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Exploring Diverse Lesson Plans based on Reading and Visual Materials in Teaching Writing

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This paper introduces several lesson plans that are based on reading materials and pictures, demonstrating the potential of integrated skills for the writing courses. Activities are designed to encourage students to practice and sharpen target language contents, while using other linguistic skills such as speaking, reading and listening. Also featured here is controlled writing that is billed as one of the effective techniques for teaching writing. Lesson plans that reflect the particular kind of writing activities are also included.

1. Introduction

In teaching writing, students have every right to practice with a wide range of materials in terms of format, genre and content, and it is a crucial task that teachers should consider carefully throughout the writing courses. The diversity of materials not only helps enliven the classroom but also encourages teachers and students to handle four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), a balanced integration of which can have a positive impact on the writing skills. All the activities in the lesson plans are based on the same student profile as follows:

Table 1

Student Profile

Student Profile (applied to all assignments below)	
Age/Grade	College students (sophomore)
Proficiency Level	Speaking: Intermediate low Listening: Intermediate low Reading: Intermediate mid Writing: Intermediate low
Student No.	16
Type/Length	Intermediate English Writing; meets three times a week for one hour

Motivation	Students are required to take this intermediate-level general-purpose English course. They are interested in various topics and willing to practice English with their focus on communication-oriented skills, particularly writing.
Language Experience	Most students have been studying English since middle school and some began to learn mostly spoken English in their early childhood. Most students have been exposed to spoken English through movies and dramas, but they have little experience in organizing thoughts and expressing their ideas in clear English.

2. Using Materials

2.1 Using Readings

Table 2

Reading Material

Little Billy-Joe-Bob is an active child and his mother has trouble

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

1.1.1   Lesson Plan: Summarize and Write Up

Purpose:

To learn how to come up with a list of sentences

To learn how to order sentences logically for a coherent passage.

To identify cohesive words in a passage

To apply the time-oriented narration technique and write up one's own day

To learn how to summarize a short passage verbally

Stages of the Lesson:

Stage 1 Tell students that they are going to work on their daily routine. Ask students whether their daily schedule is busy or not.

Whole class brainstorms the topic -- daily schedule -- and teacher writes down some keywords students offer when describing their daily routines.

Stage 2 Give out sentence strips so that students can work in pairs to order the sentences. Before starting the activity, the teacher writes down the three possible elements that help arrange such sentences in a reasonable, logical fashion: a) Time b) Location c) Importance. The teacher suggests that the students should consider these elements when they arrange the sentences into a coherent, logical set.

Table 3

Sentence Strip Sample (No cohesive phrases)

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

Stage 3 Ask students to share their sentence ordering with the entire class, with the focus placed on why and how they arrange the sentences in that order (i.e., time, importance, etc.). After the whole class discussion, the teacher gives out the full passage that includes all the cohesive phrases.

Stage 4 Ask students to work in groups of 4 to underline the cohesive phrases that are NOT included in the original sentence strips. The students underline the cohesive phrases and the teacher offers a general explanation about the function of such linking words and why they are important in narrative style writings.

Stage 5 Give out a new sheet to each student and asks the studets to write

a list of 5-10 activities they do on a daily basis on a new sheet of paper. The teacher stresses that no cohesive phrases are needed in coming up with a list.

Stage 6 Ask students to work in pairs and exchange their list with their partners. The teacher asks each student to write a short passage that narrates the daily routine of their partner based on the list written by their own partner. The passage starts with the name of their partner, not "I." The teacher offers several cohesive phrases that can be used for the narration writing.

Stage 7 Ask each pair to find another pair to work together. In a new group of 4, each student tells other group members what she has written in a summary format. The teacher encourages the students to ask questions each other about whether the student's daily routine is too busy or not, or related questions such as how they will change their schedule during summer vacation. The teacher walks around, helping students to share their writings with other students verbally.

Stage 8 Wrap up the lesson by recapping what the students have learned so far.

1.1.2 Lesson Plan: Past Tense and Chain Sentence Activity

Purpose:

To learn how to use past simple tense

To practice speaking and reading through pair work

To learn basic storytelling techniques by writing an impromptu sentence through group work

To learn how to write a title for a passage

Stages of the Lesson:

Stage 1 Ask the students to take a look at the Little Billy-Joe-Bob passage and identify its overall tense. The teacher asks students whether they can change the tense of the passage into a past. The teacher offers a chance for the students to brainstorm about why past tense is needed in writing or speaking.

Stage 2 Ask students to work in pairs and change the tense of the passage

from present to past. The method is as follows. Student A reads the first sentence and while reading it, attempts to change the present tense to the past. Then student B picks up the second sentence and does the same tense change. By taking turns, each pair finishes off changing the tense of the passage, helping each other in the process.

Stage 3 Once the pair work activity is over, the teacher asks which sentence is particularly difficult when attempting to change the tense verbally without writing down a new sentence with past tense first. They explain about irregular verbs like "run" and "eat" that might cause some trouble for the students.

Stage 4 Ask students to form groups of 4 and work together to produce four different chains of sentences. The teacher explains that each student in the 4-member group should hold a piece of blank paper and write down a sentence starting with "Jane was … " The basic principle is to use the past tense and other details are up to students. One tip, though, is that the most outrageous sentence might be preferred when the whole class session compares the final versions together, teacher's notes. Once the first sentence is written, each student passes the paper clockwise to the next student. Then, each student writes a new sentence that she believes will likely follow the first sentence -- using their own logic (time, importance, etc). The chain sentence activity goes on until the teacher stops it. The teacher manages the activity time flexibly. If students show great interest and have fun, assign more time so that they can focus on writing down past tense sentences, using their own logic and enjoying the activity itself.

Stage 5 Ask each group to pick the passage that is most interesting and share it with other students in a whole-class session. The teacher makes comments about the chosen drafts and also gives some explanations about past tense forms.

Stage 6 Ask students to decide which group's draft is most interesting. The teacher also asks the students to suggest a proper title for the selected passage, while stressing that a good title is important to attract attention

from readers.

Stage 7 Wrap up the class by asking students to search the internet or school library, and write three interesting book or story titles that can be used for the next class.

1.2   Using Pictures

Table 4

Visual Material
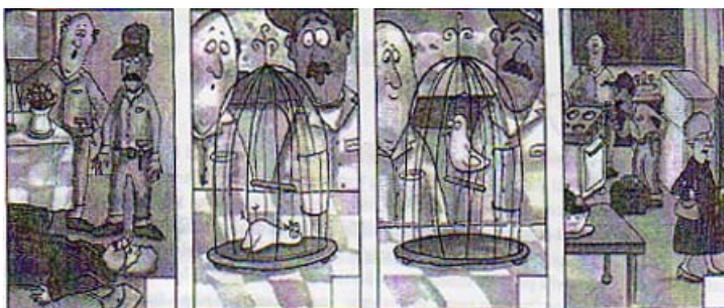
1.2.1 Lesson Plan:

Purpose:

To identify details and related vocabulary items like "cage," "mechanic," "faint" in a picture

To articulate details verbally and in a written form after viewing a single picture

To practice a short passage describing a situation visually expressed in a picture

To arrange a set of passages in a logical or plausible fashion based on a picture

To practice speaking skills in the process of identifying certain orders among passages with a common theme.

Stages of the Lesson:

Stage 1 Ask students to form groups of 4. The teacher gives out four pictures at random to each student in the group. They explain the ground

rules for a picture puzzle game. First, students are not allowed to show the pictures they hold to other group members until they get specific instructions from the teacher. Holding a picture in a way that hides the content from other members, each student take turns explaining the contents of the picture as much as possible. The underlying idea is to figure out what order should be given to the four pictures.

Stage 2 Ask students to explain their pictures to other members while the teacher walks around the classroom, helping out students in terms of new vocabulary and expressions. Ask students to put down the pictures with their contents hidden and discuss their possible arrangement.

Stage 3 Ask students to make up names of the characters in their pictures together. And then ask them to take a piece of paper and write down a couple of sentences that describe the pictures they hold. The teacher explains that the more details, the better. The tense should be past simple.

Stage 4 Ask groups to arrange the passages they have written in an order that members think is most plausible or interesting. The logic or storyline needs not to be strictly logical. Creativity is encouraged throughout the activity.

Stage 5 Ask groups to share their arrangements in a whole-class session, reading aloud what they have written in an order that members have agreed to use. In other words, each student reads her own passage to the entire class in an order set by the group to which she belongs.

Stage 6 Make comments about the ordering of each group and ask students to express their opinions about other groups' decisions and which one is most interesting or plausible.

Stage 7 Ask students to finally share the pictures among group members. Ask whether they would change the order of the passages, and if so, why.

Stage 8 Wrap up the class by stressing that pictures are interesting tools for expressing ideas or telling a story.

1.2.2 Lesson Plan

Purpose:

To practice verbal skills through group discussions concerning the order of pictures

To use more creativity by naming a character and making up a background story

To practice writing a list of keywords or sentences

To work closely with other group members to complete a storyline and present it in the form of a short skit

Stages of the Lesson:

Stage 1 Ask students to form groups of 4 and discuss the possible order of the four pictures. Once the order is set, the teacher asks them to make up names for each character -- one lady, two men, and a bird. Each student in a four-member group is now in charge of each character, the teacher explains.

Stage 2 Ask students to imagine that they are now the characters in the pictures and write down keywords or sentences that express their feelings reflecting each picture, according to the order of pictures their group members have already agreed to set.

Stage 3 Ask students to practice a role play based on the keywords or sentences they have written down, explaining their feelings and emotions that reflect each picture. Give students time to prepare and practice a five-minute skit that portrays each group's storyline in a whole-class that follows.

Stage 4 Ask each group to present a five-minute skit to the entire class. The teacher sets up the overall atmosphere as a relaxed and entertainment one so that the students can act their characters more freely.

Stage 5 Once the skit presentations are over, the teacher asks the students to review the performances and what is good about presenting the same pictures in a different way, using new English expressions.

Stage 6 Ask students to pick the most interesting presentation, and the teacher summarizes the plot again. Then the four groups of 4 are asked to select one character each. The teacher asks each group to make up a list of

activities that their character might have done before entering the room. Each group writes down a list of at least four sentences and set them in an order they think is most plausible. And then all the groups share their character's personal stories that precede the main situation in the picture. Stage 7 Wrap up the class by assigning homework: write up a passage that students think will follow the last picture, from a perspective of the character they choose, using their creativity and imagination.

2. Controlled Writing

Controlled writing refers to tasks that ask students to focus on certain forms or grammatical points, allowing students to perform the same operations on a common text, ideal for small-group and whole-class discussion. Another advantage is that teachers have right answers for the specific controlled writing tasks that can be easily quantified for testing purposes or any other classroom purposes. Controlled writing activities include question and answer, sentence combining, parallel writing.

Table 5

A short story for controlled writing

The Man and His Two Wives
In the days when a man was allowed more wives than one, a middle-aged bachelor, who could be called neither young nor old and whose hair was just beginning to turn gray, fell in love with two women at once and married them both. The one was young and blooming, and wished her husband to appear as youthful as herself; the other was somewhat more advanced in age, and was as anxious that her husband appear a suitable match for her. So, while the young one seized every opportunity of pulling out the good man's gray hairs, the old one was just as industrious in plucking out every black hair she could find. For a while,

the man was highly gratified by their attention and devotion, until he found one morning that between the one and the other, he had not a hair left!

Source: Allison, C. (1998). *365 Bedtime Stories.* New York: Broadway Books

The material that comes from Allison's "365 Bedtime Stories" is a more refined version of Aesop's widely known fable "The Man and His Two Wives." The story itself is neither too short nor too long, with its last-moment twist accentuating the key point effectively. As with other time-honored fables, this story is concise in a way that attracts attention of students. The key idea of the story can be also interpreted differently. Some students might focus on polygamy and related marriage systems, while others might concentrate on the inherent problems with an attitude to please all the parties.

2.1 Controlled writing exercise

Stage 1 Offer students the title of the story, and ask them to brainstorm about a possible content or plot of the story, helping activate the schema of students related to marriage. The teacher writes down "polygamy" on the board and explains its meaning.

Stage 2 Ask students to take a briefly look at the story alone for about three minutes. Then the teacher asks them to work in pairs and read out loud the sentences one by one, taking turns. The teacher asks them to grasp the main plot of the story and basic ideas.

Stage 3 Give out a sheet of paper containing questions that prompt students to check their comprehension of the text and practice writing skills under a controlled writing exercise.

Table 6

Questions and Answer

Read the following questions and answer in a complete sentence. If

necessary, reread the text.

1) When the story was written, how many wives could a man marry?
- (Sample Answer) When the story was written, a man was allowed to have more wives than one.

2) Was the middle-aged bachelor young or old?

3) What kind of hair did he have?

4) With whom did he fall in love at once?

5) Did he marry only one woman? If not, how many wives did he have?

6) What was the wish of the woman who was young and blooming concerning her husband?

7) What was the wish of another woman who was older?

8) What did the two women about their husband, respectively, to realize their wish?

9) How did the man feel about the attention and devotion, at least initially?

10) What did he find one morning?

Stage 4 Once the answers are written, the students check their partner's answers and share their own answers. In a whole-class session, the teacher asks them to offer answers for the questions. The focus here is that the students try to answer questions based on the text in a fairly

controlled setting and yet the teacher should remain open in accepting answers that go beyond the scope of the questions.

Stage 5 Ask students to express their feelings about the story while introducing the author of the story -- Aesop -- and explains the fable genre and its characteristics briefly.

Stage 6 Wrap up the class by asking students to find and bring their favorite Aesop fable to the next class.

2.2 Controlled writing exercise

Stages of the lesson

Stage 1 Ask students to take a look at the story and identify three characters. The teacher writes down keywords describing the three characters.

Stage 2 Offer a controlled writing activity that extends the characteristics of the three players, using creativity and imagination. The teacher offers a sample writing that reflects the inner feelings of the man.

Table 7

Sample writing

> I feel sad because I have lost all of my hair only because I love my two wives too much.
>
> I was a middle-aged bachelor and neither young nor old, and my hair was just beginning to turn gray. I fell in love with two women at once and married them both.
>
> The problem was that the younger wife wanted me to appear as youthful as her. The older wife was anxious that I appear a suitable match for her. Things began to turn ugly when they pulled out my gray and black hair, respectively.
>
> I totally understand what they must have felt, and how deeply they loved me, but when I look at myself in the mirror, I see no hair left. That is why I feel terribly sad.

Stage 3 Ask students to analyze the sample writing and identify the genre of the writing. It is basically about expressing one's emotions about a

situation or development, and the structure is roughly made up of three parts -- introduction, body and conclusion. The teacher encourages the students to discuss whether the story is interesting, or could be improved if they write up their own version in a group session.

Stage 4 Ask students to divide into pairs and take up either younger or older wife, and write a similar story that expresses the women's feelings and emotions about the sorry development that deprived their loved one of all the precious hair.

Table 8

Writing Prompt

Writing Prompt

I feel _____ because my husband _____ _____.
    I was attracted to _____ bachelor who was _____ young ____old, and _____was just beginning to turn gray. I fell in love with _____.
The problem was that
I_____. The other woman, who _____, wanted my husband to _____ for her.
Things began to turn ugly when _____ pulled out _____ and _____, respectively.
    I _____ what my husband must have felt, and how deeply he _____ me, but when I look at _____, I see no hair left. That is why I feel _____.

Stage 5 Ask students to work in pairs to compare and contrast the partner's writing. The teacher holds a whole-class session where students express their feelings about the two women who tried to achieve their goal without considering others' situation, or even the loved one's

situation. The teacher guides a whole-class discussion about the message of the fable and whether it is possible to apply it to student's everyday life. Stage 6 Wrap up the class by emphasizing that an article should have a purpose such as expressing one's feelings about a situation and be presented in a systematic way using certain structures such as introduction, body and conclusion.

2.3 Controlled writing exercise

Stages of the Lesson

Stage 1 Ask students to brainstorm about the marriage system. The teacher asks questions about whether today's monogamy marital system is universal across different time frames. The teacher then writes down the keywords students come up with in connection with various marital systems that existed or currently exist in the world.

Stage 2 The teacher explains to the students that the Aesop fable in question refers to a system in which men are allowed to have more than one wife, which is known as polygamy. Now, the teacher asks the students to discuss alternative systems that are different from polygamy, such as the one where the role of sex is reversed and a single woman is allowed to have more than one husband.

Stage 3 Ask students to do a controlled writing activity in pairs, namely replacing the man in the story with a woman, and changing the two women as two men in an imaginative society. On a piece of blank paper, each student writes down a revised version, starting with "In the days when a woman was allowed more husbands than one…"

Stage 4 The teacher offers help in introducing new vocabulary items such as bachelorette. They also explain that replacing the words involves usage of singular/plural forms and students should take care when they change the subject because it often sparks a grammatical change in other parts of a sentence.

Stage 5 The teacher holds a whole-class session and asks the students what they feel when they read the text with the roles totally reversed, and which one is more realistic or more interesting. The teacher also

encourages the students to come up with new combinations in marriage, and whether such models are feasible or not in a real world.

Stage 6 Wrap up the class by noting that replacing the main character's sex or other key elements like tense could be a useful practice to observe how a passage is constructed and learn the basic skills involving writing techniques such as spelling, usage, idioms and other related written linguistic features.

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A Systematic Approach to Designing a Language Curriculum

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According to Brown (1995), "curriculum development is a series of activities that contribute to the growth of consensus among the staff, faculty, administration, and students" (p. 19). As teachers, to develop an efficient and effective curriculum is to set appropriate goals and objects for the students based on their needs by conducting a suitable needs analysis and making professional judgments most suitable in the given classroom situation. This paper reviews the important elements in developing a curriculum with an example of a language curriculum for intermediate level university students learning English.

1. Introduction

There are a growing number of language programs existing in the field of education nowadays with the expansion of various needs of the learners. For a language program to succeed, it needs well developed systematic planning. A well thought out curriculum incorporated with a suitable teaching approach where teaching and program interrelate can be successful. According to Brown (1995), a systematic approach to designing a curriculum involves planning, development, implementation, and evaluation stages of language teaching. So there is the approach or method and procedure or technique, which is presented with the right content.

In reference to Richards and Rodgers (1982) ideas, the term "approach" includes the meaning of the theory of the nature of language and the nature of learning language. The term "procedure" describes the

techniques and practices in the instructional system. The term "design" defines the linguistic content and specifies the selection and organization of the content. It also specifies the role of learners, teachers, and the materials. In sum, in creating a systematic curriculum, teachers should first start with a set of assumptions about of a theory of the nature of language and language learning. Second, they should make an overall general plan and specify their design of the curriculum. Lastly, teachers should present the instruction using a set of rational techniques or procedures (Brown, 1995). To achieve the above, it is necessary for teachers to be aware of the new techniques or procedures and continuously make continued effort in the pursuit of better knowledge of theory and the nature of language and language learning.

2. Literature Review

Several components make up a curriculum. These components account for the improvement and maintenance of a curriculum in the course of interaction with other elements. Brown (1995) introduces a model of systematic approach to designing and maintaining language curriculum. It consists of such elements as needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, and teaching, which all lead to evaluation. In this model, all the elements are interrelated and affect each other. Table 1 shows how curriculum activities are interrelated.

2.1 Needs analysis

In reference to Brown (1995) needs analysis is defined as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to satisfy the language learning requirement of the students within the context of the particular institutions involved in the learning situation" (p.21). Students are the focus of the teaching as well as the clients, and they should benefit from and be satisfied with the teaching and the curriculum (Brown, 1995). In order to do so, it is important to gather all sorts of data from all possible sources to find out the real needs and wants of the learners. Moreover, different students have different needs and wants, so it is important incorporate all the possible

data when identifying them. Table 2 shows lists of questions in pursuit of the needs analysis.

Table 1.
Systematic Approach to Language Curriculum

Needs Analysis	↔	E
Objectives	↔	v a l u a t i o n
Testing	↔	
Materials	↔	
Teaching	↔	
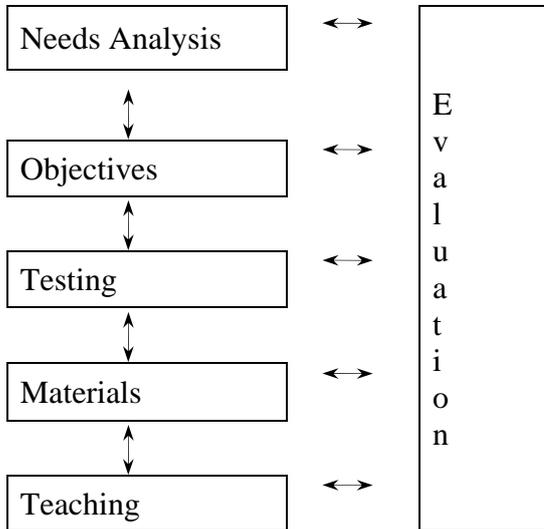
2.2 Goals and objectives

According to Brown (1995), goals can be defined as "general statements about what must be accomplished in order to attain and satisfy students' needs"(p.21). Objectives are "precise statements about what content or skills the students must master in order to attain a particular goal"(p.21). Goals and objectives must be based on the gathered information about the students; they should be clear and specified for the students. Furthermore, students' goals and objectives should also be related to the particular institutions' goals and objectives as well.

2.3 Testing

After a proper goal and objective development, suitable testing should be developed as tests are very crucial element in the curriculum development process. According to Brown (1995), testing can "be used to unify a curriculum and give it a sense of cohesion, purpose, and control" (p.22). It is

important to note that a test must be reliable and valid to in relation to its purpose.

Table 2.

Procedures of Needs Analysis

Questions to be asked in performing needs assessment	Details	
Who is involved?	Target group	
	Audience	
	Needs analysis	
	Resource group	
What types of information gathering?	Discrepancy philosophy	
	Democratic philosophy	
	Analytic philosophy	
	Diagnostic philosophy	
Which points of view will be taken?	Situation needs	Language needs
	Objective needs	Subjective needs
	Linguistic content	Learning process
How will the information be gathered?	Problems (to be asked to themselves)	
	Priority	
	Abilities	
	Attitudes	
	Solutions	
Different types of instrument employed?	Tests	
	Existing records	
	Observation	
	Interviews	
	Meetings	
	Questionnaires	
Consideration of important characteristics of measurement	Reliability	
	Validity	
	Usability	
Consideration of factors specific to language needs analysis	Discourse analysis	
	Text analysis	

2.4 Materials

Brown states "materials can be adopted, adapted, or developed by the teachers in relation to their needs analysis, objectives and goals" (Brown, 1995, p.22). Materials should be rationally chosen for a suitable purpose that can be effective in teaching.

2.5 Teaching

Teachers are the ones who actually do the teaching, yet students, other teachers, administrators or other conspirators are involved it in as well. According to Brown (1995), teaching, along with the other procedures of curriculum development, is an outcome of group work. He states, "objectives, tests, and material development should all be group efforts drawing on the expertise, time and energy available from everyone involved in the program" (Brown, 1995, p.23). Thus allowing the teacher to an effective job in teaching.

2.6 Evaluation

According to Brown (1995), evaluation is defined as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum and to assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved" (p.24). As mentioned in the needs analysis, evaluation is an ongoing process of needs assessment. Additionally, it can help to develop the objectives, materials, and teaching as well to make the whole program better and more efficient (Brown, 1995).

3. Mini-Curriculum

3.1 Student profile

3.1.1 Audience

Students in this course attend a private Women's University, which is known as one of the top Women's Universities in Korea. Most of the students are in their freshman year, just starting their new University life. These students are excited about attending the University and hold high expectations about the new academic setting. About half of the students have part-time jobs (e.g.

tutoring) so to earn some extra pocket money. Generally, most of them are from middle-class or upper-class families, and their families are wealthy enough to pay about US$4,000/per semester for tuition. These University students want to enjoy their school life but also show good performances as new students.

3.1.2 Age of learners
Most of the students' range in age from 18 to 20 years old. However, there are some senior students retaking the course to get better grades. So, about 3 to 5 students' age range between 21~23.

3.1.3 Language levels of learners
Students generally have good reading skills compared to their other language skills. From their high school education, where the educational goal was strongly focused on passing the University entrance exam, students had much experience in doing reading comprehension and translation. As a result, students are able to read a page of academic reading material and answer comprehension questions. Students are also skilled with grammar structure type tests. Most of the students have a fair amount of grammar and vocabulary knowledge through test-prep practice problems and have acquired them in the method of memorization. Students are strong in dealing with multiple-choice type of questions. However, students have weak listening, speaking, and writing skills. Students are mostly familiar with listening to course book CDs or tapes. They have had very limited experience of classroom interaction, and students rarely got any performance-based practices from their previous language education. They rarely got any chance to speak or write in a communicative way or be tested in this way.

3.1.4 Proficiency levels
Table 3.

Description of proficiency according to ACTFL guideline

Area of language skill	Proficiency level	Description of levels

Speaking	Intermediate low	Able to handle successfully a limited number of interactive, task-oriented, and social situations. Can ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements, and maintain face-to-face conversation, although in a highly restricted manner and with much linguistic inaccuracy. Within these limitations, can perform such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions, and making purchases. Vocabulary is adequate to express only the most elementary needs. Strong interference from native language may occur. Misunderstandings frequently arise, but with repetition, the Intermediate-Low speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.
Listening	Intermediate low	Able to understand sentence-length utterances, which consist of combinations of learned elements in a limited number of content areas, particularly if strongly supported by the situational context. Content refers to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and routine tasks, such as getting meals and receiving simple instructions and directions. Listening tasks pertain primarily to spontaneous face-to-face conversations. Understanding is often uneven; repetition and rewording may be necessary. Misunderstandings in both main ideas and details arise frequently.
Reading	Intermediate high to Advanced	-Intermediate high Able to read consistently with full understanding simple connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs about which the reader has personal interest and/or knowledge. Can get some main ideas and information from texts at the next higher level

		featuring description and narration. Structural complexity may interfere with comprehension; for example, basic grammatical relations may be misinterpreted and temporal references may rely primarily on lexical items. Has some difficulty with the cohesive factors in discourse, such as matching pronouns with referents. While texts do not differ significantly from those at the Advanced level, comprehension is less consistent. May have to read material several times for understanding. -Advanced Able to read somewhat longer prose of several paragraphs in length, particularly if presented with a clear underlying structure. The prose is predominantly in familiar sentence patterns. Reader gets the main ideas and facts and misses some details. Comprehension derives not only from situational and subject matter knowledge but from increasing control of the language. Texts at this level include descriptions and narrations such as simple short stories, news items, bibliographical information, social notices, personal correspondence, routinized business letters, and simple technical material written for the general reader.
Writing	Intermediate mid	Able to meet a number of practical writing needs. Can write short, simple letters. Content involves personal preferences, daily routine, everyday events, and other topics grounded in personal experience. Can express present time and at least one other time frame or aspect consistently, e.g., nonpast, habitual, imperfective. Evidence of control of the syntax of non-complex sentences and basic inflectional morphology, such as declensions and conjugation. Writing

		tends to be a loose collection of sentences or sentence fragments on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. Can be understood by natives used to the writing of non-natives.

3.1.5 Number of students

12 to 14 students are in one class, which are placed in groups of 3 or 4.

3.1.6 Motivation

Students' motivation in this course is to get a good grade. The course is a required language course for freshman students to take, so students have strong intrinsic motivation to do well and pass the course. For students retaking the course, they must get a better grade to increase the average of accumulated GPA. Additionally, students want to do well in class and hope to increase their English proficiency as well. Most of the students attending this class want to communicate effectively with English speakers from other countries. In addition, their personal reasons of acquiring the language may vary in academic or professional purposes.

3.1.7 Language experience

Students have previously learned English in public or private schools for 6 or more years, so most of the students have experience in other English classes outside of the school, such as in institutions or from personal tutors. Some students have experience in taking conversation language courses out side of classroom or even outside of the country.

3.2 Learning environment
3.2.1 Socio-political context

The general English course is a compulsory course for the students to take in the first year of University. Students need to get good grades in English and acquire a certain level of English proficiency upon graduation, due to the graduation requirements of passing an oral-based English proficiency test. Thus, students of all major consider English as an important subject that

cannot be avoided. Furthermore, students want to get a decent job after graduation. It is important for students to be part of the more accepted sector within Korean society, with well-paid jobs and more opportunities. In order to achieve this, students need to get good grades at University and acquire a high-level of English knowledge and skill. Most of the accepted companies in the Korean society require this kind of criteria. Even though English is not the official language in the society, it still has a great importance and influence. Having good English skills represents one's intellect, middle or upper class social status, well-educated status, and even wealth. So, learning English is highly important and of great interest for University students in Korean society. Especially as the students in part of a well-known school, students want to be in the accepted social group, among themselves, by the teachers, and also be notably good.

3.2.2 Conspirators

There are conspirators that can enhance or impede the English language study.

First, the conspirator that can enhance the language study is the University itself. The president of the University, the administration, and the professors all know the importance of the language education. They are willing to support the funding and encourage programs to assist and develop students' learning. So that when the students of their University graduate and become the leaders in the society, the school will eventually benefit, academically and financially. However, there are some conspirators that can come as obstacles of learning. One such obstacle can be the society as whole.

Even though the whole of society and the school might seem supportive of English language study, English is not 'the official language' in the Korean society. Due to this reality, learners will not use the language outside of the classroom, which will impede the learning process. Also, there is no special financial government support for those who want to learn English, so it is costly to study English in a good environment.

In addition, learning English or any other subject is done in a very competitive classroom environment. Students are used to being in a competitive situation in Korea where they have to be better than others and

they are not willing to help each other. So usually, students are not open about how they study or about their real language proficiency. They are not willing to communicate with each other and are afraid of revealing their true level, regardless of what it really is. Thus students themselves can be obstacles in learning.

In developing a curriculum for the English course, administrators of the university, other Instructors of the department, and the students can be conspirators. Administrators and other instructors have to approve the developed curriculum and it has to be somewhat in balance with the whole school curriculum as well. Again, it is very important to consider students because they are the ones who should be satisfied with the curriculum.

3.2.3 Course description

The general English course is conducted in English only and meets twice a week for 50minutes. This course is a language course mainly designed around for oral communication activities, i.e., speaking and listening. It is concerned with improving and enhancing learners' oral communication abilities in English as a foreign language (EFL). Through this course, students should be able develop skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing--resulting from intensive and extensive learning activities that require students to research, organize, and present on a variety of issues. Another philosophy of the course is that active participation and language use are crucial for successful foreign language learning. The Communicative Language Teaching approach is therefore adopted, and intensive speaking is the major activity for the course. Learners' practice, involvement, and use of the language are strongly required. Learners will also individually analyze English, concentrating on its sound patterns, grammatical structures, and the ways in which words are formed, distributed, and used. There will be a lot of visuals, activities, and other media incorporated in class to make the learning much more interesting. Learners must change their passive learning habits/attitudes to being more active participants for this course to create a student-centered classroom.

3.3 Needs assessment

3.3.1 Ways to conduct the needs assessment

A Needs Assessment will be conducted in the beginning of the course and throughout the course as well. It will not be in form of just a survey or questionnaires but in various ways as follows.

3.3.2 Needs assessment in the beginning of the course

1) Recommendation letter

Each student will be given 3 blank recommendation letters to be filled out by the people they know that can be their informants (e.g. friends, family, previous English teachers). Basically, the informant will write a letter on whether he or she recommends this student to be in the English class, based on their knowledge and judgments of the student. The forms need to be filled out by the people they know that can give opinions, in English, on the following criteria: 1. What kind of person the student is. 2. The student's academic strengths and weaknesses, or habits. (Ex) She can memorize vocabulary items well. 3. What kind of English level the student has according to his or her own judgment. 3. What the student needs to work on to improve her English.

3.3.3 Needs assessment during the course

1) Filming

Students will be filmed during every class starting on the first day of class. Students might feel uncomfortable at the beginning of the course, but as time goes by, students will adapt to it and will soon act naturally within the environment. Students will be observed and assessed through the recorded material.

2) Writing journals

Writing journal will be given out as homework that students have to turn in every week. Students will be required to turn in a page of journal entry each week, which will include their daily activities, hobbies, and feelings about things happening in and outside of classroom.

3) Voice message web board

Students will be required to actively use a voice message web board for the class. They will be given homework activities to do through this (e.g. story telling, describing pictures), students can ask questions, or make comments about the class. They will be assessed and evaluated this way.

3.4 Results of the needs assessment

Various kinds of Needs Assessment will help the teacher to decide on what kind of activities to do and materials to be used in order to help the students. The teacher will also make goals and objectives based on the result of the Needs Assessment. Through observation, voice message board, and students' writing homework, teachers can assess what the students' real goals and needs are.

3.4.1 Results of needs assessment in the beginning of the course

1) Recommendation letter

Through the recommendation letter Needs Assessment, teacher will know something about each student in the view of people who are more personally close to the students. The teacher will also gain some perspective on the students' studying habits, strength and weakness. The results will reveal some ideas about how the students and people close to them use English.

3.4.2 Results of needs assessment during the course

1) Filming

Teacher can keep a record of how the students interact with each other and how they perform in the classroom.

2) Writing journals

Through this Needs Assessment, teachers will not only get to make writing assessment judgments but also gain more personal perspective about each student.

3) Voice message web board

Through this approach, teachers can assess students' oral performance, which is the main focus of the whole course.

3.5 Goals and objectives
3.5.1 Standards
Standards for the English Language Arts Sponsored by NCTE (The National Council of Teachers of English) and IRA (International Reading Association) will be adopted in this course.

1) Students use spoken, written, and visual images to accomplish their own purposes (e.g., for learning, enjoyment, persuasion, and the exchange of information).

2) Students employ a wide range of strategies as they write and use different writing process elements appropriately to communicate with different audiences for a variety of purposes.

3) Students adjust their use of spoken, written, and visual language (e.g., conventions, style, vocabulary) to communicate effectively with a variety of audiences and for different purposes.

3.5.2 Goals
1) Students should be able to communicate with others spoken English more fluently and clearly and express their thoughts and opinions with confidence.

2) Students should be able to write comfortably and creatively in the pursuit of developing their own speech voice for writing.

3.5.3 Objectives
1) Students should be able to write three types of writing that contain such functions as description, request, and compare and contrast. Each writing item has to contain 300-word in paragraph forms, showing fluency of speech, various content, and accuracy.

2) Students should be able to write three types of formal 100-word letter, to a unanimous person, containing such functions as invitation, rejection, and request.

3) Students should be able to give a 3-minute oral statement describing a procedure of some instruction or demonstration from a given visual with 70 percent speech accuracy.

4) Students should be able to give a 3-minute oral statement with a given visual about a descriptive story that includes skills to talk over different time frames. Students must have 70 percent speech accuracy.

5) Students should be able to give 3-minute oral statement containing spatial direction, such as identifying a map, chart, or graph, by answering what is written or located in the given visual space with 70 percent speech accuracy.

3.6 Materials and activities
3.6.1 Sample materials
See Appendix A, B, and C.

3.6.2 Sample activities
Table 4.

Activity1-Sign Awareness

Level	All
Time	50 minutes of 2 class sessions.
Aims	To be aware of the English language use in the EFL environment.
Description	Students will gather information about the English usage in their environment and evaluate the language usage in the EFL environment.
Materials	Visuals of signs (Appendix A), camera, posters, markers.
Number of Ss	12~14, groups of 4.
Preparation	Students are asked to bring a camera for their own group in prior to class.
In class	1. Students will first look at the prepared visuals about signs. 2. Students then will discuss about what kind of values and effects (English) signs have in their lives. 3. Students then will go outside of the classroom to take photos of English signs that they find interesting or meaningful. 4. As groups, students will analyze signs, make posters, and give presentation about the usage of English signs in the Korean society.
Variation	Students can analyze everyday product labels and names.
Comments	This activity will give students a chance to get out of classroom and make use of English.

	This activity will give students to build analytical skills, as well as critical thinking skills in English.

Table 5.

Giving Directions with a Subway Map

Level	Intermediate
Time	10~15 minutes.
Aims	To build oral skill in giving directions with the given visual.
Description	Students will give a step-by-step direction to a partner using a complicated subway map.
Materials	Subway map (Appendix B), computer.
Number of Ss	12~14, in pairs.
Preparation	None
In class	1. Students will first explore the subway map internet site. 2. With the computer, students can generate their own subway routes. 3. Students will give problems to each other by asking to explain how to get from one station to another in detail, including such information as time, short-cut, transferring stations and so on. 4. Students will help each other and practice.
Variation	Students can do this activity with bus routes.
Comments	This activity will give students to utilize materials that are familiar to them in their native language and practice them in English.

Table 6.

How to Fill Out an Application Form

Level	Intermediate to advanced
Time	30~40 minutes.
Aims	To write a formal letter and fill out an application form in English.
Description	Students will do a small research in English on how write out a certification card replacement form in English. They will also write a formal letter of request and fill out the application form.
Materials	Application form (Appendix C), internet access.

Number of Ss	12-14, individual work.
Preparation	None
In class	1. Students will imagine that they are planning to go to a scuba diving trip for the summer. However, they have lost their certification card, so they need to replace their card. 2. Students will go to a diver's association site and figure out a way to replace their card. They will write a letter of request regarding the information to make a card, and fill out an application form. 3. Students will write everything out and turn it in.
Variation	Students can do this with school application or job application.
Comments	This activity will provide students a chance to deal with formal usage of the English language.

3.7 Sample assessment

Sample assessment will be made with an activity (see Appendix D) using a deck of cards. Basically, students will play a card game that will be fun and also let students to utilize English in more natural, communicative setting. Students will be filmed during the whole game. They will be assessed based on their performance, participation, and oral language use.

4. Conclusion

The paper started out with a review of Brown (1995)'s ideas, introducing a model of a systematic approach to designing and maintaining a language curriculum. It consists of such elements as needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, and teaching, which all lead to evaluation. In this model, all the elements are interrelated and affect each other and are implemented directly in the classroom. This also leads to make effective evaluation of the students and the program itself which later leads to the development of the program as well.

The paper also tried to show a systematically designed curriculum for a general English language course specified for university

students in Korea. In consideration of the student, conspirators, and the language environment, the approach here was to take a different approach of needs assessment and collaborated material and activities that would be meaningful and interesting. The idea was to develop an efficient and effective curriculum to set appropriate goals and objects for the students based on their needs by conducting a suitable needs analysis and making professional judgments most suitable for the given classroom situation. This is seen as benefiting students in their language learning as well as building much stronger program.

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Appendix A

Sample signs from 'Many things' (http://www.manythings.org/signs/)
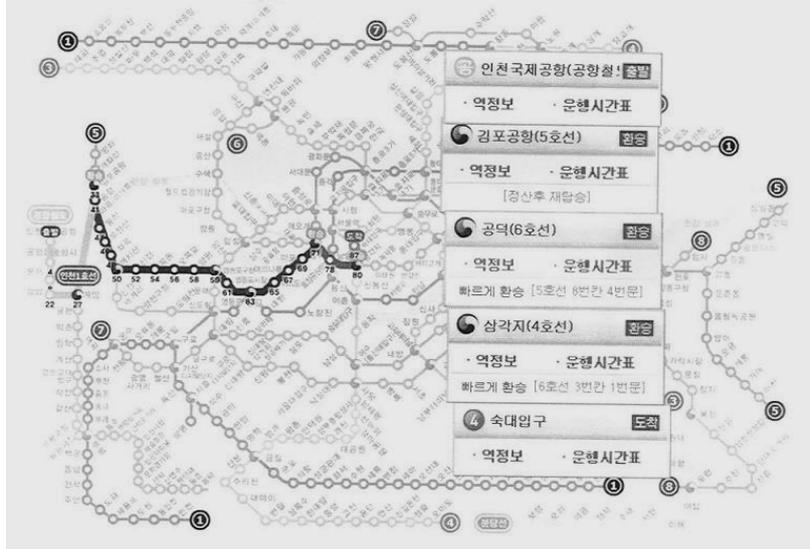
Appendix B

Subway Map

Appendix C

Application Form

PADI padi.com **CERTIFICATION CARD REPLACEMENT FORM**

INSTRUCTIONS

Complete this form if one or more of the following apply:
- Your diver level certification card was lost.
- Your diver level certification card was damaged.
- You changed your name (include a copy of legal documentation of name change)
- You are upgrading from any junior level certification.
- You would like to replace your existing card with a NEW Project AWARE Edition Certification Card.

Please provide us with all pertinent information to the best of your knowledge. If you are unable to provide

information in either section, please indicate the exact or approximate year of certification and level of certification. The more information you provide, the quicker we can process your request.

If you have never received your initial certification card, contact either your PADI Instructor, Dive Centre, Resort or PADI to obtain the proper form.

REQUIRED ITEMS OR APPLICATION MAY BE DELAYED
- Please be sure to enclose one passport sized photo.
- Section 1 to be completed
- Payment (See Section 3 for details)

Please type or print clearly – Provide all pertinent information to the best of your knowledge

SECTION 1 – REQUIRED

Certification No. _____

Instructor _____ PADI Instructor No. _____

Dive Centre/Resort _____ Store No. _____

Level of Certification _____

Date or approximate year of certification (mandatory to research records) _____

Diver name (as printed on original certification card) _____

☐ Tick if change of name is required (please include legal documentation of name change)

Mailing Address _____

City _____

State/Province _____ Zip/Postal Code _____

Country _____

Email _____

Home Phone (__) _____ Business Phone (__) _____

Date of Birth Day _____ Year 19_____

Jan Apr Jul Oct
Feb May Aug Nov
Mar Jun Sep Dec

Circle appropriate month

PLEASE ATTACH PHOTO HERE

SECTION 2 – PART A

State and country where certified _____

Have you ever replaced your certification card? ☐ Yes ☐ No If yes, what year _____

SECTION 2 – PART B

Completion of this section is optional; however, this additional information will expedite the replacement of your certification card. This information is useful in circumstances where there is difficulty locating your records.

If available, submit a copy of one of the following along with this form (do not send original)

1. A signed and dated copy of your PADI temporary card
2. A signed letter from the certifying instructor/dive centre/resort (including date and level of certification, instructor's name and number)
3. A copy of a signed PADI diploma (wall certificate)
4. A5 copy of your original certification envelope
5. A copy of both sides of your original certification card

SECTION 3 – CARD SELECTION AND PAYMENT

CARD SELECTION AND PAYMENT – If you do not indicate a card type, you will automatically receive a standard certification card.

Project AWARE Corporate card   Project AWARE – Annual   Standard PADI Card

Alternatively visit our website at www.padi.com.au to view our limited edition 40 anniversary cards

Your donation of AUD $7 or more supports environmental projects which protect our oceans. Visit www.projectaware.org for more information.

REPLACEMENT FEES: ☐ Non Australian residents = $50.00 AUD
☐ Australian residents incl GST = $55.00 AUD

PROJECT AWARE DONATION – ☐ $7 ☐ $10 ☐ $25 ☐ $50 ☐ Other $ _____

Payment method – please tick ☐ Cheque/postal order (drawn on AUD funds only)
☐ Credit Card – AMEX, VISA, MASTERCARD (please circle)

Card Number _____ Expiration Date __/__

Cardholder Name _____ Authorized Signature _____

Please mail this form to: PADI Asia Pacific, PO BOX 575, Brookvale NSW 2100 AUSTRALIA

For any further questions you can contact us on +61 2 9454 2862 or email us cardsadmin@padi.com.au

PLEASE ALLOW 3-4 WEEKS FOR PROCESSING OF YOUR CARD.
SHOULD ADDITIONAL INFORMATION BE NECESSARY OR A PROBLEM ARISE, YOU WILL BE NOTIFIED AS SOON AS POSSIBLE

PADI is not responsible for forms, copies or photos that are damaged, lost or delayed in the mail

Appendix D

The Deck of Conversations

Materials: A deck of playing cards (with the jokers)

Level: Pre-intermediate and intermediate

Note: This speaking class is ideal for small groups or one-to-one classes, with you acting as the questioner. For large groups, nominate one person as the questioner or have students take it in turns.

Procedure:

Pre-speaking task

Draw the following symbols on the board.

Ask the students where they see them (in a deck of cards) and what they are (spades, clubs, hearts and diamonds). Go over the face cards: King, Queen, Jack. Are they similar in their language? Follow this up with a couple of questions about card games. Do the students have any favourite card games? Do they like playing cards? When do they play? Explain that today's speaking class is based around the deck of cards.

Speaking Activity

1. Remove the cards 2 to 8 from each suit of the deck.
2. Place the deck of cards face down on the table.
3. Ask the student to pick up the top card and read out what it is.
4. Read the corresponding question or task. They must answer in English.
5. Repeat steps two and three with the next student and so on.
6. At the end, conduct a short feedback slot where you highlight errors or interesting information people found out during the activity.

Follow Up

There are two possibilities that could follow up this activity:

1) students are each assigned the numbers 2 to 8 for different suits and write questions to find out interesting information about their classmates or their teacher. They bring this to class for the next day and you play again with their own questions.

2) Students think of a card game they know and like and prepare an explanation on how to play. The next day of class they bring in their own pack of cards and teach others in their group their favourite card game.

CARD TASKS / QUESTIONS

♠ Spades: Questions

For the spade tasks, the speaker must ask a question to someone in the group. They can ask follow-up questions if they like.

9 – Ask someone to spell their first and last name
10 – Ask someone their phone number, address and email
Jack – Ask someone what they did last weekend
Queen – Ask someone about the last film they saw
King – Ask someone about their family
Ace – Ask someone the reasons they are learning English

♣ Clubs: Descriptions

For the clubs tasks, the speaker must describe what is asked for at least one minute.

9 – Describe yourself
10 – Describe someone in your family
Jack – Describe the room you are in
Queen – Describe your flat
King – Describe the city you are from
Ace – Describe this game

♥ Hearts: Feelings and Opinions

For the heart questions, everybody in the group must ask a follow-up question to the speaker after they have answered the question on the card.

9 – What do you like doing in your free time?
10 – What are the ingredients of a good marriage?
Jack – Which do you prefer, summer or winter?
Queen – What things make you angry?
King – What would you like to change about yourself?
Ace – What made you happy as a child?

♦ Diamonds: Ideals

For the diamond questions, the speaker has to talk about an ideal of something on the card. The speaker has to talk for at least 30 seconds (or a minute!)

9 – My ideal house or flat would be…
10 – My ideal day off would be…
Jack – My ideal job would be…
Queen – My ideal teacher would be…
King – My ideal partner would be…
Ace – My ideal holiday would be…

JOKER CARDS
ASK ANY OF THE QUESTIONS OR GIVE ANY OF
THE TASKS TO THE TEACHER!

Storytelling with Picture Books

Min-Ah Seo

TESOL 4th semester

For young learners, storytelling and picture books are essential tools for their language learning. Storytelling is well-suited for students' creativity and exploration. As a learning tool, storytelling can encourage students to explore their unique expressiveness and can heighten a student's ability to communicate their thoughts and feelings. In particular, this paper tries to explain how the comprehension of a book is different for books with and without picture. In my two storytelling classes, students were provided with the same storybook, the only difference being whether the book had pictures or not. The students who read the book with pictures achieved better results on the comprehension test than those who read the version without pictures. This finding is interpreted as offering support for effects of visual cues such as pictures in storybooks for young language learners.

1. Introduction

Storytelling has a long tradition of orally communicating ideas, beliefs, personal histories, and life-lessons (Snowden, 1995). Most children begin hearing and telling stories before they enter school or learn to read and write. Snowden (1995) suggests that oral language experiences such as storytelling are a valuable key in addressing students' academic needs. The integration of classroom storytelling has been linked to reading improvement by increasing children's comprehension and vocabulary development (Trostle & Hicks, 1998).

The reason why I choose this topic for my final report is because I currently teach storytelling classes. With my students who are mostly the 3rd

and 4th graders of elementary school, I have 2 classes for story reading. Their proficiency is level is considered to be novice in terms of their ability to express their own opinions in English. Before storytelling classes, they took phonics class for more than 1 year. I want to confirm that storytelling is helpful for my students in terms of developing reading strategies of connecting, predicting, and clarifying using pictures in the book. My hypothesis is that storytelling is much more understandable than reading without pictures since students can use visual cues, such as pictures.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Power of Stories

Young children have a natural tendency to be drawn to narrative (Cooper, Collins & Saxby, 1992). Young children are consistently interested and enthusiastic towards being told stories. This interest supports children gaining and extending many skills and pieces of knowledge, especially when stories are well told.

Cognitive psychologist, Willingham (2004), believes that as a teaching and learning tool, stories have a "privileged status," meaning that the human mind treats narrative differently from other types of discourse (procedural, descriptive and factual). Willingham (2004) outlined four main advantages of narrative texts: (a) everyone loves a good story, i.e., stories are universally enjoyed as oral or written discourse; (b) stories are easier to comprehend thus read more quickly than non-narratives; (c) the structure of narratives known as story grammar provides a more familiar organizational pattern for ideas which is more accessible than expository texts; and (d) active reading and listening involve "on-line" processing and makes inferences and narrative texts evoke interesting ambiguities or unresolved details which translate to more effective memory-making.

2.1.1. Everyone loves a good story

The universal appeal of stories is a fact indisputable to literacy professionals, librarians, parents, spiritual leaders, and teachers (Nathanson, 2006). Across

cultures and time, storytelling has had central importance to human language development. Heilman, Blair and Rupley (2002) allocate storytelling to a central role in children's language development and reading readiness programs. Galda, Ash and Cullinan, (2000) researched children's book preferences, and found that generally speaking, narrative fiction is preferred by children over non-fiction, expository materials.

Gambrell, Morrow and Pennington (2000) endorsed a literature-based program across the content areas, noting that stories amplify children's opportunities to learn about the world and how they will navigate the world. These same researchers recommended using stories to help children experience, share and create stories to consolidate their understanding of the world. Caine, Caine, McClintek, and Klimek (2005) recommend the use of stories as a way to make students ready to learn, and activate what they consider an optimal learning state. They stated that good teachers find ways to bring stories into everything they teach and scour their curriculum for relevant stories to help students make connections.

Also, Sousa (2001) recommended using storytelling to help the student see how events find personal relevance as well as the importance of learning. Further, Sousa asserts when a teacher tells a story or shares an anecdote, students are more apt to experience the two necessary conditions for placing information in their long-term memory: sense (cohesiveness) and meaning (significance). Caine et al. (2005) refer to sense and meaning as a sense of "wholeness," (i.e., the learners' feeling of connection of events in the world).

2.1.2. Stories are easier to comprehend

Willingham (2004) characterized stories as easier to comprehend because they provide signals or cues of sequence, use repetition of familiar names and phrases and vocabulary words, and generate interests in a main character or characters. Such redundancies facilitate the reader's organization of information and active processing (Nathanson, 2006). Willingham cited a study by Graesser, Singer, and Trabasso (1994), who found that narrative structure significantly speeds up reading time, compensating for elements

such as grammatical complexity, vocabulary load, and topic familiarity. Comparing narrative and expository materials, Williams (1993) and Saenz and Fuchs (2002), suggest that such signals indeed ease the comprehension task for struggling readers. Also, experiments by Kim and VanDusen (1998) and Zhang and Hoosain, (2001) demonstrated that features of story language and structure may provide more recall help than prior knowledge alone. Geiger and Millis (2004) investigated textual formats for procedural manuals and found that procedural manuals re-written in narrative style helped subjects perform a series of assembly tasks more quickly and accurately.

2.1.3. Narrative story structure facilitates making connections
Cronon (1992) pointed out that "narratives are intrinsically teleological forms, in which an event is explained by the prior events or causes that lead up to it" (p. 1,370). Thus, a story is a chain of events causing complications for the main character (protagonist). Willingham (2004) builds his case for the universality of stories by finding a common thread between the oral narratives of young children and screenplays by sophisticated screenwriters. Willingham calls these the four Cs: causality, conflict, complications and character. The four Cs move a story forward when a character who possesses certain behavioral traits and dispositions makes a choice or decision that initiates a chain of events. Another term used to refer to this common pattern is story grammar. Thus, the beginning, middle and end of a story are delineated by several distinctive signposts such as character development, conflict, problem and resolution. The effects of explicit teaching of story grammar have been investigated at the pre-school level (Bui, 2002); elementary school students (Slater, 1992) and selected populations of learning disabled children (Williams, 1993; Gardill & Jitendra, 1999; Saenz & Fuchs, 2002). A common finding is that story grammar is a structure that is both child-friendly and effective for helping children organize a text and make meaning. Also, Gersten, Fuchs and Williams (2001) found that when students know story grammar, the basic structure for narrative texts, they recall more of the information representing major story grammar categories,

and also recognize which story events are closely related to the basic causal chain in a story (p. 282).

2.1.4. Stories facilitate on-line processing and inference-making

In discussing how stories facilitate active processing on the part of the reader, Willingham (2004) refers to the Causal Bridging Hypothesis. Expository texts contain logical propositions, concepts and arguments which are explicitly laid out by the author and may pose conceptual or logical difficulties for some readers. However, while reading narrative "the listener (or reader) makes inferences that are neither terribly easy, nor impossibly difficult... but just right" (p. 44).

Willingham likened story to a puzzle which is sufficiently challenging to keep the puzzle-doer occupied, yet at a level of difficulty which does not discourage its solution. Willingham asserted that "most researchers believe that it is the causal connections that make stories easier to remember" (p. 45), citing experiments by Gentner (1976) and Bartlett (1932) in which subjects remember causal details long after other story details such as time and place are forgotten. Suh and Trabasso (1993) compared the retelling responses of subjects who read stories that contained explicit explanations of a character's behavior, with responses of subjects reading stories in which the explicit goal of the character was not given. In recall tests, there was no significant difference in subjects' abilities to infer character motives. Narrative structure, with its emphasis on inference making, may be a case of 'less is more,' evoking the reader's imagination to fill in gaps.

The causal bridging hypothesis is based on seminal story comprehension research by Kintsch (1994), who developed the situational model of text comprehension. Kintsch's experiments led him to conclude that in order to comprehend a text, the reader must grasp the surface structure (the logical details and coherent structure of the story) he calls "textbase," and apply "information provided by the text elaborated from prior knowledge and integrated with it" (p. 294). Graesser et al. (1994) who experimented with narrative texts and extended and clarified Kintsch's model, found that during story reading, the reader makes (a) a meaning assumption about the purposes

of the story; (b) a coherence assumption, (i.e., a structure derived from the coherent processing of surface details such as time, place, and causality); and (c) an explanation assumption, or the attempt to explain why actions, events and states are mentioned in the story text.

The causal bridging hypothesis helps to explain how during the process of reading or listening to stories, the reader/listener activates prior knowledge and engages in active processing. Frick (1992) believed that merely having one's prior experience activated does not pique interest. Instead, it is the anomalous information, novelty, curiosity and suspense generated in the narrative, along with a resolution of a perceived ambiguity or conflict, that makes a story compelling. Frick (1992) referred to this characteristic of story as postdictability, suggesting that we remember a story because new or unusual information was resolved at the end. Frick (1992) believes that postdictability is at the heart of interestingness. Kim (1999) conducted a series of experiments to examine whether the interestingness of a story would be influenced by the inference-making process. Kim (1999) found that when reading a story re- written with an anomalous or unexpected ending, subjects relied on the story structure and prior knowledge to fill in the gaps and comprehend the outcome. Kim (1999) concluded, "When a story contains such detailed information that there is no gap to fill in, the reader does not need to generate inferences. In this case, the story would not be interesting" (p. 67). Willingham (2004) believes that this postdictability is at the heart of why people remember stories better than other forms of discourse. In summary, experimental data and analyses of textual features make a convincing case for the power of story.

2.2. The Comprehension of Picture Books

Children's picture books are defined by their illustrations (Thibault, 2003). Thibault suggests that a story may be read aloud or retold using text alone, but without the accompanying pictures, the meaning is different. Sometimes, careful examination of the pictures reveals that there are more stories going on in a book than just the one told through the words! In a children's picture book, much of the story is actually in the pictures themselves. Because

illustrations in a children's book are integral to the story, as children make sense of a book, they must also consider the pictures. It is only through seeing the work as a whole, words and illustrations, that picture books can be truly *read* (Lee, 1993). In her exploration of art in children's books, she writes:

> Picture books offer a unique opportunity for children to develop visual literacy because they are able to return to the visual images in books to explore, reflect, and critique those images. As children explore illustrations and develop the ability to read images, they will attain deeper meanings from literature and an awareness of how visual images are used in their own meaning making (p.506).

2.2.1. Picture Walk

On the most basic level, someone reading a picture book to a child encourages him or her to observe the objects, people, and scenes depicted in a picture book. Working with young students who do not yet read, an adult may use a simple exercise called a *picture walk* before reading aloud to encourage students to anticipate what might happen in the story through the illustrations.

2.2.1.1 Picture walking with English language learners

Picture walks are valuable when teachers are working with English language learners or any group of students from varied backgrounds who bring different experiences to the discussion (Thibault, 2003). For example, a child who has not yet built a broad academic vocabulary in English might tell an adult reader that the lion in the picture is a "boy lion" because "he has that hair all around his face." He knows what a mane is and what it signifies; he just doesn't know the word. This is a perfect opportunity to assess content-area vocabulary and build the student's academic language capacity.

In the same way, teachers can detect which students are unfamiliar with the setting of a book by their responses in the initial discussion (Thibault, 2003).. According to her, students come from a variety

of backgrounds and have had a variety of experiences; some have traveled and some have not. Students who are unfamiliar with aspects of a beach setting, for example, may have never been to the coast. The process of making snowballs, the wetness of snow, and even the size of snowflakes are surprising to students who live in places where snow never falls. The picture walk can help an adult reader to meet students where they are, and she can also use the illustrations to help students learn vocabulary and visualize experiences they have not yet had themselves.

2.2.2. STW: What do I See? What do I Think? What do I Wonder?

Many people use the tried-and-true *KWL chart* (Appendix A) as a whole-class activity to find out what students **Know**, **Want to know**, and **Learned**. This strategy helps students activate prior knowledge; it also helps a teacher to assess students' understanding and to meet her students where they are in their learning (Thibault, 2003). In the same way that the KWL can be used to launch a science or social studies unit, *STW* can be used to help students focus on illustrations by asking *What do I See? What do I Think?* and *What do I Wonder?* This strategy will enable students to fully experience picture books (Anderson. N. A., Janet.C. R, 2003).

STW was developed by Janet C. Richards and Nancy A. Anderson in response to their observations of students' reactions to picture books. Illustrations convey a message, yet students often miss subtle aspects of the illustrations or become preoccupied with details and miss the message of the whole picture. They suggests that STW encourages a more full visual experience which, like the picture walk described above, promotes critical thinking, encourages thoughtful prediction, and stimulates curiosity. Using the STW strategy encourages students to go beyond simple observation. This process encourages students to think carefully about the characters, their facial expressions, how they are positioned, and even the setting in which they are placed. In this way the reading experience is enhanced as the student takes full advantage of the messages conveyed in illustrations.

3. Method

3.1 Storytelling

My students are the mostly the 3rd and 4th graders of elementary school and studying at Ajoo University Language institute. I have 4 classes right now and 2 of them are storytelling classes. Two storytelling classes have the same number of students, that is, 13. I have the classes for 40 minutes each Three times a week with the same level of proficiency students. Their level is pretty low because they cannot express their opinions in English. They have studied English for 1 year or less. They usually make incorrect sentences with inappropriate use of nouns.

The book for this month is "Hiccups for Elephant" by Whilhelm, H. About 4 pages are read every day and students should memorize the previous content by the next class. This homework is mandatory for every storytelling class at Ajoo University Language institute. The procedures of the class are, ⑴ I read storybook first and students are listening, ⑵ students repeat each sentence after me, reading it twice, ⑶ I explain the content again using pictures on every page, not reading this time. At this point, I check students' comprehension, asking a variety of questions, like Yes/No questions, and extended questions. ⑷ Students ask me some questions, if they do not understand the vocabulary, grammatical structures and the content, ⑸ They read the book together chorally, ⑹ Volunteer students read the book or they practice reading the book with their partner. Finally, ⑺ We sometimes do an activity.

To test my hypothesis, which is that storytelling with pictures is more understandable for students than reading without pictures, I do the lesson with class A in a normal teaching way. It means students in class A are reading a normal storybook with pictures. On the other hand, I provided students in class B the copied book without pictures for 1 week. Therefore, both classes' students read the same content of "Hiccups for Elephant", but one class (A) read the book with pictures, and the other (B) read without pictures, any visual clues. After having classes for 1 week, I gave them the test for their comprehension of the book (Appendix B).

4. Results and Discussion

According to Snow (1983, p.131), reading is "the most studied format for language learning". He explains that book reading helps children develop comprehension skills, and that it tends to promote the development of skills related to both "language and literacy simultaneously".

Table.1.

The Result of the comprehension test

	The total correct answers' number / 13= The average score
Class A	47 / 13 = 3.6
Class B	42 / 13 = 3.2

The test for my hypothesis, which is that children would identify the words and their comprehension is facilitated through the use of pictures, effectively shows the close correlation between the comprehension of story and visual clues. Both classes A, B have the different test average scores- the average score of class B was always higher than that of class A. However, class A shows the increase of the test scores about "Hiccups for Elephant" after reading the book with pictures (the average score: **3.6**/ 5). On the other hand, in the more advanced class B, I didn't provide the learners pictures and they got the lower scores (the average: **3.2** / 5). This demonstrates the power of pictures in comprehension of the storybook for kids.

In addition, the attitude of students from class B was usually much better that of class A's students. Nevertheless, when B's learners read the storybook without pictures, they looked bored and were not very interested in the class. Therefore, the storytelling with visual clues like pictures can serve as a powerful tool to inspire learners' interest in both the story and reading itself. Not only can it encourage the children's participation, but it can also improve their comprehension of the story. Providing them with a tantalizing glimpse of visual story elements should help stir their imaginations and help them weave an intellectual frame of reference for

better organizing and evaluating what they hear as the teacher reads the actual story.

5. Conclusion and Limitations

In my experiments, the roles of storytelling and pictures in the language classroom are evidently crucial. They are profitable pedagogical strategies since many children are learners who want to use language which they have learned in class in natural settings and like collaborative work in accomplishing classroom tasks. Language learning is a process and storytelling is interactive (Carolyn. H. Miller, 2004). Therefore, not only learning new languages through story and enjoying 'learning' all the time with pictures but re-injecting fun in the English Language class is very important.

The limitations for the final report were that ⑴ the research time was short, just for 1 week. If I observed the procedure and fluctuation of students' learning and scores over a long period of time, I would get more precise result. ⑵ Because of time, I read just one book with children and the tests for confirming the hypotheses were very simple.

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Appendix A.

KWL Chart

Name: _____

Date: _____

What We Know	What We Want to Find Out	What we Learned

Appendix B

Smile 4-2; Hiccups for Elephant

Name: _____

* Please answer the questions.

1. Why couldn't the elephant sleep?
    a. because the elephant was sick.
    b. because the elephant had the hiccups.
    c. because his friends were noisy.

2. What did the lion say to stop hiccups?
    a. to drink lots of water very, very fast.
    b. to hold the breath and count to 10 backwards.
    c. to stand on his head and eat a banana.

3. What was the mouse doing?
    a. The mouse was trying to sleep.
    b. The mouse was having lunch.
    c. The mouse had a headache.

4. Who made the elephant stop the hiccups finally?
    a. the zebra
    b. the chimp
    c. the mouse

5. What did the elephant say after stopping his hiccups?
    a. Ah-Choo!
    b. Thank you.
    c. Oh, my god!

A use of the authoring tool, Flying Popcorn, to integrate the Internet resources into the classroom

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TESOL 4th Semester

The arrival of the Internet opens new era of English teaching in its methods. The Internet provides various English resources that English learners and teachers can easily access and the advanced technology enables people to use asynchronous and synchronous computer mediated communication tools such as chatting rooms, forums, and emails. Recognizing the power of Internet resources, second and foreign language teachers consider employing technologies in their teaching as subsequent materials. However, integrating technology into English instruction becomes another burden for teachers, who sacrifice their time to learn how to make these materials useful to their teaching. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to introduce a sample lesson plan using Flying Popcorn that helps integrating the internet resources into the classroom.

1. Introduction

The important role of authentic materials shed new light on Internet resources that can be used to facilitate language teaching and learning. Although many web-sites provide a variety of resources that can be used for classroom activities, it is difficult for a teacher to implement the materials to his or her classroom teaching. In terms of bringing Internet resources to a classroom, the authoring tool, Flying Popcorn, can help with organizing the materials and the teacher's thought for a lesson. This paper will briefly introduce how

the Internet resources can be implemented to a classroom situation using Flying Popcorn.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 A dialogical approach

From the beginning of language acquisition studies, researchers have tried to explain and generalize language phenomena so that they can draw a set of decent rules that can explain a language learning process which can be applied to all language learning. Language learning has long been considered as an innate ability people are born with and many people believe that there is a language learning route that all language learners follow. However, the dialogical tradition argues that the language is too complex to be generalized and explained by a set of rules. They claim that there are a lot of learner variables so language learning should be focused on the dynamic role of social context, individuality, intentionality and sociocultual, and institutional background of the individual involved in cognitive growth (Johnson, 2004).

Vygotsky (1986) focuses on the role of interaction through which learners negotiate meaning. He suggested a concept, the Zone of Proximal Development, where learners negotiate meaning with adults and their peers. According to Newman, Griffin, and Cole, "the zone of proximal development is something more than social support that some today call scaffolding; it is not just a set of devices used by one person to support high-level activity by another. The ZPD is the locus of social negotiation about meanings, and it is, in the context of schools, a place where teachers and pupils may appropriate one another's understandings" (Vygotsky, 1989). Long (1981) claims in his interaction hypothesis that when the learners engaged with their negotiation around meaning, the nature of the input might be qualitatively changed by querying, recycling and paraphrasing. As a result of the negotiation, the comprehensibility of the input will be increased and its potential usefulness as input will also be maximized.

Input and output are two main crucial factors for interaction. Swain (1985) pointed out that modified comprehensible output was also a

requirement for complete native-speaker-like acquisition of the target language, and several studies (Day and Shapson, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 1990) have also suggested that the acquisition of some linguistic features may require in addition a focus on form during feedback on learners' production. According to Swain (1985), learners who were given opportunities to modify their output during spoken interaction as a result of feedback from native speakers about the doubtful comprehensibility of what they had first said would need to focus on the form of their message in order to produce more comprehensible utterances.

2.2 Multiple intelligences

With the emergence of dialogical tradition, learner individuality and variability become important factors in language teaching. People are fundamentally different from one and other and these differences stem from the different societies, cultures, and families that individuals are belong to. For language teachers, knowing these differences of their students are important for the reason that the differences will directly influence students' learning. For example, when a student has difficulty following the teacher's lecture because his or her learning style does not match with the teacher's style, he becomes discouraged because of the effort required to carry the task out. Research on learning styles proved that failing students did significantly better when they were taught with strategies that complemented their learning-style preferences (Dunn, Griggs, Olson, and Beasley, 1995). To understand learning styles, one needs to understand multiple intelligences which explain how people differ from each other.

According to Gardener (1983), one possesses at least seven entirely different ways to understand the world and to express him or her self. The seven intelligences include linguistic intelligence, spatial intelligence, musical intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence. Linguistic intelligence involves sensitivity to spoken and written language, the ability to learn languages, and the capacity to use language to accomplish certain goals. The second, Logical-mathematical intelligence involves using

and appreciating abstract relation. It is most often associated with scientific and mathematical thinking. The third, musical intelligence involves skill in the performance, composition, and appreciation of musical patterns. According to Gardner (1983), musical intelligence runs in an almost structural parallel to linguistic intelligence. The fourth, bodily-kinesthetic intelligence entails the potential of using one's whole body or parts of the body to solve problems. It is the ability to use mental abilities to coordinate bodily movements. Gardner claims that mental activity and physical activity are closely related. The fifth, spatial intelligence, concerns the ability to perceive visual or spatial information, and to transform and modify this information, and to recreate visual images even without reference to an original physical stimulus. Even though both logical-mathematical and spatial skills develop from the perception of objects, neurological research supports the autonomy of spatial intelligence. It involves the potential to recognize and use the patterns of wide space and more confined areas. The sixth and seventh intelligences are two kinds of social intelligence, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence is concerned with the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people while intrapersonal intelligence entails the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one's feelings, fears and motivations. (Infred, 2005; Para. p. 8~14)

Until recently, materials in language teaching were heavily dependent on textual materials so learning style for each student does not put in much consideration. However, as computer technology has developed, computer mediated classes have become flexible enough to cater to multiple learning styles. These can provide texts, graphics, audio, video and images and it becomes more powerful when these media are integrated. According to Piavio(1986), people learn better when information is processed through two channels than when the information is processed through just one channel. Through computer technology, teachers can provide different types of materials at the same time. Understanding that dealing with differences in learning styles among language learners does not lie in finding one perfect

method that matches to all learning styles, the lesson focuses on providing different types of language materials. Thus, in lessons different types of materials are used to provide a better learning environment where learners experience different type of target language forms such as pictures, video clips, listening materials and texts.

2.3 Authentic Materials

Authentic materials are the materials that have been produced to fulfill social purposes in the language community (Peacock, 1997). That is, materials designed for native speakers of English used in the classroom in a way similar to the one it was designed for (Widdowson, 1990). By using authentic materials in the classroom, even when it is not in an authentic situation, it still provides the learners with many significant advantages (Martinez, 2000). Martinez (2000) summarized several advantages of using authentic materials. Firstly, students are exposed to real discourse. Secondly, students are informed of what is happening in the world by using authentic materials. Thirdly, students can feel achievement by accomplishing authentic tasks such as planning trip to abroad using a tour brochure. Fourthly, language change is reflected in the materials so that students and teachers can be aware of the changes. Fifthly, reading texts are ideal to teach mini-skills such as scanning, e.g. students are given a news article and asked to look for specific information. Sixthly, books, articles, newspapers, and other materials contain a wide variety of text types, language styles not easily found in conventional teaching materials. Finally, the use of authentic sources leads to greater interest and variety in the material that learners deal with in the classroom. This authentic material helps bring the contact to life, and ultimately makes learning and using language more meaningful.

Although there are some drawbacks including complexity of authentic materials, burden of studying low frequency vocabulary, and frustration of encountering mal-formed language, there are more benefits and many authentic materials are available such as newspapers, magazines, user manuals, leaflets and brochures, TV and radio programs, videos, literature, songs, etc.

All of the materials used in the sample lesson are authentic materials taken from the Internet. Authentic materials allow students to discuss and meaningfully construct meanings in context that involve real-world problems. Through dealing with authentic materials, students will be engaged in genuine learning process that foster the opportunity for them to make direct connections between the new material that is being learned and their prior knowledge (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Authentic materials are some what difficult to use for they are not simplified and contrived to fit learners level. For this reason, other aids such as captured pictures, animation clips, and vocabulary tips are used to make the authentic materials more accessible to students.

3. A lesson Plan

3.1 Introduction
The lesson is made by the authoring tool, Flying Popcorn, and the graphic tool, Photoshop. Two animation clips which are main materials for the lesson are taken from the Internet. All the images used in the lesson are also taken from the Internet and modified using Photoshop. All materials are integrated into one Flying Popcorn file and students will follow the steps provided by the file.

3.2 Class description
This is a computer-mediated conversation class which involves computer mediated communications. The class meets twice a week, 90 minutes a day. The aim of this class is to enhance classroom interactions through various CMC materials so that it ultimately improves learners' language skills. Through the class, students are not only familiarized with English language skills but also improve their computer literacy.

3.3 Student Profile
The provided lesson plan will be used for 12 primary school 5th graders.

Their level of proficiency ranges from intermediate low to mid. Students are familiar with synchronous and asynchronous activities, interacting with peers, a teacher and others whom they meet online.

3.4 Preview

At the beginning of the class, students will be exposed to an image with music that arouses within each of them peaceful and pleasant feelings. After a few seconds listening to the music, the teacher moves to the next step where they see question marks in red circles. This is to get students' attention and to activate learners' schema related to the lesson topic. Attention plays an important role in language acquisition. According to Ratey (2001), learning occurs when they pay attention or become conscious on something they encounter physically or emotionally. When they pay attention to something and experience it, neurons in the brain strengthen their tie with one another and link to their existing knowledge. Thus, the sirens sound out when they touch the question mark will remind them of experiences they had related to the sound and it will also stimulate their curiosity.

Figure 1.
Preview Stage

3.5 Presentation

In the presentation stage, two materials including an animation clip and a song will be introduced to present grammar points and contents. In the first presentation stage, students will be asked to sequence the given pictures in pairs. While they are discussing the task, the teacher will distribute picture cards, worksheet 1, which are basically the same as what they see on the computer screen but with talk balloons added. The students are asked to write a dialogue at the same time they are sequencing the pictures. After they finish filling out the talk balloons on the pictures, they are asked to move to the next page and check their answers through the sequencing game. Then, they will role-play using their dialogue. The teacher needs to circulate and implicitly introduce ordinal numbers and factual conditionals to the students when he or she is involved in their discussion. Then, students will watch the animation clip and discuss fire safety.

Figure 2.

Presentation 1

In the second presentation stage, students will learn a song. They will learn what they need to do when there is a fire in their house through the song. In this stage, the grammar points will be explicitly explained. Moreover, students will learn the vocabulary by acting out the words. For example, when they learn the word, crawl, the teacher models the motion of crawling. Students will listen to the song, sing the song, watch the animation clip, and act out some words as well as safety steps they need to follow when there is a fire. This is to provide various channels to process given information more effectively.

Figure 3.
Presentation 2

3.6 Practice

In the practice stage, students will be asked to interact with each other to figure out required answers and to actively use vocabulary and grammar structures to accomplish the information gap task. In this activity, pairs of As and Bs from each group will have a chance to discuss the task that needs to be done first and then, they will do a speed game through which they can use factual conditionals. In this stage, rich visual images will be provided as aids to text material.
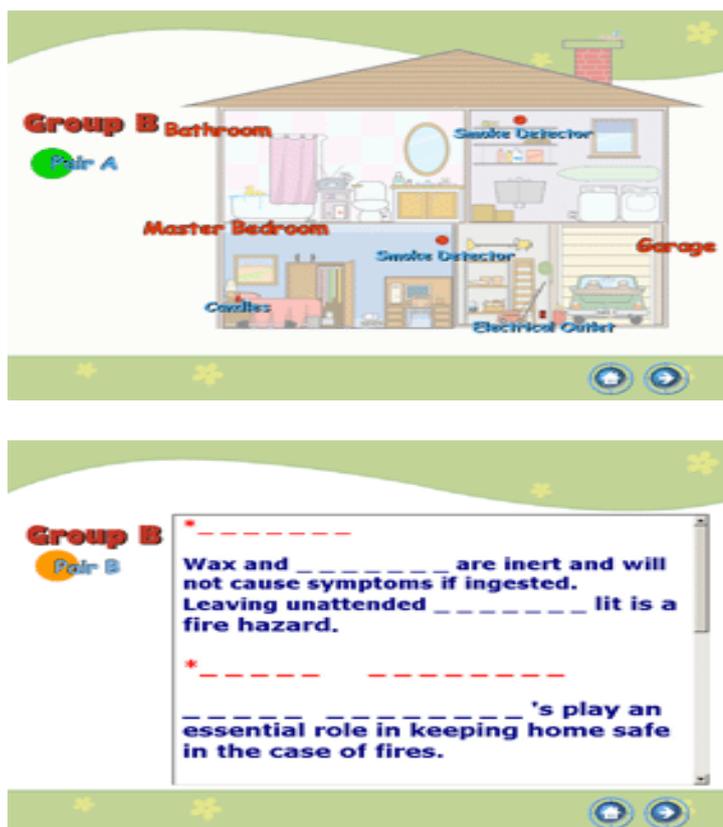
Figure 4.
Practice Stage

3.7 Production stage

In the production stage, students need to access the Internet and discuss their topics based on what they find on the Internet. Although the teacher will provide a link to each group, group members are allowed to search different materials using the Internet as they wish. In this stage, groups of students need to make safety posters on given topics following the provided guideline. To make this activity more authentic, the teacher will ask the groups of students to put their posters on a notice board so other students can get the information that other group members collected from the Internet.

Figure 5.
Production stage

3.8 Wind-down stage

In this stage, the teacher will briefly summarize the lesson and assign the homework. For homework, the students need to find a possible danger around them and post a question asking how they can prevent the danger on the epals.com student forum and write at least five tips to the next class. They need to submit their question and others' advice captured from epals.com web-site. This is to provide an opportunity to interact with others in real life situation. They will learn how to get certain information using an internet forum.
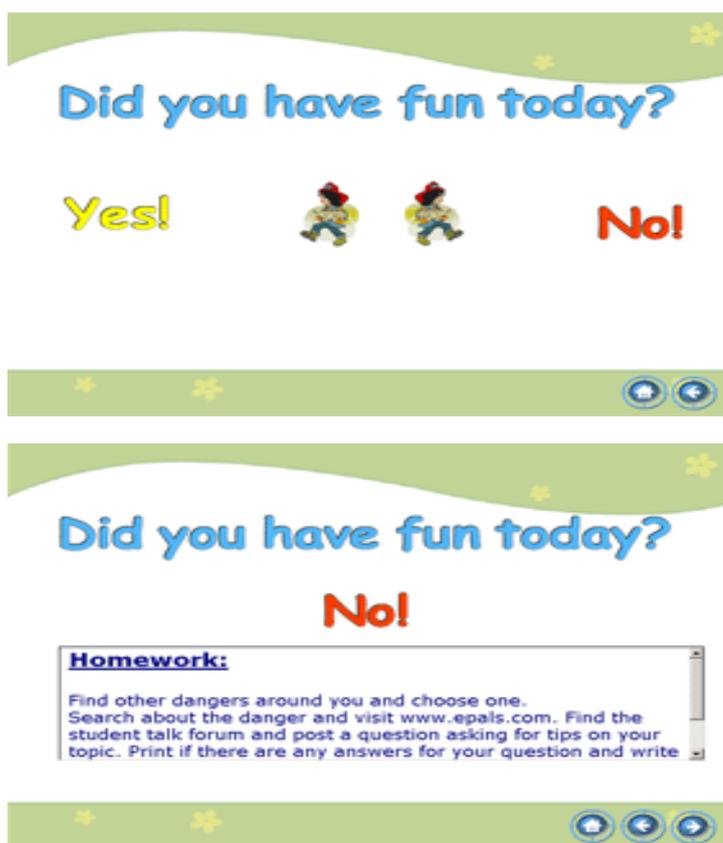
Figure 6.

Wind-down Stage

3.9 The lesson plan at a glance
Table 1.

Lesson Plan

Lesson Title: Fire safety
Objectives
Functional: ·Ss will be able to tell fire safety steps and tips to other people. ·Ss will make safety posters which will be attached on the wall so that other classmate will benefit from them. **Grammar:** ·Ss will be able to use factual conditionals to express two events normally being true. ·Ss will be able to use ordinal numbers to give instructions or to list events in orders.

Vocabulary:

·Ss will be practice the words and expressions, sleep tight, run out, get down, flame, frightened, scary, crawl, smoky by interacting with their classmates.

Personal:

·Ss will be able to practice and know what they have to do when there is a fire in their house.

·Ss will be able to count ordinal numbers.

General:

·Ss will able to identify potential dangers in a house related to fire through activities.

Target Language Content

Vocabulary: frightened, flame

Expressions: sleep tight, run out, get down

Grammar:

·Factual Conditional: If   S+V, present tense

·Ordinal numbers: First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth

Tasks/Functions: giving information, role-play, sing a song, information gap, making posters

Anticipated Problems (Errors)

Expressions: drop out particle from phrasal verb

Grammar: use cardinal numbers when Ss need ordinal numbers.

Tasks/Functions: will find difficulty doing information gap activity for difficult vocabulary.

T	Mode	MI/ OLC/ CLT	Steps
3			*Preview*
	T->Ss	M, S/h/−	*Step 1:* Greetings
			Step 2: Ask them to open "final.edt" file on the screen and click "start!".
			Step 3: When they open the first page of the edit file, touch the red circle to play the music. Ask them what they feel when they see the picture. After a few seconds, have them move to next page and click the smallest red circle so that it plays a fire siren. Ask the students if they heard the sound before and when

18			they heard it. Make a note on the board as students tell activating their schema. Have them guess today's topic.
			Presentation
			Step 1: Divide the class into groups of 3 and ask each group to sit around 1 computer station.
	Ss<->Ss	*V,B,Inter/d, b,f/1 e*	***Step 2:*** Direct them to go to next page by clicking next icon.
			Step 3: Distribute a worksheet #1 and ask them to sequence the pictures and fill out speech balloons for each picture. Circulate the class and see if they need any help
	T->Ss		
	Ss<->Ss	*Inter/6*	***Step 4:*** Have them click next page and play the sequencing game to check whether they sequence the pictures right.
	T->Ss	*B*	***Step 5:*** Check the answers together and ask them to role-play based on what they wrote in the speech balloon.
	Ss->T	*Intra,L/h/2*	***Step 6:*** Tell them to go to next page. Ask them to skim through the questions so that they know what to hear.
		V/c/4	***Step 7:*** Play the flash clip.
	Ss<->Ss *T<->S*	*Lin,L/a,d,f/6*	***Step 8:*** Ask students to discuss on answers for each question and check the answer.
			Step 9: Discuss shortly on the lesson from the story.
			Step 10: Have them discuss what they need to do when there is a fire in the house. Ask them to make a short list.
			Step 11: Write each group's idea on the board.
33	***T->Ss***	*L, Lin, B/a,d,f/6*	***Step 12:*** Tell the students we are going to listen to a song and they need to listen for the steps they need to follow when there is a fire in their house. Ask them to take a note from the listening.
	T->Ss	*L,Lin /2,3*	***Step 13:*** Instruct them that we use ordinal numbers to explain steps and things that are arranged or done in an order.
			Step 14: Play the song again and sing along together.
		B/2	***Step 15:*** When they sing tell them to follow the teacher's motions that will explain some action or phrasal verbs.
	Ss<->Ss	*L,Lin,Inter/g, h/6*	***Step 16:*** Divide the class into groups of 4 and ask them to write steps they need to follow when there is a fire in their house.

	T->Ss		Have each member say one step each.
			Step 17: Ask questions using if structure. Ex: If there is a fire in your house what you first need to do?
43			***Brake***
63			***Practice: Information Gap + Speed Game***
			Step 1: Divide the class into groups of 3 and ask them to choose one letter from A, B, C.
			Step 2:. Divide each group into two pairs again. Left side two will be pair A and right side two will be pair B.
	T->Ss	*B*	***Step 3:***. Move 3 As to left side of the class and 3 Bs to right.
			Step 4:. Have them raise their hand to make sure they know what group they belong to.
			Step 5:. Ask them to click a group icon they belong to. Have pair As to click pair A and pair Bs to click pair B.
			Step6:. Pair As will have words that are related to potential dangers and pair Bs will have explanation of the danger.
	Ss<->Ss	*L,Lin,Inter/g, h/6*	***Step7:*** Give some time to each pair to discuss their words or explanation.
	T->Ss		***Step 8:*** Tell them they need to explain three dangerous items in the house and their partners will guess them. Encourage them to use factual conditionals and ordinal numbers when they discuss. Tell the students that they will get bonus points when they use factual conditionals and ordinal numbers. Give 3 minutes for the speed game.
	S->Ss	*L,Lin,Inter,V/6*	***Step 9:*** Ask pair A from group A to explain the words in front of the class and pair B needs to figure out the answers using pair A's explanation and their information.
			Step 10: The group gets the most answers will win the game.
85			***Produce: Find other information***
			Step 1: Divide the class into groups of 4.
	T->Ss		***Step 2:*** Explain that each group is going to make one poster on the given topic.

		S,B,Lin,L/a,b,c, d,f/6	***Step 3:*** Distribute A3 papers and explain a poster format using a sample poster in the edit file. ***Step 4:*** Have each group chooses one number from 1, 2, 3. ***Step5:*** Ask them to link to the page and find information they need. Tell them they can visit other web-sites too.
	Ss<->Ss		***Step6:*** When they find information they need to discuss what they are going to draw and what steps they need to follow when something happens. ***Step7:*** Attach three posters on the board and have each group members explain their poster.
90	*T->S*		***Wind-down: Find other information*** ***Step 1:*** Ask them to go to the next page of the edit file where they will see the question 'Did you have fun today?' and tell them to click what they think and the page will be connected to homework. ***Step 2:*** Explain it to the students.

ABBREVIATIONS

Mi (Multiple Intelligences):

L. Logical and mathematical, Lin. Linguistics, B. Bodily Kinesthetic, S. Spatial, Inter. Interpersonal, Intra. Intra personal, M. Musical

OLC (Optimal Learning Conditions):

a. Learners have opportunities to interact and negotiate meaning.

b. Learners interact in the target language with an authentic audience.

c. Learners are exposed to and encouraged to produce varied and creative language

d. Learners are involved in authentic tasks

e. Learners have enough time and feedback.

f. Learners are guided to attend mindfully to the learning process.

g. Learners work in an atmosphere with an ideal stress/anxiety level.

h. Learner autonomy is supported.

CLT (Communicative Language Teaching):

1. Communicative Competence is the goal

2. Form is used to achieve meaning

3. Fluency and accuracy are both important

4. Students must be prepared to communicate in authentic contexts

5. Students discover their own learning styles and develop learning strategies

6. Students actively construct meaning through interaction

Materials

Internet Sources:

· http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8mE1b1GLZDA

· http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8mE1b1GLZDA&mode=related&search

· http://www.do2learn.com/games/songs/firesafetysong/index.htm

Worksheets:

· *images with speech balloons*

Facilities:

· 6 computer stations, flying popcorn installation, window media

4. Conclusion

The authoring tool, Flying Popcorn, facilitates classroom activity in various ways. First of all, it helps the teacher to make tailored lessons using Internet resources which are mostly authentic. Authentic materials provide classroom environment similar to real-life situations so that students are prepared for the real language use. Secondly, it provides multiple channels that trigger learners' multiple intelligences. Through experiencing various types of learning materials, learners will find at least one type of materials that matches their learning style. Activities made by Flying Popcorn also provide many opportunities for students to interact with each other. Through the collaboration required to complete tasks, students will actively negotiate meaning. Moreover, the authoring tool helps organize a teacher's thought, that is, what the teacher believes in language learning and teaching.

Although using authoring tools allows teachers to prepare more interesting lessons, it is time consuming to learn how to use the tools and to

make lesson materials. In addition, in comparison to ordinary classes, teachers need to pay more attention to the students while they are working on computers in the CMC classroom.

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Appendix 1. Worksheet 1 (Picture Cards)

An Inquiry into Co-Teaching in Classes and Students' Reaction with Different Teachers

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TESOL 4th semester

The purpose of this study is to investigate the differences between co-teaching and Korean teachers' normal classes: co-teaching, native teacher with two different Korean teachers and the Korean teacher's teaching. Depending on the teacher and the number of the teachers, the students' reaction may be different. Even though there are differences between the classes and the students there could be common features depending on the teaching type. Also, the teacher's role and dominance could be different resulting from the reaction of the students. An increase in the students' reaction may affect the teacher dominance in the class, which is likely to decrease. Cook and Friend (1995) define co-teaching as "two or more professionals delivering substantive instruction to a diverse or blended group of students in a single physical space." As the study shows, there are barriers both in normal teaching and co-teaching. Thus it is important for teachers to find out the ways to overcome the barriers in order to teach more effectively, which could encourage the use co-teaching as tools for higher education.

1. Introduction

Nowadays we see many foreigners on the street as the world is becoming more globalized. As more foreigners are willing to come to Korea and have a chance to teach students in Korea, students in Korea are getting more chances to talk with foreigners, and have native teachers of the foreign language they

are learning. The ministry of Education has come up with a series of English education reform packages and Korean English teachers have been urged to speak more English then ever to provide students with maximum comprehensible input. Students are also encouraged to maximize the use of English by engaging in various activities in and out of the classroom. Thus local education offices are now asking schools to have native teachers so that the quality of foreign language teaching might be improved.

The researcher is currently teaching in a middle school located in Ilsan Gu in Gyeonggi province. The school also has a native teacher who is from Canada. She does not have much teaching experience, but she has got a TESOL certificate from Canada and is planning to go to graduate school to study education after she goes back to her country. She teaches 16 classes with 3 different Korean teachers. In a week every 8th grade class has one 45minute special class with their Korean and native teachers, and 3 normal classes only with Korean teacher. The native teacher usually prepares the class materials for the co-teaching class. Before the class, the native teacher and Korean teachers share the ideas for the co-teaching class.

The research was designed to identify the differences in the classes, comparing the Korean teacher only class with the textbook, as well as the effects of the different teaching styles and teachers. The researcher discovered that the native teacher felt more comfortable with a certain teacher than two other teachers, and about the difficulties regarding the classes. Thus, the researcher wanted to figure out the differences of the relationship and reaction between different classes, as well as different reactions from different teachers. Brynt and Land (1996) mentioned several features related to successful co-teaching and Bauwens and Hourcade (1995) warned about the barriers to successful co-teaching. Regarding this, the researcher tried to find out the features from the students reaction and teaching style.

To find out those mentioned above, the research questions were set as follows:

1. In co-teaching, what could be the important things between the teachers?

2. Different teachers have different teaching styles. Does that make much differences in the class?

3. Are the students satisfied with the co-teaching class, and how is the reaction of the students different between co-teaching teachers?

4. Is the co-teaching method beneficial to the students? If it is, what are the benefits?

2. Literature Review

Dieker and Muriawski (2003) described co-teaching as two or more teachers who are equal in status located in the classroom together, working together, and providing instruction. Also Cook and Friend (1995) defined co-teaching as "two or more professionals delivering substantive instruction to a diverse or blended group of students in a single physical space." They also described different models of co-teaching. They identified five options teachers typically use when implementing a co-teaching model. They are lead and support, station teaching, parallel teaching, alternative teaching, and team teaching. Lead and support is where one teacher leads and another offers assistance and support to individuals or small groups. In station teaching, students are divided into heterogeneous groups and work at classroom stations with each teacher. Then, in the middle of the period or the next day, the students switch to the other station, thus the both teachers develop the content of their stations. The third type is parallel teaching, in which the teachers jointly plan their instruction, but each may deliver it to the half of the class or to small groups. The forth one is alternative teaching, in which one teacher works with smaller groups to pre-teach, re-teach, or supplement regular instruction. And the last is team teaching, in which teachers share instruction for the entire class.

According to Wiss & Lloyd (2003), the nuances of co-teaching are determined by factors such as scheduling, the content knowledge of special education teachers, the acceptance by general education teachers, and the philosophies of both teachers in regard to classroom management. Walther-Thomas, Bryant, and Land (1996) identified that teachers' willingness and capability, and a balanced list if students in the class to ensure a heterogeneous mixture of students, and mentioned that teachers could plan

the lessons or materials together.

The research adopted a naturalistic design, the illuminative model. It uses a range of qualitative methods to explore an initiative as a whole and has been characterized as concerned with description and interpretation rather than measurement and prediction. It is rather holistic approach, and observation, interviews, questionnaires, tests, and program documentation are examples of the data-gathering techniques.

The role of the researcher was that of a participant-observer, but more toward the observer end of the continuum (Corsaro, 1985). Thus the researcher did not participate directly in the lecture, but did interact with the students and teachers informally during the course of the class and also before and after class to know how students are doing, in detail.

3. Method

3.1 Setting

The research was conducted at Oma Middle School in Ilsan Gu, Gyeonggi provience. The native teacher teaches every 8th grade class once a week and she does the co-teaching classes with 3 different Korean teachers. Since there are 3 Korean teachers teaching 16 classes of 8th grade students, the native teacher needs to teach with 3 different Korean teachers in order to have special co-teaching classes. The observation was done in 3 different classes. The first class observation was done to figure out the differences between the co-teaching classes of a native teacher with 2 different Korean teachers. One was teacher Whang's class with the native teacher and the other was teacher Jean's class with the native teacher. The other class observed was Korean teacher Jean's normal class, and the students were same as in the co-teaching class with teacher Jean. The researcher also wanted to observe teacher Whang's normal class, but the teacher didn't want her class to be observed. Thus the observation for the normal class was done in teacher Jean's class only.

3.2 Participants

The participants were 8th grade students attending the middle school. They have been learning English for at least 5 years from elementary school and middle school. The participants have 3 regular classes with Korean teacher and one special co-teaching class once a week. Their proficiency level is about novice high or intermediate low and some of the student have been abroad to English speaking countries.

3.3 Data collection

The observation was conducted on May 5th, May 11th, and May 12th, 2007 in the class co-teaching is done. In order to figure out the differences in the classes and students' responses, the researcher chose a different Korean teacher's class with the same native teacher. The researcher also observed a normal class to find out the difference of their reaction between a normal class and the co-teaching class, to focus on the effect of the native teacher. After the class, the researcher conducted a short questionnaire to find out what students think about the co-teaching class. The researcher also talked with the teachers on the same day, during the lunch break, which might be similar type of free interview.

3.4 Procedures
3.4.1 Procedure One

The research was done with two different classes that are taught by different Korean teachers and one of the classes was observed again for the normal class. On the first day, the researcher observed one of the two classes. Since the researcher is a teacher at the same school, there were not many choices. Thus the researcher observed the class during their break, which is the only possible way to observe. The first class observed was teacher Whang's special class with the native teacher. The next week, the observation was done in teacher Lee's special class with the native teacher. The researcher wrote teacher talks and students' response and outcomes while participating in two classes with 2 different Korean teachers. The class was focused on writing, so the researcher couldn't read all the students writings, but tried to

find out how they are doing in their activity. Lastly, the researcher wanted to figure how the students react when they have only Korean teacher. Even though there are differences between the text and the number of teachers, the researcher wanted to find out the students inclination. For the evaluation of the students' response and teachers teaching style, a chart was made to check the numbers of students' participation, spoken not written, and teachers' dominance in the class. In the class, the students were asked to create a dialogue. During the observation the researcher observed the students work and helped to write the dialogue. From the observation the researcher tried to figure out how students are trying to finish their tasks together. After the class, the students weren't very curious about the researchers' questions about the classes, but naturally answered the questions while they were finishing the dialogue.

Table 1. *Categories comparing different classes*

	NT& Whang	NT &Jean	Jean
1.students response in the class			
2.Warnings of teachers (be quiet or participate)			
3. Numbers of teachers instruction			
4. Numbers of students' question			
5. Etc.			

3.4.2 Procedure Two

After class, the students were asked to write complete the questionnaires, and also had chances to talk about the co-teaching class. On the same day there was a special meeting of English Zone members and English teachers at the zone, thus there was another chance to get the information about the students' opinions. Fortunately some of the students in the classes were English Zone members, so the researcher could talk with them more about the co-teaching class after school and in extra class time for English Zone members on

Saturday, June 6th.

3.4.3 Procedure Three

After the class, during the lunch, the researcher interviewed teacher Jean and the native teacher about the classes. The questions were related to co-teaching and student response. Since the teachers were going to do an open class soon, they weren't bothered about the researcher being in the class for the observation. They also wanted to talk with the researcher after the class in order to get some information, feedback and help. Teacher Whang was not able to participate in the talk so the researcher had to ask her later after the school on the same day. The questions researcher asked to the teachers were the following:

1) How do you prepare the lesson and who prepares the lesson?

2) Aren't there any difficulties when you do the co-teaching comparing to teaching by yourself?

3) How is the students' reaction usually, compared to the other classes?

4) Are there any different student reactions between co-teaching and teaching by yourself (Korean teacher)?

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Comparison between the different classes

It was found that the co-teaching class and the Korean teacher's normal class were different. The students' response in the class, and the amount of teacher's instruction had shown a different classroom atmosphere. Table.2 shows the results of the observation including the amount of the teachers' instruction and students' response and participation. Regarding the students' participation, students being noisy and not and doing the group work was pointed out by the teachers. The teacher asking for students' participation in the class is one of the reasons for students not participating in the class, and which could be a result of students not concentrating in the class. On the other hand, students' asking questions related to their work could be seen as participation in the class as well as an indication of the degree of their

motivation. The Etc section in the table includes the things not related with the categories above and general things to be considered in the observation.

Table 2. *Categories comparing different classes*

	NT/ Whang	NT /Jean	Jean
1.students response in the class	8	12	7
2.Warnings of teachers (quiet or participate)	1/3	0/1	2
3. Numbers of teachers instruction	22/7	20/12	43
4. Numbers of students' question	3/2	5/3	3
5. Etc. (General comments of the class)	Students were pretty noisy comparing to the other classes. They didn't participate actively in the class and while they are doing the dialogue they were having hard time figuring out what to write. Students writing activity was done, but there seems to be lack of	Comparing to the teacher Whang's class students were more quite and participating in the class. The turn takings between the teachers were more natural and seemed like the teachers and the students	Teacher focused on the grammar rather than speaking skills. Also the questions were mostly related with grammar, thus the students didn't speak English as much as in the co-teaching class, even-though the

	participation and certain students were doing most of the work by themselves.	were not being troubled in the class and having fun.	teacher and students were speaking in English.

4.2 Results of student observation and the interview with the students

Students had enough time to write the dialogue, but some students had difficulty in finding what to write and how to start their sentences. While helping the students with the dialogue and the possible things that they could mention in the dialogue, the researcher could somehow figure out how well they understood the instruction, and what they think about the co-teaching class, compared to the other normal Korean teacher class. Some of the students were having difficulties in the classes since teachers were most likely to speak English rather than Korean. Some of the students were not able to catch up with the teachers' instruction and relied on the other students to figure out what was actually going on and what they were supposed to do. Thus they were not motivated enough to ask the teachers to repeat some of the words for a clearer understanding or for help. Students generally liked the co-teaching class since they could learn something more interesting rather than just focusing on their textbook. They said that the textbook is not interesting but boring and they cannot get rid of the idea of the tests when they study the textbook. They thought that learning a different text with the native teacher helps a lot rather than studying the textbook only with the Korean teacher. Nevertheless some of the students mentioned that the native teacher speaks fast, and it is sometimes hard to understand her. Students generally wanted to solve problems with their friends rather than teachers due to their English ability, even though there were 2 teachers to help them.

Even though there was tendency of students to solve the questions by themselves, there were more questions directed to the teachers in the co-teaching class compared with the normal Korean teacher class. The

researcher asked the students why they had more questions and why they answered the teachers' questions better in the co-teaching class. The students answered that it was because the native teacher speaks perfect English, and the class is more interesting. They were more likely to ask for help from the native teacher rather than the Korean teacher when it comes to speaking and writing. Moreover, when they have special classes they are more likely to learn authentic topics, thus there are more questions about the things that they want to know about. Students told the researcher that they participate less in class when they have only Korean teacher. The class size and the number of teachers was also one of the reasons. Even though the size of the class is big, the co-teaching class has two teachers and students thought that they were being more controlled since there are more teachers. From the observation, it was found that the native teacher stayed with a group until each student was fully participating with the activity, and certain students answered her questions related to the activity. The teacher did not move to another group if the students did not do or say anything. Students were also less stressed from the language forms and that also helped them from the inhibition, and students tried to have fun with their activities since all the things were not related to their grades.

4.3 Interview with the teachers

From the teachers' interview, the researcher tried to find out some things related with co-teaching. During the lunch break, a free interview was done with both of the Korean teachers, and the native teacher. The teachers said that they have more difficulties when they co-teach compared to their normal classes. Firstly, the most difficult thing is that they have to be even more prepared to have a class. One piece of evidence was that every first class of a lesson was not that smooth, and it was troublesome in some way. Since they are not sure about the students' reaction thus they were more likely to have hard time to control the students. The second thing that they thought of as a problem in the class was about the dominance in the classes. There are certain parts that needs Korean teachers explanation and they have to take turns, but depending on the classes and the teachers the native teacher

sometimes has more dominance in the class and the teachers do not have clear idea about how much is ideal for the students and what could be done by the Korean teacher.

The Korean teachers mentioned the difficulties that come from themselves, which may be their English ability. Another difficulty was that a lot of students wanted the Korean teachers to speak Korean in the co-teaching classes. They thought that this comes from the gap of the students' proficiency level, and thought that the separation of the classes regarding the students' level must be considered. In point of fact, different Korean teachers had different teaching styles, and as an observer, the researcher found a big difference between the classes. The Korean teachers explained things in different ways, and one of the teachers tend to use Korean much more often than the other Korean teacher.

Also, with regard to the questions considering the difference between the normal classes and co-teaching class, teachers had different ideas about the classes. One said it was more fun to have class with the native teacher, since she was dealing with different texts and didn't have to prepare materials and also did not have to talk that much. On the other hand, the other teacher was uncomfortable with the classes since she was worried about her role in the class, and mentioned about the preparation for the classes even though she was not preparing for the class by herself. Nonetheless both teachers were pretty much satisfied with the students' participation. They said that the students' traits are the biggest factors that make the classes different, but with the native teacher, they are usually a little bit better.

The next day, a free interview was done with just the native teacher to figure out the differences or any difficulties that she had with different teachers. She teaches with 3 different teachers, and the research was conducted in 2 classes out of 16. From the interview, the researcher found out that the native teacher felt more comfortable with teacher Jean because of her language ability as well as her personality. She mentioned that Jean was more likely to understand when she needed to give an explanation, or when help is needed as a Korean teacher, and let the class flow well. Feeling more comfortable in the class and better teacher compatibility resulted in better

classes. Some of the classes with good students turned out to be good, but this was not all that mattered. She said that she is more likely to dominate the class, if the Korean teacher doesn't support the class well, and helps with the materials. The native teacher said that one of her favorite classes is class 9, which is with teacher Whang, but she thinks it will be even more fun class if it is with teacher Jean, and she was considering doing the open co-teaching class with class 9 with Jean even though it's not her class.

The native teacher also mentioned about the class preparation. Actually, she prepares all the class materials and activities by herself, and then goes over the materials with the Korean teachers. She always tries to be creative with the materials and activities. Yet, if the Korean teacher doesn't support well, she also struggles with the class, since there are difficulties in turn- taking and giving instructions. Besides, the Korean students' tendency to rely only on the native teacher was making it more difficult.

5. Conclusion and limitation

There are many things to be considered and prepared for the co-teaching classes compared to the normal classes. There is tendency for Korean teachers to be more dominant in the normal lessons with the textbook, but rather less dominant in the co-teaching classes. They have different kinds of goals, and that may lead to the students' participation in some way and the students were more likely to be forced to speak English. Moreover, using other texts with practical, authentic and more realistic topics made students intrinsically motivated. Common planning time (Dieker& Murawski, 2003), considering and discussing the sharing and dividing of roles within the co-taught classroom may be a lot of work. Discussing the spaces present in the delivery option is also important, teachers need to consider how they can both share and divide the physical, instructional, and management responsibilities and discipline spaces that exist within the classes. As teachers, they need to be open to sharing instructions with a large group as well as individual students. Co-teaching requires that both teachers be open to

conversation on how to use the service delivery option to create instructional and classroom freedom. Therefore, teachers need to embrace difficult conversations about students' participation, principles of behavior, classroom management and so on. Most of all, from the students' perspective, co-teaching can provide unique instructional benefits to students, since the teachers have different backgrounds, abilities, teaching experiences, instructional and assessment strengths, and areas of professional expertise. With benefits from these, teachers can enrich the teaching-learning process for students.

The limitation of the research is that it only looked at 2 cases of co-teaching in same background and the observation was not completed over long enough periods of time and with enough different cases because of the short time period that the researcher, myself, also had to teach other classes. However, the studies of theses 2 cases can illuminate positive points of co-teaching classrooms, from students' responses and also from the teachers.

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The Importance of Acquiring a

Second Language based on

Pragmatics

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The purpose of this paper is to find out what pragmatics is and why it is important in a second language acquisition field, and to support the importance based on findings from the previous studies. This paper consists of three parts. A pragmatic approach is explained in the first section especially focusing on cultural aspects of it. Acquisitional issues that have been brought up in SLA, such as pragmatic transfer and pragmatic overgeneralization, are dealt with in the next section. After some speculation, a general definition of pragmatics and issues that are related to acquisition of it, as well as how pragmatics education would work is proven using results of the previous studies in the final part.

1. Introduction

Contrary to popular belief, communication is accomplished not just by the exchange of symbolic expressions, but by the exchange of intent. Communication is, rather, the successful interpretation by an addressee of a speakers' intent in performing a linguistic act (Green, 1996, p.1). This is the reason why second language learners should be concerned about the pragmatics as well as language forms. Barron (2000) mentions that:

> While pragmatic failure may occur in NS-NS interactions, it is more likely to be a feature of NS-NNS or, indeed, NNS-NNS communication, given the differences in linguistic and cultural

background. It is a common source of misunderstanding and breakdowns in communication. (p.27)

To avoid misunderstanding and breakdowns, pragmatic lessons are likely to be needed in second language learning settings. Vold (2006) also states in favor of this position:

Students need to learn the vocabulary of 'their' field, including not only specialized terms but also which lexemes are generally used in the discourse of their discipline and which are not. (p.84)

First of all, a pragmatic approach and acquisitional issues in learner pragmatics are generally explained, and finally the effect of pragmatic instruction is dealt with.

2. A Pragmatic Approach

2.1 Definition

There are several definitions of pragmatics. The broadest interpretation of pragmatics is that it is the study of understanding intentional human action. The central notions in pragmatics must then include belief, intention, plan, and act. Assuming that the means and/or the ends involve communication, pragmatics still encompasses all sorts of means of communication, including nonconventional, nonverbal, nonsymbolic ones, as for example, when a life guard throws volleyball in the direction of a swimmer struggling in the ocean. The lifeguard believes that the swimmer wants assistance, and that the swimmer will understand that the volleyball thrown in his direction is intended to be assistance, and that the swimmer will know how to take advantage of the volleyball's property of being lighter than water (Green, 1996, pp.2-3). The narrowest interpretation of the term pragmatics is that it refers to the study of indexicals, expressions whose reference is a function of the context of their utterance (Green, 1996, p.17). Briefly saying, pragmatics study the way in which language is appropriate to the contexts in which it is used (Grundy, 2000, p.19).

2.2 Cultural aspects of pragmatism.
2.2.1 Pragmatics across cultures

What is culture? How can this broad concept be defined? As many researchers note, culture is a vague notion, lacking any unanimous definition, not least due to the heterogeneity of society. More important for present purposes is the deep-rooted relationship between language and culture - a non-surprising link given the role of language as an instrument of social interaction (Barron, 2000, p.24) from this understanding of culture, a number of perspectives have arisen within pragmatics.

2.2.1.1 Contrastive pragmatics

According to Barron (2000), following in the footsteps of phonology, syntax and semantics, studies with a contrastive focus have also been conducted in pragmatics. Typically, such studies concentrate on how particular communicative functions are realized in different languages. The focus is, thus, pragmalinguistic.

2.2.1.2 Cross-cultural pragmatics

House-Edmondson (1986) discusses cross-cultural pragmatics, suggesting that:

> Cross-cultural pragmatics is a filed of inquiry which compares the ways in which two or more languages are used in communication. Cross-cultural pragmatics is an important new branch of contrastive linguistic studies because in any two language different features of the social context may be found to be relevant in deciding what can be expressed and how it is conventionally expressed. (p.282)

The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) is the most well-known research project in the area of cross-cultural pragmatics/interlanguage pragmatics. Within the framework of this large-scale project, both native and nonnative varieties of request and apology realizations were established for different social contexts across various

language and cultures using a single coding system. (Barron, 2002, p.24).

The question as to whether pragmatic phenomena are universal or culture-specific is one which has been hotly debated in the literature to date. It is a question which has important repercussions for language learning as universality would imply a smaller learning load as far as pragmatic issues are concerned. Areas of cross-cultural variation include the different weighting of specific contextual factors across cultures. It has been shown, for example, that status is more important to the Japanese than to the Americans (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). Pragmalinguistic conventions have also been found to differ across cultures. It is these areas of cross-cultural variation which encompass scope for breakdowns in communication, for conflict and for the establishment of negative stereotypes (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p.6). Similarily, differences in pragmatic norms represent potential pitfalls for learners. As Kasper & Schmidt (1996) warns:

> Whereas learners may hesitate to transfer strategies that may be universal in some cases, a more common problem is that they assume universality when it is not present (p.155).

3. Acquisitional issues in Learner Pragmatics

3.1 Pragmatic Transfer

Despite the fact that research into how, why and when L1 features are transferred to an L2 has been conducted in the areas of syntax and semantics since the mid-/late-1970s, little is known about such transferability issues in interlanguage pragmatics (Kasper, 1998, p.195). Unlike the days of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, SLA research on transferability currently takes a cognitive approach to transfer. Kellerman (1983), for example, views the learner as deciding for him/herself which forms and functions of the L1 are suitable for use in the target language. Kellerman finds three factors which affect transferability, namely:

－psycholinguistic markedness, i.e., whether a learner regards a particular feature as unique to his/her L1,

－ the reasonable entity principle (REP) which involves learners' beliefs as to what is possible in the L2 system

－ psychotypology which represents learners' beliefs regarding the distance between the target language and another language, usually the L1.

       Within pragmatic transfer, negative transfer is considered as important because this can be the reason why second language learning should be done along with pragmatic aspects. It has been defined by Maeshiba et al. (1996), as:

> …the projection of first language-based sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge onto second language contexts where such projections result in perceptions and behaviors different from those of second language users (p.155).

3.2. Pragmatic Overgeneralization

Overgeneralization is, as Selinker (1972:217) proposes and, indeed, as empirical research has since shown, one of the central processes in the development of interlanguage knowledge.

3.2.1 Strategy of least effort

According to Kasper (1981:383), this strategy causes learners, when creating a plan of communication, to select those form and functions which are highly automated and easily produced. Consequently, a simpler form may be overgeneralised to cases where a more complex form is more appropriate.

Similarly, modality markers are often the victims of cognitive difficulties which learners may face in communication with native speakers. Modality markers, due to their lack of propositional content, may be regarded by learners as somewhat irrelevant and not necessarily essential in conveying information.

3.2.2 Need for clarity and explicitness: "Playing-it-safe" strategies

Due to their role as foreigners, learners are commonly burned by a deep sense of insecurity which is mirrored in their interlanguage productions, especially

in those of intermediate learners. In order to increase their confidence, they may adopt "playing-it-safe" strategies in which they strive for explicitness and clarity (Faerch & Kasper, 1989, p.245).

3.2.3 Metalinguistic motives

A further possible reason for overgeneralization may be that learners are of the opinion that a particular form sounds target-like. In a study of request realizations by forty-nine advanced learners of Hebrew, suggests that learners' inappropriately high levels of directness may have been due to an inappropriate overgeneralization of the stereotype of Israelis as universally direct (Blum-Kulla, 1991, p.267). Another example is found the data in which there is a reflection of what German learners of English believe is typically English, which is using understaters (Kasper, 1981, p.382).

3.3. Theoretical approaches to L2 pragmatic acquisition

Bialystock (1993) puts forward a two-dimensional information processing model of pragmatic acquisition in which she claims that L2 learners have two separate tasks to complete-on the one hand, representations of pragmatic knowledge must be formed, while, on the other hand, control must be gained over processing. Since adult L2 learners have largely completed the former task of developing analytic representations of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge thanks to L1 knowledge, the development of pragmatic knowledge is only a minor task, in Bialystock's view. It merely involving such tasks as the acquisition of linguistic knowledge, the formation of L2 form-function matches and the development of knowledge relating to potentially new social distinctions concerning age, sex, etc. Rather, the primary task for learners, she argues, is to gain control over the selection of knowledge. In other words, Bialystock claims that slow and inefficient retrieval of pragmatic knowledge is the primary reason for learners' use of pragmatically inappropriate L2 utterances. Empirical evidence supporting Bialystock's theory leads to a research which highlights learners' reliance on L1 or universal pragmatic knowledge. Such findings show that learners rely on previous representations of pragmatic knowledge in their use of the L2.

One of the widespread beliefs among students opting to study abroad is the belief that language learning happens by osmosis and that learning will automatically follow a stay abroad with little effort effortlessly. Some evidence for the noticing hypothesis in interlanguage pragmatics comes from a study by DuFon (1999). Her sin informants' journals, kept over a four month study-abroad experience in Indonesia, reveal that features of address terms and greetings in the L2, Indonesian, were noticed － despite the fact that not all learners reached a level of understanding of differences noticed.

4. The effect of Pragmatic Instruction

The rationale for examining the effects of instruction in pragmatics is underscored by Schmidt's (1993) contention that simple exposure to the target language is insufficient － pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be noticed even after prolonged exposure. Furthermore, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) makes a strong case for the necessity of instruction, documenting that second language learners who do not receive instruction in pragmatics differ significantly from native speakers in their pragmatic production and perception in the target language.

4.1 Teachability

The most basic question that studies on the effect of instruction in pragmatics may consider is whether a particular area of pragmatics is at all teachable. Such studies typically adopt a one-group pretest–posttest design. Olshtain and Cohen (1990) chose as their learning target the more subtle aspects of apologizing, such as the differences between excuse me and I'm sorry, and the effects of context on the choice of intensifiers. LoCastro's (1997) pedagogical intervention dealt with politeness strategies in group discussion, such as requesting answers, directing the talk, and seeking (dis)agreement, whereas Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) set out to teach appropriately elaborated responses to the French question T as *passé un bon week-end?* (Did you have

a good weekend?). Results of the first posttest conducted by Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) showed that the instruction had a greater impact on the overall content of the responses than on use of appropriate interactive devices such as feedback and repetition － for the interactive devices (what they refer to as 'form') the instruction had little impact. Results from a delayed posttest one year after the instructional period showed that learners retained most of the content features, but the only interactional practice they performed was feedback. Safont (2003) found that her participants evidenced a marked increase in the use of request modification on the posttest.

4.2 Instruction versus exposure

Instruction versus exposure studies address the issue of whether pedagogical intervention in pragmatics leads to more effective learning than no instruction, or put another way, whether instruction is better than simple exposure. These studies provide a direct means of testing Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis: the extent to which instruction which serves to draw learners' attention to the targeted features proves to be more beneficial than simple exposure to the target language is the degree to which the noticing hypothesis is supported. Billmyer's (1990) study on the effects of instruction on compliments and compliment responses was among the earliest interventional studies. Bouton (1994) selected the understanding of implicature as his learning target, while Lyster (1994) examined the use of French *tu/vous* in informal and formal contexts. Wishnoff (2000) investigated the effects of instruction in the use of hedging devices (e.g., verb choice, quantifiers, modifiers, and conditional statements) in both formal and informal texts, and Yoshimi's (2001) study focused on the Japanese interactional markers which feature prominently in the production of oral narratives. The range of instructional periods is also rather wide, with Wishnoff's two class sessions (a total of one-and-a-half hours) on one end, and Yoshimi's 24 h of instruction spread over an entire semester at the other. Assessment procedures included multiple choice tests (Bouton, 1994; Lyster, 1994), and production tasks that were oral (Lyster, 1994) and written (Lyster, 1994; Wishnoff, 2000; Yoshimi, 2001). Only Billmyer (1990) used as a

measure of instructional effects learner production in actual face-to-face interaction.

Without exception, learners receiving instruction in pragmatics outperformed those who did not. Billmyer's (1990) instructed group outperformed the controls for frequency of compliments, norm-appropriate use, spontaneity, and adjectival repertoire, and favored the response strategy of deflection as they were taught. In Bouton's (1994) study, the experimental group achieved results as high as those observed with previous immersion students who had spent four years living in the US, but there was no such improvement for the control group. Lyster's (1994) experimental participants outperformed uninstructed learners on all tasks except informal oral production, for which all learners used *tu* appropriately. These differences remained at the time of the delayed posttest. In the case of Wishnoff (2000), while use of hedges increased for both groups, the treatment group's hedging devices increased more than 5-fold － a statistically significant difference across groups. And Yoshimi's (2001) instructed learners showed a dramatic increase in frequency of interactional markers, but no similar increase in their use by the control group was observed.

Although in these studies instruction proved superior to exposure, exposure alone appears to have had some effect. In both Billmyer's (1990) and Wishnoff's (2000) studies, learners in the control groups registered noticeable improvement. Both studies dealt with subject matter that was of direct and immediate relevance to learners, and more importantly, concerned pragmatic features that learners in both groups were called upon to deploy in actual communicative use of the target language outside the classroom － a likely explanation for why learners in the control group improved despite a lack of targeted pedagogical intervention.

Needless to say, a similar effect would not be observed in a foreign language context. Kasper (1997) argues that authentic native speaker input represents the only reliable source of knowledge of pragmatic issues for learners. Indeed, Kasper& Schmidt (1996) lend further support to the natural context for acquiring competence in pragmatic issues. They write:

Because pragmatic knowledge, by definition, is highly sensitive to social and cultural features of context, one would expect input that is richer in qualitative and quantitative terms to result in better learning outcomes. A second language environment is more likely to provide learners with the diverse and frequent input they need for pragmatic development than a foreign language learning context, especially if the instruction is precommunicative or noncommunicative. (p.159)

A study of Kitao (1990), for example, found ESL learners' assessments of the politeness of request strategies to be more L2-like than those of EFL learners. Kasper (2001) concludes that the advantages of the second language context relative to the foreign language context are also reiterated by current study abroad research which shows the second language context to be an ideal setting for foreign language learners to increase their L2 pragmatic competence in a number of key areas.

4.3 Different teaching approaches

Wildner-Bassett's (1984,1986) work on gambits to express (dis)agreement in a business context found the explicit group outperformed those who received instruction based on the principles of suggestopedia in terms of the quality of gambits, and, perhaps more importantly, in their fluent (as indicated by a decrease in the use of filler and hesitation) deployment of gambits in role-play interaction. Likewise, House's (1996) explicit group outperformed the implicit group in use of a range of pragmatic routines and discourse strategies such as the use of turn-internal gambits with interpersonal focus, managing discourse transitions, and topic initiation and change. Overall, explicit learners once again evidenced better integration of elements into discourse than was observed for the implicit group. And after only 50 minutes of instruction, Tateyama et al. (1997) found that beginning learners' of Japanese as a foreign language role-play performance benefited more when they were provided with metapragmatic information on the various functions of *sumimasen* than when they were not.

Despite the general trend noted in support of explicit instruction,

it was not the case that every study comparing two (or more) approaches to instruction found that provision of metapragmatic information produced better results. Kubota's (1995) replication of Bouton's study on implicature comprehension actually found that learners in an implicit group outperformed those in an explicit group, although by the time of a delayed posttest these differences had disappeared. However, in Kubota's study there was 20-min worth of treatment in a 2-h class which was also used for administering the pre- and posttests, and the use of items on the pretest and posttest were part of the treatment. Studies by Fukuya et al. (1998) and Fukuya and Clark (2001) were inconclusive − posttests revealed no significant differences across treatment groups in the use of the target features. In both cases, the authors appealed to length of treatment as an explanation for the failure to find instructional effects, and Fukuya et al. (1998) even noted trends across groups which might indicate that the instruction was beginning to have an effect.

Although some studies have produced impressive results even with short periods of instruction (Tateyama et al., 1997), there is no doubt a complex relationship between length of instruction, learner proficiency level, and difficulty of learning targets that must be considered in assessing the effects of length of instruction on pragmatic learning. In addition to studies which produced inconclusive results, there were also cases in which certain aspects of the target language proved resistant to instruction. House (1996) found that even though learners in her explicit group had made considerable progress in incorporating pragmatic routines and discourse strategies into role-play interaction, they continued to evidence negative transfer from German, for example, in reliance on content-oriented and self-referenced gambits instead of interpersonal gambits, overuse of yes in various interactional slots surrounding turn-taking, and especially problems in producing well-aligned responding turns. These lingering problems are reminiscent of those noted by Liddicoat & Crozet (2001) and Yoshimi (2001), both of whom also found that learners had difficulty incorporating some target features into online interaction. Once again, the explanation for these

problems is likely to be limitations in control of processing (Bialystok, 1993). It is fair to say that studies comparing different instructional approaches, despite some seemingly contradictory findings, provide considerable support for the value of explicit instruction (and thus the noticing hypothesis).

4.4 Classroom Implications

Barron (2005: 531) maintains that the links between language and identity are often too strong. As Kachru and Nelson (1996: 89) put it:

> If a typical American has no wish to speak like or be labelled as a British user of English, why should a Nigerian, an Indian, or a Singaporean user feel any differently?... In any case, most learners of English in Outer Circle and Expanding Circle contexts never have any serious contact with an Inner Circle speaker…..

English does not represent a special case here. Rather, the same can be said of Outer Circle learners of most languages – where the adoption of L2 speech patterns goes against once identity, these patterns are not likely to be adopted. In other words, learners may see their own language use patterns as part of their identity and so be unwilling to adopt different L2 practices (Barron, 2003; Siegal, 1995, 1996). Variational pragmatics research should, therefore, not be seen as placing unrealistic demands on learners since such research is not meant to provide numerous norms for L2 learners. Rather, it is suggested that a variational perspective be taken in the classroom context to promote an awareness of variation in pragmatic conventions.

One particular L2 model of language use may well be chosen for the classroom. However, learners can be made aware that the chosen variety is only one possibility and that macro-social factors will influence language use conventions. In this way, learners can be equipped with sensitivity towards variation. They can be taught to assume an emic perspective and learn not to judge other's language use using their own conventions. Indeed, given the well established fact that pragmatic failure is a prominent feature of intercultural communication, developing an awareness of different conventions of language use and a strategic competence to solve

communication difficulties seems to be the only solution worthy of suggestion. As Wolfram and Schilling-Estes (1998: 89) put it: "Certainly, there are many shared language use conventions across varieties of American English, but there are also important differences among groups that can lead to significant misunderstandings across regional and social dialects…"

Equipping learners with a recognition that variation exists within one language furnishes them with an appreciation, expectance and acceptance for differences in language use norms within cultures (Kachru & Nelson, 1996, pp. 95–96). Kachru and Nelson (1996: 97) give some examples of 'hand-on experience' exercises designed to examine variation in discourse patterns across region. They suggest tasks such as the identification and discussion of conversational discourse markers in fiction or the comparison of obituary notices in American, British, and Outer Circle newspapers. It is suggested that the parameters of intra-lingual variation highlighted above may be used as a general guideline for possible classroom tasks.

It is conceivable, for instance, that learners might be set to do Weld work and collect intra-lingual data. This could be analyzed on the level of the type and frequencies of the strategies employed or indeed on the level of the type and frequencies of the external or internal modification used. Alternatively, film, or indeed, literature represents suitable data to analyze using a variety of such parameters (Rose, 2001).

5. Supporting experience for the importance of pragmatics

Since adults can report their understandings much more readily than children, it ought to be possible to examine the role of noticing and understanding in the development of pragmatic ability by adult second language learners directly, by asking learners to report their experiences. Even so, the relevant data are difficult to obtain, requiring both a sound methodology for eliciting self-report (Faerch & Kasper, 1987) and opportunities to catch learners in the

actual process of learning, rather than simply performing their current competence.

Anecdotally, there is evidence for a relationship between what learners notice and understand about pragmatics and discourse and what is learned. The following four examples are from Schmidt (1993:29-30)'s experience, either as a language learner or from interacting in English with second language speakers with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

(1) In the course of a 22-week stay in Brazil, during which he progressed from no proficiency at all in Portuguese to the S-2 level on the FSI scale (Schmidt & Frota: 1986), he kept a language learners' diary. Several entries illustrate the phenomenon of being told about some aspect of the pragmatics of Brazilian Portuguese in class and then almost immediately noticing it in input.

(2) He noted in their diary several times the difficulties he had with telephone conversations, especially in knowing when and how to end a conversation (Schmidt & Frota, 1986, 276). He knew that with friends the closing move would be for both parties to say *ciao*, but he could never identify the point at which he could say it, so he would often stand holding the phone waiting patiently for the other person to say it first. Finally, during the last week of his stay, a friend came to my apartment and used his telephone to make several calls. I listened carefully, and noticed that in two successive calls, shortly before saying *ciao*, his friend said the phrase *então tá*, which means no more than "so, then." Suspecting that this might be a preclosing formula, he immediately called another friend and after a few minutes of talk, said *então tá*, paused briefly and plunged ahead with *ciao* in the same turn. It worked, and after that he had no trouble at all getting off the phone efficiently.

(3) Midway through his stay in Brazil, he took a trip to another city for several days, and later wanted to send postcards to people he had met there. He wrote a few cards, and then asked a native speaker to rewrite one for him. He noticed that he began rephrasing his message with the expression *E aí, como estão?* ("So, how are you?"), so he did the same with each subsequent card. A week after sending the cards, he got a call from one of the recipients

who began the conversation by commenting that his Portuguese must be improving rapidly, given the colloquially appropriate style of his postcard.

(4) On the first day of a 2-week trip to Thailand, he presented a paper at the end of the day at a national conference. After lecture, several Thais with whom he would be working for the following week approached him and made some brief remarks in English and then slipped away. He found himself standing by himself much quicker than he expected, and had the unsettling feeling that his talk must have been very poorly received. He returned to his hotel feeling quite depressed about this. That evening, he looked over some materials that he had collected during the day, including an article by Sukwiwat and Fieg (1987) on greeting and leave-taking in Thai. Sukwiwat and Fieg (1987) pointed out that conversations are closed quickly in Thai but tend to be drawn gradually to a close in English, so that Americans are often taken aback by what appear to be abrupt and sometimes rude departures. Thais, on the other hand, think that American leave-takings drag on excessively and involve unnecessary verbiage. He immediately realized that he might have misinterpreted the significance of what had happened earlier. For the remainder of his stay, he tried my best to beat the Thais at their own game by closing conversations faster than they could, for example, by suddenly announcing, "well, he's leaving now." He never succeeded in getting away faster than they did, but his disquiet at this aspect of Thai behavior evaporated. Like these examples, pragmatics can be said to be essential in language learning, supporting that the importance of teaching pragmatics in SLA area.

5. Conclusion

To second language learners, pragmatic knowledge of second language is essential when they actually use it. However, it is hard for second language learners to use their second language in the right way based on pragmatics because of the traits of pragmatic transfer and pragmatic over generalization. Thus, the importance of teaching second language learning centered around

pragmatic concerns. Based on results from the studies carried out to date, it is possible to come to some tentative conclusions regarding the effects of instruction in second language pragmatics. First, there is considerable evidence indicating that a range of features of second language pragmatics are teachable. These include a variety of discoursal, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic targets of instruction, such as discourse markers and strategies, pragmatic routines, speech acts, overall discourse characteristics, and pragmatic comprehension. Second, it appears that learners who receive instruction are better than those who do not. Of course, given an environment which affords ample opportunity for exposure to and meaningful use of the target language, learners can acquire some, perhaps many, features of pragmatics without instruction. That is, instruction is not necessary for each and every pragmatic learning object in the sense that it cannot be learned without instruction. However, the fact that instructed learners outpaced their uninstructed counterparts indicates that pedagogical intervention has at least an important facilitative role, which is especially good news for learners in foreign language contexts. This overall outcome of studies on the effect of instruction is in complete agreement with research showing that without instruction in pragmatics, learners do not achieve sufficient ability in a range of pragmatic areas (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

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The Role of Cognitive Linguistics in Language Teaching

Stephen P. van Vlack

There is a very common war cry which one often hears in South Korea in relation to the teaching of English, "We need a new paradigm". This cry comes from acute frustration and the realization that whatever we are doing to teach English here the results simply do not match the amount of time and effort invested in this seemingly endless and often pointless endeavor. Clearly, something is wrong. In fact, something is so wrong that problems in English education have been bewailed by not only teachers and professional researchers in the area of foreign language acquisition, but also by the learners themselves as well as other interested parties such as the caregivers of younger learners, for example. We don't even need to go into the guilty feelings that teachers often have to deal with as part of the challenge involved with being an English-language professional in South Korea. So, there is a high level of awareness of this of this very general problem and of course awareness is the first stage in any kind of cognitive endeavor. Awareness alone, if not effectively nurtured and developed, however, amounts to absolutely nothing.

It is interesting to note that despite so many voices deploring the English-language education system in South Korea, no one has come up with this elusive new paradigm yet. In fact, proposals for the enhanced efficacy of English-language education here have been halfhearted to say the least and half-baked for the most part. Ten days or less in a so-called immersion center, fun though it may be, is not going to have a lasting change on the cognitive landscape of a learner. Half-heartedly asking teachers to implement new approaches that do not match the test that inevitably follows leads to nothing. It is true, we do need a new paradigm. To establish this new paradigm, though, we need to start looking not at the very surface of language education

for quick fixes but at its deepest roots – language itself.

It may seem blindingly obvious to assert that the key to good language teaching is a fundamental understanding of language, but this seems not to be the case in practice. The sad reality is that teachers of English in South Korea on average have no clear idea about language itself, and worse yet, do not feel any reason why they should develop such knowledge. In fact they shy away from it because it seems hard. Ultimately teachers are no different than their students. They both want simple techniques that work but are not necessarily worried about why or how these things might work. They both want to be lead to the pasture the quickest way possible but all too often do not want to invest valuable time in finding out how to get there by themselves or what the repercussions of such a journey might be. And one wonders why we are in the midst of a so-called education crisis in South Korea.

As should hopefully be clear to the students who are actively involved in this program and fully avail of the unique interdisciplinary opportunities afforded them here, there are alternatives. One of these alternatives is to be found in the developing field of Cognitive Linguistics. Cognitive Linguistics offers a new paradigm in the field of language which is readily and powerfully applicable to the field of applied linguistics we all hold so dear. The reason for the potential power of the cognitive linguistic approach is its focus on the integration, not separation, of language and other cognitive faculties. In effect, this program is modeled on the same idea – integration although this is a hard concept for many students to get because it is their first exposure. Current educational mores, the educational system we grew up in and further inflict on our students, are based upon a divide and conquer model. This divide and conquer model is pervasive in all we do including not only the way we teach (and test) but also in the way we think about teaching and testing. Unfortunately it is wrong and has lead us down a garden path of despair. In order to offset many of these long-standing difficulties this new paradigm needs to start with the concept of integration, integration not only between language and other aspects of cognition but also within the area of language itself as well as across varying linguistic systems.

Only the field of cognitive linguistics offers these integrative possibilities and this is basically how it works. At the very basis of cognitive linguistics is the idea the linguistic system is not only no different than other cognitive systems but is actually interrelated with and inter-reliant on these cognitive systems. Thus, at the basis of language is the cognitive system of perception - this includes perception through five different routes. Each of these different perceptual systems is important although we probably think of auditory information as being the most important (at least for hearing people). The important thing is not just perceptual routes but what comes from perception and how these variant systems are built and integrated. From the seemingly simple system of how we perceive the world around us all complex thought is developed and this thought is encapsulated and reflected in language. In effect, there is no way to separate language from perception. You can't build a linguistic system without perception, yet this is basically what school language learning is all about. We endeavor to separate students from the world so that they can learn more efficiently yet all learning must be mediated through the world and how we perceive the world efficient or not.

A simple example within the realm of cognitive linguistics would be that of word meaning. As with everything else related to cognition and the brain, word meaning is not a fixed entity but is rather flexible, determined not by any fixed dictionary like entry but by connections to a vast array of various and ever-changing information of very different types. There may be images which provide part of the meaning. There may be other words which help fine-tune the meaning. Certainly, there are also specific instances of when and where the word was encountered which also help provide the meaning. In effect language is situationally-based because this is the only way that the brain is able to process this type of information. Extracting language from the situation of its use renders language in and of itself totally ambiguous, yet this is our goal in the classroom and this dooms us to failure as language teachers as well as language users.

Words are not benign or numb reflections of sound, but rather reflect our experience and thoughts about the world around us. Words encapsulate our beliefs about the world. Thus, when a Korean sees a European-looking

individual and rushes to point this person out to their children uttering in a flurry of excitement, "미국사람" does this mean that this person believes all European-looking individuals are from the USA? Well, yes. This simple utterance reflects their experience in the world or rather their perception of their experience in the world. The words we use do reflect directly our thoughts which beg the question, well, then, how we supposed to learn words in a new language? The simple answer is through exposure, meaningful exposure.

In the cognitive linguistic model there is no fundamental difference between how a first language and a second language or third or fourth language, for that matter, is actually learned or used. The only difference is that there is a pre-existing and, in most cases, entrenched linguistic system or systems already present. The presence of this entrenched linguistic system or systems has profound effects on how any new system will be learned and used, regardless of what the teacher thinks she is doing. Since language is at times a direct reflection of thought and the dominant language is the mechanism for thought then the underlying connections supporting the developing new language are going to come from that dominant language. This is simply how the brain works. If we don't get beyond this students will ever learn the new language to an acceptable degree which allows them to actually use it with any degree of acceptability. Not surprisingly, this should sound exactly like the stage most of our students are at regarding their English-language learning. Most of our students, if not ourselves, are stuck at a point (fossilized, to use the more technical term) where they can't use the target language effectively because they have no idea how to actually use it and weak cognitive mechanisms for doing so.

It is on this issue that the theory of cognitive linguistics really shines. One of the central assertions of cognitive linguistics is that meaning is the most important element in language. Structure, in this view, comes from lexis primarily and is designed to create and support intended meanings. Once more, it should be obvious that within the cognitive linguistic system different languages manufacture meaning in sometimes fundamentally different ways. Any bilingual person, and that includes virtually everyone

reading this article, has certainly accrued experiences in which it is blatantly clear that the same ideas, actions, and situations are rendered in sometimes vastly different ways in different languages. This reflects different thought processes as they are encapsulated and entrenched within different languages. The simple lesson to be learned from this is that separating structure from meaning is counterproductive. The true linguistic system, as reflected and tempered by the structure of the brain, is not chopped into tiny bite-size pieces which can be learned separately and also tested as such. This leads us to a further problem with current popular linguistic models.

Language may be finite in the specific units it employs, but thought and meaning for human beings is infinite and this is the very definition of what it means to be human. We, therefore, have a problem. Language cannot be fixed and this does not simply mean syntax as generative linguists would lead you to believe. No aspect of language is fixed in the brain. It is all in a constant state of flux because the world is in a constant state of flux both internally and externally. Thoughts are constantly born, altered, and killed. New meanings for pre-existing notions are developed every nanosecond. Like a lightning strike, no two thoughts – no two instances of language use are ever exactly the same. The nature of language must reflect this overall transitivity in its own state and we need to teach language as such because that is the defining nature of language. Yet, we as English teachers deal with language like a fixed entity and wonder why our students do not understand much of what they are exposed to. The repercussions of this new view of language cannot be overestimated.

Under the auspices of the cognitive linguistic approach we need to begin to question the notion of a language speaker and what this actually means. Korean speakers, possibly more than other language speakers across the world, possibly due to the false belief in their own monolinguality, are transfixed by the idea of native speaker superiority and infallibility. This is a false idea developed from predominantly monolingual English speakers but cognitive linguists and bilingual researchers know better. There is no native speaker norm because norms from a rule-based point of view simply do not exist in language. Native speakers, just like non-native speakers, show

tendencies in all aspects of linguistic endeavor accrued from the world around them (where else, certainly not the highly impoverished vacuous environment of the traditional classroom). There is no rule to say which one is right and the other is wrong. Different uses of language can only be measured according to societal norms in specific situations and again this applies to all levels of language, from phonemes up to discourse. Acceptable language use is only measured against norms, but it is the ability to defy the norms - to extend away from them in a cognitively acceptable manner which defines an intelligent person and a high level language user. These are the skills we need to ultimately endow our students with. There are no absolutes in language and to pretend there are is a fundamental mistake and our students ultimately pay the price. The more fixed the system the more limited it is going to be, wholly unlike a true human linguistic system and more like an animalistic system of communication. By fixing and limiting the system as we often do as teachers (in fact for some teachers this is their ultimate goal) we are limiting our students to a communication system more like that of bees and that of humans. This is the paradigm of language teaching which should be avoided at all costs.

The new paradigm must begin from the very basis of what we are doing, the parts of teaching most of us have purposefully chosen to avoid – the issue of what language is. For it is only when we understand the true nature of language as defined by the brain and not by linguists working with an outdated two thousand year-old model that we can begin to meet the challenges that modern society has foisted upon us. Luckily for us there is a new paradigm already in existence – the cognitive linguistic model. It remains only for us to embrace this model and begin to apply it across the curriculum.

Native-like Mode Selection of the Korean EFL Learners: A Comparative Analysis of the Spoken and Written English by Using Lexical Features[1]

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The purpose of this research is to compare the distribution of lexical features in the spoken and written English of Korean and British university students and to assess the native-like English proficiency of the Korean learners. Forty-two Korean and British students (21 per group) participated in this study and undertook the same spoken and written tasks involving descriptive narratives. Approximately 32,000 words of English data were subsequently examined in terms of the frequency of 11 lexical features using the Oxford WordSmith Tools 4.0 software and also by manual investigation. The findings showed that the Korean students used most of the lexical features analysed inappropriately between speech and writing. Indeed, it is suggested that they struggle to develop native-like mode selection between speech and writing in English.

1. Introduction and Background

Pawley and Syder (1983, p. 191) state that *native-like selection* is the ability of native speakers to convey their meaning by selecting an expression that is not only grammatical but also natural and idiomatic to native speakers' ears.

This is not a matter of syntactic rules alone, nor of the complexity of the text, since even grammatically correct sentences can be non-native-like or highly marked (or typologically less frequent). The notion of native-like selection is usually applied to the choice of individual linguistic items or expressions. Still, it can be used as a metaphor to explain using linguistic features in the appropriate mode of language.

It has been generally accepted that written and spoken modes of language tend to show certain characteristic features, but that wide linguistic variations also occur, depending on text types and genres (see Biber, 1988; Hughes, 1996; McCarthy, 2001). In the same vein, there is no clear boundary between native-like and non-native-like mode choice between speech and writing (see Pawley & Syder, 1983). However, just as not all possible utterances of English are actually suitable for use, not all of them are as appropriate for frequent use in speech as in writing (or vice versa) in an English-speaking community (Lewis, 1997).

In terms of pedagogic implications on the relationship between spoken and written English, it has been suggested that language learners assimilate, differentiate and appropriately integrate spoken and written language as they improve their language skills (Kantor & Rubin, 1981; Kroll, 1981; Vann, 1981). From a slightly different point of view, Pawley and Syder (1983) state that, even after achieving a certain level of English proficiency in speech and writing, learners are likely to have more difficulty in selecting appropriate *lexical items* than in constructing grammatically appropriate sentences according to a given context.

Lexical features are the words used for expressing and encoding ideas within sentences (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999; Hughes, 1996; O'Grady, Archibald, Aronoff & Rees-Miller, 2001; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985; Wales, 2001). The total number of words or specified lexical categories (e.g., adjectives, adverbs, prepositions) was assessed to investigate the lexical characteristics of data in previous studies (e.g., Tannen, 1982; Beaman, 1984).[2] For example, when the text

includes a high number of occurrences of adverbs and adjectives, it is said to infer that the information is rich and is presented in detail.

On the basis of the above notions, this research was designed to compare the spoken and written English of the Korean and the British students and to measure the native-like English competence of the Korean English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner. The specific objectives of this research are:

1. To compare the spoken and written English of the Korean and the British university students with respect to the occurrences of lexical features.

2. To examine the extent to which Korean speakers are able to differentiate appropriately between spoken and written English, as native English speakers do.

2. Data Collection

The aims of the data collection procedures were to ensure the 'averageness' of informants; the appropriateness of tasks for collecting data; and the comparability of the spoken and the written data.

2.1 Tasks Used to Collect the Data

In order to collect data, four tasks were chosen from the spoken tasks of Sookmyung Women's University-Multimedia Assisted Test of English (SMU-MATE, hereafter MATE). MATE is a selection of spoken and written English tests, which was developed and is currently administered by Sookmyung Women's University in Seoul, Korea. MATE was specially used as it is a standardised spoken and written English proficiency test consisting of different topics and levels of difficulty of English. In addition, MATE is designed to reflect the EFL context of Korea. Thus, it was anticipated that this would reduce any possible tension the Korean participants might feel while undertaking the tasks.

The tasks used for the data collection were arranged to increase in difficulty and each task contained at least one picture to prompt a descriptive

narrative. The key directions for each task were as follows.

Task   1.   Describe the girl in the picture.

Task   2.   Describe the daily routine of a drama writer according to the six given pictures.

Task   3.   Describe the event based on the six pictures provided.

Task   4.   Explain the graph.

The time allocations to complete the tasks followed those given in the MATE test (see van Vlack, 2002a). Thus, the same thinking and response times of the MATE speaking tasks were applied to the speaking in this research (see Table 1). When the tasks were used again for writing, these time allocations were not used. Instead, the participants were given 40 minutes altogether to carry out the four tasks. This time limit was chosen because the moderate level MATE writing tasks are designed to be completed in 10 minutes each (see van Vlack, 2002b).

Table 1

Time Allocations in Tasks

	Speaking (Preparation/response)	*Writing*
Task 1	15 seconds/75 seconds	Total
Task 2	20 seconds/60 seconds	40 minutes
Task 3	20 seconds/80 seconds	
Task 4	20 seconds/ 60 seconds	

2.2 Participants

For the Korean participants, the 21 students at Sookmyung Women's University in Seoul who were chosen through the MATE speaking test and the survey were considered to be representative of Korean female university students, with average English competence and educational backgrounds.[3] They were aged between 20 and 23, and were studying various arts or science

subjects at undergraduate level. At the time of data collection, they were in their third- or fourth-year in university.[4]

The British participants were chosen to be equivalent to the Koreans in terms of age and educational background. As a result, 21 British female university students participated in this research. At the time of data collection, they were in their second year of undergraduate study at the University of Manchester, UK.[5] They were aged between 20 and 22 years old and were also studying a range of arts and science subjects. For the British participants, no pre-assessment of their speech or writing was carried out.

2.3 Collecting Data

The text type of the data to be collected was purely descriptive narrative. The data are linguistically comparable since the text type occurs in both modes of language. The participants carried out the prepared tasks for producing speech and writing in English. They conducted the tasks twice: first for speaking and later for writing, with a three-week interval between the two sessions.

3. **Retrieval Tools and Frequency Counting**

The participants' speech was transcribed and their written texts were typed up, producing analysable spoken discourses and written texts, as Table 2 shows

Table 2

Number of Words in the Spoken and Written Data

Words in English of Korean Participants		Words in English of British Participants	
Speech	6,430	Speech	8,047
Writing	7,116	Writing	10,698
Total	13,546	Total	18,745
Total Spoken and Written Data: 32,291 words			

In total, 32,291 words of spoken and written data were collected. The number of words in the spoken and written English of Korean and British participants varied. For this reason, in this study, the analysis of the frequencies of linguistic features was undertaken through a proportional approach (which will be explained below).

To compare the distributions of the linguistic features used by two groups of participants, this research employed a combination of computational analysis and manual investigation, using the *Oxford WordSmith Tools* 4.0 software. Through the process of the automatic and manual investigations, the frequencies of the linguistic features in the data were established. Due to the different total number of words in the speech and writing of the two groups of participants, a frequency index per 1,000 words was used for this study (cf. Beaman, 1984; Biber, 1988). The frequency index was calculated by dividing the actual number of occurrences of a linguistic feature by the total number of words in each text and multiplying by 1,000:[6]

actual number of occurrences of a linguistic feature
-- X 1,000 = frequency index
                    total number of words

4. Distribution of Lexical Features

In this section, the comparative analysis of the spoken and written English of the Korean and the British students are presented according to the occurrences of 11 lexical features.

4.1 Adjectives
Adjectives are classified as attributive and predicative. Most adjectives can be used in both ways, such as "*a fine day*" or "*the day is fine*", but some are used in one way only (e.g. *his efforts ended in utter failure; she is afraid of dying*) (Chalker & Weiner, 1998).

Table 3

Frequency Indices of Adjectives (per 1,000 words)

	Korean		British	
	Speaking	Writing	Speaking	Writing
Attributive adjectives	57.39	63.80	66.98	68.89
Predicative adjectives	20.68	21.50	14.04	13.46

Although predicative and attributive adjectives serve similar roles in the text, their distributions were found to be dissimilar. Firstly, it is noticeable that overall occurrences of predicative adjectives are much lower (approximately one third to one fifth) than those of attributive adjectives in the data. Secondly, unlike attributive adjectives, the Korean students used more predicative adjectives than the British students.

Comparing speech and writing overall in the data, both attributive and predicative adjectives occur approximately the same number of times in the two modes. However, the Korean students used predicative adjectives slightly more often in their speech, whereas their British counterparts used the features a little more often in their writing. Due to the negligible differences in frequency of occurrence, still, it can be argued that the frequency of predicative adjectives, like that of attributive adjectives, is not significantly determined by the mode of language.

4.2 Adverbs

In this study, all adverbs were collectively identified. However, 'specialised' adverbs classes were separately analysed in the next section, following Biber's study (1988).

Table 4

Frequency Indices of Adverbs (per 1,000 words)

	Korean		British	
	Speaking	Writing	Speaking	Writing
Adverbs	10.89	20.52	31.94	33.00

Table 4 shows that the British students used a higher number of adverbs than the Korean students. This is particularly noticeable in speech, where the native English speakers used the adverbs approximately 3 times more often than their Korean counterparts. This suggests that not only the frequencies but also the variety of adverbs used by the Korean participants may be reduced compared with language of the British participants. On the other hand, both groups of students used adverbs more frequently in their writing than in speech. The difference in occurrences between spoken and written English of the British participants is relatively narrow. However, the Korean participants used adverbs about twice as often in their writing as in their speech. This is consistent with the findings that attributive and predicative adjectives occur more often in their writing than in their speech (see Table 3). It seems that the Korean students may be less able to elaborate information proficiently when they speak than when they write in English.

4.3 Specialised Adverb Classes

Four types of specialised adverbs - downtoners, hedges, amplifiers and emphatics - are markers of probability or uncertainty (Biber, 1988). To a certain extent, however, their roles are different from each other: downtoners (e.g., *almost*, *nearly*) and hedges (e.g., *kind of*, *maybe*) express a lowering tendency, whereas amplifiers (e.g., *very*, *completely*) and emphatics (e.g., *really*, *just*) show a heightening effect on the information that is being presented. In addition, downtoners and amplifiers indicate a more specific degree of probability, while hedges and emphatics simply show probability in general (Biber, 1988; Quirk et al., 1985). These adverbial items are individually analysed in this research.

Table 5

Frequency Indices of Specialised Adverbs (per 1,000 words)

	Korean		British	
	Speaking	Writing	Speaking	Writing
Downtoners	0.78	0.70	1.49	2.70

Hedges	3.74	5.06	8.95	2.61
Amplifiers	6.69	4.49	1.87	2.71
Emphatics	1.56	2.66	7.08	2.98

In short, the Korean students distributed the four types of specialised adverbs inappropriately between speech and writing compared to the British students. The British students used the adverbs indicating precise certainty/uncertainty (downtoners and amplifiers) as features of writing, while using inexplicit expressions (hedges and emphatics) more in speech. By contrast, the Korean students used the explicit meaning of adverbs as spoken features, while using the less specific meaning of adverbs as written ones. This may simply reflect the lack of native-like English ability of the Korean learners. Alternatively, it may demonstrate that the learners' attitudes in expressing their opinions in speech and writing are different from those of the British students.

4.4 Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Quirk et al. (1985) divide the modals into three groups according to their major functions: (a) those which show permission or possibility and ability, such as *can*, *could*, *may* and *might*; (b) those which show obligation or necessity, such as *must*, *have to*, *need*, *should* and *ought to*; and (c) those which show volition or prediction, including *will*, *would* and *shall* (p. 221). The present study adopts the same grouping of modal verbs.

Table 6

Frequency Indices of Modals (per 1,000 words)

	Korean		British	
	Speaking	Writing	Speaking	Writing
Possibility modals	1.71	5.20	3.73	3.18
Necessity modals	0.31	0	0.37	1.03
Predictive modals	0.32	2.25	1.62	2.42

Possibility modals are more likely to be found in spoken language,

since written language tends to include more precise and more positive information (Biber, 1988; Chafe, 1982). Table 6 demonstrates that the speech and writing of the British students confirm this notion, although the difference between their two modes of English is small. However, the distribution of possibility modals in the English of the Korean participants is in sharp contrast, showing much higher frequencies in their writing than in their speech. This indicates that, unlike the British students, the Korean students were inclined to present written information by adding an assessment of its possibility. This may mirror their attitudes towards presenting opinions. In Korean society, when someone expresses an opinion in a forceful manner, others often consider the person arrogant. Thus, Korean people prefer using more modest or humble forms of expressions. Presumably, this is why the Korean students use the possibility modals considerably more in their writing, where idea presentation is generally more carefully carried out than in speaking.

The total occurrences of necessity modals are very low across the data. In fact, there is no evidence of these items in the written text of the Korean participants. This may have resulted in the Korean students avoiding the use of necessity modals, which deliver information in a too uncompromising manner. By contrast, the British students used this type of modal verb more often in their writing than in their speech. This can also be related to the findings concerning the less frequent use of possibility modals in their writing; the British participants are likely to use precise expressions more frequently in their writing than in their speech.

Unlike possibility and necessity modals, the Korean participants used predictive modals between the modes of language in a similar manner to their British counterparts. Thus, both groups of students used these items more frequently in their writing than in their speech, although the occurrences in the speech of the Korean participants are very low.

4.5 Prepositional Phrases
In the present analysis, a list of 38 prepositions used by Biber (1988, pp. 236-

7) was investigated and 27 were found in prepositional phrases in the data:

Table 7

Frequency Indices of Prepositional Phrases (per 1,000 words)

| | Korean | | British | |
	Speaking	Writing	Speaking	Writing
Prepositional phrases	69.67	92.89	94.32	114.97

The overall frequency of occurrence of prepositional phrases is higher in the English of the British participants than in that of the Korean participants. However, both groups of students used this feature more often in their written texts than in speech. According to Biber (1988) and Chafe (1982), prepositional phrases are used as a device for integration and expansion of ideas in text. In this sense, the written texts of the participants are likely to convey more integrated and specified information than their spoken equivalents. In the same way, it seems that the English of the Korean learners includes less tightly bound discourse, compared to that of the British students.

5. Conclusions

This study has shown that among the 11 lexical features analysed, the Korean students inappropriately used 7 features between speech and writing compared to the British students. This inappropriate language mode selection implies that even after Korean students have acquired a linguistic knowledge of English, they have difficulty in distributing lexical features in a native-like way between speech and writing. Native speakers' judgments of the naturalness of language are partly determined by 'familiarity', which plays an important role in native-like selection (Pawley & Syder, 1983). Native language users know which grammatical sentences will sound unnatural in certain contexts; know which will be used more often or more appropriately in speech than in writing, and vice versa.

Concerning this, Skehan (1998) states that "native speakers are sensitive to the choices which are currently being made within a speech community" (p. 39). In other words, the language use of native language speakers is processed at any given time within a socially acceptable and familiar scope of language. Foreign language learners, on the other hand, develop language choices mostly through institutionalised learning. Thus, even after they have developed a certain language proficiency, native-like (mode) selection is hardly ever fully achieved. From this perspective, Nunan (2003, p. 608) states that in order to achieve competence in a target language, learners need to be exposed to and interact appropriately with the language. Therefore, Korean EFL learners' exposure to current and authentically used English is a significant factor in developing native-like English skills in speech and writing.

Notes

1. This article is based on the research conducted for doctoral dissertation, *Measuring Korean EFL Learners' Proficiency: A Comparative Analysis of the Spoken and Written English of Korean and British Students* (2007, University of Manchester, UK).

2. Although a range of studies comparing speech with writing have been conducted in terms of the 'lexical characteristics', there is no comprehensive and clear definition of them (e.g., Beaman, 1984; Biber, 1988; Blass & Siegman, 1975; Chafe, 1982; Poole & Field, 1976).

3. The 21 Korean participants attained the label 'Moderate High', which statistics show that a total of 42.7% Korean MATE takers were at this level as of May 2004 (SMU-MATE, 2004).

4. University in Korea usually consists of eight semesters in four years (or four semesters in two years of vocational college).

5. Most British university education consists of six semesters in three years.

6. For instance, possibility modals occurred 37 times in the writing of the Korean participants and the total number of words in the texts was 7,116; therefore, the frequency index of the features was:

$$\frac{37}{7{,}116} \times 1{,}000 = 5.20$$

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Some Tips for Thesis People

Song Su young

TESOL 5th semester

First of all, I want to say congratulations to everyone who is expecting to graduate this summer. During the last semester we have had a lot of new experiences through our thesis and practicum projects. I am sure that from our experiences we can give good advice for the students who are going to start their thesis and practicum projects in coming semester. I feel very honored to write some tips for the students who are preparing for their thesis. When I began to write my thesis I felt I was in a tunnel that had no exit. I did not know what to write in each section such as abstract, introduction, literature review, methodology, implication, etc. However, now I can tell you there is an exit and all of you will be able to navigate the tunnel successfully. I hope my tips will guide you to the bright exit at the end of the tunnel.

First, search for as many references as possible. Google and Yahoo provide links to free resources and also main libraries have free E-resources such as databases (one of the useful databases is ProQuest Education Journals) and e-journals. For example, if you have journal articles that you want to read, then visit e-journals section in a main library website and then find out if they have what you want. If they do, you can read it on the computer or print it out. However, if they do not have the article do not be disappointed because there is another solution which is "상호대차". You can buy the article through this service. If you visit the Sookmyung University main library web site you can find a "services" section where "상호대차" is available.

(http://lib.sookmyung.ac.kr/dlsearch/TGUI/Theme/theme1/main.asp) You can apply to get the article by filling in a form with title of article, journal name, volume number, and page number. In a few days they will send you a text message when they get it, then go to the main library and take it. They will charge you a little for it.

Second, I would like to say that do not delay writing. Just write

anything and show it to your advisor. Some of you might think you want to write after you decide what to write and after you find all the references. Also, you might misunderstand that after you arrange your thoughts and ideas beautifully writing should be started. If it is possible, you don't have to revise your writing, but unfortunately this is almost impossible and revising is a part of writing. In my case, when I started to write I came up with what to write and then arranged my ideas. Also the writing can help your advisor understand your intentions and find out which areas are problematic. They can then guide you more effectively than when you try to explain your thoughts orally.

Third, keep in touch with other students who are also writing theses and talk together about your progress. Many students confessed that when they talked about their thesis to somebody else they felt their idea became clear. Listening to the other's progress is also useful because the advice you are giving to your friends could be applied to your thesis. You can also ask for help from the students who have already experienced writing their thesis. I asked an alumna to check my writing and her advice was very helpful.

Whenever I meet fifth semester students they say they envy me, but in fact I envy them. When my thesis was almost finished and I had passed the thesis defense I literally felt like jumping for joy. This moment has gone for me in the MA course, but you have yet to experience this fantastic moment. Therefore, please enjoy this terrific chance and do not even think that you cannot make it. You have wonderful advisors and friends. I really want to hear your success stories in the future!

Big Siblings in the Language Classroom: Graduate Teaching Assistants as Group Facilitators in a Task-based Speaking Program

David Kim

5th semester

I. Action Research Project

In the Practicum option for the final semester of the master's program at Sookmyung Women's University Graduate School of TESOL, graduate students took part in teaching in the General English Program I for undergraduate students of Sookmyung Women's University. Each graduate student was designated as a "big sibling" responsible for two assigned undergraduate students, "little sisters", in which big siblings functioned as teaching assistants, specifically, as group facilitators during in-class instruction lead, on a rotational basis, by two graduate students. In this teaching environment, the interest was in finding out if having big siblings had any effect and what those effects were on the learners and the learning environment.

II. Instrumentation

A questionnaire and observation were conducted on two types of classroom instruction: 14 students in a big sibling-guided General English Program I course (BS-GEP) and approximately 90 students in four individual instructor-lead General English Program I courses by four members of Sookmyung Women's University faculty (NBS-GEP). Surveys were done at two different time periods, during the initial weeks and towards the end of the courses. Observations were in the form of a direct participant throughout the BS-GEP

course and observation-only in NBS-GEP courses at the time of conducting questionnaires.

III. Findings

While quantitative data from the questionnaire were found to be inconclusive, in that there were no significant differences, qualitative data gathered during observation leads to group facilitators, the big siblings, having the following effects:

a) Minimize use of first language (L1) in the foreign language (L2) classroom.

b) Sustain students on task completion

c) Exploit opportunity for L2 use by learners after task completion

IV. Further Study

Additional studies are found to be necessary. Restriction of variables such as lesson content and tasks may yield more conclusive evidence. For instance, a GEP instructor running two GEP I courses, one with big siblings and one without.

More questions were raised from this study, in the following areas:

1. What are the variables in small group dynamics and their effects? Due to the limitations of this study, identification and measurement of learner variables, such as prior experiences in small group work were not accounted for.

2. What are the effects of error correction as feedback? A majority of students answered in the questionnaire that they benefit from explicit error correction. As such, the interest here would be to conduct in-class error correction.

3. What are the effects of big siblings in a writing-based course? As this study was limited to the reading-based discussion class of GEP I, a similar type can be conducted in the writing-based presentation class of GEP II.

Investigation of Students' Interactions by Task Types in a Foreign Language Classroom

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This is a qualitative study that reviews the interaction and engagement of students in a language course in S University in Seoul, Korea. Subjects are enrolled in a general English class. The study focuses on the students' engagement rather than the teachers' role. It examines: 1) which task gets students to interact more, 2) how these interactions differ and, 3) what seems to affect the amount of interaction. The data were collected through direct observation and video recordings of 8 classes and the recorded tasks were analyzed based on Ellis' (2003) task design criteria. The results show that providing target content vocabulary as chunks and providing opportunities to interact with other group members can help students to interact more, when feel they lack vocabulary. Secondly, motivation can increase the amount of interaction. Thirdly, a strong supportive task designing factor can help students to engage even in difficult tasks.

A Case Study of Teacher Talk Types in Korean Elementary EFL Classrooms

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The 7th National English Curriculum is based on Communicative Language Teaching that asserts the importance of enhancing (basic) communication skills. In order to help achieve that goal, the SMOE and other local offices of Education have started to officially employ native English teachers. The most effective way of identifying that policy seems to be to analyze teacher talk, because teacher talk is directly related to teacher variables and it has a great influence on students' language learning.

The purposes of this study are 1) to investigate the differences and the similarities between the NNT-Only class and the co-teaching class, 2) to find out which type of class has more beneficial features in terms of communicative teacher talk. As an analyzing instrument, CLIA, which is adapted from FIAC and FLINT, is used.

According to the results, there were more differences than similarities. The similarities are usually related to input supporting teacher talk whereas the differences deal with interaction supporting teacher talk. Though the co-teaching class turned out to have more beneficial factors than the NNT-Only class, still both classes lacked the features regarding the communicative teacher talk. The results also showed the atmosphere in each class, the degree of rapport between the teacher(s) and students, and a limitation of the NNT-Only class.

To improve the effectiveness of the language classroom, regardless of whether it is NT or NNT, teachers need to be aware of how they use teacher talk. After that, they could improve their teacher talk skills by self-training or by taking official teacher training courses.

An Investigation of a Multimedia English Language Listening Program

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This paper presents a pilot study of a multimedia English listening program utilizing the Internet and hypermedia. The Internet and linked multimedia were used as the source of the program. The purpose of the program was to develop cognitive listening strategies such as listening for global understanding, details, taking notes, summarizing, self-monitoring and so forth. The study was conducted based on the evaluation of the program, in which twenty experienced English teachers took part.

To pursue this field of research, the study proposed three questions: (1) How does the program simulate an effective learning environment in order to achieve perceived users' goals; (2) How are the Internet and hypermedia integrated into the program; and (3) What are the strengths and weaknesses of the program. Through the program evaluation, the researcher tried to find out the participant's perceptions as well as how well the components were integrated. Based on the results, the researcher attempted to identify the factors that worked appropriately for improving the outcome and efficiency of the language instructional program.

The evaluation form used for the program was conducted in terms of two major components: background information of the participants and evaluation of the program. The evaluation form included 56 questions based on a 5–point scale, covering six major areas. In addition, there were five open-ended questions to find out how the program presented the contents and facilitated the users' learning appropriately. Participants were required to give ratings in terms of their level of agreement regarding the various components of the program.

The results concluded that the design environment and multimedia materials were supportive and identifiable which helped to make the program easily understandable and facilitative to the learning process. The suggested areas of improvement were as follows: providing more varied and appropriate feedback activities, stability of the program and simplicity in page design.

The Effect of Picture Walk on Reading Ability

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This thesis originated from the idea that reading ability can be enhanced with the use of reading strategies. Picture walk was selected as a reading strategy for young learners in this study. The purpose of the thesis is to find out if the picture walk affects students' (1) content comprehension, (2) word memory, and (3) word meaning recognition. This experiment was conducted over a three month period in forty-five minute classes that met once a week. The students were kindergarten children whose mean age is six years three months old. Fifteen students in the experimental group were given picture walk, whereas twenty students in the controlled group were not. That is to say, the picture walk group took picture walk and one read-aloud session and the non-picture walk group took two read-aloud sessions. During the picture walk, the teacher guided the student to examine pictures and predict using picture cues. The results revealed that picture walk was statistically more effective for content comprehension, word memory and word meaning recognition. Therefore, this study concluded that picture walk as a reading strategy could be an effective way to enhance reading comprehension, word memory, and learning word meaning, and English language teachers who teach especially young learners need to use picture walk in their read-aloud session.

An Extensive Reading Program with Middle School Student in Rural Korea

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This action research aims to help students in rural areas, who have relatively less exposure to the target language, develop positive attitudes towards reading English books and improve reading comprehension skills through the extensive reading program based on Day and Bamford (2000).

I would like to study and research following questions in order to achieve the goal. First, can students perceive improvement in reading comprehension skills and positive attitudes towards reading books in English as a result of using a reading log and story map? Second, can students perceive improvement in vocabulary after writing a vocabulary map while reading books in English?

I carried out the study using the 33 students (15 boys and 18 girls) of the First Year in Young Moon Middle School located in rural area in Yong-in, Gyeonggi province for four months from November 1, 2006 to February 28, 2007. Based on the pre-questionnaire, 100 varied books were provided for the experimental class in the classroom library. The students read books that they chose according to their level, reading at least a book in a week during lunch breaks or after school. They recorded each book the Reading Log, Story Map, and Vocabulary Map.

The result of the post-questionnaire confirmed that many students got interested in reading English books, they had positive attitudes toward reading English books, and they perceived the improvement of reading comprehension skills after the four-month extensive reading program. They wrote that they could read English materials for pleasure despite their low

proficiency. Consequently, students in rural schools could and did benefit from extensive reading program.

Corrective Feedback in EFL Classes:

Explicit vs. Implicit Feedback

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This study reviews previous studies of the effects of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on EFL classroom. It investigates the effects of two different types of corrective feedback on 10 Korean students' acquisition of simple tenses. The objective was to determine whether explicit or implicit feedback benefits learners more, if so, what better for learning tenses. To examine the effect of explicit feedback and implicit feedback, students were divided into two groups according to the type of feedback they received. One group of students received explicit feedback as a form of explicit correction, while the other group of students received implicit feedback as a form of recast. This study focuses on student uptake, repair, and long lasting modification. To measure the effectiveness of corrective feedback on the immediate uptake and repair, 46 hours of classes were videotaped or audio recorded, and transcribed. Also, to measure the effectiveness of corrective feedback on longer lasting modification, the pre- and the post-test were compared. As a result, for the immediate uptake and repair in class, explicit feedback in the form of explicit correction was better than implicit feedback. For the long lasting modification, however, implicit feedback in the form of recast was better than explicit feedback.