instead of using the handout we had given to write down their ideas and brainstorm a name with those ideas. There was only about 2 minutes left of 10 by the time the students received the handout from the big sister."*

- Big sister E's reflection in week 12

Due to the different perception about scaffolding as a facilitator and the high level of anxiety or weariness of big sisters, it seems students were not supported properly in a certain period of intervention weeks.

## 7. Discussion

According to the results of the 5 weeks of the interventions, the intervention plans were successfully applied into teaching and the overall effects were highly positive. Students were benefitted from modeling which led them to clearly understand what the outcomes of activities should be looked or sounded like. Simple PPT instructions provided clear instructions and allowed the students and big sisters to easily recheck them if necessary. Comprehension check ensured whether students understood instructions and allowed them to proceed activities.

First, the intervention weeks showed the benefits of having modeling in the lesson. Modeling allowed students to comprehend instructions better as they were presented what they were expected to produce. It justifies Walqui's (2006) belief which is clear examples of what is requested of learners to imitate should be provided. Like she suggests, the teaching group also provided modeling for language use to support learners' language performance. The students acknowledged modeling as a helpful strategy in understanding instructions. Second, simple PPT instructions was beneficial since it allowed both the students and big sisters to get clarification about the activities whenever they got stuck. De Wet (2006) states that teachers can not only facilitate students to understand the content or text of instructions clearly but also draw students' attention by showing the simple PPT. The students and big sisters referred the simple PPT for clarifications or reminders of instructions. Lastly, the benefits of comprehension check were recognized throughout the intervention weeks. Rosenshine (1983) claims that for students' understanding of instructions better, it is best that checking for understanding takes place often and frequently so that the teacher can provide corrections and do re-teach when necessary. During the intervention weeks, a teaching group and the big sisters were always present to provide instant and frequent comprehension check. It ensured students' comprehension and helped them understand instructions better so they could get involved in activities without confusion.

However, the result also shows the drawback of the intervention. From week to week, the effectiveness of interventions unsteadily changed because many variables were correlated with intervention plans. First, the complexity of activity, the unfamiliarity of content, and the skill of delivering instructions among the teaching groups were main reasons of different results

between weeks. It appears that students had difficulties in understanding instructions when the activity was complicated or when the content was not familiar. A teaching group's skill in delivering instructions also affected students' comprehension. Next, the students answered in the surveys that they did not understand instructions due to complicated expressions in instructions, too many steps of an activity, and not being focused when instruction were given. Lastly, it is believed that teacher's perception on how to provide scaffolding and the level of anxiety or weariness influences on students' comprehension. Big sisters' inappropriate scaffolding and the affective behaviors interfered the flow of a task or put students off the track. All of factors impeded the consistent result of the interventions.

There are several implications to give clear and effective instructions in teaching. First, when dealing with content that students are not familiar, it is important to approach the content with learnable language. It means that the target language function and expressions must be not difficult for students to understand and produce. By providing appropriate cognitive load, students are able to learn the unfamiliar content better based on the knowledge that they already know. Teachers should find a balance between elements in a lesson. Second, in order to provide students proper scaffolding to conduct the activities, it is important for teachers to have a clear idea of how to give clear and effective instructions. Teachers should get advice from or get checked by their fellow teachers whether their instructions are simple but comprehensible. Lastly, teachers should use modeling strategy wisely. Modeling allows students to understand the outcome and expectation of a task. As discussed in the result section of modeling intervention, however, too much demonstration would hinder the effect of modeling since students tend to lose their attention as well as the class time for practicing decreases.

## 8. Limitation

Although our research has reached its aims, there were some unavoidable limitations. First, the duration of the intervention weeks was too short to get any solid data and the number of teaching opportunities was limited to show improvements. The intervention only lasted for five weeks and the teaching group had 1 or 2 teaching weeks for the period. Moreover, each teaching group had their own different teaching skills and styles which may be one of the main reasons for unsteady results between weeks. Thus, it is difficult to compare each week without consideration of the variable. Finally, as the intervention weeks passed by, the period of the comprehension exams for the big sisters had been reached which caused high anxiety levels along with emotional and physical fatigue. It means the teachers had extremely different emotional and physical condition during the intervention. Such factors may have interfered with the big sisters to have consistent teaching and supports for the students.

## 9. Conclusion

This research was designed to examine the effects of the interventions plans: modeling, simple PPT, and comprehension check. Based on the reflections and discussions among teachers and the professor, the intervention plans were established to give clear and effective instructions in speaking class. The data were collected for five weeks from the big sisters' reflections, the surveys from the students, and the video clips of the classes.

The results showed that all three interventions were effective in providing clear and effective instructions. The teachers agreed in their reflections and discussions that the interventions plans were implemented in the classes and that they positively affected the lessons. The most of students answered in the surveys that all three interventions strategies helped them understand instructions better. Video clips of the classes also verified each intervention plan actually happened in the class and provided evidence of raised issues.

For the future cycle, we suggest doing an intervention in a new area: vocabulary. Throughout the intervention weeks, we acknowledged the issue that the students were only using the same type of vocabulary in speech. Even though the teaching groups provided a list of new vocabulary every week which the students could use for the speech form in the same week, the students still had a hard time to use various expressions. The only way to get them to use the different expressions, was when the big sister was guiding the students on which type of expressions would be suitable to use. Vocabulary plays a crucial role in improving the proficiency of a language. Therefore, vocabulary is the noteworthy area for the next cycle of an intervention.

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# GRADUATE THESIS ABSTRACTS

# Operationalizing a Lexis Notebook for Korean Undergraduates: A Case Study

**Geonyeong Kim**

*This is a case study examining key issues in the process of operationalizing a Lexis notebook among 14 undergraduate students in a TESL elective course. The data was collected over a six-week period. To keep track of the progress of the lexis notebook development, the researcher acted as a tutor, and participants attended tutoring sessions once a week for six weeks. Using the theoretical lens of activity theory, this study focused on contradictions, specifically through the many contradictions in the way students dealt with the task of keeping a lexis notebook, which required them to do thing that they did not often do. During the initial stage of this project, the participants went through contradictions such as word selection, online tools, context, contents, and time management. Those contradictions arose from the required project of keeping the lexis notebook. Those contradictions became the answer to Research Question 1 (issues). In order to effectively deal with said contradictions, explicit guidance/feedback from the tutor played a crucial role in the process of vocabulary learning in this project. Participants who were successful with this project seemed to be deeply engaged in the tasks. Also, they were highly goal-oriented. In order to better deal with this tool (the lexis notebook), they kept revising their goals because they wanted to actively deal with the contradictions to succeed in the tasks. Consequently, participants found that they needed to rethink some of their behaviors and learn new ones. Their ways of dealing with the contradictions show that they also have higher self-efficacy than the rest of the participants. Additionally, by going through the process of this project, vii participants' feelings towards vocabulary learning changed over time. At the start of the project, they felt mostly curiosity towards this new idea of learning vocabulary. At the same time, they felt frustrated with the many unexpected contradictions. As a teacher, this study shows the necessity of teacher's explicit guidance in the process of vocabulary learning. It is necessary for developing students' sense of vocabulary, and for conducting training using proper online tools. Through a series of explicit scaffolds from the tutor, participant's self-efficacy will be promoted. It leads them to effectively deal with the contradictions that they encounter while learning.*

**Key words: Lexis notebook, contradictions, self-efficacy, process of vocabulary learning**

# Factors Affecting Foreign Language Listening Anxiety in Northeast Asian College Students: An Exploratory Study

**Yejin Kim**

*This thesis examines the factors affecting foreign language listening anxiety in Northeast Asian college students. While numerous studies have covered foreign language listening anxiety quantitatively, there is no existing L2 research examining and comparing the factors affecting English listening in Northeast Asian college students together in the same data set. Data collected form 29 participants in Seoul, South Korea was analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative analyses. The results indicated that Northeast Asian college students experienced English listening anxiety in both transactional and interactional English listening situations. It also found that background noise was proved to be a strong factor on English listening anxiety. In contrast, the length of passage and number of listening variables were the least affective factors on English listening anxiety level.*

**Key words: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety, factors affecting L2 listening**

# The Effects of L1 Use in Reciprocal Teaching on L1 and L2 Reading Comprehension and Strategy Acquisition

**Yoonjung Lim**

*This thesis examines the effects of L1 use as a scaffolding in L2 reading classroom on L1 and L2 reading comprehension and reading strategy acquisition. 30 adult EFL learners participated in reciprocal teaching intervention for 9 weeks. The participants were divided into two conditions: L1-scaffolded condition and L2-only condition. First, the participants in L1-scaffolding condition were allowed to use both L1 and L2 during the sessions. On the other hand, those in L2-only condition were allowed to use only L2. Other than the L1 use, the participants in both conditions engage in RT activities with the same materials. A pre-test and a post-test of reading comprehension tests and reading strategy tests in both L2 and L1 were given on the first and the last session and a pre-survey and a post-survey were also administered. The data from the tests and survey were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed with SPSS in order to examine difference in performance between conditions. The findings from the analysis revealed: (1) the participants in both conditions performed better in L2 reading comprehension tests after the intervention and there was no significant difference due to the conditions (2) the participants in L1-scaffolded condition outperformed in L1 RCT and L1 PSAT and the benefit of L1 use within the Vygotskian framework were found in the qualitative observation.*

**Key words: L1 use, backward transfer, bilingual, reciprocal teaching.**

# An Action Research on the Use of Online Comic Strips with Third Grade EFL Students for Teaching Grammar and Writing

**Thomas Garbushian**

*This thesis explores the use of Pixton, an online comic strip creator with third grade EFL students in Seoul, South Korea. The website was used in conjunction with grammar tests and traditional paper comics in order to evaluate the potential value in regards to using online comics - and more specifically online comic strips – to teach and reinforce English grammar and writing skills. Students' perceptions of online comic strips were also taken into account through surveys and student journals. The traditional paper comics demonstrated that a majority of the students had internalized the grammar points previously covered in class, especially after students received feedback about their online comic strips from the teacher. When compared to the pre-tests from both both cycles, the post-tests revealed an improvement in grammatical awareness across the class. Journals and surveys helped to provide evidence that students' attitudes and motivation towards using online comic strips for this purpose remained very positive throughout the study. Based on the findings of two cycles of data collection over the course of three months, it could be said that online comic strips are a valuable resource for teachers looking to teach grammar and writing in a fun way that allows students to express themselves creatively.*

**Key words: online comic strips, Pixton, online language socialization, collaborative writing, grammar,**

**writing, comics**

# Bridging Activities Using an Online Community for the Development of Language Awareness

**Jungrim Park**

*The present study examined whether and how Bridging Activities (BAs) using an Online Community (OC) affect the development of Language Awareness (LA) in EFL classroom setting. Also, this study aimed for investigating learners' perception towards BAs using an OC including whether there is any meaningful change of perception towards BAs before and after the research program for its further practical applications. As previous research on LA and BAs model suggested, this study was conducted with a larger number of child participants (n=28) for ten weeks. The research design combined qualitative and quantitative forms of analysis to better answer the research questions. The results showed that the participants' LA was clearly developed through BAs using an OC in terms of both quantity and quality, also, most participants recognized the BAs positively. The overall outcome of this study might provide insight into the way of teaching and LA and applying BAs model using an OC to an average-, or large-size EFL classrooms.*

**Key words: language awareness, bridging activities, online community**

# Readers Theatre and Young Korean Students' Reading Accuracy, Interest, and Motivation

**Yuna Song**

*Reading is an important communication skill. Besides, English reading is regarded as an important subject in examination and promotion in Korea. However, teaching English reading has been taught focusing on the grammar and translation. Readers Theatre (RT) is known as an effective teaching reading method by helping students improve reading comprehension, fluency, accuracy, interest, and motivation. In this sense, this thesis examines the effects of RT on Korean young students' reading accuracy, reading interest and motivation. The participants were 11 third grade elementary school students. They learned English reading through 2 instructions for a month, which were the Traditional Reading Instruction (TRI) and RT. Participants' reading accuracy was assessed by pre and post test, and the researcher investigated their perception through survey. The result showed that participants' reading accuracy scores, their perception of reading interest and motivation were more improved through RT than TRI.*

**Key words: Readers Theatre, reading accuracy, reading interest and motivation**

# Bilingual Language Choice in Informal Conversation: A Study on Triggers

**Mallory Moser**

*This study examines the use of bilingual code-switching in informal conversation among Korean-English bilingual adults. The present study describes what triggers Korean-English bilingual adults to switch from English to Korean during their conversations. Data was collected through audio and video recordings of 5 participants during after-church fellowship meetings at an English church service in Seoul. Data collection lasted for 8 weeks and instances of bilingual code-switching were elicited and assigned a trigger. Findings suggest that code-switching in an informal conversation is primarily triggered by the need to emphasize a message or fill a linguistic need. Findings also show that the rate of code-switching among bilingual interlocutors is much higher if they have close relationship. Lastly, the findings of this study show that there is a correlation between code-switching and language proficiency: bilinguals that are highly proficient in both of their languages tend to code-switch in a single conversation more often than those who are less proficient in one of their languages.*

**Key words: code-switching, bilingual, language proficiency**