Issues in EFL
Contents

1. Mission Statement ........................................................................... V
2. Acknowledgments ........................................................................... V
3. Editor's Letter .................................................................................. 1
   Seongwon Yoon

1. Community Contributions .................................................................. 3
   1. Going Through the Two Year Cycle ................................................. 4
      Seongwon Yoon
   2. Academic Reading Tips .................................................................. 6
      Daniel Brown
   3. How to Find Keywords for a Research Paper ................................. 8
      Laura Hall

2. Final Papers ..................................................................................... 11
   1. Developing Strategic Competence in English Speaking Using
      Communication Strategies .............................................................. 12
      Sujung Kim
   2. Lexical Access in Speech Production .............................................. 26
      Ivan van Den Deen
   3. The metacognitive awareness of EFL female high school
      students in listening in English .................................................... 31
      Jungsok Kwon
   4. English Lesson Integrated Mathematics Using Creative
      Approaches ................................................................................... 45
      NaNa Kim
   5. Promoting Participation & Autonomy: Blogging with Young L2 Users 60
      Victor Mui
   6. Research on Activity Theory: Exploring How Other
      Researchers Explain and Apply the Activity Theory ...................... 67
      Yeonhee Sung
   7. Using Self-Assessment in Elementary School L2
      Classrooms: A Literature Review .................................................. 75
      Krystle Harkness
8. Enhancing Students’ Speaking Ability through Cooperative Group Work ................................................................. 84
   Sukja Lee

3. Graduate Thesis Abstracts ................................................................. 104
   1. Gaining Access to Communities of Practice in Virtual Environments: Looking for Evidence ..................................... 105
      Thomas S. Avery
   2. Comparing a Music Staff Visualization Approach to Traditional Methods for Teaching Intonation to Korean Learners of English ................................................................. 105
      Andrew Bailey
   3. Addressing Fossilization through Corrective Feedback with KakaoTalk ................................................................ 106
      Juanita Hong
   4. An Analysis of the Dialogs in English Conversation Books: Pragmatic Features and Authenticity ................................ 106
      Shinn Young Jung
   5. Repeated Reading vs. Partner Reading: Comparing Speed and Accuracy ................................................................. 107
      Min-Jung Kang
   6. The Quality of Reciprocal Teaching Strategy Use ................................................................................................. 107
      Hyewon Kim
   7. An Analysis of the Coursebook, Basic Essential CLIL 1 ....................................................................................... 108
      Jeehye Kim
   8. An Analysis of Pictures Used in Korean and Global English Textbooks and Korean Young Learners’ Perceptions .... 108
      Jieun Kim
   9. The Development of Reciprocal Teaching in English Reading for 1st Grade Korean Learners ................................ 109
      Young Ah Kim
   10. Single Versus Varied Contexts in Vocabulary Acquisition and Retention ............................................................... 109
      Jason Lee
11. The Effect of Drama Activities on Students’ Anxiety in Speaking English .................................................................110
   Seoyeon Lee

12. The Implementation of Self-assessment in Korean EFL Young Learner Classrooms .....................................................110
   Mijung Park

13. The Differences Between Two Modes of Peer Feedback on L2 Learners’ Writing Revisions .................................................111
   Aehyang Shin

14. Using Video Podcasts to Teach Middle School EFL Students ..........111
   Zeeshan (Shone) Ahmed Qureshi
Mission Statement

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

Acknowledgments

Editor-in-Chief
Seongwon Yoon

Editors
Daniel Brown
Jin Kyung Hahm
Laura Hall
Kyeong Ran Jang
Andrew Langendorfer
Eunsook Lee
Jeff Lumsdon
David Ziller
Richard Hawkes

Layout & Design
Richard Hawkes

Special thanks to Professor Stephen P. van Vlack for his help and advice throughout the editorial and publication process, and to the SMU TESOL Student Union for defraying printing costs.

The Issues in EFL Journal Committee is open to all current Sookmyung Women’s University MA TESOL students, and relies on their support. There are a variety of roles available, regardless of experience. Please check the MA TESOL message board for information on when the next committee opens. Email enquiries can be made to tesolma@sookmyung.ac.kr.
Welcome to the 2015 Spring edition of Issues in EFL. This edition tried to follow the steps provided by our previous editor-in-chief in providing interesting and useful information for new and existing students in the program.

The first section in this journal tries to provide useful information about how the students can plan their study through the MA TESOL program, tips on how to find keywords for research, and reading strategies for the readings needed throughout your MA study.

The second and third sections of this journal are articles written by the students in the program. The second section is written by students in different courses from the 2014 fall semester. These student articles are examples that provide a good view into what is being achieved and learned from different courses. It also includes an action research paper from the Practicum, which will be useful for the students interested in Practicum as their graduating option. The third section consists of thesis abstracts from our graduating students of February 2015. The full theses are available through the Sookmyung library website.

I really appreciate the great help from all of our editors who have put effort and time into the journal during their semester break. Thank you for the help throughout this 2015 Spring Journal and being part of it with me.

Seongwon Yoon
Editor-in-chief
www.tesolma.com
Community Contributions

1. Community Contributions .................................................. 3
   1. Going Through the Two Year Cycle .................................... 4
      Seongwon Yoon
   2. Academic Reading Tips ...................................................... 6
      Daniel Brown
   3. How to Find Keywords for a Research Paper ............................ 8
      Laura Hall
Going Through the Two Year Cycle

Seongwon Yoon

One of the questions that the TESOL office hears from students new to the program is about the courses that are provided within our MA TESOL program. Not only new students, but existing students may not be aware of which courses will be provided throughout their study in the MA TESOL program.

Each semester our MA TESOL program offers a minimum of 7 different elective courses. In addition to Practicum I and Practicum II, which are not elective courses for those in the Practicum stream, at least one or two courses will be from five different streams: theoretical applications, language teaching methodology, evaluation and materials development, young learners, and CALL. These run in a regular two-year rotation, listed below.

Students will be able to plan their elective courses in advance using the provided two-year course cycle. For the first four semesters, for some students three semesters, students doing their electives choose two of the seven courses offered. Several of the more important or more basic courses, such as Research Methodology and Teaching Reading, appear more often in the two year cycle so students should check when such courses are provided. Since Research Methodology is designed around students who have more experience in the program, the program is recommended to Thesis stream students in their final semester of electives.

Students should bear in mind that this two year cycle is subject to change. If there are any changes made to the cycle, students will be able to find the information on the MA TESOL website (www.tesolma.com) under the program design category.
# Two Year Plan

## Year 1A
- Introduction to Linguistics
- Discourse Analysis
- Principles of Language Testing
- Sociolinguistics in Language Teaching
- Internet Based Language Teaching
- Creativity and Humanism in TESOL
- Research Methodology
- Practicum I & Practicum II

## Year 1B
- Human Learning and Cognition
- Teaching Writing
- Current Issues in EFL/ESL
- Techniques in Working with 12s and Under
- Theoretical Foundations of CALL
- Teaching Reading
- Research Methodology
- Practicum I & Practicum II

## Year 2A
- Developing Bilingualism
- Approaches to English Grammar
- English for Specific Purposes
- Child Psychology
- Language in Context
- Computer-mediated Communication
- Research Methodology
- Practicum I & Practicum II

## Year 2B
- Second Language Learning Theories
- Introduction to Corpus Linguistics
- Curricula and Materials Development
- Special Needs in ELT Classroom
- Digital Gaming and Teaching and Learning
- Teaching Reading
- Research Methodology
- Practicum I & Practicum II
Academic Reading Tips

Daniel Brown

Succeeding at the graduate level of study in TESOL means handling extensive amounts of reading. As the field has broadened recently and theories have proliferated, this reading is not limited to just topics concerning applied linguistics or education, but also discourse across various fields such as anthropology, sociology, and even the physical sciences. Coping with the vast and various nature of these readings can be daunting not only in terms of just comprehending the ideas presented, but also in critically evaluating them. In this article I will first take a look at some useful academic reading strategies for comprehension. After that, I will take a look at some strategies to help looking at readings through a critical lens.

Pragmatic Comprehension

When faced with new readings and a tight deadline, it is good to have your own strategy to effectively tackle those readings. The first step is to create a workable schedule and find a quiet place to study when can be incorporated into your weekly routine during the semester. As many in this MATESOL program are simultaneously working full-time and raising families, this first step can be difficult to achieve. However, there are many places around campus to study, as well as study rooms in the library which can be used.

Once you have made the time to start reading, you need to get down to the details of comprehending the readings. The first thing to do is take in the title and, if present, the abstract. Look at these and determine what you think you will gain from the reading and how it will fit in with what you already know about the topic. It may be good to consider what you think the professor expects you to get from the reading, as well. Rather than just jump into the text from start to finish, you should survey the readings’ headings, subheadings, graphics, and charts. After scanning the reading for these things, it is a good idea to generate your own questions about the reading. Generating your own questions will allow you to personalize the reading experience more, as well as help you focus your attention towards details that may affect your thesis down the line.

Since many of the readings are PDF files obtained from online databases, you can type your questions out directly onto the PDF file itself using your PDF reader’s commenting system. A good PDF reader will allow for multiple mark-up options which you can use to take notes on the reading. In addition, a good reader will give you hotkeys to easily highlight parts of the text, as well as quick ways to change your highlight color. Coming up with your own color-coding system to highlight texts can be a great aid when you need to quickly review an article before class. For example, if you come across an unfamiliar term, such as indexicality, you may want to highlight terms like that in a constant color, like purple. The term will then become more salient to you as notice how often it is used.

As you work your way through the reading, refer back to your initial questions and answers them the best you can in your notes. In addition, your reading should also inspire new questions. Put these questions into additional comments into your PDF file. At the end of the week, you may want to compile all
When doing your readings, it is also important to remember that you do not have to read every article word-for-word. You will only really remember the main ideas from each reading anyhow.

When doing your readings, though, it is also important to remember that you do not have to read every article word-for-word. In general, you will only really remember the main ideas from each reading anyhow. When a reading gets into familiar territory or else strays too far away from your interests, a good strategy is to read the first and last sentences of each paragraph. If you cannot find anything relevant there, you do not need to spend your time laboring over those sections of the text.

### Critical Analysis

Study at the graduate level requires more than just comprehension of texts, however. Every article can be seen as less a statement of facts and more an expression of the author's values. Recognizing the writer's stance is vital in gaining a deeper understanding of the underlying currents and politics in any given academic discourse community.

One facet of a text that can be recognized is the concept of black-boxing (LaTour, 1987). When building an argument in a paper, an author typically cite others in the field of their research who they are basing their theoretical backgrounds on. Building these references to authority can be seen as a way to prop up the own author's thesis. When an author presents the results of previous research unquestionably as fact so that they can build upon it, this is called using positive modalities. In other words, the author has put previous research into a convenient little box. On the other hand, an author may point to flaws in others' research. By pointing attention to research that the author wants to discredit, the author is creating negative modalities. Using the black-boxing metaphor, the author is unpacking those ideas from the box.

Positive and negative modalities have been used in TESOL research to justify that there are accepted findings in the field (Block, 1996). Just as you marked up your PDF files to aid in comprehension, you can also highlight instances of positive and negative modalities. Recognizing these techniques will allow you to see academic writing in a new light, and allow you to be more critical of what you are reading. This way of reading can help you see that acceptability is not handed out one-way from top to bottom, but rather is actively constructed by the participants.

### Conclusion

Reading academically, be it for comprehension or critical analysis, is no stroll in the park. However, certain steps can be taken to make the process manageable. This paper stressed the importance of having a steady schedule, developing individualized comprehension questions, devising a mark-up and commenting system, and recognizing black-boxing techniques. Using these tips can help not only in understanding texts for this MATESOL program, but also academic texts in a wide variety of fields.

### References


How to Find Keywords for a Research Paper

Laura Hall

Writting a research paper requires many skills, with one of the first steps including finding the best keywords. These words can unlock a wealth of articles to inform and support your paper. Using 2-4 keywords is best to keep the response limited. Too few words might not yield a result; too many keywords could generate an overwhelming amount. If you are having trouble thinking of keywords, don’t despair. There are many places you can look for help, including an actual keywords generator website, which is included at the end of this piece. First, consider the question driving your thesis. This question probably has 2-4 nouns that can be used as keywords. If you’re not sure about your question yet, look at a few abstracts that are related to your topic. These will sometimes have a keywords list at the end. If the abstract doesn’t help you, flip to the end of the paper to search the references. This is a great starting place for finding articles. In fact, you may no longer need keywords at all. If you’re still struggling, check out http://www.lib.utexas.edu/keywords/. This website will walk you through the steps necessary to formulate those important words.

This screenshot is taken from The University of Texas at Austin’s library website. Although it is directed at undergrads, it is still helpful for when you feel stuck trying to think of keywords. Step one, think of your research topic and write a broad statement that encapsulates it. Next, you should write down three key concepts that support your research topic.

After you have written a few keywords to support your research topic, hit next. This screen will further prompt you to think of more keywords to support your key concepts.
Now that you have generated a few more keywords, you should be able to search and receive better results. The website gives more advice on how to get the necessary results.

Using AND or OR will cause different related articles to pop up. Finally, if you have too much information, consider paring down your selected keywords. Hopefully, you are prepared to begin the writing process.
Final Papers

1. Final Papers ........................................................................................................11

1. Developing Strategic Competence in English Speaking Using Communication Strategies .......................................................... 12
   Sujung Kim

2. Lexical Access in Speech Production ......................................................... 26
   Ivan van Den Deen

3. The metacognitive awareness of EFL female high school students in listening in English .......................................................... 31
   Jungsok Kwon

4. English Lesson Integrated Mathematics Using Creative Approaches ............................................................................. 45
   NaNa Kim

5. Promoting Participation & Autonomy: Blogging with Young L2 Users ............................................................... 60
   Victor Mui

6. Research on Activity Theory: Exploring How Other Researchers Explain and Apply the Activity Theory ...................... 67
   Yeonhee Sung

7. Using Self-Assessment in Elementary School L2 Classrooms: A Literature Review .............................................. 75
   Krystle Harkness

8. Enhancing Students’ Speaking Ability through Cooperative Group Work ......................................................... 84
   Sukja Lee
Developing Strategic Competence in English Speaking Using Communication Strategies

Sujung Kim
Discourse Analysis

1. Introduction

One of the goals for learning a second or foreign language may be to communicate with people who speak that language (Popescu, 2014, Ghout-Khenoune, 2012). To satisfy this goal, communicative language teaching (CLT) can be used to concentrate on a learners’ communicative purpose for language learning by helping to aim language programs toward functional and communicative competence (Savignon, 1991). Canale and Swain (1980) suggested strategic competence as one of the communicative competences that has the ability to compensate for communicative problems or difficulties. Strategic competence supplements Hymes’s (as cited in Celce-Murcia, 2007) proposed communicative competences: linguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence. Strategic competence may allow speakers to overcome communicative difficulties or problems (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012). In consideration of this, developing strategic competence for Korean students can be helpful because they may tend to be less confident in speaking in English due to the possibilities of making mistakes in their utterances which may cause misunderstandings. Furthermore, they may not know how to deal with their communicative difficulties.

The communication process in the real world can be complicated and problematic (Doqaruni, 2013, Dörnyei, 1995). When the learners of a second or foreign language interact using the target language they might recognize gaps in their L2 communicative resources (Doqaruni, 2013). Regarding this, studies on communication strategies to fill conversational gaps of L2 speakers and how to make L2 speakers use these strategies have emerged (ibid.). Communication strategies can be used for speakers to solve communication problems when they attempt to convey their meaning (Taron, 2005). Therefore, instructions on how to deal with communicative difficulties using communication strategies can be beneficial to L2 learners because they may develop strategic competence by employing strategies when there are breakdowns during communication.

In this regard, the purpose of the following three lesson plans is to develop students’ strategic competence in English speaking by reducing breakdowns in the communication through the employment of communication strategies. The reason why I consider communication strategies in the lesson plans is that it may alter Korean students’ perception on speaking in English in a positive way through understanding that they may overcome their communicative problems through the use of communication strategies. To do this, each lesson plan provides a different functional objectives while incorporating communication strategies for clarifying requests and confirmation checks. Clarifying requests can be employed when interlocutors ask for assistance in understanding an utterance from other interlocutors (Nakatani, 2010). Confirmation checks can be used when the interlocutors try to make sure they understand the utterances from other interlocutors through repeating or paraphrasing (ibid.). Therefore, the reason why these strategies can be important for the interaction between students is that they may have an opportunity to obtain comprehensible input and to produce modified output on their own through applying the strategies to the negotiation in their interactions (Nakatani, 2010, Mackey, 2002). As a result, it may lead to developing the learners’ speaking ability through the employment of communication strategies.

In lesson plan 1, students will complete a survey on their classmates’ clothes by starting with a compliment. They will be expected to use phrases for clarifying requests and confirmation checks when there are breakdowns in the communication.
when they have trouble understanding the other speaker's comments. In lesson plan 2, the students will do an information gap task on shopping and they will be expected to use phrases for confirmation checks when they want to confirm their understanding for the other speaker's utterance. In the lesson plan 3, the students will do a role-play task to practice ordering food at a restaurant. In this plan, they may need to be able to employ phrases from the first two lessons to clarify requests and for confirmation checks when they encounter a communicative problem. In this way, the students are expected to employ communication strategies for clarifying requests and confirmation checks to resolve the communicative difficulties or problems in their communication through English.

With regard to the correlation between the three lesson plans and the overall curriculum, the three lessons are appropriately included in the curriculum to help the students understand the communication strategies of various functions in English. Based on the Dornyei's (1995) suggestion on the direct approach to teaching communication strategies, the reason why the three lesson plans can suitably be included in the curriculum is that the plans provide the students with opportunities to practice the communication strategies for clarifying requests and confirmation checks. In other words, it may imply that by providing the students with tasks such as survey, information gap, and role-plays for practicing communication strategies, the students can acquire abundant languages because they are able to participate in the communication through the task that involve the communication strategies (ibid.). That is because communication is not simply one of the events but rather the functional and purposeful goal in the communication (Brown, 2007). In this respect, it can be considered that the three lesson plans can accordingly be incorporated in the curriculum to develop the strategic competence in English speaking through employing the communication strategies.

2. Curriculum

| Course overview | This three times a week speaking course occurs during a winter vacation for 9 weeks. It consists of 27 classes in total and is designed to provide students with instructions and practices about communication strategies to deal with communicative difficulties: use of fillers, asking for repetition, appeals for help, comprehension checks, clarifying requests, and confirmation checks. We will start from introduction of the course and then the communication strategies with various functions will be introduced in the class. The students will learn and practice one strategy per week which means that one strategy will be covered for 3 classes. Thusly, the students will have enough opportunities to perform the communication strategies during the course. Therefore, students are expected to be able to understand the communication strategies with various functions in English at the end of the course. |
| The overall goal of the course | Students will develop the strategic competence in English speaking by employing the communication strategies when there are communicative difficulties in communications. |
| Course objectives | Students will be able to use communication strategies: use of fillers, asking for repetition, appeals for help, comprehension checks, clarification requests, and confirmation checks when there are breakdowns in speaking. Students will be able to apply the communication strategies in various functions: introducing, requesting, giving directions or instructions, asking for information, giving advice, expressing feelings including gratitude, complaints, complements, expressing opinions, explaining, sequencing, ordering food, and making an invitation. |
| Textbook and material | Hand-outs, projector |
| Techniques | Survey, information gap, role play, storytelling, sequenced story, oral interview, simulation |
### Syllabus

#### Week 1

**Class 1: Introduction to the course**
Introduction to the course: goal, objectives, syllabus, methodology, policies
Ice-breaking activities

**Class 2: Use of fillers (Presentation & Practice)**
**Theme:** Celebrities
**Function:** Introducing their favorite celebrity
This class will introduce expressions for fillers in speaking and thus students will practice the fillers in introducing someone.

**Class 3: Use of fillers (Production)**
**Theme:** Talking about their favorite holiday
**Function:** Introducing their experiences
In this class, students will have an opportunity to produce the expressions of fillers for introducing their favorite holiday.

#### Week 2

**Class 4: Asking for repetition (Presentation)**
**Theme:** Transportation
**Function:** Request
This class will introduce expressions about asking for repetition in transportation and thus students will be able to understand what they can do for asking repetition in requests about transportation.

**Class 5: Asking for repetition (Practice)**
**Theme:** Places
**Function:** Giving directions
In this class, students will practice how to ask for repetition when they are lost and they will also practice how to give directions.

**Class 6: Asking for repetition (Production)**
**Theme:** Buying a ticket at a station
**Function:** Asking for information
In this class, students will have an opportunity to produce expressions regarding asking for repetition about buying a ticket at a station. Therefore, they will be able produce appropriate languages as a passenger to get information about buying a ticket.

#### Week 3 - Review

**Class 7: Use of fillers & Asking for repetition**
**Theme:** Characteristics
**Function:** Introduction
In this class, we will review the expressions for 'use of fillers' and 'asking for repetition' from previous classes. Then, students will be able to introduce their distinctive characteristics using the expression.

**Class 8: Use of fillers & Asking for repetition**
**Theme:** Handicraft
**Function:** Giving instructions
In this class, students will make a house using blocks and thus will be expected to give directions to each other in order to accomplish the task. They will be required to use expressions for 'use of fillers' and 'asking for repetition' while they are doing the craft.

**Class 9: Use of fillers & Asking for repetition**
**Theme:** Fruit
**Function:** Asking for information
In this class, students will buy some fruit because they have to visit their friend in a hospital and thus they need to ask someone to help out by getting information about fruit. They will be expected to be able to produce expressions for 'use of fillers' and 'asking for repetition'.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus</th>
<th>Week 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Class 10: Appeals for help (Presentation)** | Theme: Tools  
Function: Request  
This class will introduce expressions about appeals for help using tools and thus students will be able to understand how to request using the tools with appealing for help. |
| **Class 11: Appeals for help (Practice)** | Theme: Airport  
Function: Asking for information  
In this class, students will practice how to find an appropriate gate in the airport by asking questions and practicing appeals for help in the airport. |
| **Class 12: Appeals for help (Production)** | Theme: Study  
Function: Giving advice  
In this class, students will have an opportunity to produce expressions of appeals for help about studying and thus students will be expected to be able to appeal for help from other students. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus</th>
<th>Week 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Class 13: Comprehension check (Presentation)** | Theme: Dental clinic  
Function: Expressing symptoms  
This class will introduce expressions about comprehension check when students are in a dental clinic and thus they will understand how to do comprehension checks for expressing symptoms. |
| **Class 14: Comprehension check (Practice)** | Theme: Sports  
Function: Expressing opinions  
In this class, students will practice how to do comprehension checks in playing sports when they express opinions for planning a strategy for playing sports. |
| **Class 15: Comprehension check (Production)** | Theme: Musical instrument  
Function: Explaining the way of play the musical instrument  
In this class, students will have an opportunity to produce expressions for how to do comprehension check in explaining the way of play the musical instrument. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabus</th>
<th>Week 6 - Review</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Class 16: Appeals for help & Comprehension checks** | Theme: Finding a new house  
Function: Expressing likes or dislikes  
This class will review expressions about ‘appeals for help’ and ‘comprehension checks’. The students will be able to find a new house considering their likes or dislikes while employing the expressions. |
| **Class 17: Appeals for help & Comprehension checks** | Theme: Moving house  
Function: Explaining locations  
In this class, students will complete an activity about moving to a new house. When they do this, they will need to describe locations to put household items with using expressions for ‘appeals for help’ and ‘comprehension checks’. |
| **Class 18: Appeals for help & Comprehension check** | Theme: House warm party  
Function: Asking for opinions and giving advice  
In this class, students will hold a house warm party and thus they need to plan for the party through asking for opinions. Other students may give advice for the party. Therefore, they will be able to appeal for help and check the comprehension for the opinions. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week 7</th>
<th>Week 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Class 19:** Clarifying request (Presentation)  
**Theme:** Award  
**Function:** Expressing gratitude  
This class will introduce expressions about clarifying request when they express gratitude. | **Class 22:** Confirmation check (Presentation)  
**Theme:** Plan for a vacation  
**Function:** Sequencing  
This class will introduce expression about confirmation checks in planning for their vacation in sequence. |
| **Class 20:** Clarifying request (Practice)  
**Theme:** Gym  
**Function:** Complaints  
In this class, students will practice expressions for clarifying request when they give complaints about facilities and services in the gym. | **Class 23:** Confirmation check (Practice)  
**Theme:** A school uniform  
**Function:** Comparing  
In this class, students will practice expressions for confirmation check in comparing their school uniform with other schools. |
| **Class 21:** Clarifying request - Lesson plan 1. (Production)  
**Theme:** Clothes  
**Function:** Compliment  
In this class, students will have an opportunity to produce expressions for clarifying request when they complement on other's clothes. | **Class 24:** Confirmation check - Lesson plan 2. (Production)  
**Theme:** Shopping  
**Function:** Asking for information (comparing)  
In this class, students will practice expressions for confirmation check in asking for information by comparing with others when they go shopping. |
| **Week 9 - Review**  
**Class 25:** Clarifying request & Confirmation check - Lesson plan 3  
**Theme:** Restaurant  
**Function:** Ordering food at a restaurant  
This class will review expression about 'clarifying requests' and 'confirmation checks' in a restaurant. The students will be expected to be able to produce appropriate expressions for 'clarifying request' and 'confirmation check' when they order food at a restaurant. |  
**Class 26:** Clarifying request & Confirmation check  
**Theme:** A birthday party  
**Function:** Making an invitation  
In this class, students will do an activity for making an invitation for their birthday party and thus they will be required to be able to produce appropriate expressions for 'clarifying requests' and 'confirmation checks' in the class. |
| **Class 27:** Clarifying requests & Confirmation checks  
**Theme:** Cooking  
**Function:** Sequencing  
In this class, students will be a cook and thus they need to explain steps of cooking to other students in sequence. Therefore, they will be expected to be able to produce suitable expressions for 'clarifying requests' and 'confirmation checks' in the class. |  
**Achievement:** Oral interview |
Developing Strategic Competence in English Speaking Using Communication Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grading policy</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formative assessment (Review weeks)</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement test (Oral interview)</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performances in class (Recording their speaking)</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Lesson plans

3.1 Students’ profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>2nd year middle school students in a private institute</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency level</td>
<td>Intermediate-low in speaking (ACTFL, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of students</td>
<td>12 students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of the course</td>
<td>A winter intensive course for communication strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>45 minutes in each class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class times</td>
<td>3 times a week for 9 weeks (27 classes in total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation</td>
<td>This speaking course will be implemented as a winter intensive course to help students improve strategic competence in English speaking through using the communication strategies to reduce communicative difficulties in their interactions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Lesson plan 1 - Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Students will be able to use phrases for clarifying request when they need in understanding the other speaker's speaking and they will be able to compliment someone.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Target language objectives</td>
<td>Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compliment: 'I really like your...', 'It looks good on you', 'It suits you', and 'You are looking good'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarifying request: 'Could you repeat...?', 'What did you mean?', and 'I don't understand'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'did you' → '/dɪʤə/' &amp; 'could you' → '/kʊʤə/'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intonation: falling intonation for getting information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabularies: buy, bought, match, suit, fit, get, purchase, payment, satisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional objectives</td>
<td>Students will be able to compliment someone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students will be able to ask questions to get information for someone's clothes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students will be able to request clarification on the interactant's speaking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context</td>
<td>You are invited to their friend's birthday party. All the people in the party are majoring in fashion and thus they were dressed nicely. Now, you are wondering about their clothes and thus you decided to ask questions to the people who are well-dressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mins</td>
<td>Pre-task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T shows a picture of two women having a conversation with blanked speech balloons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T asks Ss what they think about the picture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>While T listens to the Ss ideas, T writes down the ideas on the board to share ideas with classmates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After gathering ideas, T shows a possible conversation on the board.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ss practice the conversation with their partner and can understand possible conversations for compliment and clarifying request.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3.3 Lesson plan 2 - Information gap

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Students will do a conversation for shopping and they will be able to use phrases for confirmation check when they want to make sure they understand the other speaker’s comments.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Target language objectives** | Language  
- Shopping: 'I need some…', 'What do you have on sale?', 'What do you recommend?', 'What's the difference in price?', and 'I'll take…'  
- Confirmation check: 'Do you mean…?', and 'You said (mean) … is it right?'  
- Pronunciation:  
  - Intonation: rising intonation for making sure: 'what do you-' → '/whadaya/' & 'is it' → '/zit/'  
- Vocabularies: on sale, recommend, inexpensive, comfortable, credit card, receipt, cheaper than, resistant, durable, stylish, compact |
| **Functional objectives** |  
- Students will be able to do a conversation for shopping.  
- Students will be able to ask questions to get information for shopping.  
- Students will be able to ask questions for confirmation check. |
| **Theme** | Shopping |
| **Context** | You will go on a camping this weekend. You have to buy something for the camping and thus you decided to go shopping. Before going shopping, you need some information about product details for the camping and thus you asked a company in the field of camping tools for brochures. Then you got the brochures but the company sent only a small portion of the brochure. Therefore you need more information to collect all the information for shopping to go on camping. |
## Procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 mins</td>
<td><strong>Pre-task</strong>&lt;br&gt;• T shows a poster of Kenny's shoes store.&lt;br&gt;• T asks questions such as ‘what does the store have on sale?’ or ‘what are the differences between two shoes?’ to elicit their ideas and activate their schema for shopping.&lt;br&gt;• Ss answer the T’s questions and then T writes down the Ss’ answers on the board while asking follow-up questions for shopping.&lt;br&gt;• After that, T shows a sample conversation using the poster.&lt;br&gt;• T points out target expressions for the task and explains them. The expressions will be bolded.&lt;br&gt;• T makes sure that Ss use expressions for confirmation checks when they want to confirm their understanding about the speaker’s comments.&lt;br&gt;• Ss practice the conversation with their partner and can understand possible conversations for shopping with using confirmation checks.</td>
<td>Poster (See Appendix D)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 mins</td>
<td><strong>During-task</strong>&lt;br&gt;• T displays the sample conversation and expressions on the board and let the Ss refer to the expressions for shopping and confirmation checks.&lt;br&gt;• T shows and pre-teaches several expressions for shopping and confirmation check on the board.&lt;br&gt;• Using the expressions, T models the task after hiding the conversation to avoid just reading the script in the conversation.&lt;br&gt;• T models the task through asking questions to Ss randomly and each S will answer the questions. Ss can be expected to use confirmation check strategy when they want to make sure their understanding.&lt;br&gt;• T divides the class into 2 groups.&lt;br&gt;• T distributes sheets for the shopping information gap task to Ss.&lt;br&gt;• T explains the information gap task to Ss.&lt;br&gt;• Each S in each group will have a different brochure and a shopping customer sheet.&lt;br&gt;• Ss have to fill the blanked gaps in their sheet through asking questions to their group members and Ss have to explain their brochure to make other Ss fill the gaps.&lt;br&gt;• When Ss do the task, they are required to use the expressions for shopping. In addition, T explains if they are not sure about their understanding, Ss may use expressions for confirmation check.&lt;br&gt;• Ss start the information gap task in a group.&lt;br&gt;• During the task, Ss may refer to the expressions on the board.&lt;br&gt;• T goes around the classroom and monitors whether Ss appropriately interact using the expressions.</td>
<td>Conversation (See Appendix D)&lt;br&gt;Expressions (See Appendix E)&lt;br&gt;Shopping customer sheet (See Appendix F)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mins</td>
<td><strong>Post-task</strong>&lt;br&gt;• After the information gap task, T shows another brochure on the board and initiates a conversation for shopping with Ss in a whole class.&lt;br&gt;• T acts as a clerk and Ss act as shopper.&lt;br&gt;• T leads the conversation through making each S react to the T’s saying. Ss for shoppers will be chosen randomly.&lt;br&gt;• Through the conversation, T may observe Ss’ performance and provide feedback if there are errors on Ss’ speaking.&lt;br&gt;• After that, T distributes another brochure and has the Ss do a conversation for shopping with their partner through pair work.&lt;br&gt;• Then, T tells Ss to record their conversation and submit the file to T to check their performance and give feedback on their work. T will use the conversation through the information gap task for assessing their performance. T will provide a feedback through E-mail.</td>
<td>Brochures (See Appendix G)&lt;br&gt;Other brochures (See Appendix H)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Lesson plan 3 - Role play

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Students will do a conversation for ordering food at a restaurant and they will be able to employ all phrases for clarifying request and confirmation check when they encounter with communicative problems in their communication.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Target language objectives | • Language: Ordering food at restaurant: ‘I’d like…’; ‘I’ll have…, (please); ‘…,Please’  
• Review: Clarifying request: Could you repeat…?’, ‘What did you mean?’, and ‘I don’t understand’  
• Confirmation check: ‘Do you mean…?’, and ‘You said (mean) ….. is it right?’  
• Pronunciation:  
• Intonation: Alternative choice sentences (‘…, …, and,…’ and ‘… and …’)  
• Consonant ‘L’: ‘I’ll’ and ‘please’  
• Vocabularies: order, would like, take, delicious, bill, confirm, seafood, grilled |
| Functional objectives | • Students will be able to do order food at a restaurant.  
• Students will be able to ask questions for taking orders at a restaurant.  
• Students will be able to ask questions for both clarifying request and confirmation check. |
| Theme | Restaurant |
| Context | You and your friend heard that there is a famous street in the downtown where is full of well-known restaurants for tasty food. Thus, they decided to go for the Saturday lunch. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Materials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 10 mins | Pre-task  
• T shows a sequence of pictures for ordering food at a cafe to make Ss realize the topic of the class.  
• T distributes the separated sequencing pictures to Ss and has them arrange them in order.  
• T divides the class into 3 groups and Ss arrange the pictures in order considering a process of ordering food.  
• After the group work, T check the correct order of the pictures with all Ss and then Ss will be able to understand the process of ordering food. | Sequencing pictures for ordering food (See Appendix I) |
| 25 mins | During-task  
• Before starting the role-play task of ordering food at a restaurant, T models the task.  
• T shows a menu from Antico’s on the board before showing a sample conversation for ordering food.  
• T asks a question to Ss that ‘what do you want to have?’ or ‘what do you want to order?’  
• Ss answer the question. If Ss answer in a word such as ‘Soda’, T says ‘I’d like…’ or ‘I’ll have…’ and then make Ss repeat the T’s talk.  
• After asking and answering questions for the menu, T shows the sample conversation for ordering food at a restaurant on the board. T highlights or underlines expressions for ordering food to make Ss easily recognize.  
• T divides the class into 4 groups and has Ss practice the conversation in a group.  
• T explains that Ss may refer to the expressions for clarifying request and confirmation check if they have problems on understanding during the conversation.  
• After the practice, T divides the class into 3 groups.  
• T explains that one group of Ss will be waiters and other two groups of Ss will be customers. | Menu from Antico’s (See Appendix I)  
Sample conversation (See Appendix I) |
Developing Strategic Competence in English Speaking Using Communication Strategies

4. Defense

Dörnyei (1995) suggested that instructions on how to deal with performance problems for second language learners may be useful to them because a considerable portion of real world communication can be problematic or ambiguous. Thus, the ability or knowledge on how to use communication strategies may solve communicative confusion and improve interaction in the second language (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In addition, using the communication strategies may be helpful for solving problems on conveying the speakers’ intention and meaning (Tarone, 2005). In consideration of this, the three lesson plans try to provide an opportunity for students to learn and practice two communication strategies while considering their proficiency level of intermediate-low. That is because the purpose of the lesson plans is to develop the students’ strategic competence in English speaking by reducing breakdowns in communications through employing the communicative strategies. The goal of the curriculum is for the students to develop strategic competence in English speaking. As a result, the three lesson plans can be helpful for the students to develop their strategic competence through practicing English speaking. The reason why these lessons can be helpful regarding the overall curriculum goals is that the students will learn valuable strategies: clarifying requests, confirmation checks, use of fillers, asking for repetition, appeals for help, and comprehension checks. In other words, it can be implied that the students may have knowledge for learning and applying the strategies in speaking practices because it can be expected that they are already familiar with learning and applying the communication strategies in speaking.

The communication strategies in the three lesson plans are expected to be learned and practiced through different tasks such as surveys, information gaps, and role-plays. Regarding the purpose of the lesson plans, the rationales for the plans is to improve the students’ English speaking including communication strategies that may contribute additional learning for the second language learners due to the potential of obtaining unfamiliar words from the interlocutors (Rabab’ah, 2005). Furthermore, communication strategies may account for a portion of language use and thus it may be helpful for maintaining the conversation (Rabab’ah, 2005, Faucette, 2001). Finally, communication strategies can be used for compensating insufficient linguistic knowledge and thus may be useful for the learners to resolve communicative difficulties and to accomplish their communicative purposes (Rabab’ah, 2005).

4.1 First rationale: additional learning through communication strategies

The three lesson plans can be useful for learning and practicing clarifying requests and confirmation checks and therefore the strategies may contribute additional learning for the students because they allow them to obtain unfamiliar words from the interlocutors (Rabab’ah, 2005). Maleki (2007) revealed that teaching communication strategies may promote language learning and teaching materials containing these strategies can be more valid than materials that do not mention them.

In the three lesson plans, phrases for clarifying requests and confirmation checks are introduced to the students at the beginning of the class through a sample conversation that includes the phrases (See Appendix A, D, J). When the teacher does this, the bolded phrases can be introduced to the students to make them easily recognize which phrases can be used for clarifying requests and confirmation checks and when they can use these strategies in a conversation. The reason for explicitly teaching the formulaic expressions of clarifying requests such as ‘Could you repeat...?’; ‘What did you mean?’, and ‘I don’t understand’, and confirmation checks such as ‘Do you mean…?’, and ‘You said (mean) ….. is it right?’ to the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>10mins</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| T distributes different sheets to each group. One waiters’ group will have waiter sheets and restaurant menus, and two customers’ groups will have customer sheets.  
T explains that when Ss do the role-play, all Ss need to fill their sheets.  
During the task, Ss may refer to the expressions on the board.  
T goes around the classroom and monitors whether Ss appropriately interact using the expressions.  
### Post-task  
After the task, T displays another menu on the board and has Ss do the role-play for ordering food at a restaurant with their partner.  
Then, T tells Ss to record their conversation and submit the file to T to check their performance and give feedback on their work. T will use the conversation through the role-play task for assessing their performance.  
T will provide a feedback through E-mail. |  
| Waiter sheet for role-play (See Appendix K)  
Restaurant Menus (See Appendix L)  
Customer sheet for role-play (See Appendix M)  
Another menu (See Appendix N)  
|
students is that the proficiency of level of the students is intermediate-low and thus they may still need some explicit instructions on the phrases. In addition, explicitly focusing on the strategies through the sample conversations in the pre-tasks of each lesson plan may affect the students’ strategic awareness and allow them to recognize and employ the strategies in their speaking (Lam, 2006). To increase this effect, the teacher’s modeling of the tasks for communication strategies use may also be helpful by clearly providing information about how the strategies can be used in the conversation. The expressions for the strategies can be selected from a handful of useful phrases for the students because they may enable the students to beneficially exploit them (Brett, 2007). Therefore, the students can be expected to make use of the strategies in their English speaking. Through employing the strategies in each lesson plan, the students may learn unknown words from other students.

In lesson plan 1, the students will do a survey task to get information on their classmates’ clothing through giving compliments. One interviewer will ask questions to get information and the interviewee will answer the questions. During this interaction, there is a possibility that both students may not completely understand what the speakers’ intention or meaning are and thus they may ask clarifying questions. The speaker then may use other words to convey their intention and meaning to the listener. In this process, the students have an opportunity to learn new words through using the communication strategies. In lesson plan 2, the students will complete an information gap task for shopping and incorporate confirmation check strategies to make sure they understand what the speaker said. While the students do the task, they may use phrases for confirmation checks and thus if the listener misunderstands the speaker’s utterances, the speaker may use another word to convey their meaning and intention. In this process, students may learn new words through the interaction. In lesson plan 3, the students will do a role-play task about ordering food at a restaurant. When they do the task, they will be expected to use both strategies learned in the lesson 1 and 2. They may also make use of the strategies to understand the speakers’ meaning and through answering questions the students may also have a chance for language learning from the interlocutors.

In this manner, the three lesson plans can be helpful for learning and practicing communication strategies: clarifying requests and confirmation checks for the students and it may result in learning unfamiliar words from the interlocutors.

4.2 Second rationale: communication strategies through language use for maintaining conversations

The three lesson plans may also provide the students with learning communication strategies through language use by incorporating the strategies in different conversations (Rabab’ah, 2005). That is because it may be helpful for making the students understand that the strategies can be useful for maintaining the conversation (Faucette, 2001).

As discussed above, the phrases for clarifying requests and confirmation checks will explicitly be taught to the students in each lesson plan. To help the students understand that the phrases for the strategies can be used for language use, each plan will deal with both transactional and interactional conversations: lesson plan 1 for complimenting and using clarifying request strategies, lesson plan 2 for shopping while using confirmation check strategies, and lesson plan 3 for ordering food at a restaurant and using both the strategies. The purpose of doing this is to make students realize how the strategies can be used in different situations. Lam (2006) proposed that resourcing the strategic use in tasks may allow second language learners to maintain their communication. In consideration of this, the students may understand how the strategies through language use may be helpful for maintaining the conversation because the students will be expected to reach communicative goals when they perform each task. Thusly, they will be able to use the strategies to maintain conversations and this may lead to the development of the speaking proficiency of the students (Nakatani, 2010). In addition, the teacher’s modeling of formulaic phrases of the communication strategies for clarifying requests and confirmation checks may allow the students to understand how the phrases can be applied in the conversations while using language to maintain their communication.

In view of a focus-on-form instruction for the formulaic phrases of the communication strategies, the three lesson plans will provide planned focus-on-form in pre-tasks before the actual tasks take place. This may assist the student during the communicative tasks to elicit the use of certain linguistic forms within the context for meaning-focused language use (Ellis et al., 2002). With the pre-taught and practiced formulaic expressions as the focus-on-form instruction, the students may pay attention to the expressions during the interaction in the tasks when the expressions can meaningfully be used for clarifying requests and confirmation checks (ibid.). After the teacher’s modeling, the students can be expected to apply the strategies as language use to maintain the communication in the tasks and be autonomous for the use of the strategies (Naughton, 2006). That is because the students will be expected to not perceive the strategies as targeted languages but recognize and utilize the strategies as language use rather than learning in performing the tasks (Ellis et al., 2002).
In this respect, the students may learn and practice the communication strategies: clarifying requests and confirmation checks as language use in the lesson plans and maintain their communication by using the strategies.

4.3 Third rationale: communication strategies for resolving communicative difficulties

The students may have an opportunity to learn and practice communication strategies that can be used for compensating insufficient linguistic knowledge to resolve communicative difficulties and to accomplish their communicative purposes (Rabab'ah, 2005, Nakatani, 2010). It can be based on the suggestion by Faucette (2001) that teaching communication strategies can enable students to engage in their communication by assisting them to not withdraw from the conversation. In light of clarifying requests and confirmation checks as modified interaction strategies, the strategies can be used as a process where students can send signals to negotiate the meaning in the interaction to solve communicative problems (Nakatani, 2005). In consideration of a purpose of second language learning which is to be able to communicate with people using the language, teachers may need to present the communication strategies to their students and highlight them to attract their attention for improving their communicative competence (Popescu & Cohen-Vida, 2014).

In the three lesson plans, the students will learn and practice formulaic phrases for clarifying requests and confirmation checks. When the teacher models the tasks, she may show how the phrases can be used in the conversations to overcome breakdowns in the interactions and then the students may realize may using the strategies can solve communication problems in the conversations. Through using the strategies, the students may go through the process for understanding input from the interlocutors intended meaning and therefore there may be a possibility for the students to promote their second language development (Nakatani, 2010). Tasks for providing an opportunity to learn and practice the communication strategies are a survey, an information gap, and a role-play task in the lesson plans. The reason for using these communicative tasks is that the students can be encouraged to negotiate the meaning in the interactions to reach the goals of the tasks. It can be supported by Lam’s (2006) suggestion that convergent tasks with limited consequences may lead to negotiation and interaction between interlocutors. Thus, the students may encounter communicative difficulties during the tasks to accomplish their goals and may have an opportunity to solve the difficulties by using the communication strategies.

In this way, the students may realize that the communication strategies can be used for compensating insufficient linguistic knowledge to overcome communicative problems and then reach the goals through different tasks. Through this, the students can be expected to be able to apply strategic competence in real-world communications.

4.4 Correlation between the lesson plans and the curriculum

The curriculum provides the students with systematic instruction to help the students develop their strategic competence in English speaking when they are encountered with communicative difficulties. It may lead to the increase in communication strategy use and communicative validity for the students (Teng, 2012). In consideration of the overall goal of the curriculum that the students will develop their strategic competence, these three lesson plans can be helpful for the students because they have opportunities to apply the strategies that they learned from the beginning of the course. In other words, as the students learn communication strategies from ‘use of fillers’ which can be used for maintaining conversation to ‘confirmation checks’ which can be employed for ensuring meaning in the conversation, the three lesson plans may provide the students with opportunities to learn and apply the communication strategies that they had learned from the course. In this process, the students can be expected to be able to employ and apply the knowledge of the communication strategies in the three lesson plans. That is because through learning and practicing several communication strategies from the beginning of the course the students may have knowledge for how to employ the strategies in learning and practicing the strategies for clarifying requests and confirmation checks. As a result, it may enhance the students’ ability for employing the communication strategies that they had learned before through practicing. It may imply that they can understand how they may use the communication strategies when there are communicative difficulties in the conversation. In addition, it may lead to making the students internalize some vocabularies while employing the communication strategies and ultimately develop their inter-language (Lam, 2006). In this respect, the students can develop the strategic competence in English speaking in the end because they can be expected to be able to apply the communication strategies when there are communicative difficulties in their interactions.

Conclusion

In a nutshell, the lesson plans may develop the students’ strategic competence in English speaking by making the students understand and employ the communication strategies to reduce breakdowns in the communication. That is because; first communication strategies may allow second language learners to learn additional
languages because it enables them to acquire unfamiliar words from the interlocutors (Rabab’ah, 2005). Secondly, communication strategies may make up a portion of language use and thus it may be helpful for maintaining the conversation (Rabab’ah, 2005, Faucette, 2001). Finally, communication strategies can be used for compensating insufficient linguistic knowledge and thus it can be useful for the speakers to solve communicative problems and to fulfill their communicative purposes (Rabab’ah, 2005).

References


Appendices

For material that cannot be reprinted here, the source URL has been used instead.

Appendices A, B, C, D, F, G, H

*How much is it?: a shopping lesson plan [Gunn 2004, May]*)

Appendix E

Expressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shopping</th>
<th>‘I need some...’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘What do you have on sale?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘What do you recommend?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘What’s the difference in price?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘I’ll take...’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confirmation check</th>
<th>‘Do you mean...?’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘You said (mean) ..... is it right?’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix I

*Going to a café [The little black duck n.d.]*

Appendices J, K, L, M

*Going to restaurants: a role-play for ordering food [Lanternfish 2003, June]*)

Appendix N

*The Sandwich Board [Trangen Inc. n.d.]*
1. Introduction

Speaking is something that almost everyone does every day without thinking about it. What probably also goes without thought is the realization how truly incredible such a feat is. The average person speaks two to four words a second while accessing a lexical network containing anywhere from 30 to 100 thousand words, while making only one or two errors every 2,000 words spoken (Levelt, 1992, 2001). This means that if someone talks 40 minutes a day they will have spoken around 50 million words before they reached adulthood (Levelt, 1999).

Performing this incredible feat is one thing; understanding how it is done is another. Consider the knowledge that is needed to speak a word: a concept that connects to a particular word meaning; the semantic features of the word; the syntax of the utterance; the syllabification of the word; morphemes and phonemes of the language; how those morphemes and phonemes connect to the word being produced; the phonology of the word; the physical movements needed to articulate the word; and how to put it all together. All of this is being accessed automatically at phenomenal speeds while producing relatively few mistakes. How this is done is still up to debate. However there are some models that attempt to explain this phenomenon.

There are two parallel and independent approaches to developing models of speech production (Levelt, 1999). The first approach looked at independently or artificially produced speech errors and built a model to account for these verbal slips (Levelt, 1992). The second approach looked at picture-word interference and measured the response times, chronometric tradition, and produced a model based on the results (Roelofs, 1997b). While initially separate these approaches are beginning to merge “like two similar knives honing each other. A single pair of scissors is in the making” (Levelt, 1999, p. 223). Which leaves the question: What are the two models of speech production?

2. Two Models

Most models of word production are 'localist', non-distributed network models (Levelt, 1999). This means that these ‘symbolic’ models have nodes that represent linguistic features. Lexical access is generally considered to be a dual step process. This is one of the key features of Morton’s (1969) logogen theory. In this theory the mental lexicon is a collection of logogens, a device that watches for and accepts linguistic and contextual stimuli. In speaking these stimuli comes from processes analyzing a semantically operating cognitive system. The first step of lexical access in the logogen theory is the activation of the logogen. This activation occurs when the logogen receives enough semantic information to reach its activation threshold. Once the threshold is reached, lexical access proceeds to the second step. This step has the logogen firing and sending its phonological information to an output buffer. Once in the output buffer, the utterance can cycle back to stimulate the logogen system in a rehearsal feedback loop or continue on to some kind of articulation process. The logogen identifies the aspects that separates lexical access into its dual processes, the semantic nature of the first and the phonological nature of the second. This semantic-phonologic duality is a common feature, in some form, of the more recent views of lexical access (Levelt, 1992).

Lexical access is thus generally divided into lexical selection and phonological encoding. Lexical selection uses a lexical concept to select the most appropriate lemma, its syntactic properties, and links to its form from all the alternatives. Phonological encoding uses the provided links to select the correct morphological and phonological properties, the lexeme, from the mental lexicon and pass it on to some kind of articulation process (Levelt, 1992; Levelt, 2001; Roelofs, 1997b).

The speech-error model is interactive since all connections are activated both ways (Levelt, 1999). One of the reasons to include this characteristic is to explain mixed errors. Mixed errors are both semantic and phonological in nature. For example, if hog is produced instead of dog then a mixed error has occurred. The lemma dog is
strongly activated by its set of features, like four-legged animal, mammal, beloved pet, etc. The lemmas cat and hog are also activated slightly as they share some of features of dog, with perhaps cat being slightly more strongly activated than hog as more semantically related to dog. The activation of dog cascades down and activates its phoneme nodes, which as it sends feedback to the lemma level increases the strength of activation of hog, perhaps making hog more strongly activated than cat. This gives hog a better chance of being produced than the semantically related cat or phonologically related log. Interaction also accounts for why speech errors tend to be real words instead of something like gog.

Levelt (1999) claims that interactivity needs to have motivation to exist other than to produce speech errors. Some think that bi-directional connections are there for both word production and word recognition (MacKay, 1987). Others point to the fact that some aphasics possess good word recognition but poor word production abilities (Dell, Schwartz, Martin, Saffran, & Gagnon, 1997). However, interactivity could support lemma selection as some lemmas are used more frequently than others so that the feedback would make those lemmas easier to activate and retrieve (Levelt, 1999).

The Word-form Encoding by Activation and Verification (WEAVER) model has a phonological component that is fully developed (Roelofs, 1997b; Levelt et al., 1999; Levelt, 2001). This model has the same levels as the speech-error model: conceptual/semantic, lemma, and phonological/form levels. The difference is that the form level does not feedback to the lemma level and is therefore referred to as the ‘discrete’ two-step model (Levelt, 1999). While this model deals primarily with latency times in responses it does not ignore errors. The mixed speech error happens in post-lexical stages (Roelofs, 1997b). The phonological output is monitored for errors and a phonological error that happens to fit semantically has a better chance to get through (Levelt et al., 1999). Thus an error that exists as a real word is more likely to be produced.

3. Conceptual Preparation

Utterances are generally viewed to be “a conceptual structure, cast in propositional language of thought” (Levelt, 1992, p. 5). Consider the following situation. A speaker at a party observes a woman arrive and wants to notify his companion of this observation. He could refer to the woman in a number of ways (e.g., sister, girlfriend, goddess, witch, queen, and woman) each of which has a subtle reflection of the situation’s context. The interlocutors’ relationship, their secondary intentions and situational context can all impact lexical selection. The process of choosing a lexical concept that expresses the desired communication goal is known as perspective taking (Levelt, 2001) or as conceptual preparation (Levelt, Roelofs, & Meyer, 1999).

As the speaker focuses on the communicative goal a number of lexical concepts become activated. Different theories have ideas about which lexical concepts are activated and how they are activated, which will be discussed in more detail a little further in the paper. The activated concept links to a corresponding lemma which contains all of the syntactic information needed to construct the utterance (Levelt, 1992, 2001). For instance, suppose the lexical concept STAB is selected (lexical concepts will be written in capitals and lemmas will be written in italics). STAB links to its lemma stab which has parts of its semantics that some item Y is punctured by some agent X. Thus the lexical concept can be written as STAB(X, Y) and must have these semantic conditions met before it can be selected. The lemma stab also has the syntactic characteristics of being a transitive verb which binds with the grammatical functions of subject and direct object. This syntactic information maps agent (X) to subject and item (Y) to direct object.

3.1 Decompositional vs. Nondecompositional

As mentioned above there are different theories that influence the activation of lexical concepts. These theories, decompositional and nondecompositional, differ from each other in almost every possible way (Fodor, Garrett, Walker, & Parkes, 1980). A decompositional theory is the idea that some words can be analyzed conceptually, or are semantically complex, and are activated in memory using primitive conceptual features (e.g., Bierwisch & Schreuder, 1992; Morton, 1969). In this theory sister will be activated by activating FEMALE(X) and SIBLING(X, Y). SIBLING(X, Y) will also activate sibling. A nondecompositional theory is the idea that an abstract concept exists even for semantically complex words and that conceptual features are not directly activated but are kept outside of the utterance’s meaning as background information. (e.g., Collins & Loftus, 1975; Fodor et al., 1980; Roelofs, 1992, 1993, 1997a). In this theory sister is activated by SISTER(X). Sister may weakly activate FEMALE(X) and SIBLING(X, Y) for potential reference. The two theories differ on the level of representation contained in memory, from a linguistic perspective, and differ on which representation is retrieved, from a psychologist perspective (Fodor et al., 1980).

Roelofs (1992) distinguishes the difference between componential analysis and lexical decomposition. He states that a componential analysis finds semantic relationships between word meaning and syntactic properties or other words by looking at the conceptual features. For example speakers should know that sister and
brother differ since one is FEMALE while the other is MALE. He continues by saying that lexical decomposition is stronger since sister is literally represented as HUMAN(X) + FEMALE(X) + SIBLING(X, Y) mentally and not as SISTER(X). A nondecompositional theory can still utilize componential analysis to account for the semantic and syntactic relationships between words. A speaker may represent the difference between SISTER(X) and BROTHER(X) is one is FEMALE(X) and the other is MALE(X).

3.2 Hyperonym Problem
There is the idea that if a concept is activated such as cat then all hyperonyms such as animal will also be activated (Levelt, 1992). Thus it should be possible for animal to be retrieved instead of cat, yet this occurs very rarely (Levelt, 1999).

In a decompositional model this error could be dealt with through the Levelt’s (1992) principle of specificity. In which he states that of all the lemmas that were activated and satisfies the concept to be expressed then the most specific one must be selected. So if cat is the concept to be expressed, then of all the lemmas cat, pet, animal, thing, etc., cat is the most specific and should be selected for retrieval.

In a nondecompositional model this error should not occur, at least for this reason (Roelofs, 1997a). Roelofs explains that in a decompositional model cat would be conceptually portrayed as something like PURS(X) and MOVING(X) and … and LIVING (X) while animal as MOVING(X) and … and LIVING (X). Therefore both get activated as cat has all the components of animal, plus a few extra. However, in the nondecompositional model these are accessed simply as the vocabulary items CAT(X) and ANIMAL(X).

4. Lexical Selection
In Roelofs’ (1997b) WEAVER model, once a concept, like goat, is activated, the activation spreads to the lemma goat. In the semantic level, the activation spreads to other related concepts like sheep, lamb, pig, and llama, and then spreads to activate their lemmas as well. At this point, any one of the lemmas could be selected. To determine which one is selected, the activation level of the lemmas are compared in ratios against each other. The lemma with the strongest ratio is selected. This ratio is called Luce’s ratio. At this point if a distractor lemma like sheep gets a boost through a picture, it could get selected instead of goat or at least slow down goat’s selection. However, if a distractor like car gets introduced, then the selection of goat will be unaffected as there is no semantic relationship between the concept and the distractor, so the distractor would not have been activated in the first place.

Levelt (1999) points out that this spreading activation through a semantic network could result in semantic naming errors. In fact, he claims that experimental evidence supports this supposition, stating that this type of error dominates picture naming task with two out of every three errors being this type.

Levelt (1992) says that lemmas are selected once the semantics conditions have been satisfied, which activates syntactic procedures that are based on syntactic specifications. Therefore, for example, verbs and nouns will attempt to construct verb phrases and noun phrases respectively. Once the lemma has its semantic conditions met it will be selected and the lexical selection will be complete.

5. Phonological Encoding
The speech-error models view the lexicon as a multilayered network of nodes with the lexical nodes at the top and the phonological nodes on the bottom. In between the lexicon contains a number of layers and all the layers are connected by weighted arcs (e.g., Dell, 1986, 1988; Dell & O’Seaghdha, 1992; Levelt, 1992).

In speech-error models (e.g., Dell, 1986, 1988; Dell & O’Seaghdha, 1992; Levelt, 1992) the words are arranged in a network of morpheme, syllable, rimes, segments, features, and syllable position labeled segment clusters. Morphemes are connected to nodes that hold their CV structure. Nodes are linked together by weighted bidirectional arcs. When the lemma node is activated, the activation spreads out following the arcs in a linear pattern. This activation decays over time. To encode the morphological and phonological information, the nodes must be activated in the correct order by selecting the most active node at the right time. The time between selections stays constant and depends on the rate of speech. Syllables are constructed by following the order that the CV structure nodes were selected and slotting them into rule generated syllable patterns.

For example the lexeme water activates the morpheme <water> and the segments /w/, /ɔː/, /t/, and /ə/. The morpheme <water> also links to the CV nodes CVCV and /onset w/, /nucleus ɔː/, /onset t/, and /nucleus ə/. Next, the segments need to follow the CVVCV structure and use the syllable pattern to produce [wɔːtə] and [tə].
To prevent /onset w/ and /onset t/ from being placed in the incorrect syllables, procedures enhance the activation between <water> and [wɔː] while inhibiting the activation of [tə]. When the first syllable is encoded, the procedure reverses the connections that are inhibited and enhances to encode the second syllable. This procedure is a kind of serial encoding (Dell, 1988).

The WEAVER model (Roelofs, 1997; Levelt et al., 1999; Levelt, 2001) receives a lemma such as water and its syntactic information, including that it is singular with the diacritic information set to one. The morphological encoder uses this information to produce the stem morpheme <water>. The phonological encoder produces a phonological representation its trochaic foot using the stem morpheme. Thus <water> is recognized to have metrically strong first syllable with /w/ as onset and /ɔː/ as nucleus. The second syllable has /t/ as onset, /ə/ as nucleus and is metrically weak. Finally, the phonetic encoder combines these representations with phonetic syllabary to produce the result of [ˈwɔː][tə] for articulation.

This model explicitly links the morphemes, segments and the verification relationship, unlike the speech-error models which knows which segments belongs to the morpheme because they are all simultaneously active. In verification procedures, the speech-error model only labels polysyllabic words and then after verifying the proper order, uses enhanced/inhibited activation to encode the segments correctly (Dell, 1988). In contrast, the WEAVER model labels all of its links which allows it to directly verify the segment-morpheme relationship, and then binds it.

5.1 Encoding Speech Errors

This section will briefly look at a comparison between the models for speech errors. There are several different types of speech errors with the most common being segment exchanges, anticipations, and preservations (Dell, 1986; Levelt, 1992). In the WEAVER model, speech errors occur when the verification fails (Roelofs, 1997). In the speech-error models, errors occur when for some reason another node is more highly activated than the target node (Dell, 1986).

Consider the real world example of the attempt to encode the expression ‘corn pops’ [kɔːn pɔːp] (a breakfast cereal). In the speech-error models, noise in the system could activate /k/ early and since the serially directed sequence is looking for another onset the next highest activation could possibly be the /k/, which would result in the segmental exchange error [pɔːn kɔːps]. If the /p/ is enhanced and/or the /k/ is inhibited early, then it could cause the /p/ to be encoded twice resulting in the anticipation error [pɔːn pɔps]. If the /p/ is inhibited and/or the /k/ is enhanced late, then it could cause the /k/ to be encoded twice resulting in the preservation error [kɔːn kɔps].

Since the selected segments do not contain the information for syllable position, the errors cannot occur when the phonological representation is encoded; however, they may occur during the indexing phase of the syllabification process (Roelofs, 1997b). Using the same example above, the segments /p/, /k/, /ɔː/, /n/, /p/, and /s/ are selected. /p/ is marked twice, once as an onset and once as part of a coda. When the syllabification process begins, the process begins making all possible syllables using the marked positions thus [kɔːn], [pɔːn], [pɔps], and [kɔps] are all generated. It is possible that during the verification process, checks to make sure that the segments are in the correct syllable position (onset, nucleus, and coda) but fails to check that the segments are in the correct syllable. If this occurs for all generated syllables, it becomes a race to see which syllable gets to the articulation program first. If the incorrect generation beats the correct generation for both syllables, a segment exchange error, [pɔːn kɔps], occurs. If the error occurs only on first syllable and/or only the incorrect generation for the first syllable wins, the anticipation error [pɔːn pɔps] occurs. And finally, if the error occurs only on second syllable and/or only the incorrect generation for the second syllable wins, the preservation error [kɔːn kɔps] occurs.

6. Articulation

Once enough prosodification occurs a phonetic shape should be ready to be produced. Both models, WEAVER and speech-error, have a featured representation of each segment and use whole phonemes as the units of phonetic encoding (Levelt, 1999). However, WEAVER uses the concept of the syllabary to aid in this process. Roelofs, (1997b) explains the syllabary as consisting of the most frequently used syllables of the language. In English and Dutch 500 syllables are used 80% of the time, so the idea is that these syllables and their scores are stored in the syllabary.

Syllabic scores are the gestures and motor movements required to produce the sound. Each time a syllable from the syllabary is formed the score is automatically triggered. Activation spreads at this level similar to the spreading activation of the semantic level. Thus a segment spreads to all segments that participate in it, resulting in similar score to co-activate. When a selection error occurs, the miss-selection will be similar to the target gesture. To limit these errors, co-activated scores are selected using Luce’s rule as mentioned previously.

7. Conclusion

The process of speech production is a complicated one
having a number of different models that follow two general approaches. It appears that these two approaches are starting to merge together and become one model. However, there are many different factors to consider when developing theories of lexical access in speech production, the conceptualization of the mental lexicon, the representation of lexical concepts, the activation process and the encoding methods. The processes discussed here is a generalized surface description lacking the depth that both models possess. A deeper understanding comes at the cost of multiple papers for each of the models. Consider as well that what is represented here is only the speech production, speech recognition was not covered. It is a difficult interconnected system to know and to understand how it works.

The weather is a system too and a complicated one at that. It relies on interconnected elements as well, like pressures, temperatures, and currents. One can look out the window and note that it is snowing, but can they determine when it will stop snowing or how much snow will fall? How about what the weather will be like in a day, a week, a month, a year? Probably not, unless they have studied the system and learned how to predict what the outcomes are likely to be. The problem is the weather is something that has great control over human lives yet humans have little control over it. So the best one can hope for is to receive a good prediction and prepare the best they can for what is coming.

Like the weather, language is a system and it holds a lot of control over human lives, yet humans also have a certain amount of control over it. By only looking at the surface layer of language one is not much better than one looking out the window at the weather. In both situations something can be declared to be ‘good’ or ‘bad’. Yet in both situations, those declarations are a matter of perspective and context. As language teachers, it is important to recognize that language is a system and have at least a basic understanding of the system beyond the surface representations. This way it will be easier to determine whether something is a break down in the system of the learner or a general lack of knowledge. Perhaps the learner is missing a vital stage of the process and needs help to fill in the missing pieces.

8. References


The metacognitive awareness of EFL female high school students in listening in English

Jungsok Kwon
Research Methodology

1. Introduction

Listening comprehension takes a very important role in learning languages (Dunkel, 1991; Feyten, 1991; Rubin, 1994; Vandergrift, 1999). However, compared to other language skills, listening was assumed passive (Vandergrift, 2004) and there are fewer insights about the process of listening (Goh, 1997) and listening comprehension has the least researched (Vandergrift, 1997). It was not until the 1990s that Morley (1991) advocated listening comprehension skill should not be disregarded in second and foreign language curricula.

While L1 listeners process the information automatically (Hetherington and Parke, 1999), L2 listeners feel the skill of listening uncomfortable (Arnold, 2000; Graham 2002; Goh, 2000), requiring extra much effort in L2 listening (Chien and Wei, 1998). There are generally acknowledged obstacles affecting L2 listeners and listening. For example, these include external and internal factors such as speech rate, lexis, phonological features, cognitive process, social and cultural practices, background knowledge, amount of exposure and interests, and ineffective listening strategy use (Zhao, 1997; Kelly, 1991; Anderson, 1995; Dunkel, 1992; Field, 2002; Rost, 2002; Goh, 2000; Hasan, 2000).

To support these L2 listeners in difficulties, recent literature on instructions of listening comprehension are more focusing on raising awareness in the listening process (Mendelson, 1994; Berne, 1998) and teaching explicit listening strategies and metacognitive strategies (O’Mally, Chamot and Kupper, 1989). In addition, there are a number of authors who investigated salient features of using strategies in L2 listening between effective and less effective listeners. For example, Vandergrift (1997) found out that more skilled learners use more metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation (O’Mally and Chamot, 1990) than less skilled learners.

Even though it is evident that metacognitive awareness in L2 listening can play a crucial role in L2 listening comprehension based on the literature, there has been little evidence of how metacognitive awareness would influence L2 listening comprehension in Korea, especially in girls’ high school context. Therefore present study examines the relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the listening comprehension skills of high school girls learning English as a foreign language, and characterizes the features of metacognitive strategies of successful and less successful listeners.

2. Literature reviews

2.1 Listening strategies

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) successfully provided of key concepts of language learning strategies, supported by cognitive theory. They have categorized two main strategies of metacognitive and cognitive, and then later third category of socio-affective strategies was added. Grounded on these categories, several researches proposed listening strategies play important roles in the listening process (Goh, 1998; Goh, 2002; Vandergrift, 2003). Therefore it is necessary here to clarify exactly what is meant by listening strategy. According to Rost (2002), listening strategies are defined as “conscious plan to manage incoming speech, particularly when the listener knows that he or she must compensate for incomplete input or partial understanding” (p.236). Therefore, the strategy-based instruction in L2 listening is a process-based approach to listening, involving instructions on how to listen in L2 and encouraging the development of strategies.

In relation to listening-strategy based instruction, theoretical and practical applications proposed by several authors could be divided into the following aspects. First, there are differences in deploying strategies of successful listeners and less successful listeners (Vandergrift,
2.2 Metacognitive Awareness

Flavell (1979) first introduced the term metacognitive knowledge, "consisting primarily of knowledge or beliefs about what factors or variables act and interact in what ways to affect the course and outcome of cognitive enterprises" (p.907). Metacognitive knowledge can be subcategorized into person, task and strategy, and metacognitive knowledge is stored in long-term memory, activated by a conscious memory search or retrieval cues in the task situation. Metacognitive strategy, therefore, involve thinking about the way information is processed and stored, and taking appropriate steps to manage and regulate these cognitive process (Goh, 1998).

Based on Field (2001) and Vandergrift (2003a), metacognitive cycle successfully supports L2 listeners at different levels. In metacognitive cycle, each stage of listening instruction is supported by metacognitive strategies ranging from planning, directed attention, monitoring, selective attention, problem solving, monitoring, to evaluation. Goh (2008) pointed out these approaches not only raise learners’ awareness of strategy use, but also provide them scaffolding while working with listening text. Furthermore, Field (2001) maintained that this metacognitive cycle helps “risk takers” to evaluate their comprehension and “risk avoiders” to make predictions more plausible. According to Vandergrift (2003b), skilled listeners are characterized as orchestrating strategies in a continuous metacognitive cycle, or apparent interconnection of strategy use.

2.3 Metacognitive awareness and listening comprehension

Based on Flavell’s metacognitive knowledge model (1979), Vandergrift, Goh, and Mareschal (2006) developed the definition of metacognitive awareness of listening as listeners’ cognitive or metacognitive knowledge on themselves, their understanding of listening tasks, their cognitive goals, and the way they approach to the task and their strategies. These strategies include five subcategories such as problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, person knowledge, and directed attention. Essentially, metacognition is both self-reflection and self-direction, therefore L2 learners can get involved in reflecting on their own thinking of their learning process and find more effective ways to learn language, and even listen in real-life context. Goh (2008) maintained that listeners who successfully deploy these strategies to improve their listening comprehension will get more motivated, which aligned the findings from the studies of Vandergrift (2002) and Baleghisadeh and Rahimi (2011).

Recently, empirical studies were conducted on the relationship between metacognitive strategy instruction and the listening performance at different proficiency. Studies of O’Malley & Chamot (1990) and Vandergrift (2002, 2003b) verified the effectiveness of raising metacognitive awareness on listeners’ performance and motivation. Furthermore, there are a number of studies that confirm the positive relation between listening performance and metacognitive strategy use (Goh, 2002; Vandergrift, 2002, 2003; Baleghisadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Rahimirad and Shams, 2014). Results of these studies verify that listeners have knowledge about their listening process, varying degrees upon listeners and this knowledge could influence the listening performance. Based on the findings of reviews, it is generally acknowledged that L2 listeners get better in listening comprehension with metacognitive awareness in action, but little research was conducted in the context of girls’ high school in Korea. As pointed out by Collentine and Freed (2004) and Zhang (2008), learning context will greatly influence the way learners interact with individual cognitive abilities and select different learning strategies. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the different use of metacognitive listening strategies depending upon listening proficiency and the characteristics in using them by high school girls of Korea. The key research questions of this study are following:

1. Is there any relationship between the metacognitive awareness and L2 listening comprehension level of high school girls?

2. What are the features of metacognitive strategies of high level listeners and low level listeners?
3. Research methodology

In this section, the research design of this study will be presented. This study was to explore the metacognition of Korean high school students in English listening comprehension. The methodology design of the present study would be like based on the fruitful evidence, supported by the related studies (Rahimad and Shams, 2014; Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Zhang and Wu, 2009; Rahimad and Katal, 2012). First, the participants will be described. Next, three instruments that were used to collect data to answer the research questions will be presented. Then, the procedures of collecting data will be presented in detail. Finally, the method of analyzing data will be shown.

3.1 Participants

In this study, 518 female high school students participated and the school is located in Incheon area, located in northwestern South Korea. Incheon has led economic development of Korea by opening its port to the outside world, and the educational levels of high school students in Incheon are ranked 4 out of 17 cities in Korea.

The participants are aged from 17 to 19 years old as Korean age. They are learning English as a foreign language, and they attend the regular English classes 5 hours per week. In the regular English classes, students were instructed listening, reading, speaking and writing.

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 Listening proficiency: National listening test

Korean learners of secondary school take national listening tests per semester, in April and September, designed for all the secondary students in Korea and simultaneously conducted on the same day through the radio frequency from the Educational Broadcasting System. Some examples of the listening test of 20-item include questions asking listeners to choose the specific information, or the most appropriate response while listening to the dialogue in the specific context. It has great validity and reliability. Therefore the results are widely used for the part of the English grade in the scoring report, and students aim at getting higher scores. The participants of the present study took part in the national listening test in September, and their scores of September were analyzed into high-level, intermediate and low-level of listeners. Table 3.2 described three different groups with listening comprehension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>1st grade</th>
<th>2nd grade</th>
<th>3rd grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low levels</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate levels</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High levels</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 The three groups of listening comprehension (N=518)

3.2.2 Metacognitive awareness measurement: Metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ)

The participants responded with the metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (hence, MALQ) during the regular English class, under the supervision of their English teachers. Vandergrift, Goh, and Mareschal (2006) specifically designed a metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ) to assess second language listeners’ metacognitive awareness and perceived use of strategies while listening to oral texts. The design is based on a metacognition model (Flavell, 1979), so it encompasses both knowledge about cognitive states and processes, and control or executive aspects of metacognition (Paris and Winograd, 1990). Vandergrift et al. specifically described the process of instrument development and validation, based on the exploratory factor analysis of the responses of a large sample of 966 language learners and a subsequent confirmatory factor analysis with another 512 responders. As result, they were able to prove a significant relationship between MALQ scores and their listening behavior.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MALQ factors</th>
<th>N(items)</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning and evaluation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1,10,14,20,21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5,7,9,13,17,19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental translation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4,11,18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person knowledge</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3,8,15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,6,12,16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 Factors of MALQ and their Related Items

The participants will respond to 21 items using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). The factors and their related items are grouped in Table 3.2 (See the Appendix A for detailed MALQ of each item). Five categorizes of 21-items in MALQ are including the following factors: planning and evaluation, problem-solving, mental translation, person knowledge, and directed attention. The first factor (planning and evaluation) of five items represents a strategies listeners use to prepare themselves for listening and evaluate their listening efforts. Four items include the following strategies; having plan for listening, thinking about similar texts, having a goal while listening, periodically checking one’s satisfaction with the
developing interpretation while listening, and evaluating the effectiveness of one's listening efforts. The second factor (problem-solving) of six items represents a group of strategies by listeners to infer and monitor these inferences. The six items include strategies such as using known words to deduce the meaning of unknown words, using general ideas to deduce the meaning of unknown words, using one's experience and general knowledge to interpret the text, adjusting one's interpretation upon realizing when it is not correct, comparing the interpretation with one's knowledge of the topic, and monitoring the accuracy of one's inferences according to the interpretation. The third factor (mental translation) of three items includes strategies listeners must overcome to become more skilled listeners (Vandergrift et al., 2006). The fourth factor (person knowledge) of three items represents listeners' perceptions about the difficulty from L2 listening and their self-efficacy. This factor includes items assessing the perceived difficulty of listening compared with the other three language skills, learners' linguistic confidence in L2 listening, and the level of anxiety experienced in L2 listening. The fifth factor (directed attention) represents the concentration of listeners to deal with the task. Four items under this factor include strategies such as getting back on track when losing concentration, focusing harder when having difficulty understanding, recovering concentration when one's mind wanders, and not giving up when faced with difficulties.

On a final note with MALQ, there are two essential points to recognize. First, 4 items out of 21 items in MALQ were stated in negative sentences or showing negative actions such as giving up listening. For example, Item 3, 8 and 15 from fourth factor (person knowledge) were presented in negative statements such as ‘I don't feel nervous when listening to English, listening in English is difficult than reading, speaking, or writing, and listening in English is challenging for me.’ Therefore high scores in this factor means the respondents feel nervous, thinking listening in English is challenging. In addition, Item16 from directed attention was asking whether to give up listening by troubles in understanding, so the high score on this means that the listeners easily give up listening. Second, in this study, as in the previous studies (Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Zhang and Wu, 2009), the questionnaire was also translated into the participants' native language, Korean, to make the items easy to understand and the students responded clearly. In the study of Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011), the researchers translated MALQ into the version of native language, Persian, and it was piloted with thirty students. The reliability index from the Cronbach alpha was 0.82

3.2.2 Interview
To support the findings from the questionnaire and provide more specific evidences, semi-interviews will be conducted among participants in different groups. In semi-structured interviews, the following interviewees will be interviewed; 3 high metacognition with high listening comprehension, 3 medium metacognition with intermediate comprehension, 3 low metacognition with low comprehension levels, 2 high metacognition with high listening comprehension students. The questions of interviews are likely to be revised during interviews, but common interview questions will be following; 1) What do you do before listening in English? 2) How do you deal with unknown words while listening? 3) What do you think while listening in English? In case the interviewees might have difficulties in understanding English interviews, it can be carried out in Korean.

3.3 Procedures
3.3.1 General procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National listening test</td>
<td>Sept 16th, 2014, ~Sept 18th, 2014</td>
<td>Execute and submit the answer sheets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing MALQ and listening test results</td>
<td>Nov 1st, 2014 ~Nov 30th, 2014</td>
<td>Computing the data using SPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Dec 15th,2014~Dec 31th, 2014</td>
<td>Conduct 3 interview sessions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5 Research schedule

The research was conducted in the fall semester in 2014. First, all the participants took the national listening test in September and were divided into three levels of listening comprehension proficiencies based on the results of the listening test. Second, in October, the researcher instructed English teachers on the purpose of MALQ, five categories of MALQ, and how to supervise participants in class, because the researcher was not allowed to get into class. Next, three weeks in October, every class of all grades responded MALQ, and the surveys were collected at the end of Oct. Fourth, the results from MALQ were analyzed, using SPSS (software package used for statistical analysis) to identify the correlation and the features of metacognition among different levels of listening proficiency. Last, interviews would be carried out in Dec.
3.4 Data analysis

In this section, it will be described how the data from listening test, MALQ and interviews would be analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively according to the purpose of this research. First, quantitatively, the listening test results were computed to identify the level of listening comprehension proficiency in the aspect of mean and standard deviation. In the aspect of the percentage, the high levels are upper 25th percentage, the low levels are lower 25th percentage, and the rest of participants are intermediate levels.

In addition, the other quantitative data, the responses from MALQ, were used to measure the level of metacognition in listening in English, categorizing 5 factors of problem-solving, planning and evaluation, mental translation, person knowledge, and directed attention. Therefore, they were analyzed and computed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS, version 21.0) to answer the research questions: (1) is there any relationship between the metacognitive awareness and L2 listening comprehension level of female high school students? (2) what are the features of metacognitive strategies of different level listeners? To answer these research questions, the responses from three different groups were rearranged under 5 different factors. When computing these data, the researcher computed mean and standard deviation of five factors in groups, and the correlation among five factors and listening comprehension was computed in terms of Pearson to determine whether there is relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening test results. After the statistical results of SPSS revealed that there was a significant relation between these two variables, the researcher conducted correlation test among 21-item data and listening test results in groups.

Qualitatively, the interview data, which will be collected after this semester, will be analyzed. All the interviews will be recorded and transcribed to identify the similarities and differences among interviewees.

In this section, I identified who participated, what instruments will be utilized, what the procedures will be like and how the collected data will be analyzed. The methodology design of the present study would be like based on the fruitful evidence, supported by the related studies (Rahimad and Shams, 2014; (Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Zhang and Wu, 2009; Rahimad and Katal, 2012). In addition, it is confirming the purpose of case study, aiming at exploring the specific phenomenon of metacognition in L2 listening in EFL high school girls in the specific context. To achieve this goal, both qualitative and quantitative data can be collected and close correlation between those variables.

4. Result and discussion

4.1 Results from the national listening test

As illustrated in Table 4.1, there are three groups according to the listening comprehension proficiency level. In terms of mean, low level of 133 students scored 3 of 10, intermediate level of 226 students got around 6 out of 10, and high level of 159 students scored 8.5 out of 10. Out of 518 participants, the intermediate group is the biggest, followed by high level and low level groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>8.58</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 Results of the participants’ national listening test

4.2 Results from MALQ

4.2.1 Korean high school EFL students’ metacognitive awareness of listening

The results, as illustrated in Table 4.2, presented that in general, Korean EFL high school listeners had medium level of metacognitive awareness in listening in English and there are significant correlations between the metacognitive awareness and the listening comprehension results. Overall, they showed higher metacognitive awareness in directed attention factor (M=3.82, SD=1.33) and problem solving factor (M=3.78, SD=1.26), while the lowest metacognitive awareness was recorded in planning and evaluation factor (M=2.63, SD=1.29).

When Korean EFL high school listeners listen in English, they could focus on the listening task to help them understand. For example, they focus harder on the text when having difficulties in understanding (Item 2, Mean=4.25, SD=1.29) and they try to get back on track when losing concentration (Item 12, M=4.27, SD=1.27).

While they demonstrated the capacity of focusing on the listening task, they, also, showed general abilities of inferring and monitoring these inferences. For example, when they were faced with unknown words they used the word to guess it (Item 5, M=4.06, SD=1.32), they use the general idea of the text to help them guess (Item 17, M=4.37, SD=1.33) or they think back to everything else that they've heard to check if the guess makes sense (Item 19, M=3.80, SD=1.25). In addition, they compare what they understand with the topic (Item 7, M=4.27, SD=1.27) and use the experience and knowledge to help understand.

While Korean high school listeners had lower
metacognitive awareness in planning and evaluation factor, they had lowest metacognition in self-assessing the listening process and pursuing better listening next time (Item14, M=2.47, SD=1.20)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning and evaluation</td>
<td>Item1</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.328**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item10</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.181**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item14</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.140**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item20</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>.271**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item21</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.343**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>Item5</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.293**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item7</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.248**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item9</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.279**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item13</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.301**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item17</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>.305**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item19</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.298**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental translation</td>
<td>Item4</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.352**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item11</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.292**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item18</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>-.134**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person knowledge</td>
<td>Item3</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>-.236**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item8</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>-.359**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item15</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>-.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>Item2</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.385**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item6</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.365**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item12</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.321**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Item16</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>-.417**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. All marked with ** is significant at the level of 0.05.

Table 4.2 Korean high school EFL students’ metacognitive awareness of listening (N=518)

4.2.2 Korean high school EFL students’ metacognitive awareness in different listening proficiency levels

While Korean EFL listeners enjoyed medium level of metacognitive awareness, the results from three different groups showed that there were distinctive features in metacognitive awareness according to the levels of listening proficiency.

As Figure 4.2 illustrated, the higher levels the listeners are, the higher metacognitive awareness they have in listening in English, except for person knowledge. As mentioned above in research methodology section, the items related to person knowledge were described in negative statements, asking the level of self-confidence and how much the listeners would feel difficult in listening in English. Therefore higher scores in person knowledge meant that the listeners had difficulties and low self-efficacy, feeling challenged in listening in English.

While all the level of listeners showed high metacognitive awareness in problem solving and directed attention, high level of listeners showed obviously that they used more frequently problem solving strategies and directed attention than the other two groups used.

Within the metacognitive awareness in mental translation, high level students showed similar level of metacognitive awareness to the intermediate level.

![Figure 4.2 Korean high school EFL students’ metacognitive awareness according to listening proficiency levels](image)

Table 4.2 The overall scores of MALQ among different groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proficiency (M / SD)</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>intermediate</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning/evaluation</td>
<td>2.63(1.142)</td>
<td>3.03(1.24)</td>
<td>3.49(1.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>3.28(1.28)</td>
<td>3.77(1.19)</td>
<td>4.20(1.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental translation</td>
<td>2.81(1.25)</td>
<td>3.28(1.21)</td>
<td>3.33(1.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person knowledge</td>
<td>3.54(1.43)</td>
<td>3.14(1.39)</td>
<td>2.72(1.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>3.54(1.29)</td>
<td>3.86(1.23)</td>
<td>4.02(1.16)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 summarized and compared the top 5 items and bottom 5 metacognitive items among different groups. While those of high level group and
intermediate group showed similar results despite the different ranking order, the low group showed a slightly different result. For example, in both groups of high and intermediate levels, items related to directed attention and problem solving factors showed higher metacognitive awareness than other items, displaying that Korean EFL intermediate and high level listeners have capacity of getting back on track when losing concentration (Item12), and focusing harder when they have trouble understanding (Item2). In addition, both groups enjoyed using the general idea of the text to help guess the meaning of the unknown words (Item17) or the familiar words to guess the meaning of unknown words (Item5). Furthermore, Korean EFL high school listeners in intermediate and high level were using mental translation into native language while listening in English (Item4).

While high metacognitive awareness of intermediate and high level groups generally came from problem solving and directed attention, those of low level group mostly came from directed attention, displaying they have tendencies to give up listening. For example, while they focus harder on the text when they have trouble understanding (Item2), they give up and stop listening when they have too much difficulties understanding what they hear (Item 16). Although they used the general idea of the text to help guess the meaning of the unknown words (Item17), they feel that listening comprehension in English is challenge for them (Item 8).

While top 5 items of metacognitive awareness in listening showed similar features in both intermediate and high levels, the bottom 5 items were a slight different between those groups. In general, High level group showed low metacognitive awareness in items related to person knowledge, which were described in negative statement, asking how much they feel difficult in listening in English compared to other language skills such as reading, writing, and speaking. That is, low scores of these items meant that they rarely feel difficult in listening in English compared to other language skills (Item3), they rarely feel challenge (Item 8) and they don't feel nervous when listening to English (Item 15). While items related to planning and evaluation were rarely used by all groups, especially Item 14, asking if they think back to how they listened after listening and about what might be different next time, coexisted in three groups. In addition to this, the lower the listening proficiency is, the less they have a goal in mind as they listen (Item21) or the less they think of similar texts that they may have listened to (Item 10).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top 5 items (Mean)</th>
<th>Bottom 5 items (Mean)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 (4.27)</td>
<td>12(4.46)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 (4.12)</td>
<td>17(4.38)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17(3.83)</td>
<td>2(4.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12(3.68)</td>
<td>5(4.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2(3.58)</td>
<td>4 (3.96)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 Top 5 and strategies and the bottom 5 strategies in groups

5. Discussion

5.1 Research question 1

The first research question asked whether there is relationship between the metacognitive awareness and the level of listening proficiency. The above analysis showed that Korean EFL high school listeners have medium level of metacognitive awareness and there are significant correlations among metacognitive awareness and the listening comprehension level. Based on the data analysis of this research, the students displayed they had knowledge and ability of listening to English and this knowledge is linked to the listening comprehension. These findings were supported by other studies (Goh, 2000; Vandergrift, 2007; Bidabadi and Yamat, 2011).

All the strategies correlated either positively or negatively with the students’ listening comprehension. First, it was found that the higher level Korean EFL listeners have metacognitive awareness in the terms of problem solving and directed attention. These findings were supported by previous studies (Goh, 1998; Goh, 2002; Vandergrift, 2002, 2003; Baleghisadeh and Rahimi, 2011; Rahimirad and Shams, 2014) Both problem-solving and directed attention correlate positively with the listening comprehension of Korean EFL high school students, except item 16 asking the tendency to give up when having difficulties understanding. Korean EFL high school students in high level showed frequent use of problem-solving strategies and directed attention to help understand. Given that the context of Korean listening class is mainly focused on the comprehension of the aural text, the Korean students might acquire these strategies through frequent practices in class, even though they were not explicitly instructed.

The students’ person knowledge is closely related to the self-efficacy and motivation to listen to English, of which items were in negative statements. That is, the lower the scores in person knowledge are, the less difficult and challenging they feel, which affects positively in
listening comprehension. These findings confirmed the previously investigated researches in the EFL context (Sutdennnam and Taghipur, 2014; Bidabadi and Yamat, 2011; Baleghizadeh and Rahimi, 2011).

5.2 Research question2

The second research question was to identify the features of metacognitive awareness in groups according to the different level of listening comprehension. The above analysis showed that the students in groups were different in the level of metacognitive awareness and higher level students of listening comprehension showed higher metacognitive awareness, except for person knowledge, asking in the negative statement. These findings were also confirmed by previous studies of categorizing the differences in strategy use and metacognition in listening upon the level of listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 2003; Rost, 1999). While good listeners showed high abilities in making inferences, listening with a purpose, and making concentrations with high level of self-confidence, low level listeners easily give up listening and feel burdens of listening in English when they feel difficult in understanding.

Like in the previous studies, high level of Korean EFL listeners displayed the capacity of concentrating on listening tasks and frequent use of making guesses to help understand unknown words, showing high self-confidence in listening in English. Similarly, high level listeners were good at making inference between what is known and what is unknown to the listeners, enjoying positive attitudes towards English listening in the study of Chien and Wei (1998).

Contrary to the previously conducted research, Korean high level EFL listeners in this research didn’t show much use of planning and evaluation, characterized as one of the most frequent strategies the high level listeners use (O’Malley and Chamot, 1989; Vandergrift, 1999). Given that Korean high school students have been taught in teacher-centered and comprehension testing model, they had rarely chances to self-monitor and assess the learning process. In addition, high level of Korean EFL listeners frequently use mental translation while listening, which was advised not to deploy to become more skilled listeners (Vandergrift et al., 2006). Affected by grammar-translation methods, the English language class used to be full of practices in translation into Korean. That might influence on the process of listening in English as well.

6. Conclusion

In this study, Korean EFL high school listeners’ metacognitive awareness was explored through investigating the relationship among metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ) and the listening comprehension test results. In addition, to get more comprehensive understanding of the results from the quantitative data analysis, semi-structured interviews were carried out. By examining the relations between the metacognition and listening, it was found out that Korean EFL high school students might have knowledge on the process of their listening and the higher level of metacognitive awareness they would have, the higher their levels of listening comprehension would be. Also, there are differences in using metacognitive awareness among different levels by the listening proficiency, while all the students were generally accustomed to the factors of problem solving and directed attention. Such findings generally confirm the previous conducted researches (Goh, 2000; Vandergrift, 2007; Bidabadi and Yamat, 2011; Vandergrift, 2003; Rost, 1999).

In contrast with the previous studies, however, the findings that high levels of Korean EFL high school listeners didn’t utilize planning and evaluation strategies and rather deployed frequently mental translation showed an inconsistency with the features of effective and advanced listeners in the previous studies (O’Malley and Chamot, 1989; Vandergrift, 1999; Vandergrift et al., 2006).

The present study practically provides implications for EFL listening instruction in Korea. First, high level of listening proficiency students might be distinguished from low level listeners in terms of the level of metacognitive awareness in their listening processes. Advanced listeners are enjoying higher level of metacognitive awareness than other groups, and better at focusing on listening tasks, listening with a purpose, and making inferences with high level of self-efficacy. Therefore, it might be cautiously hypothesized that low level listeners would benefit from training to enhance the level of metacognitive awareness, leading them to think about their listening process, recognize their weakness and strong points to be equipped with self-confidence, as suggested by many researches (O’Malley and Chamot 1990; Goh, 2002, Rahimirad and Shams, 2014; Vandergrift, 1996; Rahimirad and Shams, 2014).

Second, in this study, while good listeners rarely use mental translation, it was identified that Korean EFL listeners of all levels showed frequent use of mental translation. Considering that the context of Korean listening class was mainly focused on comprehension checkup through grammar translation methods, Korean listeners would naturally deploy this strategy. Therefore, it would be beneficial to guide all the levels of listeners not to translate L2 aural inputs into Korean, and rather encourage them to process in English.
In the future researches, it would be more investigated in depth in the aspect of using different listening strategies among different levels of listening proficiency, and more qualitative data would be necessarily used to identify these issues.

6.1 Limitations

This study was conducted with the different age groups and the national listening test questions were different according to the ages of the test takers.

References


Rost, M (2002). *Teaching and researching listening*. Harlow: Longman.


Vandergrift, L. (2002). It was nice to see that our predictions were right: Developing metacognition in L2 listening comprehension. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 58*, 556–575.


Appendix A

Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

영어 청취력 향상을 위한 듣기 전략 설문조사

학번 : ________________________
이름 : ________________________
연락처 : ______________________
이메일 : ______________________

이 설문지는 여러분이 영어로 듣고 이해할 때 (예를 들어, 영어듣기 평가), 어떤 전략을 쓰는지 조사하는 설문지 입니다. 각 항목을 읽고, 자신이 얼마나 자주 사용하는 전략인지 체크 표시 해주시기 바랍니다.

예시. 1. 듣기 시작 전, 무엇을 들을지 계획한다.

전혀 아니다       1       2        3        4       5       6 매우 그렇다
______________________________________________________________________________

이제 다음 4장의 문항을 읽고, 체크 표시 하시면 됩니다. (총 21문항)

영어 청취력 향상을 위한 듣기 전략 설문조사
The metacognitive awareness of EFL female high school students in listening in English

1. 듣기 시작 전, 무엇을 어떻게 들을 지 계획한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

2. 이해가 되지 않을 때, 더욱 집중해서 듣는다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

3. 영어듣기, 영어독해, 영어말하기, 영어작문 중 영어듣기가 가장 어렵다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

4. 들으면서 머릿속에서 우리말로 번역한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

5. 모르는 어휘는, 아는 어휘를 통해 추론한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

6. 머릿속이 복잡할 때에도, 노력하면 급방 집중 할 수 있다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

7. 듣고 있는 내용과 나의 배경지식을 비교하며 듣는다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

8. 영어로 들고 이해하는 건 너무 어렵다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

9. 이해가 되지 않을 때, 나의 경험과 지식을 이용해본다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다
10. 영어청취 전에, 내가 들었던 비슷한 지문을 떠올린다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

11. 영어청취하면서, 주제어를 번역한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

12. 집중력이 흐려질 때는, 다시 집중하며 들으려고 노력한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

13. 듣다가 잘못 해석한 부분이 있다면, 빠리 재해석한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

14. 듣고 난 후에는, 이번 듣기활동에서 잘 한 점, 부족한 점을 평가해보고, 다음 듣기활동 할 때 활용한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

15. 영어를 듣을 때, 긴장하지 않는다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

16. 무슨 소리인지 도통 모를 경우, 포기한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

17. 지금 들리는 단어의 뜻을 몰라도, 전체적인 맥락에서 유추해본다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

18. 듣고 있는 모든 단어를 번역하느라 애쓴다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다
19. 지금 듣고 있는 모든 정보를 통해, 모르는 단어를 유추해본다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

20. 들으면서, 내가 잘 이해하고 있는 지 스스로 확인한다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

21. 영어로 들을 때에, 목표를 지니고 듣는다.
전혀 아니다  1  2  3  4  5  6  매우 그렇다

마지막으로, 기본적인 영어교육 사항에 관한 질문입니다.
1. 수업 시간 외에, 일주일에 영어듣기 연습을 얼마나 하나요?
   ① 1시간 미만    ② 1시간~ 2시간    ③ 2시간~ 3시간
   ④ 3시간~ 4시간    ⑤ 5시간 이상    ⑥ 기타 :

2. 주로 하는 영어듣기 연습 방법은 무엇인가요?
   ① 영어 듣기 평가 문제풀기    ② CD나 음악 듣기
   ③ 스마트 폰 및 어플 이용하기    ④ 드라마나 영화 이용하기
   ⑤ 전화영어 활용하기    ⑥ 기타 :

3. 영어 교육을 처음 시작한 시기?
   ① 5세 이전    ② 5세    ③ 6세    ④ 7세    ⑤ 초등학교 입학 후

4. 해외 거주(영어권) 경험은? 있다면 몇 년?
   ① 있음 - 년    ② 없음

5. 한국어와 영어 이외의 다른 언어를 사용할 수 있나요?
   ① 있음    ② 없음

귀중한 시간을 내 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다.
Appendix B

Interview questions

1. Do you like listening to English?
2. Do you think listening is important?
3. Is there any routine you do before listening?
4. Is there any routine after listening?
5. What do you do when you are faced with unknown words or unfamiliar topics while listening?
6. What do you do when you missed some parts while listening?
7. Do you self-assess your listening process after listening?
8. Do you think in Korean or English while listening?
English Lesson Integrated Mathematics Using Creative Approaches

NaNa Kim
Creativity and Humanism

1. Introduction

English integrated mathematics has been widely used in teaching area. The study by Kim (2007) investigated to find out which content subject more suitable for integration is in elementary schools in Korea. Kim (2007) examined the effectiveness of functional subjects for integration and compared them to other content subjects, though Science and Math are reported as the most frequently cited subjects. According to Kim (2000), it was stated that for English education to reach the extent where it is able to boost the creativity and thinking skills of children, English must also be integrated with other subjects and the relationship between the contents must be considered. These results occur since a more diverse communication situation is provided and rather than just memorizing simple language expressions in order to apply them to language use environments, thinking skills and creativity must be included in order to select appropriate expressions which are suitable for a situation.

Creativity involves effort to make something work, to make something better, more meaningful, or more beautiful in many areas, art, science, business, and education areas. The word “creative” is used frequently in schools. Learners need creativity for learning. Because the 21st century pace of change demands young people who can learn on their own, solve problems, and respond to situations unlike people of previous generation. Teachers need to help learners to be independent learner and creative thinker.

This paper represents experimental lesson integrated mathematics for young learners. First, definition of creativity and characteristics of creative people are described. Second, developmental psychological theories are stated to apply to experimental lesson plan for this study. Third, one lesson plan along with one model of creative solving problem (CPS) is describe that how it can be specifically applied to the classroom for seven years old learners in teaching English. Then, the learners’ responses toward the English lesson integrated mathematics are described. Finally, the creative approaches in the lesson are discussed using creativity criteria.

1.1 Research questions

This research generated two questions to clarify the purpose.

1. How would seven-year-old English language learners respond toward English lessons involving CBI with mathematics content?

2. Can the experimental lesson assessed by creativity criteria?

2. Literature review

2.1 Creativity

2.1.1 Definition of Creativity

There are many definition of creativity (Kaufman & Sternberg, 2006; Runco, 2007; Sternberg, 1999). Since the mid-20th century, most definitions have two major criteria for judging creativity: novelty and appropriateness (Barron, 1955; Runco & Jaeger, 2012). Novelty is producing new ideas or work. To be creative, an idea or product must be new. Novelty and originality may be the characteristics most immediately associated with. Like artists, when people make something new that does not exist before, they are considered to have originality. Appropriateness should be determined in the culture context in which the creativity is based. The point of view toward creative products or ideas varies from culture to culture and across time. So if products
or ideas match to the norm of each culture, it is called creativity. Creativity comes from people’s own original way and it should be appropriate as measured by legality.

2.2 Characteristics of Creative People

Characteristics associated with creative individuals have been compiled by many researchers such as Barrin (1969), Dacey (1989), Isaksen (1987), MacKinnon (1978), Torrance (1962).

Although each model point out that individual characteristics are not sufficient to explain creative activities, personal characteristics and experiences of individuals function in a particular context. According to Starko (2010), many kinds of personal characteristics divided into three general categories: cognitive characteristics, personality traits, and biographical events.

Characteristics described in this paper are adapted from Tardif and Sternberg (1988). In this study, three cognitive characteristics are applied; flexibility and skill in decision making, coping well with novelty, logical thinking skills.

2.2.1. Cognitive Characteristics

2.2.1.1 Flexibility and Skill in Decision Making

Starko (2010) defines that “Flexibility in thinking generally denotes the ability to look at a situation from many points of view or to generate many categories of responses” (p. 88). Decision making can be used to make judgments in many content areas. Depends on the ages, the issues the students they cover are different to make decisions. In each case, the dilemma to be solved is open-ended. There is no one correct solution, so consideration of varied possibilities and criteria is likely to lead to a better decision. Although there may be tomes in school to practice decision making on more closed problems, they are less likely to foster the flexible decision making that appears important in creativity. The Talents Unlimited model by Schlichter, Palmet, & Palmer (1993, as cited in Starko, 2010, p. 89) shows that students are taught to consider many alternatives and to use specific criteria for evaluating possible choices for decision making. a) think of many varied things you could do b) think more carefully about each alternative c) choose one alternative that you think is best d) give many varied reasons for your choice.

2.2.1.2 Logical thinking

Highly creative people have excellent logical thinking skills. If students are to be effective in gathering information about a situation, to focus on important issues, or to evaluate potential ideas, logical thinking is indispensable (Starko, 2010, p.92). Students who display logical thinking can use evidence to draw conclusions, give reasons for their responses.

2.2.1.3 Coping well with novelty

Encourage the type of thinking that helps students deal with novelty necessitates exposing them to novel situations. These may range from the imaginary to the realistic. Another strategy is to create questions and assignments for which there can no correct answer or incorrect answers. When students deal with new ideas in assignment, they are concerned with being right. For them, it is necessary to help understand them the criteria by which will be judged. And it is enough explain that for the assignment there can be wrong answers. If students are given cues for dealing with the context of a novel situation, they will find it less threatening.

2.3 Model of Creative Problem Solving (CPS)

For this study, one of model of creative problem solving is utilized in the experimental lesson which is called Torrance (1998)'s model of CPS. Torrance's CPS approach implies actually doing something with the idea, is missing from both the Dewey and Wallas models. One of the earliest contemporary models of creativity can be found in Dewey's (1920) model of problem solving. Dewey described the process of problem solving in five logical steps: 1) A difficulty is felt. 2) The difficulty is located and defined. 3) Possible solutions are considered. 4) Consequences of these solutions are weighed. 5) One of the solutions is accepted. Wallas (1926) generated a series of four steps of the creative process 1) Preparation 2) Incubation 3) Illumination 4) Verification. Torrance (1998) generated four logical steps: 1) Sensing problems or difficulties 2) Making guesses or hypothesis about the problems 3) Evaluating the hypothesis, and possibly revising them 4) Communicating the results.

2.4 The definition of Content-based Instruction (CBI)

CBI is used to refer to approaches integrating language and content instruction (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989). Crandall and Tucker (1990) defined it as “an approach to language instruction that integrated the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes within the context of teaching a second or foreign language” (p.187). Another definition by Met (1998) is that “CBI is an approach to second language instruction that involves the use of a second language to learn or practice content” (p.35).

2.5 Related researches in Korea

Content-Based English Language Teaching (CBELT) is
2.9 Assessment of creativity

The Creativity in Proving Rubric (CPR) was proposed by Torrance (1966). The part of the rubric focusing on creative, divergent thinking uses the four attributes of creative thinking: 1) Fluent – easily and quickly produces many, diverse thoughts/ideas/plans/solutions/etc. – “wild and crazy” ideas are OK, does not edit self or others during this process 2) Flexible – flows among various divergent thinking processes to keep ideas flowing; makes connections between / among ideas, approaches, plans, etc. 3) Original – produces original, unexpected, uncommon ideas and connections – resulting products and/or processes perceived as new and useful -- knocks your socks off! 4) Elaborate – adds diverse and varied details to enrich original ideas/connections; adds complexity. Treffinger (1987) found the two purpose of assessing creativity. One is to recognize and support the strength of individuals as well as helping individuals to recognize their own strengths. The other is to providing a common language for professionals wishing to discuss various aspects of creativity.

3. Methodology

For this research, experimental lesson integrated mathematics was implemented. During the lesson, classroom observation was conducted by the researcher. Also, the researcher had some comments and information from the teacher after class.

3.1 Participants

The participants in the study were nineteen students of mixed ability, aged between 60 months and 72 months from kindergarten located Ichon, in Seoul. Most of the students were now in their second year of learning English. Students from two classes named Blue and Green classes participated in the experimental lesson. They selected English subject among extra-curricular classes and join together in one classroom on every Tuesday and Thursday. Blue class was composed of seven boys and three girls. But one boy was absent for being sick in this study. Green class was composed of three boys and seven girls. The students from Blue class are more active and participate in competitive activities and their English proficiency level is higher than Green class. Most of them are aware of letters of alphabet and able to read simple sentences and write alphabet letters by themselves. The students from Green class are well-behaved students and listens to the teachers well when they do some tasks or activities even their English proficiency is lower than Blue class. They are needed more instruction or help from teachers when they complete the tasks. Their recognition of alphabet letters is not as good as students from Blue classes.
3.2 Procedures
The experimental lesson was conducted in English lesson on December 4th. Description of lesson plan is described. (See Appendix A) The researcher observed only one lesson due to following curriculum of English lesson of kindergarten. As usual, the researcher and the teacher went to the class together. The researcher was in charge of an observer and the teacher had English lesson integrated mathematics with nineteen of seven years old learners.

3.3 Data collecting methods

3.3.1. Experiment
One experimental lesson is designed and conducted instead of the regular English lesson. English classes are on every Tuesday and Thursday, twice in a week. The students go back home after English lessons so it was impossible to conduct extra classes for the experiment of this study. The parts the researcher wants to closely look at the students are two activities. One activity is that students form a group of two or three and makes a combination of creatures for sum of given numbers. Before designed the lesson, the researcher wondered how much the learners are able to deal with more than two numbers to sum of a certain number. The lesson focuses on teaching mathematic concepts and oral language production. One activity is that making combination of creatures with group members by putting the pictures of creatures on vehicles is good opportunity to observe the learners' responses when the students deal with mathematic problems. The other activity is saying the sentence with a given structure with their group work.

Those two tasks are challenging for the learners as they have had not experienced before.

3.3.2. Classroom observation
Directness is a major advantage of observation as a technique of observation. Observers do not ask people about their views, feelings, attitudes; observers watch what they do and listen to what they say. For this study, informal observation approach is applied. Informal observations approaches are less structured and allow the observer considerable freedom is what information is gathered and how it is recorded. They would include note-taking and generally gathering information from informants (Robson, 2011, p318).

4. Results
In this chapter, the results in the lesson are described with Torrance's CPS model.

4.1 The use of CPS model by Torrance (1998)

4.1.1. Step1. Sensing problems or difficulties
Before started the lesson, the teacher invited one student and stood together in front of the whole classmates. When the teacher asked the number of two feet, most students answered “four” without hesitation. The teacher invited another student, and then asked them to count the total count the fingers of three people. The research as an observer expected that they were able to say the answer right away by understanding the formula \((10+10+10=30)\). It was an unexpected finding. Some students looked without saying anything. Few students started counting the fingers. A boy who has high proficiency level of English answered the correct number “30” in English when he was asked. Visual images such as a snail, a person, a dog, an insect, a spider, a crab along with a storybook helped learners understand the concept of addition. To complete the task later, the learners had to understand each creature, snail, a person, a dog, a spider, an insect, a spider represents the numbers by feet. Then, the teacher gave another example for addition showing combination of creatures. The teacher said “5 is 1 dog and 1 snail”,”7 is 1 person and 5 snails or 1 insect and 1 snail,” counting those feet with students.

4.1.2. Step2. Making guesses of hypotheses about the problems
The teacher showed the two same boats to compare combination of creatures and made guesses.

Making guesses:

16 is 1 spider, 1 insect, 2 snails?
(The sum of 8,6, and 2 is 16. That is, \(8+6+2=16\))

16 is 1 crab, 1 person, 1 dog?
(The sum of 10, 2, 4 is 16. That is, \(10+2+4=16\))

The teacher said “On one boat, it says 16. What does it mean? Let's take a look inside who are on board”.

4.1.3. Step3. Evaluating the hypotheses and revising them
The teacher elicited the answers from the learners pointing the pictures of creatures.

"1 spider, 1 insect, 2 snails are on board. Is it correct? Check the feet together." "What about the other boat? Check the feet together. 1 dog, 1 crab, 1 person are on board. Is it correct?"

Are there the same feet for both boats?
As the combination of creatures was different from each other, physical looking perhaps made the learners confusing. Student S answered "No, same feet. It is different." For a while, the learners looked closely and started counting the feet comparing two pictures at the same time.

4.1.4. Step 4. Communicating the results

Student J answered that “Although different creatures are on each boat, there are 16 feet for both boats”. Different combination of creatures to sum of the same number made the students confusing at the first time. However, they used their addition ability to solve the problems. This activity was intended to have students understand different number of combinations can make the same number.

As you can see, we can say 16 is 1 spider, 1 insect, 2 snails.

So, we can also say 16 is 1 dog, 1 crab, 1 person are on board, too.

In the experimental lesson, the step2, 3,4 were repeated when students were engage in the task with their group members. Step2~4 is scaffolding from the teacher to help the learners to reach a new concept by giving supporting information.

4.2. Have Students the same procedures to complete the task

4.2.1. Step1. Sensing problems or difficulties

With their materials, they had to think how to solve problems.

4.2.2. Step2. Making guesses of hypotheses about the problems

The teacher showed a picture of a hot air balloon, a submarine, a space ship, a hoisting crane with assigned the numbers (9, 13, 15, 20) and made a story for them.

Only 9 feet can ride on a hoisting crane.

Only 13 feet can ride on a spaceship.

Only 15 feet can ride on a submarine.

Only 20 feet can ride on a hot-air balloon.

Who can ride on it? You can invite any friends (snails, people, dogs, spiders, insects, spiders).”

4.2.3. Step 3. Evaluating the hypotheses and revising them

The teacher helped learners assign a group of two or three and have them make their own story and gave a number of creatures and a picture of a hot-air balloon, a boat, a submarine, a spaceship to go on board within given numbers. Eight groups participated in the task to make combination of creatures and put those things on their chosen vehicle. Each group chose guests properly from a number of creatures to add to make the sum of 9 (13, 15, 20) and put those pictures on each vehicle.

4.2.4. Step 4. Communicating the results

Students presented about their work using four different kinds of vehicles, a hot air balloon, a submarine, a spaceship, a hoisting crane. With their group work, each individual had to make oral production using the expression "9 (13,15,20) is combination of creatures.”

4. 2 Responses of the learners toward English lesson integrated mathematics

As listed below, Group D made a combination of 4 snails, 4 people, and 2 dogs for the sum of 20 (4 snails had 4 feet, 4 people had 8 feet, 2 dogs had 8. That is, they have to understand formula of addition of twenty, 4+8+8=20). To solve the problems, the students combine variety numbers (1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10) for the sum of a given numbers (9, 13, 15, 20). As the table1 indicates, six groups had combination of creatures in a different way for the sum of their numbers except two groups B, F for the sum of 13. Group A, E used different combination to sum of 9. Group C, G used different combination for the sum of 15. Group D, H used different combination for the sum of 20. Most of students used their addition ability to say numbers in Korean on their task. As the table1 indicates, the students did not use more than three creatures for the sum of a certain numbers.

One interesting thing the researcher found is that most of students are not able to calculate more than two numbers right away for the sum of a certain number. The most common thing among the students is that they counted feet of creatures one by one. Most of the students counted the feet of creatures one by one and started putting pictures again and again by trial and error. Another thing found is that the most students tended to use small number of creatures first for sum of the given number. After class, the teacher made comments on one group.

Three boys, StudentE, StudentR, Student C had to sum of 9. In their basket, there were 4 snails, 2 people, 2 insects, 1 crab to use freely. They counted feet of 4snails, 2 people then they stopped doing it as 4 snails and 2 people have only 8 feet. Although, the teacher showed a picture of an insect which has 6 feet to use it, they did not want to use the insect to make9. In the end, the teacher borrowed
some snails and people pictures from other groups and gave them to use it. As a result, they put 1 snail, 4 people to sum of 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group name (number of students in a group)</th>
<th>Group A (2)</th>
<th>Group B (3)</th>
<th>Group C (2)</th>
<th>Group D (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Combination of creatures</td>
<td>1 snail, 4 people</td>
<td>1 snail, 1 person, 1 crab</td>
<td>1 snail, 2 dogs, 3 people</td>
<td>4 snails, 4 people, 2 dogs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group name (number of students in a group)</td>
<td>Group E (2)</td>
<td>Group F (3)</td>
<td>Group G (2)</td>
<td>Group H (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination of creatures</td>
<td>1 snail, 1 spider</td>
<td>1 snail, 1 person, 1 crab</td>
<td>1 snail, 1 dog, 1 crab</td>
<td>1 dog, 3 people, 1 crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table1. The results of combination of creatures by each group

The researcher observed those who are not very engage in the English lessons of daily routine. Student J in group C is a very introvert student. She never sings a song in the classroom. She always sits on her chair and does not participate in the competitive game. Although the teacher tries to invite her to come to the front to make oral production, she always refused to do it. When teacher wrote her report card in the last semester, teacher had no way of measuring her English proficiency level because of her low participation in English lessons. In this activity, she was very engaged in her task. She helped her member by giving proper feet of creatures to make number of 15 when her member hesitated to combine creatures to sum of 15. Student D in group E is not interested in learning English at all. He lay down on the floor and never pays attention to the teacher. He almost keeps talking with his classmates. Sometime, he lay down on the floor. In this activity, his behaviors were different from his daily routine. Without counting the feet of a crab, he put a crab and picks another picture, a snail right away to sum of 9.

The researcher also wondered how the students those who have higher proficiency level of English participate in English lessons. An extrovert student, student R in group B always listens to the teacher and his English proficiency is higher than others. He is able to say simple sentences when he is asked. His participation and attitude is excellent in English lessons. In this experimental lesson, he was the only student who answered it correctly in English when the teacher with other two classmates showed their fingers to count. He did not have difficulty on his task. Student J from D is a very active girl. She has another private English lesson at home. She always tries to participate in the group work to win the game. In this experimental lesson, she did not engage well in the task compare to other classes she had. She was sitting and looking what her members were doing as she seemed to be not interested in counting feet of variety creatures.

As Vygotsky emphasized that creativity emerges through interactions with other individuals, the learners had interaction with their group members. With their group members, they showed how to deal with the task showing the process of creativity. After class, the teacher commented about small group work in a positive way.

Making a group of two or three is one way that students engage more in the task. In real teaching context, teaching more than 20 students in the classroom is a demanding job for teachers. From this experiment, I want to consider using a small group activity.

While observing students, they worked together without arguing. When they underwent trial and errors to sum of a certain number, they worked together with their group members. Without the teacher’s help, most of the students did their task by themselves quickly. Group F, G completed their task earlier than others and they started coloring their vehicles such as a submarine, a space ship voluntarily even though their teacher did not assign to do it. The group B finished their task earlier and walked around the classroom. Most of students cooperated with their group members well in their group work. They were well-behaved in the task. To complete the task, students communicated each other verbally or nonverbally and they had help from their peers not from the teacher. From the group activities of this experiment, the teacher considered using a small group activity in further lessons. She said that it was the one way to help students concentrate on their task instead of a whole class activity. Student A in group G is one of active students in English lessons. He likes dancing and singing aloud than other and does not afraid of making mistakes in speaking English. In this task, he was not involved in the task so much. While his group member was gluing the pictures of creatures on the picture of submarine, he started coloring the submarine and background of the paper. Rather using his math-logical intelligence, he participated in his task but completed it in a different way.

He was the one of student who did not complete the worksheet after task. I observed him that he did not write the correct number of feet of two spiders. Under two insects, he just wrote number 6 and 6 for each insect instead of writing number 12.
Visual images helped learners when they said the sentences “Number is (combination of creatures) using their work in communicating the results. With their group members, they introduced their combination of group work verbally. Although they are not fluent speakers, they showed an accurate description with their work. Because of time management, they were not given points to be a winner for the activity.

4.3 The use of cognitive characteristics of creativity in the lesson

In terms of flexibility and skill in decision making, they had to decide and negotiate which creatures would be combined to make the given number with their group members. To complete the task, they had to add more than two numbers for sum. For example, the sum of 1, 8, and 6 is 15 and the sum of 1, 4, 10 is 15. They had to be aware of different arrangement in numbers for sum (1+8+6 or 1+4+10) can make the same number (15).

In terms of logical thinking skill, they needed to understand the information such as example of two boats given by the teachers first. Then, they had to evaluate their ideas and make a decision to choose proper creatures to make a combination of creatures for sum.

In terms of coping well with novelty, knowledge about creatures representing certain numbers (How many feet does a snail (a person, a dog, an insect, a spider, a crab have?), counting by feet to make a combination of creatures for sum, mathematics skill (addition), imagination (traveling to other world each creature would never live in or on with different kinds of vehicles), oral production with the given in the step 4, communicating with the results of CPS expression were all integrated for this experimental lesson.

4.4 Assessment of creativity

Measure of creativity might be vague and difficult due to different perspectives on creativity. However, this lesson is evaluated based on four criteria (fluent, flexible, original, elaborate) of assessment of creativity proposed by Torrance.

Unlike two purpose of the assessing creativity Treffinger (1987) mentioned, the lesson plan itself is evaluated for the researcher rather than supporting the strength and enhancing creativity of individual learner.

4.4.1. Fluency

In designing of the lesson, the researcher combined many ideas to deal with teaching math subject in English and creativity approaches at the same time. During the lesson, the teacher gave information how to deal with the problems using some examples about addition. Also, she tried to help the learners understand the concept that different number of combination can make the same number using a number of visual images. The teacher assigned different numbers (9, 13, 15, 20) for all groups to see how the learners manage it using ability of addition and visual images. Although, the same numbers were used for each two group, they showed different solutions except group B, F. Also, they were able to see that different group members had different ideas and solutions with their group work.

4.4.2. Flexibility

To meet the language objectives and content objectives at the same time, the English lesson integrated in mathematics along with creative approach. The lesson did not design to teach the formula of addition such as 3+6+1+10 in mathematics subject but it tried to use a mix of creativity characteristics such as flexibility and skill in decision making, logical thinking skill, coping well with novelty. For the learners, it was allowed to use their flexibility in making decisions in additions.

4.4.3. Originality

To complete the task, the learners had to understand each creature has different feet. With their knowledge, they were engaged in the task by putting combination of different feet on a chosen vehicle. With their tasks, they also had to make oral production using the expression to meet the content objectives of the lesson. The process of learning was perceived as new and useful approaches for the learners.

4.4.4. Elaboration

Original ideas like addition, different number of feet of creatures were applied for the task. Making a list of different combination of creatures on vehicles and presentation to produce language verbally were connected to meet of the objectives of the lesson integrated CBI involving mathematics. The lesson had structure to use of a model of CPS proposed by Torrance in a creative and meaningful way.

5. Discussion

This research was conducted to find out how seven years language learners respond in English lesson integrated mathematics. Also, the lesson is assessed by assessment of Torrance to measure creativity. For this purpose, two questions were established and they will be discussed here. They are:

Research Question 1. How would seven-year-old English language learners respond toward English lessons involving CBI with mathematics content?
**Research Question 2.** Can be the experimental lesson assessed by creativity criteria?

### 5.1 Research Question 1

Individual responses were varied in experimental lesson integrated mathematics. To complete the task, the learners had to make connection between counting by feet and combination of creatures for sum. The learners showed their combination of creature for addition in a different way except two groups who made number 13. Some learners who had low participation based on their introvert characteristics and low interest in English in daily routines were engaged well in the task with their group members.

Active learners in usual English lessons showed their response differently. High proficiency level of English learner did not have any difficulty in his task. On the other hands, few learners showed low participation in their tasks.

Rather than understanding the formula of addition to use more than two numbers, the learners tend to use count numbers one by one to make a certain number. That is, they used counting ability to count each creature for addition unlike elementary school students. For addition, most of the students use small numbers such as two or four first, then they started to make a number by trial and error.

### 5.2 Research Question 2

The lesson is evaluated with four criteria of assessment of Torrance. Fluency, Flexibility, Originality, Elaboration are elements to evaluate the lesson about creativity. Based on those four criteria, the content of the lesson showed that it can be measured by creativity criteria. From results, the researcher did not describe about appropriateness which is one major criteria along with novelty for judging creativity. As it was acceptable to meet of objectives of the lesson within real teaching context, appropriateness also can be criteria of assessment.

Through this study, the researcher tried to integrate characteristics of creativity, a model of Creative Problem Solving (CPS), subject mathematics, developmental psychological theories in experimental lesson for young learners as it is described in literature review part. Although it was difficult to find similar studies which have similar theoretical background for kindergarten English learners in setting of Korea, experimental English lesson integrated math and creativity approach showed a possibility to use it efficiently in teaching English.

### 6. Conclusion

Through the lesson integrated math using creative approach, the researcher were able to observe the learners learning process about math and how they can integrate and produce their knowledge in speaking English. Plus, the lesson is evaluated by creativity criteria so that the researcher had positive perspectives about the use of CBI and creative approach for young learners.

For this research, the research only relied on observation to observe small number of participants. It might have more accurate and reliable research data if quantitative data is applied in further studies. Only one experimental lesson is hard to prove the efficiency of CBI and creative approach in second language learning. It would be better to use CBI and creative approach in different subjects and topics to help learners improve their language skills.

### References


of Yeolin Education, 8(1), 333-352.


## Appendices

### Appendix A: Lesson plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Lesson plan</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model of Creative Problem Solving (CPS)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Characteristic of Creativity</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developmental psychological theories</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Materials</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language Objectives</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content Objectives</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Procedures</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Lesson plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step1. Sensing problems or difficulties: To realize before what students are going to do, show the objects to count by feet and give some examples to practice addition.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Ask how many do a person have feet? Then, Teacher invites one student and stands together in front of the whole class mates. Ask how many do we have feet? Some students might say “four”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Practice to count by feet using pictures of a snail, a person, a dog, a spider, an insect, a spider. Then, give another example for addition showing combination of creatures. Say “5 is 1 dog and 1 snail” while counting those feet with students. 7 is 1 person and 5 snails or 1 insect and 1 snail.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Step2. Making guesses of hypotheses about the problems.**

- **Making guesses:** 16 is 1 spider, 1 insect, 2 snails? 16 is 1 crab, 1 person, 1 dog?  
  Shows two boats. On each boat, different combination of creatures are on board which indicates the same number, 16. On one boat, it says 16. What does it mean? Let’s take a look inside who are on board. Elicit the answers from the students.

**Step3. Evaluating the hypotheses and revising them.**

- A spider, an insect, two snails are on board. Is it correct? Check the feet together. What about the other boat? Check the feet together. A dog, a crab, a person are on board. Is it correct?

4. Communicating the results.

Compare two boats and have students understand them different combination of numbers can make the same number. As you can see, we can say 16 is a spider, an insect, two snails. So, we also say 16 is a dog, a crab, a person are on board, too.

*Students have the same procedures to complete the task*

**Step2. Making guesses of hypotheses about the problems.**

- Show a picture of a hot air balloon, a submarine, a space ship, a hoisting crane with assigned the numbers (9, 13, 15, 20).

  - Only 9 feet can ride on a hoisting crane.  
  - Only 13 feet can ride on a spaceship.  
  - Only 15 feet can ride on a submarine.  
  - Only 20 feet can ride on a hot-air balloon.  

  Who can ride on it? You can invite any friends (a snail, a person, a dog, a spider, an insect, a spider).
**Lesson plan**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **4. Communicating the results.** | Compare two boats and have students understand them different combination of numbers can make the same number.  
*As you can see, we can say 16 is a spider, an insect, two snails.  
So, we also say 16 is a dog, a crab, a person are on board, too.*  

"**Students have the same procedures to complete the task**" |
| **Step2. Making guesses of hypotheses about the problems.** | -Show a picture of a hot air balloon, a submarine, a space ship, a hoisting crane with assigned the numbers (9, 13, 15, 20).  

*Only 9 feet can ride on a hoisting crane.*  
*Only 13 feet can ride on a spaceship.*  
*Only 15 feet can ride on a submarine.*  
*Only 20 feet can ride on a hot-air balloon.*  

*Who can ride on it? You can invite any friends (a snail, a person, a dog, a spider, an insect, a spider).”* |
| **3. Evaluating the hypotheses and revising them.** | -Make a group of two or three and have them make their own story.  
-Gives a picture of a hot-air balloon, a boat, a submarine, a spaceship to go on board within given numbers.  
-Each group choose guests properly from a number of creatures to add to make the sum of 9(13, 15, 20) and put those guests on each vehicle.  
-Each group makes own story using four different kinds of vehicles, a hot air balloon, a submarine, a spaceship ship, a hoisting crane. |
| Wrap Up | **4. Communicating the results.**  
-Present about their work using four different kinds of vehicles, a hot air balloon, a submarine, a spaceship ship, a hoisting crane using the expression “9 (13,15,20) is combination of creatures.” |
Appendix B: The Cover page of the Storybook

Appendix C: Visual images in step2 (Making guesses of hypotheses about the problems) of CPS by Torrance.
Appendix D: Different types of vehicles and creatures in Step 3 (Evaluating the hypotheses and revising them) of CPS by Torrance.

Appendix E: Group work (Group A~Group H) in Step 3 (Evaluating the hypotheses and revising them) of CPS by Torrance.

**Group B**

**Group F**
Promoting Participation & Autonomy: Blogging with Young L2 Users

Victor Mui
Internet-Based Language Teaching

1 Introduction

This paper will investigate how web-blogging (a Web 2.0 tool) can be utilized for second language learners/users (L2) of English that will elicit participation (blog posting) promote user autonomy. With the emergence of different Web 2.0 technologies (blogs, wikis, and social networking) the shift from learning beyond the classroom can create new opportunities for L2s (Moon & Lim, 2013). According to Lee (2011), blogs can bring new dimensions to online learning and can be using in various ways depending on their pedagogical purpose, and can foster language acquisition and motivation (Chartrand, 2012).

According to Wach (2012), one of the major goals of language learning and teaching in the last three decades has been the development of learner autonomy. Autonomy has been defined as “the capacity to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3), and with a key component of self-directed learning in which “the objectives, progress and evaluation of learning are determined by learners themselves” (Benson, 2001, p.8). The importance of the social aspect of autonomy has also been highlighted which incorporates the elements of interaction with the teacher, other learners, or other users of L2 to function in communicative environments.

Autonomy is also directly linked to what Littlewood (1996) has labeled “ability” and “willingness” (p. 428). This is when the language user has the ability to make independent choices and feels no willingness to do so. Willingness depends on having both the “motivation” and the “confidence” to take responsibilities in the actions that they produce (p. 428). Ability can be divided into two components, which depend on both knowledge about the choices available and the skill to carry out what they are set to achieve.

In the work of Deci and Ryan (1985), it was stated that motivation and autonomy are closely linked. Motivation is broken up into two aspects: intrinsic and extrinsic. Learners who are intrinsically motivated are those that will participate in an activity for their own sake and not due to external pressures or rewards. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to learning situations that the learner is not interested in, but participates in because of interests not related to the task. Furthermore, in Benson’s (2007) review of autonomy in language teaching and learning explains that defining autonomy can be difficult, because there are “degrees of autonomy” (Nunan 1997, p. 192) and that the behavior of the learner/user “can take numerous different forms, depending on age, how far they have progressed with their learning, what they perceive their immediate learning needs to be, and so on” (Little 1991, p.4).

Lee (2010) states that with blogging, learner autonomy can be achieved as students are allowed to take charge of making their own decisions as to what, how, how much, and when to publish their work. Blogs are defined by Aydin (2014) as a site or journal published on the World Wide Web (WWW) for either informational or discussion purposes. Blog participation can be defined as visitors interactively using the Web 2.0 tool by posting comments and messages (Mutum & Wang, 2010), linkable web journals, and links to online communities (Goodwin-Jones, 2003). The affordance of blogs can also allow participatory access to single individuals, small groups, or to multiple authors (Mutum & Wang, 2010). Blogs can also be themed around specific topics (Kajder & Bull, 2004) allowing the bloggers to create social relationships with the readers (Gaudeul & Peroni, 2010), and to give personal responses to different articles (Jacbos, 2003). Blogs are textual in nature, but can include a combination of other texts, images, videos, and links to other blogs that might focus "on specific areas such as art (artblogs), photographs (photoblogs),..."
video (videoblogs or vblogs), music (MP3blogs), audio (podcasts) or microblogs that feature very short posts” (Aydin, 2014, p. 245). The use of web blogs in language learning can also contribute to obtaining cultural knowledge, provide opportunities to explore the target culture, and increase cultural awareness for the reader.

Furthermore, due to their asynchronous CMC (computer mediated communication) nature, blogs can give affordance to students by constructing knowledge at their own pace, giving them time to reflect on the content (Armstrong & Retterer, 2008; Campbell, 2003). These affordances then have the potential to increase students’ participation and motivation because of the work produced is for a broad viewing audience (Lee, 2010). As the student develops their awareness of their ability to plan, they can then start to regulate and understand their own learning abilities (Ward, 2004).

2 Research Questions

Benson (2001) emphasized that technology has the potential to foster autonomous behavior in learners because it facilitates self-access in learning, and gives the learner valuable opportunities to self-direct their controlled learning. For teachers, the promises of the CALL environment for fostering autonomy (Wach, 2012) may prove difficult with the inclusions of variables such as age, language proficiency levels, and the goal of intrinsic motivation (Lee, 2011). If we want to see if blogs are able to foster autonomy within these conditions, then this paper must address the following questions of:

1. What are ways that teachers can promote student participation in web blogging?
2. Will web blogging foster autonomous using among young learners?

The following paper will now examine studies that have been related to blogs and autonomous language learning. By looking at the research from Badrinathan (2013), Wach (2012), Lee (2011), Kang et al. (2011), Ballen (2014), and Hsu and Lin (2007), a better insight can be gained to how teachers can utilize web blogs to promote participation and autonomous learning with young L2 learners.

3 The Review of Research

The experiment carried out by Badrinathan (2013) was with 60 undergraduate university students of French in Mumbai, India. The majority of the learners have already completed five years of French language courses. Over the course of one academic year, these students were asked to participate in blog use to help achieve autonomous learning. The purpose of the class blog was to fit into the larger framework of the curriculum requirements and learning objectives which are enhanced linguistic competence, and wider exposure to the French language. The first step was to inform the students the procedural background of how to use the class blog. The blogging procedures were adapted from Dick (2002) that was created as task driven and free, creating an action-research perspective, and a methodology that allows one to proceed through a number of successive trials. This then allowed the teacher to improve the blog and create modifications according to the students needs. Within the blog, students were expected to react to the teacher’s posts, which were published twice a week, and analyze in what ways they have agreed, disagreed, or liked about each other’s posts. The students were also free to post informational links, share links, ask questions, or state any doubts within the blog, linking back to the original posted topic. The students were encouraged to use the target language of French, but not so exclusively that they could intimidate other students who were less confident. The topics were chosen of contemporary value and of youth interest to elicit interest among the students. For example, an article in French was posted that discussed India being the largest users of text messaging.

The data for the study collected showed that out of the 60 students in the class, only 25 registered onto the blog, and out of these only ten students participated. Only two students were able to blog actively, meaning they responded to the teacher’s posts, created their own posts, and reacted to each other’s posts. The analysis showed that it was the same set of students that posted regularly. The posts also showed that never exceeded two lines and were sometimes done in English. Only two out of the ten made an attempt in writing in French.

The participation in the blog varied during the start of the publishing. The frequency of these posts became more and more scarce during the first week to ten days, and after a month, had very low activity. After the three month mark into the blog, a majority of the students stopped posting altogether.

The results from Badrinathan’s (2013) study showed that the study had failed to prove that blogs have the potential to develop autonomous learning. One of the main factors for the low participation was that the blog was outside of the curriculum and was in no way factored in as a grade. This of course goes against the idea that blogging will lead to learner autonomy. The study also concluded with the idea that a change in learners’ attitudes along with the right learning environment could promote learner autonomy. First, by taking this into account, this current paper will then have to show and...
provide strategies that can be helpful for teachers to promote true user autonomy (without the benefit of grades) with web blogs.

The study carried out by Wach (2012) aimed at investigating out-of-class use of CMC and how participants evaluated themselves as autonomous learners of English. A total of 201 participants who were adult advanced English learners took part in the study. A majority of the students were Polish (N=195) and six others were of different nationalities that were all majoring in English within the first three years of their BA program. The study took place in Adam Mickiewicz University located in Poznań, Poland. The students were broken into two groups for the study. Group A consisted of 149 regular students and Group B had 52 part-time students. Group A were full-time students and studying was their main job, while Group B attended classes on Saturday and Sunday every second week and worked during the other remaining days of the week. It was then assumed pre-study that Group B, due to other engagements such as full-time jobs and family duties that they would be unable to have adequate time for academic activity and engaging in CMC.

One of the data collection tools used for the study was Questionnaire 1, which consisted of 6 closed-ended questions to find out the participants’ Internet use habits, and 16 open-ended Likert items that focused on autonomy-related issues that corresponded with the participant’s agreement. Another collection tool was Questionnaire 2, which consisted of two open-ended cues: “Do you consider yourself an autonomous learner of English?” and “If/When you take part in computer-mediated communication (through e-mails, instant messaging, blogging etc.) in English, do you do it just for pleasure or social reason, or do you ever intentionally plan to improve your English through CMC?” (p. 375).

The results showed that for Questionnaire 1, Group A’s account of using different CMC forms in English were over 20% of Internet use with social networking sites (SNS), emails, wikis, chats, and instant messaging. With Group B, there was much less English use with a high of ~7% using email and Skype, followed by wikis, instant messaging and chats.

With Questionnaire 2, the open-ended questions found that participants in both Group A and B had positive signs of self-autonomous behavior and perceptions. More than 40% from both groups stated that they deliberately took part in CMC in order to improve their English, <75% looked up new vocabulary words, <76% paid attention to language forms, <55% practiced reading skills, and <45% practiced their listening skills through CMC.

The data collected by Wach (2012) showed that using various CMCs can help promote autonomy amount L2s. By using this study, two items could prove beneficial to help guide this current paper. First, the results of Questionnaire 1 showed that blogging was one of the lowest used CMC items among both groups, but did not go into detail of why this type of CMC was not really used by the students. One of the positives about the data showing for blogs was that they were around the same percentage of user participation in both the L1 and L2. The reason for the low use of blogs by the students might be due to the factor of time and effort in finding and creating enjoyable blogs. This goes back to this study’s research question of what can teachers do promote web blogging for autonomous learning. Second, is that Questionnaire 2 was used to help be aware of the participants’ perceptions in the use of CMCs. Adapting questions like the ones found in Questionnaire 2 could help answer why blogs are looked at positively or negatively for language learning.

The study performed by Lee (2011) explored how using the affordances of asynchronous CMC (blogs) and face-to-face (FTF) interaction through interviews with native speakers (L1s) supports autonomous learning due to the reflective and social processes. The participants in the study consisted of 16 American students from two study abroad programs in Spain. The task of the study was to provide these students with increased opportunities to explore the target language (Spanish) and interact with L1s outside of class.

The project consisted of three blog tasks that all the students must complete throughout different periods in the semester: personal blogs, a class blog, and a project blog using both free and teacher-assigned topics. Each blog was used a progressive task that would help the students build towards a final blog project. With their personal blogs, the students had to keep a diary and write reflective observations about various aspects of the Spanish culture and compare the differences to their own culture. The class blog consisted of weekly assignments on readings, cultural activities and/or interviews. Students then post a 200-word post of their observations, propose questions, and respond to other student’s posts. For the project blog, the students had to read articles, analyze the reading and interviews, and then write about their observations. A post-reflective paper/questionnaire and survey were then given to the students to see if there were different aspects of learner autonomy used in the writing. The blog project accounted for 60% of the course syllabus and therefore accounted for a huge part of the students grades.

The results of the survey showed that the overall project created conditions that support learner autonomy. Through daily posting on their web blog, students...
viewed themselves as being self-managed and problem solvers. Furthermore, more than 70% of the students felt that the blogs were positive tools to help engage in the process of self-reflection and helped them understand, generate, and analyze cross-cultural differences and similarities.

In relation to this current paper, it must be pointed out that the students in Lee's (2011) study created the web blogs that collectively counted for 60% of the students overall grade. This would surely be a major factor that affects the students’ motivation and attitude in carrying out the task. A more interesting question then becomes how much participation would there be in the personal and class blogs if grades were a non-factor in the task. This then goes back to the research question proposed at the start of this paper, if web blogging can foster autonomous learning.

In Kang, Bonk and Kim's (2011) case study of Korean students in Seoul, they found that blogs offer a means for the user to experience a shift in power that is out of the classroom environment by the sharing of information and knowledge. By posting and sharing their own personalized blog spaces, the students were able to build an identity that was gained from the authorship of their posts. Blogs provided an opportunity for students to have a place for self-presentation, thus promoting an autonomous environment for them to freely use.

The results of the study were gathered from a survey that showed that 78% of the students felt more motivated to create their own blog. In question 7, it had contributed to their learning because they had felt more motivated to posting and presenting in the class encouraged other students to become active in their own blogs. What was also interesting that was concluded from the results were that the blogs can be used as an empowering tool that takes advantage of incorporating other Web 2.0 tools (i.e. YouTube) to help aid the production process of language. This means that because blogs are multi-dimensional and that using other tools can possibly help aid in autonomous language using.

The study from Kang et al. (2011) shows that using blogs not only can provide personal output from the user, but also a way of engaging with others in an indirect way. This opens the possibility to become more proactive within the blogging environment. With these Korean students, it shows that there are opportunities for community building and creating a self-identity when blogging.

Lastly, there are some areas that were not addressed. First, is how the results would be if the class-size was different. This might then affect the overall participation in the blogs. Second, the blogs were blending with the classroom curriculum and had an effect on the students’ course. It would be interesting to see what would happen if the conditions were not in relation to the course material. And third, the students in the study were Korean graduate students who were not familiar with blogs. It would be interesting to see what would then happen with Korean young learners.

The study carried out by Ballén (2014) focused on the students’ autonomous decisions during the use of web blogs. The subjects in the study consisted of 20 students from the National University of Columbia (located in the city of Medellin) to participate in the project.

The procedure was set up as a series of technology based activities that corresponded with the developmental project called Weblog: Studying Abroad. The projects goal was to create a blog and publishing information about one country where the students would like to study, choosing a university, and learning how to apply for the scholarship. In total there were 6 different tasks that the students were asked to accomplish that would lead to a final presentation of the blog they have designed.

The results of the study were gathered from a survey that showed the general feelings of the students and the project. What the results found was that first, 85% of the students found in creating and posting on the blog a memorable tool. The second question found that 65% of the students expressed that the overall series of tasks had contributed to their learning because they had felt motivated to create their own blog. In question 7, it showed that 78% of the students felt more motivated to
learn because of the freedom that was afforded to them in creation and content. Overall, the students were aware and demonstrated a clear understanding of their freedom to make decisions.

The conclusions showed that there can be positive attitudes that can be gained with blogging. This can lead to what Ballén (2014) calls the “starting point in their understanding of the wider concept of autonomy”, which can help in answering the second research question that this current article is trying to answer (p. 22). One of the aspects from the tasks that were performed from the students was the presentation of the blogs they created. This can be seen as a way of motivating students in the classroom may create more opportunities for participation.

Hsu and Lin (2007) were able to create a model [Fig.1] involving the acceptance of technology, knowledge, and social influences. They focused their study on what actually motivates people to participate in blog activities. To find out they had to survey 212 blog participants (127 males and 85 females) after using different types of blogs. What they found was that the ease of use and enjoyment, and knowledge sharing were related to the positive attitudes (78%) towards blogging.

By breaking down the model, there can be further insight gained into how blogs (and other technologies) are perceived. With technology acceptance factors Hsu and Lin (2007) explained that perceived usefulness, ease of use, and enjoyment will affect the positivity of the users’ attitudes toward blog participation, while attitude will affect the users’ intentions in participation. And in the knowledge sharing and social factors, it shows that altruism, expected reciprocal benefit, reputation, trust, expected relationships, social norms, and community identification can positively affect users’ intention to participate in blogs.

By using this model, it can help guide the proposed research questions by examining the aspects that influence blog use. The factors closely relate back to how motivation and the formation of identity can aid in the process of blogging by shifting the users’ attitudes. This model then can help gain the steps needed towards user autonomy with students outside the classroom.

3 The Future

The two questions that were proposed at the start of this paper were: 1) How can teachers promote student participation in web blogging among young learners? and 2) Will web blogging foster autonomous learning among young students? Having looked at the studies performed by Badrinathan (2013), Wach (2012), Lee (2011), Kang et al. (2011), Ballén (2014), and Hsu and Lin (2007) shows that if blogs, assuming they are under the right conditions, can promote different levels of autonomous L2 use.

The problem is that with language learning covering various types of ages and language proficiency levels, not many studies have been done with younger Korean L2 users. Therefore, looking at the gathered studies will help set the research conditions that will see if blogs can promote autonomous learning with young language learners in Korea. But for this to be conceivable, an
action-plan will need to be created to see how teachers can get the students to participate regularly and become regular autonomous users outside the classroom.

By creating a task driven and free action-research plan just like in Badrinathan’s (2013) study, we can examine if using non-blended class activities will affect younger learner’s participation habits in the blog. The outcome may depend on how much freedom is given to what the students are able to post. It was shown from the results of the study that just giving students complete freedom at the start led to extremely low levels of participation. An adjustment would need to be made in order to guide the students at the start of the blog posts and slowly give them more opportunities to post freer topics.

The use of questionnaires that was provided in Wach’s (2012) study can be adapted to preview the habits of the students with technology use. Post blog surveys can also help view how students perceive the blogs and what factors are prohibiting and/or promoting participation. Questionnaires 1 and 2 will also be utilized to see how individual groups of students are doing and how they are reacting to the blogs during the study.

In Lee’s (2011) study, it showed the greater potentials of how blogs can be used and leads into autonomous use. But an issue that must be pointed out is that in her study, grades were a major factor that forced motivation out of the students. By throwing the grading aspect out of the blogging task and seeing what ways participation can be gained, the idea of true autonomous use can be realized.

Using what was found with Kang et al. (2011) and Ballén (2014), it showed that at the end of each blogging course a majority of the students enjoyed participating in using the blog. One key factor that can be taken from the task is that the students were able to present what they have posted in their blogs, thus reinforcing their motivation for posting more meaningful content. The recreation of this with younger learners may produce a more positive outcome in how they use, perceive, and find self-motivation.

Lastly, Hsu and Lin’s (2007) model of technology acceptance, knowledge sharing, and social influence factors can help to guide answer the two research questions proposed in this paper. By following the model, certain conditions and freedoms can be afforded for the students. If all three factors of technology, knowledge, and social are reached, then that will affect the attitudes toward using and intent to blog.

References:


Research on Activity Theory: Exploring How Other Researchers Explain and Apply the Activity Theory

Yeonhee Sung
Sociolinguistics in Language Teaching

1. Introduction

In this paper, the activity theory will be explored through reviewing other research. Since the activity theory has evolved through three generations of research, the review parts of this paper will focus on the third generation of activity theory especially on Engestrom's expanded triangle (Engestrom, 1999) which is currently the most commonly used representation of the action in an activity system. Before reviewing Engestrom's expanded triangle, I will briefly introduce the historical background of the activity theory including the first generation of Vygotsky's triangle with the idea of mediation and the second generation of Leont’ev’s attempts on the activity theory. According to Swain, Kinnear, and Steinman (2010), activity theory was created through the collaboration of Lev S. Vygotsky and one of his colleagues, A.N. Leont’ev, went on to further develop the theory. As the first generation of the activity theory, Vygotsky attempted to theorize the dynamic interaction of the individual and the social practices. Vygotsky began with the idea of mediation and structured a simple triangle (Figure 1) to represent his reconceptualization of stimulus and response (Swain et al., 2010).

The idea of mediation was crystallized in Vygotsky’s (1978, p. 40) famous triangular model in which the conditioned direct connection between stimulus (S) and response (R) was transcended by a complex mediated act (Figure 1, A). Vygotsky’s idea of cultural mediation of actions was expressed as the triad of subject, object, and mediating artifact (Figure 1, B). However, there was limitation in the first generation that the unit of analysis remained individually focused. In order to overcome the limitation, Leont’ev, the second generation, defined activity as a socially and culturally meaningful activity and he identified three layers of an activity which were motive, action, and conditions in order to make Vygotsky’s attempt more explicit. Then the third generation of activity (Figure 2) turned the focus on complex interrelations between the individual subject and his or her community.

The structure of a human activity system (Engestrom, 1987) represented individual and group actions embedded in a collective activity system. According to Engestrom (2001), the object of this human activity system was depicted with the help of an oval indicating that object-oriented actions were always characterized...
explicitly or implicitly by ambiguity, surprise, interpretation, sense making, and potential for change.

Based on the basic knowledge of the activity theory as described above, I want to learn further about Engestrom’s human activity system in depth through reviewing other research in terms of why other researchers used this activity system and how this activity system was applied and analyzed in accordance with each element of the activity system. Since the elements of Engestrom’s human activity system are too complicated for me to understand, each element is explained by matching with specific examples in each interaction of other research illustrated in the following review section. The ultimate reason why I wanted to study the activity theory focusing especially on Engestrom’s human activity system was that his expanded triangle containing all of interactive elements (i.e., agents and their histories, individual and social contexts, mediational means, goals) seemed to provide a way of understanding complex and dynamic situations and interactions in any activities that could occur everyday and everywhere. His expanded triangle also made visible complex relationship between the individual and the collective so that I hope I enable to apply this activity system to my own teaching and learning situation (i.e., classroom conversation, learning tasks, or planning curriculums) in order to help me deal with such tensions and paradoxes that can occur in teaching and learning environments.

In the following sections this paper will review other research which used Engestrom’s third-generation activity theory as an analytical lens to interpret particular activities. The review section consists of three main parts: why the activity theory is applied, explanation of Engestrom’s activity system with specific examples by determining the components of the activity system to see how it is applied, and its own implication of each research. This paper then revisits what aspects of the activity system I intend to explore and the reason why it is important for me personally and for language learning at the same time with specific ideas that I derive from reviewing other research. Finally, this paper briefly states future plans containing what other aspects of the activity theory I want (need) to further explore.

2. Review

Kuutti (1996) proposed the activity theory as a potential framework for human computer interaction (HCI) research because information-processing cognitive psychology as a mainstream framework for HCI has been gaining criticism during recent years due to serious problems in applying it both in research and practical design. There was also recognition that features of cooperation, communication and coordination were often vital in the successful performing of tasks. Thus, HCI research has sought practical relevance rather than restricting itself only to the study of individual acts. This paper has made a hypothesis that the problems and debates within HCI research were due to a change or enlargement of the research object of HCI from one level to another. "The nature of this change is obviously a movement between the "conceptual" and "work process" levels: conceptually oriented "cognitive" HCI research is criticized in the debate because it does not take "work process" aspects properly into account" (p. 21). In order to deal with this problem which entails complexity, HCI research was searching a new framework and theory.

As the new framework theory for HCI, the activity systemic model (ASM) which was based on the conceptualization by Engestrom (1987) was presented in this paper and explained that all of its elements have a relationship to other elements. The relationship between subject and object is mediated by tools, the relationship between subject and community is mediated by rules, and the relationship between object and community is mediated by the division of labor. Kuutti (1996) illustrated that three elements which are a tool, rules, and division of labor should be understood rather broadly.

To be specific, "a tool can be anything which is used in the trasformation process, including both material tools and tools for thinking" (Kuutti, 1996, p. 25). As for the division of labor, it "refers to the explicit and implicit organization of a community as related to the trasformation process of the object into the outcome" (Kuutti, 1996, p. 25).

Kuutti (1996) explained the ASM with some examples. One of the examples was a software team programming a system for a client. To match this activity in accordance with the elements of ASM, the object was the system which should be transformed into a delivered, bug-free application and the community was the team sharing the object. There was a certain division of labor between manager and his or her subordinates, between software developers and user representatives, and between the team members. The rules might be explicit
but part of them was implicit. The explicit rules were set by laws, parent organization, or team manager and the implicit rule was as a part of the general working culture which developed locally during working together. A different set of tools were used in the transformation process in which were analysis methods, computers, programming tools, walkthroughs, rules of thumb, etc.

This paper indicated that the elements of ASM has significant implication because each of the mediating terms is historically formed and open to further development. Kuutti (1996) showed this implication with those tools which were used in a software team programming a system for a client. The collection of these tools has a history that it was a result of a process of accumulation and rejection at both company and the team, and additions and deletions to it might happen during the project.

Prenkert (2006) also used the activity systems model (Engestrom, 1987), which this model of human activity depicts the constituent elements and their relations in terms of an activity system and it is what this paper has referred to as an activity systems model, as a systematic tool to analyze paradox in organizational practice of the business firm Pallet Co. In this paper, “paradox was seen as the simultaneous presence of opposites in which was contradictions amongst elements in organizational practice” (Prenkert, 2006, p. 472). The purpose of this paper was to identify the locus and consequences of paradox in the organizational practice of Pallet Co. which can be concretely and systematically identified and analyzed via the activity systems model (ASM). Thus, Prenkert indicated that the paradox in organized activity would eventually lead into change, such as rearrangement of the element of organized activity, and the replacement of one or many of those elements. This means the ASM was applied as a systematic tool to address the problem and challenge facing managers and analysts of paradoxical organizational practice. In order to help managers and researchers to deal with a paradoxical organizational practice in a systematic way, this paper attempted to provide a solid theoretical base and to show the managerial and analytical potential of the ASM.

Prenkert (2006) investigated the organized practice of Pallet Co. through a longitudinal multiple case study approach. Semi-structured qualitative in-depth interviews were conducted with managers of seven business organizations and additional observations were documented in writing. The transcribed documents were analyzed using a software tool, “Analysis Readiness Review” (ARR). This was a procedure developed to identify the relevant ASM and contradictions from the data. The findings resulting from using the ARR categorized according to the elements of ASM which were subject, object/outcome, community, instruments, rules and division of labor. To describe each element briefly, the subject of the activity was identified as the business firm, Pallet Co. The central object was identified as the warehouse storage equipment that Pallet Co. offers their customers and the outcome of the activity was money. The community was identified as the network of the others in the industry such as important customers, suppliers, bank agents, industry specialists, partners, and etc. A number of instruments were identified in which were the internet, the information system of Pallet Co., the employees with their skills and experiences, money, and knowledge. The rules were identified as the atmosphere of the industry sector in which was characterized as a mix between cooperation and competition. Finally, the division of labor was identified as Pallet Co.’s identity in the industry sector in which Pallet Co. was positioned in the sector as a wholesaler and was as such dependent on its suppliers for the physical products that it offers.

Since the main goal of this analysis was to identify the locus and consequences of paradox in the organizational practice of Pallet Co. via the ASM, this paper identified contradictions within the constituent elements of the ASM (Engestrom, 1987). Several contradictions manifested on the web store such as the utilization of the internet did not work for both transaction-oriented and relationship-oriented interactions, there was a great deal of resistance to use the internet for people in the industry sector to perform their activities, and there was an inconsistency between the use of the internet and Pallet Co. occupying an intermediary position in the industry sector.

In another study, Engestrom (2000) introduced cultural-historical activity theory which is increasingly oriented toward the study of work and technologies as such a framework. He employed this activity theory for work redesign in the multi-organizational field of children’s medical care in the Helsinki area of Finland through a longitudinal study. The main goal of this study was to offer possibilities for expansive developmental transformations in the medical care from identifying internally emerging contradictions in constant movement in the activity system.

To analyze the constant movement, Engestrom (2000) used a model of the human activity system (Engestrom 1987) which explains with the same form of triangles of the activity system model (ASM) that contains a subject, object(s), instruments, rules, a community, and division of labor. Actions of one junior hospital physician in the children’s medical care were taken to be observed for the analysis. Four distinctive actions of the physician were observed within 10 minutes in which were 1) reading medical records and test results; 2) examining and
Yeonghee Sung

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity Theory elements</th>
<th>Physical Classroom (PC)</th>
<th>Virtual Classroom (VC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>Teach students</td>
<td>Teach students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediating tools</td>
<td>• Eye contact</td>
<td>• Voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Body language</td>
<td>• Email</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Visual cues</td>
<td>• Text messaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Facial expressions</td>
<td>• Textbooks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Physical hand raising (Physical tools)</td>
<td>• Electronic whiteboard slides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Blackboard</td>
<td>• Scanner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Chalk</td>
<td>• Software</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Textbooks</td>
<td>• Virtual hand raising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>• Department of Education prescribed curriculum</td>
<td>• Department of Education prescribed curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Rules such as ‘no talking’</td>
<td>• No rules about talking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students seated in rows visually facing the teacher</td>
<td>• Students face a computer screen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Informal planning</td>
<td>• Formal planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Public conversation</td>
<td>• Private and public conversations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Physical presence</td>
<td>• Anonymity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Length of school day corresponds to periods of synchronous physical co-presence</td>
<td>• Length of school day corresponds to periods of virtual synchronous or asynchronous co-presence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>• Teachers</td>
<td>• Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Students</td>
<td>• Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Parents</td>
<td>• Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Centralized physical classroom</td>
<td>• Distributed classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Centralized school community</td>
<td>• Distributed school community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Centralized organization</td>
<td>• Distributed organization (CDLI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Centralized geographic community</td>
<td>• Distributed virtual community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Division of labor</td>
<td>• Department of Education</td>
<td>• Department of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• One school district</td>
<td>• CDLI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• One community</td>
<td>• Five school districts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• One school</td>
<td>• 100 schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• One principal</td>
<td>• 100 communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Teachers within school</td>
<td>• 100 school principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• CDLI principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• M-Teams (group of teachers mentors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>27. 5 e-teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Synthesis of the elements of activity systems of the PC and VC (Murphy & Manzanares, 2008, p. 1066).

diagnosing a patient; 3) making a phone call to invite a specialist into the scene; and 4) deliberating and making a decision concerning the next steps of the patient. This paper presented these four actions through the model of the human activity system so that there were four figures of triangles to explain each action. The physician’s (as a subject) first action of reading medical records and test results (as an object) was mediated with his explicit and experiential medical knowledge to image his task as an outcome of this action. However, the bottom part of the first action (rules, community, and division of labor) was left empty because these elements were not made visible and articulated by the participants in this particular action. In the second action of examining and diagnosing, the object shifted from documents to the patient and his father. The outcome was a preliminary assessment of the patient’s condition and this outcome was mediated using a stethoscope and questions to the father about the child’s symptoms. Another important mediating factor in this action was the division of labor between the physician and the nurse (the nurse was assisting the physician in the examination). Thus, the physician and the nurse were the visible community of the medical care center. In the third action of making a phone call to invite a specialist into the scene, the object shifted again to the lung specialist of the medical center.
This action of the physician was known to deviate from the standard action that he did this because he had seen a box in the patient's medical chart, titled 'Care agreement' with the name of the lung specialist who was in charge of the patient. This paper found out this reason through an immediate interview with the physician. Thus, the information of 'Care agreement' and the telephone mediated the physician's action. Finally, in the fourth action of deliberating and making a decision concerning the next steps of the patient, the subject shifted to the lung specialist and the action resembled the second action but this was mediated by the specialist's deeper and longer-term knowledge of the patient and medical condition.

Since the main goal of this study was to offer possibilities for expansive developmental transformations in the medical care, Engestrom (2000) emphasized the disturbances which were considered as deviations from standard actions. Engestrom explained that the disturbances indicated developmentally significant systemic contradictions and change potentials within the activity. In other words, ‘while the object and motive give actions coherence and continuity, by virtue of being internally contradictory, they also keep the activity system in constant instability’ (p. 964).

In a different study in an educational situation, Murphy and Manzanares (2008) used a third-generation activity theory perspective as a framework to gain insight into the contradictions between the activity systems of the physical (face-to-face) and virtual high school classroom from the perspective of teachers who had transitioned from one system (e.g., physical high school) to the other (e.g., virtual high school). The authors’ objective in this study was to identify and characterize the contradictions and to evaluate how they may lead to potential innovation in the practice of the e-teachers.

This study focused on web-based distance education in virtual high school classrooms in the Canadian province of Newfoundland and Labrador. Thirteen out of 27.5 e-teachers employed by the Center for Distance Learning and Innovation (CDLI) from approximately 100 schools across the province volunteered to participate in this study as well as seven management personnel. All of the volunteer e-teachers had between 11 and 33 years of prior teaching experience in physical classrooms. Data collection was conducted through semi-structured interviews with all of the participants. The interview questions were guided and framed by activity theory. Through the data analysis of the interviews, Murphy and Manzanares (2008) presented their findings with a synthesis of the elements related to the two systems. The following table shows the intersecting activity systems of the virtual classroom (VC) and the physical classroom (PC) in which were analyzed based on Engestrom's (1987) third-generation activity theory as a framework or lens. The activity system consists of interacting components of subject, object, rules, community, division of labor and mediating tools.

As presented in Table 1, the intersecting activity systems of the PC and VC share some commonalities (e.g., voice-based communication as a mediating tool, the object of activity, the communities of teachers, students, and teachers, and so on) and differences (e.g., lack of physical co-presence and lack of symbolic tools such as body language and facial expression in the VC) at the same time. However, since the objective of this study was to identify the contradictions for leading to potential innovation in the practice of the e-teachers, the data analysis for the contradictions between the PC and VC yielded four sub-categories which were time and workload, visual cues, interaction and rapport building, and use of direct messaging and email. To be more specific on these identified contradictions, in the VC, instructional design is formal thus preparation is more time-consuming and teachers have more workload. The absence of visual cues (such as facial expressions and body language) in the VC means that e-teachers cannot know if students understand. Moreover, e-teachers cannot typically interact physically or face-to-face with students so that it is very limited for personal interactions and rapport building. Lastly, everybody including shy students can text the e-teacher questions privately because nobody else knows what has been discussed.

Since the main goal of this study was to identify and characterize the contradictions and to evaluate how these may lead to potential innovation in the practice of the e-teachers in the VC, the authors of this study defined contradictions as "historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity system" (Engestrom, 2001, as cited in Murphy & Manzanares, 2008, p. 1070) and they manifest themselves as "problem, ruptures, breakdowns, clashes" (Kuutti, 1996, as cited in Murphy & Manzanares, 2008, p. 1070). Moreover, contradictions ‘generate disturbances and conflicts, but also innovative attempts to change the activity’ (Kuutti, 1996, as cited in Murphy & Manzanares, 2008, p. 1070). The authors also determined that the e-teachers may need opportunities to consciously develop techniques and strategies to work through the contradictions that arise as they move from one activity system to another. They may benefit from opportunities to develop new skills, techniques and strategies that can help them make best use of text messaging to support student learning. Likewise, they may benefit from changes in policies or procedures that take into consideration increasing workload demands resulting from the use of mediating tools in order to lead those identified contradictions to potential innovation in the practice of the e-teachers.
In another context of contrasting between the college and the workplace, Williams, Wake, and Boreham (2001) drew on activity theory to assist in understanding the position of the student in both the college and the workplace. The authors of this study have used ideas of work process knowledge together with activity theory in which they drew on the object of activity, the mediating instruments, and division of labor conceptions of workplace systems in contrasting them with college systems. In this study, Williams et al. illustrated such analysis with reference to one case study set in an industrial chemistry laboratory to highlight some features of some differences in particular mathematical practices relating to graphical interpretation in the two situations of the college and workplace. The aim of this study was to identify the knowledge gap of mathematical practices between the college and workplace and ultimately to help informed practical solutions to it.

Williams et al. (2001) investigated how one college student in the North West of England coped with making sense of chemistry experiments in a workplace laboratory to which she was attached on a week's work-place-ment. The student was in her advanced level courses in mathematics and chemistry in the college context. The authors carried out this study through interviews with workers and their managers in an industrial chemistry laboratory in order to identify what mathematical demands might be needed for the college student. To familiarize themselves with the mathematics, the authors met students and teachers in their college course through field visits and discussions. Through the data collection, the authors found that college graphing activities most often involved drawing a range of polynomials and other standard functions or reading particular values such as zeros and turning values. The graphical output in the chemistry laboratory, on the other hand, was read by the expert with a very specific set of conventions and was interpreted in complex contexts. These conventions were transparent to the expert but not to the student because the expert was well placed to understand the context of the experiment through his or her past practice.

In order to solve this contradiction, Williams et al. (2001) applied Engestrom's activity system to the learning of graphicy in college with this question: Why are the conventions of the college mathematics course different from the conventions of mathematical activity in the industrial chemical laboratory? The application was presented as follows in figure 3.

Through the application of the activity system, Williams et al. (2001) could understand how the student has learned and practiced mathematics with the purpose of graphs in the mathematics curriculum. The authors have stated that the industrial chemistry laboratory operates in a different social context so that it has a different activity system which organized to achieve a different object. They interpreted that although graphs were used in both college and industry, the meanings are different in the two settings. They explained a graph using the concepts of type-meaning (its meaning is the same in all contexts) and token-meaning (meaning derived from the context of the use which possesses indexical meaning) that the graph has both a type-meaning and token-meanings. As a type, a visual means of presenting relations defined on Cartesian product sets for example. A token, however, is one physical use of a graph in a particular context. Therefore, the college activity system is organized around the object of delivering the curriculum and ensuring that the student passes an examination. Thus, graphing might acquire a special meaning in that context such as testing understanding of functions. These meanings might be inconsistent with the indexical meanings acquired by the tokens in the industrial setting. By understanding the object of the activity system and how the employees organize their activity to achieve that object, the student will be constructing work process knowledge.

As the implication and the conclusion of this study, the Williams et al. (2001) has noted that the identification of contradictions between 'working mathematics' and 'schooling mathematics' provided them a critique of the latter. The school curriculum emphasizes the type meanings of mathematics which are universal. However, the way the curriculum is implemented seems not to facilitate the ability of students to easily make sense of the indexical meanings which arise when the same mathematics is used in new context. Thus, the authors determined that the curriculum of college mathematics should be developed to promote the skills required by students to explore mathematical conventions in a range of situations.

According to the authors, constructivist approaches to learning are different from those of traditional instruction so classical methods of needs and task analysis are inappropriate for designing CLEs. To state a bit more on CLEs in a brief way, they consist of five interdependent components which are a problem-project space, related cases, information resources, cognitive tools, and conversation and collaboration tools. The authors explained that through these components of CLEs, learners are able to make their activities more meaningful and examine prior experiences and relate them to the current problem. They can also help learners perform tasks by providing essential information resources and support collaboration among communities of learners. The authors of this study argued that activity theory provides an appropriate framework for analyzing needs, tasks, and outcomes for designing CLEs because activity theory is a socio-cultural, socio-historical lens that enables designers to analyze human activity systems. According to the authors, activity theory also focuses on the interaction of human activity and consciousness within its relevant environmental context. Since conscious learning emerges from activity (e.g., performance), the authors asserted that CLEs should attempt to replicate the activity structures, tools and sign systems, socio-cultural rules, and community expectations that performers must accommodate while acting on some object of learning.

Jonassen and Rohrer-Murphy (1999) used the instructional design process to exemplify Engestrom’s activity theory which examines what goals and intentions are, what objects or products result from an activity, the rules and norms that circumscribe that activity, and the larger community in which the activity occurs. They illustrated that if the goal of the activity were “solving a skill-knowledge problem by designing, developing, implementing, and evaluating instruction” (Jonassen and Rohrer-Murphy, 1999, p. 63), the subject would be the individuals and work groups that would be formed in the organization to fulfill goals (e.g., efficient instruction) through the activity of instructional design and development. According to Jonassen and Rohrer-Murphy (1999), “That activity would consist of numerous actions such as conducting assessment, performing task analysis, and designing instructional interactions” (p. 64). The authors have pointed out that although the object of the activity would be efficient instruction,” the form and function of that object is likely to be modified as the activity unfolds” (p. 64). The tools consist of the physical apparatus such as computers or telephones and employed methods like as synthetic thinking or problem solving. For the community, people who share the same social meaning such as designers within the organization, subject matter experts, designers within professional associations, and customers would be included in the community. The community uses some rules such as signs, symbols, tools, models, and methods in order to mediate the process to achieve their goals. The division of labor refers to individual members of professional associations within the community. For instance, designers, developers, or producers. Finally, the outcome would be developed and implemented through the form of instruction. Jonassen and Rohrer-Murphy (1999) concluded with their own implication of applying activity theory that it has provided a different lens for analyzing learning processes and outcomes for the purpose of designing instruction. Rather than focusing on knowledge states, it focused on the activities in which people are engaged, the nature of the tools they use in those activities, the social and contextual relationships among the collaborators, the goals and intentions, and the objects or outcomes of those activities. The authors emphasized that knowledge is socially constructed based on the intentionality, history, culture, and tool mediation used in the process.

3. What I learned and the Future

What I have intended to learn from reviewing other research was that I wanted to learn more about Engestrom’s human activity system in terms of why other researchers used this activity system and how this activity system was applied and analyzed by determining each components of the activity system. The reason why I wanted to study the activity theory focusing especially on Engestrom’s human activity system was that his expanded triangle seemed to provide a way of understanding complex and dynamic situations including my private relationships as well as classroom interactions through the visible triangular model of Engestrom. I have hoped to apply the activity system to my own teaching and learning situations to understand any tensions and paradoxes that could occur in teaching and learning. In order to make this happen, it was essential to understand the concept of each element of Engestrom’s human activity system (i.e., subject, object, outcome, instruments, rules, community, and division of labor). This was why I have focused on the elements of Engestrom’s human activity system by matching with specific examples when reviewing the research described above in the review section.

Through reviewing other research which used Engestrom’s activity system as a framework for analyzing certain activities, I could finally find answers to what I intended to learn from that research. The reasons why other researchers as described above used this activity system were to solve serious problems in applying other theories (i.e., human computer interaction in the case) both in research and practical design, to analyze paradox in organizational practice of the business firm, and to redesign and offer possibilities for expansive
developmental transformations in the medical care field. I could also find similar reasons why Engeström's third-generation activity theory perspective was used in educational situations from the latter three studies. It was applied to identify contradictions between the activity systems of the physical (face-to-face) and virtual high classroom from the perspective of teachers, to examine the knowledge gap of mathematical practices between the college and workplace, and to design constructivist learning environments. Each of the researchers have applied the activity system as a systematic tool to analyze such practices by providing concrete examples. The examples which were presented by matching the action with each element of Engeström's activity system helped me understand how such activities or practices could be analyzed as a framework for studying different forms of human practices as development processes for both individual and social levels at the same time.

The achievement that I have learned from other research should have significant implications for my personal purpose as well as for language teaching and learning. Personally, I think I could apply the activity system of Engeström as an analytical tool to interpret my own situations such as relationships with others and any interactions in certain practices from my point of view as well as others' in order for a broad understanding of myself and others including relevant circumstances at the same time. Moreover, such an analysis of personal, social practices, or educational situations through the activity system would identify contradictions and these contradictions would eventually lead to an emergent new analysis in the way of rearrangement or replacement of the elements of the practices in which could be a process of changing and developing to serve my own purposes. The activity system also would be useful and flexible for the analysis of language teaching and learning. I think I could use this activity system as the development processes for my own language learning as well as for language teaching to help my students. For instance, I could support my students by providing possible artifacts and mediations including me as a mediating role to achieve their object with specific outcomes. Before doing this, I have learned that I should make attempts to understand the recent situation of the students including their historical analysis for further development.

From this time forward if the opportunity arises, I would like to conduct my own research applying the activity system of Engeström as an analytical tool to analyze and understand my own students in EFL context. On the basis of the knowledge that I have achieved from this paper, I want to make attempts to use the knowledge onto the practical analysis in order to figure out that I am really capable to do so and further, to make a better understanding of my students and to promote progress in their language learning. By doing this, I hope I am also able to find the tensions and contradictions that can occur within the learning activity in order to capture possible change and potential learning for my students.

References
Using Self-Assessment in Elementary School L2 Classrooms: A Literature Review

Krystle Harkness
Principles of Language Teaching

1. Introduction
In recent years English has been implemented as a mandatory foreign or second language subject for elementary school students in countries throughout the world. South Korea is no exception to this trend. Since 1997, English has been a mandatory subject for elementary school students starting from the third grade. However, the implementation of this policy has resulted in many difficulties for teachers and students. One of those difficulties is that of assessment. Teachers, schools and governments have struggled to find effective means of assessing such young students, largely because there is a lack of research in the area of assessing the foreign language capabilities of young learners (Rea-Dickens, 2001). Additionally, often assessment such as formal testing puts a great deal of pressure on young students and can cause them a lot of stress. Additionally, negative scores can have negative effects on self-esteem, which can be particularly harmful to the learners’ future L2 development given young children’s sensitivity to failure (Cameron, 2001; Hasselgren, 2000). Furthermore, in the past, pen and paper type language assessments have focused primarily on sentence level grammar knowledge, which is in contrast to recent school and governmental policies calling for a focus on developing students’ communicative language competence in the L2 as opposed to detailed sentence level grammar knowledge. As a result many governments, including the South Korean government, have begun to promote alternative forms of assessment for young learners that are authentic and representative of the actual classroom learning which is going on (Butler & Lee, 2006). Some examples of these alternative forms of assessment include performance assessment, interviews, observations, portfolio assessment, peer-assessment and self-assessment. However, researchers have cited several problems with alternative assessments including practicality difficulties in large classrooms with many students, high costs, validity, and reliability issues and difficulties that assessors experience in scoring these assessments (Butler & Lee, 2006).

In line with the promotion of communicative competence and communicative language teaching, a growing school of research has recently promoted moving away from a teacher-centered classroom towards a learner-centered environment (Dickinson, 1987). Learners in these types of classrooms have more control over their learning, more autonomy and also have been found to have greater self-efficacy (Bandura, 1984). This has also been the case in language teaching, as communicative language teaching has moved language instruction away from the traditional teacher centered approach towards one where students’ communicative abilities are at the front and center of the class. Despite several potential drawbacks, self-assessment fits well with a student centered communicative type of learning environment, and as such has been growing in popularity as well. Researchers have found there to be several potential benefits to using self-assessment, aside from the actual assessment, including increased learner awareness, increased goal orientation, increased self-awareness in learning, as well as a decreased burden on teachers in terms of assessment responsibilities (Oscarson, 1989).

2. Literature Review

2.1 What is self-assessment?
Self-assessment is a process whereby students are able to evaluate and make judgments about their own learning outcomes (Boud & Falchicov, 1989). Self-assessment is part of the larger group of assessments known as alternative assessments (Weisi & Karimi, 2013). Alternative
assessments, including self-assessment, have the key characteristic that evaluation is carried out in the context of the classroom, thus assessing the strengths and weaknesses of what students actually do in the class (Brown & Hudson, 1998). Weisi and Karimi (2013) also state that among the range of alternative assessments available for use in language education self-assessment is one which is especially student centered and can potentially allow for the maximization of learning. There are two key elements of self-assessments, the first of which is that it is criterion referenced (Yoon & Lee, 2013). Since it is criterion referenced the evaluation criteria needs to be clear and understandable to students in order for them to accurately assess themselves. The second facet of self-assessment is that the students must familiarize themselves with the appropriate benchmarks of quality work and gain the ability to make judgments regarding the level of the quality of the work they are assessing (Shepard, 2000). However, while on the surface self-assessment may be seen as just another assessment tool for evaluating students’ language abilities, it actually has another very important learning-related element. By assessing their own performance and giving themselves feedback, students can take more responsibility for their own learning and they are able to become more familiar with what constitutes quality work (Shepard, 2000). This can help students to identify their own strengths and weakness so that they can see where to focus in the future or be in a better position to ask a teacher for appropriate help. However, along with the positive effects of self-assessments there are also several problems with its use that have been reported in the literature. According to Weisi and Karimi (2013) concerns about reliability and validity, erroneous student judgments, student bias and students perceptions about teacher-learner roles are among the major drawbacks of self-assessment.

2.2 Why Use Self-Assessment?

Self-assessment, as a method of authentic assessment, has been gaining popularity and getting a lot of interest in the field of second language teaching recently because of its unique power to advance learning. It has been postulated that this type of assessment can help students gain confidence and a sense of mastery over different parts of the language (Oscarson, 1989).

There are several theories that have attempted to explain why self-assessment can have positive effects on language learners and language learning. Metacognition is a theory that underpins many of the learning related roots of self-assessment (Weisi & Karimi, 2013). Metacognition has been defined as a person’s ability to be aware of and to be able to monitor one’s own individual process of learning (Garret, Alman, Gardner & Born, 2007). Some metacognitive processes include goal setting, self-monitoring and self-evaluation (Zimmerman, 1990). Students who engage in these metacognitive processes tend to be more aware, knowledgeable and successful in their learning endeavors. Self-assessment is seen by many as one avenue to assist students in engaging in metacognition. Furthermore, similar to metacognition, the theory of self-regulated learning states that self-regulated learners take greater responsibility for their learning and also achieve better success than learners who do not exhibit this behavior (Zimmerman, 1990). Self-regulated learners are active participants in their own learning who proactively look for the information that they want and/or need and take the responsibility for their own successes or failures. Additionally, and most importantly in the discussion of self-assessment, studies of self-regulated learners have shown that they are very conscious of their own abilities and have an extremely accurate and realistic awareness of what they can and cannot do (Zimmerman, 1990).

Along the same line, Oscarson (1989) postulated that the training of students in and the completion of self-assessments makes students more aware of their own learning and allows them to focus more on the learning process than just the final product or outcome of the class. Additionally, Oscarson (1989) also proposed that the metacognitive skills of goal setting and goal orientation both have the potential to improve with the use of self-assessment. Similar to the actions of self-regulated learners, he claimed that students’ increased awareness of their own learning situation puts them in a better position to see the possibilities of language learning and, in turn, set more practical and reasonable goals.

According to McMillian and Hearn (2008), self-assessment can also have substantial effects on student motivation. By applying constructivist theories, which state that learners construct knowledge actively by linking it with pre-existing knowledge, they proposed that self-assessments might allow students to make connections amongst pre-existing knowledge and learn in a more meaningful way (McMillian & Hearn, 2008; Slater & Bremner, 2007). They postulate that the learners increased level of meaning can, in turn, lead to increased motivation on the part of the student. This hypothesis of self-assessments effecting learner motivation was supported in a study by Black and Wiliam (1998), who found a positive relationship between formative forms of assessment, such as self-assessment, and increased student motivation and their academic achievement.

Self-assessment has also been linked to the theory of self-efficacy, which is an individual’s perception of their ability to effectively complete tasks (Bandura, 1986; Baleighzageh & Masoun, 2013). This has been hypothesized to have a strong effect on language learning, which can either obstruct or encourage success in learning.
languages. Baleghizageh and Masoun (2013) found that doing self-assessments increased the self-efficacy in female adult students and thus they proposed that there might be strong pedagogical value in self-assessment. Confidence has been closely linked to self-efficacy and in this light Baleghizageh and Masoun's findings were supported by Butler and Lee (2010), who found that students who completed self-assessments reported to have more confidence than those who did not. Furthermore, this study also found that those students who participated in self-assessments increased their English proficiency more than those who did not.

Butler and Lee's findings were supported by Yoon and Lee (2013) who also found that elementary school students who completed self-assessments became more confident in managing their English studies. They also found that low and intermediate proficiency level learners there saw positive growth in their English skills. However, on the contrary, they found that for high proficiency learners neither of these positive effects were well observed. Similar results amongst high and low proficiency elementary aged learners were also found by Butler and Lee (2010). However, a study of high school learners by McDonald and Boud (2003) found that all of the participants showed better academic performance after training and participation in self-assessments.

Furthermore, in his 1989 paper, Oscarson, stated that learners can retain the positive effects of self-evaluation in their future learning experiences. He believes that once students have gained the skills required for autonomous learning they will carry those foreword and those skills will continue to assist the student to improve their language skills in the future.

Amongst the four sub skills in English language learning, researchers have successfully used self-assessment in all of them. The most success has been seen with the receptive sub-skills. Aryadoust (2012) found that students participating in a study to investigate self-assessments in listening gained better awareness of their actual listening skills while completing accurate assessments at the same time. Similar results were found with regard to reading. Researchers have found that using self-assessment can have benefits in terms of reading enjoyment, recall and also was shown to be rather accurate in assessing reading comprehension abilities (Brantmeier & Vanderplank, 2008).

In the case of the productive sub-skills, both positive and negative results have been found. Some researchers investigating the use of self-assessment in speaking and academic writing initially found that students consistently underestimated themselves (Cunningham, 2010; Ariafar & Fatemipour, 2013). However, as the studies progressed, these researchers found that as the students gained more experience using self-assessment they were more able to assess their abilities at an accurate level. Additionally, these studies reported positive student perceptions towards using self-assessment. Participants in Ariafar and Fatemipour's study (2013) additionally reported that they would like to continue to use self-assessment in the future after the course had finished. Meanwhile, similar results were found in listening research where Cunningham (2010) found that students who participated in self-assessment increased their own awareness of their speaking abilities. Additionally, Brantmeier, Vanderplank and Strube (2011) also found that students had positive impressions of self-assessments, and showed that self-assessment can be used effectively across the sub-skills providing that the assessment was criterion-referenced, detailed and closely adhered to course objectives.

2.3 Validity Concerns of Self-Assessment

As an assessment tool, self-assessment has faced several criticisms. Since self-assessment can be quite subjective, several researchers have questioned the validity and reliability of this particular evaluation tool (Aschbacher, 1991; Ross, 2006).

It has been postulated that factors such as age, proficiency level, personality and attitude could affect the results of a self-assessment (Butler & Lee, 2006). In response to this there have been many studies, which have attempted to study the validity within self-assessment. Using various test scores, final grades and teachers' evaluations, researchers have looked for correlations with the self-assessment ratings to establish validity with mixed results.

Peirce, Swan and Hart (1993) found that self-assessments in French immersion programs that were targeted to specific tasks were generally more strongly correlated than holistic, decontextualized forms of self-assessment which did not show strong correlations. This result was supported by a study by Butler and Lee (2006) in EFL students in Korea who found that self-assessments, which had a concrete context, produced more valid results. Their study used two types of self-assessments, on task and off task. The on task assessment had more specific contexts, for example “I could pronounce the English words that the teacher taught us in class today” (Butler & Lee, 2006, p. 517) versus the off task question “I can pronounce words well in class” (Butler & Lee, 2006, p. 517). Their findings showed that assessments with less concrete context were more subject to other personal influences such as age, attitude and personality. Several other studies have also found that criterion-referenced self-assessments appear to be valid particularly in regard to high-intermediate and advanced learners (Brantmeier, Vanderplank & Stobe, 2012; Brantmeier &
Some researchers looked into the role of response-effects and found that less experienced learners tend to overestimate their abilities (Heilnenman, 1990). This result was echoed in a large study conducted about self-assessments in general. That study found that individuals with lower metacognitive skills tended to over-estimate their abilities while experienced learners tended to underestimate their skills in comparison to their counterparts (Kruger & Dunning, 2009). However, this same study also found that after receiving training to improve metacognitive skills, all learners were able to perform better on their self-assessments.

Additionally, McDonald and Boud (2003) found that students who were trained in completing self-assessments through feedback and instruction produced more accurate evaluations than those who did not. This sentiment was echoed by Alfally (2004), who stressed the importance of feedback to students completing self-assessments. Additionally, this study found that motivation was another factor in the validity of self-assessment. Students with higher self-esteem and more motivation tended to produce more accurate self-evaluations than those with lower self-esteem or those who were lacking in motivation. McMILLian and Hearn (2008) also stressed that student motivation was an important factor effecting student’s abilities to complete precise self-evaluations.

Another personal factor that researchers have found to influence self-assessment results was how learners personally understand and respond to items on the self-assessment. This can especially be an issue with low-proficiency learners who do the self-assessment in their L2 instead of their L1. Their lack of understanding of the contents of the assessment and their variable responses can lead to low validity in their assessments (Heilnenman, 1990).

Furthermore, the particular skill being assessed may also be a factor in the validity of the assessment. For example, Ross (1998) analyzed several validation studies and found that assessments of receptive skills including listening and reading produced more accurate results than those self-assessments that measured the productive skills of speaking and writing.

2.4 Reliability Concerns in Self-Assessment

In addition to researchers questioning the validity of self-assessment, there have also been serious questions raised regarding the reliability of it as well. To investigate this researchers have looked at several different ways of measuring reliability including the internal consistency, consistency throughout different tasks and consistency over varying periods of time and have found mixed results (Ross, 2006).

Several studies have looked at internal consistency in self-assessments and have found positive results, including a few notable studies in children (Ross, 2006). One study of fifth and sixth grade students found that they were able to consistently rate themselves with a measured internal consistency of 0.91 (Ross, Rolheiser & Hogaboam-Gray, 2002). Another study of fourth, fifth and sixth graders found similar results, reporting an internal consistency of 0.84 (Ross, Rolheiser & Hogaboam-Gray, 1999). Both of these studies found positive results in terms of the internal consistency of the self-evaluations.

In English language teaching, self-assessment has been used to evaluate a multitude of different tasks and skills. When used in the sub-skill of listening several researchers conducted several studies and have found self-assessment to be a reliable indicator of student’s ability in this particular receptive sub skill (Aryadoust, 2012; Dragemark, 2006). Alderson (2005) postulated that one reason for this was that when self-assessments of a particular sub skill are broken down into much smaller sub-skills, students are able to assess themselves more reliably. Bachman and Palmer (1989) measured self-assessment in relation to the assessment of communicative language ability, which included measuring grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competences. They found high reliability particularity in assessing grammatical and sociolinguistic competencies. Brantmeier, Vanderplank and Strube (2012) noticed that reading is a sub skill which enjoyed particular valid results, while speaking, writing and vocabulary self-assessments showed mixed results which increased somewhat as learners gained training and experience.

While many of the previous studies reported had positive findings related to reliability, one area of concern is that of measuring the reliably of self-assessments across time periods (Ross, 2006). Several studies have found that longer periods of time between the task and the self-assessment tends to result in a lack of agreement and lack of reliability, especially when involving children (Blatchford, 1997; Sung, Chang, Chiou & Hou, 2005). Thus if teachers are considering using self-assessments, they should consider using short time frames in order to reflect reliability concerns. Finally, Gardner (2000) found that another area of concern in reliability is that of who prepares the assessment. He found that compared to teacher prepared self-assessments, student prepared assessments had quite low reliability.

Results of reliability and validity tests show several factors that teachers should take note of when considering self-assessment. First of all, self-assessment seems to be better suited to listening and reading sub skills amongst...
novice self-assessors. For use with productive sub skills, more experienced learners may be more successful, however more research needs to be done in this area. Additionally, it is important for learners to be well trained in self-assessments in order for them to assess reliably and with validity. Finally, educators should consider that detailed breakdown of skills and abilities will greatly help a students' ability to make judgments about themselves.

2.5 Techniques for using self-assessment

As self-assessment has increased in popularity, many different forms of self-assessment have been created and used by language learners. These range from simple evaluations that can be done with a few tools of equipment to more technologically advanced assessments involving computers or other equipment.

First of all, one of the most common methods of self-assessment is a questionnaire or rating scale that focuses the student evaluating their performance on an assignment or in a lesson (Finch, 2004). This type of assessment is highly reflective and can be adapted for different tasks and also with careful adaptation can be used appropriately to assess all of the different sub-skills. Generally, in this type of assessment the learner will find the level that they believe that they are at and circle or check the box. Researchers have found that these types of assessments can be particularly effective for motivating students if statements are worded in a positive way, but if worded negatively students seemed to evaluate themselves poorly (Butler & Lee, 2008). Also, a greater level of detail in this type of self-assessment can help to aid student’s judgment making ability and thus the reliability of the assessment (Alderson, 2005).

Another example of a simple type of self-assessment is a diary or logbook (Oscarson, 1989). In this assessment learners can make notes about their learning experiences, their thoughts, as well as difficulties and successes on a regular basis. These logs can also include notes or letters to the teacher, which could allow the teacher to get deeper insight into the students’ strengths and weaknesses and adjust their lessons and teaching to better suit learners (Finch, 2004). Researchers have suggested that in order to maximize the usefulness of this type of assessment, several different types of data should be included such as the date, textbook page, student thoughts on their own performance, difficulties encountered and student plans or goals to overcome these difficulties in the future (Oscarson, 1989). Scharer (1983) observed that the use of logbooks can have both positive and negative effects. His study found that logbooks allow the teacher to monitor students closely and they also acted as a self-study aid. However, on the negative side he found that student completions of logbooks also required a lot of assistance from the teacher and were difficult and discouraging for lower level students, especially for those with low level writing skills.

Finch (2004) and Oscarson (1983) both have expressed support for the use of audio and video recordings as a method of self-assessment. Finch suggests that students can orally express their feelings about their learning experiences into an audio recorder, while Oscarson suggested using video recordings because they can provide a good, clear picture of students’ learning progress. Using these types of assessment can have clear benefits to the students as they can go back and review their progress, in real time, at any time, however they are not effective for students who are especially shy or have low speaking abilities.

Furthermore, self-assessment can be integrated along with another form of alternative assessment, portfolios (O’Malley & Pierce, 1996). In this case self-assessment can take three different forms; documentation, comparison and integration. In the case of documentation, students should provide the rationalization that they used for including pieces in their portfolio. In comparison, students need to compare different pieces of work look for improvements. Finally, for integration they need to use the portfolio to show their strengths and improvements. By using portfolios along with these three forms of self-assessments learners are assisted in mastering their L2 skills (O’Malley & Pierce, 1996).

2.6 Self-assessment in young learners

Currently there is a large body of research on self-assessments in adult learners and a much smaller one involving young learners specifically. Since young learners display specific characteristics including short attention spans, a need for playing, fun and using imagination, and a more detrimental reaction to failure activities and assessments should be looked at separately from adults (Hasselgreen, 2000). Fortunately recently, several researchers have completed studies that looked specifically at using self-assessment in elementary aged language learners. Some researchers have suggested that young learners are not developed enough cognitively to effectively complete their own self-assessments (Nagy, 1993). This was partially corroborated by Butler and Lee (2006) who found that sixth grade students’ self-assessments showed stronger correlations with test scores than fourth grade students. However, they did find that with appropriate context given in the assessment the fourth grade students were also able to complete self-assessments in relation to specific tasks. Another study by Paris and Newman (1990) found that children seven years and younger were generally too optimistic and were not able to honestly reflect on their work or self-regulate but that children aged eight to twelve
had increased abilities to do this. Theories of cognitive development presented by Piaget, social-cognitive development by Vygotsky and of social development by Erikson suggest that many developmental and cognitive changes happen to children throughout the elementary years (Slater & Bremner, 2007). Thus, these theories could help to explain why slightly older students could perform better than fourth graders and could also give some insight about how to tailor self-assessment to meet the needs of younger learners.

In a study of elementary aged Japanese language learners in American Elementary schools, Donato et al (2000) found several promising results that they hoped would be applicable to English language students as well. In this study grade four and five students showed that they could consistently self-assess themselves with ratings similar to their performances from other testing measures. In general they found that students who had more positive feelings towards their studies rated their abilities higher and also scored higher on other tests. This important result shows that children's attitudes toward language learning can have a huge impact on their language learning potential. Thus, it is important that assessments, including self-assessments, focus on identifying young learners strengths and not their weaknesses (Back, 2013). In this regard, Butler and Lee (2010) found that self-assessments had the affect of promoting positive attitudes towards English language learning amongst some sixth grade students.

However, an important concern with young learners is whether or not the self-assessment is completed in a social setting. If students complete the self-assessment amongst peers they may view it as a social activity rather than a personal one (Butler & Lee, 2006). As children can be quite susceptible to peer pressure and social blending this has the potential to have a strong impact on the students’ ability to make an accurate self-assessment.

Dann (2002) presented one of the most comprehensive case studies of the implementation of self-assessment in a language arts program at an Elementary school in America. This study offered several important considerations for teachers and administrators looking to move forward with self-assessment. First, she found that self-assessments should become part of the classroom routine in order for them to become more successful. Next, young students need appropriate practice and training in order to fully understand how to complete the assessment and the criteria with which they must use. Also, teachers need to understand the thinking processes that students go through in order to arrive at their judgments and assist them as needed to close the gap between the students’ judgments and their own. Finally, teachers need to make sure that there is a clear link between self-assessments and future learning. This is in agreement with several studies that I have mentioned in older learners, which highlighted the need for student training and contextual assessments (AlFally, 2003; McDonald & Boud, 2003).

2.7 Self-assessment in Korean elementary schools

The 7th national curriculum for English language education in Korean elementary schools highlights that teaching should focus on increasing learner's intrinsic motivation (Park, 2013). For this reason it suggests that learners should be assessed alternatively. Traditional testing puts more pressure on young learners and they may feel more intimidated than adult learners causing them to underperform (Brown, 2001). This can create negative wash back effects on their attitudes towards their English studies. However, in Korea and other countries with Confucian backgrounds alternative assessments may not be accepted by parents and teachers because of the belief that formal tests have a greater ability to deliver accuracy (Back, 2013). Nevertheless, several studies have found that assessing children through alternative based assessments produced positive effects on their attitudes toward learning English (Butler & Lee, 2010; Choi, 1999; Donato et al 2000; Yoon & Lee, 2013). Another concern for those teaching English in the Korean context is the heterogeneous nature of students in elementary school classrooms and the wide gap between children who are considered English rich and English poor (Butler & Lee, 2010; Yoon & Lee, 2013). Assessing students of high and low English proficiency in the same classroom is a big challenge and of utmost concern for English teachers. Yoon and Lee (2013) found that using self-assessments presents an opportunity for teachers to more effectively evaluate students in mixed level classrooms. However, their study also found that for very high proficiency learners this might not be effective. Butler and Lee (2010) found a similar problem while testing self-assessment in an affluent area where the majority of students had high English proficiency. They found that students and parents thought that the English classes offered at elementary schools were too easy and offered little value. Thus, in this particular school the results of the self-assessments were not positive.

The three studies that took place within Korean elementary school classrooms did find several other positive effects as well. Butler and Lee (2006) found that elementary school students could accurately assess their abilities in a stress free way providing the assessments are well understood and have context. Yoon and Lee (2013) found that self-assessments could help students improve their metacognitive skills and become more responsible.
for taking initiative and managing their own learning. Finally, Butler and Lee (2010) found that Korean children had greater academic performance and confidence as a result of doing self-evaluation. However, contrary to governmental wishes they did not find that self-assessment increased intrinsic motivation or decreased anxiety.

3. Conclusion

This paper looked at several positive and negative issues involved in the use of self-assessment in the English language classroom. First of all, the theories associated with self-assessment, including meta-cognition, self-regulation, motivation and self-efficacy, and how they may work reciprocally and positively with self-assessment. Later, some of the validity and reliability concerns associated with self-assessment were addressed. The research showed that there are quite a lot of things, which can affect the validity, and reliability of these assessments. Some factors that can increase the validity and reliability of self-assessments include assessing specific tasks, using context and criterion referencing in the assessment, motivation, the assessment of receptive skills and most importantly training the learners. Research has shown that lack of context, problems understanding the assessment, lack of training, the time period over which the assessments are completed and assessing the productive skills can all decrease the accuracy, in terms of validity and reliability of self-assessments.

This review also noted several advantages of using self-assessments. These types of assessments can reduce teacher burden, and increase both student confidence and self-efficacy. Additionally, self-assessments have the potential to increase student motivation for learning and lead to greater skill development in language. Self-assessments can also be used for assessing young learners. However, it is important to consider the students developmental stage as children of different ages have different abilities to accurately assess themselves. Additionally, with young learners it is important that assessment points out strengths and not weaknesses and are part of a regular classroom routine.

Finally, this paper found that there is great potential for using self-assessments in the Korean elementary school English classrooms. It is a good tool for evaluating classes of mixed levels and it is also a new and innovative way for teachers to motivate young learners to take responsibility for their own learning and develop their English skills.

In conclusion, this literature review has found strong support along with some drawbacks to using self-assessment. It is important for teachers to consider all of this information when choosing to design and implement self-assessments in the language classroom.

References


Enhancing Students’ Speaking Ability through Cooperative Group Work

Sukja Lee
Practicum

1. Introduction

1.1 Reflections on the class atmosphere before interventions

Before I started my interventions, I carefully observed my class through a video I made and noticed some problems. My classroom was quiet and teacher-centered rather than learner-centered. The classroom arrangement was a teacher-preferred one where all students sat facing the teacher. This arrangement was effective for delivering my lecture, but it hindered students’ cooperative interaction in the class. As Kagan (1989) has described, the most common structure I used to use in my class was a competitive structure called Whole-Class Question-Answer. I would ask questions to the class, and some volunteers among my students would answer the questions and receive praise.

Teacher-student interaction was occurring in this way, but not as much student-student interaction which is also essential to learning a second language. Most activities that I used in my classroom involved practicing and memorizing patterns, which students would do mainly on their own. In addition, group activities that I did implement during lessons were designed to encourage competition between groups and pairs rather than foster cooperative work among the students. As a result, many students would not want a low-level classmate to be one of their group members while doing group activities. This tendency would discourage the low-level students from participating in English class altogether. Therefore, some changes were needed in order to increase collaborative learning in my classroom.

1.2. General information about the class and textbook

Currently I am teaching sixth grade English at an elementary school located in a suburb of the City of Goyang. I meet my students three times a week. I am co-teaching with a Canadian native English speaker during that time as well.

The textbook we are using is published by Daegyo, and it is designed according to the standards of the national curriculum. The book, covered over the course of the academic year, is comprised of 16 units, each of which containing five individual class lessons. The first and second lessons of each unit focus mainly on improving students’ listening and speaking skills. The third lesson is centered on reading and the fourth has emphasis on writing. In the fifth class, we complete activities related to all four skills and take a test on the unit language studied. After two units have been completed, we have a storytelling class. We prefer to use authentic storybooks in this lesson instead of relying only on the short stories found in the textbook, which we find are often uninteresting to the students and too childish.

At our elementary school, one class consists of approximately 30 students. The class for my action research has 15 boys and 15 girls. I divided them into eight small groups to facilitate cooperative learning strategies.

1.3 Background information on the students

1.3.1 Students’ Needs Analysis

According to the needs analysis survey given prior to the intervention period, 43% of my students only started learning English in the third grade. This means they did not have any previous experience learning English before they entered school. However, more than 75% of my students are presently studying English outside of the elementary school classroom. The majority learn extracurricular English in a private academy (hagwon), yet none of my students practice with a native speaker. This may indicate that their learning is focused explicitly on grammar and vocabulary memorization, due to the methods often employed by some Korean teachers.
of English. The tendency that I have observed among these learners is that they lack confidence in their speaking skill.

Fortunately, the survey indicated that almost 90% of my students like English class at the school and want to improve their speaking ability. This might also be helped by the presence of a native English teacher in the classroom, to whom they are eager to talk in English. The students also expressed a preference for working in groups instead of working by themselves. Instead of doing competitive activities, however, the cooperative group work in these interventions is designed to motivate everyone in the class regardless of their level of English.

1.3.2 Students’ Diagnostic Assessment

The diagnostic assessment was conducted to evaluate students’ speaking and listening proficiency. According to the assessment results (see Section 4.2 and Appendices B and C), 11 out of 30 (36.7%) students have the English ability to complete a simple conversation on the phone, while seven students (23%) were entirely unable to begin the task. The rest of the students (41%) are able to sustain simple conversation but not capable of using complete sentences. Many of them can only apply task-relevant words in context, and communicate in English only at a base vocabulary level.

A listening test for students’ understanding of common-use classroom English was carried out following the speaking assessment. The listening diagnostic assessment showed that more than 20% of my students overestimated their listening proficiency, as when tested it was found that seven out of 30 (23%) students understood less than 50% of the everyday classroom English used. This indicates that I need to be more careful when I explain lesson content in English, and when my native co-teacher is explaining and giving instructions I need to check more carefully to see if the students really understand what he is saying.

2. Research Question

How can I use cooperative group work to enhance students’ speaking ability?

3. Intervention

3.1 Rationale

Communicative language teaching tries to develop language proficiency through meaningful interactions by emphasizing on learning to communicate through the target language (Nunan, 1991). According to Nunan, the introduction of authentic texts to the learning situation is essential to implement communicative language teaching. My students’ overall English proficiency is not high enough to make natural conversation. They can simply follow a controlled structure. When they master the controlled target expressions, only then will they be able to talk freely in a real context. Thus, I will try to encourage my students to use the target form of language as much as possible while doing specially-designed cooperative group work. Kagan (1989) has labeled various cooperative learning structures, such as Round Table, Pair Check, Think-Pair-Share, Jigsaw, Information Gap, and Three-Step Interview. Kagan (1989) suggests that “the efficient design of a lesson involves using a variety of structures, each chosen for the goals it best accomplishes” (p.15). Therefore, my interventions should employ a variety of the cooperative learning structures mentioned.

3.2 Intervention for Action Research

Based on the above students’ needs analysis and diagnostic assessment findings, I would like to implement cooperative learning strategies to better meet their specific needs in my class, in particular their speaking ability and application of English fundamentals through cooperative group work. Vygotsky (2012) developed the notion of a “zone of proximal development,” which is the difference between a child’s capacity to solve problems on his or her own, and the capacity to solve them with help from parents, teachers, adults, or peers. The zone of proximal development includes all activities that students can perform only with the assistance of someone else.

In my classroom, students who have already mastered a particular function can help their lower-level peers in a type of scaffolding process during group work. Paired activities or group activities will allow students to help each other and practice using what they have learned with one another. As Vygotsky (2012) also posits, social interaction plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development. Social interaction will improve the language-learning environment, and real learning will take place in the zone of proximal development inside the classroom. This interaction between group members will enhance students’ speaking abilities collectively, and allow them to acquire and improve communicative competence through meaningful group work.

3.3 Intervention plan

During lessons students were often given opportunities to work in small groups or with a partner. According to Hill and Flynn (2006), working in small groups and with a partner can be “a powerful tool for fostering language acquisition” (p.55). Nunan (2000) also mentioned that “research has shown that learners use considerably
more language, and exploit a greater range of language functions when working in small groups” (p. 51). Small group work enables participants to hear language from each other. Therefore, it might help to make students feel more comfortable and relaxed and possibly reduce the anxiety related to attempting the target language (Hill & Flynn, 2006).

The table below shows what types of group work will be utilized in my class to improve students’ communicative competence through cooperative learning. These cooperative learning structures were adopted from Kagan (1989), and arranged according to the appropriateness to the syllabus of my class.

3.4 The process of the interventions

3.4.1 Week 1 & 3 Interventions: Round Table (Mad Libs)

Kagan (1989) calls one of the cooperative learning structures Round Table. In Round Table, each student has a turn contributing information to his or her group in some way, like writing down an answer as a piece of paper and pencil are passed around to each member. Before the first intervention, students’ classroom workspaces were arranged into groups of four to enable ideal conditions for cooperative group work. I was unfamiliar with the new seating arrangement at first, and thus unsure how effective it was going to be, but students immediately appeared to react positively to the change.

In the first and third interventions, I mainly tried to combine speaking and writing. According to Kagan (1989), Round Table can be used for brainstorming, reviewing, or practicing while also serving as a team builder. I used Round Table in doing group writing, asking students to take turns writing one answer on their group’s piece of paper and then passing the paper and pencil clockwise to the next person.

The main cooperative learning activity I used for Round Table was Mad Libs. Mad Libs type activities are fun ways to encourage students to write, especially for young learners who love to read and create their own funny and absurd stories. As the students were composing these silly stories themselves, they had a lot of fun completing the activity. In order to finish the task it was necessary for the students to help each other, and afterward they were eager to share their work with other friends and present it in groups to the class.

After finishing the first lesson, an intervention survey was conducted (See Table 1). According to the survey, 86% of the students said the Mad Libs activity was interesting and that they participated a lot during group work. If students like the activity, they tend to learn the related language more effectively. In addition, they use the language with peers of various levels of English through a fun group activity. Consequently, 65% of the students answered that they tried to speak in English while doing the group work and that they felt they could say the target expressions confidently after the activity. Unfortunately there were still a few students who could not form the key expressions even after the lesson had been completed.

Two weeks after, I implemented the same cooperative learning structure using a similar activity. The reason I used a similar activity is that I wanted something that was really efficient for improving my students’ speaking confidence and boosting their motivation towards learning English. Moreover, in order to accomplish the goal laid out by the interventions, at least two trials were needed in order to examine whether or not any improvement had taken place.

In the previous intervention, students did the Mad Libs writing activity in groups of four. However, the second time I made students do the activity as individual work. Each student completed a party invitation through the
Mad Libs exercise by choosing from words displayed on a series of powerpoint slides. We had a greater variety of samples of fun writing from the individual Mad Libs, but naturally there was less opportunity for the students to work with their peers. Therefore, it was fun but not an efficient intervention for enhancing students’ speaking ability through cooperative learning. In the second trial of Round Table, I obtained a similar result to the previous trial, noting only a slight difference. There were a few students whose preference for the activity decreased. Nevertheless, their participation and use of target language during the activity was not minimized (see Table 1).

3.4.2 Week 2 & 5 Interventions: Think-Pair-Share (Matching Game)

After the first week, I was becoming more used to the new seating arrangement, but the noisier class that resulted from it would bother me at times when I was trying to teach. This lesson was the first part of a new unit, and therefore more time was required to introduce new words and key unit expressions. I tried to reduce the time allotted for explaining new lesson words, and instead increased the amount of time spent practicing key language in pairs and playing a matching game using key expressions.

In the Listen and Repeat section of the textbook, I asked students to practice the unit language in pairs. They would rehearse the lesson dialogue together, then switch roles and go through it once more. It took extra time to do that, but it was efficient for learning the key lesson expressions. In addition, the matching game was good for the students to reinforce the key expressions learned. When students played the matching game, two group members would form a team and help one another.

As for the second intervention, I applied the Think-Pair-Share strategy which incorporates crucial aspects of cooperative learning. Students were able to rehearse responses mentally and verbally, and everyone had a chance to talk. They all had adequate opportunities to become involved in the group activity, and teachers were able to move around the classroom freely to supervise and help those who needed it.

After finishing the class, another intervention survey was conducted. According to this survey, over 80% of the students agreed that the matching game was interesting and that they participated a lot during group work. In addition, over 85% of my students answered that they tried to use the target language while doing the group activity (see Table 1). Thus, through the cooperative group activity they had attained the confidence to say the key expressions in English. Students’ survey results also showed that they preferred the matching game to Mad Libs.

The same structure of cooperative learning was implemented in week five. This time the students played a dice game to practice key unit language. I think a dice game is a simple and fun activity for the students to use to practice lesson language. I usually ask my students to play the dice game in pairs, but also sometimes in groups. They are eager to win the game, and as a result most participate well in the activity. One problem with the dice game, however, is that some students do not practice the key language during the game. They merely roll the die and move their game piece without doing any of the speaking the game requests. Therefore, teachers need to keep a close eye on students as they are playing this game.

To make my students practice different forms of the language, I included some symbols on the game board such as ★Because I can _____. / ♥Because we have _____. and ♥Because the weather is _______. and students had to make sentences corresponding to the symbols. This worked well in that students did not get bored from repeating the same answers, and they were exercising the key language with greater variation. The results of this survey showed similar findings to the first trial of Think-Pair-Share.

3.4.3 Week 3 & 6 Interventions: Information Gap (Battleship Game)

By this time I had become more comfortable with the alternative classroom arrangement, and could see how the new seating plan was helping my students to learn in a cooperative way. For the interventions during weeks three and six, I used an information gap type of activity with the game Battleship. Nakahama et al. (2001) argued that “conversational interactions do not provide learners with as much challenging language practice as do more highly structured interactional activities, such as information gap tasks” (p.377). Doughty & Pica (1986) noted the effectiveness of information gap types of activities in learning a second language and suggested that “a task with a requirement for information exchange is crucial to the generation of conversational modification of classroom interaction” (p.305).

The lesson for the third intervention was the last part of unit 12, and I tried to focus on enhancing students’ speaking ability along with introducing them to types of parties celebrated in different cultures. Language learning involves not just acquiring the language but also learning the culture of the target language, so I wanted to share with my students about parties that are common in western culture such as baby showers, prom parties, homecoming parties, and Thanksgiving parties.

After learning about various parties, we played a game called “Five Clues.” In each round of the game there is a mystery party, and teams try to guess what the party is
The lesson also featured Battleship as an information-gap activity, which reinforced students’ practice of the key language verbally. Throughout the game, students were required to use the target language in a cooperative way. The game was very popular among students, and they even asked if they could play it again after we had finished. The students enjoyed playing the game and the game itself was enough to make them practice the key expressions. We had never played this type of game in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Intervention</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Today’s activity was interesting.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I tried to say the key expressions in English during the activity.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can say today’s key expressions confidently.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I participated a lot during the group (pair) work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My group members participated actively during the group (pair) work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Round Table</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Students’ assessment of the activities (N=30)
any prior classes, so PowerPoint slides containing simple explanations were used to help students understand the rules and concept of the game more easily. The game was a little difficult at first for my students to understand, but eventually they were able to play it without any major problems.

Three weeks after the first trial of this, I implemented another cooperative information gap learning activity to see its effects. My students liked playing the game again and even doing the survey. They used the key language a lot and had mastered it. When I asked about the activities and how they liked them, 25 students out of 30 said that they enjoyed the activities and tried to speak in English during the game. This means that 83% of my students thought that this lesson was interesting and helpful for learning the key language (see Table 1).

4. Results

This section reports the students’ preferences on different types of cooperative learning structures, and their proficiency improvement with regards to their speaking and listening skills. It compares and analyzes qualitative and quantitative data collected in various ways; through a mini survey, the diagnostic and post listening and speaking tests, and the post survey.

4.1 The results of the mini survey

In order to investigate students’ interests in various activities and their participation in group work in each intervention, small surveys were conducted after each. The initial questionnaire was comprised of five closed-ended questions which were about the students’ thoughts on the activity, the degrees of participation in group work, and students’ confidence in using the target expressions. It was based on the assumption that if students are interested in a certain activity and participate in the group work, they will use the target language more often and become more confident in their speaking.

Table 1 shows how much students participated in each activity and how effective the activities were. As we can see in the table, the students’ perceptions of their contribution to the group (pair) work and their preferences on the activities were generally positive. Nevertheless, there were slight discrepancies between the perceptions of their group members. Overall, students felt that group activities were effective to enhance their speaking ability, as noted in Figure 1.

Figure 1 tells us that students liked the Think-Pair-Share and Information Gap activities best. My students were interested in all of the activities, but Think-Pair-Share and Information Gap types of activities were preferred to Round Table. All group activity structures were adapted to the class to enhance students’ speaking skills. When students are exposed to interesting activities they are more likely to engage in them, and their speaking skill will improve as a result. This shows the degree to which the types of activities students like is an important factor to consider when teachers design a lesson plan.

Figure 2 shows how much students tried to use the key lesson expressions in English during the activities. As seen in the above graphs, students used the key expressions most during the Information Gap activities. Students’ enjoyment of the Information Gap activities and Think-Pair-Share were almost equal, but they felt the Information Gap exercises were better suited for practicing speaking than Think-Pair-Share.

As in Figure 2, Figure 3 also shows what type of activity was most helpful for students to master key expressions. The results indicate that the Information Gap activity was the most effective type of exercise for helping the students to use the key expressions with increasing confidence.

Figure 4 indicates the degree to which students participated during the group work. The students’ participation was the greatest in the Round Table activity. This result is somewhat surprising given the data shown in Figures 1 to 3, where students felt the latter types of intervention encouraged greater participation. However, the discrepancy in results could have been caused simply by the type of task, which was writing in this case. In the Round Table activity, students completed a writing assignment in groups, whereas the other activities were speaking-based. It can be said that overall my students have more difficulty speaking than writing simple words or sentences; therefore, participation may have been greater for the easier task. In addition, all the group members helped each other when they did the writing exercise. That helped even low-level students participate in the activity more equally.

Figure 5 tells us that Information Gap encouraged the participation of the students in group work most effectively. My students’ participation was significantly higher with this type of activity. More participation will give the chance for greater improvement of their speaking ability, thus it can be concluded in this case that the Information Gap type of activity is the most effective for improving my students’ speaking as it encourages them to talk more.

4.2 The results of students’ proficiency test

In order to investigate students’ proficiency improvement, speaking and listening tests were conducted before the interventions as well as after. For the listening
Figure 1. Today's activity was interesting.

Figure 2. I tried to say the key expressions in English during the activity.

Figure 3. I can say today's key expressions confidently.

Figure 4. I practiced key expressions (participated) a lot during the group (pair) work.
test, twenty common classroom English expressions were presented verbally and students were asked to write the meaning in Korean. The same test was used for both diagnostic and posttest analysis. As for the speaking test, a one-on-one interview was conducted for both. However, the tasks for the interview were different each time. In the diagnostic speaking test, the students were asked to have a phone conversation with the teacher using proper lesson expressions, whereas they talked about their favorite season and why they like that season in the post speaking test. The results of the students’ listening and speaking tests will be shown in Table 2 and Figure 6.

Table 2 and Figure 6 show us how much students’ listening and speaking ability improved after the interventions. Diagnostic and posttest results for both speaking and listening skills were compared and the students who improved their ability after the intervention were highlighted. The results showed that 40% of my students’ speaking abilities had improved after the cooperative group work sessions and 50% of my students had the same level on their post speaking test. It is possible, however, that the test was not sensitive enough to measure slight improvement.

In addition, 23 out of 30 students attained a higher score on their listening test. After only two months my students showed what I consider to be significant improvement overall in both their speaking and listening ability. They were exposed to a lot of teacher talk in English during that period of time, and at least for the grade-level target language, their listening seems to have improved. As for their speaking ability, students practiced the key expressions a lot more regularly while doing cooperative activities during the intervention, allowing for marked improvement as a result.

4.3 The results of the post survey

In order to examine the students’ overall perceptions on their preference and its effectiveness, a post survey was conducted at the end of each intervention. For deeper investigation, both closed-ended and open-ended questions were used.

As seen in Table 2 and Figure 7, more than two thirds of the students thought their English had improved from the cooperative group activities, and almost 90% of the students answered that group work or pair work was useful for learning English. However, some of the students did not like the group work because they did not work well with their group members. Group work is a really useful activity for learning and practicing a second language, but we need to be careful when we are grouping students.

Bad grouping could harm learning more than it helps, and some students preferred pair work to group work with comments like “my partner teaches me better,” “it is easy to share ideas in pairs,” and “it’s easier to pay attention because it not noisy.” On the contrary, some students preferred working in groups of four saying, “I can work with my close friends,” “I can improve my speaking during group work,” and “It is fun to study in groups.” Obviously, not all students will feel the same way about any single arrangement, and therefore we need to consider individual personality differences when we plan group work or pair work and try as teachers to provide lessons with a healthy variety that benefits all types of learners.

Figure 8 shows what type of cooperative structures were most useful for learning, and as a result preferred. My students liked both the Information Gap activity and Think-Pair-Share relatively equally, but thought the Information Gap type of activity was most helpful for learning and practicing English.

Figure 9 shows us which skill my students thought was the most improved after cooperative learning activities. The students felt that their speaking skill had improved the most through the cooperative learning activities period. This result indicates that cooperative learning
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Diagnostic Listening Test (20 questions)</th>
<th>Post Listening Test (20 questions)</th>
<th>Diagnostic Speaking Test (A–D)</th>
<th>Post Speaking Test (A–D)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student 1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14 (↑)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7 (↑)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8 (↑)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>C (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12 (↑)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>B (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18 (↑)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>B (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 22</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19 (↑)</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 26</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11 (↑)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>B (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17 (↑)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A (↑)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20 (↑)</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student 30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Students' listening test on classroom English and speaking test (N=30)
structures are effective for improving students' speaking ability.

4.4 Observations from lesson reflections and lesson videos

In order to examine how my students acted in the class and how effective each intervention was, I watched the videos of each intervention and reviewed my lesson reflections.

4.4.1 Intervention 1

What worked? - Mad Libs was a fun way to encourage my students to write. Young learners love to see and hear stories that make them laugh, and if they are the ones writing the stories, they will have even more fun doing the activity. The stories that resulted from this activity were usually comical and rather nonsensical. In hindsight, I think it also would have been useful to ask the students to copy the funny stories into their notebooks, reinforcing use of the language in a humorous
and memorable way, as well as providing a meaningful record on which they could look back. Every year I have used this activity a couple of times. This time, however, I did this activity as team work instead of individual work. As a result, I felt that even low-level students enjoyed the activity more.

What didn't work? - I think copying stories is a good way to teach good writing habits to beginner writers, especially for ESL students. Next time I will ask my students to copy a corrected version of the story they made into their notebook.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I actively participated in the new type of cooperative group or pair work.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My group members contributed to our group work as much as I did.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Group work and/or pair work was useful for learning English.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I began to enjoy English class at my elementary school even more after cooperative group activities.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My English improved through cooperative group activities.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I learn better when working in groups or in pairs.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I like the new seating arrangements (Groups of four).</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Choose your favorite activity (activities) in English class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round table</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think-Pair-Share</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Choose the activity that you think is the most helpful for learning and practicing English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Which skill do you think improved the most after cooperative learning activities?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking(21), Writing(4), Reading(3), Listening(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Which would you prefer, group work or pair work?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circle the one you prefer?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group (19)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair work (9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 = Strongly agree  2 = Agree  3 = Neutral  4 = Disagree  5 = Strongly disagree

Table 3. Post Survey (N=30)
4.4.2 Intervention 2

What worked? - In the Listen and Repeat section, I asked students to practice the key language in pairs, and switch roles to double their rehearsal of the lesson dialogue. It took more class time to do that, but ultimately it was efficient for learning the key expressions. In addition, the matching game was an effective way for the students to reinforce their understanding of the key expressions. Also they had a lot of fun while playing the game. Young learners tend to enjoy card games, which is what I used for the matching game.

What didn’t work? - The first part of a new unit somehow always takes more time than I expect. We go over new lesson words, listen to a lengthy dialogue, ask and answer comprehension-check questions, repeat two other short dialogues, and play a game, all in 40 minutes. This is not a sufficient amount of time to complete all of these activities. Therefore, I need to consider which activities are most efficient when introducing a new unit, and what I can put aside for a better class.

4.4.3 Intervention 3

What worked? - The board game was successful. The students liked the game and it provided sufficient practice of the key expressions. In addition, it was a game familiar to the students, and there was no need to spend a lot of time explaining how to play it. Groups were divided into two teams, with each team having two group members who would cooperate as a pair in order to play the game. They helped each other when one of the members had a hard time with the lesson’s target language. I believe they practiced the key expressions enough while having fun with their friends. Board games are a fun way to get students using the target language, though I did have to be strict with some who had been given. If I want to play this game next time, I need to make it more difficult and use clues that are a little more vague in the beginning.

What didn’t work? - The five-clues game was too easy. The hints were too obvious, and most groups were able to guess the mystery party after only two or three clues had been given. If I want to play this game next time, I need to make it more difficult and use clues that are a little more vague in the beginning.

4.4.4 Intervention 4

What worked? - The battleship-style game was also a success. They wanted to play it repeatedly. The students liked the game and the game was enough to make them practice the key expressions. We had never played this type of game before, so more time was required to explain the rules and format prior to playing. PowerPoint slides with explanations and model language were used to help them understand the game rules more easily. It was a more difficult activity at first, but eventually my students played the game without any significant troubles. In addition, learning about various parties worked well, as they liked to learn about parties in other cultures such as those common in western countries.

What didn’t work? - The five-clues game was too easy. The hints were too obvious, and most groups were able to guess the mystery party after only two or three clues had been given. If I want to play this game next time, I need to make it more difficult and use clues that are a little more vague in the beginning.

4.4.5 Intervention 5

What worked? - My students play dice games often in class to practice key language. The textbook also contains several games which are adaptable to this format. I think a dice game is a simple and fun way to get my students practicing lesson language. I usually ask my students to play the dice game in pairs, but also sometimes in groups. They are eager to play and win the game, and as a result they usually participate well in the activity. One problem of the dice game, however, is that some students do not practice the key language during the game, just as when playing board games. They will just roll the die and move their game piece without speaking if they are not monitored carefully. For the intervention dice game, I included additional symbols on the game board to make my students practice a variety of forms of answers such as ★ Because I can_____. ♦ Because we have____. and ♥ Because the weather is _____. This worked well in that it kept the game from getting too repetitive and it encouraged students to practice using the target language with in various ways.

What didn’t work? - If I use this activity next time, I want to add a couple of blank spaces on the game board where students can say their own personal opinion about the seasons. This would be better than just having them say why someone might like a certain season depending on the corresponding picture on the game board. I would like students to have more practice giving their own reasons for why they like something. I should not focus so much on controlled use of the target language, and instead I need to allow more opportunities for my students, especially high-level students, to speak freely.

4.4.6 Intervention 6

What worked? - My students liked playing the battleship-style game and doing the survey at the end. They used the key language a lot during the game, enough for some to master it. When I asked if they liked this activity
and thought it was effective for their learning, an overwhelming majority agreed that it was indeed enjoyable and also useful. Furthermore, 25 of the 30 students surveyed said that they tried to speak in English during the activities.

What didn't work? - When I was walking around the class while my students were playing the game, I noticed that there were still some students who had a hard time understanding it. I thought that this activity would be easy enough for students to comprehend after the second lesson using this particular game. Therefore, I did not spend as much time in explaining the rules the second time around. As fun and beneficial as this game is, one drawback is that more class time is needed to explain the rules and concept of it to allow students to understand the game adequately.

5. Discussion

By analyzing the mini survey data collected after each intervention, I examined the students' preference of activity and their confidence in using the key expressions as well as their self-assessment of their own participation and that of their group members. Overall, students considered cooperative group activities to be more effective to enhance their speaking ability, especially the Information Gap activity where they were required to use English the most. Again, as Doughty and Pica (1986) assert, the Information Gap type of activity provides a task which requires information exchange which is crucial to the generation of conversational modification of classroom interaction.

In addition, students' enjoyment of the Information Gap activity and 'Think-Pair-Share was almost identical, though they thought the Information Gap activity was best for practicing speaking in English.. I noticed that some of my students did not practice the key expressions when they did the Think-Pair-Share activities; instead they simply moved to the next step without saying any of the target words. This type of activity can be done without speaking in English, whereas students are not able to progress through the Information Gap exercise without using the language requested for the task.

The results of the post speaking and listening tests, which were conducted to investigate the students' proficiency improvement, indicate that more than 30% of my students' speaking ability had improved after the intervention of cooperative group work. In addition, more than 75% of students showed improvement on their post listening test. A two-month intervention period was not a very long time for showing that kind of improvement, but my students demonstrated significant increases in both their speaking and listening ability. The reason for the improvement of their listening ability could also be the product of extended exposure time to English instruction. I mainly used English when I taught, and did a lot of code-mixing and code-switching. Lee (2010) indicates that code switching is necessary when the situation requires the use of mother tongue or the first language in the classroom. Whenever my students looked puzzled from the English instruction I switched into Korean. This is because the main purpose of teaching English is to enable learners to learn and acquire the language. I guess those techniques also helped my students' listening ability.

Post survey results indicate that cooperative group activities were effective for learning English by showing that more than two thirds of the students thought their English had improved through the cooperative group activities. In addition, 90% of the students answered that group work and pair work were helpful for learning English. Moreover, my students answered that their speaking skill had improved the most from the cooperative learning activities. This result indicates that cooperative learning structures are efficient for improving students' speaking ability. Ko (2008) demonstrated that students are able to aid one another in various ways during small group work, such as correction, negotiation moves, and lexical assistance. My students helped each other in improving their speaking and listening ability while doing cooperative group activities.

6. Conclusions and implications

The findings of the present action research suggest that the use of cooperative group work in learning English enhances students' speaking ability overall. Also, the Information Gap type of cooperative learning activity was the most effective for students' speaking improvement and encouraged the most active participation. Students do not like playing the same simple game every time when learning new language. They want to do something challenging while learning English. The Information Gap type of activity demands more of students, and makes them feel as if they are accomplishing more in turn.

Another important finding from this study is that most students genuinely like to learn in groups and they think group work can help them improve their learning. As Hill and Flynn (2006) suggest, the cooperative group activity might have helped students feel more comfortable and relaxed and possibly have reduced the anxiety related to attempting the target language. Each student cooperated in the group work to enhance their learning. The group work was helpful to the low-level students as they received more direct help from their peers than an outnumbered teacher is able to provide.

In order to implement cooperative group work to
enhance students’ speaking ability, teachers need to be careful with their grouping strategy. When we put students in groups for the purpose of completing cooperative activities, we need to consider students’ varying preferences and proficiencies, as well as their relationship with the other students. Ideally, when students with differing levels of English are close friends it may help if they are grouped with each other provided the high-level students among them are able to take charge in a helpful role.

Finally, teachers need to emphasize the importance of good group behavior that encourages the participation of all group members working together cooperatively, and not have students discouraging each other. Teachers’ facilitation of effective grouping and teaching good group behavior will ensure that group activities run smoothly. Therefore, I want to investigate how different grouping will affect students’ learning in the next cycle of my action research.

References


Appendix A

Student Needs Survey

Background information

1. When did you start learning English?
   1) Before kindergarten   2) During kindergarten
   3) In first grade       4) In second grade    5) In third grade

2. I am learning English outside of the elementary school classroom.
   1) No               2) Yes

3. If you answered ‘yes’ to number 2, where are you learning English?
   1) private academy (hagwon)   2) private tutor (Korean teacher)
   3) private tutor (native speaker)   4) home-study (parents, online learning, or workbooks)

4. I like English class at my elementary school.
   1) strongly agree   2) agree    3) neutral    4) disagree    5) strongly disagree

Self-perceptions of English proficiency.

5. I am able to understand what the native teacher says during English class at my elementary school.
   1) strongly agree   2) agree    3) neutral    4) disagree    5) strongly disagree

6. I am able to understand the dialogues in the textbook without the teacher’s help.
   1) strongly agree   2) agree    3) neutral    4) disagree    5) strongly disagree

7. I want the Korean teacher to translate what the native teacher says into Korean.
   1) strongly agree   2) agree    3) neutral    4) disagree    5) strongly disagree

8. Choose the number which best describes your speaking skills.
   1) I can speak English fluently and express what I am thinking and feeling.
   2) I have no problem participating in speaking activities in class.
   3) I can only say the key expressions that I have learned in class.
   4) I can only speak simple word-based utterances.
   5) I hardly speak in English.
9. Choose the number which best describes your reading skills.
   1) I have no problems understanding my elementary school textbook.
   2) There are a few words in my textbook that I do not understand, but I can usually guess the meaning of these words from context.
   3) I have problems understanding my textbook because there are many words that I do not know.
   4) I only read easy, simple sentences in my English textbook.
   5) I cannot read the English textbook at all.

**Learning Style**

10. I learn better when working in groups or in pairs.
   1) strongly agree    2) agree    3) neutral    4) disagree    5) strongly disagree

11. I learn English effectively when
   1) the teacher explains in detail to the whole class.
   2) I work with classmates in groups.
   3) I work with a partner.
   4) I work alone.

12. Choose your favorite activity (activities) in English class.
   1) Listen & Repeat (drill)    2) Songs and chants (from our textbook)
   3) Role-playing    4) Games with PPT slides
   5) Pop songs    6) Board games
   7) Using storybooks

**Specific language skills.**

13. About which are you most confident when it comes to English?
   1) Listening    2) Speaking    3) Reading    4) Writing

14. About which are you least confident when it comes to English?
   1) Listening    2) Speaking    3) Reading    4) Writing

15. Which would you like to improve most when it comes to English?
   1) Listening    2) Speaking    3) Reading    4) Writing
Appendix B

Listen to the Classroom English and translate into Korean.

1. Take out our homework.
2. Did you bring your glue stick?
3. Are you finished?
4. The students on the left side will be the A team
5. You will present it in front of class.
6. Today we are going to do some role playing.
7. Who wants to volunteer?
8. Who would like to read a story?
9. Don’t forget to put your names on the test sheet.
10. Are you ready to take a test?
11. Did you do your homework?
12. Who is missing?
13. Work in pairs.
14. Open your books to page 10.
15. Everybody stand up.
16. You need to stay after class.
17. Come to the front.
18. Who is the winner?
19. Switch roles.
20. Repeat after me.
## Appendix C

### Speaking Test Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>13. What’s your favorite season?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>Students can answer the questions, ‘What’s your favorite season?’ and ‘Why do you like (season)?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials</td>
<td>Picture cards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Saying their favorite season and explaining why they like the season.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students are able to say their favorite season and explain why they like the season fluently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students are able to say their favorite season and why they like the season, but not fluently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students are able to say their favorite season but cannot explain why they like the season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students are not able to say what their favorite season is.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Remarks**
- The teacher gives students enough time to think about the picture.
- Students choose one card and the teacher asks the Objective questions.
- The teacher considers students’ fluency rather than accuracy.

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A: What’s your favorite season?</th>
<th>A: What’s your favorite season?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B: My favorite season is spring.</td>
<td>B: I like summer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: Why do you like spring?</td>
<td>A: Why do you like summer?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B: Because I can see beautiful flowers.</td>
<td>B: Because I can swim in the sea.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A: What’s your favorite season?</th>
<th>A: What’s your favorite season?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B: My favorite season is fall.</td>
<td>B: My favorite season is winter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: Why do you like fall?</td>
<td>A: Why do you like winter?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B: Because I can see red and yellow leaves.</td>
<td>B: Because we have Christmas in winter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D

Speaking Test Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>9. Who's Calling, Please?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>* Students can make an appointment by talking on the phone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materials</td>
<td>* Picture cards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>* Making an appointment using proper telephone dialogue expressions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students can make a phone call, greet, and make an appointment fluently without any big problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students can ask who they want to talk to and greet her/him, but cannot make an appointment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students can ask who they want to talk to, but cannot make an appointment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students cannot even start the phone conversation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Remarks   | * The teacher gives students enough time to make a phone dialogue. |
|           | * Students choose one card from three different situations. |
|           | * The teacher considers students’ English fluency rather than accuracy. |


Appendix E

Post Survey (English Version)

Rate the following statements on a scale of 1 to 5.
(1=Strongly agree  2= Agree  3=Neutral  4=Disagree  5= Strongly disagree)

1. I actively participated in the new type of cooperative group or pair work.
   1 2 3 4 5

2. My group members contributed to our group work as much as I did.
   1 2 3 4 5

3. Group work and/or pair work was useful for learning English.
   1 2 3 4 5

4. I began to enjoy English class at my elementary school even more after cooperative group activities.
   1 2 3 4 5

5. My English improved through cooperative group activities.
   1 2 3 4 5

6. I learn better when working in groups or in pairs.
   1 2 3 4 5

7. I liked the new seating arrangements (Groups of four).
   1 2 3 4 5

8. Choose your favorite activity (activities) in English class.

   1) Mad Libs Activity  2) Dice Game (Board game)

   3) Battleship

9. Choose the activity that you think is the most helpful for learning and practicing English.

   1) Mad Libs Activity  2) Dice Game (Board Game)

   3) Battleship Game

10. Which skill do you think improved the most after cooperative learning activities?

    1) Listening  2) Speaking  3) Reading  4) Writing

11. Which would you prefer, group work or pair work? Circle the one you prefer.

    Group work ( )  Pair work ( )

    Why?
1. Graduate Thesis Abstracts ........................................... 104

1. Gaining Access to Communities of Practice in Virtual Environments: Looking for Evidence ......................... 106
   Thomas S. Avery

2. Comparing a Music Staff Visualization Approach to Traditional Methods for Teaching Intonation to Korean Learners of English ......................................................... 106
   Andrew Bailey

3. Addressing Fossilization through Corrective Feedback with KakaoTalk .......................................................... 107
   Juanita Hong

4. An Analysis of the Dialogs in English Conversation Books: Pragmatic Features and Authenticity ....................... 107
   Shinn Young Jung

5. Repeated Reading vs. Partner Reading: Comparing Speed and Accuracy ....................................................... 108
   Min-Jung Kang

6. The Quality of Reciprocal Teaching Strategy Use ............ 108
   Hyewon Kim

7. An Analysis of the Coursebook, Basic Essential CLIL 1 ....... 109
   Jeehye Kim

8. An Analysis of Pictures Used in Korean and Global English Textbooks and Korean Young Learners’ Perceptions ............................................................ 109
   Jieun Kim

9. The Development of Reciprocal Teaching in English Reading for 1st Grade Korean Learners ......................... 110
   Young Ah Kim
10. Single Versus Varied Contexts in Vocabulary Acquisition and Retention ...............................................110
   Jason Lee

11. The Effect of Drama Activities on Students’ Anxiety in Speaking English ............................................................111
   Seoyeon Lee

12. The Implementation of Self-assessment in Korean EFL Young Learner Classrooms ..............................................111
   Mijung Park

13. The Differences Between Two Modes of Peer Feedback on L2 Learners’ Writing Revisions .....................112
   Aehyang Shin

14. Using Video Podcasts to Teach Middle School EFL Students .................................................................112
   Zeeshan (Shone) Ahmed Qureshi
Gaining Access to Communities of Practice in Virtual Environments: Looking for Evidence

Thomas S. Avery

Research on learning in virtual environments has offered educators with many insights. In particular, the Communities of Practice (CoP, Wenger, 1998) theory of learning has provided a useful approach for bringing new ideas and possibilities into education. However, researchers often fail to provide a basic proof that 1) such communities exist, or that 2) newcomers can gain membership in these groups, both of which are critical to the theory. In this qualitative study, a discourse analysis was performed on 100 hours of game-play in the online multiplayer game League of Legends. The aim was to provide a tentative demonstration of how researchers could go about proving the existence of CoPs, and how newcomers may gain access to these. It was found that CoPs do, indeed, exist in League of Legends and describes the extent of one individual’s access to one of these. However, the results did not turn out as expected. The thesis draws on Norton (2001) and Gee (2004) to conceptualize the problems and provide suggestions on how to better perform similar research in the future. This thesis may provide a rough framework for future research, and demonstrates the need to theoretically identify groups as CoPs before applying the label.

Key words: virtual environments, communities of practice, proof, access

Comparing a Music Staff Visualization Approach to Traditional Methods for Teaching Intonation to Korean Learners of English

Andrew Bailey

The present study investigated: (a) the effect of using a music staff and notation as a means of visualizing English intonation; (b) whether or not without explicit instruction the use of visualization affects the pitch range of the participants’ output towards English native norms; and (c) the intonation errors that persist throughout testing. Thirty Korean university students were separated into two groups, one of which was a treatment group. The treatment group would receive the music staff visualization approach while the control group would use traditional listen-and-repeat teaching methods. Through self-recorded pre-, post- and delayed post-tests, the students tried to mimic wh- question, falling lists, declarative and yes/no question intonation. The results indicate that using visualization has some advantage over the traditional techniques. However, both groups showed improvement, even after explicit intonation instruction had finished. Intonation range was negatively affected by the treatment, likely due to the cognitive load of pitch placement.

Key words: intonation, visualization, music staff, tonal range, listen-and-repeat
Addressing Fossilization through Corrective Feedback with KakaoTalk

Juanita Hong

This thesis explores the use of a free mobile messenger application, KakaoTalk, with adult learners who are employees at a Japanese company based in Seoul, South Korea. The KakaoTalk assignments practiced corrective feedback strategies to develop learner uptake results. The KakaoTalk assignments, chat scripts, survey questionnaires, and audio/video in-class observations were analyzed to solve the issue of fossilization and the plateau state of the students’ progress. Based on the findings, learner uptake was mostly successful in the repair move in Cycle 3, where no target words were used and just free talking occurred. Overall, it was found that the students found the corrections in the KakaoTalk assignments helpful and overall had a positive experience.

Key words: KakaoTalk, mobile messaging, corrective feedback, fossilization

An Analysis of the Dialogs in English Conversation Books: Pragmatic Features and Authenticity

Shinn Young Jung

This study examines how popular English conversation books deal with pragmatic features and how authentic the popular conversation books may be in terms of pragmatic features. For this study, three conversation books were selected for examination and analysis. The basis of this thesis is that a focus on culture must be implemented in English teaching, especially in relation to pragmatics and in considering that one of the main goals of English language teaching is to obtain intercultural communicative competence. In relation, pragmatic development is important in enhancing communicative skills and that speaking and communication function within cultural systems. Consequently, this study explains why the three selected conversation books do not appear to serve the purpose of pragmatic development or provide culturally responsive materials.

Key words: speaking, intercultural communicative competence, pragmatics, authenticity
Repeated Reading vs. Partner Reading: Comparing Speed and Accuracy

Min-Jung Kang

The issue of reading fluency has received considerable critical attention in L1 reading research because fluency plays a significant role in comprehending text. Scant research, however, focuses on the investigation of an effective reading fluency approach in EFL settings. For these reasons, this study aims to explore the effect of two reading fluency activities, repeated reading and partner reading, on EFL young readers’ reading fluency development. Eighty-two Korean elementary school students in 5th and 6th grade were divided into RR (n = 40) and PR groups (n = 42). They underwent 27-treatment sessions for 9 weeks. In order to examine the effect of treatment, pretest and posttest of reading speed and accuracy were administered and analyzed using two types of t-tests. The results of quantitative data indicated that the RR group outgrew the PR group on reading speed and accuracy. Despite this statistical difference, quantitative and qualitative analyses of participants’ perceptions on reading activities suggested that students in both groups perceived each reading fluency intervention in similar ways.

Key words: reading fluency, repeated reading, partner reading, reading speed, reading accuracy

The Quality of Reciprocal Teaching Strategy Use

Hyewon Kim

Reciprocal Teaching (RT) increases students’ metacognitive strategies by providing them with reading strategies that allow them to resolve incomprehension. While there have been many studies that show the benefits for and capabilities of young learners to acquire these skills, there are few studies that examine young EFL learners. This study was conducted to investigate the quality of RT use for young EFL students. While four strategies were taught to the students, only summarizing and questioning were explored in the present study. The study examined how RT strategies used by young EFL reader’s change over time, as well as their perceptions of RT use. The study found significant improvement in the students’ scores and quality of both questioning and summarizing. Finally, all the students had positive perceptions of RT and its use, agreeing that RT increased not only their reading comprehension but it also enhanced their confidence in their English abilities.

Key words: reciprocal teaching, student perceptions, young learners, questioning, summarizing, reading comprehension
An Analysis of the Coursebook, Basic Essential CLIL 1  

Jeehye Kim

This thesis deals with an analysis of the coursebook, Basic Essential CLIL 1 (BEC), on four levels: including its content, language, exercises, and users' perceptions in the context of English language learning for Korean elementary students. To analyze the content and language of BEC in terms of determining which grade level BEC is appropriate for, and to examine whether the exercises within BEC support the target learners, Daoud and Celce-Murcia’s (1979) evaluation framework was used. A survey was additionally conducted to determine the students’ and teachers’ perceptions on the use of BEC. The findings emphasize what could be the strengths and limitations of using which aspects of BEC for certain grade levels.

Key words: coursebook analysis, student perceptions, evaluation framework

An Analysis of Pictures Used in Korean and Global English Textbooks and Korean Young Learners’ Perceptions  

Jieun Kim

This study examined conducted an analysis of pictures used in Korean and Global Elementary English Textbooks and Korean young learners’ perceptions. A 24-week analysis research and a survey have been conducted. The data were collected through analyzing textbooks and survey questionnaires. The data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics quantitatively. The participants are two hundred elementary mixed-ability students from three different schools, which are located in the region of Seoul, Korea. The criteria of the types of pictures, the types of drawing techniques, the types of drawing materials, and the functionality of pictures (illustrative pictures, stimulus-response pictures, and student-generated pictures) were used to analyze the pictures. In addition, questionnaires were used to reveal students’ perceptions about the use of pictures. By analyzing the pictures, the results show that the illustrative pictures are used considerably more. It means that the majority of pictures are just used for decoration. And most of pictures are used for talk about factual and visible things that learners see in the picture. It should be need more activities reflected by a communicative language approach. After analyzing the survey questionnaire, the results reveal that more diverse pictures are needed to satisfy students who have divergent desires. The researcher suggests that publishers and teachers require a deeper analysis and study with regard to the use of the pictures.

Key words: use of pictures, textbooks, perceptions, types of pictures, functionality of pictures, illustrative pictures, stimulus-response pictures, and student-generated pictures
The Development of Reciprocal Teaching in English Reading for 1st Grade Korean Learners

Young Ah Kim

This study was conducted to investigate how 1st grade Korean learners in elementary school perform Reciprocal Teaching (RT) strategies, the effect of RT on reading comprehension, and their perceptions toward RT. Most of the studies about the effect of RT on L2 reading were conducted with adult students or at least upper graders in elementary school. This study, however, was aimed at using RT instruction with three 1st grade Korean learners. Data collected by means of comprehension tests, interviews and video recordings were analyzed. According to the results, it can be seen that the participants’ summarizing skills improved. The students’ first summaries were left incomplete and contained too many details or missing main points but from Day 2 onwards, they summarized the main ideas of all the paragraphs better and connected them in their own words in a concise manner. With regard to the reading comprehension tests, only one out of the three showed the significant improvement. Based on their responses to the interview questions, all of the three students mentioned that RT strategies were useful and/or helpful for reading comprehension.

Key words: reciprocal teaching, reading comprehension, reading strategies

Single Versus Varied Contexts in Vocabulary Acquisition and Retention

Jason Lee

Eight participants were divided into control and experimental groups to test whether multiple exposures to 30 target items in the same text or varied texts promoted better acquisition. Contrary to what is predicted by the literature in both connectionism and vocabulary acquisition, the same-texts group outperformed the experimental group as the differences which only increased with additional treatment, became apparent after the second session. From these findings, it was concluded that limits in attentional capacity, rather than the lack of retrieval cues, causes difficulty for learners to acquire words that are encountered for the first time. In light of the recommendations from psychological and SLA literature, it was hypothesized that varied contexts can assist retrieval of words only when learners possess partial knowledge of those items; learners are ready to take advantage of the wealth of retrieval cues provided by varied contexts only when target items have been encountered previously in context. The pedagogical implications derived form this study encourage the instruction of depth of word knowledge for new items so that depth of processing, which cognitively strengthens the establishment of new items, can assist retrieval. Subsequently presenting these items in varied contexts facilitates the decontextualization of these items so that the storage of words can make the transition from episodic memory, which is subject to increased deterioration relative to semantic memory.

Key words: connectionism, information processing theory, neural networks, encoding, storage, retrieval, cue, stimulus, response, incidental vocabulary acquisition
The Effect of Drama Activities on Students’ Anxiety in Speaking English

Seoyeon Lee

Anxiety is an important variable in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. This study aims to examine the language anxiety levels of students studying at a Korean university, and to investigate the effects of drama activities on their levels of speaking anxiety as well as possible factors influencing their anxiety during the drama activities. A total of 27 EFL English major and non-English major students, including 1 freshman, 8 sophomore, 7 junior, and 11 senior students, participated in this study. The data were gathered by means of a questionnaire, a reflective journal and a semi-structured interview. Descriptive statistics were used to determine the level of anxiety. A paired-sample t-test was conducted to find the effects of drama activities on students’ speaking anxiety. The results revealed that a majority of students felt anxiety when speaking English in class. Most students’ anxiety has been reduced to a low level through the use of drama activities. In addition, students expressed positive opinions about using drama activities in speaking English. Furthermore, an in-depth analysis regarding the causes of speaking anxiety revealed that a fear of stage fright, poor English, lack of preparation, lack of self-confidence, a fear of failure, and being afraid of perception of others in speaking performance constitute the main factors of EFL speaking anxiety which was experienced by students. Based on these findings, some limitations and suggestions for future research are proposed.

Key words: language anxiety, drama activity, Korean EFL students, speaking anxiety, causes and factors

The Implementation of Self-assessment in Korean EFL Young Learner Classrooms

Mijung Park

This study investigated the effectiveness of self-assessment on young learners’ performance and their self-assessment ability. Students’ perceptions were also examined. 83 sixth graders at an elementary school in Korea participated in the experiment for 14 weeks. Students were in four classes: two in the experimental group, the other two in the control group. Students took unit-based self-assessment seven times during the experiment, every other week when each unit was done. A series of pre- and post-tests were administered to measure the effectiveness: a diagnostic test (pre), a summative self-assessment (pre and post), and an achievement test (post). To examine their perceptions on self-assessment, interviews were conducted. It was found that the students in the experimental group improved in their ability to self-assess and their English performance was improved slightly better than their counterparts in the control group. Most of the students perceived the self-assessment positively. The results suggest that self-assessment can be implemented with positive effects on Korean EFL young learners as a supporting measurement tool and also as a motivator to learn. In particular, it can play a promising role as a learning enhancer among low achievement students as it is a stress-free test and thus motivates them to learn in a low-anxiety environment.

Key words: self-assessment, learner autonomy, self-awareness, motivation, EFL young learners
Thesis Abstracts

The Differences Between Two Modes of Peer Feedback on L2 Learners’ Writing Revisions

Aehyang Shin

This study investigated the differences between two modes of peer feedback on L2 learners’ writing revisions. This study was conducted with 8 elementary students in Seoul, South Korea. The participants took part in a 4-week writing workshop at their private English language institute. The researcher had the students write six persuasive letters and give and receive peer feedback. The students alternated between written and oral peer feedback. After receiving peer feedback, the students were asked to revise and rewrite their letters. Then, using a persuasive writing rubric, the researcher and another native English teacher rated the participants’ first drafts and revisions. The results showed that the students’ revisions were significantly improved after receiving both peer written feedback and peer oral feedback. Also, the students accepted more peer comments on their revisions when they received peer comments through the spoken medium. The researcher also interviewed the participants individually to get an idea of how the participants perceived the different modes of feedback. Most of students answered that they preferred peer oral feedback to peer written feedback.

Key words: peer feedback, peer written feedback, peer oral feedback, L2 young learners, writing revisions

Using Video Podcasts to Teach Middle School EFL Students

Zeeshan (Shone) Ahmed Qureshi

This thesis examines a 3 month long podcasting project that took place in a middle school EFL class in which four teenage students carried out a series of video podcasts. The goal of this project was twofold: firstly, it aimed to explore these students’ perceptions towards podcasting and secondly, how middle school second grade students could learn vocabulary through podcasting. Students’ attitudes toward podcasting were assessed before and after the project, and classroom discourse was recorded and analyzed in order to discover how students were able to learn vocabulary through podcasting. Their vocabulary skills were also evaluated at the beginning and the end of semester. It was determined that the use of these podcasts clearly assisted respondents in their learning process. They appreciated the information and explanations provided in the podcasts and it helped them to understand the instructional content more easily.

Key words: podcasting, vocabulary acquisition