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Teaching Reading Strategies in an EFL High School Reading Classroom

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TESOL 3rd semester

The aim of this study is to clarify possible effects on learners' reading performance and reveal the differences in the process of learning reading strategies by EFL learners whose English proficiency levels differ. A sample of 30 Korean pupils aged 17 to 18 underwent a program of reading strategy instruction lasting two weeks. Measures were taken of reading comprehension before and after the intervention and results compared with a group of 30 students not receiving the intervention. Results suggest that strategy-based instructional intervention improved the EFL high school students' reading comprehension. This study also shows that reading proficiency level may determine the benefits of reading strategy training.

1. Introduction

Most students begin at the beginning of the chapter and read it sentence by sentence, if not word by word, from beginning to end. Some high-level students' decoding abilities are good enough that they can read chapters in their textbook from beginning to end. The problem, however, is that even many of those students do not understand well what they read, let alone remember the content of the chapter later. Many students tend to stumble on unfamiliar words and fail to grasp the general meaning of the passage. Nuttall (2005) identifies some factors in which texts can be difficult: the lack of previous knowledge, complexity of the concepts expressed, and vocabulary.

Brown (2001) also said that written language is more complex in that it has longer clauses and more subordination, and utilizes a greater variety of lexical items than spoken conversational English.

Good readers understand how to use reading strategies. Successful students learn how to read effectively and remember what they read. For instance, when reading a newspaper, these students have no difficulty scanning the pages quickly, and then slowing down to focus on one interesting article. They leap into reading, keep going, finish up, summarize and connect the new information to other knowledge they have acquired. On the other hand, others feel insecure and easily intimidated by complex material. They have never had to read difficult research materials. Such students have not learned to use a variety of reading strategies, but they think of themselves as dumb rather than untrained. As Rubin (1990, p. 282) points out, "Often poor learners don't have a clue as to how good learners arrive at their answers and feel they can never perform as good learners do. By revealing the process, this myth can be exposed." According to Pressley (2002), skilled reading involves fluent word recognition, but also much more. Good comprehenders are extremely active as they read, using a variety of comprehension strategies in an articulated fashion as they read challenging texts.

Building on work in first language strategic reading instruction (e.g. Dole et al., 1996; Palincsar and Brown, 1984), language and literacy educators have also become increasingly interested in examining the strategies which second language learners use in reading and the effects of related pedagogy on reading improvement. Researchers in second language (L2) context conducted studies that were aimed not only at uncovering possible reading strategies which learners used (e.g. Anderson, 1991; Block, 1986; Jimenez et al., 1996; Zhang, 2002), but also the effects of strategic reading instruction on reading improvement (Anderson, 1991; Anderson, 1999; Block, 1986; Carrell et al., 1989; Chamot et al., 1999; Cohen, 1998; Cotterall, 1990; Harris, 2003; Janzen and Stoller, 1998; Jimenez et al., 1996; Oxford, 2001; Wenden, 1991; Zhang, 2002).

A major outcome of the research into the strategies used by successful

language learners was the conclusion that learners should be taught not only the language but also the learning strategies they need. In studies on students learning to read in ESL, similar findings have been reported that point to the teachability of strategies that are within the control of these students by virtue of their metacognitive awareness of the cognitive resources available for use to enhance reading comprehension (Alexander, 1995; Brown and Palincsar, 1982; Loranger, 1997). Strategy instruction by various methods has been implemented in many countries (e.g., Ayaduray and Jacobs, 1997; Dreyer and Nel, 2003; Oxford et al., 1990).

The present study attempts to clarify whether the reading strategy instruction would lead to reading comprehension improvement. Also, this study examines the possible differences in the learning process of reading strategies during the instruction between EFL learners at a higher proficiency level and those at a lower level. For this purpose, the following research questions are posed:

- (1) Does strategy instruction enhance EFL high school students' reading proficiency?
- (2) What differences are to be found in the process of learning EFL reading strategies between higher and lower proficiency learners of EFL during strategy instruction?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical background to reading strategies

Reading strategies indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand (Block, 1986). They range from simple fix-up strategies such as simply rereading difficult segments and guessing the meaning of an unknown word from context, to more comprehensive strategies such as summarizing and relating what is being read to the reader's background knowledge (Janzen, 1996). The strategies have been the subject of considerable investigation over the last two decades. Stemming from the

research into the “good language learner” (Stern, 1975; Naiman, Frohlich, et al. 1978), they have been described as the “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

2.2 Strategy-based instruction in L1 & L2 situation

In recent years, as extensions of the studies on the differences between good and poor readers, a great deal of research in L1 and L2 fields has been conducted on reading strategy training. Firstly, research into reading strategies of native English speakers has concentrated on describing those strategies, which are involved in understanding. A vast amount of research in first language reading and reading strategies has found that good readers are better at monitoring their comprehension than poor readers, that they are more aware of the strategies they use than are poor readers, and that they use strategies more flexibly and efficiently (Garner, 1987; Pressley, Beard El-Dinary, & Brown, 1992).

Moreover, in ESL/ EFL settings, follow-up studies on the effects of strategy instruction have also been reported to have positive effects on learners’ reading improvement, and lend support to the benefit of strategy instruction since the use of strategies has been considered to be an important factor for successful language learning. Strategy training comes from the assumption that success in learning mainly depends on appropriate strategy use and that unsuccessful learners can improve their learning by being trained to use effective strategies (Dansereau, 1985; Weinstein & Underwood, 1985). Many studies have shown that reading strategies can be taught to students, and when taught, strategies help improve student performance on tests of comprehension and recall (Brown & Palinscar, 1989; Carrell, 1985; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Zhang, 2007).

For example, Zhang (2007) explored learners’ understanding of reading and their willingness to be engaged in strategic reading in participatory classroom activities. He also examined possible effects of such pedagogy on reading performance. The study involved a control group and an

experimental group, both of whom were ESL students from the People's Republic of China. The context was a two-month strategy-based reading instruction program, which emphasized developing students' academic reading proficiency. The results showed that the teacher's strategy-based instructional intervention evolving around participatory activities affected changes in the ESL students' use of reading strategies and improvement in comprehension.

Macaro & Erler (2008) also investigated an intervention study of reading comprehension among young-beginner learners of French as a foreign language in England. A sample of 62 11-12 year olds underwent a program of reading strategy instruction lasting 14 months. Measures were taken of French reading comprehension, reading strategy use and attitudes towards French before and after the intervention and findings were compared with a group of 54 students not receiving the intervention. Results suggest that strategy instruction improved comprehension of both simple and more elaborate texts, brought about changes in strategy use, and improved attitudes towards reading.

Furthermore, in Takeuchi & Wakamoto (2001), strategies for writing, speaking, reading, and vocabulary building were taught to 21 Japanese university students learning EFL. They found that the frequency of their participants' strategy use increased and the higher frequency was retained for at least two and a half months after the instruction. Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997) also confirmed the efficacy of strategy instruction in terms of the frequency of strategy use by teaching 32 high school students learning English as a second language to use cognitive strategies for speaking and listening. Dadour and Robbins (1996) investigated the efficacy of the strategy instruction according to learners' reaction. In their study, a total of 46 Japanese college students learning EFL were trained to use cognitive strategies for speaking and listening; the researchers found that they reacted positively to the instruction. Kern (1989) trained for one semester 53 American university students learning French to use cognitive strategies for reading comprehension. His results showed that the instruction had some positive effects on the improvement of the learners', especially, the lower

proficiency learners', reading comprehension ability. In all these studies, learners have demonstrated improvement in performance by virtue of the strategy instruction program they have gone through.

2.3 The influence of language proficiency level on the efficacy of the strategy

While strategy instruction has been confirmed to be effective in various degrees in the studies discussed above, learners' language proficiency level was also reported to influence the efficacy of the strategy. Researchers in second language reading have demonstrated that strategy use is different in more and less proficient readers, and that more proficient readers use different types of strategies, and they use them in different ways.

Ikeda and Takeuchi (2006) revealed the differences in the process of learning reading strategies by EFL learners whose English proficiency levels differ. Portfolios made by 10 Japanese female college students learning English showed prominent differences between the higher and the lower proficiency group: the amount of description recorded in each portfolio; the understanding of the purpose and the merit of each strategy use; the understanding of the conditions in which each strategy is used effectively; and the understanding of the combined use of strategies. Also, the timing for and the method for evaluating efficacy of strategy use were different between the two groups.

Song (1998) proved the contrary to other researchers who have demonstrated that more proficient readers use various types of strategies, and they use them in more efficient ways (e.g., Block, 1986, 1992; Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1995). In her study, the 70 Korean ELL students, divided into low, intermediate, and high proficiency reading groups, received 14 weeks of strategy training through Reciprocal Teaching (Brown & Palinscar, 1984), which involved four concrete reading strategies: summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. The results showed that strategy training is effective in enhancing EFL reading and that the effectiveness of the training varies with L2 reading proficiency. Both the low and intermediate groups showed significant increases on reading comprehension

post-test scores.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants and Contexts

The data was collected from Korean students in second grade of high school located in Bundang, Gyeong-gi province. No one had experience in learning English overseas. They had a cumulative period of approximately 7 years in EFL learning at the time the data was collected. Their average age is 17-18. They have four English classes a week, all lasting 50 minutes. The informants in each group have been taught English in a formal classroom setting. They have been taught to translate from the target language to their native language, instead of using the reading skills and strategies. They are given the grammar rules and new vocabulary, and are told to memorize them. Most of the interaction in the classroom proceeds from the teacher to the students and there is little student initiation.

Two groups of EFL students were purposefully chosen so as to compare the results of the strategy-based instruction: the control group and the experimental group. Each group included an even number of males and females. The control group and the experimental group were comprised of 30 students respectively. Not all of the 72 subjects completed the tests; 4 subjects did not complete the pre-test and post-test. Those who did not complete both tests were excluded from the data analysis. Eight subjects were also excluded in order to adjust the number of students at each reading proficiency level. The informants in each group were divided into three levels of proficiency: low, intermediate, and high. Thus, the number of the informants who participated in the study totals 30 in each group; 6 students at high-proficiency level and 12 students at the intermediate and low levels, respectively. These three levels were divided according to the students' reading ability, which was determined by the results of the selection from the reading comprehension section of TOEFL. The two groups were assigned randomly into a control or experimental group because of their equitable level of EFL reading proficiency which was measured on a pre-test. Analysis

of their pre-test results indicates that the two groups did not differ in their proficiency level or reading scores (see Table 2).

The two groups were assigned the same reading materials in their regular classes and they were taught by the same instructor/researcher working on the project in order to guarantee the validity of the experimental study. However, the control class did not receive the strategy instruction the experimental group did during the 2-week period of this experiment. In order not to shortchange the students in the control group, the same instructor implemented the strategy-based instruction procedures with them immediately after the experiment study was completed.

3.2 Pre-test and Post-test

The selection from the reading comprehension section of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was used as pre-test and post-test measures. According to Brown (2004), content in the TOEFL test ensures test questions that assess a variety of skills (reading, comprehending the main idea, or understanding inferences) and covers a variety of subject matter without unduly biasing the content toward a subset of test-takers. Brown (2004) commented favorably on the traditional “read a passage and answer some questions” technique in TOEFL test, stating it is the oldest and the most common. He added every proficiency test uses the format, and one would rarely consider assessing reading without some component of the assessment involving impromptu reading and responding to questions.

This pre- and post-test included 30 multiple-choice items and consisted of 3 passages, ranging from 201 to 240 words in length (see Appendix A). The passages were selected as appropriate to evaluate ‘interactive’ reading performance, which includes stretches of language of several paragraphs to one page or more in which the reader must, in a psycholinguistic sense, interact with the text, as Brown (2004) pointed out. He mentioned that the focus of an interactive task is to identify relevant features (lexical, symbolic, grammatical, and discourse) within texts of moderately short length with the objective of retaining the information that is processed. Also, based on the researchers’ assumptions, passages which were a little beyond their current

reading levels were chosen. As Chamot et al. (1999, p. 99) warned, “If the task is too easy, students will not need strategies to succeed; they may therefore see strategies as a waste of time. However, if the task is too difficult students may not be able to succeed even when they do use appropriate strategies.” Bereiter and Bird (1985) also suggested that trouble-free reading does not require readers to call upon their strategic resource. Following each passage, there were 10 multiple choice questions. This set of questions covers the comprehension of the following: main idea (topic), expressions/idioms/phrases in context, inference (implied detail), grammatical features, detail (scanning for a specifically stated detail), excluding facts not written (unstated details), supporting ideas, and vocabulary in context. The questions are consistent with strategies of effective reading: skimming for the main idea, scanning for details, guessing word meaning from context, inferring, using discourse markers, etc.

Based on the results of the pre-test, students in the control group and the experimental group were classified into three reading proficiency groups: low, intermediate, and high. 12 students who received scores below 10 points were classified into the low level group; 12 students who scored between 11 and 20 points were classified into the intermediate level group; and 6 students who obtained above 21 points were classified into the high level group. Each question correctly answered was given 1 point. The questions which had no answer were given zero points. The scores of the participants in both groups were collected after the two tests were administered in order to examine the possible effects of strategy instruction on their reading behavior change in relation to improvement in reading comprehension.

3.3 Testing Procedures

One day prior to the onset of the training, all subjects were given a reading comprehension pre-test. Two weeks later, when the subjects finished the 10-hour-long training, all subjects were given the same reading comprehension tests as a post-test. The rationale for using exactly the same test for both pre- and post-testing was to assure an exactly comparable test thus avoiding the problem of equating different forms of pre-test and post-test. The two week

interval between administrations was deemed long enough to control any short-term memory effect; since subjects were not provided with the correct answers after the pre-test, even were they to remember how they had answered a question the first time, they had no way of knowing whether that answer was correct. Moreover, any effects due to experience with the test would be comparable for each of the three groups. The post-test was administered by the same researcher in the same circumstances. No assistance was given to the students for the tests. Time limits for the reading tests (35 min.) were kept consistent.

3.4 Training Procedures

This study followed the four steps established in the study of Janzen and Stoller (1998): choice of a text at an appropriate difficulty level; selection of strategies for instruction; structuring of lessons and the writing of transcripts for guiding the presentation of strategies; the adaptation of instruction to suit learner needs and reactions to in-class modeling, practice and discussion. A recent study by Janzen and Stoller (1998) involved helping second-language readers to develop as expert, or more strategic readers, through instructed practice, i.e. integration of strategic reading in second language instruction. They found that, through the four-step systematic strategy instruction and practice, their students learned how to read effectively, and became autonomous and aware of the processes involved.

Firstly, a text was chosen at an appropriate difficulty level. Although students may find authentic texts more interesting, the subjects in the study of Harris (2007) showed more difficulties to access to focus on clusters of strategies. For this reason, the subjects in this study read familiar textbook material established by the Education Ministry. The instructor (researcher) selected 30 reading passages, ranging from 200 to 280 words in length, which would be covered during the experiment. The reading passages were chosen on the basis of subjects' presumed interest and for their readability. Besides, during the first five periods, the other reading comprehension exercises were supplemented from Grellet (1995), Nuttall (2005), and Mikulecky & Jefferies (1998) for the purpose of familiarizing students with the use of reading skills.

Next, strategies for instruction were chosen. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) pointed out the problem of the selection of strategies is compounded as there is no single agreed taxonomy of strategies, and there are varied levels of specificity and abstractness in the available taxonomies. Chamot and Kupper (1989) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) warned that students become confused when too many strategies are presented. All thing considered, seven reading skills and strategies were chosen in this study, which are essential to acquiring a basic reading competence, as Grellet (1995) argues: inference through the context and word-formation; understanding relations within the sentence; linking sentences and ideas; predicting & activating schemata; anticipation; skimming; scanning (see Table 1).

Table 1.

Reading Strategies Selected for Instruction

Reading strategies	Classroom procedures
Inference through the context and word-formation	Students (henceforth, Ss) make use of syntactic, logical and cultural clues to discover the meaning of unknown elements. Ss guess at unfamiliar vocabulary items through contextual clues and morphological knowledge rather than looking them up in a dictionary.
Understanding relations within the sentence	Ss look first for the 'core' of the sentence: subject and verb. In order to do that, Ss are asked to divided passages into sense groups and underline, box, or recognize the important elements of each sentence in a passage.
Linking sentences and ideas	Ss recognize the various devices used to create textual cohesion and more particularly the use of reference and link-words.

Teaching Reading Strategies in an EFL High School Reading Classroom

Predicting & Activating schemata	Ss predict or guess what is to come next, make use of grammatical, logical and cultural clues. Ss are given unfinished passages to complete or go through a text little by little, stopping after each sentence in order to predict what is likely to come next. Ss activate prior knowledge which can be related to the ideas in the text.
Anticipation	Before Ss start reading a text, they are asked to look for the answers to specific questions. Ss think about the subject of the text and ask themselves questions. The title and pictures are used to talk about the various ways the text may develop.
Skimming	Ss go through the reading material quickly in order to get the gist of it, to know how it is organized, or to get an idea of the tone or the intention of the writer.
Scanning	Ss locate specific information such as a name, a date, or a less specific piece of information.

Then, the lessons were structured and carried out for guiding the presentation and practice of strategies. Prior to the training, the teacher clearly and explicitly explained the specific procedure of the training method and its benefit. The teacher and the class had general discussion about strategic learning and strategic reading. In the discussion, reading strategies and strategic reading were defined. The teacher explained and the class discussed why learning and practicing effective strategies is important. Through this discussion, the subjects were informed of the following points: first, strategies help to improve reading comprehension; second, strategies also help enhance efficiency in reading; third, students will be reading in the way that expert readers do; finally, strategies help students to process the text actively, to monitor their comprehension.

The teacher used this type of discussion not just in initial class periods,

but also on a recurring basis to make sure that students were aware of the importance and value of what they were doing. The instructor intentionally involved the participants in the discussion of the strategies and then asked the students to use them in the reading tasks. The relevance and effectiveness of such strategy use were shared in a group. The participants were given opportunities to talk about their strategy-use experiences after the instructor's explaining, modeling, evaluating, and so on were completed.

On the whole, students worked through a sequence of preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, as O'Malley and Chamot (1990) identified. All the lessons involved teacher-modeling of strategic thinking, student-practicing in using new strategies, student-evaluating of the strategies used and practicing in transferring strategies to new tasks. The teacher first made the learner more aware of current learning strategies and explained the rationale and application for using additional learning strategies. She provided opportunities and materials for practice, and assisted students to evaluate their degree of success with the new learning strategies.

During the first four periods, the instructor primarily modeled the seven reading strategies one by one, at the initial stage of instruction in order to show explicitly how to use the strategies. The teacher tried to provide concrete examples in order to show the students clearly which strategies are useful, how they are used, and why they are helpful. In particular, a couple of skills were focused on, ones with which most students have had the most difficulty: inferencing through the context and word-formation, and recognizing the reference and link-words. The reading exercises which were selected from Grellet (1995), Nuttall (2005), Mikulecky & Jefferies (1998) were used effectively.

From the fifth period, students were encouraged to participate at whatever level they could, even though the teacher expected that familiarity with this process would take time. In the initial phase of the training, students were relatively passive observers. However, when the instructor felt that the students were capable of performing the seven skills, she encouraged the students to participate in the skills and strategies more actively.

Before reading, the teacher conducted pre-reading activities in order to

activate students' background knowledge related to the topic and content of the reading passage. Students activated prior knowledge which can be related to the ideas in the text, looking through the title, subtitles, subheading, illustrations, and layout, etc. After giving the reading purpose with a time limit, the teacher asked the students to read silently the assigned section of the passage. Then, students began actual reading, skipping information that was not relevant to their current reading goals. At first, they were asked to get the main idea, author's purpose, or tone of the text, in a limited amount of time. Underlining important information, they were attuned to topic sentences and topic paragraphs. Whenever they encountered unfamiliar vocabulary, they had to guess the meaning through contextual clues and morphological knowledge, instead of looking them up in a dictionary. Sometimes they made predictions about what was coming up in the text, and those predictions were sometimes modified as they got deeper into the text. They figured out the referent for a pronoun or what words mean based on context clues. In the process, they were asked to relate information in a text to their prior knowledge. After catching the gist, they were asked to locate specific information such as dates, names, numbers, and places, etc. Students jotted down if necessary and the teacher checked the students' comprehension by asking questions.

For the first week, the students were given enough time to read an assigned section of a passage; however, as time went by, they were gradually given less reading time. Most reading exercises were followed by comprehension questions or activities for the purpose of developing reading speed. They were asked to look for the answers to specific questions. All the reading lessons given in this study were conducted in Korean. The teacher also encouraged students to use the strategies outside the classroom so that the training could be transferred to other reading tasks. The remaining reading texts were taught, following the same procedure. With the passage of time, the instructor-scaffolding was gradually removed to make sure that the students started using these strategies on their own so that learner autonomy or self-regulation could be regarded as an ultimate goal for the strategy-based instruction program. The purpose was to encourage subjects to move from

supported practice in the use of a limited number of strategies to deploying the full range independently.

4. Results

4.1 Efficacy of Strategy Instruction on Reading Performance

To see the possible effects of strategy instruction on reading improvement, the reading scores on the pre-test and the post-test were compared. The experimental group and the control group started at the same level in terms of second-language reading proficiency as shown in Table 2. The mean scores of both groups did not exhibit any statistically significant difference on the pre-test administered. Means for the experimental group and the control group was 13.91 and 13.86, respectively. The mean scores of each proficiency level in both groups did not also exhibit any statistically significant difference as shown in Table 2: the high proficiency level showed 22.67 and 23.00; the intermediate level showed 15.08 and 14.75; the low level showed 4.00 and 3.83.

However, after two weeks' strategy instruction, the experimental group seemed to have benefited from such instruction. The results indicate a strong association between strategy instruction and reading performance improvement for the experimental group. Although the two groups' reading scores improved over a period of time, results in Table 3 show that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups' performance on the post-test. The students in the experimental group (87%) have progressed much more positively than those in the control group (57%). The control group did not seem to have gained as much on the post-test as did the experimental group. Rather, quite a few students in the control group stayed unchanged (37%) or even retrogressive (6%), compared to those in the experimental group (13%, 0% respectively). Even though the same teacher used the same reading materials in both groups, it can be suggested that the strategic reading instruction program helped the experimental group's improvement in reading comprehension. Thus, in answer to the first research questions, the result suggests that reading strategy instruction does enhance

EFL high school students' reading ability.

Table 2. Results for Pre-test and Post-test of Experimental and Control Group

Level (N)	Experimental group (E)				Control group (C)			
	Student	Pre-test	Post-test	Progression	Student	Pre-test	Post-test	Progression
High (6)	EH1	26	27	1	CH1	26	26	0
	EH2	23	26	3	CH2	24	25	1
	EH3	23	24	1	CH3	23	23	0
	EH4	22	25	3	CH4	22	24	2
	EH5	21	23	2	CH5	22	23	1
	EH6	21	22	1	CH6	21	22	1
	Mean	22.67	24.50	1.83	Mean	23.00	23.83	0.83
Inter mediate (12)	EI1	19	21	2	CI1	19	20	1
	EI2	18	21	3	CI2	18	19	1
	EI3	18	20	2	CI3	17	19	2
	EI4	17	21	4	CI4	17	17	0
	EI5	16	17	1	CI5	16	17	1
	EI6	16	19	3	CI6	15	16	1
	EI7	15	17	2	CI7	14	15	1
	EI8	14	15	1	CI8	13	15	2
	EI9	13	15	2	CI9	13	12	-1
	EI10	12	13	1	CI10	12	13	1
	EI11	12	12	0	CI11	12	12	0
	EI12	11	13	2	CI12	11	11	0
	Mean	15.08	17.00	1.92	Mean	14.75	15.50	0.75
Low (12)	EL1	9	11	2	CL1	8	9	1
	EL2	8	9	1	CL2	7	7	0
	EL3	7	8	1	CL3	6	6	0
	EL4	6	7	1	CL4	6	5	-1
	EL5	5	6	1	CL5	5	6	1
	EL6	4	6	2	CL6	4	5	1

	EL7	3	3	0	CL7	3	3	0
	EL8	2	2	0	CL8	2	2	0
	EL9	2	3	1	CL9	2	3	1
	EL10	1	2	1	CL10	2	2	0
	EL11	1	1	0	CL11	1	1	0
	EL12	0	1	1	CL12	0	1	1
	Mean	4.00	4.92	0.92	Mean	3.83	4.17	0.33
Total (30)	Mean	13.91	15.47	1.56	Mean	13.86	14.50	0.64

Notes

¹E/ C refer to the acronym of Experimental and Control group.

²H/ I/ L refer to the acronym of students' level: High, Intermediate and Low proficiency level.

³(N) refers to the number of students.

Table 3. Comparison in Progression between Experimental and Control Group

	Experimental			
Progression	High	Intermediate	Low	Total
Positive	6 (100%)	11(91%)	9 (75%)	26 (87%)
Neutral	0	1(8%)	3 (25%)	4 (13%)
Negative	0	0	0	0
Total	6 (100%)	12(100%)	12 (100%)	30 (100%)

	Control			
Progression	High	Intermediate	Low	Total
Positive	4 (67%)	8(66%)	5 (41%)	17 (57%)
Neutral	2 (33%)	3(25%)	6 (50%)	11 (37%)
Negative	0	1(8%)	1(8%)	2 (6%)
Total	6 (100%)	12(100%)	12 (100%)	30 (100%)

4.2 The Different Results between Students' Levels

The results also indicate that although students in the low reading proficiency group benefited from the training, the benefit was the least of the three groups. The results of the test show that while there are statistically significant differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of the intermediate (1.92) and high proficiency group (1.83) respectively, there is little statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the low proficiency group (0.92), as shown in Table 2. The results suggest that although the low proficiency group improved in scores on the post-test, the progression is not statistically meaningful: it indicates that the progression can happen by chance. Therefore, in answer to the second research question, it appears that the intermediate reading proficiency group benefits most from the reading strategy training, followed by the high reading proficiency group. The results also indicate that although students in the low reading proficiency group benefited from the training, the benefit was the least of the three groups.

5. Discussion

Reading research in the L1 and L2 fields has shown that reading strategies can be taught to students, and when taught, they enhance student performance on tests of comprehension and recall (Carrell, 1985; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; Pearson & Fielding, 1991). The result of this study clearly shows that the strategic reading instruction is successfully applied to an ongoing EFL high school reading class with students whose reading abilities are divergent. The results of this study provide support for the educational value of strategy training in EFL high school reading class.

Moreover, Kern (1989) and Song (1998) have demonstrated that strategy use and awareness of reading strategies are different in more and less proficient readers, and that low proficiency learners benefited more from the strategy training than high proficiency learners. In this study, more able students who were in the intermediate proficiency groups exhibited more improvement than the low level students or the students who already had good reading ability prior to the training. This finding suggested that the

students in the intermediate groups might not be aware of the types and the value of reading strategies prior to the training, or might not utilize those strategies actively even though they may be aware of them, whereas the students in the high proficiency group might already know and utilize them efficiently and those in the low proficiency group might not understand how to use the reading strategies appropriately and need more practice. From these findings, it can be claimed that strategy training may be most helpful for less able readers although it still helps more able readers in enhancing their reading ability.

The comparison of the reading proficiency of the experimental group and the control group provides some positive evidence in favor of strategy instruction. Compared with the pre-test total reading comprehension scores ($M=13.91$), students' total reading comprehension scores from the post-test administered after the reading strategy instruction were significantly improved ($M=15.47$). Also, the students in the experimental group (87%) have progressed much more positively. These findings indicate that the high school students showed progress in reading comprehension as a result of the strategic reading instruction.

On the other hand, low proficiency learners did not show results as significant as intermediate and high proficiency learners. This seems to be because they could not have basic linguistic knowledge and lack the ability to internalize the reading strategies. As Rubin warned (1990, p. 284), "strategy learning requires continual and extensive training if it is to become part of a student's tool kit." Successful reading requires many basic processes, such as the identification of letters, the mapping of letters onto sounds, and the recognition of words and syntax, with its ultimate goal of reading to learn from text (Bernhardt 2005; Smith 2004; Zhang 2002a). Based on these skills, learners can move a step forward by connecting what is read with what they already having their minds as schemata or background knowledge and interact with the text using this knowledge. In order to achieve these objectives, L2 readers have to continue practicing using the strategies until they have acquired the skills necessary for independent, autonomous learning. This is exactly why it is necessary to be optimistic about the influence of

strategic reading instruction on their perceived reading strategy use in connection with their reading performance improvement.

The results lend support to earlier research findings in second language acquisition research on the effects of instruction of learner performance improvement (e.g. Anderson, 1999; Brown & Palinscar, 1989; Carrell, 1985; Carrell, Pharis, & Liberto, 1989; Harris, 2003; Macaro & Erler, 2008; Nassaji and Swain, 2000; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Tajeuchi & Wakamoto, 2001; Zhang, 2007). Also, this study supports that strategy use and awareness of reading strategies are different in more and less proficient readers, and that more proficient readers use various types of strategies, and they use them in more efficient ways, as many L1 and L2 reading researchers have demonstrated (Block, 1986, 1992; Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1995).

6. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of strategy training on the reading ability of EFL high school students. It also aimed to obtain answers for the differential effect of the strategy training on students' reading proficiency level. The findings of the study showed that the reading strategy training does improve EFL high school students' reading proficiency. Furthermore, the present study demonstrated that intermediate and high proficiency readers might benefit more from the training than low readers. The present study implied reading was a high-order skill which could be automatized when provision of sufficient linguistic input and strategy training was accessible. The amount of gains made by the intermediate reading proficiency group was found to be greater than that made by the high or low proficiency reading group. These findings suggest that strategies that will help EFL secondary students improve their reading comprehension ability can be taught.

The findings of this study produced some evidence that lends further support to pedagogical initiatives that have incorporated strategy instruction in second/foreign-language contexts (e.g. Anderson 1999; Chamot et al. 1999; Chamot and O'Malley 1994; Cohen 1998; Harris 2003; Oxford 2001).

Given the positive effect of such teacher intervention observed in this study, it is important that teachers acknowledge and adapt to what learners bring to the classroom.

Given that one of the most important goals of teaching reading is to help our students develop as strategic and independent readers, several suggestions for EFL reading teachers can be made on the basis of the findings of the study. Therefore, ESL/EFL reading teachers should make an effort to incorporate reading strategy training into their reading instruction. First, strategies should be taught through direct explanation, explicit teacher modeling, and extensive feedback. In addition, students should never be in doubt as to what the strategies are, where and when they can be used and how they are used. Second, EFL readers, particularly less capable EFL readers, should be given intensive and direct strategy training for a long period of time. As Gaskins (1994) claims, teaching of strategies without direct explanation and explicit teacher modeling for a short period will not have a long-term effect on students and effectively help them develop as strategic readers. In conclusion, the results of the study suggest that foreign language reading pedagogy, even for secondary students, would benefit from the inclusion of explicit and direct strategy training.

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Appendix A

Source: Longman Introductory Course for the TOEFL Test

<Questions 1-10>

The Hollywood sign in the hills that line the northern border of Los Angeles is a famous landmark recognized the world over. The white-painted, 50-foot-high, sheet metal letters can be seen from great distances across the Los Angeles basin.

The sign was not constructed, as one might suppose, by the movie business as a means of celebrating the importance of Hollywood to this industry; instead, it was first constructed in 1923 as a means of advertising homes for sale in a 500-acre housing subdivision in a part of Los Angeles called "Hollywoodland." The sign that was constructed at the time, of course, said "Hollywoodland." Over the years, people began referring to the area by the shortened version "Hollywood," and after the sign and its site were donated to the city in 1945, the last four letters were removed.

The sign suffered from years of disrepair, and in 1973 it needed to be completely replaced, at a cost of \$27,700 per letter. Various celebrities were instrumental in helping to raise needed funds. Rock star Alice Cooper, for example, bought an O in memory of Groucho Marx, and Hugh Hefner of *Playboy* fame held a benefit party to raise the money for the Y. The construction of the new sign was finally completed in 1978.

1. What is the topic of this passage?

- (A) A famous sign (B) A famous city (C) World landmarks (D) Hollywood versus Hollywoodland

2. The expression "the world over" in line 2 could best be replaced by

- (A) in the northern parts of the world (B) on top of the world (C) in the entire world (D) in the skies

3. It can be inferred from the passage that most people think that the Hollywood sign was first constructed by

- (A) an advertising company (B) the movie industry
(C) a construction company (D) the city of Los Angeles

4. The pronoun "it" in line 5 refers to

- (A) the sign (B) the movie industry (C) the importance of Hollywood (D) this industry

5. According to the passage, the Hollywood sign was first built in

- (A) 1923 (B) 1949 (C) 1973 (D) 1978

6. Which of the following is NOT mentioned about Hollywoodland?

- (A) It used to be the name of an area of Los Angeles.
(B) It was formerly the name on the sign in the hills.
(C) There were houses for sale there.
(D) It was the most expensive area of Los Angeles.

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7. The passage indicates that the sign suffered because
(A) people damaged it (B) it was not fixed (C) the weather was bad (D) it was poorly constructed
8. It can be inferred from the passage that the Hollywood sign was how old when it was necessary to replace it completely?
(A) Ten years old (B) Twenty-six years old (C) Fifty years old (D) Fifty-five years old
9. The word "replaced" in line 10 is closest in meaning to which of the following?
(A) Moved to a new location (B) Destroyed (C) Found again (D) Exchanged for a newer one
10. According to the passage, how did celebrities help with the new sign?
(A) They played instruments. (B) They raised the sign.
(C) They helped get the money. (D) They took part in work parties to build the sign.

<Questions 11-20>

For hundreds of years in the early history of America, pirates sailed through coastal waters, pillaging and plundering all in their path. They stole from other ships and stole from coastal towns; not content only to steal, they destroyed everything they could not carry away. Some of the pirate ships amassed large treasure, the fates of which are unknown, leaving [people of today to wonder at their whereabouts and to dream of one day coming across some lost treasure.

One notoriously large treasure was on the pirate ship *Whidah* which sank in the waters off Cape Cod during a strong storm in 1717. A hundred of the crew members went down with the ship, along with its treasure of coins, gold, silver, and jewels. The treasure on board had an estimated value, on today's market, of more than 100 million dollars.

The remains of the *Whidah* were discovered in 1984 by Barry Clifford, who had spent years of painstaking research and tireless searching, only finally to locate the ship about 500 yards from shore. A considerable amount of treasure from the centuries-old ship has been recovered from its watery grave, but there is clearly still a lot more out there. Just as a reminder of what the waters off the coast have been protecting from hundreds of years, occasionally pieces of gold, or silver, or jewels still wash up on the beaches, and lucky beach-goers find pieces of the treasure.

11. The passage mainly discusses
(A) early pirates (B) a large pirate treasure
(C) what really happened to the *Whidah's* pirates (D) why people go to the beach

12. It is NOT mentioned in the passage that pirates did which of the following?
- (A) They killed lots of people. (B) They robbed other ships.
(C) They took things from towns. (D) They gathered big treasures.
13. The word "amassed" in line 4 is closest in meaning to
- (A) sold (B) transported (C) hid (D) gathered
14. It is implied in the passage that the *Whidah's* crew
- (A) died (B) went diving (C) searched for the treasure (D) escaped with parts of the treasure
15. Which of the following is NOT mentioned as part of the treasure of the *Whidah*?
- (A) Art objects (B) Coins (C) Gold and silver (D) Jewels
16. The word "estimated" in line 10 is closest in meaning to which of the following?
- (A) Known (B) Approximate (C) Sold (D) Decided
17. The passage indicates that the cargo of the *Whidah* is worth about
- (A) \$ 100, 000 (B) \$ 1,000,000 (C) \$ 10,000,000 (D) \$ 100,000,000
18. The work that Barry Clifford did to locate the *Whidah* was NOT
- (A) successful (B) effortless (C) detailed (D) lengthy
19. It is mentioned in the passage that the treasure of the *Whidah*
- (A) is not very valuable (B) is all in museums
(C) has not all been found (D) was taken to share by the pirates
20. The paragraph following the passage most likely discusses
- (A) what Barry Clifford is doing today
(B) the fate of the *Whidah's* crew
(C) other storms in the area of Cape Cod
(D) additional pieces that turn up from the *Whidah's* treasure

<Questions 21-30>

It is a characteristic of human nature that people like to get together and have fun, and people living during America's frontier days were no exception. However, because life was hard and the necessities of day-to-day living took up their time, it was common for recreation to be combined with activities necessary for survival.

One example of such a form of recreation was logrolling. Many frontier areas were heavily wooded, and in order to settle an area it was necessary to remove the trees. A settler could cut down the trees alone, but help was needed to move the cut trees. After a settler had cut a bunch of trees, he would then invite his neighbors over for a logrolling.

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A logrolling was a community event where families got together for a combination of work and fun. The women would bring food and have a much needed and infrequent opportunity to relax and chat with friends, the children would play together exuberantly, and the men would hold lively competitions that involved rolling logs from place to place as quickly as possible. This was a day of fun for everyone involved, but at its foundation was the need to clear the land.

21. The main idea of the passage is that in America's frontier days
- (A) people combined work with recreation
 - (B) people cleared land by rolling logs
 - (C) it was necessary for early settlers to clear the land
 - (D) a logrolling involved the community
22. The word "day-to-day" in line 3 could best be replaced by which of the following?
- (A) Daytime
 - (B) Everyday
 - (C) Day after day
 - (D) Today's
23. The word "survival" in line 4 is closest in meaning to
- (A) existence
 - (B) a lifetime
 - (C) physical exercise
 - (D) society
24. According to the passage, what did people have to do first to settle an area?
- (A) Develop recreation ideas
 - (B) Build farms
 - (C) Get rid of the trees
 - (D) Invite neighbors over
25. According to the passage, which of the following is NOT true about a logrolling?
- (A) It involved a lot of people.
 - (B) It could be enjoyable.
 - (C) There could be a lot of movement.
 - (D) It was rather quiet.
26. The word "chat" in line 11 means
- (A) work
 - (B) talk
 - (C) cook
 - (D) eat
27. The word "exuberantly" in line 11 is closest
- (A) privately
 - (B) laboriously
 - (C) enthusiastically
 - (D) neatly
28. It can be inferred from the passage that competitions were held because
- (A) it was the only way to move the logs
 - (B) competition made the work fun
 - (C) men refused to help unless there was competition
 - (D) the children could then help move the logs
29. Where in the passage does the author indicate what a settler did when he had a number of cut trees?
- (A) Line 2-4
 - (B) Line 5
 - (C) Line 7-8
 - (D) Line 9-10
30. This passage would most probably be assigned reading in which of the following course?
- (A) Forestry
 - (B) Environmental Studies
 - (C) Psychology
 - (D) History

Seeds of Resistance: Appropriation of English in East Asian Contexts

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Instruction and dissemination of English is still widely viewed as emanating from “the center,” a central core of countries in which English is spoken as a native language. This view of English may have been accurate in past eras, where the dissemination of English was limited to a few central channels such as colonization, trade, and religion. However, globalization and changes to the ways people share information have carried English into a growing number of communities that are often very far from the center, both geographically and ideologically. This paper seeks to examine how English has been appropriated in East Asian contexts and the implications such use has for resistance.

1. Literature Review

It is difficult to deny that English holds a status as a lingua franca that has been unmatched historically in terms of its breadth and depth of penetration. Though the world has seen languages spread to prominence throughout history, only English has become truly global in its reach. Phillipson (2001) captures the depth to which English has been integrated with globalization, writing that it “is dominant in international politics and commerce, its privileged role being strengthened through such bodies as the United Nations, the World Trade Organisation, and regional groupings such as the North American Free Trade Agreement and the European Union. The dominance of English is also being consolidated in other dimensions of globalisation such as military links (NATO, UN peace-keeping operations, the arms trade), and culture (Hollywood products, BBC World, CNN, MTV)” (p. 187). In fact,

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English is such a common part of our daily reality that the concept of English as a global language fails to receive much fanfare. As Graddol (2007) notes, “far from being news, [English] has become one of the few enduring facts of global modern life – a trend which began in the late 19th century when English was heralded, from Europe to Japan, as the new rising world language”(p. 12).

With such growth of English use worldwide comes a shift in paradigm—locals in the periphery communities, previously seen as being farthest from the core of English, are now themselves taking ownership of English in dynamic ways. Once a tool used to control such peoples, English is now being used in new ways to express resistance and local identity. Indeed, Graddol (ibid.) notes this intriguing irony and heralds the rise of a new type of English: “the new language which is rapidly ousting the language of Shakespeare as the world’s lingua franca is English itself – English in its new global form” (p. 11). As Needham (2000) puts it so aptly, English is now being used as a means of resistance, a case of “using the master’s tools” against him.

1.1 A New Paradigm

As the world grows increasingly linked and world citizens start to conscript English for their own unique needs, a new paradigm for English use and education seems to be arising. Graddol (ibid.) points to the future of English education as addressing the specific needs of the learners, without forcing them unnecessarily into a certain mindset or way of behaving. In other words, the notion that English education also entails learning a certain cultural code is being questioned as it becomes more difficult to associate English with a particular culture.

1.2 Goals

This paper seeks to investigate such instances of appropriation of English and discuss the implications they hold for existing power relationships. It seeks to do two things: first, to situate appropriation of English in the periphery into

the wider scope of English's development from a local language in a global one, and its current transition into what can only be termed as a "glocal" language, one that is simultaneously global and local. In addition to this macro-level analysis, this paper will examine from an East-Asian perspective the question posed by Canagarajah (1999): "If there are conflicting attitudes towards English, how are they sustained? How do such attitudes manifest themselves in the linguistics interactions among speakers? What implications do such attitudes have for the structure, values and functions of English in the periphery? How do speakers in the periphery resolve these tensions linguistically?" (p. 60). Canagarajah himself concludes in this volume that such resistance is manifested in the classroom as instances of appropriation—where teachers and students take ownership of the linguistic and cultural codes presented to them and re-purpose it in dynamic ways to suit their cultural and personal agendas. Citing Bakhtin (1981), Canagarajah sees in language use a transformational power, a "hybridity . . . that enables subjects to represent alternate meanings denied by dominant institutions" (p. 185).

This paper uses Canagarajah's work as a starting point to examine ways in which English has been appropriated by those in Japan and Korea. Certainly, the east-Asian context differs from the Tamil regions of Sri Lanka in which Canagarajah's studies occurred. Though Korea is also a former colony, English is not directly associated with the era of colonization, except for in the modern sense of linguistic imperialism. Also, English has never been institutionalized or adopted as an official language (Song, 1998). Though a lower level of fluency across the population may lead one to assume that there is less appropriation of English in such areas, an examination of some key examples reveals that there are significant examples of English being appropriated in dynamic and unique ways.

2. The Spread of English

In less than 500 years, English was able to spread from being one of many competing tongues on an island nation to its status now as the currency for

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global communication. Given the astounding rate of growth and infiltration, it is natural to believe that perhaps English as a language possesses qualities that make it particularly suitable to spread and even overtake other languages. As Shannon (1995) observes, “allowed to follow a natural course, the hegemony of English has the potential power not only to diminish the use and value of minority languages, but also to replace them entirely” (p. 175). It is not uncommon to see this belief form part of a tacit belief that English is a more worldly, flexible or understandable language (Sutter, 2009). To explain the growth of English, Crystal (2003) has described the language as “being in the right place in the right time” (p. 78), which, as critics note, can imply that the spread of English is linked with destiny or fate.

However, Crystal himself is quick to point out in response to such critics that the idea of being in the right place at the right time is meant to convey that there were a variety of clear causal factors, some deliberate, and some by sheer stroke of luck, that allowed English to rise to the level of significance associated with it today. Crystal divides the spread of English into two periods, each with different forces in play. The two main forces in the global expansion of English are described as geo-historical and socio-cultural.

The geo-historical spread of English occurred mostly through the expansion of the British Empire from the end of the 16th century to the middle of the 20th century. This expansion of British influence began with exploration, then later settlement and trade, and eventually colonization. During this period, the number of English speakers increased from around 7 million to about 250 million, namely in the Americas, but with significant numbers of speakers on every continent. In North America, Australia and New Zealand, English became the primary language, due to the fact that settlers were able to effectively wipe-out the native populations. In other places in the world, mainly India, the Caribbean, Africa, Southeast-Asia and the Pacific, English was a prominent language but co-existed with other languages, representing the colonial struggle between native peoples and their colonizers. Interestingly, even though most of these countries have achieved independence, English continues to have a prominent influence as a

language of government, media, work, and education.

The fact that English has remained as a prominent language is related to the second major factor in the expansion of English, socio-cultural influence. The socio-cultural influence of English remained even after the era of colonization because in many places, it was already deeply entrenched as the lingua-franca, serving as the primary institutional language and as a convenient means of communication for diverse peoples with different mother-tongues. The socio-cultural influence of English spread greatly with the rise of the United States as a global-player and then primary superpower, especially after the fall of the Soviet Union towards the end of the 20th century. The cultural influence of the US has spread to all parts of the world through media, entertainment, education, politics and religion. This spread was helped also by growth of the internet and increasing amounts of global trade (Crystal, 2003).

2.1 Linguistic Hegemony

As Crystal outlines, English's rise to prominence is not based so much on some sort of innate linguistic superiority as it is a combination of factors. Phillipson's (1992, cited in Canagarajah, 1999) study of the ELT field uncovered an active effort on the part of center agencies to promote the spread of English. Leader (2005, cited in Gradoll 2006) cynically notes that English has been brought to the forefront on the world stage through "a combination of force, money, information technology and loud speaking, often repeated more than once, more slowly"(p. 119). Scholars such as Shannon (1995) and Sontag (2007) have adapted Gramsci's concept of hegemony to discuss English's modern global role, asserting that English is used by those in power as a means of maintaining influence over subalterns, people in positions of lesser power.

Indeed, it is a mix of such factors that have allowed English to rise to such prominence. In modern times, English seems to be held in place due to a sort of cultural momentum, which Shannon (ibid) describes as being maintained by association with "political, governmental, economic, and

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social domination and the consent of the people.” Marxists and Structuralists see this pattern of dominance as inevitable, perpetuated by symbols systems that are “ideological, and provide a partisan orientation to reality and social institutions for subjects” (Canagarajah, 1999, p. 27). These structures of dominance are so effective as to become the only reality that subjects are familiar with. Bourdieu defines such systems of domination as habitus, which are:

systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures predisposed to function as structuring structures, that is, as principles of the generation and structuring of practices and representations which can be objectively “regulated” and “regular” without in any way being the product of obedience to rules, objectively adopted to their goals without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends or an express mastery of the operations necessary to attain them and, being all this, collectively orchestrated without being the product of the orchestrating action of a conductor (1977, p. 72, cited in Yoon, 2003, p. 259).

In Bourdieu’s terms, English has accumulated an immense amount of cultural capital, having become such an ingrained element of daily experience that subjects are prone to take it for granted as the only means of effective communication. The innate acceptance of English’s linguistic hegemony, which Bourdieu terms *meconnaissance*, or misunderstanding that one’s cultural conditioning it objective reality, is manifested in the center institutions’ desire to maintain the status of English through English-only movements (Sonntag, 2003). Perhaps more strikingly, English’s cultural capital is most vitally sustained in the periphery, where an “English fever” reinforces the social awareness of English ability as a key means of success. Canagarajah noted that this was an instrumental factor in the colonization of Sri Lanka by the British in the 19th century (1999). In modern times, this mindset can be seen in the worldwide boom of English education. It can also be seen at an institutional level in countries such as Korea, where government policies support the growth of English education (Jeong, 2005).

2.2 Three Circles

There is a difference in the way English's cultural capital is built in the center, where there is a desire to retain its status by educating others (Eagleton, 1994) and periphery nations, where linguistic hegemony is reinforced in a bottom-up manner through people's desire to become a part of it. These differences reveal a discrepancy in the role English plays in different societies.

Kachru (1986) conceived of English-speaking communities in terms of three circles. Kachru's "Three Circles" is a model that shows the different ways that English is used in the world. It has three levels, called the Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle refers to countries where most/all the speakers are native speakers of the language, and English is the primary language for daily life and government, school, and other institutions, such as America, the U.K, and Australia. The Outer Circle refers to countries where English is widely spoken and used for official purposes such as government or school, but is not always the main language for daily life. These are countries that used to be under political control by a Inner Circle nation (The British Commonwealth or American Military Occupation). Examples include Singapore and India. The Expanding Circle refers to countries where English isn't used widely for official purposes. Most of the speakers in these countries are learners of English with varying levels of proficiency. In modern times, the Expanding Circle encompasses most of the rest of the world, outside of the Inner and Outer Circles, including most of East Asia, with the exception of Hong Kong.

This conception reveals with accuracy the way that English emanated from a single source, reaching further and further out into the periphery. Kachru's model has striking implications in that this model places the origin of English at the center, with the implication that these nations have ownership of English. Indeed, though Kachru's circles are defined on the basis of English's historical social and institutional roles in a nation, it has also become a shorthand for defining proficiency levels. Inner Circle users of English have the highest levels of proficiency, followed by Outer Circles

users, who are fluent but conceived as less proficient than natives. In the Expanding Circle, the perception is that English users are the furthest from native English speakers. Likewise, they are seen to be the most lacking in proficiency. Such a model seems to uphold English's linguistic hegemony in subtle ways by implying that certain groups are innately superior in their English use. However, to simply implicate Kachru as the source of such thinking would be a mistake, as his model only sought to reflect what was already a deep-seeded line of thinking in the realm of ELT.

3. Criticism and New Models

Canagarajah points out that the outward motion from a single source is reflected in the teaching methodologies that are disseminated from the center to the periphery. He joins the likes of Holliday (1994) in criticizing the blanket application of methodologies developed in the positivistic tradition of the West onto classroom contexts where they may not be appropriate. What results, he notes, is that “what the teacher practices in language classrooms rarely resembles any specific method as it is prescribed in manuals . . . it has been pointed out that classroom methods rarely correspond to any recognizable method” (pp. 103-104). Furthermore, he sees dangerous implications for haphazard application of methodology, as:

they are ideological in embodying partisan assumptions about social relations and cultural values. Methods can reproduce these values and practices whenever they are being used. The empirical claims and efficiency criteria serve only to blind teachers to the hegemonic implications of methods (p. 104).

It is also possible to see this line of thinking in the field of language acquisition in Chomsky's notion of the native speakers as infallible users of English (Saville-Troike, 2005). It crafts a reality in which students are “set up for failure,” because the inescapable assumption underlying the notion of “infallible native speaker” is the accompanying notion of the non-native speaker as an inherently flawed user of English. Graddol (2006) notes that the ELT tradition, while focused on building communicative competence,

does so in a way that draws a clear boundary between mentor, who is this infallible model of sorts, and protégé, who must always strive to be more like the mentor. In EFL classrooms, the teacher is either herself a native speaker of English, or even when not so, is a teacher that provides guidance on how to be more native-like. In one of his most shrewd observations, he points out how EFL seems to be largely based on the notion of failure—a seeming acceptance of the fact that a student of English may never attain “native” status, but should nonetheless strive to come as close as he can (p. 83). This notion has powerful implications even among non-native speakers, as it can be employed as a “gate keeping device which will help the formation of elites” (p. 84).

3.1 Ownership of English

Much has changed since Kachru’s original conception of the three circles, and indeed Kachru himself sought to revise his model to better reflect the reality of English use in a global age (1991). However, Canagarajah (1999) weighs a biting criticism on him, writing that “in his attempt to systematize the periphery variants, he has to standardize the language himself, leaving out many eccentric, hybrid forms of local Englishes as too unsystematic. In this, the Kachruvian paradigm follows the logic of the prescriptive and elitist tendencies of the center linguist” (p. 180). McKay (2002) has suggested changing the solid lines in Kachru’s circles to dotted lines to better reflect the blurred reality of modern language use, and to represent the possibility of mobility between different levels of English use. Such revisions are timely and do seem to reflect the reality of English in modern usage. After all, Graddol (2006) has noted that a majority of travelers in the world travel from one non-English speaking country to another, though English still serves for these people as the prime language of communications (p. 29). This observation is a glimpse into another area where English is used without the intervention or appeal to native speakers for validation.

Crystal (2003) notes that as of 1999, the number of non-native English speakers outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 2 to 1. Keeping in mind that

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the number of non-native English speakers is growing, the notion of “native speaker” seems to be becoming increasingly irrelevant. Indeed, as Graddol speculates that “in the new, rapidly emerging climate, native speakers may increasingly be identified as part of the problem rather than the source of a solution. They may be seen as bringing with them cultural baggage in which learners wanting to use English primarily as an international language are not interested” (p.114). It seems then, that there is a shift underway in terms of the ownership of English. Rather than a model where English is depicted as disseminating from the center, it would be more accurate to depict English usage as arising spontaneously at various points around the globe, sometimes in places very far from native speakers.

3.2 English in Post-Colonial Communities

Several studies have examined the ways in which English use has appeared in the absence of native speakers. Perhaps the most widespread use of English outside the center communities is in former colonies, where use of English has come to serve as a lingua franca, ironically helping to maintain national stability by affording neutrality as a common means of communication.

In such situations, English is in wide use not simply as a colonial remnant. In fact, the use of English in such communities can be seen in the framework of local political and social struggles, where English is co-opted as a tool, either by the government or by the subaltern peoples. Sonntag (2003) depicts lucidly how language politics in the periphery communities Tibet and India is a matter of local politics, as opposed to more globally integrated countries such as France and the US, where language politics are very much related to larger questions of American’s cultural and political hegemony. Sonntag shows that for less integrated countries (i.e. countries in the periphery), English is a local issue, related to issues of class struggle. Canagarajah shows political issues with English have similarly local connotations in the formerly Tamil-controlled regions of Sri Lanka (1999).

That English has been co-opted into local political struggles in these countries leads one to re-think the circles model in which all issues regarding

English emanate from the center outwards. The cases of India, Tibet, and Sri Lanka indicate cases where the use of English has become an entirely local issue. Indeed, on the ground level in such communities, geo-political issues concerning English and cultural hegemony play a secondary role to English's relation to local issues. Subalterns have more of an opportunity to play an active part in language politics, such as in South Africa and India, where these groups co-opted English to gain political, social and economic capital. Though the hegemonic force of globalization and global English seems to be nearly insurmountable, issues of globalization can actually rouse subaltern groups to action, providing opportunities in which hegemonic order can be challenged from the bottom-up. Though such subalterns have few tools of resistance at their disposal, the co-opting and localizing of English is one way in which such groups have managed to gain position in struggles of resistance (Sonntag, 2003).

4. Appropriation of English in East Asia

A number of studies have also examined how English is used in periphery communities without a history of colonization by English-speaking countries. In such countries, the number of fluent speakers is certainly smaller than in former colonies. However, it is important not to overlook the role English use plays in these societies.

In Korea, the issue of English's use is very closely tied with class dynamics, and is one of the flashpoint issues in the larger class issues that frame the debate on education, which is largely a battle for more access and support for more elite education versus a call for more access and equal opportunity, as depicted in political battles arising between the local and national government (Park, 2009). Though widespread, extended use of conversational English among locals is still uncommon, English is being incorporated into interactions at all levels of society, especially in small chunks. One of the most notable ways in which this integration of English occurs is when English words are adopted into the local vernacular.

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A number of studies have begun to examine the ways in which English is used in countries such as Japan and Korea. Moody (2006) provides a detailed analysis of the different ways in which English words and phrases are co-opted into Japanese popular culture. He concludes that the rise of “language entertainment”—the presence of English code-mixing in broadcast and pop music—indicates that a growing number of individuals are questioning their linguistic identity and the role of Japanese in the global community by experimenting with different codes.

4.1 Appropriation of English

An intriguing aspect of English use in Japanese is the way that the adoption of English words or phrases into Japanese can render them incomprehensible to non-Japanese. Phrases such as *Pokemon* (a combination formed from the words “pocket” and “monster”), and *karaoke* (a combination of the Japanese word *kara*, meaning “empty,” and a shortening of the English word “orchestra”) demonstrate that English usage in Japan is not always tied to center communities. In fact, some of these new Japanese terms have been incorporated into English vocabulary, but are identified as being Japanese in origin.

Similar to Japan, Korean vocabulary contains several instances where English has been incorporated in distinctly Korean ways. An example is *repeul*, which is an abbreviation of the word “reply,” but is used exclusively to refer to replies left on internet message boards. The phonetic connection between *repeul* and “reply” only becomes evident when “reply” is pronounced in the Korean phonetic system as “re-peul-la-yee.” This word is a striking example of how an English word can be appropriated into another linguistic system, retaining elements of the original meaning but having been transformed into a code that is only recognizable to Korean speakers.

The word *repeul* has been co-opted even further by mixing it with Korean prefixes, such as *akpeul* (a combination of the prefix *ak*, meaning evil or bad, and the second half of *repeul*, used to indicate reply that is antagonistic in nature) and *yokpeul* (a combination of the word *yok*, meaning

a swear word or insult, and the second half of *repeul*, used to indicate a reply in which someone insults the original poster). Not only are these words completely incomprehensible to English speakers, they are also uniquely Korean in that they reflect a thriving culture of internet message board communities, where negative or antagonistic replies carry enough social significance as to merit the rise of new terms to describe them. Kim (2002) shows how other patterns of usage have occurred in Korea by way of the “Konglish” phenomenon.

Korean also features instances in which English terms that have been imported into Korea have been appropriated by changing them back into Korean. A notable example is the name of the prominent American brand Starbucks, which has a significant presence in Korea with over 200 stores. A nickname for Starbucks, *byuldabang*, rose to prominence when it was featured on a popular television series in 2008. The phrase *byuldabang* is formed by combining the Korean words *byul*, which means “star”, and *dabang*, which refers to a Korean-style coffee shop, frequented almost exclusively by middle-aged men. *Dabang* has a cultural association with being “old-fashioned,” and connected to a social underworld in which women are paid to entertain their male clients. The coffee served at *dabang* is famous for the copious amounts of milk and sugar mixed in, a fact that makes it all the more humorous that this word has been used to re-label Starbucks. This term pokes fun at the image of Starbucks, utilizing appropriation and translation into Korean to flip the meaning of the original term. That this term would be incomprehensible to the American executives of Starbucks seems to add to the humor of this term and shifts the balances of power associated with Starbucks’ presence in Korea.

4.1.1 Appropriation of English in Popular Music

Pennycook’s (2001) illuminating analysis of the Japanese hip-hop group Rip Slyme’s integration of English lyrics asserts the argument that the use of “raplish” is not to be written off as a mere imitation of Western culture. He cites Rampton’s work on crossing, or the appropriation of other linguistic

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forms as an assertion of identity. Rampton showed how school boys of South Asian origin in English incorporated various forms of Asian slang, not as imitation, but as a way to index their own identity amongst their peers (1995). Pennycook (2003) demonstrates that the same process is at work when raplish is employed by hip-hop musicians around the world. He argues that raplish and AAVE (African American Vernacular English) no longer carries an exclusive association with African American communities. Concerning one's linguistic identity when using borrowed forms, he writes that:

it is no so much whether or not one is born in a particular type of community but rather what one does with the language. At the point of semiotic reconstruction, Rip Slyme become native users of a new raplish, a blend of Japanese and English that cannot be predefined as a first, second, or foreign language, and cannot be deemed to be representing or not representing a pre-existing Japanese culture. It is in the performance that the identity is created" (pp. 527-528).

Lee (2004) examined a similar process at work in Korean pop music, or K-pop. Her eye-opening analysis shows how English is incorporated into pop lyrics on the word-level, the sentential level, and as outright code-switching. Significantly, she demonstrates that for each case, the use of English goes beyond mere imitation or reference to American culture. Rather, English is appropriated in a very deliberate manner to achieve certain communicative goals.

Most striking in her work is her analysis of the rich and complex code switching employed by the duo *Fly to the Sky*, in their song *Everything*, which depicts an inner-dialogue between two competing notions of love and loss, with each perspective indicated by the use of a different code. Lee classifies this use of code-switching as the "assertion of struggle of unsettled identities." A portion of these lyrics are reproduced here:

2 [...] I'm leavin' yo ass for good	I'm leavin' yo ass for good.
6 [...] <i>Molunchek hamye cinay wassesse</i>	I've been pretending not to know I've been hiding my true feelings
7 <i>nauy kamcengul aysse sunkimyense</i>	For a long time I believed you would leave him
8 <i>hanchamul mitko issessci</i>	and come back to me again
9 <i>Nayka talun namca phwumul ttena</i>	Why you always actin' up love sleepin' around with other niggas
10 <i>tasi tolaontako</i>	When you said they just friends (pp. 438-438)
11 Why you always actin' up love	
12 sleepin' around with other niggas	
13 When you said they just friends	

She explains:

the English lyrics present extremely acrimonious verbal attacks specifically constructed to criticize his girlfriend's immorality and promiscuity. In contrast, the Korean lyrics contain his willingness to be patient with his cheating girlfriend and eventually to forgive her. The infusion of Korean and English represents a struggle between his patient public persona and bitter inner self. The two languages enable him to cross boundaries between two unsettling identities and to express his ambivalent feelings (p. 439).

Both of these cases illustrate that English is becoming appropriated and re-purposed to express sentiments that are distinctly Japanese or Korean. These performers see English as a tool which can be utilized to add depth of expression to their music. When using English, they are not adapting to the ideologies embedded within that language. Rather, there is a liberating aspect to their language use, as they are able to take control of their English use in order to form their own identities.

Such code-mixing and code-switching reveals the fluid nature of identity within language use, and the potential to take ownership of such

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codes. As Blommaert (2005) writes, “identity not as a property or a stable category of individuals or groups, but as particular forms of semiotic potential, organised in a repertoire. People construct identities out of specific configurations of semiotic resources” (p. 207).

4.2 Appropriation as Resistance

It is significant that English can be creatively co-opted and re-purposed to convey sentiments unique to the periphery societies in which such resourceful mixing occurs. Through such instances of language use, it can be seen that English doesn’t only emanate outward from center communities, but that other communities can themselves be sources of English use in distinct and significant ways.

It is such occurrences over the years that have prompted scholars to question the “invariability” of linguistic domination as asserted by structuralists. Canagarajah (1999) challenges the work of post-structuralists such as Foucault, who assert that the association between words and meanings is dependent on context, and can be bent, broken, and re-purposed to upset power balances. He notes that “Knowledge is itself a changing construct, shaped by the social and cultural practice of those who produce it” (p. 16). This means that appropriation of English can be seen as a tool of resistance—potential for language users to re-define the way codes are used and upset power balances.

Park and Wee’s (2008, 2009) studies of language appropriation in Asia employ the work of Bourdieu, and the post-structuralists to deconstruct Kachru’s concentric circle model. They show how instances of English use can more effectively be understood in terms of Bourdieu’s concept of “markets” where every communicative situation affects a distinct opportunity to define power balances by gaining or losing linguistic capital. Though Park and Wee are careful to note that some contexts offer less opportunities for change than others, there exists markets in which “acts of linguistic appropriation face relatively weaker sanctions in relation to the essentialist model, especially in the context of artful performance” (2008, p. 247).

Pennycook, Lee and Park and Wee have shown that such appropriation of once-exclusively Western forms is already underway in Japan and Korea. Though the appropriation of English forms has not always produced products that are comprehensible to those in the center, such acts have at least demonstrated the ability to challenge the dominant cultural structures by co-opting English and re-defining the association between *langue* and *parole* in order to align it to local values and purposes. Norton (2000) writes that “power does not operate only at the macro level of powerful institutions . . . but also at the micro level of everyday social encounters between people with differential access to symbolic and material resources—encounters that are inevitably produced within language” (p. 7).

4.2.1 Effective Resistance

Though the co-opting of English is a significant phenomenon, Canagarajah warns that mere resistance may have little effect if it is not presented in a form that is recognizable to center institutions. He profiles three of his doctoral students who all use different methods to cope with the challenges of working within the framework of academic writing for their theses. Though all three students expressed resistance in their writing and sought to give a distinctly Sri Lankan voice to their work, only one student succeeded in doing so in a form that could be recognized and acknowledged by the center institutions that such writing seeks to challenge. He implores us to search for such opportunities to affect structured change through language use and measured appropriation of forms to further a local agenda. “While we must recognize the contextual appropriacy of different Englishes and teach students as many variants as possible, it is equally important to teach students that any dialect has to be personally and communally appropriated to varying degrees in order to be meaningful and relevant for its users” (p. 181).

Indeed, it seems that to create fundamental change, it is first necessary to be able to understand the deep cultural differences that divide center and periphery communities, and be able to function ourselves in that framework. Critically, the ability to put oneself in a different culture of communication or

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thinking does not imply condoning of the institutions or peoples that perpetuate them. Shaules' (2006) concept of cognitive relativism is helpful here: "Cognitive empathy . . . is defined as an increased ability to consciously differentiate cultural phenomena . . . A high degree of cognitive empathy means that one can consciously shift between competing frameworks of meaning. One can understand competing cultural logics and choose one's own behavior accordingly" (p. 238). It is important to note that in the critical tradition, the final goal is not a sort of post-cultural objectivity, lacking affiliation to any particular set of values. Rather, the ability to think through other cultural perspectives for the purposes of critical engagement:

Although Enlightenment thinking placed the human subject as transcendental and autonomous, rising above influences from the material environment, with an inner core of consciousness that provided each with a unique identity, this was too idealistic. While resistance thinking acknowledge the power of dominant discourses to constitute subjectivity and confer marginalized identities for some, it enables a critical negotiation with the dominant discourses as an important step in resisting power structures (p. 31).

4.3 Resistance in Korea

In Korea, then, the next step will be to move towards appropriating English in a way that manage to express the needs of a local agenda while being packaged in a code that is recognizable to those in the center. The roots of such appropriation for resistance can be seen in pop-music, but also in the internet and print media. The issues over Dokdo and the naming of the East Sea (Sea of Japan) have been presented to the Western world in forms that are strikingly different from the emotion-driven nationalist discourse that is usually employed domestically. A recent campaign by Korean national Seo Kyung-deok features full page ads taken out in the New York Times and Wall Street Journal feature tempered prose and structured, logical arguments backed by copious historical evidence at:

<http://www.forthenextgeneration.com/dokdo/>

The fact that these ads were targeted at two organizations seen to be the

pinnacle of new reporting displays a recognition of and willingness to abide by the discourse standards of the West. However, the ads nonetheless featured a bold nationalist assertion and critical engagement of standard Western discourses surrounding this issue. Though these ads were criticized as sloppily executed and taking an “extremist position” (Breen, 2009), the campaign shows an acknowledgement on the part of Seo that appropriation of Western forms of persuasion is not only necessary, but can be used to serve a domestic agenda. It offers a compelling example of how English can be appropriated for resistance.

5. Conclusion

A critical look at the growth and spread of English reveals that it isn't fate that led to English's global role today, but a careful series of events that built up hegemony in military, economic, political and cultural realms. The implication for critical scholarship is that the ownership of English by the center is not an a priori reality but a grasp that can be challenged from the periphery (Canagarajah, 1999). Indeed, the fact that English has become predominantly a matter of local politics in former colonies shows how these peoples have taken ownership of English issues and incorporated them into their own social and political agendas (Sonntag, 2003).

In the Asian perspective, the shifting ownership of English can be seen in the co-opting and repurposing of English vocabulary, and in the pop-music industry. Analysis reveals that uses of English go beyond simple imitation to code-switching and code-mixing that is wrought with cultural depth and complex tides of resistance through assertion of a unique identity. Though Song (1999) offers the caveat that such code-mixing and code-switching is far from a daily reality in the Korean speech community, it is nonetheless true that English is being appropriated into Korean pop culture in order to provide locals with more tools to express their own complex cultural identities.

It is significant that appropriation of Western codes of communication

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as a means of overt cultural resistance has already begun, as evidenced in the Dokdo and East Sea campaigns. Whether or not this campaign is able to convince those in the center is almost secondary in significance to the shift that these ads represent in the way English is appropriated and used in Korea. If such practices continue, such acts of resistance can serve to upset the current power balance and create change. At the very least, appropriation of English indicates that the status, role and ownership of English in the global community has already begun to shift in significant ways.

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Globalization Index Survey

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Considering that globalization is the natural stream of the world and intercultural relationships are becoming more and more important, it would be helpful for individuals to estimate how much they are globalized to help with future intercultural relationships they may have. In this regard, the following questionnaire has been designed. In addition, since language is highly related with cultural learning, it is assumed that a person with language ability would be more globalized than a person without. Based on this assumption, results have been calculated after conducting the questionnaire survey of English teachers and non-language teachers. As was expected, the globalization index of English teachers was higher than other subject's teachers, scoring 71.8 and 56.3, respectively.

1. Introduction

As globalization becomes more mainstream in the world, more and more people have come into contact with others from different cultures. Even though some people have successfully managed themselves into new environments, many have failed in adjusting and dealing with different cultures in spite of the ability to command the language of the target culture. For this reason, the importance of how one can succeed at intercultural relationships has been recognized and drawn much attention. Accordingly

researchers and scholars have advanced opinions and studies about successful intercultural relationships. It is commonly accepted that a more globalized person is likely to adapt to a different cultural setting more successfully than another who is less globalized.

In order to measure how much a person is globalized, the questionnaire below has been designed based on various researchers' definitions and features that a globalized individual is expected to have. The questions have been made after considering the features and characteristics that a globalized person should have. In addition, since language ability is closely related to intercultural learning, the globalization index between a group of people with language ability and another group without language ability are compared.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Definition of a Globalized Person

Various scholars and researchers define what a globalized individual should be like. According to their definitions a globalised person is someone who:

- has the ability to identify and interpret explicit or implicit values in documents and events in one's own and other cultures (Byram, 1987; 1997)
- is inclusive of life patterns different from his own and who has psychologically and socially come to grips with a multiplicity of realities (Adler, 1977)
- lives outside all cultural frames of reference by virtue of the ability to consciously raise any assumption to a meta-level. In other words, there is no natural cultural identity for a marginal person. (M.J. Bennett, 1993)
- as an intercultural speaker - he/she can deal with a situation well in which either he/she can speak the foreign language or not. He/she possesses intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence – the ability to interact in one's own language with people from other cultures and the ability to do so

in a foreign language (Byram, 1987; 1997).

- can have relationships with one's own family and communities of origin and from a commitment to interactions with others because true empathy and interpersonal skills rise naturally from relationships (Sparrow, 2000).

2.1 Attributes of a Globalized Person

Based on the scholars' ideas about a globalized individual above, the attributes that a highly globalized person is expected to have are as follows:

- to think all cultures are relative
- to be able to speak more than one language
- to have a deep relationship with someone from a different culture
- to have tactics to deal with others from different cultures successfully in spite of having no ability to communicate in the counterparties' language
- to know culture-specific information
- to know about and identify with ones' own culture
- to be flexible
- to be able to establish and maintain relationships

3. Methodology

3.1 Survey Subjects

The subjects of the survey are 50 current teachers and the teachers are divided into two different groups based on the subjects they are teaching. The results of the survey of each group have been examined separately and compared to each other. The first group of the survey subjects consists of English teachers and the other group is composed of teachers of other subjects. The reason why the survey respondents are divided into two groups is that English teachers are expected to have relatively more chances to go

abroad and make contact with other cultures compared with non-language teachers. Plus, since learning English has become not only a matter of acquiring language itself but is also related with learning different cultures, it has been thought that a person with English skill could handle different cultures better, and consequently would be more globalized than a person who does not have other language skills. Hence, before the survey was carried out, it was assumed that English teachers would be more globalized than other subject teachers and consequently they would get higher scores for the survey that estimates their globalization index. A comparison between English teachers and teachers of other languages is not included.

3.2 Testing Tool

The survey consists of 5 categories: cognitive aspect, knowledge sets, skills and abilities, attitudes and relationship and experience. In each category, there are 4 questions and each question has been made based on the attributes that a globalized person would be expected to have. The categories have been set up after considering, as much as possible, concepts that can cover every aspect or field a globalized person should have. Each question under each category has been made based on researchers' definitions of intercultural success and the features that a person with successful adaptation to an intercultural relationship has.

The questions under the category of cognitive aspects have been made based on the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (Bennett, 1993). Accordingly, the questions from 1 to 4 represent the features that a person in Integration or Adaptation stage in DMIS should have. As Shaules (2007) mentions Bennett's model looks specifically at the cognitive ability to construe cultural difference, other features such as experience and relationships for successful cultural adaptation are considered in other categories.

The second category, knowledge sets, has been established under the concept that a highly globalized individual would have a broad knowledge about other countries. Byram (1987; 1997) emphasizes knowledge

competence, and reports intercultural competencies include the ability to identify and interpret explicit or implicit values in documents and events in one's own and other cultures as a sub-competency.

The third category, skills and abilities, has been made based on intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1987; 1997). It includes not only language competence but also, ability to deal with intercultural interaction without language ability.

The questions in the attitude category represent what kind of attitude one has toward other cultures. It is also based on Bennett's DMIS as well as intercultural education. A person in the Ethnorelative Stages, which includes Acceptance, Adaptation and Integration, does not perceive cultural difference as a negative thing and understands culture is relative to others. In addition, considering that intercultural education emphasizes the awareness of cultural relativism - understanding the limits of one's cultural perspective and appreciating the cultural perspective of others, it is thought that a highly globalized individual has the concept of cultural relativity. Accordingly, questions to estimate attitude or belief toward other cultures are included in the third category.

The last category, relationship and experience, has been established because a number of scholars have emphasized relationships as a measure of successful cultural learning (Shaules, 2007). Imahori and Lanigan (1989) argue that intercultural competence derives from dynamic interactive processes of intercultural relationships and Sparrow (2000) mentions true empathy and interpersonal skills rise naturally from relationships. In this regard, questions asking about international relationships and experiences are included.

3.3 Procedures

There are 20 questions in the survey. The total score of the survey is 100 and each question is worth 5 points. The highest total score is 100 and the lowest total score is 20. Since this survey is designed to measure the globalization index, it is assumed that the higher the score one gets, the more globalized he or she could be.

The survey assessment is based on the five-point Likert item. The format of the five-point Likert item is:

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neither agree nor disagree (neutral)
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

Checking Strongly agree scores 5 points and Agree, Neutral, Disagree and Strongly disagree score 4 points, 3 points, 2 points and 1 point, respectively. 17 out of 20 questions (Q 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20) are scored according to the five-point Likert item. Q16 is a matching question. A respondent is asked to match 5 countries with the continents which each country belongs to. Scores up to 5 are given depending on how many the respondent gets right. For example, if a respondent matches the countries with the continents all correctly, he or she gets 5 points. Q 18 and 19 are asking about the length of stay in another country and the number of countries a respondent has visited. Checking the longest time, More than 6 months, and the largest number of countries, More than 7 countries, get 5 points respectively.

Even though the original survey (Appendix A) has been designed in English, the actual survey has been done with a translated version (Appendix B) in order for all respondents to understand the questions clearly and for surveyors to collect data more accurately.

4. Results

25 English teachers and 25 other subject teachers answered the same survey. A perfect score for one person in the survey is 100, so the total should be 2500. To compare the data more easily, the average score has also been calculated. As shown in table 1, there is an absolute gap between English teachers and other subject teachers. The average score of the 25 English

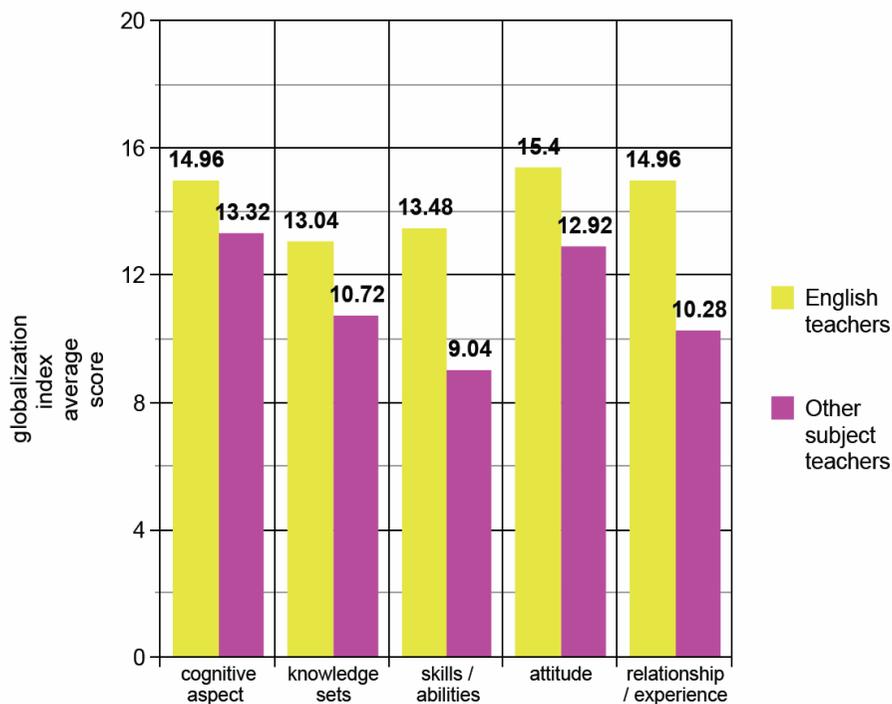
teachers is 71.8, while that of the 25 other subject teachers is 56.3. The gap between the two survey groups is 15.5.

There are 5 different categories in the survey. As shown in chart 1, in all categories, English teachers show a higher score than other subject teachers. Each section consists of 4 questions, so the total score of each section is 20. In cognitive aspect, the English teachers' average score is 15 while that of other subject teachers is 13. In knowledge sets, the average of the English teachers is 13 while that of other subject teachers is 11. As for the skills or abilities related with intercultural competence in language education, the average of the English teachers is 13.5 while that of other subject teachers is 9. In terms of attitude, the average of the English teachers is 15, but that of other subject teachers is 12.9. Lastly, as for interpersonal relationship or experience, the average of the English teachers is 15, while the average of other subject teachers is 10.3.

Table 1: Summary of Surveys

category subjects	English teachers (n=25)		other subject teachers (n=25)	
	Total	Average	Total	Average
cognitive aspect	374	14.96	333	13.32
knowledge sets	326	13.04	268	10.72
skills/abilities	337	13.48	226	9.04
attitude	385	15.40	323	12.92
relationship/experience	374	14.96	257	10.28
Total	1796	71.84	1407	56.28

Globalization Index Survey

Chart1: *Summary of Surveys*

The gap between the two groups is the largest in relationship/ experience, which is 4.68. The smallest gap between the two groups is 1.64 in cognitive aspect. This is shown in table 2.

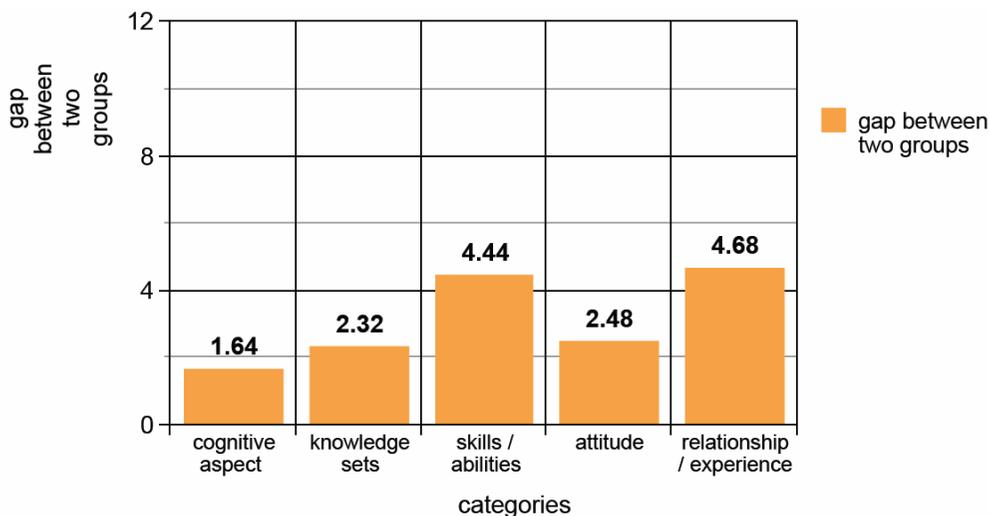
Table 2.

Gap between English Teachers and Other Subjects Teachers

category subjects	Gap between English teachers and other subject teachers	
	Gap in total score	Gap in average
cognitive aspect	41	1.64
knowledge sets	58	2.32
skills/abilities	111	4.44
attitude	62	2.48

relationship/experience		117	4.68
Total		389	15.56

Chart 2: *Gap between English Teachers and Other Subjects Teachers*



As shown in chart 2, two categories, skills / abilities and relationship / experience, show a larger gap between English teachers and other subject teachers, while the three other categories, cognitive aspect, knowledge sets and attitude, show a smaller gap between the two groups.

5. Interpretation

As the authors expected, English teachers have shown higher scores than other subject teachers in all categories. Considering that those 5 categories are the main requirements of the highly globalized person, it can be said that English teachers tend to be more globalized than other subject teachers. Especially in skills / abilities and relationship / experience, the gap between English teachers and other subject teachers is very high. It means that English teachers have had more chances to travel abroad, to meet people from other cultures, or to study foreign languages. It can be assumed that they have tried to be exposed to different cultures and to be motivated to learn foreign

language and culture, in order to teach English better.

In the other 3 categories such as cognitive aspect, knowledge sets and attitude, the two groups showed a smaller gap compared to skills/ abilities and relationship / experience. It is assumed that many people are quite aware that they cannot help being interconnected with people from other cultures. Regardless of the subject they are teaching, they have already learned some concepts about globalization. Globalization is a reality that they have to accept to some degree. Moreover, and especially true of teachers teaching social studies, other subject teachers tend to be interested in foreign culture and have great knowledge sets about different countries and/or world history. In fact, they can be as, or more, interested in world news than English teachers.

However, globalization requires not only understanding the present situation, in which one must naturally be globalized through having some information about other cultures, but also it requires being involved in interactions with others and feeling as if you are a world citizen. In that sense, teaching English can be very meaningful. As it is widely accepted, language is absolutely a part of culture, so teaching English can influence the degree to which people are globalized. In order to teach English, English teachers are continuously studying English, which makes them more open-minded to foreign cultures including unfamiliar languages or people.

6. Conclusion

As mentioned above, it is said that a more globalized person is expected to adjust themselves to a different cultural environment better than someone who is less globalized. At a time when globalization is a natural trend and intercultural relationships are becoming more and more important, it would be helpful for individuals to estimate and understand how much they are globalized in case of future intercultural relationships they would have. In this regard, the survey has been designed for a person to check ones' globalization index. All the questions in the survey have been made after considering the features and attributes that a globalized person would be

expected to have based on researchers' opinions. A numerical score of the survey result tells how much one is globalized and the highest score is 100.

Since language learning is always related with cultural learning, it was assumed that language teachers would get higher scores on the globalization index than non-language teachers. Therefore, on an assumption that English teachers' average score of the survey result would be higher than other subjects teachers', the result of the survey has been calculated and compared between two groups. As was expected, the average score of the 25 English teachers is higher than that of other subject teachers, 71.8 and 56.3 respectively. Especially in skills / abilities and relationship / experience, the gap between English teachers and other subject teachers was very large.

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Appendix A: Original Survey**Teaching Subject:** _____**Gender: Male / Female****Teaching Experience**

① Less than a year ② 1 ~ 5 years ③ 5 ~10 years ④ More than 10 years

I. Cognitive aspect

1. When I think of my identity I see that I can identify with 2 or more cultures. (Based on Bennett's DMIS-Integration stage questions)

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

2. Cultures are all relative. All cultures have different perspectives and we can not say one is right and another is wrong.

(Based on understanding cultural relativism - intercultural education)

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

3. Although I belong to Korean culture, I feel just as comfortable in another culture.

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

4. The reason why a person from a different culture behaves specifically in a certain situation has something to do with the culture or environment in which he/she has grown up rather than his mere personality or character.

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

II. Knowledge sets

5. I believe I have more knowledge about foreign countries than other people.

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

6. Match each country with the continent which it belongs to

Swaziland •

• Asia

Jordan •

• Europe

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- | | | |
|---------|---|----------|
| Serbia | • | Oceania |
| Bahamas | • | Americas |
| Tonga | • | Africa |

7. I am interested in the world news.

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

8. I can teach Korean culture to foreigners.

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

III. skills/abilities (Intercultural competencies in language education)

9. In a situation in which I can not communicate in a foreign language, I have no difficulty getting along with foreigners. (Based on Intercultural competence)

___ strongly disagree ___ disagree ___ neutral ___ agree ___ strongly agree

10. How many languages including Korean are you able to communicate in?

(The language ability that you can handle with everyday life matters with the language)

___ More than 3 languages ___ 2 languages ___ 1 language

11. I feel comfortable when someone talks to me in a foreign language.

___ strongly disagree ___ disagree ___ neutral ___ agree ___ strongly agree

12. I can change my behavior to make people from another culture feel more comfortable.

___ strongly disagree ___ disagree ___ neutral ___ agree ___ strongly agree

IV. Attitudes

13. I am interested in discovering other perspectives and have a willingness to question my own values.

strongly disagree disagree neutral agree strongly agree

14. I am always ready to learn about differences without the belief that my culture is superior or more reasonable compared to another culture.

strongly disagree disagree neutral agree strongly agree

15. I can adjust relatively easily and quickly to new surroundings.

strongly disagree disagree neutral agree strongly agree

16. I want to learn as many foreign languages and other cultures as possible.

strongly disagree disagree neutral agree strongly agree

V. (Interpersonal) relationship /experience

17. Do you have any acquaintances (friends) from different cultural backgrounds?

Yes) (Go to Q 17-1)

No) (Go to Q 17-2)

17-1. How often do you meet or contact him/her a year? (including contact through telephone, letter, e-mail, messenger, chatting, etc.)

more than 5 times 4 times 3 times
 twice once

17-2. I would like to have friends or family members from different cultural background.

strongly agree agree neutral disagree strongly disagree

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18. Have you ever stayed in foreign countries? How long did you stay there?
(Answer about the longest stay if you have stayed in several countries.)

_____ more than 6 months _____ 3 ~ 6 months
_____ 1 ~ 3 months _____ less than 1 month _____ never

19. How many countries have you ever visited?

_____ more than 7 countries _____ 5 ~ 6 countries
_____ 3~4 countries _____ 1~2 countries _____ never

20. I feel comfortable when I am with people whom I don't know well.

___ strongly agree ___ agree ___ neutral ___ disagree ___ strongly disagree

Appendix B: Actual Survey

* 이 설문조사는 숙명여대 TESOL 대학원 학생의 수업과제로, 교사를 대상으로 제작되었습니다. 최대한 솔직히 답변해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

- ◎ 담당 과목: _____ ◎ 성별: 남 / 여
 ◎ 교수 경험: ① 1년 미만 ② 1 ~ 5년 ③ 5년 ~ 10년 ④ 10년 이상

1. 나의 정체성을 생각해 볼 때, 나는 2개나 그 이상의 문화에 속해있는 것 같다.

___ 매우 그렇다 ___ 그렇다 ___ 반반이다 ___ 그렇지 않다 ___ 전혀 그렇지 않다

2. 사람이 어떤 상황에서 특정한 행동을 하는 것은 그 사람의 성격이나 기질 때문이 아니라 그 사람이 자란 환경이나 문화 때문이다.

___ 매우 그렇다 ___ 그렇다 ___ 반반이다 ___ 그렇지 않다 ___ 전혀 그렇지 않다

3. 나는 일반 사람들보다 다른 나라들에 대해서 더 많이 알고 있다.

___ 매우 그렇다 ___ 그렇다 ___ 반반이다 ___ 그렇지 않다 ___ 전혀 그렇지 않다

4. 나라의 이름과 그 나라가 속해있는 대륙을 연결하세요. ^^

스와질란드 .	• 아시아
요르단 .	• 유럽
세르비아 .	• 오세아니아
바하마 .	• 아메리카
통가 .	• 아프리카

5. 나는 한국 문화를 외국인들에게 가르칠 수 있다.

___ 매우 그렇다 ___ 그렇다 ___ 반반이다 ___ 그렇지 않다 ___ 전혀 그렇지 않다

6. 나는 세계뉴스에 관심이 있다.

___ 매우 그렇다 ___ 그렇다 ___ 반반이다 ___ 그렇지 않다 ___ 전혀 그렇지 않다

7. 나는 다른 어떤 문화에 비해 한국문화가 더 뛰어나거나 합리적이라는

Globalization Index Survey

생각을 하지 않으며, 항상 다른 문화를 배울 준비가 되어있다.

매우 그렇다 그렇다 반반이다 그렇지 않다 전혀 그렇지 않다

8. 문화는 모두 상대적이다. 모든 문화는 다른 관점을 가지고 있으며, 어떤 문화가 옳고 어떤 문화가 잘못됐는지 판단할 수 없다.

매우 그렇다 그렇다 반반이다 그렇지 않다 전혀 그렇지 않다

9. 나는 외국어를 할 수 없는 상황에서도, 외국인들과 어울리는데 문제가 없다.

매우 그렇다 그렇다 반반이다 그렇지 않다 전혀 그렇지 않다

10. 한국어를 포함해서 몇 개의 언어(일상생활에 관련된 정도의 의사소통)를 구사할 수 있나요?

3개 국어 이상 2개 국어 1개 국어

11. 나는 누군가 외국어로 말을 걸어도 편안함을 느낀다.

전혀 그렇지 않다 그렇지 않다 반반이다 그렇다 매우 그렇다

12. 나는 한국문화에 속하지만, 다른 문화 (외국인들 사이, 해외 등) 안에서도 편안함을 느낀다.

전혀 그렇지 않다 그렇지 않다 반반이다 그렇다 매우 그렇다

13. 나는 외국인들이 편안하게 느끼도록 내 행동을 쉽게 바꿀 수 있다.

전혀 그렇지 않다 그렇지 않다 반반이다 그렇다 매우 그렇다

14. 나는 가능한 한 많은 문화와 언어를 배우고 싶다

전혀 그렇지 않다 그렇다 반반이다 그렇다 매우 그렇다

15. 나는 내가 잘 모르는 사람들과 있어도 편안함을 느낀다.

전혀 그렇지 않다 그렇지 않다 반반이다 그렇다 매우 그렇다

16. 나는 다른 사람들의 가치관에 대해 흥미가 있으며, 내 자신의 가치관에 대해서도 기꺼이 의문을 던질 수 있다.

Application of Storytelling to English Classroom of Elementary School

So Young Park

TESOL 2nd semester

There have been a lot of studies about the application of storytelling to English classes and the interest in storytelling classes for elementary school learners is increasing. There are many guidebooks for elementary school teachers that introduce several activities for storytelling classes. However, it is not easy for teachers to adapt them to their classroom. The stories introduced in guidebooks or bookstores might not perfectly fit the interests and characteristics of students, and the degree of students' linguistic development is often much lower than that of their cognitive development. The goal of this paper is to show how to create storybooks fit for the characteristics of students and adapt storytelling activities to be used in the English classrooms in Korean elementary schools.

1. Introduction

Second language learning is too complex a process to explain how to succeed in mastering it and how to teach it in schools. Teaching English to students is more complex than simply teaching new information and knowledge because it involves various components, such as students' linguistic and cognitive development, motivation, and so on. In order to teach them effectively, it

should be understood that various factors can be influential.

There have been a lot of studies on the application of storytelling to English classes and the interest in storytelling classes for elementary school learners is increasing. However, it is not easy for teachers to adapt them to their classrooms. The storybooks introduced in the textbooks or bookstores might not fit the interests and characteristics of students. Moreover, the degree of students' linguistic development is often much lower than that of their cognitive development, so there is a possibility for students to regard the English storybook as childish. This gives teachers trouble when they look for the appropriate storybook for their students.

This analysis seeks ways of creating storybooks and adopting activities to be used in the English classrooms in Korean elementary schools. First, the theories of cognitive development, language learning, and motivation will be examined. Next, several points that teachers should take into consideration when creating storybooks will be explored. Then, an example of an original story that was created considering the degree of students' cognitive and linguistic development will be presented. Finally, a lesson plan for a storytelling class and a set of activities will be presented and this will show how language learning theories can be adapted to the actual classrooms.

2. Literature review

2.1 The theories of cognitive development and language learning

2.1.1 Piaget

Piaget (1955) defines children's development as taking place in four stages. Each stage represents the child's understanding of reality during that period. Children construct their own knowledge through experience. Experiences enable them to create schemata that are changed and enlarged through assimilation and accommodation. The four stages of development are sensory-motor stage, preoperational stage, concrete-operational stage, and formal-operational stage. Piaget explained learning as an active process and

therefore suggested that learning should be whole, authentic, and real by giving students opportunities to construct knowledge through their own experiences.

2.1.2 Vygotsky

Vygotsky (1978) highlighted the perception of language as a tool for cognitive development and the role of instruction. Vygotsky believed that language provides the child with a new tool which allows higher mental processes. He referred to the idea of the ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development), where the learner can achieve that potential only with assistance from others. In his view, mental functions that are beyond an individual's current level must be performed in collaboration with other people through social interaction.

2.1.3 Bruner

Bruner (1983, 1990) considered language and social interaction as the important elements for cognitive growth. He believed that for language development, a child not only needs to have the inner capacity of understanding and exploring language but also needs to have support from adults as a conversational partner; in other words, scaffolding. Scaffolding contains verbal guidance which an expert provides help for the learner to perform any specific task or the verbal collaboration of peers to perform a task which would be too difficult for any one of them.

2.1.4 Margaret Donaldson

Margaret Donaldson (1991) considered children to be active sense-makers who have the active desire of doing something. In her view, children are actively representing the world to themselves. She said that the child puts his expectation and representation of the situation in perceiving the meaning of the words. In other words, children use language to help them interpret the

situation, rather than paying attention to words themselves. She believed that a child develops language and understands words through making sense of the situation in which language is used meaningfully.

2.1.5 Comprehensible input hypothesis

Krashen (1985) postulates the significance of the role of input in the language learning process by suggesting the input hypothesis and defines the ideal nature of input for language learners. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, exposure to comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for learners to acquire languages. He also defines the nature of the comprehensible input as input containing "i+1," which is input slightly beyond the learners' present stage of linguistic competence. Therefore, it can be assumed that receiving and understanding comprehensible input plays an important role in second language acquisition, and that only a certain type of input, which is "i+1," is relevant for second language learning.

2.1.6 Noticing hypothesis

Schmidt (1990) distinguishes three levels of awareness, which are perception, noticing (focal awareness), and understanding. According to Schmidt, people perceive competing stimuli and may pay attention to them if they choose. Among many perceived stimuli, people consciously choose certain stimuli to be noticed by them. When having noticed some stimuli, people can finally experience understanding by analyzing and comparing it to what they notice on other occasions. Therefore, noticing is necessary and is a sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning.

Schmidt (1990) suggests five determinants of noticeability. First, expectations are generally recognized in psychological literature as important determinants of noticeability, facilitating the activation of particular psychological pathways (Kahneman & Treisman, 1984). Second, frequency increases the likelihood of an item being noticed in input. Next, perceptual salience is a basic determinant of language acquisition. Also, skill level,

including the automaticity of processing ability, may be a factor influencing noticeability. Lastly, task demands are powerful determinants of what is being noticed (Kahneman, 1973; Kihstrom, 1984; and Ericsson & Simon, 1984). Ericsson and Simon (1984) report that in extensive literature on tasks the memorized information must be paid attention to in order to carry out a task. All things considered, second language teachers can find out three major points which can be adopted in their classrooms. First of all, schemata which are related with the learning content need to be activated in terms of expectations. Next, content which is linguistically appropriate needs to be repeated since perceptual salience and frequency are important in language learning. Finally, tasks which demand the noticing of language content need to be given to learners.

2.2 Motivation theories

2.2.1 Gardner

Gardner (2001) states that motivation is a complex process, so all possible variables that could affect motivation should be considered. Two classes of variables are hypothesized to influence motivation. One of these is integrativeness, which reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer psychologically to the other language community and to other groups in general. The other one is the attitudes toward the learning situation which involves attitudes toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned. In schools, for example, these attitudes could be toward the teacher, the curriculum, or the course materials.

2.2.2 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory focuses on the degree to which an individual's behavior is self-endorsed and self-determined (Deci and Ryan, 2002). For instance, a self-determined person chooses to behave in a manner that reflects his autonomy, and his behavior is not to achieve an external reward or escape from aversive stimuli in the environment. According to the degree of self-

determination, the nature of motivation can be divided in two: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to initiating an activity for its own sake because it is interesting and satisfying in itself (Deci, Vallerand, Pelleiter and Ryan, 1991). Deci and Ryan (1985) claim that intrinsic motivation is a critical motivator of the educational process.

Intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students' natural curiosity and interest energize their learning. When the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich resources of stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring in learning is likely to flourish (p.245). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity to obtain an external goal. Extrinsically motivated learners behave in certain manner in order to receive some extrinsic reward or to avoid punishment.

Deci and Ryan expanded on the earlier work differentiating between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and proposed three main intrinsic needs involved in self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1991, 1995). According to Deci and Ryan, the three psychological needs motivate the self to initiate behavior and specify nutrients that are essential for psychological health and well-being of an individual. These needs include the need for competence, need for autonomy and the need for relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2002). First, need for competence refers to the need to experience oneself as capable and competent in controlling the environment and being able to reliably predict outcomes. Next, need for autonomy is the need to actively participate in determining one's own behavior. It includes the need to experience one's actions as the result of an autonomous choice without external interference. Lastly, need to care for and be related to others is called the need for relatedness. It includes the need to experience authentic relatedness from others and to experience satisfaction in participation and involvement with the social world.

2.2.3 The neurobiology of L2 motivation

Schumann (1998) introduced neurobiological investigations of the brain mechanisms involved in SLA. The key constituent of Schumann's theory is

stimulus appraisal, which occurs in the five dimensions of the brain. The first one is novelty, which means degree of unexpectedness and familiarity. Next, there are pleasantness and goal / need significance, which is about whether the stimulus is instrumental in satisfying needs or achieving goals. Also, the degree of the individual's expectation to be able to cope with the event is called coping potential, and depending on whether the event is compatible with social norms and the individual's self-concept, it is called self- social image.

2.3 Storybooks

2.3.1 Storybooks

In storybooks for children, stories are told in words and pictures. Each makes an important contribution to the way the story is told, the meaning created (Gleeson, 2003). The pictures in storybooks show the parts of the story and provide context, so it's essential to understand the pictures in the storybook as well as the words. According to Linse (2005), one of the things that are so nice about children's picture books is that the pictures are often very engaging. Using storybooks, children can construct meaning by engaging with illustrations as well as the written text. Therefore, it is important for teachers to draw children's attention to illustrations for them to better understand the storybook and for their enjoyable and imaginative reading.

2.3.2 The effect of "storybook reading" on children's literacy development

Through storybook reading, young children come to know both an overall schema of the story structure and the specific language used to tell the stories (Baghban, 1984; Doake, 1985; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). Children consider the overall plot and use the pictures to get a general reconstruction of the story. As the story becomes more familiar, children focus on the story's sentences and lexicon. In other words, they begin with the whole story and gradually work their way down to little parts. In Hudelson (1993)'s research, the

children reconstructed the stories using the illustrations and their recollection of the language that the author used in the story. Gradually, with familiar books, the children attended more to the actual print, attempting to match the words that they hear to the words they see in the storybook.

3. Application

3.1 Creating storybooks

3.1.1 Consideration for creating storybooks

The storybook should have cognitively appropriate content. First, the story should be interesting and attractive to learners so that teacher can read to students repeatedly. This is related with the “pleasantness” in the “Neurobiology theory.” Second, the content of a story should have familiar elements in terms of “novelty” in “Neurobiology theory.” If it is too difficult or awkward for students, they will not be able to understand the story. Also, if the story gives useful information to readers, it is easy to make students concentrate and enjoy the story. Students can find the story informative as well as enjoyable. Also, the illustrations in the storybook should be beautiful and contain the information of the story itself. Well-organized illustrations can draw out students’ interest and expectation of the book, which can lead them to get motivation to read the book. Lastly, the story which has morals can be used for moral education. Especially when creating the story for young learners, it is effective to have some morals in it.

Next, language used in storybooks should be linguistically appropriate for the readers. Language used in the story needs to be appropriate with the level of learners in terms of vocabulary, the length of sentences, and verb tenses. If the language is too easy for the learners, they will lose their interest in the story. On the other hand, if it is too difficult, they will give up reading. According to Krashen (1985), comprehensible input which is slightly beyond learners’ present stage of linguistic competence is important in language learning. Also, Schumann (1999) said that motivation increases when the

learner expects to be able to cope with the event. Therefore, the teacher should select the story which is a little bit difficult for students so that it can be challenging for them to learn. Also, there needs to be some pattern which is repeated throughout the story. One of the advantages of adapting storytelling is the readers' natural acquisition of vocabulary through repetition. The repeated pattern in a story allows students to notice the content easily, and this is related to the "frequency" of "noticing hypothesis." Lastly, the length of the story is also important in creating storybooks for elementary school students. If it is too short, it will not give learners enough sources to learn, and if it is too long, students' motivation and concentration can be distracted.

3.1.2 The storybook: "The little friends in the flower garden"

"The little friends in the flower garden" was created for the third graders in elementary school. This book talks about an earthworm family that is looking for a new home and is asking a favor to the seeds in the field. However, the seeds do not want to live with the earthworms because the seeds think the earthworms are too creepy, noisy, and dirty. Fortunately, the earthworm family finds a kind seed who wants to live with them. After that day, the kind seed becomes a beautiful flower thanks to the help of the earthworms and the other flowers get sick. The flowers regret for being arrogant and apologize to the earthworms. The moral of the story is that everything in the world should be appreciated and respected no matter how they look.

As the first cognitive feature, the story shows the earthworm family who asks a favor to the seeds in the field and this pattern is repeated in the story so that the story is interesting as well as predictable for the students. This is related with the "pleasantness" in "Neurobiology theory." Second, even though this story was written in easy language, it contains the knowledge about the advantages of earthworms, which fits the cognitive development of third graders in elementary school. Also, the content of the story shows the growth of the plants, which is familiar to the students. Therefore, this story is informative as well as familiar to the students, which is related to "novelty" in "Neurobiology theory." Next, the illustrations in the storybook are

beautiful and contain the information of the story itself. Students could be motivated by illustrations because it shows the main idea of the story. Also, this story gives moral teaching point, so it is useful to be adopted in the elementary school.

Linguistically, most words in the story are easy when considering the English curriculum of the elementary school and they are repeated throughout the story. There are some unfamiliar words for students such as creepy, disappoint, bud, arrogant, and etc. However, they could be understood by the students in the context of the story and with the illustrations because they are slightly beyond learners' present stage of linguistic competence. Therefore, the linguistic level of the story is following the idea of Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input theory. Next, in the English curriculum of the elementary school, the length of the sentences is shown to be adequate when the sentence has less than nine words in it. Based on this standard, the length of the sentences in the storybook "*The little friends in the flower garden*" is adequate because most sentences have less than nine words in them. Also, the verb tenses used in this story are present and simple past tenses, so they are not difficult for elementary school students. This is related to the Schumann's (1999) theory which explains that motivation increases when the learner expects to be able to cope with the event. Also, there are some patterns which are repeated throughout the story, such as the questions and answers between the earthworms and the flowers. The repeated patterns in the story allow students to notice the content easily and this is related to the "frequency" of "noticing hypothesis." Lastly, in terms of the length of the story, this story might be read in five or ten minutes with students, therefore, it could be considered appropriate.

3.2 Lesson plan

3.2.1 The students' profile

The class consists of 28 elementary third graders and the students attend the English class two times a week. One is for studying with the English

textbook, and the other one is for storytelling. The language proficiency of the students ranges from novice mid to novice high. Most students don't have experience traveling or studying overseas. They have high interest in storybooks which have beautiful illustrations and they especially like storybooks which contain illustrations of animals. Also, they enjoy listening to the stories and talking about them.

3.2.2 Procedure

Table 1. *Storytelling Lesson Plan*

Step	Procedures	Teaching-learning activities
Introduction	Greeting Guessing game	- Greeting - Introduce what they will learn - Guessing game: "Who am I?"
Pre-storytelling activities	Show the title and cover Picture walk	- Show the title and cover of the book and let students talk about their experience and feeling about earthworms. - Make students predict the story based only on the pictures. Ask questions about what they can see in the picture, where it is, what happened, and how it's going to be, etc. - Let students guess the next part of the story by not showing the latter part of the pictures in the book.
While-storytelling activities	1 st reading: Shared reading 2 nd reading:	- Read the story together while teacher asks the questions related to the picture and story. 'Which are the main characters?' 'What did the earthworm family ask for?' 'What did the flowers say? Why?' - Chorus and miming

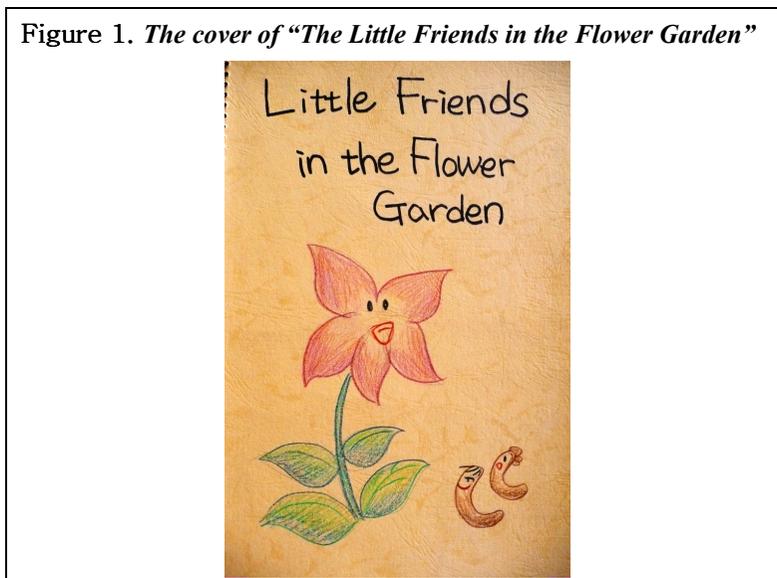
	Oral cloze	- Track a part of the story with a hand and encourage students to read along.
Post-storytelling activities	Mime game Retelling the story Role-play Writing	- Do mime game using the words in the story. - Let children retell the story as pairs and share feelings about the story. - Do role-play as a group of 4. - Write a letter to the earthworm.
Introduction	Greeting Guessing game	- Greeting - Introduce what they will learn - Guessing game: "Who am I?"

3.2.2.1 Pre-storytelling

The class does the guessing game. The teacher gives hints about today's topic, the earthworm. By doing this activity, the teacher can make students get involved in the class. As the first step of pre-storytelling, the teacher shows the book's front cover and the title of the story and asks children to talk about the experience related with the earthworm. During this activity, a teacher can draw out children's relevant background knowledge and vocabulary with the story. This activity can be a chance for children to activate their prior knowledge and experiences so to construct new knowledge based upon their prior knowledge, and this follows the idea of Piaget. Activated prior knowledge can improve students' ability to cope with the story, and this reflects the idea of coping potential of neurobiology. Also, most students might think that the earthworm is creepy and dirty, so their thoughts can be reviewed and changed after the storytelling has been done.

Next, the teacher does a picture walk. By only looking at the pictures, children can make up their own story and tell their stories to the teacher. This activity includes the ideas of Piaget, Donaldson and Bruner. First, children are actively participating in an activity using their own knowledge. Second, they're making up their own story through the pictures, which reflects what

Donaldson explained: that children develop language and understand words through making sense of the situation in which language is used meaningfully. Third, they are interacting with an adult who can give verbal guidance, which Bruner mentioned as scaffolding. Also, this activity enhances students' need for autonomy because picture walk allows children to determine and choose the storyline as whatever they think appropriate. Also, the teacher does not show the later part of the storybook, and students are encouraged to guess the later part and conclusions of the story by their self-determination. During the picture walk, the teacher asks several questions about what they can see in the picture, where it is, what happened, and how it's going to be, etc. While answering these questions, students can relate the story with their experience and prior knowledge; therefore, this activity can be the way for fulfilling the students' need for relatedness.



3.2.2.2 *While-storytelling*

Before the first reading, the teacher gives students the goal for reading, so students need to find out what happens to the flowers and earthworm. This idea is related with the goal evaluation of neurobiology theory. In the first reading, the teacher tells the story and from time to time, s/he stops

storytelling and asks children questions related with contents and pictures, and asks students to predict what will happen next. This activity contains the idea of Donaldson and Bruner. First, children understand the meaning of difficult words in context of story, situation, so this activity fits with Donaldson's idea. Next, while asking and answering, children are interacting with an adult who can give verbal guidance, which Bruner mentioned as scaffolding. Also, while storytelling occurs, a teacher makes children do chorusing and miming, which are the reflections of Piaget's idea, because children are actively constructing meaning using several senses.

In the second reading, the teacher tracks the part of the story with a finger and encourages students to read along. This repeated reading after the first reading helps children to develop confidence in predicting the content and sentences of the story. If the teacher stops reading at particularly predictable parts of the story, students can fill in the next word or phrase (Oral cloze). Because they already acquired the pattern and words of the story when they did the first reading, students would be able to answer to these kinds of questions easily, and this experience allows them to perceive themselves capable and competent (Self determination theory).

3.2.2.3 Post-storytelling

First of all, the class does the mime game in groups. They need to guess the right word through the mime another student shows. Because students are using their body, this activity is interesting for elementary school students, and effective for memorization of words in the story. In this activity, the students might be able to get motivation through group work, which is more cooperative than competitive. Also, teachers can help create students' positive attitude toward the learning situation by making lessons interesting with various teaching techniques, and by providing appropriate awards to students. This follows the idea of Gardner's motivation theory.

Second, students retell the story sharing feelings to a friend in pair work. This activity shows what children understood during storytelling, and

contains interaction with peers, so it follows the view of Vygotsky. Through this activity, children can reach a clear understanding of the story.

Next, children perform a role-play as a group of four. While creating lines and situations about one scene in the story, children can help each other, and get scaffolding from a teacher. Therefore, this activity reflects the ideas of Piaget, Vygotsky, and Bruner.

Lastly, they write a letter to earthworms. Because students are not accustomed to writing, the teacher gives a worksheet with some guide expressions in it. While students write the letter, the teacher can provide verbal guidance to help them perform the task, which Bruner suggested.

4. Conclusion

This study intended to show the ways of creating storybooks and adopting activities to be used in the English classroom in a Korean elementary school. While exploring language learning theories for L2 learners and making application to English class, some consideration points for teachers were found.

First of all, language teachers should examine the cognitive and linguistic characteristic of students carefully. The theories in SLA showed that knowing learners' present stage, expectation, skill level, schemata, interests, goal, self-social image, etc. are important in learning. Therefore, language teachers should set the standards of creating storybooks based on the cognitive and linguistic characteristic of their students.

Next, the teacher's role is especially important. They can motivate students through group work, which is more cooperative than competitive, by making lessons interesting with various teaching techniques, and by providing appropriate rewards to students.

In terms of rewarding, short term rewarding can be beneficial sometimes, but teachers should know that it is beneficial only when it is used on a limited basis. If it is used too often it will prevent students from being motivated in the long run. The teachers need to think about new strategies to motivate their

students intrinsically so that they can set long-term goals and get interested in learning English itself. They should try to make their students realize the benefits of intrinsic rewards such as the joy of language learning and the value of goal setting.

Lastly, in terms of methodology, it is possible to develop and adopt various methods and activities which can fulfill the needs of learners and fit for the degree of students' cognitive and linguistic development. Some activities are suggested in the study; however, a variety of activities can be explored and created by any teacher for her own students.

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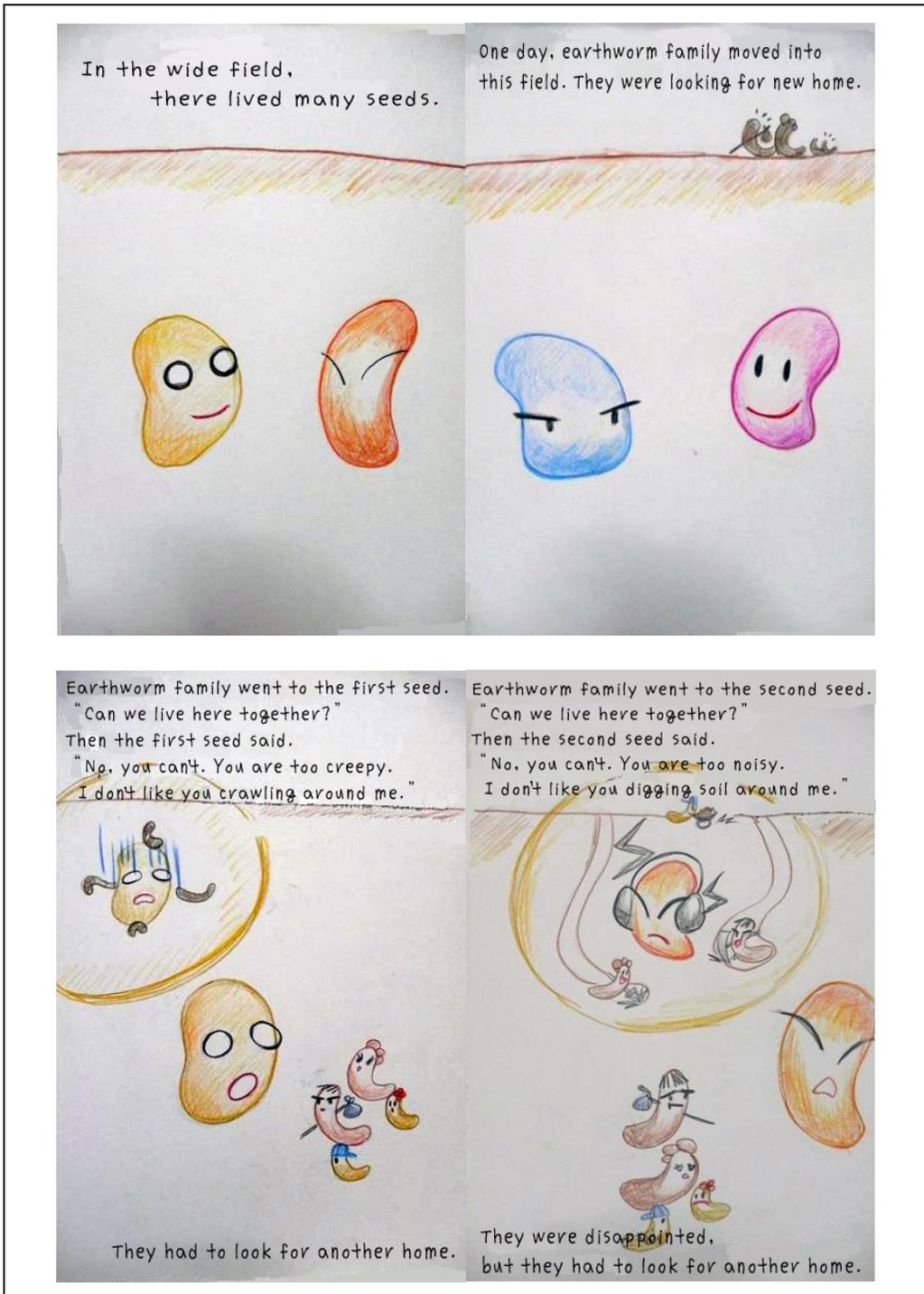
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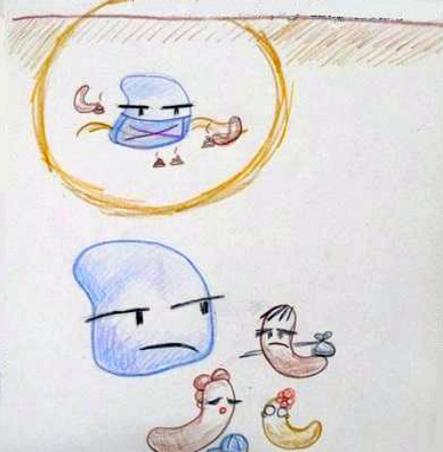
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Appendix - "The little friends in the flower garden"



Application of Storytelling to English Classroom of Elementary School

Earthworm family went to the third seed.
 "Can we live here together?"
 Then the third seed said.
 "No, you can't. You are too dirty.
 I don't like you laying dung around me."



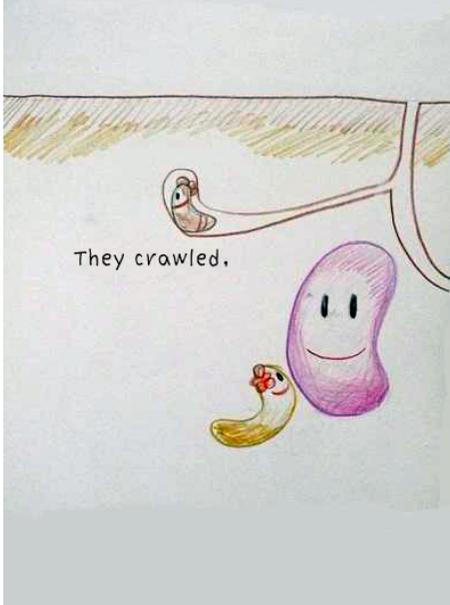
They were really sad,
 but they had to look for another home.

Earthworm family went to the fourth seed.
 "Can we live here together?"
 Then the fourth seed said.
 "Sure, you can. I like you living with me."

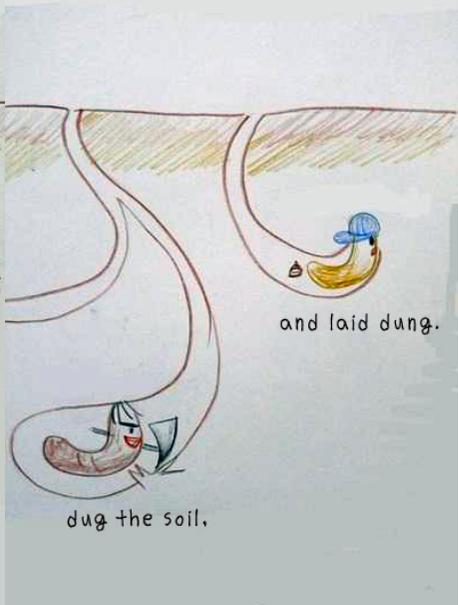


They were really, really happy.

From that day, earthworm family lived
 with the kind seed.

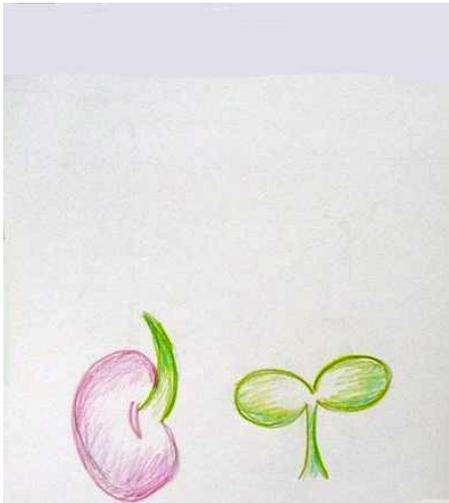


They crawled,

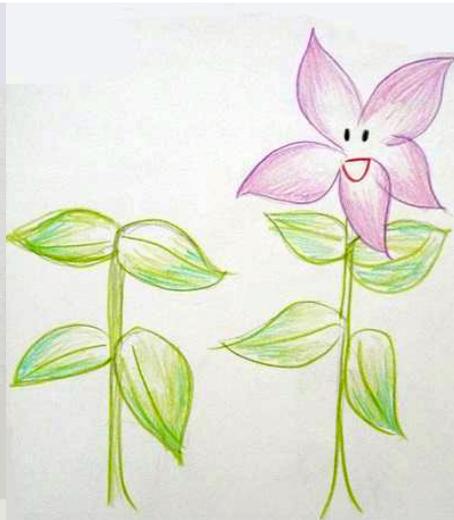


and laid dung.

dug the soil.



The seeds began to bud, and grew taller. They had leaves and became flowers.

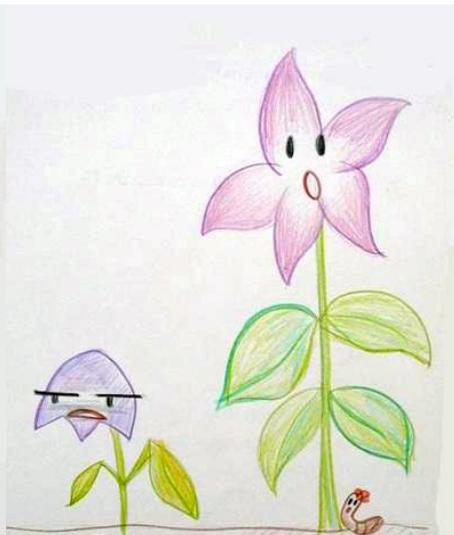


The kind seed began to bud, and grew taller and taller everyday, too. He had many leaves. Finally, he became a beautiful, kind flower.

One day, the kind flower found the other flowers were sick. They were small and weak, and their faces were so pale.



The other flowers asked to the kind flower. "How could you be so tall and healthy?"



The kind flower answered. "Its because of little friends, earthworm family."
"What?" The other flowers were surprised.

Application of Storytelling to English Classroom of Elementary School

"Earthworm family crawled around me, making soil softer. So I could spread my roots easily."



"Earthworm family dug the soil around me, making many holes. So I could breathe and drink water easily."



"Earthworm family ate little grass and laid dung around me, making good food for me. So, I could be a healthy flower."

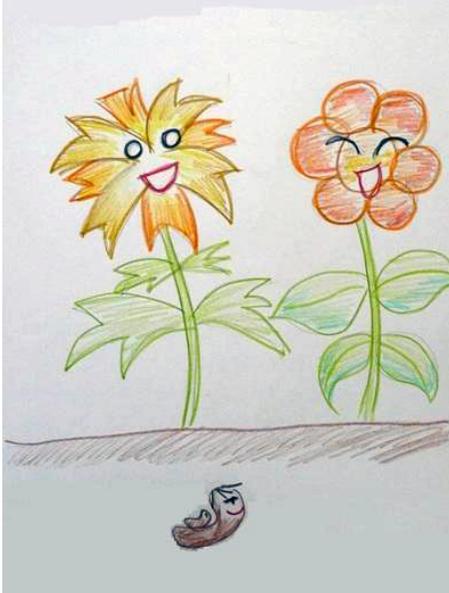


The other flowers were ashamed of themselves. They regretted of being unkind, rude, and arrogant. They said to earthworm family.

"Sorry, earthworms. We regret of being unkind to you. Can we live together?"



From that day, the wide field changed into the garden full of beautiful flowers.



And now in that garden, there are a lot of happy flowers who have little friends :



Earthworms.

Facilitating Creativity with CALL

Tracey Lee

TESOL 3rd semester

Since communication among people through different media is getting more active and diverse, communicators should be keen to these changes. The main point of communication has shifted from comprehension to delivering or sharing new ideas, and this shift involves creative thinking. The industrial revolution of transportation and media has brought drastic changes for the need of English, the global language. Now, computers have brought a lot of changes in human lives from shopping, banking, education, to communication. Though Korea is one of the most technologically advanced countries, English education in Korea has been slow to incorporate technology. The purpose of this paper is to discuss how creativity can be taught in language classes and to provide a sample creative activity.

1. Introduction

English has diversified since it has been used in different countries. Therefore, the focus of English education has changed from a focus on accuracy to fluency-based approaches. To enhance fluency the language features such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation are not sufficient. Instead of how the learners communicate, *what* the learners communicate in the target language is getting more attention, especially with certain methods such as CBT (Content-Based Teaching) and PBL (Problem-Solving Learning). These methods, and others, help learners practice the target language with their own thoughts which would be interesting enough for the

interlocutors to be engaged in the communication attentively, instead of practicing the memorized or standardized patterns of expressions.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Absence of Creativity in Language Classroom

Language skills are the foundation of the communication of ideas. To help learners' structure their thought processes, teachers should allow students to use the language with the specific purposes by encouraging them to be actively engaged in learning situations. However, traditional education in Korea has relied on teacher's explanations and thoughts rather than providing opportunities for students' active involvement, and this promotes a dependence on accepting information without critical or creative thinking. Nash mentions 'Where teacher talk is the main medium of transmission the child is effectively excluded from learning, to the frustration of both child and teacher' (Nash et al. 2002). De Bono urged 'We need thinking in order to make even better use of information (De Bono 1993).'

Though Korean Education has focused on English education intensively, the learners are often not allowed to think deeply or creatively. An example of this is demonstrated in Figure 1:

Figure 1. Elementary School English 5, p.36-37

Let's Read

1. 그림 낱말의 뜻을 생각하며 읽어 봅시다.

 tall	 sky	 big
 tower	 bird	 city

2. 그림에 알맞은 낱말을 이으며 읽어 봅시다.



Let's Write

1. 알파벳을 써 봅시다.

P p	Q q	R r	S s	T t
 pig	 queen	 robot	 snake	 tent

2. 미로를 통과한 다음, 그림이 나타내는 낱말의 첫 글자를 소문자로 써 봅시다.



Let's Play (3)

크게 또는 작게 쓰기 놀이를 해 봅시다.



36
37

Figure 1 shows the English text book for 5th graders in the elementary school. The content that shows on the pages is too simple for the students' cognitive level, which is not challenging for them. The activity on p.37 is writing in big or small letters, and it does not seem to be suitable for 5th graders to motivate them to create ideas. This textbook is focused more on reading, writing or matching than creating or producing.

This is just one example of a text, but it helps illustrate the point that some educators in Korea do not provide opportunities for creativity. Before presenting an example activity that fosters creativity, creativity will be defined.

2.2 Approaches to Creativity

2.2.1 Definition of Creativity

What is creativity anyway? Is it the same as genius or talent? Can it be described as invention and innovation? There are many ways to define creativity, but here are some common elements that most definitions share:

1. Creativity involves problem-solving and brainstorming. According to Osborn, there are practical and pragmatic approaches with applications of creativity including problem-solving activities such as 'brainstorming' (1953). These activities stimulate the creative thought that enhances a capacity for problem-solving.
2. Creativity is combinational. Cognitive approaches are concerned with a fuller understanding of the kinds of mental operations which underpin creative thought. The underlying theory is that creativity is 'combinational' (Boden, 1999), that means it involves connections between ideas and ways of applying those ideas into the solutions of problems. The connections invoke an unconscious process, and this unconscious process leads to a random combination of ideas one of which may then emerge as an appropriate creative solution to the problem.
3. Creativity includes situational interactions with individual differences. Social-personality approaches have concentrated on

personality factors and environmental variables affecting creative thoughts and creative production. One of them is motivation. Individual differences between creators involve a complex of individual and situational interactions (Amabile, 1983, Collins and Amabile, 1999). Lubart (1999) also shows the importance of creative thinking from a more social and cross-cultural dimension.

4. Creativity is a product of social systems. Creativity is a phenomenon that is constructed through an interaction between producers and audience. It is not the product of single individuals, but of a social system making judgments about individuals' products. (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999:313). Csikszentmihalyi comments that the creativity makes no sense if it is not accepted by others in the domain and urges that to be creative, a variation has to be adapted to its social environment. In other words, creativity should not go too far, and should not be too far from accepted norms.

3. Activity Design

3.1 Designing a Creative Activity

To design activities that support student creativity, teachers must give students choices and support their autonomy. When teachers take full responsibility from planning lessons to assessing, the students will lose their opportunities to interact, discuss and use the language creatively. Even worse, sometimes the teachers take the students' chances to practice by assuring that they don't need to practice what they already know and giving a higher level task with which the students can hardly communicate.

3.2 Students' Profile

Students' linguistic level is intermediate-high at the age of 12, 5th grade elementary school students. They are interested in communicating in English.

3.3. Procedure

1. Students create one product to sell. The products can be something weird such as flying shoes or electronic costumes.

2. Students discuss the script they are going to present in the commercial.
3. Students assign roles for themselves.
4. Students practice until they memorize their own part.
5. Students take a video (Figure.2) of the commercial and upload on the blog with the short comment about the product.
6. Other students visit the blog and leave some comments about the commercial.

Figure 2. Video of the commercial

SMU Juice!

This juice can make you speak English very well.



1. Product: SMU juice
2. Target consumers: The people who want to improve their English speaking skills
3. Function: The drinker can speak English fluently.
4. Script:
 - A : Excuse me, would you tell me where Seoul Station is?

B : Oh, no! No English bye!

C : Are you having a trouble with English? Then here is an answer for you. SMU juice! If you drink it, you can speak perfect English. Here, try some.

B: Hey, girl! Seoul Station is just around the corner.

A: Oh, really? Thank you so much. You speak English very well.

C: Another chance. If you get Levi's photo, you can get another one for free!

ABC: Wow! Cheers! SMU juice!

3.4 How the Activity meets the Goals of Creativity

This activity is enhancing students' creativity. First, creativity involves problem-solving and brainstorming. However, if the problem that students have to solve is too complicated, they focus more on problem-solving than language practice. So the problem has to be simple enough and interesting for them to engage in the task easily and enjoyably. In this activity, while students cranked up their brains to think up a newer and funnier product and to produce the commercial for it, students also brainstormed lots of different expressions as well.

Second, this activity is combinational. It involves the connections between ideas and ways of applying those ideas into the solutions. When students brainstorm the product, they think up random ideas to find the most appropriate one. Finally they can find one from the combination of random ideas through their conscious and unconscious process of thinking.

Thirdly, the activity includes situational interactions with individual differences. Individual differences between creators produce the great ideas through interactions. It's like building something with blocks of different shapes, which will make the building with a stronger structure when they fit into each other. When the activity is under the conditions of creativity, which are exploration, openness, learner autonomy, risk taking, and flexibility, the students' individual differences can affect their product more positively. Therefore, when this activity allows the students to think of any ideas, even

something that sounds weird, the teacher can get more creative results from the students than if they are repeating the teacher's ideas.

Lastly, this activity is a product of a social system. In this case, the product of a social system means that creativity is constructed through an interaction between producers and audience. Even though creativity should be beyond the normal or common thinking, it shouldn't be too far that it can't be accepted socially. The creator should consider the social need and be sensitive to the responses of the audience. In this activity, even though the juice to make people speak English sounds like nonsense, students were still able to generate socially acceptable answers that the audience accepted. If the students know that their commercial is going to have a real audience, they will consider the features that are accepted socially while they are creating something. Having a real audience and interaction between the creator and audience are crucial conditions for both creativity and effective language learning.

4. Conclusion

Creativity involves thinking that aims at producing ideas or products. However, it has both domain-specific and domain-general elements. Therefore, the creator should have some domain-general elements, and to make creative contributions he must develop knowledge and skills within a particular domain. To be creative, the learners should be aware of the people's need and the latest issues through interactions and open mind.

In the pasts, creativity had been considered as a gift which was given to special people and as something that couldn't be taught or measured. Recently, though there are still arguments in the field, creativity is getting more and more attention from educators as well as from artists and advertisers. If language is taught with the needs of the world in mind, language teachers should teach students to use the language more effectively in real communication. Therefore, creativity should be another element for successful conversation and more methods for it should be researched.

Teaching language is more effective on the computer in various points, but what makes the teachers hesitate to use computers in class is that they

Facilitating Creativity with CALL

think CALL class is limited to experts who can use computers very skillfully. If roles of CALL are considered, with its new types of input including web based information with audios and videos, interactions through chatting, e-mail, and blogs, and new types of output including audio, videos and collaborative writing with the bigger audience, the programs or the tools that teachers can use in class don't need to be something unusual to either the teachers or the students. Teachers can still provide various activities using the tools that students are already accustomed to use for extending language practice both in class and out of class.

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The Effectiveness of Drama Activity in Second Language Acquisition

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TESOL 4th semester

There are many concerns about teaching English as a second language since English fever in Korea has increased due to globalization and socialization. As the role of English education is important and extremely sensitive, the deliberation of how to appropriately utilize various approaches and methodology in a given circumstance has been strongly raised. Because of this language educators have been looking for effective and enjoyable ways of teaching English as a second language. Among diverse pedagogies, such as grammar transition and audio-lingual method, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been considered as one of the best ways of coping with the predicament to meet the main purpose of language use, communication. However, it does not seem to easily help learners reach its main goal of using this approach in a Korean context.

1. Introduction

Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1985) emphasize the important role of meaningful interaction in language acquisition, which basically influenced the advent of CLT. This research is designed to analyze interaction by comparing and contrasting a regular classroom and a drama classroom with a process drama activity. A modified form of Sjorslev(1987)'s interaction model is also applied to examine four different types of learners' interaction (turn taking, exchanges, amount of speech, and choice of topic and

coherence) according to two different classroom contexts. This study will examine the fundamental theories of second language acquisition, and then suggest better ways of enhancing CLT by applying one of the drama activities into the language lesson, which provides learners with opportunities of meaningful interaction through the language learning process.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Language Learning Theories

2.1.1 Interactionism

According to Piaget (1970), there are certain stages in children's cognitive development that occur through meaningful interaction with their surroundings. This means that children's function is influenced by their environment with the processes of assimilation and accommodation. Based on this theory, the important role of interaction could be explained in terms of language learning.

2.1.1.1 Vygotsky's ZPD

Vygotsky (*op cit.*) believes that children develop language as a tool for thinking, understanding, and learning through other people's support in a social context. This means that they interact not only by themselves but also with people surrounding them, which helps knowledge and skill development to be internalized. At this point, he introduces the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) that explains the important role of instruction. Since there is a gap between what one is able to do alone and what one can achieve with other's help, learners need a teacher's or peers' assistance in the classroom based on self interaction.

2.1.1.2 Bruner's Scaffolding

Bruner (*op cit.*) defines Language Acquisition Support System (LASS), which introduces the idea that children need to be exposed to the language in an understandable context, so that they can acquire language through meaningful interaction with their surrounding environment. Also, he explains that, within the exposures to the certain routines and repeated formats, they

would be able to more easily understand content and language in an expected way based on their own scaffolded interaction, which emphasizes the important role of ‘scaffolding’. Since in an EFL context, learners could not have sufficient exposures to the target language, and hardly have any experiences of effective scaffolding process, teachers have important roles as interlocutors, supporters, and scaffolders by taking a deep consideration of what learners can do and what they need to do.

2.1.2 SLA Theories

2.1.2.1 Input Hypothesis

According to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), learners would be able to acquire language when they are exposed to comprehensible input that helps interlanguage development and change to reach the target language. He also explains that comprehensible listening and reading inputs slightly beyond the learners’ current level ($i+1$), can improve language proficiency and competence through students recognizing and obtaining functional aspects of language and forms in meaningful contexts. However, Long (1985) claims that even though comprehensible input is definitely necessary in language acquisition, it is neither sufficient nor efficient. Swain (1985) also argues that input would not automatically have an influence on output, because although learners are able to obtain receptive skills through constant comprehensible input, if they do not have opportunities of applying these skills to productive skills (speaking, writing), they would not be able to communicate correctly and appropriately.

2.1.2.2 Output Hypothesis

Swain (*op cit.*; Swain and Lapkin, 1982) designed Comprehensible Output Hypothesis by purporting the idea that learners are able to improve speaking and writing skills by negotiating meaning with much practice. Output provides learners with chances for contextualizing meaningful language use, allowing them to test output hypothesis, and forcing them to move from semantic to syntactic processing of the target language. It requires learners to take more active roles than that required in comprehension, because they

need to focus much more on cognitive resources while producing language. Therefore, output essentially forces learners to pay more attention to grammar and engage in deeper syntactic processing, as well as provides opportunities of producing language through meaning negotiation.

2.1.2.3 The Relationship between Input and Output

Comprehensible input enables learners to understand not only language itself but also functions in a certain circumstance, while output helps learners reinforce what they have acquired from a mixture of input by testing their input and output hypothesis. Therefore, input triggers output, whereas output reflects acquired input and even affects understanding better input through strong interaction between input and the output process. It means that the more input could be accepted by internalized output, the more output could be activated by embedded input, so that both input and output could be intensified.

2.1.3 Psycholinguistic Processes

2.1.3.1 The Operation of Memory Systems

Atkinson and Schiffrin (1968) state that when a particular information comes into one's memory system, it goes into a short-term memory to be constantly simulated and interacted with background knowledge through take-out and put back processing. This process requires learners to take more active roles by focusing or relying on cognitive resources while comprehending and producing language. If the information is related to one's schema in a certain situation, it will be easily shifted to a long-term memory to be produced as output. But if the information is unfamiliar with or does not relate to one's needs, it could be difficult to be internalized in the memory system. This means that with this internal and interactive process, learners might intake certain input whereas they might fail to recognize information. Therefore, input should be noticeable and attentive to go through the procedure of language development in the memory system; input, intake, and developing system (Vanpatten, 1996).

2.1.3.2 Influences upon Noticing

Not only is salient input necessary but also consciousness input is essential to help focused input finally reach the long term memory (Schmidt, 1990; Schmidt and Frota, 1986). Awareness enables more efficient solutions to the matching problem (Klein, 1986), and helps learners notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language within correction. In addition, it leads learners to modify and recombine acquired competence so that other organizational possibilities become clear (Karmiloff-Smith, 1986).

2.1.3.3 Noticing Theories

Schmidt (*ibid.*) reflects Skehen (1998)'s cognitive approach by describing five features of noticeable input that promote learners' syntactical awareness: 1) expectation that helps primary perception and noticing patterns of language, 2) frequency which increases intake process through repetition, 3) perceptual salience that is noticeable to activate learners' interests, 4) skill levels that utilize learners' current proficiency and competence to influence on readiness, and 5) task demands which lead learners to stimulate and enhance their notice ability.

2.1.3.4 Two Task Types

Tasks should be organized based on the language learning process from skill getting (familiarity) for scaffolding to skill using (processing) for contextualizing and internalizing, in order to (1) inform learners about the language through noticing form, (2) provide experience with language use as functional practice, (3) stimulate language use through meaningful interaction, and (4) help learners to make discoveries about the language by themselves by testing hypothesis (Bailey, 2005).

Tasks should guide learners to bridge what they know at their current cognitive level with what they can do within the target language step by step. It might enable learners to master valuable communication factors, diverse semantic meanings, and even grammatical forms through maximized opportunities of recycling language, so that they are able to demonstrate language more confidently in a meaningful context through meaningful

interaction.

2.2 Communicative Competence

Savignon (1983) and Hymes (1972) describe communicative competence as the ability that helps learners to improve not only linguistic competence but also sociolinguistic competence, which emphasizes the important role of both form and function of language. This means language should be taught to assist learners to be prepared for real communication by providing them with linguistic forms and relating them to meaning which could be acceptable outside the classroom. Therefore, communicative competence could be categorized into four parts: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Riggenbach, 1999).

2.2.1 Linguistic Competence

Ellis (1995) and Celce-Murcia (1991) state that focusing on language form based on function is necessary, in order to help learners improve proficiency and competence. The syntactic approach enables learners to understand the relationship between form and function in meaningful contexts, so that they are able to communicate effectively and correctly. It allows learners to relate underlying models of grammar to the actual process of language, which connects competence with performance. The lexical approach helps learners familiarize with the target language by repeating, memorizing, and finally internalizing, which allows learners to acquire language correctly as well as speak fluently. Both syntactic system and lexical phrases are very important in order to develop communicative competence, because these enable learners to use acquired or internalized structure flexibly as well as appropriately, so that it even could help them produce language creatively.

2.2.2 Sociolinguistic Competence

Kramsch (1993) explains that learners need to convey meaning effectively as well as pay attention to the social context in order to perform acceptably outside the classroom, because language is not only a functional instrument,

but also a form of social behavior, which emphasizes the important role of sociolinguistic competence development. Therefore language lessons should stimulate communicative needs relating to learners' own current situation and environment, so that they can have opportunities to express their own personality and experience through improving motivation based on interesting and nonlinguistic contents (Pennycook, 1989). The learners must pay attention to not only the functional meanings but also social interaction (Gee, 1986) to maximize language creativities and utilize language efficiently, so that they can communicate effectively as well as appropriately in a meaningful context by improving interactive skills (Scollon, 1995). Therefore, the success of communication could be evaluated not only in terms of functional effectiveness, but also in terms of the acceptability of the forms that are used. And most importantly, success of communication could be considered by suitability in a social situation.

2.2.3 Discourse Competence

Language learning involves the way of how to relate different types of discourse in such a way that hearers or readers can understand what is going on and see what is important. Likewise it involves being able to relate information in a way that is coherent to the readers and hearers (Gernsbacher and Givon, 1995). Canale and Swain (1980) suggest that discourse competence could be taught in an explicit way through cohesive devices such as graphic organizers in reading and writing (Silberstein, 1994), and turn-taking strategies through informal conversation activity (Dornyei and Thurrell, 1992; Riggenbach, 1998). All of these cohesive devices help learners become aware of contexts to create and maintain cohesion and coherence.

2.2.4 Strategic Competence

Language learners should develop autonomy and creativity in order to utilize the target language as they use their first language by improving communication strategies. This means learners acquire the sensor, motor and cognitive abilities necessary for using a language in an accurate, fluent and

appropriate manner through strategy enhancement. A conscious procedure could be carried out to solve a problem with explicit teaching (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990), and identifying the main meaning and idea could improve learners' motivation toward language learning by relating reasons of learning language with skill development. In order to understand language effectively, learners need a range of skills and strategies. But since awareness that different learners may have different learning problems, guided practice based on one's own view would help them learn and acquire necessary skills and strategies through deconstructing, comprehending, and constructing language with meaning negotiation (Dornyei, 1995).

All types of communicative competence should be activated during the activities as much as possible by relating macro level (sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence) with micro level (linguistic competence), so that learners can utilize language not only accurately but also appropriately in a given situation based on their own knowledge, experiences, views, and strategies.

2.3 Roles and Functions of Drama Activities

Drama provides authentic methods of communication through meaning negotiation (Snyman & De Kock, 1991). As dialogue is the basic form of oral communication, drama could be one of the fundamental factors to develop one's communicative competence. Since it is based on interaction among people, it might allow both teacher and learners to build horizontal relationships. It might be different from the traditional classroom setting so that it can change the patterns of classroom communication according to the social context, and encourage learners to improve autonomy towards their own language learning. Students can learn best when they are fully engaged in their learning process. Applying drama to education, students have chances to demonstrate what they can do and notice what they need to do by completing tasks on their own through meaningful interaction.

2.3.1 Closed and Controlled Drama Approaches

Vocabulary development first takes place in oral language, and in the early

stage of learning, it is only once vocabulary knowledge has established its foundation in oral language that it will be transferred to literacy (McKay, 2006). A simple scripted or rehearsed role play helps learners build sentence patterns and structures. This means by internalizing the forms of language through repeated practice in a meaningful context, they could create sentences by replacing certain vocabulary to linguistic patterns through closed drama approaches. Although it is informal performance, it is helpful to improve both fluency and accuracy, especially for beginners. Simulations and simple role-plays can be pre-determined to improve vocabulary as well as sentence patterns by creating situations in which learners can utilize target language points through controlled drama approaches. It also helps learners to notice language roles in certain contexts with repeated practice, so they could become familiar with language usage as well as improve confidence.

2.3.2 Semi-Controlled Drama Approaches – Scenarios

Semi-controlled drama approach is more focused on social and linguistic development within the consideration of authenticity compared to a closed drama approach. Di Pietro (1987) states that “A scenario is a thematically cohesive event in which humans perform actions that are purposeful to each of them,” which emphasizes the role of strategic interaction (SI). With SI approach, learners have chances of rehearsal, performance, and de-briefing through the process of improving fluency based on accuracy to enhance the target meanings as well as to achieve the goals of the assigned tasks. It also enables them to develop language performance by comprehending social and cultural context through task completion (creating their own dialogue and making decisions as to the outcome in groupwork).

2.3.3 Open Communication – Process Drama

Process drama emphasizes the role of performance (O’Neill, 1995), which guilds learners to understand not only themselves but their surrounding context. It includes all integrated language functions, such as preparation, rehearsal, written scenario, interviews, non-verbal representations, rehearsed scenes, and spontaneous encounters, so that learners can have authentic

opportunities of acquiring language usages by leading their own learning process. It focuses more on fluency rather than accuracy based on language authenticity, so learners can build up their confidence through challengeable tasks. As all decisions are made by learners through meaning negotiation among peers, a teacher needs to guide and assist them to achieve their goal in an effective and sufficient way.

All three kinds of drama approaches (closed and controlled drama, semi-controlled drama, and process drama) are definitely essential in developing communicative competence: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. By relating form and function of language, learners can develop linguistic competence, and through meaningful interaction, they can enhance effective and acceptable language strategies in social context. Within a cohesive way of language practice, they can improve discourse competence, and by developing autonomy, they can be motivated as well as increase strategic competence. Therefore, based on learners needs (what they can do and what they need to do), teacher should adjust the level of activity by trying to include all aspects of advantages in utilizing drama in the classroom.

3. Research and Method

3.1 Purpose

The purpose of this research project is to find out how drama activities especially process drama are effective in an English teaching context in terms of enhancing meaningful interaction between the students and the teacher. The assumption for this research is that *Drama activities will enhance meaningful interaction both qualitatively and quantitatively*. It also determines how frequently they initiate, take turns, how much they produce and how often they choose the topics.

3.2 Research Questions

This research project generates four questions to clarify the purpose. They are:

1. How often do learners in the drama class take turns compared to the regular class?
2. How often do learners in the drama class exchange information compared to the regular class?
3. How much speech do learners in the drama class produce compared to the regular class?
4. How often do learners in the drama class choose topics compared to the regular class?

3.3 Research Design

To obtain the data for this research project, classroom observation by videotaping was conducted. Both the regular class and the drama class have been videotaped and learners' interaction in both classes has been transcribed. For example, in a reading class, students firstly read the story 'Stellaluna' and then they have a regular class based on the practice book with comprehension check up questions. After that students are asked to get involved in a drama activity, specifically process drama, based on the story they have read. According to brief procedures two different classes such as the regular class and the drama class can be compared in terms of learners' interaction. Only 1 minute out of the whole class time will be extracted and transcribed to compare interactions. Interaction in each class will be analyzed based on the factors such as turn-taking, exchanges, amount of speech and choice of topic as described above.

3.4 Participants

3.4.1 The School Context

This research has been conducted for the students in 'S' primary school in Yongsan, Seoul Korea. This school is a private primary school and the purposes of English classes in this school are to make students develop communicative competence. The distinct characteristics of this school, which is a private primary school, allow for a different curriculum and different class times compared to public primary schools. Firstly, this school has 40 minute-long English class everyday from the 1st grade to 6th grade. The

number of the students in one class should not be more than 12 and classes are divided into 3 different levels; novice, intermediate and advanced. In the higher grades case, from 4th to 6th grade, there are 3 different English classes. One is a writing class with an English-speaking teacher and another is a reading class which uses an American reading text and the last one is a research and presentation class. This research project to find out the effectiveness of process drama is limited to an advanced 5th grade reading class with a story called ‘Stellaluna’ (Appendix A) published by Scholastic. More detailed information about the target students will be introduced in the following section.

3.4.2 Student Profile: age, language experience and proficiency level

The target students in this school context with the following research project are in the 5th grade, Intermediate high to advanced students, which is based on the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) proficiency guideline, in a reading class. Only English is used and the 12 students in this class are mostly free to speak when they express their opinions and feelings and describe personal incidents. Two of them are fluent in speaking English and were raised in English-speaking countries for a couple of years. Two thirds of the students have been exposed to English speaking countries for more than 3 months in the past 2 years. Also they are exposed to everyday regular English class at least for 40 minutes in this school context and more than that with extra curricula or private classes.

3.5 Procedures

Two different classes, the regular class and the drama class, will be described. The two classes are related in terms of topic because the regular class will be the first period of the lesson and the second period of the lesson is when the drama class will be conducted. Above all, the teacher will start the lesson by making students share and brainstorm the difference between the normal birds and the bat, which are main characters in the story ‘Stellaluna.’ After that students will have a chance to read the whole story and the teacher will lead the regular class by asking several comprehension questions. Learners’

interactions in the regular class will be extracted from a 1 minute part of this first period. After that, the second period of the lesson, which is the process drama session, will follow.

The process drama session will be divided into three parts: preparation, drama and a reflective session. In the preparation session for this research project, the teacher will provide the context, setting and role for each of the students. Students will prepare for their drama. For example, learners are asked to define and choose roles among characters in the story such as Stellaluna, mother bat, mother bird, owl, friend birds-Flip, Pip, and Flitter. They are asked to create dialogues in a welcoming party for Stellaluna after she comes back home safely. 12 students are divided into two groups and they prepare a drama by choosing roles and creating context and dialogues. In this session, learners are expected to choose the topic and create a dialogue based on what they have got from the story such as the difference between birds and bats with food, the way they act and so on.

In the second session which is drama, each group of the learners will perform what they have prepared and one minute from this session will be extracted. It will be used to analyze interactions by comparing interactions from the regular class. Lastly, the reflective session will follow and learners are asked to monitor what the other group has done and share ideas about how they feel and give feedback to each other. For example, learners will give feedback to other groups after their performances and share how they feel after performing as well.

4. Result and Discussion: Interaction Analysis

The tables and graphs below from the regular classes show how the teacher and 5 students interact in class. After reading the story 'Stellaluna' the teacher asks a few questions to check their comprehension. The tables and graphs below in the drama classes show how students interact in class. After reading the story 'Stellaluna' and finishing a regular class session, the teacher asks a few questions to check their comprehension and students answer. After that, a setting has been set up and students process the drama. Natural discourse might be investigated with negotiated roles, group-oriented and

focusing on process. (Kramsch, 1985) To analyze and compare interaction between two different settings, a one minute part out of each class time was extracted and transcribed (Appendix B).

4.1 Results for Turn-Taking

4.1.1 Regular Class

Table 1. Turn-Taking from Regular Class

1	T	All right. Could you please tell me what happened to Stellaluna in the beginning of story?
2	S1	Owl attacking....attack....oh...
3	T	Oh~ You mean owl attacked Mother and Stellaluna?
4	S1	(nodding) yes.
5	T	And then, what happened?
6	S1	Bird's nest.
7	T	Bird's nest?
8	S2	Yes, Stellaluna fell into the bird's nest.
9	T	Good job. You're right. How would you feel if you were Stellaluna at the moment?
10	S3	Exciting
11	S4	Fun
12	S5	Scared...
13	T	Exciting, fun, or scared? Ok, but who can tell me why?
14	S3	Me, me...me..me!!!
15	T	Ok, you.
16	S3	like bungee jumping.
17	T	Oh....I see. How about the other students?
18	S5	Me....Me.. I... scared because...um....because... no mother.
19	T	Oh...I would feel scared because there would be no mother.
20	S5	Yes.

Table 1 was extracted and transcribed from a regular reading class. 20 turn-

taking has been introduced. Numbers on the left row indicate the order of each participant's turn. Teacher (T) took 9 turns, Student 1 (S1) took 3 turns, Students 2 (S2) took 1 turn, Student 3 (S3) took 3 turn, Student 4 (S4) took 1 turn, and Student 5 (S5) took 3 turns in total.

4.1.2 Drama Class

Table 2. Turn-Taking from Regular Class

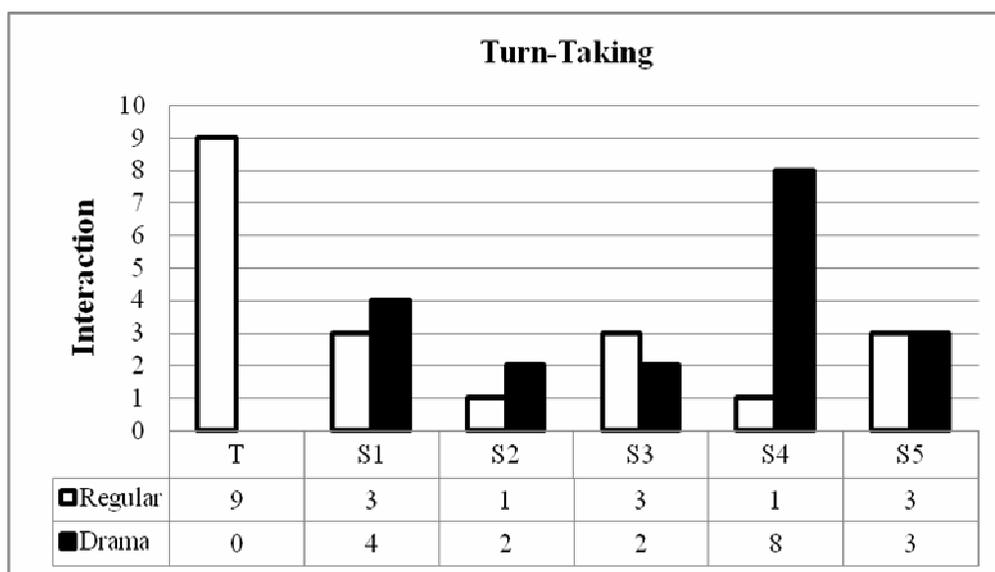
1	1	S4	You can eat grasshoppers?
2	2	S3	Thank you.
3	3	S4	Grasshopper.
4	4	S2	Thank you.
5	5	S4	And, this is a rat.
6	6	S1	eeeeee-eueee
7	6	S2	eeeeee-eueee
8	7	S5	Thank you.
9	8	S4	This is a marshmallow and mango.
10	9	S1	Thank you.
11	8	S5	Can you let.... Can you eat?
12	9	S4	(smiling) um.....
13	10	S1	Why did you put marshmallow. I hate it.
14	11	S4	Oh... just eat it. You should eat healthy. It's very healthy to eat it.
15	11	S5	How.... How do you know.... How do you know I like a mouse?
16	12	S4	Because I heard owls always eat rats.
17	13	S3	Hello, two. Owls like a mouse.
18	14	S1	Hey, guys. Let's talk about food.
19	15	S4	Ok, Hey guys. First, eat this food, first. It's going to be cold. This, this... you should eat it. This. Hot one. And, I'll eat one.

Table 2 is extracted and transcribed from a drama class. 19 turn-taking have been introduced. While T took no turns, S1 took 4 turns, S2 took 2 turns, S3 took 2 turns, S4 took 8 turns, and S5 took 3 turns in total. As Table 2 shows the numbers in the left row, during turn 6 and 7, S1 and S2 took turns at the

same time based on the same topic. Also, during turn 14 and 15, S4 and S5 took turns at the same time, but based on a different topic with other interlocutors.

4.1.3 Regular Vs. Drama

Figure 1. Turn-Taking from Regular Class and Drama Class



Firstly, turn-taking has been considered to analyze interaction in the class, so Figure 1 is designed to compare and contrast each participant's numbers of turns from the regular class and the drama class. Turn-taking is calculated by counting how many times participants in the class took turns. From two versions of extracted transcripts, regular and drama classes have been compared. According to Table 1, there are 20 times of turn-taking in regular class, and according to Table 2, 19 times in drama class in total. However, the quality of turn taking in the drama class is different from that of the regular class. In drama class, turn taking rules are usually followed while students speak freely about what they want and whenever they want. For this reason, in turn 6 and 7, S1 and S2 speak by taking their own turns at the same time, and in turn 14 and 15, S4 and S5 take turns based on their intention at

the same time, but with different interlocutors. In addition, few procedural problems occur. On the other hand, turn taking rules are often violated and many procedural problems occur in regular class.

4.2 Results for Exchanges

4.2.1 Regular Class

Table 3. Exchanges from Regular Class

1	T	All right. Could you please tell me what happened to Stلالuna in the beginning of story?
2	S1	Owl attacking....attack....oh...
3	T	Oh~ You mean owl attacked Mother and Stلالuna?
4	S1	(nodding) yes.
5	T	And then, what happened?
6	S1	Bird's nest.
7	T	Bird's nest?
8	S2	Yes, Stلالuna fell into the bird's nest.
9	T	Good job. You're right. How would you feel if you were Stلالuna at the moment?
10	S3	Exciting
11	S4	Fun
12	S5	Scared...
13	T	Exciting, fun, or scared? Ok, but who can tell me why?
14	S3	Me, me...me..me!!!
15	T	Ok, you.
16	S3	like bungee jumping.
17	T	Oh...I see. How about the other students?
18	S5	Me....Me.. I.... scared because...um....because... no mother.
19	T	Oh...I would feel scared because there would be no mother.
20	S5	Yes.

In a regular class, 3 different exchanges have been noticed as Table 3 shows

within the different color divisions. These are mostly from a teacher's direction. Students never elicit information.

4.2.2 Drama Class

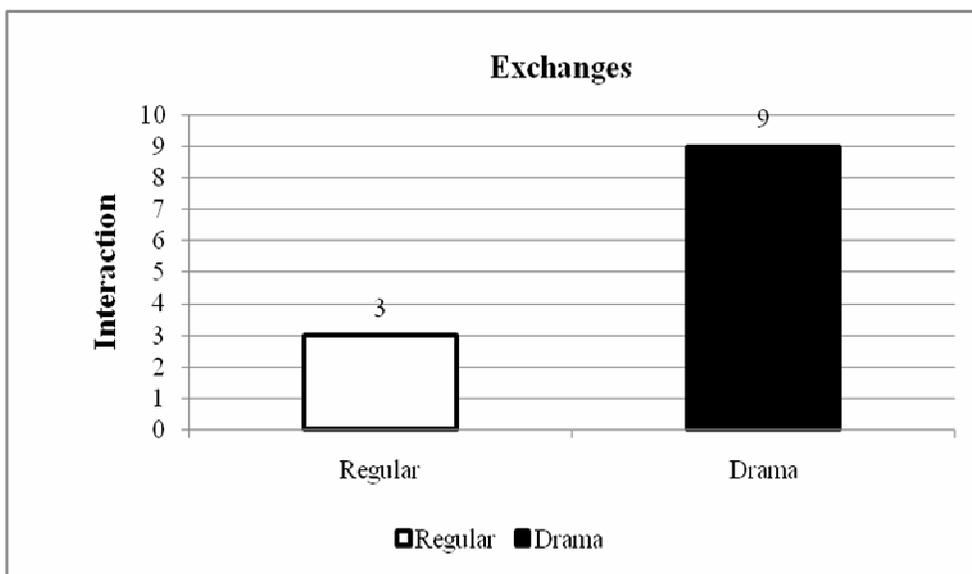
Table 4. Exchanges from Drama Class

1	S4	You can eat grasshoppers?
2	S3	Thank you.
3	S4	Grasshopper.
4	S2	Thank you.
5	S4	And, this is a rat.
6	S1	eeeeee-eueee
6	S2	eeeeee-eueee
7	S5	Thank you.
8	S4	This is a marshmallow and mango.
9	S1	Thank you.
8	S5	Can you let.... Can you eat?
9	S4	(smiling) um.....
10	S1	Why did you put marshmallow. I hate it.
11	S4	Oh... just eat it. You should eat healthy. It's very healthy to eat it.
11	S5	How.... How do you know.... How do you know I like a mouse?
12	S4	Because I heard owls always eat rats.
13	S3	Hello, two. Owls like a mouse.
14	S1	Hey, guys. Let's talk about food.
15	S4	Ok, Hey guys. First, eat this food, first. It's going to be cold. This, this... you should eat it. This. Hot one. And, I'll eat one.

In drama class, 9 different exchanges have been introduced as Table 4 shows. One student, S4 seems to dominate and lead the conversation but still the other students elicit information like in a natural discourse.

4.2.3 Regular Vs. Drama

Figure 2. Exchanges from Regular Class and Drama Class



Secondly, exchanges have been considered to analyze interaction in the classroom. Exchanges are counted by how much information has been elicited. According to Figure 2, exchanges in drama class are three times more than those in the regular class. For instance, there are 3 exchanges which are frequently elicited by teacher not students while there are 9 exchanges which are mostly elicited by all of the students except the teacher. In drama class, S4 seems to elicit information in the beginning of the transcript, but later other students also initiate information. For example, S5 elicits information by asking ‘can you eat?’ and S1 by asking ‘Why did you put marshmallow?’ and so on. On the other hand, the teacher elicits information by asking ‘what happened in the beginning of the story’ and then ‘What happened later?’ and ‘How would you feel?’ and information from students is elicited by the teacher’s questions.

4.3 Results for the Amount of Speech

4.3.1 Regular Class

Table 5. Amount of Speech from Regular Class

1	T	All right. Could you please tell me what happened to Stellaluna in the beginning of story?
2	S1	Owl attacking...attack...oh...
3	T	Oh~ You mean owl attacked Mother and Stellaluna?
4	S1	(nodding) yes.
5	T	And then, what happened?
6	S1	Bird's nest.
7	T	Bird's nest?
8	S2	Yes, Stellaluna fell into the bird's nest.
9	T	Good job. You're right. I like that. How would you feel if you were Stellaluna at the moment?
10	S3	Exciting
11	S4	Fun
12	S5	Scared...
13	T	Exciting, fun, or scared? Ok, but who can tell me why?
14	S3	Me, me...me..me!!!
15	T	Ok, you.
16	S3	like bungee jumping.
17	T	Oh....I see. How about the other students?
18	S5	Me....Me.. I... scared because...um....because... no mother.
19	T	Oh...I would feel scared because there would be no mother.
20	S5	Yes.

The amount of speech has been indicated with each different color by dividing each meaningful chunk. In the regular class, the teacher dominates the speech while students are likely to rely on answering the teacher's questions as Table 5 describes.

4.3.2 Drama Class

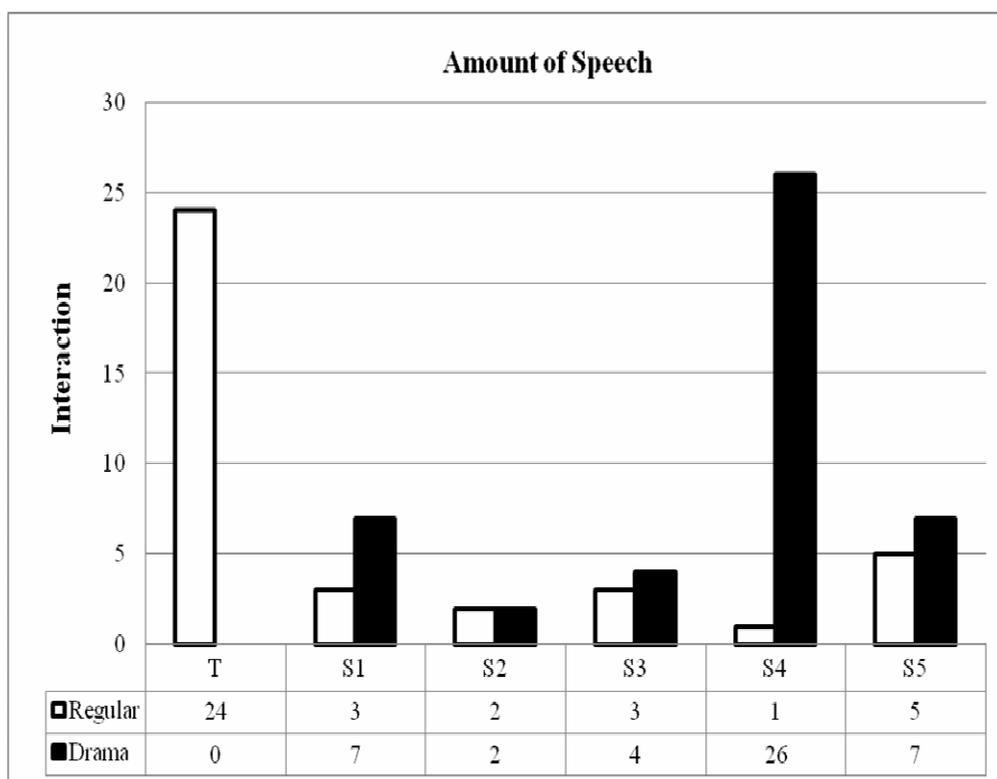
Table 6. Amount of Speech from Drama Class

1	S4	You can eat grasshoppers?
2	S3	Thank you.
3	S4	Grasshopper.
4	S2	Thank you.
5	S4	And, this is a rat.
6	S1	eeeeee-eueee
6	S2	eeeeee-eueee
7	S5	Thank you.
8	S4	This is a marshmallow and mango.
9	S1	Thank you.
8	S5	Can you let.... Can you eat?
9	S4	(smiling) um.....
10	S1	Why did you put marshmallow. I hate it.
11	S4	Oh... just eat it. You should eat healthy. It's very healthy to eat it.
11	S5	How.... How do you know.... How do you know I like a mouse?
12	S4	Because I heard owls always eat rats.
13	S3	Hello, two. Owls like a mouse.
14	S1	Hey, guys. Let's talk about food.
15	S4	Ok, Hey guys. First, eat this food, first. It's going to be cold. This, this... you should eat it. This. Hot one. And, I'll eat one.

In a drama class, all participants seem to get involved in the interaction like in natural discourse as Table 6 shows.

4.3.3 Regular Vs. Drama

Figure 3. Amount of Speech from Regular Class and Drama Class



Thirdly, the amount of speech will be also considered when analyzing the interaction. This is calculated by counting meaning chunks of sentences produced by participants. According to Figure 3, the teacher seems to dominate the speech in class. In regular class, the teacher produced speech 24 times in the transcript, while all 5 students produced speech 14 times. On the other hand, in the drama class, students share their speeches even though S4 is more likely to lead the speech by dominating with 26 times of speech in the extracted one minute period. Compared to the regular class, other students' speech in drama speech are slightly higher than those in the regular class.

4.4 Results for Choice of Topic & Coherence

4.4.1 Regular Class

Table 7. Choice of Topic & Coherence from Regular Class

1	T	All right. Could you please tell me what happened to Stلالuna in the beginning of story?
2	S1	Owl attacking....attack....oh...
3	T	Oh~ You mean owl attacked Mother and Stلالuna?
4	S1	(nodding) yes.
5	T	And then, what happened?
6	S1	Bird's nest.
7	T	Bird's nest?
8	S2	Yes, Stلالuna fell into the bird's nest.
9	T	Good job. You're right. How would you feel if you were Stلالuna at the moment?
10	S3	Exciting
11	S4	Fun
12	S5	Scared...
13	T	Exciting, fun, or scared? Ok, but who can tell me why?
14	S3	Me, me...me..me!!!
15	T	Ok, you.
16	S3	like bungee jumping.
17	T	Oh....I see. How about the other students?
18	S5	Me....Me.. I.... scared because...um....because... no mother.
19	T	Oh...I would feel scared because there would be no mother.
20	S5	Yes.

In the regular class, 4 topics have been introduced by the teacher as Table 7 shows. Each different topic was highlighted with each different color.

4.4.2 Drama Class

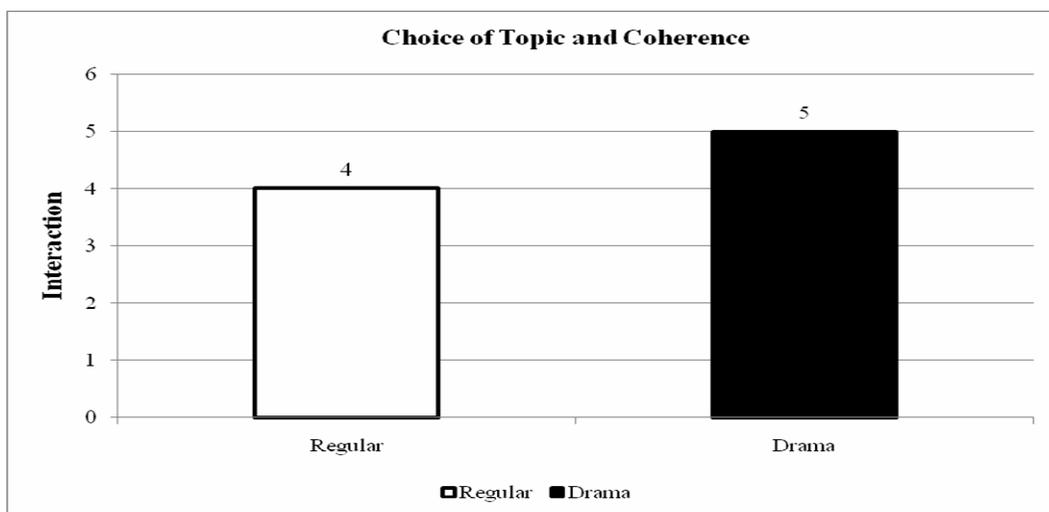
Table 8. Choice of Topic & Coherence from Drama Class

1	S4	You can eat grasshoppers?
2	S3	Thank you.
3	S4	Grasshopper.
4	S2	Thank you.
5	S4	And, this is a rat.
6	S1	eeeeee-eueeee
6	S2	eeeeee-eueeee
7	S5	Thank you.
8	S4	This is a marshmallow and mango.
9	S1	Thank you.
8	S5	Can you let.... Can you eat?
9	S4	(smiling) um.....
10	S1	Why did you put marshmallow. I hate it.
11	S4	Oh... just eat it. You should eat healthy. It's very healthy to eat it.
11	S5	How.... How do you know.... How do you know I like a mouse?
12	S4	Because I heard owls always eat rats.
13	S3	Hello, two. Owls like a mouse.
14	S1	Hey, guys. Let's talk about food.
15	S4	Ok, Hey guys. First, eat this food, first. It's going to be cold. This, this... you should eat it. This. Hot one. And, I'll eat one.

In the drama class, 5 topics have been initiated by students as Table 8 shows.

4.4.3 Regular Vs. Drama

Figure 4. Choice of Topic and Coherence from Regular Class and Drama Class



Lastly, the choice of topic and coherence will be dealt with. This is counted by the number of topics in the conversation. From two versions of transcripts, the number of topics will be compared. According to Figure 4, 5 topics were initiated by participants while 4 topics were initiated by a participant. However, in the regular class, only teacher-introduced topics are accepted as conversational topics and coherence is also maintained through the teacher's lesson plan. For example, a teacher leads the topic by asking 'what happened in the story?' On the other hand, in the drama class, the topic shifts easily to all participants and coherence is established through negotiation. For example, in the drama class, students often change topic as the conversation goes on.

4.5 Discussion

The result of this research shows that students interact more meaningfully in the drama class compared to the regular class in terms of turn taking, exchanges, amount of speech, and choice of topic and coherence. The data for each interaction analysis suggests that students are more meaningfully engaged to using the target language on their own through drama activities by

demonstrating what they can do and what they need to do according to the context with appropriate manner. Through this process, students had chances of developing 4 different communicative competences (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence) through meaningful interaction with their classmates. In one-to one interviews, students reflect positive feedback towards the drama activity by saying that “I want to do it again.,” “It was really fun, I enjoyed a lot.,” “I want to be a real Stellaluna.” “Wow, it’s the real conversation I can do with my friends.” I, as a researcher, also felt that students really enjoy doing something by themselves, and even timid students participated really actively. This reflects that process drama activities provide students with numerous opportunities for using language in enjoyable ways, as well as in effective ways, since they interact more freely and meaningfully for their own purposes compared to regular class, which is definitely necessary for the language learning process.

4.6 Limitations

This study was done within a short time period and with limited numbers of students. For all of the research questions, since one minute part out of each class time was extracted, it is difficult to compare and contrast the whole regular class and drama class. However, this research reflects that drama activities in EFL situations are very useful to provide learners with various opportunities for meaningful language use through interaction by improving all kinds of communicative competence (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence) through demonstration on their own.

5. Conclusion

Although a number of studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of CLT in an EFL context, and many models of the CLT approach have been introduced to Korea, there are not enough ways of applying it to a certain context. This research shows using drama in the language class could be an effective and efficient way for CLT to develop students’ communicative competence. Also, providing students with chances of demonstrating what they can do and what they need to do with the target language can be helpful to acquire and

produce language more easily in enjoyable ways. Since all kinds of drama activities can be useful in language teaching according to the diverse context, and students have a variety of meaningful interaction during drama activities, the teacher needs to find what is interesting to learners and how to effectively connect it to the language learning process through drama activities.

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Appendix A: the story of Stلالuna

Stلالuna

In an warm and sultry forest far, far away, there once lived a mother fruit bat and her new baby. Oh, how Mother Bat loved her soft tiny baby. "I'll name you Stلالuna," she crooned. Each night, Mother Bat would carry Stلالuna clutched to her breast as she flew out to search for food.

One night, as Mother Bat followed the heavy scent of ripe fruit, an owl spied her. On silent wings the powerful bird swooped down upon the bats.

Dodging and shrieking, Mother Bat tried to escape, but the owl struck again and again, knocking Stلالuna into the air. Her baby wings were as limp and useless as wet paper.

Down, down she went, faster and faster, into the forest below.

The dark leafy tangle of branches caught Stلالuna as she fell. One twig was small enough for Stلالuna's tiny feet. Wrapping her wings about her, she clutched the thin branch, trembling with cold and fear.

"Mother," Stلالuna squeaked. "Where are you?" By daybreak, the baby bat could hold on no longer. Down, down again she dropped.

Flump! Stلالuna landed headfirst in a soft downy nest, startling the three baby birds who lived there. Stلالuna quickly clambered from the nest and hung out of sight below it. She listened to the babble of the three birds.

"What was that?" cried Flap.

"I don't know, but it's hanging by its feet," chirped Flitter.

"Shhh! Here comes Mama," hissed Pip.

Many, many times that day Mama Bird flew away, always returning with food for her babies. Stلالuna was terribly hungry-but not for the crawly things Mama Bird brought. Finally, though, the little bat could bear it no longer. She climbed into the nest, closed her eyes, and opened her mouth.

Plop! In dropped a big green grasshopper!

Appendix A Continued: the story of Stellaluna

Stellaluna learned to be like the birds. She stayed awake all day and slept at night. She ate bugs even though they tasted awful. Her bat ways were quickly disappearing. Except for one thing: Stellaluna still liked to sleep hanging by her feet.

Once, when Mama was away, the curious baby birds decided to try it, too. When Mama Bird came home she saw eight tiny feet gripping the edge of the nest.

“Eeeek!” she cried. “Get back up here this instant! You’re going to fall and break your necks!”

The birds clambered back into the nest, but Mama Bird stopped Stellaluna. “You are teaching my children to do bad things. I will not let you back into this nest unless you promise to obey all the rules of this house.”

Stellaluna promised. She ate bugs without making faces. She slept in the nest at night. And she didn’t hang by her feet. Stellaluna behaved as a good bird should.

All the babies grew quickly. Soon the nest became crowded.

Mama Bird told them it was time to learn to fly. Once by one, Pip, Flitter, Flap, and Stellaluna jumped from the nest.

Their wings worked!

I’m just like them, thought Stellaluna. I can fly, too.

Pip, Flitter, and Flap landed gracefully on a branch. Stellaluna tried to do the same.

How embarrassing!

I will fly all day, Stellaluna told herself. Then no one will see how clumsy I am.

The next day, Pip, Flitter, Flap and Stellaluna went flying far from home. They flew for hours, exercising their new wings.

“The sun is setting,” warned Flitter.

“We had better go home or we will get lost in the dark,” said Flap.

But Stellaluna had flown far ahead and was nowhere to be seen. The three anxious birds went home without her.

Appendix A Continued: the story of Stellaluna

All alone Stellaluna flew and flew until her wings ached and she dropped into a tree. “I promised not to hang by my feet,” Stellaluna sighed. So she hung by her thumbs and soon fell asleep.

She didn’t hear the soft sound of wings coming near.

“Hey!” a loud voice said. “Why are you hanging upside down?”

Stellaluna’s eyes opened wide. She saw a most peculiar face. “I’m not upside down, you are!” Stellaluna said.

“Ah, but you’re a bat. Bats hang by their feet. You are hanging by your thumbs, so that makes you upside down!” the creature said. “I’m a bat. I am hanging by my feet. That makes me right side up!”

Stellaluna was confused. “Mama Bird told me I was upside down. She said I was wrong...”

“Wrong for a bird, maybe, but not for a bat.”

More bats gathered around to see the strange young bat who behaved like a bird. Stellaluna told them her story.

“You ate b-bugs?” stuttered one.

“You slept at night?” gasped another.

“How very stange,” they all murmured.

“Wait! Wait! Let me look at this child.” A bat pushed through the crowd. “An owl attacked you?” she asked. Sniffing Stellaluna’s fur, she whispered, “You are Stellaluna. You are my baby.”

“You escaped the owl?” cried Stellaluna. “You survived?”

“Yes,” said Mother Bat as she wrapped her wings around Stellaluna. “Come with me and I’ll show you where to find the most delicious fruit. You’ll never have to eat another bug as long as you live.”

“But it’s nighttime,” Stellaluna squeaked. “We can’t fly in the dark or we will crash into trees.”

“We’re bats,” said Mother Bat. “We can see in darkness. Come with us.”

Appendix A Continued: the story of Stلالuna

Stلالuna was afraid, but she let go of the tree and dropped into the deep blue sky.

Stلالuna could see. She felt as though rays of light shone from her eyes. She was able to see everything in her path.

Soon the bats found a mango tree, and Stلالuna ate as much of the fruit as she could hold.

“I’ll never eat another but as long as I live,” cheered Stلالuna as she stuffed herself full. “I must tell Pip, Flitter, and Flap!”

The next day Stلالuna went to visit the birds.

“Come with me and meet my bat family,” said Stلالuna.

“Okay, let’s go.” agreed Pip.

“They hang by their feet and they fly at night and they eat the best food in the world,”

Stلالuna explained to the birds on the way.

As the birds flew among the bats, Flap said, “I feel upside down here.”

So the birds hung by their feet.

“Wait until dark,” Stلالuna said excitedly. “We will fly at night.”

When night came Stلالuna flew away. Pip, Flitter, and Flap leapt from the tree to follow her.

“I can’t see a thing!” yelled Pip.

“Neither can I,” howled Flitter.

“Aaeae!” shrieked Flap.

“They’re going to crash,” gasped Stلالuna. “I must rescue them!”

Stلالuna swooped about, grabbing her friends in the air. She lifted them to a tree, and the birds grasped a branch. Stلالuna hung from the limb above them.

“We’re safe,” said Stلالuna. The she sighted. “I wish you could see in the dark, too.”

“We wish you could land on your feet,” Flitter replied.

Pip and Flap nodded.

They perched in silence for a long time.

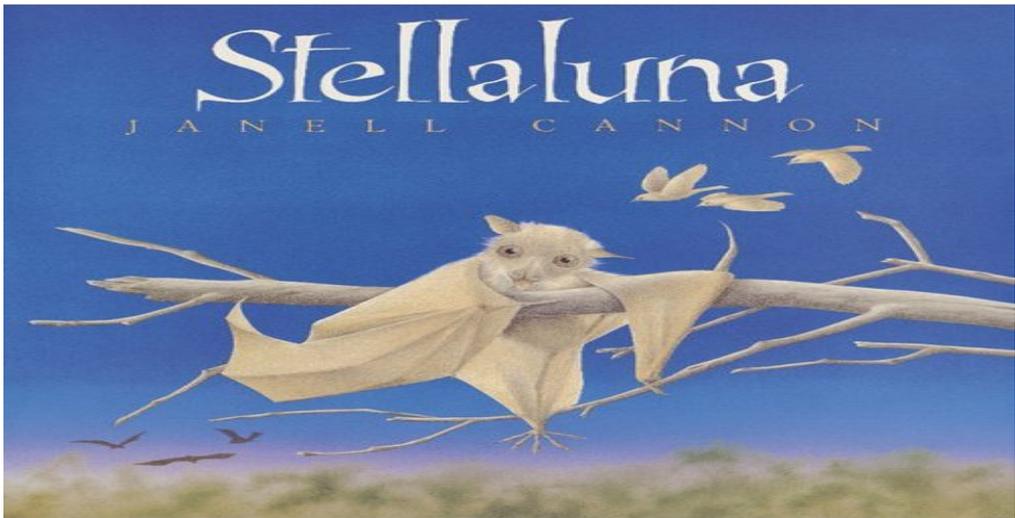
“How can we be so different and feel so much alike?” mused Flitter.

Appendix A Continued: the story of Stلالuna

“And how can we feel so different and be so much alike?” wondered Pip.

“I think this is quite a mystery,” Flap chirped.

“I agree,” said Stلالuna. “But we’re friends. And that’s a fact.”



Appendix B: Regular Class Transcript

1	T	All right. Could you please tell me what happened to Stلالuna in the beginning of story?
2	S1	Owl attacking....attack....oh...
3	T	Oh~ You mean owl attacked Mother and stلالuna?
4	S1	(nodding) yes.
5	T	And then, what happened?
6	S1	Bird's nest.
7	T	Bird's nest?
8	S2	Yes, Stلالuna fell into the bird's nest.
9	T	Good job. You're right. How would you feel if you were stلالuna at the moment?
10	S3	Exciting
11	S4	Fun
12	S5	Scared...
13	T	Exciting, fun, or scared? Ok, but who can tell me why?
14	S3	Me, me...me..me!!!
15	T	Ok, you.
16	S3	like bungee jumping.
17	T	Oh....I see. How about the other students?
18	S5	Me....Me.. I.... scared because...um....because... no mother.
19	T	Oh...I would feel scared because there would be no mother.
20	S5	Yes.

Appendix B Continued: Drama Class Transcript

1	S4	You can eat grasshoppers?
2	S3	Thank you.
3	S4	Grasshopper.
4	S2	Thank you.
5	S4	And, this is a rat.
6	S1	eeeeee-eueeee
6	S2	eeeeee-eueeee
7	S5	Thank you.
8	S4	This is a marshmallow and mango.
9	S1	Thank you.
8	S5	Can you let.... Can you eat?
9	S4	(smiling) um.....
10	S1	Why did you put marshmallow. I hate it.
11	S4	Oh... just eat it. You should eat healthily. It's very healthy to eat it.
11	S5	How.... How do you know.... How do you know I like a mouse?
12	S4	Because I heard owls always eat rats.
13	S3	Hello, two. Owls like a mouse.
14	S1	Hey, guys. Let's talk about food.
15	S4	Ok, Hey guys. First, eat this food, first. It's going to be cold. This, this... you should eat it. This. Hot one. And, I'll eat one.

A Study of Reading Comprehension Strategy Instruction Practices in EFL Classrooms in Korea

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TESOL 4th Semester

Effective EFL teachers understand the complexity of the process of reading comprehension and the instructional routines the teacher may use to support English language learners to comprehend what they are reading. Considering that learners develop the ability to comprehend a wide array of texts and also take action when they do not understand, students tend to use a wide repertoire of processes or reading strategies, somewhat simultaneously, to support their comprehension. Reading strategy instruction can make a great difference to EFL learners as being able to comprehend and critically respond to what is being read depends on the reader's ability to apply the skills and strategies to make meaning from text. The purpose of this study is to take an inside look at current reading instruction practices among EFL classrooms, specifically at whether instructions consider teaching reading strategies in order to support reading comprehension. This paper focuses on the theoretical backgrounds of reading strategies and introduces a method of investigating how EFL teachers' perceptions of reading instruction might be different from what they are really teaching.

1. Introduction

EFL educators continuously face situations where learners are struggling to read well. All learners have a need for gaining knowledge through reading as it is a fundamental and critical skill for students to acquire. Even for first language learners, they constantly acquire new vocabulary knowledge or new information through reading. In regards to reading in a second language to acquire language, it appears there is universal agreement that the primary goal and purpose of reading is to comprehend the written text and understand what is read. Learners are exposed to target language through reading; however, if the learners read to acquire language, reading should be more than just decoding letters and words from text. Learners should construct meaning from the text they read. If they cannot understand what they read, it would be difficult to say they are actually reading. In order to reach the goal of comprehension, reading requires an active, intentional cognitive effort on the readers part (Lipson & Cooper, 2002). Readers need to construct meaning by interacting with what they know, with the information in the text, and the stance the reader takes in relationship to the text (Pardo, 2004).

The National Reading Panel (2000) stated that “active interactive strategic processes are critically necessary to the development of reading comprehension”. Reading tends to be an active act not a passive one. Therefore, for learners to comprehend better, students as well as the teacher should recognize the purposeful nature of reading comprehension. L2 comprehension can be developed through an interactive process that involves such behaviors which can be called a reading strategy – a plan that helps a reader accomplish a purpose in reading (National Reading Panel, 2000). Students are expected to make their own decisions to decide which strategies to use in order to clarify their understanding. Comprehension strategies are conscious plans, in other words, sets of steps that good readers use to make sense of text (Alder, 2004). They question the text, argue with the author, and nod their heads in agreement. They make connections, ask questions, and draw inferences to better understand and learn from what they read. When students have a difficult time comprehending what they are reading, they can

find a way to support their understanding. This is where the importance of knowing how to teach reading strategies can be beneficial, as it helps to smooth the reading process while giving students a clear sense of what they are reading.

Knowing the crucial aspects of reading comprehension, we need to investigate whether reading strategies are practiced in L2 learning. This paper looks into various reading strategies that influence effective reading comprehension and also why strategy instruction is important to learners. This study will investigate the instructional reading strategy practices in EFL classes in private schools and private English language institutes in Korea. The following questions become salient; Is reading comprehension considered passive? Or; Are reading comprehension strategies used and taught explicitly to form an interactive reading process? The research is designed to survey current EFL teachers in private schools and private language institutes and observe their actual reading strategy instructions. Therefore this study will be reviewing and comparing the use of reading strategy instructions in ongoing English classrooms considering the following research questions:

- 1) What are the reading comprehension instructions practiced in current EFL classrooms in Korea?
- 2) How do teacher's perceptions of reading strategy instruction differ from their current teaching situation?

The purpose of this study is to investigate the current practices of reading comprehension strategies in EFL classrooms in Korea and to observe how teachers' perceptions in reading instruction might be different from what they are really teaching.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is the process of constructing meaning from text. The goal of all reading instruction is ultimately targeted to help learners comprehend what they are reading. According to Pardo (2004), reading

comprehension is the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. It is a complex process that needs at least two people: the reader and the writer. The reader would interact with the text through a combination of prior knowledge, previous experience, and the information from the text. The process of comprehending involves decoding the writer's words and then using background knowledge to construct an approximate understanding of the writer's message. The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) Commission on Reading (2004) defines reading as:

“...complex, purposeful, social and cognitive processes in which readers simultaneously use their knowledge of spoken and written language, their knowledge of the topic of the text, and their knowledge of their culture to construct meaning. Reading is not a technical skill acquired one and for all in the primary grades, but rather a developmental process. A reader’s competence continues to grow through engagement with various types of texts and wide reading for various purposes over a lifetime” (NCTE, 2006).

The definition of Reading given by the NCTE indicates the important features of reading comprehension. Reading is not acquired with finality in the primary grades and readers are exposed to various texts throughout their lives. Reading has its own purpose whether it is reading a road map, a recipe or reading a manual to fix the computer. It builds on a readers thinking as they connect what they know about the topic or their own cultural background to construct meaning. Reading also encourages the reader to generate a social communicative process that starts off with the reader and the writer.

Many EFL students experience difficulties comprehending texts, especially beginning readers and struggling readers, as they spend so much time decoding that they lose meaning (Oczkus, 2003). Some students cannot identify the main idea or even recall what they have just read. Students do not realize that they should monitor their comprehension, and they might finish a

reading task and not even realize they didn't understand (Oczkus, 2003). In a learners' L1, they will make an effort to understand what is written. They may connect their past experiences; picture the scene in their minds; or construct meaning based on their own thoughts, information, and background knowledge. Although reading is a natural process, learners who encounter reading in a foreign language might have a difficult time understanding. Therefore, teachers need to help EFL learners to realize that when readers read, they carry on an inner conversation with the text to build on to their own understanding of the author's message. Such ability can be facilitated when readers use "strategies". Teachers can teach reading comprehension strategies so that they can play a role as a facilitator supporting students to promote their thinking processes in a communicative manner.

For many decades, reading research has shown a great deal how to help learners comprehend. However, researchers reported that many or most classrooms are not using any of the strategies or techniques. Durkin's (1978/1979) study found that comprehension instruction was rare in classrooms and then 30 years later, Pressley and Wharton-McDonald (1998) found only little change in reading instruction. According to Kragler, Walker, and Martin's (2005) research, they found that reading instruction was focused on content area instructions and just assessing student understanding rather than helping the students to comprehend better. Reading comprehension had been tested but rarely taught. Although reading processes are known to be so important and many instructional approaches mention that teaching comprehension strategies are efficient, there is a dearth of research specifying exactly what teachers should do to help L2 language learners. Originally, most of the reading strategy instruction research was focused on strategy instruction for students with learning disabilities. Researchers are now currently looking at how strategy instruction affects not only learners with learning disabilities but for all learners (Beckman, 2002).

2.2 Reading Comprehension Strategy Instruction

Reading comprehension requires a complex educational strategy (Pressley, 2000) in order to meet the goal of improving readers' comprehension skills.

Pressley and Block (2002) pointed out that comprehension instruction involves a complex and long-term commitment to teach students the necessary strategies with sufficient practice to use the strategies easily and provide opportunities to generate habits to use strategies frequently. They summarized the basic principles of comprehension strategy instruction (Pressley & Block, 2002, p.390-391):

- Teach comprehension skills during the primary grades (although it is only through modeling when the teacher is reading aloud) and continue to teach comprehension strategies as long as the students need it.
- Develop decoding skills in readers so that they may devote attention to understanding meaning as well as decoding tasks.
- Teach vocabulary. Knowing the meaning of frequently encountered words as well as unusual words related to a particular reading task improves overall comprehension.
- Have students read diverse and worthwhile texts as they perform important text processing tasks. Include both narrative texts (stories) and expository texts (informational sources). Reading across a wide variety of source and kinds of text is a critical source of vocabulary development and also of the student's fund of general knowledge.
- Teach students to relate their own knowledge to new texts when prior knowledge can enhance comprehension.
- Teach students to employ well-validated strategies and group students to provide necessary instruction in regard to the strategies that they need to develop.
- Teach students to monitor whether or not they understand the text that they are reading and to ask themselves (a) whether what they are reading makes sense and (b) if they are remembering what they are reading.

2.2.1 Direct and Explicit Comprehension Strategy Instruction

What needs to be conceptualized in reading comprehension instruction is what is meant by direct/explicit instruction in reading. Teaching

comprehension strategies, both explicitly and directly to EFL learners, helps them become more thoughtful and proficient readers. Booth and Swartz (2004) stated the following:

All children need effective comprehension strategies to become independent readers... Comprehension is about thinking and understanding, and is affected by each person's knowledge, experience, and purpose for reading a particular text. Proficient readers are aware of the strategies involved in making the most possible meaning with print; they make predications, make inference, see image in their minds, draw conclusions, and revise hypotheses about the text (p.22).

Some literature presents the term 'direct instruction'. Baumann (1983, p. 287) reinforces this idea by claiming that: In direct instruction, the teacher, in a face-to-face, reasonably formal manner, tells, shows, models, demonstrates, teaches the skill to be learned. Palincsar and Brown's (1984) reciprocal teaching procedure provides a model of direct explicit comprehension instruction where the teacher and the students take turns to form a dialogue talking about the text they read in class. This procedure requires demonstration of the activities by the teacher and then the students can follow along independently.

Reading would be a complicated process for EFL learners since they might not have enough background knowledge or have lack of ability to accomplish tasks. Therefore, reading comprehension strategies need to be taught directly with teacher modeling to reveal how reading tasks can be accomplished. The National Reading Panel (2000) also correlates improvements in comprehension with direct instruction by claiming that "the rationale for explicit teaching of comprehension skills is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific cognitive strategies (National Reading Panel, 2000, p. 14). Duffy (2002, p.30) claims that, explicit instruction differs from traditional approaches to comprehension instruction. He explains that "it uses strategies to mean a technique that

readers learn to control as a means to better comprehend". Duffy (2002) also mentions that explicit instruction is intentional and gives clear information about how strategies work. It will allow struggling readers to have control over their comprehension and the important part is that the teacher does not control the strategy but the reader does. Direct instruction therefore concerns the explicit or direct teaching of comprehension strategies. These strategies must be made clear to the EFL learners as well through clear explanations from the teacher or through modeling so that the readers can take control of the strategy, can work independently, and at the same time monitor their comprehension in other reading situations.

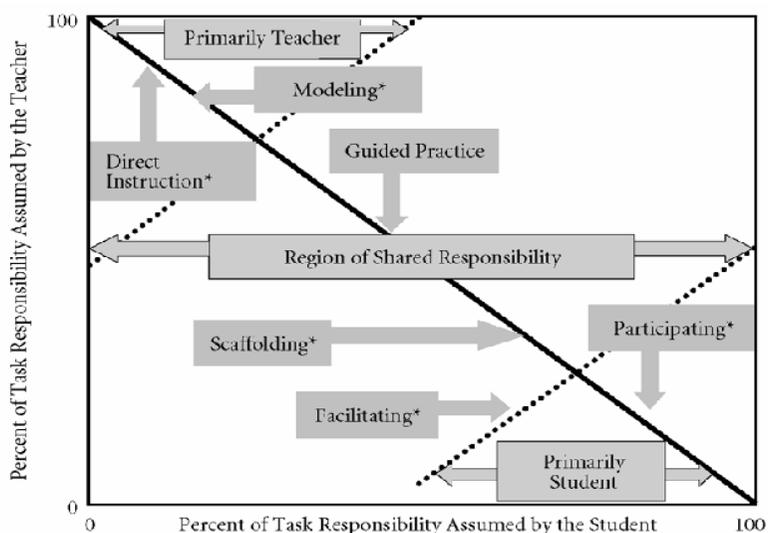
Duke & Pearson (2002) provided a five phase model of comprehension instruction that they believe is best supported by research and stated that it does more than simply include instruction in specific comprehension strategies. They provide opportunities to read, write, and discuss texts as it connects and integrates diverse learning opportunities. The five components of the comprehension instruction model are:

1. Provide an exact description of the strategy and explain when and how it should be used. Teachers need to explain what the strategy is called, why students should use it, what it helps them understand, and how often students should use it.
2. Provide modeling of the strategy. Teachers should model how to use the strategy when students are in the process of reading. Students can also model the strategy while the teacher reinforces an explanation of how the strategy is being used.
3. Provide opportunities for collaborative use of the strategy in action. Teachers and students should work together and share their use of the strategy while they are reading.
4. Lead guided practice sessions using the strategy, and allow for a gradual release of responsibility from the teacher to the student. At this stage, teachers can remind students of how to use the strategy and of the steps involved, and teachers should allow students to work on the technique independently.

5. Encourage students' independent use of the strategy. In the final stage. Teachers might gently remind students of the name of the strategy, but the students should be using the technique automatically and independently.

Duke & Pearson (2002) noted that it is important to orchestrate comprehension strategies. Good readers would not use just one strategy for a book but rather they would use multiple strategies constantly. The application of strategy use will be encouraged throughout the reading process as Duke & Pearson stresses the classic model of Gradual Release of Responsibility (Figure 1) from Pearson and Gallagher (1983) which clearly shows how the teacher is at a point in which the teacher has all the task responsibility while the student assumes none. The teacher would give direct instructions at this point and model a specific strategy (the upper left corner). The teacher moves from that point to a situation where the students assume all the responsibility while the teacher assumes none. Students would use the strategies independently (Duke & Pearson, 2002).

Figure 1. The Gradual Release of Responsibility (Adapted from Pearson And Gallagher [1983], included in Duke & Pearson, 2002, p. 210)



Comprehension instruction is not just about teaching strategies nor is to have our students master the strategies. The purpose is to teach learners to use

strategies purposefully to read any text for any reason, and to walk away from their reading experience with new understanding that would trigger new knowledge. Strategies are interrelated and can be weaved together. They are no longer for learners of learning disabilities. Comprehension strategies are not an end in themselves, but a medium to true understanding (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007)

2.3 Proven Reading Comprehension Strategies

Reading comprehension strategies are “an intentional plan that readers use to help themselves make sense of their reading. Strategies are flexible and can be adapted to meet the demands of the reading tasks. Good readers use lots of strategies to help themselves make sense of text” (Tovani, 2000, p. 5). Many ESL researchers had begun to recognize the importance of the strategies ESL students use while reading in the 1970’s. Several experimental investigations have been conducted on reading strategies and their relationships to successful and unsuccessful second language reading (Duke & Pearson, 2002). The process of comprehension begins before the learner starts to read and continues even after the reading is finished. There are lists of essential strategies that might vary slightly from one educator or researcher to another (Lipson & Cooper, 2002).

Good readers develop good habits when they read. They use comprehension strategies to smooth the progress of constructing meaning and help students understand what they read, remember what they read, and communicate with others about what they read. They intend to understand not in a passive activity but actively with intentional effort facilitated by using reading strategies. Pressely and Afflerbach (1995) identified comprehension strategies that were shown to be effectively taught in a number of research studies: activating prior knowledge, generating questions while reading, visualizing, summarizing, and analyzing the structure of stories and more. A variety of sources include a similar list of comprehension strategies that can be taught (Table 1) in reading instruction.

Table 1. Comprehension Strategies

Owocki (2003)	Harvey and Goudvis (2000)	Alvermann, Swafford, and Montero (2004)	Keene and Zimmermann (2007)	National Reading Panel (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000)
Connecting	Making Connections	Making Connections	Using and creating schema	Using prior knowledge
Questioning	Questioning	Asking questions	Asking questions	Question generation, question answering
Purpose Setting				
Visualizing	Visualizing	Creating Images	Using sensory and emotional images	Making mental images
Inferring	Inferring	Drawing inferences	Inferring	
Predicting				
Retelling				
Deciding what's important	Determining importance	Distinguishing importance	Determining importance	
Monitoring	Repairing understanding	Monitoring comprehension	Monitoring meaning	Monitoring comprehension
Evaluating				
	Synthesizing		Synthesizing	
		Summarizing		Summarizing
				Cooperative

				Learning
				Use of graphic and semantic organizers
				Recognizing story structure

Adapted from Gill, S. (2008). The Comprehension Matrix: A Tool for Designing Comprehension Instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(2), 106–113.

Research shows that teachers can effectively teach such strategies and that teaching even one comprehension strategy can improve students' comprehension (Duke & Pearson, 2002). We know that students would benefit from using the suggested reading strategies and among the many strategies the following six strategies are to be focused on for this research project as they are considered helpful in reading comprehension: Making connections; Predict/Infer; Question; Monitor/Clarify; Summarize; and Evaluate (Oczkus, 2004).

2.3.1 Making Connections

Good readers connect what they know with what they are reading. When we read, our brains naturally make connections, and we are reminded of our own experience and background knowledge, or schemata. We then use this background to help us relate to the characters or the setting, or visualize so that the reader can be interested in reading. Students can relate to themselves what they have read making a “text-to-self” connection; “text-to-text” connection linking to what they previously read; or make a “text-to-world” connecting with something related to the real world (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997). The important thing is that the teacher needs to guide students to make relevant connections and to become aware of how their connections help them comprehend better.

2.3.2 Predict/Infer

Predicting and inferring can be a popular strategy as students can guess about anything that might happen in the text. This may be the most commonly used strategy among classrooms. Good readers think about what is going to happen and make predictions based on what they know and what they have read. Learners can use their connections to help them predict what will happen next and what they might learn from the text. They can also sum up what they have read so far or use context clues they can gather from skimming and scanning and looking ahead. Students need help making predictions throughout the reading process. Not only simply just predicting what the book will be about, teachers should ensure that students come up with predictions that lead to deeper thinking. Readers can infer from the text by justifying their predictions giving a good reason of their guesses.

2.3.3 Questioning

Good readers ask themselves questions when they read. Students might be asked what they'd like to know more about, what predictions they can make, whether a particular detail is important, how something compares to their experiences, what they think the writer means, and so on. As learners respond, they engage with the text and check their understanding. It provides motivation to read more and deepens comprehension (Keene & Zimmerman, 1997). Good readers wonder before they read and ask who, what, when, where, why, how, and what-if questions throughout the reading process. It generates a social interaction within the classroom and gives a richer interaction in reading.

2.3.4 Monitor/Clarify

Readers need to stay on track and engage with the text as they read. Good readers stop to think about their reading and know what to do when they don't understand. As they read, they can check their understanding and "fix-up" any problems they encounter. Many readers do not realize that they are supposed to notice whether they understand or not but this leads to building

meaning as they read (Routman, 2003). Monitoring and clarifying includes more than just figuring out words in a text (Palincsar & Brown, 1982). Good readers monitor what is happening in the text by constantly analyzing text structure, summarizing, and predicting (Pressley, 1997).

2.3.5 Summarizing

Summarizing is one of the difficult strategies for students. Students are to recall important events or notice the details of the text. Good readers identify the most important ideas and can retell them in their own words. Readers engage in summarizing both during and after reading a text. This is the process when the reader determines the important parts of text and the order of ideas. Teaching students to summarize is a way to improve their overall comprehension of text (Duke & Pearson, 2002).

2.3.6 Evaluating

Readers are constantly evaluating things in everyday life whether they realize it or not. It requires the use of higher level thinking skills and engages a learner's critical thinking. Evaluating text can help determine importance of the author's view points or act as a judge to reflect on what they have read. Evaluating moves a student to higher levels of thinking (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000)

2.4 Strategy Instruction in the Reading Process

Reading comprehension strategies can be taught directly and, more importantly, these strategies benefit struggling readers (Duffy, 2002). Teachers can think of comprehension strategies that one might use before reading, during reading, and after reading. They go through a reading process where they can use the reading strategies to comprehend better.

2.4.1 Before-Reading Strategies

Before-reading strategies consist of those strategies that a student learns to use to get ready to read. They prepare the students to get an idea of what the

author might be trying to say, how the information might be useful for them. These strategies could include previewing headings, pictures, reading introductions and summaries, creating questions that might need to be answered, making predictions that need to be confirmed, etc. When a teacher introduces a reading selection to students as he or she walks students through the text, demonstrating a few strategies to use as a teacher model, teachers will need to continue to lead students in these types of before-reading activities to ensure content area learning takes place until students have been taught to use such strategies fluently. Teachers using before reading prompts and activities do not necessarily lead students to develop and use before-reading strategies independently without direct and explicit instruction. This is why it is important to directly teach and provide practice that gradually requires students to use before reading strategies.

2.4.2 During-Reading Strategies

During reading, students may simultaneously use a variety of strategies but they may not be aware of using them while they are reading. These strategies help the student focus on how to determine what the author is actually trying to say and help match information with what the student already knows. Strategies used during reading should be influenced by the strategies used before reading because students keep in mind the previews, predictions, outlines, questions that were produced before reading and then use the information to apply to what they are reading (Lenz, 2005).

2.4.3 After-Reading Strategies

Once finished reading a text, after-reading strategies are used to help the students "look back" and think about what they have read and determine the intended or possible meanings that might be important. These strategies can be used to follow up and confirm what was learned from the use of before and during reading strategies. However, after-reading strategies also help the reader to focus on determining what the big picture or the main idea of the author's was and how it might be used before moving on to other learning tasks (Lenz, 2005). When a teacher goes through a reading selection in class,

it can lead a discussion on what was important about the author's message and help students summarize or retell what was read. Teachers again should directly teach and provide practice that gradually requires students to use after-reading strategies independently.

2.5 Scaffolded Reading Instruction

Scaffolded instruction gives students the right amount of support which enables learners to do something that they could not have done independently (Vygotsky, 1962). This concept is based on the idea that at the beginning of learning, students need a great deal of support. As they learn, the support is taken away gradually to allow students to be independent. This is what Pearson (1985) called the Gradual Release of Responsibility mentioned in the theoretical background section of this paper. If students are unable to achieve independence, the teacher brings back the support system to help students experience success until they are able to achieve independence (Cooper, 1993). Providing scaffolded support takes place in various situations. The teacher can leverage the amount of prior knowledge or the way in which the literature is read by the students, and the types of responses students are encouraged to make.

2.5.1 The Think Aloud Approach

Giving learners the appropriate scaffolded support, researchers studying reading strategies have used the think-aloud protocol which is used to verbalize one's thoughts while reading. It plays an essential role for the teacher to demonstrate reading strategies effectively. During think-alouds, teachers present how they would interact with the text by verbalizing their thoughts and apply them as they read. Throughout the reading process teachers can model the comprehension strategies through supported think-alouds as they support learners to go through the steps that good readers use. While student's read, they should stop periodically and not only think out loud but also identify the strategy they need to use (Oczkus, 2003). Think-Alouds are an effective teaching technique for making thinking public and improving comprehension.

2.6 Building Metacognitive Strategic Readers

Researchers believe that using reading comprehension strategies help students become metacognitive readers (McLaughlin & Allen, 2002). Strategy research had begun to focus on metacognition and cognition. These studies have investigated metacognitive awareness about strategies and the relationships among awareness or perception of strategies, strategy use, and reading comprehension (Carrell, 1989). Some people naturally become strategic readers. Many learners benefit greatly from direct instruction in how to interact with a text and process information. EFL learners' reading strategies involve their metacognitive ability in processing text which will vary depending on the nature of the text, the reader's purpose, and the context.

As teachers assist learners to use their learning strategies, one of the approaches that can be linked to reading instruction is the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA). Among many underlying concepts of the CALLA approach, the distinction of the declarative, procedural knowledge is the strongest theoretical concept as it gives a concrete idea of how language instruction can be developed in learners' language development. The CALLA instruction indicates three classes of strategies teachers can guide learners to use; metacognitive strategies; cognitive strategies; social/affective strategies which will help learners' understand their own learning process as they interact in the classrooms (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). Good learners take control over their own learning strategies and skills as they become independent throughout the active and dynamic process of learning. Likewise, the reading strategies learnt would facilitate the process of constructing meaning from text. When students come across a concept they are not completely aware of, they can try to connect what he or she knows about the topic or use their personal experiences. They would use strategies to make use of the declarative knowledge they have and gradually "proceduralize" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994) so that learners can use their acquired skills and strategies autonomously. Chamot & O'Malley (1994) suggest that teachers should learn to recognize declarative and procedural knowledge in their context materials and facilitate students to be aware of the strategies that they use while

learning. For teachers that cover other content areas like Social Studies or Science, teaching instructional strategies will provide the foundation to empower learners to be independent learners as they gain control over their learning skills. Effective strategy instruction will incorporate the content to enhance learning by motivating, inspiring, and providing an authentic context to apply strategies.

3. Methodology

3.1 Overview

This research project investigates the current reading comprehension instruction practices among EFL teachers in Korea. Knowing the crucial features of reading strategy instruction, EFL classes may have a tendency to disregard the reading strategies or may not focus too much on explicit instruction of comprehension strategies. This study is designed to survey EFL teachers and observe their reading lessons. The teachers are surveyed in order to ascertain their perceptions of reading comprehension instruction practiced in their current EFL classrooms in contrast to their awareness of reading comprehension instruction. The observations focus on whether their perception and actual teaching methods are equivalent.

3.2 Participants

Twenty bilingual and English speaking teachers participated in this project and they are teachers from private elementary schools and after-school private language institutes currently using a core reading program, children's literature, trade books or content area reading in science or social studies. The classes selected for observation are the ones that teach English through "reading." Teachers who have participated in the survey have over one year of teaching experience with EFL students. The grade level of students are elementary (Grades 2-6) to early middle school (Grade 7-8) students. The language used in class is mostly English and Korean is sometimes used for additional support.

3.3 Procedures

Teachers who participate in the survey will have their classes observed two to three times. A short interview will be held during or after the survey to discuss some of the responses from the survey. The interview will be based on the questionnaire. Some parts of the lessons and student-teacher responses will be transcribed to verify the individual use of reading comprehension strategy instruction practices.

3.4 Investigation Tools

3.4.1 Questionnaire Survey (Appendix A)

The questionnaire survey is designed for teachers to look into their perceptions of overall reading instruction. The survey asks the teachers to select the top five important aspects of what good readers do from the list: enjoy reading; read aloud well; understand what they read; read with expression; pronounce all the words correctly; read a lot; concentrate on the reading; read harder books; use reading strategies to improve understanding; know when they are having trouble understanding; read different kinds of books; know the meaning of most of the words; read fast; or others. This section is to verify a general idea of what teachers think is important in reading.

The second section of the survey asks questions of teachers that cover some behavioral categories within the five components of Reading: Phonemic Awareness, Phonics, Fluency, Vocabulary, and Comprehension in the process of before, during, and after reading. The five critical components of effective reading instruction are drawn from the research of Tankersley (2003) and Vaughn and Linan-Tompson (2004). The questionnaire has been designed so that teachers are not made aware that its purpose is to investigate the reading strategy instructions employed in the classroom.

3.4.2 Observation Checklist (Appendix B)

The teachers who are to participate in the reading instruction survey will be observed during three sessions. In each lesson, reading comprehension

strategy instruction will be monitored according to what the teachers have responded to in the comprehension segment of the survey. The sections of the observation checklist will be identical to the EFL reading instruction survey of each teacher participating in the survey. The left side columns will be the responses of teachers and the right side columns will be the actual teaching checklist.

4. Discussion and Expected Results

English language learners in an EFL context are exposed to English at school and in afterschool English language institutes. They are exposed to English in many ways. One of the crucial ways learners learn is through reading. They go through a process of reading which leads them to acquire language. Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) found that, in addition to using knowledge of language, vocabulary, and past experience, proficient readers also make use of a repertoire of reading strategies. Learners will preview the text, set purposes, make predictions, use context clues to figure out unknown words, create mental images, ask each other questions, connect prior to new information, summarize and expand their knowledge. All these strategies support learners' comprehension and a plethora of research shows how this benefits learners. In spite of the importance of reading strategies, students are often unconscious of using them. Having known the features of reading comprehension strategy instruction, the purpose of this study is to examine current reading instruction practices of EFL teachers in Korea. Are teachers aware of the strategies that can be practiced during the process of reading; what reading instruction are they guiding students in current classrooms. Is the perception of reading strategies taught differently to what is actually teach in everyday lessons? Some teachers responded that they are aware of reading strategies or have heard about the importance of them, but have not explicitly taught them using the methodological terms of each of the reading strategies. Teachers give instructions and provide tasks but the students may not know how to use cognitive strategies to accomplish the tasks.

Teaching cognitive reading strategies can help learners to become

purposeful, active readers who are in control of their own reading comprehension. Reading strategies indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they focus on, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand. When students are able to select and use strategies automatically, they have achieved independence in using them. The goal of reading instruction is to help students become strategic readers so that they can achieve independence and can use literacy for lifelong enjoyment.

The vital purpose of this research is to verify whether the teachers' perceptions and awareness of reading instruction are revealed in real time EFL classroom settings. Currently in the Korean context many teachers experience difficulty teaching reading strategies due to lack of time. The expected results from the observations are that many teachers may give instructions using the reading strategies. However, they may not teach them directly and explicitly to students. Some teachers may respond that they do utilize reading strategies but they may have a different understanding of them. They might be at awareness-level knowledge of strategy instruction or may rather focus more on requiring students to answer comprehension questions, complete workbook pages or take tests. Likewise, students would complete comprehension tasks such as finding the main or supporting ideas, but do very little modeling of how to apply reading strategies to other reading situations. The questionnaire survey and checklist can be used to investigate the actual practical use of strategy instruction and verify whether EFL teachers identify the importance of comprehension strategy instruction.

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Appendix A. EFL Reading Instruction Survey

Reading Instruction Survey for EFL Teachers

Date: _____

School Name: _____

* Are you teaching Reading to EFL students? Yes / No

* What grade level are you currently teaching? Elementary/Middle School/Other _____

* How long have you been teaching EFL students? _____

* How long is your usual Reading (English) lesson? _____

* What book/material are you using for Reading? _____

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the **various reading instructions** teachers use when teaching reading comprehension to **EFL learners**.

1. *What do good readers do? Please check the most 5 important boxes.*

- Enjoy reading Read aloud well Understand what they read
- Read with expression Pronounce all the words correctly Read a lot
- Concentrate on the reading Read harder books Read different kinds of books
- Use reading strategies to improve their understanding Read fast
- Know when they are having trouble understanding
- Know the meaning of most of the words others: _____

2. *Please take your time to circle one out of the 4 choices below which apply to your teaching. Feel free to note further comments if necessary.*

- ① Not Yet (Rarely) – Never or almost never done it before, Not observable.
- ② Sometimes – Occasionally used or attempts are being made to use when needed.
- ③ Usually – Consistently utilized in the classroom. Enjoy using it as an effective strategy.
- ④ Confident (Always) – Comfortable using as it is infused in classroom instruction. Always or almost do this in class.

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Q.#	Phonemic Awareness//Phonics					
Reading Instruction Description		1 Not Yet (Rarely)	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Confident (Always)	Comments
1	I use a variety of physical manipulatives using magnetic letters, word cards, etc. to allow students to build and take apart words.	1	2	3	4	
2	I plan activities for students to create new words by substituting phonemes.	1	2	3	4	
3	I plan activities for students to match sounds that are similar in words.	1	2	3	4	
4	I blend the sounds for the students and do a blending activity.	1	2	3	4	
5	I let my students decode first before telling them how to pronounce the word.	1	2	3	4	
6	I have visuals posted in the classroom for word families and patterns.	1	2	3	4	
Q.#	Fluency					
Reading Instruction Description		1 Not Yet (Rarely)	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Confident (Always)	Comments
7	I use choral reading in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	
8	I give opportunities for individual students to read	1	2	3	4	

	out loud in small groups or in pairs.					
9	I tape record students or individually listen to student reading to determine fluency progress.	1	2	3	4	
10	I use echo reading in the classroom (the students follow after the teacher or skilled reader).	1	2	3	4	
Q.#	Vocabulary					
	Reading Instruction Description	1 Not Yet (Rarely)	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Confident (Always)	Comments
11	I teach vocabulary explicitly (specific and clear) prior to reading selection or reading passage.	1	2	3	4	
12	I explicitly teach new vocabulary within context	1	2	3	4	
13	I use pictures/word webs or visual aids to support student understanding of vocabulary	1	2	3	4	
14	Vocabulary words are posted visually for students. Word walls, posters etc.	1	2	3	4	
15	I teach how prefixes, suffixes and word roots alter word meanings	1	2	3	4	
16	I systematically teach high-	1	2	3	4	

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	frequency words.					
Q.#	Comprehension					
	Reading Instruction Description	1 Not Yet (Rarely)	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Confident (Always)	Comments
17	<i>I use the following before reading:</i>					
a.	Identify the purpose of reading	1	2	3	4	
b.	K-W-L charts (What I Know-What I Want to know-What I Learned)	1	2	3	4	
c.	Preview text/ Skim or Scan through book before reading.	1	2	3	4	
d.	Picture Walks (Looking at pictures to gain understanding of the story and to elicit story related language in advance.)	1	2	3	4	
e.	Make predictions(using pictures and other details to predict what might happen in a story, or to figure out things the author doesn't say directly)	1	2	3	4	
f.	Model how to Think Aloud (verbalizing your thoughts)	1	2	3	4	
g.	Use graphic organizers (concept maps, word-maps, sequence charts etc.)	1	2	3	4	
h.	Generate questions (have students ask and answer	1	2	3	4	

	questions)					
i.	Model reading strategies when it should be used	1	2	3	4	
18	<i>I use the following during reading:</i>					
a.	Paired reading	1	2	3	4	
b.	Use Think Aloud to demonstrate questioning, predicting, summarizing visualizing, etc.	1	2	3	4	
c.	Make predictions (using pictures and other details to predict what might happen in a story, or to figure out things the author doesn't say directly)	1	2	3	4	
d.	Students are taught to generate questions, ask questions about what they are reading	1	2	3	4	
e.	Make Connections (relate to what they have read before, relate something to themselves etc.)	1	2	3	4	
f.	Summarizing what they have read so far (pause & reflect)	1	2	3	4	
g.	Monitor comprehension (Self-monitor their reading, re-read if they do not understand etc.)	1	2	3	4	

Reading Comprehension Strategy Instruction Practices in EFL Classrooms in Korea

h.	Q-A-R: Questions-Answer-Relationship (Help students identify answers that exists between the question, the text, and the background of the reader.)	1	2	3	4	
i.	Create visual representation to aid comprehension and recall	1	2	3	4	
j.	Use graphic organizers (concept maps, word-maps, sequence charts etc.)	1	2	3	4	
19	<i>I use the following after reading:</i>					
a.	Revisit Predictions (K-W-L, graphic organizers)	1	2	3	4	
b.	Retelling (oral or written form).	1	2	3	4	
c.	Summarizing	1	2	3	4	
d.	Complete comprehension questions (Practice workbooks, etc.)	1	2	3	4	
e.	Text-talk (Discuss about the readings)	1	2	3	4	
f.	Q-A-R: Questions-Answer-Relationship (Help students identify answers that exists between the question, the text, and the background of the reader.)	1	2	3	4	

g.	Use graphic organizers (concept maps, word-maps, sequence charts etc.)	1	2	3	4	
20	I provide opportunities for students to write based on the readings (Book Reports, Journals, etc.)	1	2	3	4	
21	I ensure students apply a reading strategy in other reading texts.	1	2	3	4	
22	I have a classroom library with a variety of books for extensive reading.	1	2	3	4	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!

Appendix B. Classroom Observation Checklist

EFL Classroom Observation Checklist

Date: _____ School Name: _____

Classroom Teacher? _____ Grade Level of Students? _____

Number of Students? _____

Lesson started at? _____ Lesson ended at? _____

Textbook used in the lesson? _____

Please take your time to check one out of the 4 choices below.

- ① Rarely–The teacher never or rarely uses this instruction, Not observable.
- ② Sometimes – The teacher occasionally uses or attempts are being made to use when needed.
- ③ Usually – The teacher consistently utilizes the instruction in the classroom. Seem to enjoy using it as an effective strategy.
- ④ Always – The teacher seem to feel comfortable using this instruction. It is used several times during the lesson.

Q.#	Comprehension				Classroom Observation				
	1	2	3	4	1 Rarely	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Always	
17	<i>I use the following before reading:</i>								
a.	Identify the purpose of reading	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
b.	K-W-L charts	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
c.	Preview text/ Skim or Scan through book	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4

	before reading.									
d.	Picture Walks	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
e.	Make predictions	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
f.	Model how to Think Aloud	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
g.	Use graphic organizers	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
h.	Generate questions (have students ask and answer questions)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
i.	Model reading strategies when it should be used	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
Comments on before reading instruction practices										
Q.#	Comprehension					Classroom Observations				
Reading Instruction Description	1	2	3	4		1 Rarely	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Always	
18	<i>I use the following during reading:</i>									
a.	Paired reading	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
b.	Use Think Aloud	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
c.	Make predictions	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
d.	Students are taught to generate questions	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
e.	Make Connections	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4

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f.	Summarizing what they have read so far	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
g.	Monitor comprehension (Self-monitor)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
h.	Q-A-R: Questions-Answer-Relationship	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
i.	Create visual representation to aid comprehension and recall	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
j.	Use graphic organizers(concept maps, word-maps, sequence charts etc.)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
Comments on During reading instruction practices										
Q.#	Comprehension					Classroom Observation				
Reading Instruction Description	1	2	3	4		1 Rarely	2 Some- times	3 Usually	4 Always	
19	<i>I use the following after reading:</i>									
a.	Revisit Predictions (K-W-L, graphic organizers)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
b.	Retelling (oral or written form).	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
c.	Summarizing	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4

d.	Complete comprehension questions (practice workbooks, etc.)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
e.	Text-talk (Discuss about the readings)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
f.	Q-A-R: Questions-Answer-Relationship	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
g.	Use graphic organizers	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
20	I provide opportunities for students to write based on the readings (Book Reports, Journals)	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
21	I ensure students apply a reading strategy in other reading texts.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
22	I have a classroom library with a variety of books for extensive reading.	1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
Comments on After reading instruction practices										

Implementing a lexical approach through a lexis notebook: A pilot study

David Kim

Developments in language teaching and language learning since the 1990s are placing more emphasis on vocabulary. This pilot study is a preliminary investigation into a lexical approach, using a lexis notebook, which highlights aspects of lexical knowledge as a learning tool. The study was conducted on 39 Korean public school teachers of English in a teacher-training program at S. University. Findings were inconclusive in terms of the effectiveness of the lexis notebook; participants' entrenched role of being language teachers had noticeable effects. However, certain insights were gained which, in following an action research paradigm, will be applied into subsequent cycles.

1. Introduction

According to van Vlack (2008), there has been a surge in studies on the mental lexicon. Consequently, as advocated by Lewis (2002, 2008), lexical approaches are receiving more attention in subsequent language learning and teaching. And while vocabulary notebooks have been widely used for lexical learning, findings on the mental lexicon suggest that a learning tool devised according to the aspects that entail lexical knowledge, in conjunction with connectionist elements in learning and use, as initially proposed by Rumelhart and McClelland (1986), may prove to be more beneficial for language learners in their aims of acquiring a subsequent language for use.

2. Theoretical Frameworks

Richards and Rodgers (2001) describes an ‘approach’ as “...(referring) to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching” (p.20). Lewis (2008) states that “...it involves principles which...reflect the nature of language itself and the nature of learning” (p.2). Therefore, an approach is a means of implementing instruction guided by theoretical underpinnings of language and language learning. Subsequently, Lewis (2002) defines a lexical approach as instruction which recognizes “...the lexical nature of language, and the centrality of lexis...” (p.16). In following, Richards and Rodgers (2001) puts forward a similar notion, that “Lexical approaches in language teaching reflect a belief in the centrality of the lexicon to language structure, second language learning, and language use...” (p.132). Likewise, van Vlack (2008) recognizes the fundamental role of lexis in language. The working definition then of a lexical approach for the present study is to follow suit and place emphasis on lexis in language instruction, and thereby employ instructional schemes to maximize the potential of said approach; the focus is on developing and enhancing a subsequent language learner’s lexical knowledge for language use.

2.1 *Lexis vs. Vocabulary*

In order to place a lexical-focus in the language classroom, initially, a distinction between lexis and vocabulary is necessary. Lewis (2002) defines ‘vocabulary’ as being “Usually used to refer to stock of (single) words...” (p.220). This is contrasted with ‘lexis’ which has a broader scope; Lewis (2002) gives the following definition for ‘lexis’:

A more general word than the common vocabulary. Vocabulary is often used only to talk of the individual words of the language; lexis covers single words and multi-word objects which have the same status in the language as simple

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words, the items we store in our mental lexicons ready for use (p.217).

Singleton (1999, 2000) gives a comparable description, in that lexis encompasses vocabulary and includes lexical partnerships of varying sizes. Lamb (1998) also shares this view on lexis and considers multi-word items as lexemes, vocabulary items in their own right rather than as a combination of, for they are "...especially easy to escape being recognized as lexemes because they consist of multiple words..." (p.169). McCarthy's (1990) definition of a lexical item as "...any item which functions as a single unit in the lexicon" illustrates the point that a group of words is to be considered as a word (p.158). For instance, the following are all considered lexical items:

school bus

in other words

good morning

According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and Moon (1997), such multi-word items are found to be invaluable in language use. In brief, a lexical approach draws attention to lexical items, words which are not limited to individual words; being aware of lexical chunks for language use is a part of learner's lexical knowledge. Delving into lexical knowledge for language use reveals that lexis, and thereby the lexicon (comprised by lexical items), as stated prior, plays a vital role in language.

2.2 Lexical Knowledge

For language use, to have lexical knowledge, or to know a lexical item, involves knowledge of the properties that constitute a lexical item. As Schmitt (2000) points out, knowing what entails lexical knowledge is not as simple as some may perceive, as "A person who has not thought about the matter may believe that vocabulary (lexical) knowledge consists of just these two facets – meaning and word form" (p.5). The present section is an inquiry into the various aspects of a lexical item to gain insights into what is to be considered as part of lexical knowledge.

Firstly, language is spoken and heard. This fundamental trait, of the orality of language, is pointed out by Ong (1982), that “Oral expression can exist and mostly has existed without any writing at all...” (p.145).

Consequently, Singleton (2000) states that lexical knowledge “...contains information about the sounds out of which the item in question is composed...” (p.86). Aitchison (2003) also finds sounds as an integral element of lexical knowledge. Schmitt (2000) concurs, that phonological, or sound, knowledge is a part of knowing a lexical item:

...knowledge of a word involves being able to separate out and understand its acoustic representation from a continuous flow of speech, as well as being able to pronounce the word clearly enough in connected speech for other people to do the same when we speak” (p.53).

For example, as part of knowing the lexical item ‘cat’ is having knowledge of its spoken form /kat/.

Additionally, language is written and read. While Ong (1982) and McWhorter (2001) point out the fact that not all languages have a writing system, for languages which include a writing system, such as English and Korean, the written form is a necessary aspect of lexical knowledge. Carter (1998), Singleton (2000) and Aitchison (2003) identify the written aspect of lexical knowledge as its orthographic dimension, in which Carter (1998) describes a lexical item as a “...sequence of letters...” (p.4). With the example of ‘cat’, the orthographic form is the ordered combination of the letters ‘c’, ‘a’ and ‘t’. A lexical approach, therefore, takes into account the phonological and orthographic aspects of lexical knowledge, the spoken and the written form, respectively. Nation (2001) places the two aforementioned aspects under the general category of ‘form’, of which the researcher follows in research design.

Language is purposeful, or as Mercer (2000) puts it, language is used “...to get things done” (p.11). Likewise, Widdowson (1978) states that language is “...meaningful communicative behavior” (p.3). Hedge (2000) expresses a similar sentiment, that the goal of subsequent language teaching

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is to instill communicative language ability, which is defined as “Knowledge of language form and the ability to put that knowledge to use in communication” (p.407). It stands to reason that language is used to convey meaning, of which Singleton (2000) asserts, “It is quite obvious to any use of any language that there is an intimate connection between the lexicon (lexical items) and meaning” (p.63). Consequently, lexical knowledge must deal with meaning.

Firstly, part of knowing a lexical item’s meaning is knowing what it refers to. In other words, put simply by Carter (1998), “... words point to or represent things” (p.15). Schmitt (2000) also contends that “meaning consists of the relationship between a word and its referent (the person, thing, action, condition, or case it refers to in the real or an imagined world)” (p.23). Singleton (2000) shares this view, in that meaning is “... essentially about expressions being applied to objects, places, people, attributes, states, actions, processes etc. in the ‘real world’” (p.64). As such, a lexical item may represent a specific entity such as ‘Cheshire Cat’, referring to the particular fictional character from a novel. However, as Singleton (2000) continues, “...an expression may identify a whole class of phenomena” (p.65). For instance, the lexical item ‘cat’ does not refer to one specific ‘cat’, rather, it is used in reference to the general concept; Schmitt (2000) finds that “... words are usually labels for concepts... (p.23). Singleton (2000) and Schmitt (2000) term this aspect of meaning, in which lexical items refer to concepts, as denotation. Subsequently, Singleton (2000), Schmitt (2000) and Aitchison (2003) raise the issue of the complexity in defining the traits or features that are necessary for a concept. Schmitt (2000) explains, “It becomes quite difficult to find an attribute that is absolutely essential for a cat to be a cat” (p.24). However, this matter is beyond the scope of this paper, and the denotative aspect of meaning follows Schmitt’s (2000) interpretation of denotative meaning, “...the kind that dictionaries try to capture in their definitions” (p.31). For instance, according to the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), the lexical item ‘cat’ will have the denotation of “An agile, partly nocturnal, quadrupedal carnivorous mammal, *Felis catus*, with smooth fur

and retractile claws, long domesticated as a pet” (p.360). Thus, an aspect of lexical knowledge includes a lexical item’s denotation.

Another facet included as part of the meaning aspect of lexical knowledge is knowing how a concept relates to other concepts. According to Lyons (as cited by Singleton, 2000), “...the meaning of an individual expression crucially depends on the network of relations with other expressions... (p.68). Likewise, McCarthy (1990) posits that the meaning of a lexical item is grasped “...in relation to other words within the vocabulary system of the language” (p.16). Carter (1998) also purports that “...words have sense relations: the system of linguistic relationships which a lexical item contracts with other lexical items” (p.17). In addition, Schmitt (2000) expresses a similar notion, that “...a word’s meaning is often partially determined by contrasting it with the meanings of other related words” (p.25). Furthermore, Nation’s (2001) conclusion parallels the significance of sense relations, defined as how lexical items relate to other lexical items, in that “Knowing a range of associations for a word helps understand its full meaning...” (p.104). Knowing the lexical item ‘warm’ is knowing how the associated concept resembles and differs from concepts associated with ‘hot’ and/or ‘cold’. This type of sense relations, of which Schmitt (2000) describes as being “...more semantic in nature” characterizes a lexical item’s paradigmatic connections (p.39):

(1) It’s a ____ day.

hot

cold

warm

The noticeable feature of paradigmatic relations is that, according to Cruse (2000) and Singleton (2000), the grammatical category of a lexical item remains the same. In the examples above, ‘hot’, ‘cold’, and ‘warm’ can substitute for one another and maintain their grammatical category of an adjective.

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In contrast, another aspect of sense relations highlights the grammatical feature of a lexical item. McCarthy (1990), Carter (1998), Singleton (2000), and Schmitt (2000) regard this dimension of lexical knowledge as syntagmatic relations, of which Schmitt (2000) portrays as having "...a sequential relationship to the stimulus word...(and) usually, but not always, (having) differing word classes" (p.39). While the grammatical aspect is the focus of syntagmatic relations, it is still under the scope of meaning, or sense relations:

(2) The mouse *scurried* along the floor.

(3) The snake *scurried* along the floor.

Sentence (2) is acceptable, or considered normal, but (3) is not, as scurry denotes movement involving steps or feet; snakes don't have feet. Cruse (2000) makes this point clear, that "Syntagmatic sense relations, therefore, are an expression of coherence constraints" (p.149). While a snake could move along the floor, it is more likely to slither across the floor. Included in the concept of syntagmatic relations is the sense of lexical items having a tendency to occur with particular lexical items. Van Vlack (2008) claims that this is "...a highly common phenomenon in language" (p.151). This concept of word partnerships, called collocation, is central to Lewis (2002), who defines it as, "The phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur with other words with more than random frequency" (p.215). In a similar fashion, McCarthy (1990) describes collocation as "... a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others" (p.12). Likewise, Schmitt (2000) gives the characterization of collocations as the "...tendency of two or more words to co-occur in discourse" (p.12). Singleton's (2000) explanation mirrors the aforementioned views on collocations, where "...once a particular lexical choice has been made in a given sentence, this choice has a major impact on the determination of what else may or may not occur in the sentence in question" (p.47). Therefore, knowing how lexical items tend to go together in use is an important aspect of lexical knowledge.

It would be safe to assume that grammar has had and continues to have a significant role in language learning for language use. Hedge (2000) attests to the idea that grammar has been a major focus in subsequent language instruction. However, as Aitchison (2003) posits, grammatical information is "...an integral part of the word, and tightly attached to it" (p.103). Singleton (2000) expounds on the inclusion of grammatical information in lexical knowledge, that in part of "...knowing a word involves knowing how it behaves syntactically – so that we can identify its function in phrases and sentences and so that we can use it in different roles in phrases and sentences" (p.161). In other words, as Nation (2000) states, in order to know a lexical item for language use, "...it is necessary to know what part of speech it is and what grammatical patterns it can fit into" (p.55). Schmitt (2000) also purports that word class, or part of speech – such as noun and verb – is a part of lexical knowledge. Consequently, the distinction between lexis and grammar may not be as clear as once perceived, as Singleton (2000) states "...it is becoming increasingly difficult to pronounce with any confidence on the question of where lexicon ends and syntax begins" (p.17). Schmitt (2000) also finds that the dichotomy between lexis and grammar may no longer exist, for they are "...inextricably interrelated in a kind of lexicogrammar" (p.58). What can be gleaned from this is that grammatical information, the word class of a lexical item, is an aspect of lexical knowledge.

There is a multitude of distinct aspects that constitute lexical knowledge. In summary, lexical knowledge involves knowing a lexical item's:

- spoken form
- written form
- denotative meaning
- paradigmatic relations
- syntagmatic relations
- part of speech

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Following Nation (2000), the aforementioned aspects of lexical knowledge can be grouped into three general categories, of form, meaning and use. For form, the spoken and written elements of a lexical item are included. The meaning category comprises denotation and paradigmatic relations. Lastly, syntagmatic relations of a lexical item, as they are more grammatical in nature, are included with its part of speech under use.

2.2.1 Context and Use

According to Singleton (2000), language is context-driven, as "...almost all the meaning of a particular expression seems to derive from the context in which it is used" (204). Lewis (2002) defines context as "The totality of the event which surrounds the use of a particular piece of language. Context includes situation, co-text (other lexical items)..." (p.215). For Aitchison (2003), Schmitt (2000), and Singleton (2000), taking into account context in language use is essential as lexical items are polysemous, as they have multiple meanings; according to van Vlack (2008), lexical items are "...inherently polysemous" (p.181). In other words, a lexical item includes aspects of form, meaning and use, of which varies according to use (context):

- (1) She's a *bright* student.
- (2) It's a *bright* day.

While the lexical item 'bright' maintains the part of speech adjective, the meanings diverge; in (1), bright denotes intelligence, with paradigmatic relations to smart and clever while bright in (2) has to do with light, as in sunny. Similarly, McCarthy (1990) claims, "...many word-forms in a language like English seem to occur in different contexts with quite different meanings" (p.22). For instance, in the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), the lexical item 'cat' has at least seven distinct denotative meanings (as well as different sense relations). For a language user, the task is to recognize the

context in which the lexical item occurs in order to grasp the fitting meaning. Likewise, according to Cotrell (as cited by van Vlack, 2008), “It is the interaction between the lexical unit and its embedded context, both linguistic and extra linguistic which disambiguates the unit” (p.181). The viewpoint follows McCarthy (1990), that “...the total model for the place of any word in the lexicon will have to be three-dimensional...” (p.41); lexical knowledge needs to accommodate differences of form, meaning and use of lexical items.

2.2.2 Lexical Networks and the Mental Lexicon

With the lexicon of a language comprising lexical items (and thereby lexical knowledge), the language user must store in and use from his/her mind.

Accordingly, Singleton (2000) defines the mental lexicon as “...the lexicon which each speaker carries around ‘inside his/her head’...” (p.161).

Aitchison (2003) gives the following definition of the mental lexicon, as “The human word-store...” (p.10). Going further, Aitchison (2003) posits that “Overall, the mental lexicon...is concerned with links” (p.248); the links are the aforementioned aspects of lexical knowledge. The mental lexicon is then interpreted to be a highly complex network with many networks within, to accommodate the variations that are used according to context of use.

2.3 A Connectionist Perspective

Exploration of lexical knowledge shows that the mental lexicon could be perceived as an organized network (with networks within networks) where varying aspects of a lexical item are connected. On par to this notion, McCarthy (1990) posits that, for subsequent language learners, the “...L2 mental lexicon will have to develop from a few initial strands to the goal of labyrinthine connections between words” (p.42). This outlook is the underlying idea in connectionist models of language and learning. As Rumelhart, Hinton and McClelland (1986) argue, within connectionist, or usage-based, models, relational links are the basic elements of learning. Learning is a physical process, of which as Lamb (1998) states “...is

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accomplished by building connections” (p.176). Moreover, learning is essentially an associative process, which Ratey (2001) explains:

There are a hundred billion neurons in a single human brain...Each of these neurons is connected to others by branching treelike projections...most of which terminate in tiny structures called synapses. Synapses are the subject of much current brain research, for it is believed that most learning and development occurs in the brain through the process of strengthening or weakening these connections (p.9).

Essentially, as Feldman (2006) posits, “...mental connections are active neural connections” (p.91). Therefore, acquiring lexical knowledge is building the connections of a lexical item’s associated aspects of form, meaning and use.

Neuronal connections, or neural pathways, are strengthened or weakened through use, or non-use where, as Lamb (1998) purports, “The pathways of the brain are like pathways through a meadow or field or jungle – the more they are used the easier they become to use again” (p.179). Likewise, Feldman (2006) states that “...specific connection patterns are associated with particular mental constructions” (p.92). In following, van Vlack (2008) finds use as the determinant in language, in that “...the real organizing factor in the lexicon is the strength and the weakness of the synapses which is created by use; language use itself is what organizes the system” (p.173). To a great extent, language performance and competence are considered as one of the same, in that the distinction between usage and use made by Widdowson (1978) is beside the point, for, in the case of lexical knowledge, usage becomes use.

As context determines which meaning of a lexical item is used during language use, the underlying neural networks involved in lexical knowledge are also shaped by context. As Rumelhart and McClelland (1986) and Lamb (1998) illustrate, the activation, or use, of these networks or pathways is dependent on the strength of their connections where those that are relevant

are strengthened (with a lower threshold for easier activation) while others are weakened (as threshold level is increased). Interestingly, Kroll and Tokowicz (2001) finds that in bilingual models, subsequent language (L2) lexical units link to first language (L1) lexical units for access to meaning, of which while inevitable, may negatively affect subsequent language learning and use as “...(failing) to learn how to resolve competition from L1 to L2, they may very well never become proficient in L2” (p.63). The interpretation is that L1 connections, being stronger due to use, are activated in L2 use and thereby interfere in L2 use; this has been found to be the case for Korean learners of English according to van Vlack (2008). While the specifics of connectionist models are beyond the scope of this paper, what is to be mentioned is of parallel processing, of which Lamb (1998) describes “...in which activation moves along many pathways simultaneously in parallel” (p.209). In effect, the process of using a lexical item is to draw upon its aspects of lexical knowledge, or its connections, as constrained by context. In other words, as Damasio (as cited by Blakeslee, 1991) puts forth, neural connections (and thereby lexical connections) converge to give the lexical item its shape. Consequently, from a connectionist perspective, a lexical approach is to create and strengthen the multitude of connections of lexical knowledge in context (usage) within the subsequent language (for use).

2.4 Memory

Within the connectionist viewpoint in lexical learning for language use, encoding and its effects on storage for retrieval (use) need discussion. What is learned must be remembered, and that memory formation is a necessary condition; according to Ratey (2001), this is a physical process of neurons forming synaptic networks. Therefore, memory, in relation to learning, is a process involving a network of connections, of which Lamb (1998) explains, “...the process of in effect recording information in memory is actually the building and/or strengthening of connections and adjusting thresholds in the relevant positions of the network”. Simply put, use will determine the success

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of retention. However, the degree of retention in long-term memory, and thereby the success of retrieval, is significantly influenced by how encoding in working memory takes place.

Elaborative rehearsal, as opposed to rote repetition, is the processing and reprocessing of information which represents deep processing that draws upon more connections being made; retention is more likely according to Sousa (2006). Terry (2000) reaches the conclusion that “Elaborated traces have more connections or associations to other memories. This increases the number of possible retrieval cues, and so elaboration affects both encoding and retrieval” (p.263). Essentially, as Schmitt (2000) states, “...the more one manipulates, thinks about, and uses mental information, the more likely it is that one will retain that information... (p.121). Likewise, Baddeley (1990) has found retention to be greater with elaborative rehearsal (as cited by Hulstijn, 1997). Also, Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) contends that “The more energy a person expends when manipulating and thinking about a word, the more likely it is that they will be able to recall and use it later” (p.3). In further support, O’Malley and Chamot (1990), Hedge (2000), Cook (2001) and de Bot et al (2005) find such cognitive strategies to be useful in language learning. Moreover, engagement of elaborative rehearsal of lexical knowledge is likely to increase noticing by the learner, in which, according to Mitchell and Myles (1998), noticed input becomes intake, “...new language which has been processed sufficiently for it to become incorporated into the learner’s developing second language system” (p.184). Therefore, a lexical approach seeks to engage subsequent language learners in elaborative rehearsal of the aspects that comprise lexical knowledge.

2.5 Vocabulary Notebooks vs. a Lexis Notebook

The use of a vocabulary notebook in the language classroom is hardly new. Even in the basic form of simply recording an entry is found to be helpful to the learner, as McCarthy (1990) claims, “The very act of writing a word down often helps to fix it in the memory” (p.127). A vocabulary notebook,

following Fowle's (2002) definition, "...refers to a notebook kept by each learner specifically for the purpose of recording new and useful lexical items" (p.380-381). In detail, as exemplified by McCrostie (2007), a common vocabulary notebook format contains the form of the L2 entry along with an L1 equivalent and an example sentence; L2 definitions are typically left optional. While some vocabulary notebooks may include other aspects of lexical knowledge, as illustrated in Fowle (2002), they were brought up merely as means of "...exposing the learners to various methods of recording vocabulary..." (p.382). It would seem that aspects of lexical knowledge, while mentioned, were not being pursued.

In contrast, a lexis notebook, defined as a learning tool that simulates lexical networks of the mental lexicon, is a means of implementing a lexical approach to classroom instruction. Taking a connectionist stance to language and learning, the lexis notebook endeavors to develop and strengthen lexical connections within the subsequent language. The lexical notebook is designed to require more effort, more on par with a graphic organizer, of which Hall and Strangman (2002) depicts as "...(a) display that depicts the relationships between facts, terms, or ideas..." which may be more beneficial in learning (p.1). For graphic organizers, this is indeed the case as Moore and Readance (1984) suggest such learning tools as being effective in language learning. Thus, the lexis notebook is viewed to have advantages in comparison to vocabulary notebooks in lexical learning.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Overview

In theory, the integration of the findings on lexis, lexical knowledge and learning seems sound. What remains to be seen is its application - the aim of this study is to explore instructional schemes, that of utilizing a lexis notebook – the learning tool as an envisioning of the subsequent language learner's mental lexicon and its lexical networks – to explore conditions in which a lexical approach can be found conducive to learners in their pursuit

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of subsequent language learning. To achieve this purpose, rather than, in a strict sense, an empirical study, the researcher follows Mertler's (2006) action research paradigm. A survey was conducted and the lexical notebook was introduced to the participants. Over a 20-week period, the researcher observed the participants' development of the entries in their lexical notebooks, which were used for weekly group discussions as a means of elaborative rehearsal. In addition, sample entries made by the participants were collected and analyzed.

3.2 Participants

The participants are 39 Korean public school teachers of English attending a government-sponsored Intensive In-service English Teacher Training Program (IETTP) at S. University in Seoul, South Korea. IETTP ran for 20 weeks, from Monday to Friday, and trainees were enrolled on a full-time basis, receiving 32 hours of instruction per week. Of the 39 trainees, 34 were female. The average age of the trainees was approximately 34. According to the survey, the participants were generally considered as experienced teachers of English, where they self-assessed their proficiency in the intermediate-high level, as based on the scale used by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2000). The study was conducted in the two-hours-per-week Second Language Acquisition (SLA) module of the program. Throughout the program duration, the participants were placed into three groups, consisting of 14, 14 and 12 trainees, respectively.

3.3 Procedures

3.3.1 Instructional schemes on the lexis notebook

Trainees were introduced to the project during the first class of SLA. In the two hours of class, approximately one hour was used to introduce the project, which comprised raising awareness of lexis and its differentiation from vocabulary. In addition, aspects of lexical knowledge were addressed and the

lexical entry template designed by the researcher which organized the properties of lexis was given to each trainee. Copies of the lexical entry template which included sample entries were also given. Trainees were asked to purchase a separate, lined-paper notebook solely for recording their lexical entries; no suggestions as to the size and shape of the notebook were made. In addition, trainees were given a text on a lexical approach in language teaching as further reading (van Vlack, 2004).

In following connectionist elements in language and learning, the lexical entries were to be developed per page in their notebooks – one page would be dedicated to one lexical item. According to Lamb (1998), connections become stronger with use, in turn, becoming easier for later retrieval or use. In addition, with use being a crucial factor in the organization of the mental lexicon, as posited by van Vlack (2008), the researcher has determined that elaboration by the learner, to reinforce associated connections for higher probability of activation, should take place within lexical connections that are relevant. To a certain degree, having one lexical item per page is a means of isolating that particular lexical item with only those connections that are related, in effect contextualizing lexical connections. Likewise, for lexical items with multiple meanings, as specified by their collocates, trainees were advised to create columns for the aforementioned categories (except for word class) and to complete them accordingly. For instance, the lexical item ‘bright’ in partnering with ‘student’, ‘future’, and ‘lights’ gives off distinct meanings and sense relations, being connected to intelligence, optimism, and to the visual modality (high degree of illumination), respectively. As for cases where lexical items were seen to be closely related to one another, of one being derived from the other (as in ‘walk’ as a verb and ‘walk’ as a noun), trainees were advised to record them on the same page as separate entries.

In the initial instruction, trainees were told that they would not find sufficient time during class to work on their entries in their lexis notebooks. Rather, it was suggested that they take their lexis notebooks to each and every class and jot down lexical items they found interesting or meaningful

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and to recreate the template in their notebooks and develop the entries outside of class. On that note, it was brought to their attention that they also look for lexical items from their regularly-assigned readings from textbooks and/or booklets used in the various courses. As for developing an entry, many sources were discussed and suggested. In filling in the definition category, trainees were advised to look up the lexical items in monolingual dictionaries; while dictionaries generally include synonyms and antonyms, a thesaurus was also mentioned. Online sources were brought up – online dictionaries in particular were seen as being practical for finding denotative meanings. To help the trainees in recording collocates of a particular lexical item, it was suggested that they access an online corpus (a handout which included four such sites was distributed). Also, a website that compiled word associations from native speakers of English where associations could be looked up was referred to for finding thematic links as well as collocates.

An ongoing instruction was followed through on a weekly basis during the 20-week semester. The first 10 to 15 minutes of the SLA course module was set aside to focus on the trainees' lexis notebooks. They were instructed to share/present some of their new entries that they have developed since the previous week. Group discussions were held, generally three or four students in each group, with different group members from week to week.

3.3.2 Lexis notebook and Lexical entry template

In the pilot study, the implementation of a lexical approach takes the shape of a lexis, rather than a vocabulary, notebook - defined by the researcher as a bound, lined notebook - in which the learners created and developed entries where it was suggested that each lexical entry contain previously discussed aspects of lexical knowledge; each entry was to follow a specified lexical entry template (see Table 3.2). To introduce the project to the participants, of describing what entails lexical knowledge, and therefore what elements are to be included in the lexis notebook, for conventional purposes, the researcher followed Nation's (2001) three umbrella terms, of form, meaning and use, in organizing the various connections involved in lexical knowledge; they (as

well as the subcategories) were deemed by the researcher to be familiar and readily comprehensible to the participants. In addition, it was anticipated that learners would consider the three general categories as a checklist while developing each lexical entry in their lexis notebook. A lexical entry as to be developed by the learner was to comprise particular aspects of form, meaning and use (Table 3.1). Importantly, however, is that from the onset, learners are not required to complete all categories, in that if they believe that they have a good grasp of particular elements of a lexical item, those do not have to be developed.

Table 3.1 *Aspects of lexical knowledge*

Form	1. Orthographic information 2. Phonological information
Meaning	3. Denotation 4. Paradigmatic relations
Use	5. Part of speech 6. Syntagmatic relations

Within the category of form are a lexical item's orthographic and phonological information. According to Singleton (2000), for languages which have developed a writing system, English in this case, part of the lexical network involves a lexical item's spelling (its orthographic or written form). For Korean learners of English, this is a fundamental aspect as they primarily deal with written texts (reading tends to be the focus rather than writing). In the lexis notebook, this feature is a given that a lexical item must be written down in the lexical entry template under the heading 'entry'. In addition, Nation (2001) finds that how a lexical item is pronounced (its phonological or spoken form) is an important part of lexical knowledge. However, as Carter (1990) points out that for learners not aware of the

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International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), which are almost always found in dictionaries for pronunciation, they would "...have to be trained directly and practiced in class..." (p.134). Due to time constraints, the researcher has not included IPA training; a pronunciation guide was left optional. For learners unfamiliar with the IPA, they were given the option of attempting to devise a loose system of their own if they found it helpful (ie. 'take' could be written as /tay-k/ or written in Korean).

The meaning aspect of a lexical item includes two general elements, denotation and sense relations. Singleton (2000) states that denotative meaning is representative of the general concept of a lexical item. Schmitt (2000) views denotation similarly in that "Core meaning refers to the most basic meaning elements, the kind that dictionaries try to capture in their definitions. This is also referred to as the denotation of a word meaning" (p.31). Therefore, dictionary definitions are to be used in the lexis notebook under the heading 'Definition'. However, it was stated earlier that lexical items may have numerous denotative meanings (ie. cat). Learners, in choosing the fitting denotation, will need to take into account context, the environment in which the lexical item in question occurs. In turn, a modification to a developed entry may be necessary to allocate additional definitions according to further contexts encountered (a columned template will be provided for to accommodate additions).

As for paradigmatic relations, Singleton (2000) posits that an essential aspect in knowing a lexical item's meaning is also knowing how a particular concept relates to other concepts. In other words, Carroll (as cited by Schmitt, 2000) finds that knowing what a particular lexical item is like as well as what it is not like is vital in understanding its meaning. These meaning-related lexical connections, paradigmatic links, for the lexis notebook are broken down into three sections with the following headings: synonyms, antonyms, and thematic set. Synonyms are taken as lexical items that "...appear very close in meaning to each other" (McCarthy, 1990:16). With 'bright' as an example, in the context of describing a person, a particular denotation in OED (p.292) as "Displaying great intelligence", the Oxford Thesaurus of

English (OTE) gives the following, among many others, as being synonymous: intelligent, smart, and brilliant (p.100). Antonyms are considered as near opposites in meaning, that the example 'bright' in this particular context, the OTE would have as its antonym 'stupid' (p.100). What needs to be noted with the learners in developing a lexical entry is that the antonyms recorded are appropriate in that particular context, as McCarthy (1990) states "One thing language learners will have to be aware of is that a word may have different opposites in different contexts" (p.18). Within the columned template, as the need arises, learners are to record contextual opposites (in this case, they would not record 'dark' as being an antonym of 'bright').

The 'thematic set' category in the lexical entry template encompasses other contextual links that Singleton (2000) finds as being part of sense relations of a lexical item, mainly those of hyponymy and meronymy. For instance, 'tabby' and 'persian' are hyponyms of the superordinate 'cat' and 'duck-bill' and 'fur' are meronyms of 'platypus'. At least for nouns, learners were expected to record said associations, of which McCarthy (1990) observes that "...taxonomy-like relations will be found in all languages; thus language teaching might hope to encourage transfer of knowledge of patterns of organization to the L2 learning context" (p.20). Furthermore, in addition to the aforementioned paradigmatic links, learners are able to note idiosyncratic links under 'thematic set', as Aitchison (2003) points that no two learners are alike with their own personal experiences (use) being a determining factor in the formation of these semantic networks.

Lastly, with use, the lexical entry template notes a lexical item's behavioral patterns. Nation (2000) finds that knowing the part of speech is an important aspect of lexical knowledge. Therefore, part of knowing a lexical item's behavior is its part of speech – learners are to record under the heading 'word class'. In addition, Singleton (2000) states that another aspect of lexical knowledge that has grammatical basis is knowing its syntagmatic relations, that "...particular syntactic patterns are associated with particular lexical items" (p.17). Under this notion of colligation, of particular interest

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for subsequent language learners in language use is co-text, collocations which are defined by Lewis (2002) as "...combinations of words which occur naturally with greater than random frequency" (p.25). In light of the view that the common goal of subsequent language learners is to approximate native speaker usage, these word partnerships are displays of norms, of probable language rather than possible language, which McCarthy (1990) finds to be an indispensable aspect of language use. For Singleton (2000), the larger-than-singular lexical items have been found to affect fluency, as they "...have an important economizing role in speech production" (p.55). Accuracy in language use is also accounted for, as Lewis (2002) points out that lexical chunks are "...the agreed language which a particular group do use".

With the progress made in online corpora, collection of authentic language data, drawing attention to collocations, through the use of concordance programs that highlight them, becomes all the more feasible for language learners, that their involvement "...to the description of the language we teach is difficult to dispute" (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007:21). Likewise, Schmitt (2000) states "...it has been one of the most significant developments in vocabulary studies in recent years" (p.68). The lexical entry template includes a 'collocation' category where word partnerships can be looked up and recorded. In addition to the category 'collocations', following Lewis (2002), an 'expressions' (relatively set lexical phrases) section is designated in the entry template as larger lexical chunks also play an important role in language use. The distinction then for this research is length. The 'collocation' section is for recording two to three words in size as these "...are not only more prevalent but also much more diverse in their behavior (functions). They are simply much more productive" (van Vlack, 2008:154). On the other hand, for 'expressions', phrases and expressions containing more than three words are to be recorded, where they are, more or less, likely to be used as 'wholes'.

Table 3.2 displays the lexical entry template format which was to be used by the participants, loosely organized around the aforementioned

aspects of form, meaning and use (the optional ‘pronunciation’ section is omitted).

Table 3.2 *Lexical entry template*

Entry	written form of the lexical item
Word class	part of speech that the lexical item belongs to
Definition	denotative meaning
Synonyms	lexical items which are similar in meaning
Antonyms	lexical items which are contextual opposites
Collocations	lexical partnerships in the two to three word range
Expressions	lexical partnerships with four or more words
Thematic set	general-specific and whole-part lexical links (for nouns) as well as idiosyncratic links

3.4 Instrumentation

Through a questionnaire and observation of trainees’ lexis notebooks, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected and analyzed. The main source for qualitative data was a questionnaire that was conducted during week 15 (Appendix). A five-point Likert scale was used to gauge their perceptions and motivation towards learning lexis and the imposed schemes or techniques in order to modify instruction to raise the effectiveness of the lexis notebook. An open-response section was included to gain insights on lexical item selection, sources used for developing their entries, and to receive feedback, the idea being that their constructive input will be integrated into the next cycle for the following semester. All 39 trainees of IJETTP were surveyed on their background in language teaching and learning in addition to their perceptions on aspects of language (lexis being the focus) and on the usage of lexis notebooks. Of the 39 respondents, 34 gave complete

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responses, and therefore, data analysis takes into account only those 34 trainees. Evidence from lexis notebooks were of primary interest, that the quality and quantity of their lexis notebooks could account for quantitative data; the time and effort spent by the participants (their investment in lexical learning) could be readily seen by the number of entries as well as their relative completeness of each entry.

While language teaching experience varied from 3 years to 26 years; they are generally considered to be experienced teachers, with a median of 10 years of teaching English. In regards to their language learning experience, on average, they have been learners of English for approximately 24 years (with a median of 25 years). They are considered to be experienced learners of English. On that note, in general terms, trainees self-evaluated their English proficiency levels as being relatively high. With a range of 10 to 36 years of learning English, the self-assessed proficiency level (based on the scale by ACTFL, 1999) of the trainees varied, from Intermediate-low to Advanced-mid. However, they evaluated themselves as being predominantly in the Intermediate-high to Advanced-mid range (Figure 3.1).

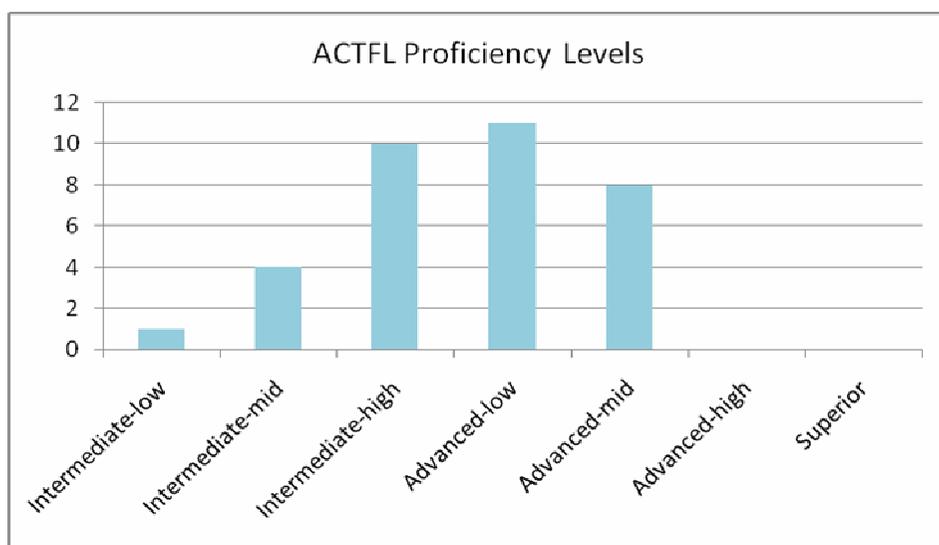


Figure 3.1

3.5 Findings

3.5.1 Perceptions on lexis and vocabulary notebooks as language learners

Trainees' views on language learning and teaching, in particular their perception of lexis and the use of a lexis notebook, were analyzed from the questionnaire. First of all, with a median score of 4, they readily agree that vocabulary (lexical) learning is important in their own language proficiency development, that 28 trainees strongly agreed or agreed to the statement "Learning vocabulary is the most important part of my proficiency" (see Figure 3.2). Trainees' response on collocations and expressions being useful for their language learning parallels their placement of importance on lexis as the majority of trainees found that knowing collocations and expressions were useful in their language learning (Figure 3.3). Likewise, most were in agreement to the statement "Knowing a vocabulary item's synonyms and antonyms helps me understand its meaning." Furthermore, a significant number of respondents (68%) find that keeping a vocabulary notebook is very important in language learning.

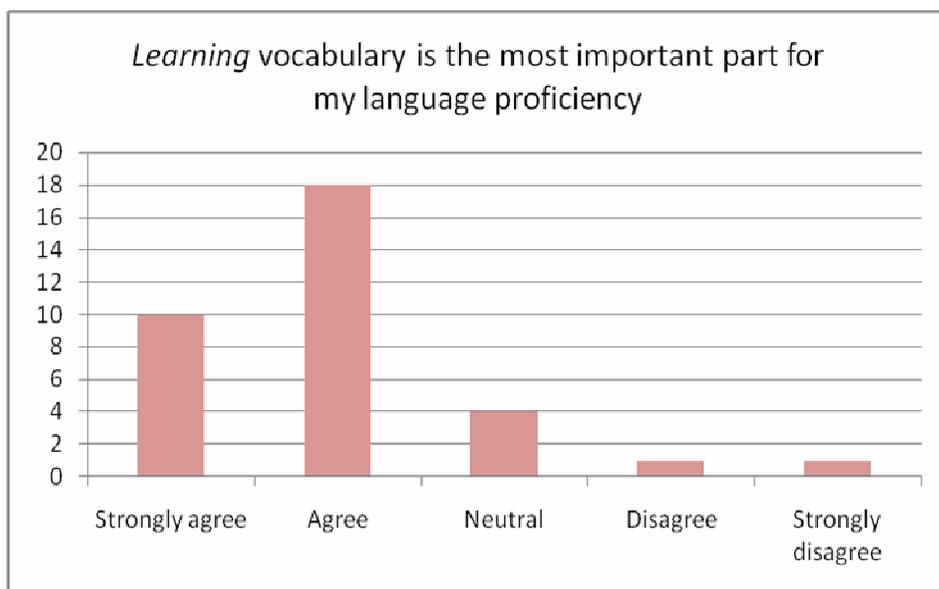


Figure 3.2

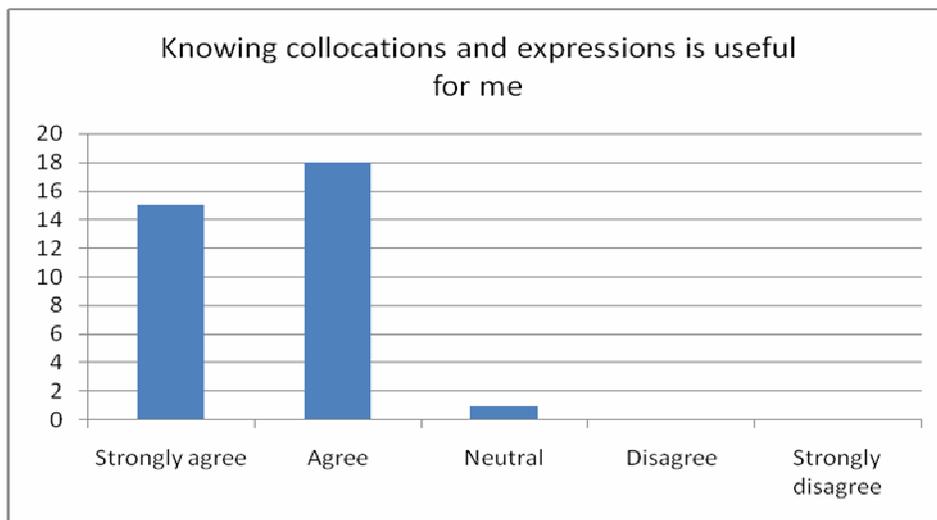


Figure 3.3

3.5.1.1 Perceptions on lexis and vocabulary notebooks as language teachers

In turning to their perceptions specifically as language teachers, results were comparably alike. Over half of the trainees (65%) viewed that teaching vocabulary was the most important aspect (Figure 3.4). Referring to teaching grammar, while it may be seen as being contradictory, 16 (47%) trainees agreed that grammar instruction was an important aspect of their language teaching; this is not surprising considering that language teaching in public schools primarily focuses on grammar structure-learning. However, a noticeable number of trainees (38% and 30%) gave a neutral response to the statements on teaching vocabulary and on teaching grammar, respectively. To the researcher, this seems to show an indifference towards or lack of clear understanding of their subject matter.

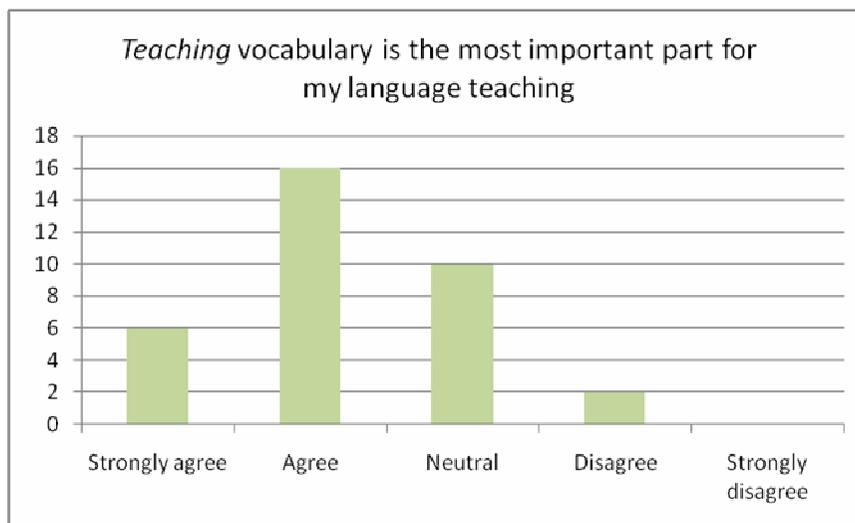


Figure 3.4

In summary, the majority (68%) of the respondents viewed lexis as being an essential element in language. In both teaching and learning the English language, the trainees indicated as such, in that the emphasis was placed on lexis rather than grammar. Having said that, what follows is an examination for evidence that their beliefs regarding lexis are put to practice from their lexis notebooks.

3.5.2 Evidence from Lexis Notebooks

In conjunction with questions referring directly to the use of their lexis notebooks in the survey, observations of the trainees' lexis notebooks were carried out by the researcher during discussions that took place in the first 10-15 minutes of the weekly SLA module. For a closer look at the quality of their entries, in week 10, the researcher gathered the trainees' notebooks and made photocopies of sample entries.

From the start, it would appear that the trainees' commitment to lexical learning parallels the common difficulty of putting theory to practice. All trainees did obtain a notebook exclusively for lexical learning and created

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entries which were shared with their classmates from week 2. Some notable entries were found where the various aspects of a lexical item were considered (see Figure 3.5). However, upon closer inspection, these cases were more of an exception rather than the rule. In general, trainees' lexical entries lacked many of the suggested categories. Also, instead of having a page dedicated to each entry (except for derivations), they resembled more of a list than a graphic organizer (Figure 3.6). Even after addressing the issue during week 12, reviewing the rationale behind the undertaking, generally speaking, the quality of the entries did not improve noticeably. It would be more accurate to state that they remained relatively the same (Figure 3.6 being representative of a typical entry) throughout the semester, to the point of reverting to, in a sense, a traditional vocabulary notebook, of which they were more accustomed to.

Entry	viable
Word class	adj.
Definition	able to work as intended or able to succeed
Collocations	viable + alternative instrument categories
	ex. ① In order to make the company viable, it will be unfortunately be necessary to reduce staffing levels. ② I'm afraid your plan is not economically viable
expressions	within the realm of possibility
Antonyms	impractical, unworkable, likely to perish
Synonyms	workable, doable, practical, executable
Thematic set:	

Figure 3.5

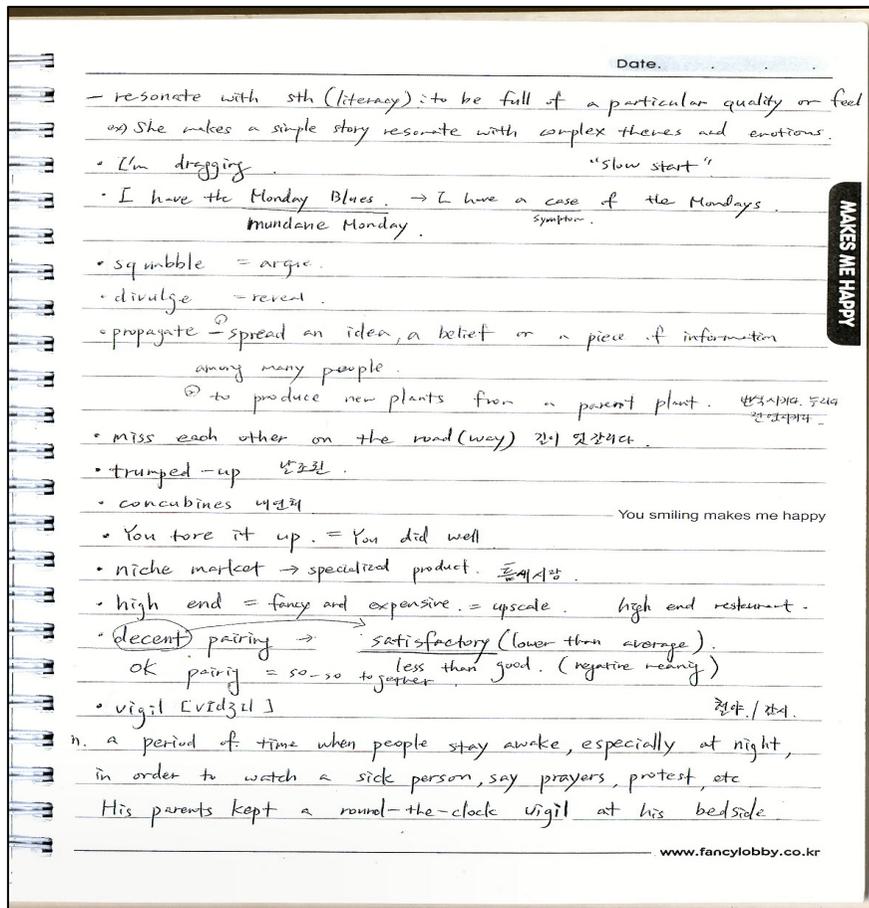


Figure 3.6

3.5.2.1 Learner investment

Insights gleaned from the questionnaire revealed a similar sentiment, in that the effort exerted into using a lexis notebook for language development was found to be limited. On average, while trainees spent 9.65 hours on their homework assignments (with a median score of 9), less than one hour per week was utilized for developing entries (0.83 hours); 8.6 percent of the total time spent outside the classroom was allotted to their lexis notebooks.

Likewise, considering that the trainees were exposed to approximately 32 hours of English in the classroom (with additional hours for reading assignments), the quantity of lexical entries made from the amount of input received seem to be rather limited. Per week, they recorded approximately 13

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lexical items (with a median score of 10). Interestingly, an outside needs analysis conducted by IJETTP prior to attendance showed that the majority of the trainees (75%), when asked what they expect to gain from the program, responded that they were attending the program to improve their language proficiency (see Figure 3.7) as opposed to learning methods (22%) or obtaining teaching materials (3%). While trainees came into the program with the desire to improve their language proficiency and have generally agreed that vocabulary (lexis) plays a significant role in their language development and maintaining a vocabulary notebook is important, to the trainees, it would seem that utilizing a lexis notebook as a learning tool may not be as conducive to their language goals.

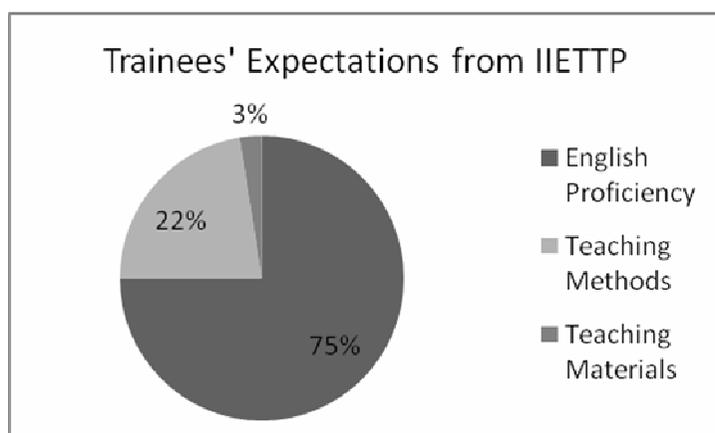


Figure 3.7

3.5.2.2 Lexical Knowledge

It is of particular interest to explore the participants' ideas on what entails lexical knowledge. To the question "How do you decide on which vocabulary items to record in your lexis notebook?" in the survey, 79% of the respondents answered that if the lexical item was new to them, meaning that they did not recognize it at the phonological/orthographic level, they would include them in their lexis notebooks; this is reflected in their views on lexis, that for many of the respondents, the selection process is at the recognition level, not taking into account a particular item's lexical links or its usefulness.

In turn, this implies that trainees do not seem to consider as essential a lexical item's usage or context as being part of their lexical knowledge, in that knowing its definition (and at times synonyms as part of or in place of) is deemed sufficient. This is evident in the entries developed by the trainees in the pilot study – they consistently included those two aspects (orthographic form by default) while L2 associations were often ignored, even the grammatical aspect (part of speech) was dropped from the entry (see Figure 3.8).

What can be gleaned is that the trainees, as Korean teachers of English and as Korean learners of English, could still be operating under the long-held belief of the dichotomy between lexis and grammar. This is not surprising, that to a large extent, their language experiences have been and are still grounded in structurally-based approaches. In continuing, with their concern solely on meaning, what could be inferred is that a lexical item in L2 is connected primarily to its L1 equivalent – to the trainees, to know a word may mean just having that limited connection, exemplified by the comment of one trainee, "...it's just too much to write down... Sometimes, I feel it's enough to write down Korean meaning or some examples." It could also be thought that they rely on L1 translation equivalents for grammatical information transference. This reliance on L1 has been the case with Korean learners of English. As mentioned prior, word association tests conducted in van Vlack (2008) found that the Korean subjects relied predominantly on L1 translation equivalents. Surprisingly though, for IJETTP trainees, translation equivalents were used sparingly in their lexis notebooks. A further examination into their lexical entries has shown a common occurrence, namely that of examples.

3.5.2.2.1 Examples

As the semester went on, in general, lexis notebooks increasingly took on the shape of lists, not of lexical items, but rather, of sentences. While some of these could be looked on as set expressions (these being considered as lexical items in their own right), for the most part, trainees developed a tendency to

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record example sentences (see Figure 3.9) – asked for from the instructors and/or self-generated. While the inclusion of example sentences has been a commonality in vocabulary notebooks, serving to contextualize the lexical unit in question, in terms of using a lexis notebook as an attempt to approximate the researcher’s envisioning of the mental lexicon, this is seen as being disadvantageous, in that such instances may restrict the creative potential of a lexical item, as a familiar crutch that the trainees are likely to be overly dependent on. Trainees, on the other hand, have expressed belief that having examples is useful for them and have noted that an additional category of ‘Examples’ be put into the template, in response to the question requesting feedback to make the lexis notebook more effective.

Date:	No:		Date:	No:
		• prenuptial: before marriage		• with strings attached : expect something other expectation
		• stipulate : make clear, define.		'No strings attached'
		• estate : possessions		• Draw/take one piece of paper from the cup
		• regime : system (military, government)		We're going to draw names
		• squabble : to argue		raffle
				lottery
		• resemble (just appearance)		• smores
		look like		: background dancer.
		• take after (appearance / personality...)		• You're rubbing in it. (You're pouring salt on my wounds).
		act like		Don't rub it in.
		• turn him down.		• She is rubbing off on me. (They are becoming similar)
		rejected		I'm acting like her.
		• have a crush on someone		• tattle tale
		crushed his heart		Don't tattle on me.
				tell
		• fine-tuning: making it even better.		
				• After I graduated
		• layaway		After graduation
		• You're through! = You're finished!		
				• I pity them (X)
		• mid-life crisis		I feel sorry for them (V)
		• vehemently : very strongly with ^{emotion} (angrily)		• communal showers. (浴室)
		• haul : carry, pick up anchor.		• Fraternities (for men) probationary period.
		• pull some strings: use. use your influence		• Sororities (for women)
				wait I made my report because she'll always appear

Figure 3.8

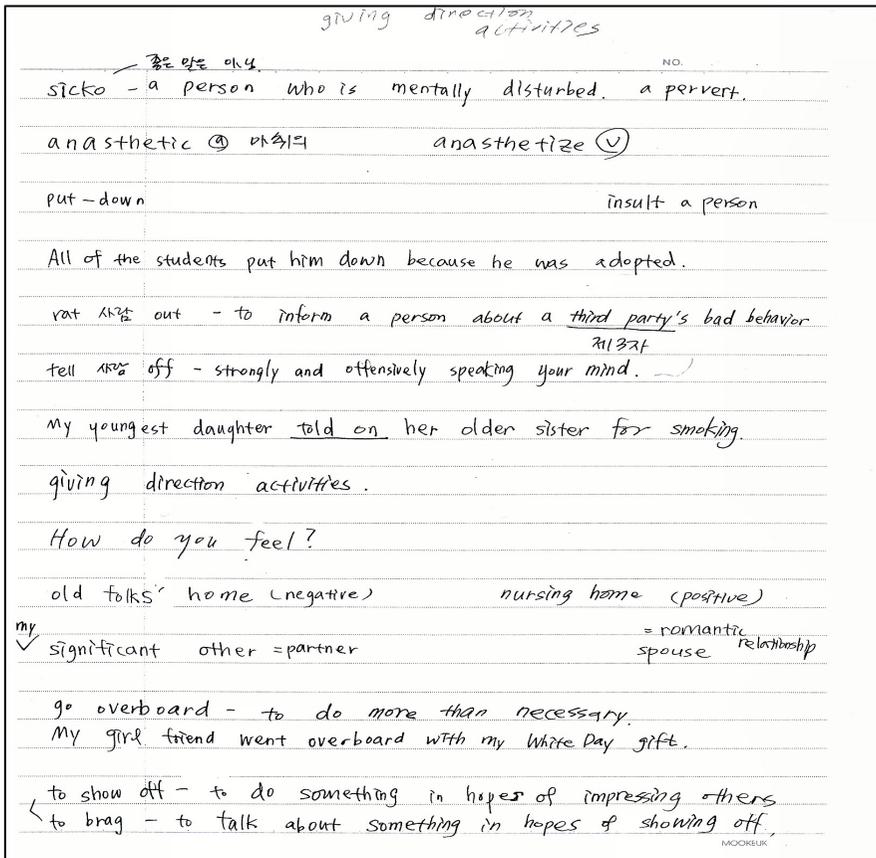


Figure 3.9

3.5.2.3 Motivation

Motivation in developing and maintaining a lexis notebook, in all likelihood, was an issue. The lexis notebook was considered as a side project in the SLA module, not a part of the course requirement for grading purposes. While trainees may have at the onset put in the time and effort, suggestions on how to develop their lexical entries were merely suggestions – approximately 74% of the trainees felt that they did not willingly follow the entry template (Figure 3.10).

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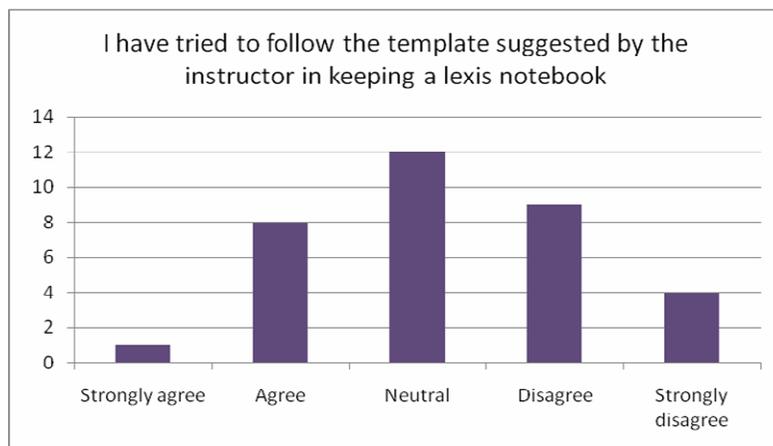


Figure 3.10

It may be that instructor intervention is necessary; the in-class time allotted for discussion on their lexis notebooks was found to be useful for the trainees (Figure 3.11). While this opportunity was used as a form of elaborative rehearsal, being required to do so was the bigger factor. The comment “We didn’t make an effort to write a formal lexis notebook from the start. If you forced us to do that from the beginning, it would be more effective” characterizes the general reaction of displaying a lack of intrinsic motivation. In comparison, when asked about having their students use a lexis notebook, a sizeable number of trainees (47%) were found to be in agreement. While more involvement from the instructor seemed to be the suggestion, somewhat perplexing results were observed with the statements regarding instructor intervention in the use of their lexis notebooks (Figure 3.12).

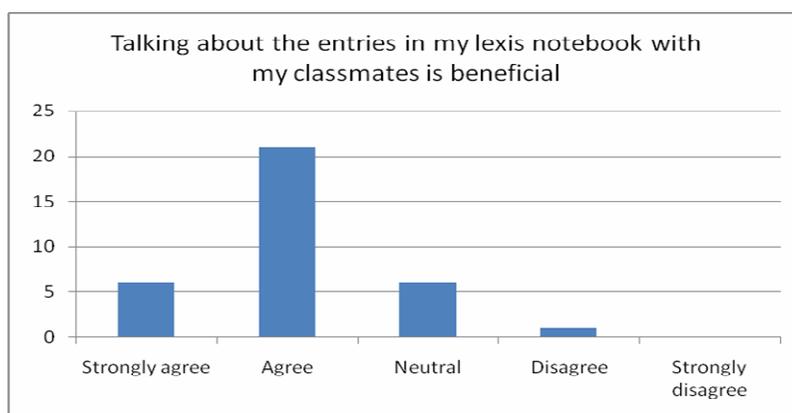


Figure 3.11

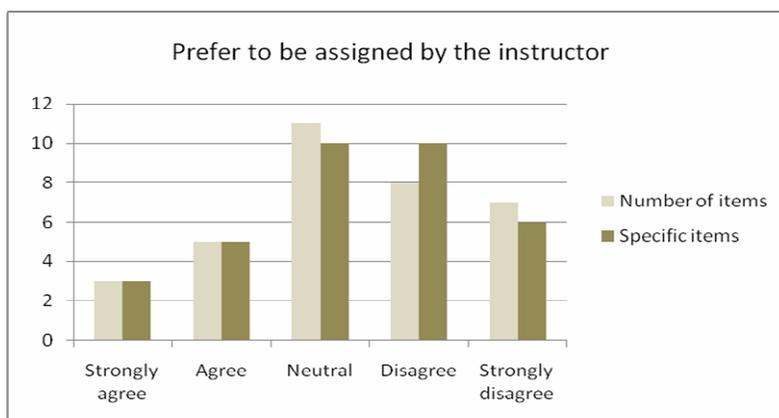


Figure 3.12

4. Conclusion

This pilot study on the use of a lexis notebook was an attempt to put into practice a lexical approach to language learning, incorporating current findings on lexis, and thereby the mental lexicon, and affective learning. The participants of the study were 39 Korean middle and high school teachers of English in the IIETTP at S. University. Results have shown that while the trainees held the belief of vocabulary being vital to their language learning, in general, there was a lack of commitment to the process, as evidenced by the questionnaire and their lexical entries. The reasoning behind this lack of motivation in improving their lexical knowledge could be that their view of lexis remains in the traditional sense of vocabulary. For the trainees, only knowing the meaning, in turn knowing its L1 translation equivalent, was necessary; L2 lexical links were regularly unaccounted for in their entries. In addition, an inquiry into their perceptions of language teaching revealed that, as a significant number of neutral responses were given, there seemed to be a general reaction of indifference to their profession. Furthermore, conflicting evidence between their beliefs and practice seem to indicate that the trainees perceived themselves as teachers of English rather than as learners of English during the IIETTP, in other words, while they may find the ideas sound, they were generally unwilling to go through the process themselves, in that their role as language teachers remained firm throughout. On the whole, no

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significant insights were found in the pilot study regarding the use of a lexis notebook. However, this initial research into a lexical approach has shed some light for continuing research.

4.1 Further Study

Following an action research paradigm, adjustments are to be made for subsequent cycles in utilizing a lexis notebook as a learning tool for lexical learning. In particular, the lexis notebook itself will be redesigned. In retrospect, using a bound notebook limited the potential for elaboration by the trainees, that new entries were simply created following their previous entries. Instead, a ring-binder will be used to create more opportunities for elaboration, specifically, for reorganization of their lexical entries. For instance, they can be asked to organize them according to word class or for a more meaningful/personalized task, trainees can rearrange them according to degree of knowing; lexical items they feel confident about could be placed towards the back while having less familiar ones in the front for further forms of rehearsals. The effect of categorization could be of the depth of processing influencing retention. In the current iteration of the notebook, if not for in-class discussion, it would have been more of a case of write-and-forget. In evidence of how the trainees have developed their lexical entries, a more direct intervention by the instructor may prove to be more effective – a lexical entry template will be created and be provided for, with additional copies to be given as the need arises.

Secondly, an inquiry into the next group of IIETTP trainees will be conducted prior to project launch. A pre-questionnaire will be done in order to gauge their perceptions and comparisons to a post-questionnaire is to be made – having gone through approximately 20 weeks, it would be interesting to see whether undertaking a lexical approach with a lexis notebook as well as going through a predominantly content-based instruction, as opposed to the structural approach that they are accustomed to, will have any effects on their perceptions regarding lexis, in particular, to assess what they consider as

lexical knowledge. In addition, as public school teachers from Gyeonggi province are expected to join next semester's program, a comparison between the two group types could be conducted, looking at how language levels may affect lexical learning; the Gyeonggi group is generally thought to be of a lower proficiency than the trainees from the Seoul school district.

A further analysis can be carried out by involving other participant types. The first participant type consists of Korean teachers of English. They are students in the TESOL MA program at SMU (whose students range from Kindergartners to adults). This group is to be considered to be of higher proficiency than the IETTP trainees due to their more rigorous academic undertakings as well as having to meet certain language level requirements necessary to enroll in said program. The second participant type includes undergraduate students. These students are enrolled in the General English Program (GEP), a first-year language course requirement at SMU. They can also be divided into two proficiency levels, students majoring in English as the high group and non-English majors as the low group. Of particular interest with undergraduate students is that their role is fixed, as a learner of English. Analyzing the teacher and non-teacher groups' results may provide insights on how perceived roles can affect language, or in this case, lexical, learning. While deviating from the pursuits of this research, a study could be carried out to investigate whether Korean teachers of English have difficulty in adjusting to the role that of a language learner and how this affects teacher-training programs. As for the continuing research into lexis notebooks, given the diversity of the participants and in their learning environments, a cross-sectional assessment is to be conducted in order to gauge the efficacy of techniques on specific learner groups.

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Appendix

Language Learning/Teaching Questionnaire

Give an approximation for your answers to statements 1 – 6.

1. Years of *teaching* English _____
2. Years of *learning* English _____
3. Hours per week spent on SMU-IIETTP homework assignments

4. Hours spent per week outside of class on your lexis notebook _____
5. Number of new entries per week recorded in your lexis notebook

6. How would you rate your English proficiency level? (check one)
 Superior
 Advanced-high Advanced-mid Advanced-low
 Intermediate-high Intermediate-mid Intermediate-
low
7. Grade level of your students at present
Middle school _____ High school

Circle the number that corresponds to your degree of agreement for statements 7 – 21.

(strongly agree = **5**; agree = **4**; neutral = **3**; disagree = **2**;
strongly disagree = **1**)

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7. Learning vocabulary is the most important part for my language proficiency. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. Learning grammar is the most important part for my language proficiency. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. Teaching vocabulary is the most important part for my language teaching. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. Teaching grammar is the most important part for my language teaching. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. I prefer to be assigned a certain number of vocabulary items for my lexis notebook by the instructor as weekly homework. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. I prefer to be assigned specific vocabulary items for my lexis notebook by the instructor as weekly homework. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. Keeping a vocabulary notebook is very important in language learning. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. I always have my lexis notebook on hand in class to record new entries. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. Talking about entries in my lexis notebook with my classmates is beneficial. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. I usually add new vocabulary items that my classmates have shared in my lexis notebook. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. I have tried to follow the template suggested by the instructor in keeping a lexis notebook. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. All vocabulary items are equally important. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. When I go back to teaching, I will have my students keep a lexis notebook. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. Knowing collocations and expressions is useful for me. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

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21. Knowing a vocabulary item's synonyms and antonyms helps me
 understand the vocabulary item's meaning. 5 4 3 2 1

Place a checkmark next to all items that apply for questions 22 and 23.

22. Where do your vocabulary items for your lexis notebook come from?

lectures class textbooks speaking elective
 listening elective reading elective writing elective
 conversations with instructors conversations with other trainees

Others (please specify):

23. What resources do you use to fill out a vocabulary item's information in your lexis notebook?

dictionary electronic dictionary website
 instructors other trainees thesaurus

Others (please specify):

Please write out your responses for questions 24 and 25.

24. How do you decide on which vocabulary items to record in your lexis notebook?

25. In the approach to the lexis notebook, what changes could be made or added to make it more effective for your language learning?

Any comments?

Thank you!

Bubbling under the Surface:

English in Taipei, Taiwan

Stephen van Vlack

It is the stark range of similarities and differences between Taiwan and South Korea which define the placement and use of English in each society. Before going to Taiwan attention is generally drawn to the wealth of similarities between Taiwan and South Korea, or Japan for that matter. The three form a chain of prosperous island states off the coast of the north-east Asian continent. In their island status, both physically (Japan and Taiwan) and politically (South Korea and Taiwan), all three states are isolated from continental superpowers. Additionally, both South Korea and Taiwan were colonies of Japan for several decades prior to WWII and immediately thereafter have continued to be strongly influenced by the USA. As a result, the education systems of South Korea and Taiwan are very similar in design and objectives. English classes, for example, begin in the 3rd grade in Taiwan. In addition, Taiwan went through education reforms in the late 1990s which saw the rapid development of private education as a supplement to public education. Private education, including cram schools (*hagwon*, *buxiban*), is pervasive in both countries and they continually cater to younger learners.

With all these similarities one would fully expect Taiwan to be very similar to South Korea regarding English, but this is not the case.

Taiwan and South Korea are also different. The population of Taiwan is roughly half that of South Korea and Seoul is three times as large with four times as many people as Taipei. Taipei is a rather small and certainly not very flashy industrial city. In many ways the city brings Daegu to mind as regards its size, layout and level of perceived sophistication, but of course with the semi-tropical climate there are more trees. The city, like the people, is largely unassuming. This may be because of Taiwan's status at the peripheries of the pan-Chinese world. Aside from some of the newer districts there, the central part of the city is rather old and run-down looking. It should also be noted that historically Taipei is a new city, having been founded in the early 18th century and became the capital of the island under the Japanese in 1895.



Bubbling under the Surface: English in Taipei, Taiwan

Taiwan can also be described as a country of immigrants along similar lines with that of the USA and Brazil in that the vast majority of the population (98%) is made up of Han Chinese immigrants, who arrived in a series of different waves from different parts of China over the last 200 years, and aboriginals, comprised of several different groups of Austronesian speaking peoples, who make up only 2% of the current population. Although Mandarin is the medium of instruction in schools and functions as the official language of the nation, two other main Chinese dialects (Hakka and Taiwanese) are spoken and these are also offered in the elementary schools. Amongst all this English, and for the same reasons as in South Korea, plays an important role as an additional language. This sets a certain scene for what one might expect regarding language and the role of English in Taiwanese society.



The first impression one gets from Taipei, from a South Korean perspective, is that there is no English. Unlike in South Korea where English is very much out there on the surface, even when people aren't prepared to use it, English in Taipei is more hidden. For the most part English use in the environment is limited to international brands and settings. In strong contrast to South Korea, local Taiwanese shops and businesses do not resort to general use of English as a way of advertising/marketing themselves. One exception would be the once pervasive Dante coffee shops which are now being squeezed by Starbucks. Public signs are, of course, dual coded in English and Mandarin and there is some very limited use of Japanese, but private signs tend to use Mandarin much more than English. This general lack of English in the environment, as compared with South Korea and Seoul, in particular, may lead one to expect that there is no English in Taipei, but this is not true.

Virtually everyone we spoke to, old and young alike was minimally able to engage in generalized conversational discourse. Granted, we did not visit people in their homes and were dealing with people in public spaces who we did not know, but in general we were impressed with the nearly universal basic level of English on the streets of Taipei. Interestingly, as with the signs, people did not go out of their way to demonstrate English ability, they seemed to be happier speaking Mandarin first (which they tried with my wife, not with me) but were also fine with switching over to English when

Bubbling under the Surface: English in Taipei, Taiwan

the situation required it. People were not particularly friendly or outgoing in English, but performed well enough when asked. This kind of underground English is interesting when viewed within a country one might think would be very similar to South Korea as regards the latter's rather flamboyant use of English is an important outward marker of social class.



Taiwan, unlike South Korea and Japan, which are linguistic isolates, is a very small part of the larger linguistic and cultural world of Chinese. Once more, as a multilingual country with a rich and complicated history, comprised overwhelmingly of immigrants, Taiwan is still struggling to find its niche in the Chinese world. Although English is obviously very important for them politically and economically, Mandarin is both part of their society and also what they aspire to. Although Taipei is a capital city, it is a reluctant capital and is really only a provincial center, depending on political perspective. This shows in the rather unassuming attitude of the Taipei

people and their attitude towards English. It also shows us that English can play a pivotal role as a second language without being unnecessarily thrust into the limelight.

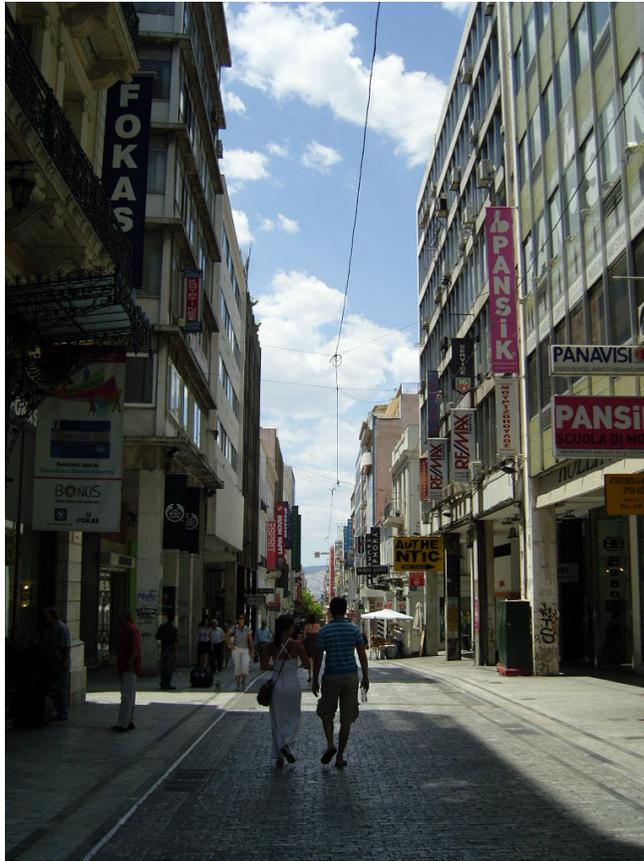
On the Border: English in Athens, Greece and Istanbul, Turkey

Hyunjeong Hannah Kim

Greece and Turkey are located at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea where Europe and Asia meet. The Mediterranean Sea is nestled between and, therefore, links three continents, Europe, Asia, and Africa, which comprise a vast array of different cultures, races, and historical backgrounds. Therefore, this small region has diverse resources for attracting tourists.

Greece and Turkey are a good example of this. They are neighboring countries and share many similarities, such as food and coffee. Also, they share a border which not only divides the two countries but two continents, Europe and Asia. It takes only two hours from Athens, Greece to Istanbul, Turkey by air. However, the two-hour distance shows vivid differences between Europe and Asia. The same phenomenon also appears in their usage of English. The Mediterranean Sea has historically been an important route for trade, and it is still one of the world's main seaways. Therefore, tourists who go to both Greece and Turkey can find out that Greeks and Turks are familiar in their use of English as an international language in tourism and trade. At the same time, one can't but help notice the two countries' different attitudes towards the English language.

Compared to the Korean context, English is more naturally melded into Greek society. The Greek language has its own writing system, but they have Romanized versions of all the messages in public areas. Even a very small sign at a bus stop has English captions along with Greek. Other than this kind of consideration, the European lifestyle may make it more natural to use English. The first Greek I talked with was the owner of the hotel where my friend and I stayed. We sent them e-mails asking many questions before we went there and received replies written in a very polite manner. In the Athens airport, and during our stay in the city, we had no difficulties achieving our needs using English even though not every person we met was fluent in English. Many local people could not speak in full and accurate sentences. It seems that they do not bother about using perfect English. However, from my point of view, Greeks use English well without struggling to correct their pronunciation or to choose the right word. They may be familiar using it since they share the same European culture as the British. As an Asian visitor, how they offer polite greetings, how they make eye contact while talking and what words they choose to say are also important parts of marking English as a European language, not just in structure but also in use. In this point of view, Greeks shows similar manners to North Americans or the British which makes them seem more natural.



Turkey has a rather complicated history since it is located on the crossroads between Europe and Asia. In particular, Istanbul sits right on the border. Therefore, as well-known traders throughout history, the Turkish use English as a very useful tool in their tourism industry. In Istanbul, we could see signs in both Turkish and English. People we met on the street were extremely friendly, and speak English perfectly well. They were mostly sellers in markets and waiters in restaurants. They not only use basic discourse used for business purposes, but also freely used more complicated language to describe their lives and to make friends. After chatting for a

while with our waiter in a restaurant, my friend wondered why he works in a restaurant with such a high proficiency in English. One of the biggest prejudices of Koreans is that they consider a person who speaks English well as a more qualified and educated person. This may be true in Korea, but not always so in Turkey. The Turkish might have a more definite purpose and use for English in their everyday lives than Koreans. I felt this quite strongly because there is a huge gap between those who work in the tourism industry and those who do not. Outside of downtown Istanbul, where not many tourists visit, we could not communicate at all with the local Turks. Body language was a necessity there. It was obvious that outside of tourist area, the Turkish are not as concerned with English as much as the Greeks because we encountered only a few signs like toilet or exit in such places. Despite that, they are open-minded and friendly to strangers. Therefore, they are very outgoing in using English no matter how much English they know.



On the Multiplicity and Uniqueness of Bali and Balinese

Son Youngseon

The Indonesian island of Bali is unique in several interesting ways. Bali is the largest Hindu outpost in the world outside of India. Bali Hinduism has developed in its own forms and a special type of culture and art have flourished there for more than 3,000 years. The Balinese are typically multilingual with proficiency in at least one form of Balinese, Indonesian, and other foreign languages, mostly English. Interestingly, Balinese dialects, following strong tenets of Hinduism, vary according to caste. It can, thus, be stated that the Balinese are linguistically aware. In fact, they need to be due to the development of the Island as an international tourist destination in the latter part of the 20th century. Bali, at three times larger than our own beloved Cheju, is unique in that the entire island has been interconnected for tourism. Although agriculture is still officially listed as employing the largest number of workers, even agriculture is linked closely into the tourism industry. In a place as skillfully designed for international tourism as Bali, it is quite a challenge move beyond the beautiful beaches and radiant sunlight and get a feel for their use of language use as a part of their culture.

The first and most surprising thing about Bali is how well the locals are able to use a variety of different languages. I was shocked to hear words of welcome in Korean delivered fluently by the native Balinese. The reason for this inordinately large control of diverse foreign languages among the Balinese is simple: the Indonesian government bans foreign tour guides working in Bali. This ban effectively places access to the vast tourist resources of the island into the hands or mouths, as the case may be, of the locals. It may seem like an obvious step to take in that the locals can benefit

most from having created their own unique environment and tourists can benefit from a closer, more meaningful, interaction with locals, but it is not such an easy thing to do. Such a ban also places great stress on the local population, which prior to the tourist boom were agriculturalists in one of the world's poorest, least developed countries. Trusting or coercing locals to undertake the heavy task of establishing and maintaining an international tourist industry engrained into every aspect of local life is a heavy business. Of course the level of motivation to use foreign languages among locals is very high because they can make more money. Also, since there are always so many people from different places, local Balinese can learn both in the classroom and through tourists at the same time; therefore, they use the current authentic form of foreign languages.

Other than the multilingual tour guides, English is officially used in most of the tourist sites. English is a common third language (and the primary foreign language) of many Balinese, owing to the requirements of the large tourism industry. Another interesting group of people are taxi drivers. Since taxis are a major means of transportation around the inland, taxi drivers have a good chance to encounter and transport tourists. While driving, it is the driver who initiates the conversation in English. It is pretty impressive in the beginning and people presume that they are able to speak in English. However, it soon turns out to be clear that their proficiency is not high enough to communicate on a deeper level. Often the structure of the sentences is the same. After greeting, they try to arrange the next tour schedule with the customers. It often goes like this. "Do you have any schedule today?" "Do you want to do some water sports?" "Do you want to get some massage?" It is no more or less than dealing with prices. They must learn their livelihood English through pattern drills.

The country of Indonesia is home to a diverse group of cultures, with more than 500 different ethnic languages spoken across the great expanse of islands. In spite of a concerted effort to prevent the further spread of other dialects such as *Bahasa Gaul* (Bahasa Gaul is a pidgin language made up of a

mixture of Jakarta Malay and the Indonesian language), most youth speak various dialects and do not seem to care about it even if Indonesian is highly respected as a lingua franca among Malaysians and Singaporeans. The Balinese language is one example of the West Malay-Polynesian group, which is spoken in Malaysia. It has been influenced in the course of its history by an array of visitors and conquerors to the island speaking languages like Sanskrit, Arab, Chinese, Dutch and English. Balinese has long had its own unique script and a kind of old Javanese called Kawi is still used strictly for literary purposes. The modern version of Balinese is viewed very differently from the old version. Current, modern Balinese is used in relation with one's status within the caste system. Interestingly, the difference between the levels of the language is not grammatical, but in the use of vocabulary. Therefore, Balinese has a caste-determined multilevel lexicon.

This review and research about Bali is skin-deep because my role as a tourist and my limited time there constrained the encounters I was able to engage in. The predominant trait in using foreign languages in the tourist spots is that they are very much dependent on a living approach. This means that people learn a plethora of foreign languages through direct and meaningful contact with speakers of those languages. Of course, this contact is localized and often limited to only specific types of topics and functions. Nonetheless, overall the Balinese are able to attain an admirable level of fluency and a strong base in a distant foreign language. With a little classroom organization and pushing and prodding it is not hard to imagine how far they might be able to go on this base created out of meaningful encounters.

In closing, Bali has very unique culture both religiously and linguistically. Eventually, it was quite interesting to search for the origin and use of a new culture reflecting upon travel memories. This opportunity left much room for this author to enjoy another perspective of traveling.



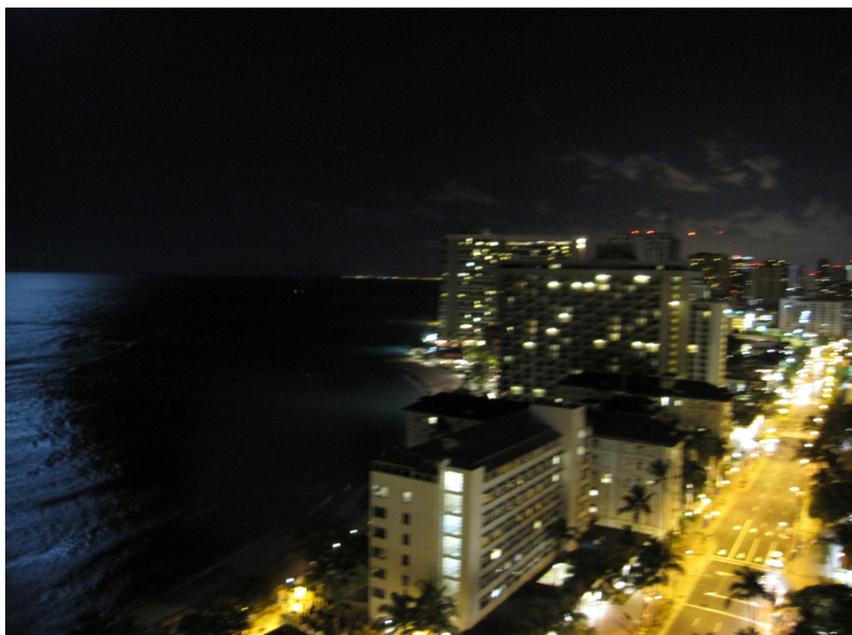
Another Japan in Hawaii

Jisu Kim

Hawaii is located on an archipelago in the central Pacific Ocean, southwest of the continental United States and South East of Japan. Its capital is Honolulu on the island of O'ahu and it became one of the Union in 1959. Hawaii is comprised of eight main islands which are Ni'ihau, Kaua'i, O'ahu, Moloka'i, Lana'i, Kaho'olawe, Maui and Hawai'i. Official languages of Hawaii are English and Hawaiian. Creole English is a native dialect for many residents who are raised in Hawaii and Spanish, German, Portuguese and French are spoken widely. The next most popular languages are Japanese, Ilokano, Chinese and Korean.



Pearl Harbor, in Hawaii, was attacked by the Japanese in 1941 and Hawaii is again occupied by the Japanese in 2009. As a visitor to Honolulu, Hawaii, it certainly was a shock how Japanese is spoken almost everywhere. Compared to a visit there in 2000, the whole island seems to be disguised as one of the islands of Japan. Back in 2000, visitors were welcomed in Hawaiian and most of the time, Hawaiian was spoken among people who work there and live in Hawaii. However, in 2009, Japanese has captured Honolulu: The shopkeepers, taxi drivers, hotel managers and even waiters at the restaurants spoke Japanese and whenever they see an Asian person, they would speak Japanese without any hesitation. The signs on the road, information catalogues about Honolulu and the map of the shopping mall were provided in Japanese as well. Honolulu was captivated with Japanese.



Another Japan in Hawaii

My expectation of using the unique Hawaiian dialect was hard to meet. Japanese was a pressure coming from above in Honolulu, Hawaii. Due to the close distance and reasonable travel expenses, there are many Japanese tourists and residents coming to Hawaii and it is almost impossible to run a business without speaking Japanese.

9 years was enough time to change the use of languages in Hawaii. In another 9 years, it is hard to stop wondering what will happen in Honolulu, Hawaii.

Abstract:
The Effect of Face Validity and Learned Helplessness on Proficiency Level Among Korean EFL Learners

Mi-Jung Moon

Understanding face validity and students' learned helplessness is important because feelings of helplessness affect test scores. This study examines learned helplessness and its effect on tests, specifically face validity.

The data was collected from two test scores and two survey scores. A High Face Validity (HFV) test was generated using three school tests and it was considered to represent participants' proficiency. In addition, a Low Face Validity test (LFV), Learned Helplessness Survey (LHS), and Face Validity Survey (FVS) scores were compared to identify the effect of face validity on learned helplessness. Thus, the degree of learned helplessness on a cognitive ability test in two different testing conditions (high or low test face validity) was examined in this study.

Increasing the face validity of a test seemed to lower the participants' learned helplessness scores. However, the hypothesis that the degree of face validity would affect participants' learned helplessness was only partially supported. Regardless of the degree of face validity, high proficiency students showed less possibility of learned helplessness. The participants of low face validity test didn't necessarily show a relatively high possibility of learned helplessness, as expected.

In terms of participants' sensitiveness to low face validity, the 'helpless' students of this study responded to a lack of face validity more sensitively. In other words, students who have greater possibility of experiencing learned helplessness are more sensitive to tests with low face validity. Finally, implications for learned helplessness and testing design are discussed.

Abstract:
**A Study of Grammatical Accuracy in
a CBI Program for Elementary School Students**

Ko, You Jung

During the past decade, the movement in the English education sector in Korea has been more dynamic than any time in the past. The movement has created people to place a higher value on communicative competence, the ability to communicate with a foreigner, above other things. It is becoming the benchmark of how well one has been successful or unsuccessful in learning English. While such emphasis on practical English has been an awakening call to the EFL countries which have been reluctant to give up their traditional ways of teaching, the implementation of newly favored methods is still in its early stages. Content-based instruction, being one of the emerging popular methods, is sometimes misunderstood by many teachers. Such classrooms show an imbalance between language and content. They are likely to bypass language points in order to focus more on content, which they feel are more relevant to teaching students how to be communicatively competent. By focusing on one of such classes with a CBI program, the study seeks to show the current state of the students' grammatical accuracy.

Abstract:
**An Exploratory Study on how Email Dialogue Journal
Writing Affects Writing Performance and Affective Filters
in Korean EFL Learners**

Ju Eun Kim

This study examined the effectiveness of email dialog journal writing (EJW) on Korean EFL learners' writing performance and affective variables. To investigate the effects of EJW on writing performance, pre and post writing tests were analyzed regarding word counts, mean T-unit length, and numbers of grammatical errors. Moreover, pre and post self-evaluation questionnaires were examined qualitatively to see EJW impacted affective filters. This study suggests that active participation in EJW improves learners' writing performance. Additionally, participants' questionnaire results suggest that EJW has a positive impact on learners' affective variables.

Abstract:
**An Investigation of English Usage and Attitudes towards
English across Social Classes in South Korea**

Jisu Kim

This research paper examines how English is used and various attitudes toward English across social classes in South Korea. English plays an important role in many countries, including South Korea. English use is widespread throughout Korean society from educational circles to mass media. As a result, it is unlikely that many South Koreans can avoid using some English. However, the level of English usage is not the same for all Koreans. Rather, English usage varies between individuals, their social networks, and their social class.

The findings suggest that frequency of English usage and attitudes toward English are not always parallel. The attitude score for all six groups were similar to each other, which indicates that they all have positive attitudes toward English. However, the frequency of English usage was varied. Another noticeable finding was that English usage is indeed dependent on individuals' social surroundings.

Abstract:
**Exploring the Relationship between the TOEIC and MATE
Tests**

Ham, Song Yi

English speaking skills are becoming increasingly more important in Korea. However, Korean students often have difficulty in communicating despite their high proficiency on standardized tests. It's common to see students who have very high scores on English tests, but still have no confidence in speaking. In contrast, there are some students who speak fluently but still worries about their test score. This issue has become a serious problem in Korean English Education.

The current study was conducted 1) to find out the relations between competence measured by a competence test, TOEIC and learner's speaking score for a performance test, Multimedia Assisted Test of English (MATE). And 2) to find out the relations of two productive skills, speaking and writing measured by the performance test.

The statistic data from the pilot study showed that there was no significant correlation between receptive competence and productive performance. Different from the first result, the result from the main study showed higher correlation. In addition, analysis of transcribed speech sample is done to study the relations of TOEIC competence on their speaking performance as measured by the MATE test. Two different levels of competence in the TOEIC test were compared with the participants' score on the MATE speaking test and later cross referenced against the participants' study background. . Above all, the result from main study supported the validity of TOEIC to predict students speaking ability but it was not strong. In the part of the speech analysis, it was interesting that students from lower level with their TOEIC score showed better performance in the task of opinion giving than other tasks. Lastly, the result of present study indicated relatively high correlations between speaking and writing.

Abstract:
**A Study of Teachers' Attitudes, Beliefs, and Practices
 Regarding CLT in South Korea**

Jason M. Ham

This paper explores Native English-speaking EFL practitioner attitudes toward Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and investigates their implementation of the approach at the tertiary level in South Korea based on their adherence to five major principles. The five principles outlined in this study—limited explicit instruction of grammatical structures, limited focus on error correction, the use of collaborative learning tasks, teacher role as facilitator, and increased learner role in the learning process— are collectively agreed upon by researchers and believed to define CLT. Data from three distinct instruments: a practitioner questionnaire, a classroom observation scheme, and a learner questionnaire are examined in relation to each other in order to reveal to what degree practitioner beliefs are backed up by actual practices and explore teacher variables that may affect the implementation of CLT.

본 연구는 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), 즉 의사 소통 중심 교육에 대한 원어민 교육자들의 태도에 대한 연구이며, 5가지의 주된 원칙을 바탕으로 한국에서의 제 3단계 교육에 접근하여 그들의 성취 정도를 탐구하였다. 이 연구에서 설명하는 5 가지의 원칙 - 문법적 구조에 대한 명쾌한 설명의 제한성, 실수 수정에 집중된 한계성, 공동 학습을 위한 과제의 사용, 중재자로서의 교수 역할, 학습 과정에서의 학습자 역할증대 - 은 다른 연구자들에 의해 공통적으로 인정되었고, CLT 를 정의 하기 위함으로 여겨졌다. 3가지의 특별한 방법으로 얻어진 데이터: 교육자 질문서, 교실 학습 관찰개요, 학습자 질문서-를 서로 비교, 검토하였고 이는, 실제 학습에 뒷받침되는 교육자에게의 신념을 밝히고, CLT 교육 성취에 영향을 끼칠 수 있는 유동적인 교육자를 탐구하기 위함이다.

Abstract:
**Elementary School Teachers' Perceptions on Content-Based
Instruction (CBI) and Suggestions for a CBI In-Service
Course**

Kang, Ji Woong

Since the new government was established in 2008, new English education curriculums which teach other subjects in English are being investigated. One in particular, CBI education called "immersion," is coming up as a "hot potato" nationwide. In light of this, the research is based on a CBI Intensive In-Service English Teacher Training Programme (IETTP) for elementary school teachers in Gyeonggi provincial office of education, which was held from December 8th to December 19th (10days, 62hrs) in Gyeonggi-do Institute for Foreign Language Education (GIFLE).

The purpose of this study is to look at two issues: teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of using CBI in Korean primary school settings before and after taking the course by analyzing their perception on CBI, and to look at suggestions for CBI IETTP based on their reflection on the course. For this research, pre and post surveys, during and post interviews, and classroom observations were used.

The finding shows that teachers thought that the three best ways to implement CBI in public primary schools are as follows: (1) it should start step by step through discussion with parents, students and teachers; (2) it should start with gifted purposes, such as for advanced level students, or after school activity programmes; (3) it should be accepted with adaptations for the Korean public school setting. Also, the study found that for effective CBI IETTP, it would be considered many factors in terms of building objectives, participants, programme, course types, instructors, teaching methods, materials, and evaluation.

Through these analyses, CBI IETTP as an intensive course of more than 120 hours, should be designed balancing both theoretically and practically (included improvement of English speaking skills), so that participants teachers have more opportunities to experience CBI education in depth.