Sookmyung Women's University

MA TESOL Journal
Fall 2018 Vol.14 No. 2

ISSUES IN EFL

Pursuing Higher Education Abroad:
A look at the process of coming to Korea with the intent to study with Alex and Guljamila

Six Year Sookmyung Students Talk Know-How, Know-Whats, and the Know-Wheres

Final Papers & Graduate Thesis Abstracts

Issues in EFL

Sookmyung Women's University
MA TESEOL Journal
Fall 2018 Vol. 14, No. 2

CONTENTS

Community Contributions **1**

Useful Sources for Vocabulary (Lexis) 2
Sihyeon Yoo

Six-Year Sookmyung Students Talk Know-How, Know-Whats, and the Know-Wheres 3
Danbi Lee & Yeana Kim

Pursuing Higher Education Abroad: 6
A look at the process of coming to Korea with the intent to study with Alex and Guljamila
Alex Maltifano & Guljamila Nurimbetova

An Interview with First-semester Students 8
Eunice Minjoo Hong & Jiwon Yoon

Final Papers **10**

A Literature Review of Hedgings and Ways of Teaching Them to L2 English Learners 11
Wonjung Cho

Effects of Referential Questions and Creative Activities in EFL Classrooms for Young Learners in Korea 25
Somin Park

Exploring the Effects of Pedagogical Measures Implemented in Conjunction With Reciprocal Teaching Dialogues Upon Learner Use of Reading 40
Darren Rushbrook

How Digital Games Are Used in Meaningful and Authentic Way in Game-Enhanced L2 Learning 55
Jinyoung Kim

The Importance of Transfer and Its Impact in SLA 64
Guljamila Nurimbetova

The Detailed Procedure and Theoretical Application of Designing a Reading Course Book for University Students in Korea 75
Kenuah Song, Eun-sun Park & Hye-sook Kwon

Effects of a Blog-based E-portfolio on EFL Language Performance 106
Jiwon Yoon

An Action Research Study on Feedback on Vocabulary in a Speaking Class 135
Bernadette Manalastas & Jaerin Yang

Graduate Thesis Abstracts **161**

Korean University Students' Perception of Native English-speaking Teachers 162
Jungmin Byun

Implementation of Rubrics and Formative Peer Assessment in an EFL Context 162
Rick Duboi

Shadowing for Korean Adult's Pronunciation Smoothness Using Rapid Speech 162
Eunkyung Im

Action Research on the Development Process of Collocation Teaching for a Korean Middle School Student 163
Eunjin Jeung

Effectiveness of Dynamic Assessment on Korean EFL Young Learners' Writing 164
Diana Lee

Suggestopedia with young children to teach vocabulary 164
Yeah Ji Lee

Comparing the Effects of Email and Dialogue Journal Writing 165
Young Mi Lee

An Examination into the Polysemous Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies of Bilingual Korean Learners 165
Michael J. McLaren

Action Research Utilizing Flip and Computer-mediated Communication in the South Korean University Context 166
Adam Rosenthal

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.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Editor-in-Chief
Alexandria Malfitano

Editors
Shiyheon Yoo
Charles Williams
Alexandria Malfitano
Guljamila Nurimbetova
Darren Rushbrook
Kyewon Lee
WonJung Cho
Jiwon Yoon

Special Contributors
Eunice Minjoo Hong
Jiwon Yoon
Sihyeon Yoo
Danbi Lee
Yeana Kim
Alexandria Malfitano
Guljamila Nurimbetova

Layout & Design
Jisu Choi

Cover Artwork
The picture on the front cover is a scenery of Sookmyung Women's University, taken by Professor Stephen van Vlack

The following publication would not have been possible without the combined efforts of the Fall 2018 editors and special contributors. Special thanks to Darren Rushbrook and Charles Williams for dedicating extra time to proofreading, Jisu Choi for her work on the layout and design of the journal, to the SMU TESOL Student Union for defraying the printing costs, and finally, to Professor Stephen van Vlack for his guidance and assistance throughout the editorial and publication process.

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

Community Contributions

Useful Sources for Vocabulary (Lexis)

Sihyeon Yoon

We always use some sources when we teach English or learn it as EFL learners, for example, using the Cambridge or Oxford dictionary to look up a definition of word. However, what if we want to find some synonyms for words? What if a learner asks you why a certain expression is more 'natural' than others? Are you looking for more fun English games for children? Here are some useful sources for learning and teaching vocabulary, which have been collected by students in the corpus linguistic class. Let's look through it.

Dictionaries | Dictionaries are the most accessible sources people use almost every day. Aside from normal dictionary websites, I will introduce some specialty dictionaries.

1) http://www.lexipedia.com/
Lexipedia is a visual online dictionary. It has vocabulary categories according to their classes, and it offers the parts of speech and meaning of a given word. One interesting point for this website is that it shows 'fuzzynyms' for a given word, or words that are related to the keyword in a way but not the exact synonym, antonym, homonym, or other word association types we know.

2) www.wordnik.com
The wordnik website provides six types of information for a given word. Not only does it give definitions and related words, it also shows a list, a discussion section that learners can ask questions and give examples in, word images, and how to pronounce the word. You can get authentic examples which are used in real world contexts and are also able to hear various phonetic forms for a single word.

3) https://www.urbandictionary.com/
Language always changes and is created day by day. If you want to look through some trendy words or slangs which are used among Native speakers, go to the website urbandictionary and look up some new words. The information is collected by various people, so you also give your own definition for some new words people ask for!

Vocabulary game and activities | No one dislikes games and activities. Especially if you teach young learners, it is inevitable to do vocabulary game in your class to prevent the students from getting bored. Here are some fun English game and activities websites.

1) www.freerice.com
This website is very useful for practicing one's word association knowledge by providing four synonym choices to one word. It has 60 levels of vocabulary with 12,000 words in total, and it can be customized the question levels according to a user's answer – whether it is correct or not. If you choose correct one among four synonyms, you are going to step up to another level. However, if you are struggling to find the correct answer, this website will adjust the level which is appropriate for you.

2) http://esl-kids.com/index.php?page=worksheets
This website offers various worksheet formats for each theme such as weather, family, transportation. Format include bingo, word search, dice, match-up and board game wizards which are aimed at young learners, and all of these formats are able to be printed out. Unfortunately, you cannot include your own words, but it has some themes with each word lists which seem to be appropriate for young learners. If you teach young learners, take a look.

Text analyzers | Text analyzer sites are useful for when you teach reading and writing to students. You can use these websites when choosing appropriate materials for your class. Also, students themselves can use them to check their writing work.

1) http://voyant-tools.org
This site allows you to look at the lexical structure of a text with a visual representation of the keywords in the text, as well as basic information such as lexical density and frequency of the words. Also, you can check how the words are co-related based on collocation data.

2) https://www.visualthesaurus.com/vocabgrabber/#
This site shows a visualized lexis map for a given text as it analyzes the input text. As you input a text, it automatically creates a list of vocabulary from your text, which you can then sort, filter, and save. The words which are analyzed come with their definitions, their relations, and their web map with other words which are connected together.

Online Corpus | If you have any knowledge about corpus, it would not be so difficult for you to use actual corpus data. Although you need to create your account to use corpus websites, it is worth the effort because you can grab a bunch of information from these corpus websites.

1) COCA : https://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
COCA is one of the largest sources for corpus data online. If you search a word, COCA shows its frequency and concordance lists. You could look up collocations for the word by looking through the data supplied.

2) British National Corpus : https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/
BNC has 100 million words of text from a wide range of genres. The website format is same as that of COCA, but the difference is that the data in BNC has been collected and managed by the Oxford University Institution, making the data collected based on UK based sources.

3) Micase : https://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/c/corpus/corpus?c=micase;page=simple
Unfortunately, currently there are not as many corpus focused on spoken data. Micase is one example of spoken data created by the University of Michigan, meaning it only has a collection of transcripts of academic speech events recorded at the University of Michigan. However, if you are looking for academic spoken data, this website may prove useful.

Six-Year Sookmyung Students Talk Know-How, Know-Whats, and the Know-Wheres

Danbi Lee & Yeana Kim

Have you ever left a place feeling like you were unable to fully take advantage of what it offered? Or you were oblivious of the benefits you could've, should've, would've had if you were simply informed of them? Were you ever frustrated finding new information only after you have long left the place? To save you from your regrets while you are in Sookmyung, we've prepared some tips, secrets, and useful information that can help the newbies reading.

Currently writing is Danbi and Yeana, your fellow Sookmyung students. We met at Sookmyung Women's university in 2012 as freshmen in the same major, graduated, and both decided to continue with TESOL here in the Master's program. In total, we both have been attending Sookmyung close to six years. Both as undergrads and current students, we've spent a lot of our time on campus exploring, eating, talking, writing, reading, planning, thinking, sleeping, day-dreaming, printing, walking… you get the picture. Yes, our opinions are highly subjective, but we've poured out some of our goodies thinking it may help those that would want them.

Places to Study

Danbi

I don't know about you guys… but I've had many days where I was unable to finish my assignments the night before and needed to carry my laptop around. It's stressful looking for a place to study and work. But to save you guys time and energy with coming up with ridiculous reasons why your assignments are not their best quality, we strongly recommend you go to the computer labs at Myungshin. Myungshin has five to six computer labs available for students to use. Usually, there are no classes after 4:00PM, but even if there are classes, there are usually two rooms that never have classes and are designated for students use. The computers are generally on, but even if they aren't, feel free to turn them on yourself. You don't need your student ID or a password to use these labs unlike at the library. Also, the printing room is just down the hall! You can work on your assignments, print, and head right to class. The building is conveniently connected to where most of our TESOL courses are!

Yeana

Let's say procrastination isn't your thing. You're diligent in getting things done early and passionate about forming study groups. Then I totally recommend booking study rooms. You can book empty classrooms through the portal system. This may get a little complicated because you need to book it online and submit a hard copy form to the student center. If you are looking for an easier option, simply book

the study rooms at the library. For a larger group of students, several rooms are available on the second floor inside DICA Plaza. Smaller rooms for two (or even one) people are available on the 4th and 5th floors. You can access them through the library website to book them. However, the process of booking itself can be tricky due to the high demand, so you need to strategically log in a week in advance before all the spots are taken. Though it sounds complicated, I believe it will be worth it having the room to yourself or your study group!

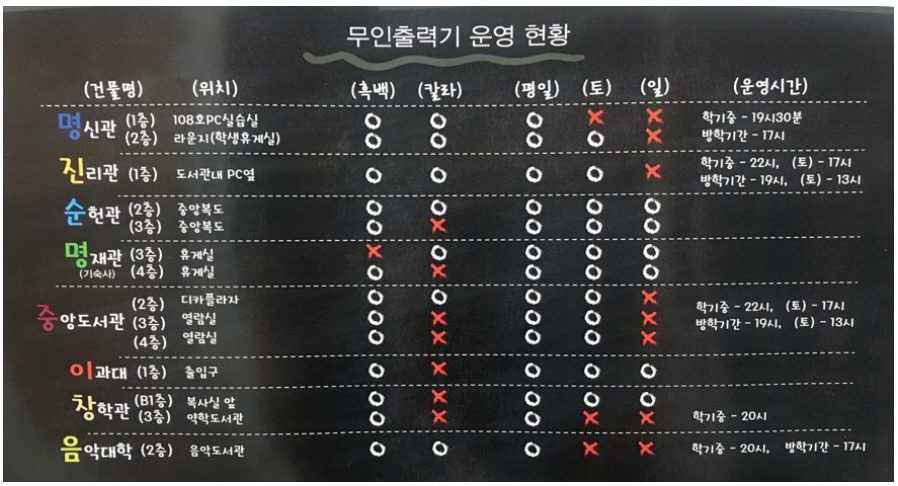
Danbi
But if you're lazy like me, here's a tip. Check the left side of the classroom doors for the schedule of the classes. If there are no classes indicated around the time you want to use the room, usually it's first come first serve game play. I sometimes don't hand in the hard copy registration forms and simply have it booked online. Booking the room at least gives you the upper hand to say you've reserved the room if someone comes in and tries to take away your precious study room.

Yeana
Also, on Saturdays, Danbi and I used to ditch the busy and packed library and find empty classrooms to study in. During the midterms or finals, our usual routine comprised of grabbing food, making sure our coffee was extra-large, and heading up to Sunheon or Myungshin to occupy an empty classroom from morning to night.

Danbi
Excluding the occasional school clubs having a meeting, the entire building is quite ghostly. We usually go to the classrooms with larger tables on the 3rd or 5th floor. They have places you can charge on the table which helps if you bring a laptop or need to charge your phone. Yeana and I have also ordered food to the classrooms (this is normal at Sookmyung so most of the delivery places around school know the buildings well and you won't have any problems with the delivery guy not being able to find where you are).

Printing

Danbi
If you have your own printer, you won't be facing any issues with printing your assignments. But throughout our time at


무인출력기 운영 현황

(건물명)	(위치)	(흑백)	(칼라)	(평일)	(토)	(일)	(운영시간)
명신관	(1층) 108호PC실습실	O	O	O	X	X	학기중 - 19시30분
	(2층) 라운지(학생휴게실)	O	O	O	O	X	방학기간 - 17시
진리관	(1층) 도서관내 PC열	O	O	O	O	X	학기중 - 22시, (토) - 17시 방학기간 - 19시, (토) - 13시
순헌관	(2층) 중앙복도	O	O	O	O	O	
	(3층) 중앙복도	O	X	O	O	O	
명재관 (기숙사)	(3층) 휴게실	X	O	O	O	O	
	(4층) 휴게실	O	X	O	O	O	
중앙도서관	(2층) 디카플라자	O	O	O	O	X	학기중 - 22시, (토) - 17시 방학기간 - 19시, (토) - 13시
	(3층) 열람실	O	X	O	O	X	
	(4층) 열람실	O	X	O	O	X	
이과대	(1층) 출입구	O	X	O	O	O	
창학관	(B1층) 복사실 앞	O	X	O	O	O	
	(3층) 약학도서관	O	X	O	X	X	학기중 - 20시
음악대학	(2층) 음악도서관	O	O	O	X	X	학기중 - 20시, 방학기간 - 17시

Sookmyung and with any undergrad/grad students, we've noticed that people usually don't own printers. And at times, you get self-conscious printing your stuff at your workplace! Well, suffer no more because Sookmyung has a pretty good printing system.

Yeana
What you need to first do is find a printer. The printers are available in so many different places. Since TESOL students usually use Sunheon and Myungshin, we'll narrow down your search. You can find printers on the 2nd and 4th floor of Sunheon, and Myungshin has a large room called the "Myungshin Lounge" that has several computers and printers set up in room 214. Myungshin also has several printers set up on different floors as well as another huge room (108).

Danbi
After finding a printer, put your card on top of the little machine beside the printer (you can't miss it) and press "register" or "등록". Enter in the set of numbers you use as your ID and set your card on top of the machine. These numbers are the same numbers required of you when you press print on a computer. Remove your card and voila! If you don't want to bother going through registration, there are also print shops down the main road. Morning Glory and Alpha are the two big shops that a lot of students go to, but they are about 10원 more than school.

Cafes

Danbi
To be honest, Sookmyung is unlike other Korean universities filled with your usual go-to places and must-line-up-to-try type of cafes. If you attend Sookmyung for even just a few days and walk down the main road, you'll notice a lot of coffee shops. This is a general stereotype for women's university students, but the students here are extremely competitive. Naturaly , caffeine is necessary for students of such high competitive nature.

Yeana
As much as the students compete, the cafes do, too. You won't be surprised to see a coffee shop close down after a month. Here is a list of cafes that have been steadily holding their places for over 10 years: 1) Rose Coffee, 2) Flannel, 3) Bonsol, 4) Froggy, 5) Bean's Cook, and 6) Finnbell. All of these places, the price of the drinks ranges from 1,500 KRW to 3,000 KRW. Most of the cafes around Sookmyung are 'take-out' shops. If the coffee shops are large and not designed as a quick grab-go kind of place, check to see if they give any discounts! They usually give 500 KRW to 1,000 KRW off if you get your beverages to-go. And don't forget the coupon and points systems. They really come in handy.

Danbi
I know what you're thinking. Cheap price, cheap quality. And I won't lie. Yes, sometimes you get what you've paid for. But in comparison to a lot of cafes we've been to that charges us double, or triple the price, we are more than satisfied with out 2,000 KRW lattes. Mind you that we've excluded the franchise stores. They'll mostly do well without our recommendations, but they do exist

around Sookmyung. But I'm telling you, the competition with these cafes is so strong that we've had popular franchise coffee shops disappear because no one went there!

Yeana
Another thing that I can add is the library. They have a beautifully renovated food court/café on the fifth floor where they have personal tables that were made comfortable to use. Those seats are so high in demand that you would have to be either lucky or running in early to reserve it. Besides the food court, they have a tiny café in the corner where they give discounts if you bring your own tumbler.

Places to Rest/ Sleep/Relax/Workout

Danbi
For whatever reason you need/want to shower; you can use the shower facility at school! First, you need go to the Student Support Team office on the second floor of the Student Union Building. They will require your student ID card and basic information to register, and after that all you need to do is shower. Unfortunately, the facility only allows female students! But if you're looking to workout, runs some laps on the treadmill, or lift some weights, the Sookmyung Gym is available to both genders.The gym is in the Music Building, three floors down. The registration runs during the break and first week of each semester. For graduate school students, the fees are as followed: 1 Month – 17,000 KRW, 6 Months – 80,000 KRW, and 12 Months – 130,000 KRW. The hours go from 7:30 AM to 8:00 PM during the weekdays and 9:00 AM to 4:00 PM on Saturdays. Gym is closed on Sundays and national holidays. Showers and lockers are available, and you must bring your own clothes and toiletries!

Yeana
If you're looking for a place to simply rest/sleep a few hours and not stay overnight at school, the school's "정양실" is the perfect place to rest. I really love the sleeping area provided by the clinic. The room is kept dark, so each student can make the most out of their rest. Each single bed has one blanket, one pillow, and an electric mat to keep the students warm in the winter. They do keep record of how long you stay, and one student is limited to one hour per session due to high demand. Obviously, the motive of providing such amenities is for students to rest and recover, and not for students to stay as a hideaway.

Danbi
Yeana and I have different outlets to release our stress, but we can both agree that the Sunheon 6th and 8th floor gardens are great places to go and get your mind off things. You would've never imagined that our school had a such a beautiful resting place tucked away on the upper floors of the oldest building! This place was my safe haven when I was an undergrad student. When I was bombarded with assignments, quizzes, and papers and needed a place to just to refresh myself, I always headed up to the gardens. Even five or ten minutes of sitting there really helped me. We really recommend you guys to go check them out!

Like we mentioned, these tips and tricks are highly subjective and personal. It is in our best interest to provide information that can be useful and time-saving for those that would most likely spend about two years on this campus. Time surely flies fast, and we want our fellow TESOLers to walk out of the program having achieved and earned the most out of their time and money. Hope this helped, and we look forward to meeting every one of you in person to share more on what we know about not just the campus but the program as well!

Pursuing Higher Education Abroad:

A look at the process of coming to Korea with the intent to study with Alex and Guljamila

1. What came first, the country or the program?

Both of us had big plans to move to Korea, and that is what drove us to look for ways to move to the country.

Alex: My goal to become a language teacher and after studying abroad I knew I wanted to teach in Korea, so looking for good TESOL program became my objective. Though I had the option to study TESOL back in the states, the programs are directed at different purposes and demographics, so taking my study overseas seemed fitting.

Guljamila: At first, I was looking for ways how to come to Korea, and my main goal was to study Korean language, however, it was a bit difficult for me to apply. Therefore, I started looking for other options of coming to Korea and realized that I can apply for TESOL program and continue my study of English philology.

2. How did you find the program and what drew you to it?

Through the power of online research, we both found this program. Narrowing down our desired degree and locations led us both to look closer at Sookmyung's program.

Alex: The Study in Korea website was my biggest asset due to the ability to assess programs on multiple levels. Sookmyung in particular matched my degree, location, scholarship, and desired program goals. It also had a language school on campus, which was an extra benefit of selecting this particular university.

Guljamila: I discovered several universities suggesting TESOL in different parts of Korea. Then, I asked my friends, who were studying in Korea, about their opinion regarding each university, the majority of them commented Sookmyung Women's University as a high-quality TESOL training program in Korea, and I selected this university based on their suggestions.

3. What made you chose Korea?

Alex: I had already fallen in love with Korea when I studied abroad. While abroad I had also learned a little about the opportunities as an English teacher, and it sounded like something I would enjoy. I knew I loved languages and teaching, so studying and teaching in a country I already really liked sounded like an ideal next step after college.

Guljamila: The first time when I thought about coming to Korea I was studying at school and watching the Korean drama 대장금 (The Great Jang-geum). In each episode of this drama the main character is always cooking something, and you can see diverse kinds of Korean meals served in a very beautiful way. From that moment I fell in love with phenomenal Korean cuisine and got highly inspired to come to Korea. Therefore, by choosing Korea for my Master's degree I decided to realize my dream of coming to Korea and studying TESOL, killing two birds with one stone.

4. How easy or difficult was the application process and getting into the program?

We both had a few issues with submitting documents on time, even though we were in very different locations. In particular, mailing hard copies of documents and ensuring their timely arrival was stressful and challenging.

Alex: Well, I would like to say it was easy since I was living in the area and already studying at Sookmyung's language school, but that would be a lie. The application process was really hard. There were so many documents that the school needed, and because of the time differences it was hard to get them. Not all information regarding necessary documents was noted online, and at times there was minimal allocated time to organize everything. It was really stressful since I had to rely on working parents to get this done across the globe. But once the application was done, it was smooth sailing.

Guljamila: First when I sent the documents online it was not difficult as I was in my home country, Uzbekistan. Also, I was thinking of coming to Korea for a long time I had already some documents ready in advance. However, when I had to send hard copy of all documents I knew I was going to be late submitting them, and of course it was a long and money consuming process. But anyway I managed it, and I contacted the post office several times to ask them to get my documents out as soon as possible. I am grateful for the post office service for their help because my documents were submitted on the last day and I was not late.

5. What was the hardest part (excluding the application process)?

Alex: Housing for sure. Initially, I was just coming to Sookmyung for the language school and they offered no housing

assistance. The university in general does not cater to graduate or language school students for housing affairs, so I had to try and find a place to live online with minimal knowledge of Korean. Then there were issues with the place I found, but luckily a Korean friend was able to step in and help sort everything out.

Guljamila: Language was the toughest part for me. At the beginning I could not explain properly what I wanted as not every person can speak English on street. Therefore, I had to look for every word in my dictionary for translation to explain what I needed. I was going to give up learning Korean and thought maybe I could not manage it as I am an adult. However, thanks to the book I read for Second Language Learning Theories, I learned that if you are an adult who wants to
learn a foreign language and you think you cannot manage it you are wrong, as there is no age limitation, and everything depends on person him/herself.

6. Were there any particularly easy parts?

Alex: Settling in wasn't too bad. I started lessons at the language school right after moving to Korea, so I quickly made new friends and was able to adapt to my new life. Since I was learning Korean, that also helped make the transition to living here a lot easier. Having a network already established and being able to integrate relatively quickly made the transition to a new country much easier.

Guljamila: When you leave your comfort zone nothing seems you easy. Therefore, when I came to Korea I found everything difficult and it is still a bit challenging. Before coming, I thought maybe it would be difficult to come here but then I found that it is not as painful process as I thought. After this I clearly understood the meaning of proverb "You never know what you can do till you try". Thus, I think I can answer this question about the easiest part a bit later because I am still in the beginning of the process and everything seems to be tough to me. I hope, in future I can answer to this question that learning Korean was the easiest part.

7. Any stand out expectation versus reality moments?

Interestingly, both of us were highly intimidated by the program before we actually started studying.

Alex: I'm not really sure what I was expecting. During the application process though, I was told by an individual in admissions that the program was the top in the country, only the best of the best and most experienced Korean teachers were admitted, and that as a foreigner with no teaching experience I was a poor candidate. Honestly, when I got into the program and met everyone, it was almost a relief. The program was not nearly as terrifying as that person made it sound, and it wound up feeling much more like a supportive network of teachers just trying their best to become better language instructors.

Guljamila: As I mentioned above I asked my friends' opinion about the TESOL program and they all commented that Sookmyung Women's University TESOL program is a superior program in Korea, and therefore I imagined strict, demanding professors, and I thought it might be troublesome to study here. However, after coming and starting my study I found out that this university has an excellent teaching staff who can create a stress-free learning environment and can inspire their learners by turning the learning system into a fun and enjoyable process.

About the Authors:
Alex has just completed her fourth semester of the Sookmyung TESOL program, and is excited to begin her final semester by completing the practicum. She moved to Korea from the US just over 2.5 years ago to begin her adventure learning both Korean and working towards her TESOL degree. Guljamila is a student from Uzbekistan who has completed her first semester at Sookmyung Womens's University TESOL program. She came to Korea in March, 2018 and is inspired to learn about a new language, new culture and continue her study of English philology.

An Interview with First-semester Students

Eunice Minjoo Hong and Jiwon Yoon

Graduate school is no walk in the park; it can be a bit of a roller coaster and the first semester is the hardest. It can be especially difficult due to the challenges that come with being in a new environment. In order to find out how first year students feel about our program, and to get to know them better, we have interviewed few of our very own first semester students to find out their experiences with TESOL MA.

A. What made you join this TESOL MA program. What was your first impression of the program?

1. To gain more knowledge about teaching

I joined the program because I wanted to learn more about teaching. My ultimate goal is to become a professor somewhere in the English educational field which required me to take further studies in English teaching and education. Since Sookmyung TESOL MA has a good reputation in South Korea, I also had a lot of expectations taking this program.
– Jungwon Lee, worked as native English teacher

I took TESOL certificate course at Sookmyung, and it was helpful while teaching. I think that became a start, and I wanted to gain more professional and in-depth knowledge in teaching English. By knowing more and learning more, I want to become a competent teacher.
– Jinyoung Kim, teaching kindergarten & elementary school kids

I did a TESOL minor with my bachelor's degree in the States, so I wanted to know more about how to teach my students especially in reading. I thought I would need theories to back up the practice, which influenced me in joining this program. From the first semester, I had an impression that this semester was not going to be easy, and that there would be a lot of dedicated work.
– Eric Daubert, English teacher at elementary school

As I have a little knowledge about teaching English, but I always face limitations in teaching my students. I am currently teaching adults reading using English books, and I feel like I don't know enough. I only translate the meaning and explain it to my students which I don't think is beneficial, so I decided to take this program to learn various teaching strategies. I really want to help my students to do better and give them an environment where they can learn English with fun.
– Guenah Song, Adult English teacher & translator

2. Through recommendations

My co-worker is a Sookmyung TESOL MA graduate, and she highly recommended that I take this program. I asked her a lot of information about the program, and I also looked into the curriculum, and I thought it would be helpful for my future career which encouraged me to join. The orientation was very impressive and all the professors seemed very nice which gave me a good first impression of this program.
– Jisoo Park, English village teacher

As I was a graduate from TESOL certificate program, I had an opportunity to attend an information session on TESOL MA. I was very encouraged by Professor Kang; she shared the benefits of taking MA course, and also gave me detail information on this program, which finally made me to join it.
– Minju Kim, English teacher at private institution

B. How was your first semester?

1. Very challenging, but worth it!

I struggled at first. Working and taking the courses at the same time was challenging. I needed to balance my work-life and my student-life. At first, it was stressful, I had to figure out how to do my homework. I think I remember freaking out on my first assignment. I think I was just nervous, so I read the entire book, looked into research, spent hours and hours… Later my friends told me that I spent way too much time. I felt silly (haha).
– Eric Daubert, English teacher at elementary school

I think it was a tough semester for me. I worked 9 hours a day and, I had to come to classes for two days in a week in the evening. It was not easy at all. I had to manage my time very well in order to

do well in my first semester. I struggled with time management at first. I was also surprised by the amount of reading assigned each week and the homework required every week. However, I think I slowly got used to the new environment, and now I'm looking forward to my next semester. I feel like I could do much better for my next one!
– Jisoo Park, English village teacher

2. Exciting to learn new things

My first semester went really well. I took digital mediated language learning and material development and curriculum, and I really enjoyed both the classes. The professors were very nice and I learned a lot from them. Although it was challenging at first, it was worth taking after all. I felt free after my first semester. I'm so happy that it's finally done, but I also wish that I would have done it much better if I used the time wisely. I worked and took the courses like many other students at TESOL MA, and I think I struggled a lot at first to have a balance between my work and my studies.
– Jinyoung Kim, teaching kindergarten & elementary school kids

As I am currently teaching reading to my adult students, I was very excited about the 'Teaching Reading,' course. I think through that class, I learned most of the things that I wanted to know. It was a very practical class, and I'm glad that I can apply those reading strategies I learned during my teaching. After I finished my first semester, I felt very proud of myself because I learned how to teach English more strategically and systemically for my own students. Moreover, the first semester really helped me to grow more too. I think my English has also improved while taking the courses.
– Guenah Song, Adult English teacher & translator

C. What were some of the challenges you faced during the program?

I was taking three courses this semester, and I think it was really challenging for me to meet the deadline of the final papers without any reading week or break. After the last week of our classes, the coming Saturday was our due date for all the final papers, and I had to submit three final papers which was difficult for me. I had to manage my time well in order to balance all the three classes, and to hand all the papers on time.
– Jungwon Lee, worked as a native English teacher

As a working mother myself, I think it was challenging for me because I could not spend enough time with my daughter at home. I usually spend time with my daughter when I come back home from work, but while taking the semester, I had to put a lot of effort into assignments, reading, and exams which eventually pushed my time with my daughter to second place. I felt very sorry for not taking care of her, but I'm also happy to have vacation as the semester is done now!
– Guenah Song, Adult English teacher & translator

Writing papers was really challenging for me. All the homework assigned in the program was about writing academic paper. I remember spending a long time to finish one assignment, and also for midterm and final papers, I had to write 10 pages or more which was challenging for me.
– Minju Kim, English teacher at private institution

Through the interview with the first semester students, we could have a glimpse through the life of the first semester students- the struggles, challenges, and the excitement they had through their first four months of the program. We also may have laughed and cried like them on our first semester. We know that it's not easy, but we all know that it's worth the pain too! Good job all first semester students for making it through!!! WE ARE PROUD OF YOU! <3

Final Papers

A Literature Review of Hedgings and Ways of Teaching Them to L2 English Learners

WonJung Cho

Introduction to Corpus Linguistics

Abstract

The function of language is not only to get things done in life but also to establish roles and relationships. One of the ways to adjust the relationship being affected is to use hedging. For many native English speakers, hedging is naturally used both in speaking and writing in their everyday lives. For learners of English, on the other hand, this skill is not usually treated in classes and thus there is less use of it among L2 learners. However, by noticing the importance of this function and how often it is used in the real world, it seems crucial for hedging to be presented and taught in English L2 classes. Hence in this paper, a literature review of what hedging is and how its definition and the viewpoints of people have changed over the years will be presented. Then, some brief examples of ways to teach hedging in class will be introduced. The two principal functions of hedging provide a focus for teaching; to show uncertainty and to save face in order to keep a good relationship. When bringing up the ideas, undergraduates at Sookmyung University were the assumed learners and an inductive method of teaching was intended.

1. INTRODUCTION

Regarding language, the main objective is considered to deliver or receive messages (meanings). Taking a step forward, language also takes a role in relationships. In other words, it could be used to show familiarity or a sense of distance between the interlocutors. O'Keeffe et al. (2007) introduced the notion of *relational* versus *transactional* language (p. 159). To get business done in the world refers to transactional language whereas establishing roles and relationships refers to relational language (McCarthy, 1991). The two types of languages are not likely to be divided strictly. Instead, they are likely to cross-over or overlap in their functions. Concerning language taught in class, especially for L2 learners, it seems that relational language is not being emphasized enough compared to its function and proportion of use it takes up in the real world. However, according to the list of O'Keeffe et al. (2007), relational languages can be summarized as; conversational routines, small talk, hedging, discourse markers, vagueness, and vocative use.

Among these categories, this paper will focus on *hedging*. For many native English speakers,

hedging is naturally used both in speaking and writing in their everyday lives. However, for learners of English, this skill is not usually treated in classes and thus it is used less among L2 learners. Of course, the term itself is unfamiliar. Personally, the use of hedging seems extremely important and it should be taught in class for sure. Bearing this in mind, this paper will first review studies regarding hedging and go through how its definition and viewpoints have changed over time. Then the aspects of hedging with its features will be organized. Lastly, some suggested means of teaching hedging in ESL/EFL classes will be given.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Previous studies of hedging

Weinreich dealt with the phenomenon of hedging as early as 1966, but it was George Lakoff (1972) who introduced the term "hedge"/ "hedging" to describe lexical units whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy. Many researchers have followed his definition, including O'Keeffe et al (2007). However, different definitions of the term abound and have changed over the years. Even the concept and categories of Lakoff was a tidal flow, but limited in semantic theory. From Lakoff, verbal interaction was hardly considered (Markkanen & Schröder, 1997).

The concept of hedge has moved from its origins from the 1970s, as it has been adopted by pragmatists and discourse analysts, such as Fraser (1975), and Brown and Levinson (1978). The great distinction of view at this period was that the pragmatic aspect of communication was the base; such as politeness, indirectness, mitigation, vagueness, and understatement. The idea of hedged performatives became one way of widening the concept of hedges. Modal *must* is the example for this to reduce the responsibility of the speaker. By the late 1970s, the concept of politeness became a major concern in pragmatics and the use of modal auxiliaries, hedged performatives, impersonal structures, and conditionals were to save face, to achieve broader acceptance from the recipient as well as to evade possible criticism (Markkanen & Schröder 1997).

When it comes to the 1980s, the content of hedges was refined and subdivisions were made by Prince et al. (1982) and Hubler (1983). To rearrange from what Markkanen & Schröder (1997) said, the division was made as in Table 1 below.

Table 1- Different subdivisions made in the 1980s

Prince et al. (1982)	Types divided	Hubler (1983)
approximators		Phrastic indetermination: concerns the propositional content (understatements)
Shields: do not affect the truth-conditions but reflect the degree of the speaker's commitment	Resembles one another	Neustic indetermination: connected with the validity of the proposition a speaker makes (hedges)

This was followed by Markkanen and Schröder (1997) who came up with the concept which is the furthest way from its original meaning. Hedges were treated as realizations of interactional/ communicative strategy, called *hedging*. At the point, the lexis category and the feature became too broad that it appeared to cover almost everything and required a more systematic approach. A year later, another definition of hedges was given by Hyland. According to Hyland, items were to be only hedges in their epistemic sense, and only when they mark uncertainty (1998, as cited in Falahati, 2004).

Eventually, the concept and definition of hedge/hedging went through sporadic changes and its border line seems to be unclear. However, there is general agreement that hedging is a strategy to reduce the impact of the full semantic value of a particular expression or soften the full force of a speech act (Fraser, 2010). From the researcher's perspective, what O'Keeffe et al. (2007) coined from Lakoff's definition (1972, as cited in O'Keeffe et al. 2007) as "the semantic concept of how certain words make things fuzzier or less fuzzy" seemed to be vague, but adequate. In other words, hedge/ hedging seems to be the lexical items to down tone, soften tone, indirectly deliver meanings in order to show uncertainty, provide cohesion, or indicate less responsibility. Also, hedging seems to be interactional and used to save face by mitigating the directness of what we say. Lastly, it seems that the concept overlaps a lot with "vagueness", other relational language introduced by O'Keeffe et al. (2007) in terms of toning down and making things fuzzy.

2.2 Features of Hedging

As mentioned above, hedging has gone through changes over time and the boundary of its definition is not clear cut. Roth (2015) has categorized hedging as below (Figure 1).

Figure_1 - Types of Hedging

Type of hedging	Examples
Verbs for observation, opinion, or belief	seem, tend, look like, appear to be, think, believe, indicate, suggest, assume
Modal verbs	may, might, could, should, would
Adverbs of frequency	often, usually, sometimes, hardly ever, almost always, almost never
Adverbs showing possibility	possibly, probably, perhaps, potentially
Adjectives showing possibility	probable, possible, likely, unlikely
Nouns showing possibility	possibility, assumption, probability
Quantifiers	most, many, several, almost all, almost none, the majority of, the minority of, few, some

Retrieved from https://www.compellingconversations.com/hedging-language-seeking-clarification-arguments

First it has modal verbs, which seem to be the most frequently used type of hedging. Other verbs, nouns, and adverbs exist as another type, also used commonly. In fact, as O'Keeffe et al. (2007) mentioned, hedges come in many forms. They can be either lexical (e.g., *assume, possible*) or

structural (e.g. passive form) devices (Falahati, 2004). Even syntactic choices can be one form of hedge, such as the choice of question form, use of double negatives and the insertion of an evaluative clause (O'Keeffe et al., 2007). In other words, we can say that the forms of hedges/ hedgings are not fixed. They do not have boarders of forms. All kinds of hedging expressions can be used in order to describe methods and results, to discuss findings, to draw conclusions from the evidence, to persuade readers, or to establish interpersonal relationships between readers and writers (Falahati, 2004). It can make language vague by referring to quantities or making utterances less assertive by decreasing their exactness. This in turn makes the language more polite. As a face-saving strategy, vague quantity references are employed in apologies, promises, self-justifications, and giving advice (Ruzaite, 2007).

Falahati (2004) categorized hedgings according to their functions. The intention for using the hedging forms was the main breakpoint. The two main types suggested were; content-oriented and reader-oriented. Content-oriented hedges mainly concerned accuracy and its representation in real world, whereas reader-oriented hedges mainly dealt with the interpersonal relationship and the rules of conduct between writer and reader. To put it in other words, the orientation or intention could vary the meaning of the same form of hedging.

2.3 Aspects of Hedging

First, the great aspect we can find about hedging is that it is strongly related to interaction. It happens within conversation and communication. The relational hierarchy/stance affects the interlocutors or the readers/writers to adjust their language and that is when hedgings are used. Some discourse effects that arise from the use of hedges include vagueness, evasion, equivocation, and politeness. Again, hedges are used to adjust relationships during interaction.

In the same vein of being related to interaction, hedges are positively cross-cultural. Thus, hedging is used in different circumstances, and to different age, gender, social groups. For example, the concept of *being polite* differs across countries. It is assumed that Koreans use more hedging in the relationship of hierarchy when they are using their first language since an honorific form exists. English speakers are likely to show more content-based usage. However, according to Šeškauskiene (2008), English as a *lingua franca* is actually rather flexible in adopting new features and coining new terms or finding new ways of expression. Accordingly, the domain or circumstantial differences do not seem to be strict regarding English. Still, frequency distribution of hedging items (Farr et al., 2002, as cited in O'Keeffe et al., 2007) shows that certain aspects tend to be preferred in certain circumstances. Thinking about the functions of hedging, we can assume that venders being precise in shops would be preferred instead of being vague or getting away from responsibility concerning payments. On the other hand, instead of teachers giving direct and corrective feedbacks, modified feedbacks with hedging items, making the phrases more indirect could be preferred in the receiver's view. Concerning the writer/speaker, it could work the same. For example, when asked to answer about simple personal

opinions, the speaker could be direct whereas when the subject is unfamiliar or the interlocutor is not intimate, the use of hedging will be a safety trigger.

O'Keeffe et al. (2007) viewed hedging as featuring more in spoken English rather than written English. Actually, regarding most of the other studies, the focus of the use of hedging has largely moved from spoken to written nowadays.

2.3 Needs of Hedging to be Taught in Class

As mentioned earlier, for L1 English speakers hedging is naturally learnt and it is actually used frequently in the real world. It is often used in academic writing too. They seem to be good tools to show the variation of language according to the relation, where different types occur in varied frequency in the interaction (conversation). It is assumed that hedging is a characteristic feature of academic discourse, signaling a 'subdued dialogue' between the reader and the writer who are both are part of the academic community.

Apart from this, other researchers who remark on the importance of hedging can be easily found. The problem is that except for some lexical items, hedging remains a difficult part for L2 English users (Neary-Sundquist, 2013). Even more, like other aspects of pragmatic competence, it does not generally receive enough attention in second language teaching (Fraser, 2010). Learners, even those at high proficiency levels, may know how to make their language more precise but not when or how to make it "strategically vague" (Yates, 2010, p. 297). Bearing in mind that pragmatic errors ruin the meaning deliverance more than grammatical errors, it seems crucially important to bring it in to class to be taught.

In addition, according to my experience, it seems to be the fatal weakness of Korean L2 learners. Occasions of interactive and less-formal speech or writing seemed tolerable, but there were times in formal settings such as meetings among delegates where Koreans spoke out roughly with good intention but the interlocutor seemed to be very embarrassed.

Putting all this together, teaching hedging can be considered to be essential in ESL/EFL conditions, both in speaking and writing.

3. CLASSROOM APPLICATION

After finding a need for hedging to be taught, I would like to consider practical classroom applications. When coming up with these ideas, undergraduates in Sookmyung University were the assumed learners. Also, the proficiency level was assumed to be at least intermediate-low, where basic conversation or written interactions could be made. As like most of Korean English L2 learners, students have gone through English curricula over the course of a decade and are fairly familiar with

grammatical, form-related English. Thus, deductive explanations or using top-down methods seemed to be unnecessary and ineffective. Instead, guiding the students to find out the patterns and feeling nuances seemed to be the major concern. An inductive approach is expected to raise students' engagement and interest at the same time. One thing to be considered is that learning language is not overtly done. Instead, it is a linear process of students getting more control over the language as they get to use the language and experience it. Also, hedging is a difficult and big concept to teach. It involves interpersonal relationships, so it is difficult to define whether language is used as a hedge or not because we never know about the exact orientation. Anyhow, several ideas to practice in class will be suggested in this paper. The two principal functions of hedging will be focused on for teaching; to show uncertainty and to save face in order to keep a good relationship.

3.1 Awareness Raising

The first thing is to raise students' awareness. Roth (2015) experimented with a kind of 'preferred sentence' activity in his classroom. First he gave three sentences: (* ### refers to the name of the class of Roth.)

-Most #### students are smart

-#### students are usually smart

-#### students are smart compared to other students.

Among the three sentences, he found that more people usually agreed with hedging sentences (second and third). From this experiment, it seemed that students were able to distinguish the differences of meaning, whether they noticed the existence of hedging or not, if they were aware of the meaning of the lexical items *usually* and *compared to others*.

Adopting this experiment, the teacher can come up with some sentences as below:

1) Koreans eat Kimchi. It seems that many Koreans eat Kimchi. 2) Dinosaurs died out because of the shortage of food. It could be said that dinosaurs died out because of the shortage of food. 3) He couldn't live without her He couldn't live without her I guess.	Certainly Usually Appears It tends to be Assume Indicates Look like Suggest Possibly

The lexis on the right side is the commonly used hedging languages. Choose some items and write comparable sentences on the board as above and have students find out the differences of meaning and pick the ones which are more agreeable. From number 1, students are expected to notice that the second sentence is more generalized or vague, by using "*it seems that*". From numbers 2 and 3, uncertainty is shown or evasion of responsibility is embedded. Students are asked to find that out.

The teacher can mention the purpose of hedging; to make sentences more agreeable by shaping the phrase so that it is more vague or generalized. After noticing the function of hedging, the learners are ready to be guided into many other forms. Again, to find out what students already know, the teacher could have the students come up with more examples. Additionally, a list of hedgings can be handed out (Appendix A).

3.2 Guided Practice

At this stage, authentic texts with various hedged expressions can be used (e.g. Appendix B). Students will be asked to read the text and some comprehension checking questions will be asked, for example, "*What does the writer think about the dinosaurs? Are they alive*?" The students will reinforce their understanding of the function of hedging, showing uncertainty and possibility as they answer the comprehension questions.

Then, as a controlled practice, students will be asked to highlight the hedged expressions. The list mentioned earlier could be distributed after this activity, but the teacher could decide this according to the students' needs. After having students underline the hedged words, the answers will be handed out (Appendix C). Through this activity, students will be able to actually see the form variance and its openness. For example, in the sentence "Dinosaurs **may** exist in the secret island." the lexis item *may*, would be noticed solely as a modal verb in the first place but then students will notice that it could function as hedging.

Another controlled activity we can think of is to have students alter the lexical items. They do not only have to be synonyms, but the students will be asked to change around the lexical items. The orientation or the intention of the students can change the possibility of the dinosaurs' survival by using the hedging language.

Filling in blanks or re-writing the sentences activity can be also added. For example;

Make sentences by using the words given.

1) Dogs / walk / likely to / alone.
2) Possible / buy / Cocaine / Korea
3) Dentist / surgery / may / keep teeth

An activity such as the one above is a typical ESL/ EFL classroom activity. However, when teaching hedging, variation of the students' writing could be interesting. Also, I believe that practicing vagueness or showing uncertainty of possibility will anyhow influence the students' output.

3.3 Free Practice

To move on, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2013) suggested some activities for speaking in the language classroom such as; role play, group discussion, using the target language outside the classroom, using the learner's input, feedback, and looking at authentic speech in the form of a written transcript. On the basis of these suggestions, some ideas came to mind. Writing practices are not considered at the moment.

3-3-1. Discussion

Having a discussion seems to be both a controlled and free activity where students can actually practice the language by using their cognition. In order to maximize the use of hedging, the discussion topics are to be chosen carefully. What I came up with is to give some vague questions or questions that do not have any right or wrong answers. The suggested topics are as below:

Topics for Debate
1) Tomatoes; Are they fruits or vegetables?
2) Should the price of medicine be the same across the world?
3) What is the minimum income you expect to need to live in Seoul?
4) When dividing a team in our classroom, who can be the two leaders?
5) Do we have to respond to all the wedding invitations we get?
6) How can women refuse unsuitable requests from male bosses?

Topics 5 and 6 are intentionally added to reinforce the function of hedging, where it tries to save face or to keep cohesion for the interlocutor. The other topics are intended to allow students to practice the generalization of hedged language, which could be extended into a writing activity in the future.

3-3-2. Games

Adapting games also seems to be a good idea. For example, let's say we are playing twenty questions to decipher unknown information that is written on a card. For the first round, students are required to answer only using *yes/no.* It will make a huge difference in the game to allow hedging to be used in the second round of questioning. Games seem to be a good method for negotiating and sharing meanings with orientation entailed. Compared to discussion, it is assumed that such games

would work better due to providing naturalness, lowering students' tension and to preparing more comfortable settings for practicing speaking. Some examples of games follow.

1) Guess Who Game

The students take turns to come out to the front of the class and think of one colleague in the classroom. The other students will try to find out who it is by asking questions, such as "*Is she tall*?" or "*Does she like to sing*?", etc. The answers should be vague enough so that the other students cannot find who he or she is for 10 questions. If the students find out who it is, they win and if they do not, the presenter wins. The topics could be varied to include animals, fruits, vegetables, etc. However, limiting or restricting questions are difficult, so the presenter will have the authority to "*pass*" to reject a question.

2) Explaining Picture Speed Game

Students can again take turns to be a narrator and explain the features of something. First the narrator can come up and pick one picture. Then the student will explain the drawing to the students, by using hedged expressions. When needed, the teacher can provided some expressions of hedging to be used.

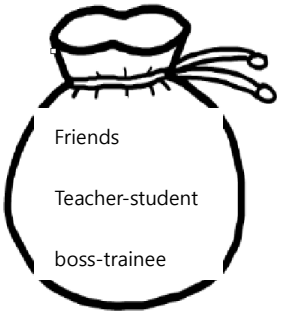
	Presenter: "I think this is a bird. Its body seems bigger than a chicken. I guess this is a logo for a chicken market."

3-3-3. Role plays

When considering the aspects of hedging, it was mentioned first of all that it is highly related to interaction and that the hierarchy between the interlocutors affects the way of speaking. Role play seems to be a good activity to practice and experience the use of hedging. For example, giving roles such as professor-student will generate students (non-expert) to use more hedgings to show more uncertainty compared to the professor (expert) concerning the subject matter. As Korean language has honorific forms, the age hierarchy is assumed to be more natural to Koreans, so other kinds of relational-hierarchies are also to be practiced. Putting aside hierarchy, other relational aspects, such as intention of cohesion may be practiced through discussion about topics. These topics could be either familiar ones or non-familiar ones. Familiar topics about daily life seem good for students to practice presenting intimacy or hostility using hedged expressions. On the other hand, unfamiliar topics could vary and require a deeper understanding of whether hedging is content related or relation related.

To present this in class, students will first pair up and the roles will be handed out. Then, the pairs will select from a box containing descriptions of situations. Students will be asked to first brainstorm

and note down how to solve or act in the situation. Then, the students will come out and act it out. After one group is done, the students can share what kinds of hedging they found or give recommendations as to how to alter the language used in that situation.

	-Refusing a party invitation - Asking to leave the room - Telling the need for redoing homework - Asking to end a phone call - Defining whether tomato is a fruit or a vegetable - Telling that a new style is not nice - Refusing a job application	 	
Choose roles and partners	Choose situation	Brainstorming and writing	Role play and sharing ideas

3-4. Adapting Corpus

Lastly, regarding teaching hedges, I would like to incorporate corpora in class. The teacher could look up the frequency and the context of the uses of hedges. If the ones that are commonly used do not seem to appear among student's output, the teacher could bring them into class for presentation. In other words, it could be the compass for selecting items. Šeškauskiene (2008) found out that modal verbs are acquired by Lithuanians more easily compared to other lexical items used as hedges. As such, the teacher could have students keep their own hedging corpus. A text analyzer could be used for written papers and recordings or video tape of classes could be done by the teacher for analyzing spoken words. By having records of use, it will be much easier for the teacher and students to find out what ought to be learnt and practiced first. As a student myself, I often find myself using the same lexical items over and over again in writing. That is, differences in nuance are difficult to notice and at the same time, it is difficult to find alternative items. However, if I get to find out what I tend to use all the time, the data from the corpus will give another reliable option for me to use in alternation. Moreover, if I keep a lexical notebook related to hedges, it seems that over time I would be able to use a broader variety of them. That is what I would like to try out both for myself and for my students.

4. CONCLUSION

Hedges are theoretically interesting in terms of the challenges they present to logic-based semantic analyses. At the same time, hedges are practically interesting for the analysis of communicative strategies and in contexts of language learning where second-language learners often face the challenge of having to infer the pragmatically-loaded meanings and conventions of hedges (Gries and David, 2007). Its importance concerning academic writing has also emerged. Their high frequency and the information gap that exists among our learners show us that it is necessary to teach hedging. Šeškauskiene (2008) showed that L2 English users were able to show improvement when hedging was taught. It seems inevitable to bring this concept into the classroom. However, as mentioned earlier, hedges are largely interactive and cross-cultural. Thus, when students use hedges, teachers should be careful when assessing them by making an effort to understand the orientation of the learner. There are always personal preferences in language use.

REFERENCES

Alcón, S. E., & Safont, J. M. (2008). *Intercultural language use and language learning*. Dordrecht: Springer.

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1978). Universals in language usage: politeness phenomena. In E.N. Goody (ed.), *Questions and Politeness: Strategies in Social Interaction*. Cambridge Papers in Social Anthropology 8: Cambridge.

Case, A. (2014). How to teach hedging and generalising - UsingEnglish.com. Retrieved from https://www.usingenglish.com/articles/how-to-teach-hedging-generalising.html

Celce-Murcia, M. & Olshtain, E. (2013). *A contrastive study of hedging in English and Farsi academic discourse* (10th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Falahati, R. (2004). A Contrastive Study of Hedgings in English and Farsi Academic Discourse. Retrieved from http://dspace.library.uvic.ca/bitstream/handle/1828/714/falahati_2004.pdf?s

Fraser, B. (1975). Hedged performatives. In P. Cole and J. L. Morgan (eds.). *Syntax and Semantics. Vol. 3*. (pp. 187-210). New York: Academic Press.

Frazer, B. (2010). Pragmatic competence: The case of hedging. In G. Kaltenböck, W. Mihatsch and S. Schneider (eds.), *New Approaches to Hedging* (pp. 15-34). Emerald.

Gries, S. T., & David, C. V. (2007). This is kind of / sort of interesting: variation in hedging in English. Retrieved from http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/series/volumes/02/gries_david/

Hubler, A. (1983). *Understatements and hedges in English*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Lakoff, G. (1972). Hedges: a study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *The 8th Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society*, 183-228.

Markkanen, R., & Schröder, H. (1997). *Hedging and Discourse: Approaches to the Analysis of a Pragmatic Phenomenon in Academic Texts*. Berlin, Germany.

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Neary-Sundquist, C. (2013). The use of hedges in the speech of ESL learners. *Estudios de lingüística inglesa aplicada*, 13, 149-174.

O'Keeffe, A., McCarthy, M. and Carter, R. (2007). *From corpus to classroom: Language use and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Prince, E. F., Frader, J. & Bosk, C. (1982). On hedging in physician-physician discourse. *Linguistics and the Professions*, 83–97.

Roth, E. (2015, December 29). Hedging Language & Seeking Clarification in Our Arguments. Retrieved from https://www.compellingconversations.com/hedging-language-seeking-clarification-arguments

Ruzaite, J. (2007). *Vague language in educational settings: Quantifiers and approximators in British and American English*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang AG.

Šeškauskiene, I. (2008). Hedging in ESL: a Case Study of Lithuanian Learners. Retrieved from ISSN 1648-2824

Weinreich, U. (1966). *Languages in contact: Findings and problems.* The Hague: Mouton.

Yates, L. (2010). Pragmatic challenges for second language learners. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 287-308). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

APPENDIX A

Hedging Language

Modal Verbs (auxiliary)	Other Modal Verbs	Probability Adjectives	Probability Adverbs	Frequency Adverbs
can could may might should would	appear look seem tend	likely possible probable unlikely	perhaps possibly probably presumably	generally occasionally often seldom usually
Phrases	As far as I know, I may be mistaken but I'm not sure if I guess It could be the case that One possible explanation is that			

APPENDIX B

Dinosaurs **may** exist in the secret island. It is said that they have died out million years ago. However, some archeologists claim that they are alive and they seem to live together on a small, hidden island. The island's name would be presumably Jurassic Park.

Many people tried to find that island from the map but it was not yet found. It appears that there might be a place where it does not appear in the map but actually exists.

But how did they survive? Dinosaurs are known to be extinguished due to the shortage of food. One possible explanation is that some of the dinosaurs have been preserved as in eggs. The heat of the earth possibly incubated the little ones.

Another claim is that herbivorous dinosaurs have survived thanks to the trees and plants left over and the carnivore dinos, such as Tyrannosaurus hunted after them and retained its species.

I'm not sure if any of these are true but after seeing the movie Jurassic World, it seems anything is possible. Lots of mysterious things are likely to happen all over the world nowadays and the dinosaurs living with us in the same era seems to be acceptable. Just in the case that I do not get to see them with my eyes.

- Movie editor, Indorapter -

APPENDIX C

Dinosaurs **may** exist in the secret island. It is said that they have died out million years ago. However, some archeologists claim that they are alive and they seem to live together on a small, hidden island. The island's name would be presumably Jurassic Park.

Many people tried to find that island from the map but it was not yet found. It appears that there might be a place where it does not appear in the map but actually exists.

But how did they survive? Dinosaurs are known to be extinguished due to the shortage of food. One possible explanation is that some of the dinosaurs have been preserved as in eggs. The heat of the earth possibly incubated the little ones.

Another claim is that herbivorous dinosaurs have survived thanks to the trees and plants left over and the carnivore dinos, such as Tyrannosaurus hunted after them and retained its species.

I'm not sure if any of these are true but after seeing the movie Jurassic World, it seems anything is possible. Lots of mysterious things are likely to happen all over the world nowadays and the dinosaurs living with us in the same era seems to be acceptable. Just in the case that I do not get to see them with my eyes.

- Movie editor, Indorapter -

Effects of Referential Questions and Creative Activities in EFL Classrooms for Young Learners in Korea

Somin Park

Creativity and Humanism in TESOL

Abstract

In this paper, issues around referential questions, and question types from two main theoretical perspectives - interactionist SLA theory and sociocultural theory are discussed. By reviewing literature regarding engagement of students in their own experiences and allowing them to make connections and facilitate learning, responding spontaneously to referential questions is a clear indicator of second language learning because it helps students produce extended turns of talk and provide a means for teachers and students co-construct knowledge (Boyd & Rubin, 2002; Ernst, 1994; Mercer, 2000; Nystrand, 1997). Referential questions, and a creative approach of activities allow students to use of target language with their own social and cultural experience along with new knowledge. Bringing their own stories to the discussion topic it allows for time to think, which may assist in motivating learning as a means to communicate in the EFL situation. In terms of retrieval process of memory, the more pathways built between new and stored information leads to stronger connections, which makes for greater in-depth processing. Referential questions provoke students to response in longer and more syntactically complex utterances, and creativity enhancing activities that lead to higher order thinking which can engage students more meaningfully to the topic. With the contextual support of students' responses, teachers can reformulate, repeat, and elaborate more on student responses which further assists students within their Zone of Proximal Development.

1. INTRODUCTION

In terms of language learning, exposure to the target language is an important factor. In EFL settings like Korea, considering the limitation of learning languages in the classroom environment, exposure to the target language is very low. What teachers could do with the limited of time, instead of delivering information, is lead students to engage in the deep process of learning, which could help in their learning and language learning behavior outside the classroom. Also to promote learning outside the classroom, teachers can assist students in how to learn languages in effective ways. With the same materials of teaching, I believe teachers can make different learning outcomes with questions and activities that require students to think deeply. Students' opportunity to participate

actively in the classroom communication may vary with quantity and quality of the verbal behavior of the teacher.

In Korea, English learning content is usually not related to what students learn in their first language. However, if the content they learn is related to what they know in their first language, students' motivation may increase. To engage students in creative thinking, according to Szekely (1988), lessons must be designed to motivate students to use their own time outside of the subject class - not only home but during all sorts of daily experiences - to prepare for learning by seeing, thinking, and responding.

The term content knowledge refers to the body of knowledge and information that teachers teach and that students are expected to learn in a given subject or content area, such as mathematics, science, or social studies. Content and language integrated learning objectives are varied, but among the most relevant ones Coyle et al. (2010) claimed to improve the educational system. To establish the necessary conditions that will allow students to achieve the appropriate level of academic performance in content and language integrated learning subjects. To improve students' proficiency in both their mother tongue and the target language, attaching the same importance to each. To develop the intercultural understanding and social, thinking skills. Lorenzo et al. (2011) stated that content and language integrated learning improves not only first language but also second language development. It prepares students for the globalized world, increases students' motivation to learn foreign languages, and promotes the learning of a more extensive and varied vocabulary. Moreover, it enhances students' confidence in the target language, improves language competence in target language content, and language integrated learning is regarded as more beneficial that traditional foreign language teaching courses since it helps develop the intercultural competence. According to Nagappan (2001), one way to engage students in thinking is to ask them higher-order questions, which is referential questions. If input is related to personal experience and give them an opportunity to produce their story and experience, students will enjoy production as well. For this purpose problem solving and creativity based activities are suggested after dialogic reading with referential questions.

In this paper, there are issues addressed around referential questions, and question types from two main theoretical perspectives - interactionist SLA theory and sociocultural theory. Responding spontaneously to referential questions is a clear indicator of second language learning because it helps students produce extended turns of talk and provide a means for teachers and students co-construct knowledge (Boyd & Rubin, 2002; Ernst, 1994; Mercer, 2000; Nystrand, 1997). Referential questions, and creative approach activities allow students to use of target language with their own social/ cultural experience to new knowledge. By bringing their own story to the topics it makes people to think, which may motivate learning to communicate in EFL situation.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition of creativity

Creativity is used when describing a product, a process, a person or pressure in the course. In many uses, creativity includes not only the outcome at the final but also the procedural elements of the person who makes the product and the process itself (Weisberg, 2006). Since Guilford (1950) posed a challenge of creativity and education in his inaugural address, many scholars have made lots of definitions and research from various perspectives. Among them, two major criteria have been drawn as the factors for judging creativity: novelty and appropriateness (Perkins, 1988; Mumford, 2003). Novelty means producing new or original ideas or works. In regard to appropriateness, an idea or product should be useful, valuable, beautiful, and acceptable within the given context (Starko, 2010). As a result, if a person makes a new idea or product to match his or her social context, it can be called “creative”.

2.2 Content and language integrated learning

Learning is improved through increased motivation and the study of natural language seen in context. Past research has shown that learner characteristics such as aptitude, attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety correlate with a wide range of indices of language achievement (Gardner & Clement, 1990). In a context where modern language pedagogy places a strong emphasis on authentic communication as an essential part of language learning it would follow, therefore, that individual differences in communication tendencies will play a meaningful role in language learning outcomes, both linguistic and nonlinguistic. Following a special psychological approach to these issues, the combined effect of these and other variables has recently been described in a theoretical model (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998) proposes willingness to communicate as a construct synthesizing their effects on authentic communication in the L2.

2.3 Cognitive levels of question classification

The intellectual or cognitive levels of questions are defined according to two classification systems. One, developed by Bloom (1956), assigns questions to one of six levels. At the lowest level of this hierarchy are those questions calling for the recognition or recall of factual information, while at level two are questions dealing with comprehension and calling for explanation, interpretation or extrapolation. At the third, fourth, and fifth levels are questions asking for the application of factual knowledge, for the analysis of relationships between elements, and for generalizing or synthesizing, respectively. Finally questions at the highest cognitive level call for evaluation or judgments. Furthermore, if a referential question is related to problem finding or the identification and framing of problems, it allows students to select ideas or problem by themselves which means students engage their thinking to learning. In terms of importance in problem finding, Dillon (1982) described

formulation of a problem is often more important than its solution, which may be merely a matter of mathematical or experimental skill. To raise new questions, new possibilities, to regard old problems from a new angle, requires imagination and marks real advance in science. To help students become successful problem finders, it is effective to apply creative approach in activities with use of learning language. Many of the language tasks flavored by contemporary language teaching methods are believed to release creativity in learners - particularly those involving student-centered, interaction-based, and open-ended elements, and are therefore in principle ideally suited to fostering creative thinking and behavior on the part of learners. Creative intelligence seems to be a factor that can facilitate language learning because it helps learners cope with novel and unpredictable experiences. Communicative teaching methods have a role to play here since they emphasize functional and situational language use and employ activities such as simulations that require students to use their imaginations and think creatively.

2.4 Problem solving and creativity-based activities

Many educational researchers emphasized the importance of building a supportive climate of creative ideas (Cropley, 1992). To assist students to have creative ideas, according to Starko (2010), students learn best when they have time to find problems, relate information to personal experiences and communicate their ideas to others. In order to relate their personal experience and problems, it is important for teachers to understand problem types. Getzels (1964) distinguished between presented and discovered problems situations. These differ according to the degree to which the problem, method, and solution are already known. Later Getzels (1987) identified three problem types. In a type 1 problem, there is a known formulation, a known method of solution, and a solution known to others but not to the problem solver. Students who have been taught the formula for computing the area of a square use this formula to calculate the area of a particular square. Most classroom problems are of this type. The teacher presents students with a problem and expects that they will arrive at a specific answer through a particular means. Type 2 problems also take the form of a presented problem, but the method of solution is not known to the problem solver. In this case, students might be asked to calculate the area of a rectangle before they have been introduced to that particular formula. They must discover a satisfactory method before they can solve the problem. With type 3 problems, there is no presented problem. The problem itself must be discovered, and neither the problem nor its solution may be known to anyone. In the Getzels (1987) series of examples, type 3 problems might entail drawing a rectangle on the board and asking, “How many questions might be posed about this rectangle?” or “Pose an important question about this rectangle and solve it”. Type 1 problems primarily involve memory and retrieval process. Type 2 problems demand analysis and reasoning. Only type 3 problems, in which the problem itself becomes a goal, necessitate problem finding.

2.5 Dialogic reading, and students output while reading

Dialogic reading is the practice whereby a child and an adult share a picture book, and focus on the picture book and the story through talk (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). When most adults share a book with a preschool child, they read and the child listens. In dialogic reading, the adult helps the child become the teller of the story. The adult becomes the listener, the questioner and the audience for the child (Whitehurst, 2002). Research studies indicate that a dialogical approach to reading, when the child has an active part in the reading experience, talks about the story and asks and answers questions about the story, is more effective in developing oral language than when adults just read the book to the child with little or no interaction (Trivette & Dunst, 2007; Hargrave & Senechal, 2000). Dialogic story reading not only develops oral vocabulary but also more complex language skills such as grammar, listening comprehension, and the ability to form an argument and to elaborate (NELP, 2008). These complex language skills are what make a difference to reading skills in the middle grades in school. Dialogic reading helps children to use more words, speak in longer sentences, score higher on vocabulary tests, and demonstrate overall improvement in expressive language skills (Doyle & Bramwell, 2006; Huebner & Meltzoff, 2005; Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Huebner, 2000).

2.6 Creative reading with thinking

Opportunities to promote creative growth in students can occur through the use of reading as a stimulus for creative thinking. Creative reading, according to Torrance (1962), involves being "sensitive to problems and possibilities" and missing elements in what one reads. Creative reading requires that the reader see new relationships, synthesize, redefine and build onto the reading selection; thus producing new possibilities and solutions. The addition of a new problem, event or character to think beyond a literature selection can be considered a creative act. Asking a question while reading a book and using an activity learned while reading a book to develop a new game can facilitate creative thinking. Creative response to reading occurs as the reader expands upon the ideas conveyed by author's words. Such expansion, as revealed through a child's oral responses to a literature selection is one manifestation of creative thinking which this investigation seeks to study. By revealing specific abilities in creative thinking, reading comprehension, and creative responses to literature, this study was designed to promote an awareness of abilities and potentialities that might otherwise remain unnoticed. Abilities to raise questions to problems, pose alternative solutions to problems, or extend a stimulus with many unique ideas may be transferred to students' understanding of science or social studies problems.

3. METHODS

3.1 Participants

The total number of participants for the study will be 84 children age 3 to 5 who are in project based learning kindergarten classes in Korea. There are 22 students of age 3, 39 students of age 4, and 23 students age 5.

3.2 Design of Lesson Plans

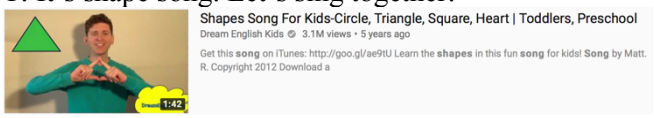
3.2.1 Lesson Flow

There will be creative enhancing questions with a teacher reading a book to classes. Also, students will be able to practice learning objectives with some creative activities so that they can process deeply rather than just repeating the target words or sentences. Mainly a class is based on reading a book in a class with question type two or three to provoke students interest, motivation, and language learning with deep thinking process. After reading a book, students will play around with the topics they are learning and prompts to produce target words while playing.

3.2.2 Lesson Plan 1

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">1. Where is the dinosaur?</td><td>Science</td></tr>
<tr><td>Preparation</td><td colspan="2">Dinosaur eggs/ Dinosaur toy/ Dinosaur fossils finding toy
 </td></tr>
<tr><td>Target words /Expressions</td><td colspan="2">[Words]
dinosaur/find/egg/water/hit/brush/number
Additional: fossil/split

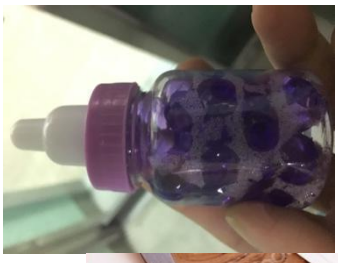
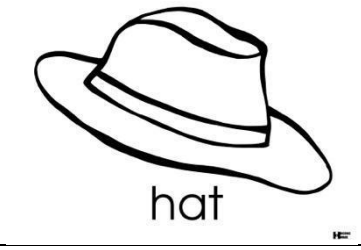
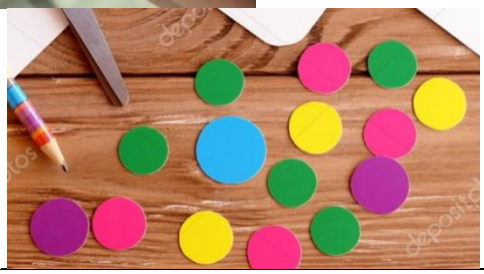
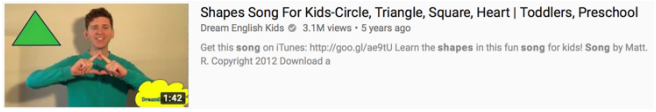
[Expressions]
What is this?
This is a dinosaur egg.
We need water.
Let’s _____.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Learning Objectives</td><td colspan="2">1. Students can explore things about dinosaur by playing and questioning about the subject.
2. Students can understand and practice target words above related to dinosaur.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Warm Up</td><td>Opening Ceremony
(3 minutes)</td><td>‘What’s the weather’ song
What’s the weather What’s the weather What’s the weather like today Tell me OO What’s the weather What’s the</td></tr>
</table>

		weather like today. Is it sunny Is it rainy Is it windy out today Tell me OO What's the weather What's the weather like today Is it stormy Is it snowy Is it cloudy out today partly cloudy What's the weather What's the weather like today
	Today's chant (2 minutes)	T: It's shape song. Let's sing together!  https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g2jdZ46nK-M
	Reading (3 minutes)	The Grumposaur (Reading Ocean) Referential Questions when reading a story Except question type 1, a teacher can ask a question type 2 and 3 questions which are: What's going on here? What do you see in the picture? What do you think OO said to XX? Why do you think so? What do you think it will happen in the next? Do you think it will happen in that way? How would you feel if you were OO? To provoke students interest, and let them think fully with pictures first so that they can understand better.

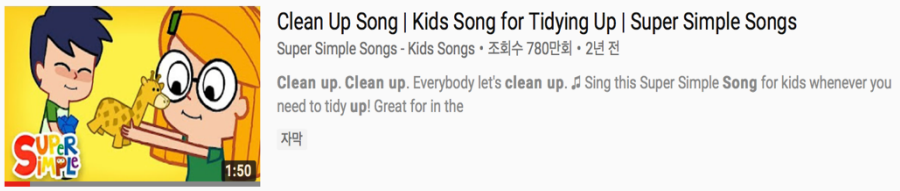
Activity Description (20 minutes)	1. Show eggs of dinosaur and give time for students to explore about it. Ask them a question starting, "What is this?". Let them to think about little bit and tell them, "This is a dinosaur egg, and we need water." T: "Let's go get some water! Where can I find water? I think I can find water in the bathroom." (Ask them where we can get water, let them to lead a teacher) Depending on their level, they can try saying the words in English such as, water/Let's go/Let's go get (some) water. 2. Fill the transparent cup with the water. Ask students to say dinosaur egg or egg and put them into a cup. T: After you sleep tonight and wake up tomorrow morning, dinosaur will come out of its shell. Where can we put this cup? 3. Hide and seek play with dinosaur toys. Let students speak “dinosaur!”, if they say, show them one by one of dinosaur toys. Play hide and seek game. “Let’s find a dinosaur” “Where is a dinosaur!?” “Did you find a dinosaur?” “Tell me where it is!” 5. After finding dinosaurs, count numbers of dinosaurs (1 to 10). 6. Dinosaur Fossil finding play We are going to find dinosaur from the fossil here. The teacher will “hit” it, and students will “brush” to find dinosaur. Target words: Hit, brush, find
Wrap-up (3 miutes)	After finding dinosaurs from the fossil, check the dinosaur eggs in the water. Review the words egg/ water. Leave dinosaur toys on the table and say goodbye to them. Let them to speak “Goodbye dinosaur! Goodbye egg! See you tomorrow." Sing “Clean up song” together. Clean Up Song | Kids Song for Tidying Up | Super Simple Songs Super Simple Songs - Kids Songs • 조회수 780만회 • 2년 전 **Clean up. Clean up.** Everybody let's **clean up.** ♫ Sing this Super Simple **Song** for kids whenever you need to tidy **up**! Great for in the 자막 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SFE0mMWbA-Y

3.2.3 Lesson Plan 2

<table>
<tr><td>2. Happy Circles (Frog eggs)</td><td colspan="2">Science</td></tr>
<tr><td>Preparation</td><td colspan="2">Frog eggs (3 colors)/ Transparent plastic cup/ Picture of Hat (A4 size)/ Circles in multi colors

 
 
  </td></tr>
<tr><td>Target words /Expressions</td><td colspan="2">[Words]
hat/circle/happy/color words/numbers/soft/catch/water/pour
Additional: frog/ball/frog ball/soft ball/stir
[Expressions]
I'm going to show you_____. / show me
What color do you want? / I want ____.
I have _____ (color).
Let's _____.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Learning Objectives</td><td colspan="2">1. Related to the topic science (frog eggs), students can learn about the shape, and colors.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Warm Up</td><td>Opening Ceremony
(3 minutes)</td><td>“What’s the weather?” song
What’s the weather What’s the weather What’s the weather like today Tell me OO What’s the weather What’s the weather like today. Is it sunny Is it rainy Is it windy out today Tell me OO What’s the weather What’s the weather like today Is it stormy Is it snowy Is it cloudy out today partly cloudy What’s the weather What’s the weather like today</td></tr>
<tr><td>Today's chant
(4 minutes)</td><td>T: It’s shape song. Let’s sing together!
 
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=g2jdZ46nK-M</td></tr>
<tr><td>Reading
(10 minutes)</td><td>The book ‘The Happy Hat’
Let’s start reading the book! Here we go!</td></tr>
</table>

		 http://storyberries.com/the-happy-hat/ **Referential Questions when reading a story** Except question type 1, a teacher can ask a question type 2 and 3 questions which are: What's going on here? What do you see in the picture? What do you think OO said to XX? Why do you think so? What do you think it will happen in the next? Do you think it will happen in that way? How would you feel if you were OO? To provoke students interest, and let them think fully with pictures first so that they can understand better.
Activity Description (20 minutes)	1. We are going to make happy hat like a one in the book. Target word: shape, circle 2. After making happy hat, introduce them happy circle and happy ball. T: I'm going to show you my happy balls. I have five colors, yellow, red, green, blue, and purple. What color do you want?" (Let them same the name of the color, and show me!) Students can open frog egg and let them explore those eggs. 3. To show them other colors of frog eggs, let them say the name of the colors they want. "Now I have yellow, red, green, and blue." Ss: "I want red/Show me red" 4. Check if the students know all the colors of the eggs at the end and say, T: These happy balls live in the water. Where can we find water?" Ss: "Let's go to the bathroom!/Let's go!/Water!/Let's go get some water (They can understand the word water or upon their level they can say above words or sentences) 5. T: Can you say "open" and open it? Let them pour frog eggs into the water.	

	  6. Put frog eggs by colors and let them explore and catch the eggs. T: Then what other color do you want? Target words: pour, water 7. Let students stir the eggs, and ask if eggs are big or small. They can compare eggs which ones are bigger or smaller. Target words: stir, bigger, smaller. 8. Catch the eggs game They will catch the eggs by color words, and numbers. T: Now we are going to catch only purple! Now we are going to catch five eggs. Who's faster? Teacher or you? Let's catch 5 purple eggs. Let's grab purple ones. 9. After the game, put the eggs back into the bottle and talk about the frog eggs.
Wrap-up (3 minutes)	Sing "Clean up song" together.  https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SFE0mMWbA-Y

4. RESULTS

4.1 How students enjoyed the activities

Whenever I try to teach colors, numbers, and some verbs we learned (stir, catch, and brush) without the creativity enhanced method of activities, students just repeat the words they need to learn. They don't engage in additional thinking when learning which means they don't have high motivation or interest in learning. However, if a teacher gives interesting topic and resources about the subject, students love to explore around and share their knowledge eagerly.

4.2 Why students enjoy the activities

Students tend to extremely enjoy the activities when they get to touch and play around little bit and after, and they can tell why they liked it. What they know about the topic they learned. Students like to share their story and previous knowledge when reading a book and while they play.
For creative activities and environments that students can freely explore as they wonder about the topics, and speak out is really important when learning languages.

5. CONCLUSION

In the L2 classroom, teachers are the ones who usually ask most of the questions (Nunan, 1990). However, the students can also be effective questioners. Thus, it might be worthwhile not only for teachers to ask higher order questions themselves in order to encourage thinking, but also to provide more instruction and opportunities for students to ask such questions. Indeed, I believe when learning something students may have many inquires about the subjects. However, in many countries and institutions the use of higher order questions would imply major curricular changes. For instance, a shift would be needed away from an emphasis on students repeating the one right answer previously provided by the teacher or the textbook and toward an emphasis on valuing the thinking process which students undertake as they grapple with complex tasks which provokes in-depth processing.

In terms of retrieval process in memory, more pathways between learning and information build more strong connections which make in-depth processing. Referential questions which provokes students to response longer and more syntactically complex, and creativity enhancing activities that leads higher order thinking can engage students more meaningfully to the topic. With the contextual support to students' responses, teachers can reformulate their responses, repeat their responses, and elaborate more on their responses which assists students within their Zone of Proximal Developments.

I believe all men have certain creative potential. This creative potential may appear as problems are solved in daily living. It may result in the solution of scientific or mathematical problems; the product may be in art, music or written form. The abilities to apply creative potential depend not only

on particular personality traits, knowledge and experiences but upon the opportunities given by parents, peers, and teachers to develop, understand, and use creative talents. Using the creativity in language learning may engage students in learning with high motivation and interest. Above all, their memory will be longer because of they engaged with their personal and cultural experiences in learning.

In the future, I want to investigate effectiveness of referential questions in second language learning in terms of their output. As a teacher, I want to reflect teaching materials and activities to be more focused to ask referential questions and to see referential questions prompt students to comprehend and produce target language that reflect their own thinking.

REFERENCES

Alcón, E. G. (1993). High cognitive questions in NNS group classroom discussion: do they facilitate comprehension and production of the foreign language?. *RELC Journal*, *24*(1), 73-85.

Allwright, D. (1979). Abdication and responsibility in language teaching. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *2*(1), 105-121.

Boyd, M. P., & Rubin, D. L. (2002). Elaborated student talk in an elementary classroom. Research in the Teaching of English, 36, 495e530.

Bloom, B. S. (1956.) Taxonomy of educational objectives: cognitive domain. New York: Longman.

Brock, C.A. (1986). The effects of referential question on ESL Classroom discourse. TESOL Quarterly, 20: 47-59.

Cropley, A. J. (1992). *More ways than one: Fostering creativity*. Ablex Publishing.

Davey, B., & McBride, S. (1986). Effects of question-generation training on reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *78*(4), 256.

Doughty, C., & Pica, T. (1986). "Information gap" tasks: Do they facilitate second language acquisition?. *TESOL quarterly*, *20*(2), 305-325.

Dillon, J. T. (1982). Problem finding and solving. Journal of Creative Behavior, 16, 97-111.

Ernst, G. (1994). "Talking circles": conversation and negotiation in the ESL classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 28, 293e322.

Gagné, F. (1985). Giftedness and talent: Reexamining a reexamination of the definitions. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, *29*(3), 103-112.

Gardner, R. C., & Clement, R. (1990). Social psychological perspectives on second language acquisition. In H. Giles & P. Robinson (Eds.), *The handbook of language and social psychology*, 495- 517. New York: Wiley

Getzels, J. W. (1964). Creative thinking, problem-solving, and instruction. *Theories of learning and instruction*, *63*.

Getzels, J. W. (1987). Creativity, intelligence, and problem finding: Retrospect and prospect. *Frontiers of creativity research*, 88-102.

Gibbons, P. (2003). Mediating language learning: teacher interactions with ESL students in a content-based classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 37(2), 247e273.

Griffiths, C. (ed.) (2008). Lesson from good language learners. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jones, R. H., & Richards, J. C. (Eds.). (2015). *Creativity in language teaching: Perspectives from research and practice*. Routledge.

Guilford, J. P. (1950). Creativity. *American Psychologist*, 5, 444 454.

Keenan, Elinor Ochs, Bambi B. Schieffelin, and Martha Platt. 1978. Questions of immediate concern. In questions and politeness, Esther N. Goody (Ed.), 44-55. London: Cambridge University Press.

King, A. (1990). Enhancing peer interaction and learning in the classroom through reciprocal questioning. *American Educational Research Journal*, *27*(4), 664-687.

Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.

Harmer, J. (2000). How to Teach English Beijing. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press*, *5*, 1-2.

Lei, X. (2009). Communicative teacher talk in the English classroom. *English Language Teaching*, *2*(1), 75.

Lier, S. (1988). The EFL CLassroom. *ELT Journal, 26* (3): 196-204

Long, M. H. (1981). Input, interaction, and second-language acquisition. *Annals of the New York academy of sciences*, *379*(1), 259-278.

Long, M., & Sato, C. (1983). Classroom Foreigner Talk Discourse: Forms and Functions of Teachers' Questions. In H. Seliger, & M. Long (Eds.), Classroom-Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition (pp. 268-286). Rowley, MA: Newsbury House.

McGrew, S. (2005). Student questions in an intermediate modern Hebrew classroom. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics (WPEL)*, *21*(1), 3.

MacIntyre, P. D., Clement, R., Dornyei, 2., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal*, 82. 545-562.

Mercer, N. (1995). The guided construction of knowledge: Talk amongst teachers and learners. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Mercer, N. (2000). Words and minds: How we use language to think together. London: Routledge.

Nystrand, M. (1997). *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *Tesol Quarterly*, *21*(4), 737-758.

Renshaw, P., & Brown, R. A. (2007). Formats of classroom talk for integrating everyday and scientific discourse: replacement, interweaving, contextual privileging, and pastiche. *Language and Education, 21(6)*, 531e549.

Starko, A. J. (2009). *Creativity in the classroom: Schools of curious delight*. Newyork: Routledge.

Stubbs, Michael. (1983). Discourse Analysis: the sociolinguistic analysis of natural lanugage. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. *Input in second language acquisition*, *15*, 165-179.

Torrance, E. P. (1962). Guiding creative talent.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind and society. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wu, K. Y. (1993). Classroom interaction and teacher questions revisited. *RELC journal*, *24*(2), 49-68.

Zhou, X., & Zhou, Y. (2002). A research and analysis of teacher talk in college English classrooms. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, *34*(1), 66-71.

Exploring the Effects of Pedagogical Measures Implemented in Conjunction with Reciprocal Teaching Dialogues Upon Learner Use of Reading Comprehension Strategies

Darren Rushbrook

Teaching Reading

Abstract

Reciprocal teaching (RT) methodologies for developing the reading comprehension of learners through reading strategy use have incorporated a variety of pedagogical measures implemented in conjunction with RT dialogues. This paper seeks to inform effective teaching practice by identifying such pedagogical measures that facilitate reading comprehension development by supporting learner use of the reading strategies of questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting. It examines four research studies to provide an insight into the effectiveness of some of these measures in better supporting learner strategy use. The development of learners' collaboration and cooperation skills prior to their engagement in RT dialogues, the inclusion of material scaffolds aimed at facilitating learner self-regulation of strategy application and the monitoring of reading comprehension development, and the use of the learners' L1 as a linguistic scaffold during RT dialogues are the particular measures that are addressed. Data from the research indicates that whilst prior work on developing learners' collaboration and cooperation skills and material scaffolds for monitoring reading comprehension development can be considered particularly effective in facilitating learner acquisition of learning strategies by better supporting learner application of the strategies during RT dialogues. Furthermore, the research suggests that L1 scaffolding of RT dialogues is also potentially effective in supporting learner strategy use during the dialogues. The paper also highlights further curiosities relating to supporting learner reading strategy use through RT methodologies that can provide a foundation for further research.

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper offers an exploration into the use of the reciprocal teaching (RT) methodology for developing the reading comprehension of learners through reading strategy use. RT enhances learner comprehension of texts through facilitating learner internalization of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring reading strategies through classroom dialogues (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). It is grounded in theories of expert scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978) and proleptic teaching (Wertsch & Stone, 1979), whereby a gradual transfer of competence from the teacher to the learner occurs. RT

allows for this transfer through scaffolding by teacher-learner and learner-learner dialogue.

Yoosabai (2009) highlights components of RT that can be deemed to support learner acquisition of reading strategies: (a) explicit instruction and scaffolding by the teacher as an expert, (b) social interaction between peers, and (c) the development of strategies for question generation, summarizing, clarifying and predicting. Each component can be considered integral to strategy acquisition. Explicit instruction assists learners through providing them with declarative knowledge of the strategies. The metacognitive awareness that learners gain through explicit instruction and teacher modelling potentially assists with their transference of strategies (Chamot, et al., 1999) and the continual acquisition of improved strategies (Graesser, 2007). The social interaction element of the intervention allows learners to cooperatively monitor comprehension and negotiate the appropriate application of strategies, facilitating their internalisation of them through engaging in a higher level of thinking and developing conditional strategic knowledge (Yoosabai, 2009). The strategies of questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting were selected as foci for RT due to them collectively fulfilling the six core strategy functions relating to both cognitive and metacognitive applications that can be deemed essential for comprehending texts unassisted (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Operating in concert, these four target strategies can provide a dual function of operating as both comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities.

There has been a great deal of variation in how RT has been pedagogically implemented as an intervention with the aim of developing reading comprehension (McAllum, 2014). This variance has been attributed to a range of influences, including teachers adapting the methodology to complement particular teaching contexts (Marks et al., 1993), a lack of understanding by teachers of the principles or procedures underlying RT (Seymour & Osana, 2003), the lack of clarity with which the specific instructional procedure was presented when it was first introduced by Palincsar and Brown in 1984 (Rosenshine & Meister, 1994), and teachers' lack of confidence in applying the methodology (Wolmarans, 2016).

An example of the variance of RT instruction is Rosenshine and Meister's (1994) identification of two distinct variables of RT: those of RT dialogues being preceded by explicit strategy instruction (ET/RT), and *RT only* (RTO), which is when strategies are explicitly introduced through RT dialogues. This distinction is exemplified when the RTO approach of introducing strategies through dialogue employed by Palincsar and Brown (1984) is contrasted to later interventions that incorporated explicit strategy instruction in traditionally-formatted lessons prior to the implementation of RT dialogues (Palincsar et al., 1987; Palincsar, Ransom, & Derber, 1989; Palincsar, Stevens, & Gavelek, 1989; Palincsar et al., 1990). In a review of RT research, Rosenshine and Meister (1994) concluded that while both ET/RT and RTO variations typically led to increases in learner reading comprehension, RT was more effective when dialogues were preceded by explicit strategy instruction as in the ET/RT variant. Whilst this research review was limited to contexts in which texts were in the learners' L1, Salehi and Vafakhah (2013) found that in a direct comparison of the effects of the ET/RT and RTO approaches on

L2 learner reading comprehension gains, the ET/RT approach resulted in more significant gains than the RTO approach.

A potential explanation for the more significant comprehension gains of an ET/RT approach is that the measures applied in the additional instructional stages that precede RT dialogues facilitate learner participation in actively applying the target reading strategies. Research into the effects of RT on L2 reading comprehension has incorporated some additional measures intended to complement and enhance the effectiveness of RT dialogues in supporting learner acquisition of reading strategy use. These include explicit instruction of the target reading strategies supplemented with whole-class completion of learner worksheets in order to practice strategy implementation prior to engaging in group RT dialogues (Yoosabai, 2009; Lim, 2010; Salehi & Vafakhah, 2013), and linguistic scaffolding through the pre-teaching of L2 sentence stems to support learner articulation of strategy use (Lim, 2010; Salehi & Vafakhah, 2013).

However, the effectiveness of these particular additional scaffolds in supporting reading strategy use was not addressed in the aforementioned studies. While the studies have demonstrated that the implementation of such measures to supplement RT dialogues has resulted in more significant reading comprehension gains than the use of traditional teaching approaches (Yoosabai, 2009; Lim, 2010) and RT dialogues without such supplementations (Salehi & Vafakhah, 2013), a sole focus on the product of reading comprehension gains in some studies (Lim, 2010; Salehi & Vafakhah, 2013) means that they assume that the gains result from learners' enhanced application of the target strategies. When considering the effect of particular complimentary measures, it is necessary to consider whether they are supported by data demonstrating a facilitation of learner development of the use of the target reading strategies. Although Yoosabai's (2009) study demonstrates how an ET/RT adaptation of RT methodology featuring explicit instruction and whole-class worksheet completion had positive effects on learner use of reading strategies, it does not offer a comparison indicating whether the adopted approach offers a greater facilitation of learner strategy use than an approach that does not feature the additional scaffolds. Therefore, the impact of complimentary pedagogical measures to RT dialogues upon learner use of reading strategies seems to require a review of comparative studies in which the additional measures feature as independent variables.

As an EFL teacher currently instructing in Korean elementary schools, I am interested in implementing RT in the classroom as a means of fulfilling the intervention's intended objective of facilitating learners in developing their capability in independently applying reading strategies (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Hence, there is a need for me to be aware of pedagogical measures that are effective in complementing RT dialogues to support learners in developing their reading strategy use. This paper seeks to tackle the problem of identifying such measures to potentially inform effective teaching practice for applying RT methodology to support reading comprehension development through learner use of the target reading strategies. Hence, the research question that guides the following literature review is:

What are some pedagogical measures that can supplement RT dialogues to better support learner use of reading comprehension strategies?

The following literature review examines four studies in order to identify research findings that can help to answer the research question. The subsequent discussion assimilates these findings and addresses the issue of which complimentary measures can be considered effective in supporting learner use of reading strategies and offers some theoretical support for their observed effects. It also acknowledges some of the limitations of this review and refers to observations that arise from it to make suggestions for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Tarchi and Pinto (2016) investigated whether prior work on learner collaboration and cooperation skills is required for learners to effectively engage in the application of reading comprehension strategies during group RT dialogues. The study sample consisted of three third grade classes, totaling 43 participants. Each class was drawn from a different school in Tuscany, Italy. For the two years preceding the study, one class of 21 learners had experienced a classroom environment where the emphasis was placed on attributing for learning to learners and developing shared cooperative practices among them. This class formed the "student-centred" experiment group. The other two classes, collectively consisting of 22 learners, had only experienced learning in a teacher-centred classroom that applied an initiation-response-feedback pattern through which the teacher initiated the presentation of information, learners provided responses, and the teacher applied corrective feedback to the learners' responses. In this classroom environment, learners typically worked individually. The learners of these two classes therefore had no experience of engaging in collaborative and cooperative group activities in the classroom. These two classes collectively formed the "teacher-centred" experiment group.

Each of the three classes was divided into groups of five or six learners. Each group of learners took part in a one-hour RT intervention to construct the meaning of a narrative text in the learners' L1. The intervention was led by an experienced RT instructor, who modelled the strategies of questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting. The instructor then assumed the role of group leader for the RT dialogue for the first round of application of the four strategies, and thereafter supported participants in fulfilling the group leader role taking turns.

All RT dialogues and interactions were video recorded, transcribed, and coded according to three schemes: discourse moves, communicative functions, and interaction sequence. The research findings found that across the groups the most commonly applied communicative functions were application of the four reading strategies (69%), followed by evaluation of learner responses (9%) and orchestration to ensure collective progress (7%). It was further found that that there were no statistically significant differences between the teacher-centred and student-centred groups with regards to their application of

the discursive moves, interaction sequences, and most communicative functions. The only statistically significant differences found between the communicative functions were that the student-centred group applied more utterances to accept topics of interaction suggested by others, whilst the teacher-centred group used more non-verbal expressions to indicate willingness to participate in dialogue.

The qualitative data provided by Tarchi and Pinto (2016) highlights how it is possible for learners to actively engage in the use of reading comprehension strategies in the context of group RT dialogues regardless of whether their previous learning experiences are shaped by teacher-centred initiation-response-feedback patterns or by participation in student-centred cooperative learning. Thus, in relation to the current research question, these findings suggest that developing learners' collaborative and cooperative skills does not necessarily feature among those pedagogical measures that can be supplemented RT dialogues more effectively for learners' using reading comprehension strategies.

However, Tarchi and Pinto's (2016) study carried out in a setting in which the instructor was able to devote all their time as a dialogue facilitator to a particular small group of learners for each implementation of the intervention. In a whole-class context, where the instructor is required to monitor and facilitate several small groups simultaneously, there is a risk that the general standard of initial expert scaffolding diminishes due to the instructor having to divide their time between the groups. The prospect of the standard of expert scaffolding diminishing gives rise to the possibility in a reduction in the quality of RT dialogues and the learner use of reading comprehension strategies supported by these dialogues. This suggestion arises from Tarchi and Pinto's (2016) data highlighting that the most used discourse moves in the RT dialogues were student response (39%), followed by expert initiations (21%) and expert response (15%), with the most frequent interaction sequences found to be multilateral sequences initiated by the expert in the form of open-ended prompts (37%) and bilateral sequences initiated by the expert in the form of prompting a particular learner (26%). This indicates that the expert's role as a facilitator was integral to guiding RT dialogues to support learner comprehension strategy use.

Therefore, if the instructor is not able to devote her time as a facilitator by participating in the RT dialogues of a particular group in a whole class context, learner familiarity with collaborative and cooperative learning procedures may have a more significant impact on the quality of RT dialogues and consequent learner strategy use. Hence, data from Tarchi and Pinto's (2016) study have further implications for the current research question by indicating that in some less intimate teaching contexts there is the potential for prior collaborative skills work or other scaffolds to have a positive impact upon learner strategy use during RT dialogues. The following study investigates the use of additional pedagogical measures to supplement RT dialogues in a whole-class teaching context.

Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013) examined the effects of an extended version of RT upon learner strategy performance compared to the effects of what was termed a "traditional" RT approach. The traditional RT condition was reflective of the ET/RT approach in which explicit whole-class strategy instruction and practice preceded engagement in small group RT dialogues (RT). The extended

version incorporated the traditional approach but further included additional measures to promote self-regulated learning (RT + SRL). These additional measures will be outlined below. For the comparison between the two versions, 12 fifth-grade classes from three German schools were randomly assigned to either the RT or RT + SRL condition, with six classes assigned to each. The RT group consisted of 127 learners, and the RT + SRL group consisted of 117. For both groups, instruction was delivered in the L1 context through 14 conventional German language lessons of 45 minutes over a seven-week period.

For the RT condition, the first two sessions involved the explicit teaching of the four reading strategies of questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting, followed by teacher modelling of these strategies, and learner practice of them. In the third session, learners engaged in team-building activities and further strategy practice. Sessions 4 to 13 required learners to engage in group RT dialogues to support their application of the four target strategies to negotiate the meaning of expository texts. A different member of each group was assigned the role of group captain for each new paragraph of text. The group captain was required to oversee the strategy application of their group, with each group member also being allocated responsibility for the application of a particular strategy for each new paragraph. Session 14 was a reflection lesson in which learners considered what they had learnt and what strategies had helped them.

The RT + SRL condition followed the procedure of that used for the RT condition, but additionally incorporated instruction and learner practice of goal-setting, monitoring strategy use, and self-evaluation. Learners were required to set individual reading goals in relation to both their strategy use and reading comprehension aims. Learners recorded their aims on a worksheet, and were further required to self-evaluate their strategy use and reading comprehension by using the worksheet to also record whether they had achieved their aims.

The RT + SRL condition also provided learners with the material scaffolds of helpsheets and a feedback logbook to further assist them in monitoring their strategy use during group RT dialogues. The helpsheets outlined the role of the group captain and contained criteria for applying the four reading strategies. Learners used the helpsheets for guiding them through the dialogical application of the reading strategies. A feedback logbook was used by learners to record their strategy use, and to support group captains in giving appropriate feedback to their group members by outlining feedback criteria. Over time, the use of helpsheets and the logbook were phased out by the teacher, resulting in learners engaging in group RT dialogues without the use of such scaffolds towards the end of the intervention. For the last four sessions of the intervention leaners were not allowed to use the helpsheets, and the logbook was not available to them for the last two sessions.

Learners' strategy performance was measured using experimenter-developed tests. These tests were applied prior to the intervention (pretest), directly after the intervention (posttest) and eight weeks after the intervention concluded (maintenance). Among the results, the intervention type test did have a significant effect on maintenance scores. Learners from the RT + SRL group significantly outperformed those from the RT group with regards to strategy performance at the stage of maintenance.

Therefore, with regards to the current research question, Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein's (2013) findings indicate that the material scaffolds of worksheets for setting and evaluating strategy performance and comprehension targets, and helpsheets and feedback logbooks to assist learners in monitoring their strategy performance, are supplementary measures to group RT dialogues that when collectively implemented can significantly enhance the sustainability of learner use of reading comprehension strategies.

The RT + SRL approach applied by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013) thus demonstrates how a number of measures to support self-regulated learning can help to sustain developments in learner strategy use. This gives rise to the consideration of whether such measures are required to be applied in concert to have this effect, or whether particular measures applied in the study are more effective than others. The following study divides similar measures for self-regulated learning as either strategy implementation procedures or outcome regulation procedures to explore the impact of measures on learner strategy use when supplementing group RT dialogues.

Sporer and Schunemann (2014) conducted a comparative study of three enriched RT conditions and a "conventional" RT condition to investigate their impact upon learner use of reading comprehension strategies. One of the three enriched conditions incorporated additional strategy implementation procedures to supplement the conventional approach (RT + SIP). Another implemented outcome regulation procedures in addition to the conventional approach (RT + ORP). The third enriched condition supplemented the conventional approach with both additional strategy implementation procedures and outcome regulation procedures as a means of further facilitating self-regulated learning (RT + SRL), reflective of the extended version of RT implemented by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013).

The participant sample consisted of 24 fifth grade classes (a total of 534 learners) from ten schools located in two cities in Germany. Participants were predominantly German native speakers, but others were having an L1 other than German. The interventions were applied in learners' regular German literacy lessons. Of the 24 classes, six were randomly assigned to each one of the four conditions.

For all conditions, instruction was delivered in 14 regular German literacy lessons, each 45 minutes in duration for eight weeks. For the first three lessons, learners in all groups experienced initial explicit instruction, teacher modelling and practice of the strategies of questioning, clarifying, summarising and predicting. From lessons 4 to 14, learners engaged in group RT dialogues to support their application of the reading strategies to negotiate expository texts. For each new paragraph of text, a different group member was assigned the role of group captain, who oversaw the strategy application of their group. Each group member was also allocated responsibility for the application of a particular strategy for each new paragraph of text. This procedure was that adopted for the conventional RT condition, whereas the three enriched conditions incorporated this procedure plus additional pedagogical measures.

The RT + SIP condition mirrored the conventional RT condition but also incorporated the implementation of self-regulatory procedures designed to assist learners in planning and monitoring

their use of the four reading strategies. These procedures involved the implementation of additional scaffolds which included a strategy-regulation learning journal. The use of this journal required learners to set specific goals of their reading strategy use for each lesson and evaluate the extent to which these goals were reached.

The RT + SIP condition also provided learners with the material scaffolds of helpsheets and a feedback logbook to further assist them in applying strategies during group RT dialogues. These tools were used in the same way that they were implemented by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013). Over time, the use of helpsheets and a logbook were phased out by the teacher, resulting in learners engaging in group RT dialogues without the use of such scaffolds towards the end of the intervention.

The RT + ORP condition reflected the conventional RT condition plus the incorporation of experimenter-developed reading comprehension quizzes that were individually completed by learners after their participation in the group RT dialogues in each lesson. Learners were required to keep an outcome-regulation learning journal in which they set reading quiz goals by noting the number of points that they aimed to score in the quiz. After completing each quiz, learners used an answer key to self-check and correct their answers, as well as keep a record of their score on a progress diagram as a means of self-monitoring their reading comprehension progress over the course of the intervention. This provided a basis upon which learners could decide their target quiz score for the subsequent lesson.

The RT + SRL condition was a combination of the RT + SIP and RT + ORP conditions. Learners were required learners to set targets with regards to both strategy use and reading comprehension quiz score for each lesson. Learners were also required to evaluate whether they had achieved both of these goals. Targets and evaluations were recorded in journals. As with the RT + SIP condition, the use of helpsheets and a logbook was phased out over time.

Learners' ability in correctly applying the four reading strategies was assessed using experimenter-developed tests which learners completed at pretest, posttest, and at maintenance (eight weeks after the posttest). The results of the tests indicated that a significant difference in strategy performance was not evident at posttest, mirroring the findings of Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013). However, it was found that at maintenance learners that experienced the RT + SIP and RT + SRL conditions outperformed those who were assigned to the conventional RT and RT + ORP groups in terms of the quality of their performance of the four reading strategies. Furthermore, there was found to be no significant difference in strategy performance between the RT + SIP and RT + SRL groups.

Thus, the findings of Sporer and Schunemann (2014) indicate that supplementing group RT dialogues with a strategy regulation journal, helpsheets and a feedback logbook can have a sustained positive impact on learners' effective use of strategies. They are therefore measures that collectively compliment RT dialogues in better supporting learner use of reading comprehension strategies. On the other hand, the implementation of reading comprehension quizzes and a corresponding outcome regulation journal was found not to have such an impact upon learners' strategy use, indicating that they would not be particularly useful measures with which to supplement RT dialogues for the specific

purpose of better supporting learner development of reading strategy use. Thus, the findings of Sporer and Schunemann (2014) indicate that the package of self-regulatory measures that were implemented by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013) can apparently be reduced to those focused only on strategy regulation, with outcome regulation measures seeming somewhat superfluous in developing learner strategy use.

The three previous studies have involved learners constructing the meaning of texts in an L1 context through engagement in cognitively-demanding reading comprehension strategies. Learners applying these strategies to dialogically negotiate the meaning of L2 texts, however, are typically subjected to the additional cognitive burden of L2 language use during RT dialogues (Fung, Wilkinson and Moore, 2003). In light of this challenge for learners, the following study consider learners' L1 use as a pedagogical measure to supplement RT dialogues in supporting learners to negotiate L2 texts.

Lim (2017) investigated whether permitting the use of Korean learners' L1 in strategy instruction and RT dialogues to negotiate English text affected learner use and acquisition of reading comprehension strategies. The participants were 30 Korean adults who were divided into five classes. Each class contained four to seven participants. Classes were classified into two experimental groups: an "L2-only" group consisting of two classes, and a "L1-scaffolded" group comprised of three classes.

The RT interventions for each class were implemented once a week over a period of nine weeks. Each session lasted for two hours. In the first session, the four strategies of questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting were introduced and modelled by the teacher prior to learner engagement in RT dialogues in small groups. Each participant took turns to lead the RT dialogues in implementing the target reading comprehension strategies. Subsequent sessions consisted of the group RT dialogue process with the instructor acting as a facilitator of the dialogues. During the intervention, the classes comprising the L2-only group were only permitted to communicate in English, with all instruction also being in English. On the other hand, the lessons for the L1-scaffolded classes allowed the use of Korean in particular circumstances. Korean use was permitted in situations that included when it was beneficial for instructional efficacy, when it functioned as a tool for directing cognitive activities, and when learners lacked the English proficiency to effectively communicate their ideas. Such criteria for the use of Korean were applied to prevent RT dialogues being dominated by the learners' L1.

Lim (2017) applied Reading Strategy Acquisition Tests (RSAT) at pretest and posttest to examine learner acquisition of the four target strategies. The RSAT results showed that the L1-scaffolded group made statistically significant gains in their performance of all four strategies, and the L2-only group made significant gains in all strategies but for clarifying. The only noticable difference between the two conditions was that of learner use of clarifying, with the more favourable effect resulting from the L1-scaffolded condition. Thus, the quantitative test data obtained does not support the proposition that supporting dialogues with L1 scaffolding generally enhances RT's effectiveness in enhancing learner acquisition of reading comprehension strategies. However, Lim (2017) suggests that the RSAT rubric may not have included some of the sub-strategies of the four target strategies that were found to have

been practised by learners in the L1-scaffolded groups, giving rise to the prospect that their use of the target strategies were not adequately detected or assessed by the quantitative testing measure. Consequently, the validity of the RSAT data can be called into question.

Lim (2017) also relied on qualitative observations of group RT dialogues to assess the extent to which L1 scaffolding affected learners' dialogical application of reading comprehension strategies. It was observed that learners in the L1-scaffolded groups effectively applied reading comprehension strategies earlier on in the intervention compared to those who were in the L2-only groups. L1-scaffolded groups were also observed to have applied the strategies in a more sophisticated manner. Further observations included that L1-scaffolded groups frequently applied utterances in the L1 to organise strategic processes. Such utterances were seldom observed in the dialogues of L2-only groups. L1-scaffolded groups were also observed to frequently apply their L1 to ask questions about strategy use which resulted in a focus on sub-strategies that the L2-only groups did not address. In addition to using L1 as a cognitive tool in this respect, the L1-scaffolded groups were observed applying L1 as a means of social scaffolding to appropriately invite participation of others, turn take, and give polite feedback. It was found that such expressions of social support were not as forthcoming in the dialogues of the L2-only groups. L1-scaffolded dialogues were generally observed to be more friendly and lively than the L2-only dialogues, which were sometimes punctuated by periods of silence. Hence, Lim's (2017) qualitative observations do not seem to marry with the quantitative data obtained and rather suggests that L1 scaffolding enhanced the quality of RT dialogues and resulted in better performance of reading comprehension strategies by L1-scaffolded groups than by L2-only groups.

The qualitative observations made by Lim (2017) with regards to the impact of L1 scaffolding on learner strategy performance during RT dialogues can be considered to be consistent with qualitative data from other studies that are similar in nature, albeit much older (Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Fung, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2003). For example, in investigating the effects of L1-assisted RT on learner reading strategy use, Fung, Wilkinson and Moore (2003) contrasted the quality of L1 and L2 RT dialogues to find that L1 use enhanced limited-English-proficiency sixth and seventh grade learner participation in the dialogues and allowed learners to apply reading strategies at higher cognitive levels, although in such instances the text as well as the dialogue was in the learners' L1.

Thus, a reliance on the qualitative data from Lim's (2017) study offers the response to the current research question that L1-scaffolding can operate as a supplementary pedagogical measure to RT dialogues that enhances learner use of reading comprehension strategies during the dialogues. This review therefore highlights L1 linguistic scaffolding (Lim, 2017), along with instruction and implementation of strategy regulation procedures (Schunemann, Sporer, & Brunstein, 2013; Sporer & Schunemann, 2014), as being pedagogical measures that can be used to supplement RT dialogues in better supporting learner use of reading comprehension strategies.

3. DISCUSSION

The review of the above studies has responded to the research question by identifying certain measures designed to promote learner self-regulation of strategy use and L1-assistance as being pedagogical measures that can support RT dialogues in better supporting learner use of the reading comprehension strategies of questioning, summarizing, clarifying and predicting. It has also found that prior work on developing learners' collaboration and cooperation skills is not a necessity for enhancing strategy performance. A theoretical explanation for these findings seemingly arises from the effective additional measures enhancing learner strategy use by facilitating learner participation in RT dialogues. This reflects Vygotskian socio-cultural learning theory whereby knowledge is acquired through social interaction with an expert or more knowledgeable other (Vygotsky, 1978). The additional measures found to have a positive impact upon learner strategy use seem to contribute to fulfilling the need of providing the expert support and social interaction that can be considered necessary to help learners internalize strategies (Yoosabai, 2009).

As the review has indicated, the qualitative data from Tachi and Pinto's (2016) research can be considered to demonstrate the importance of expert support in facilitating RT dialogue that is conducive to learner strategy practice. It can be suggested that the study found that prior development of cooperative skills for learners was not a prerequisite for their effective strategy use during RT dialogues because, through being party to the dialogue, the instructor can take steps to ensure that the required interactions occur regardless of the learners' prior learning experiences. Thus, the quality of the facilitation by the instructor is apparently integral to the effectiveness of RT dialogues (Okkinga et al., 2018).

Bearing this in mind, in teaching contexts where the instructor's ability to facilitate learner group dialogues is compromised, such as when dialogues are being held by multiple groups simultaneously in a whole-class context, other means to support strategy knowledge transfer seem essential. A need to rely on more knowledgeable learners to adopt the role of the expert may arise. Alternatively, as this review has found, the implementation of material scaffolds to facilitate learner self-regulation of strategy application can be applied (Schunemann, Sporer, & Brunstein, 2013; Sporer & Schunemann, 2014).

The studies by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013) and Sporer and Schunemann (2014) demonstrated how the material scaffolds of journals for recording and evaluating target strategy use, helpsheets, and feedback logbooks can apparently fulfil the role of supporting expert scaffolding in a whole-class RT context. These scaffolds act as an extension of the teacher's expertise which learners can consult to support the dialogue process in engaging them in levels of strategy performance that lie within their Zone of Proximal Development, which is the degree of competence a learner can achieve with expert support (Vygotsky, 1978). As well as helpsheets also facilitates the monitoring of strategy use and the giving and receipt of feedback encouraged by journal and logbook use potentially develops learners' conditional strategy knowledge. The gradual withdrawal of these scaffolds as the intervention

progressed can illustrate the occurrence of a transfer of strategic knowledge from the expert source to the learners, indicating learner internalisation of the strategies as their self-regulated competence increases. This is a potential explanation for the data from the studies highlighting that learners that were subject to such scaffolds retained their ability to effectively apply the reading strategies (Schunemann, Sporer, & Brunstein, 2013; Sporer & Schunemann, 2014).

Socio-cultural learning theory dictates that for these material scaffolds to have the desired impact, learner participation in the RT dialogues is a prerequisite. The aforementioned strategy-implementation monitoring scaffolds implemented by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013) and Sporer and Schunemann (2014) is a means of facilitating this participation. Requiring learners to set strategy-use targets and evaluate themselves promote their purposeful involvement in the dialogues. The feedback logbook also provides scaffolding through linguistic prompts that potentially enhances learner interaction. In the aforementioned studies the quantitative data demonstrating learner improvement and retention of strategy use after experiencing such measures implies that this is the case.

Lim's (2017) observations of the effects of L1 scaffolding on learner participation in RT dialogues and consequent reading strategy use highlighted how L1 support is an additional pedagogical measure that can supplement RT dialogues in supporting learners in better use of reading comprehension strategies. Lim (2017) highlights that L1 scaffolding fulfils three functions in facilitating learner participation: as a social scaffold to organise dialogical interaction, as an affective support to reduce learner anxiety, and as a cognitive tool to reduce the cognitive burden of applying cognitively demanding strategies to an L2 text while interacting in the learners' L2. Lim's (2017) observations that L1 scaffolding facilitated learners to participate more fully in RT dialogues, and allowed them to engage in effective reading comprehension strategy use earlier in the intervention and to a more sophisticated degree than learners not subjected to L1 scaffolding, supports the view that L1 assistance helps learners to focus on the cognitive demands of strategy use by lowering the linguistic burden placed upon them by making peer interaction less demanding (Fung, Wilkinson, & Moore, 2003).

Therefore, an enhancement of learner participation in RT dialogues underlies the effectiveness of the pedagogical measures as supplementing RT dialogues in better supporting learner use of reading comprehension strategies. These findings consequently correspond with the assertion that expert scaffolding and peer interaction, along with a focus on the four strategies of questioning, summarising, clarifying and predicting, comprise the essential components of enhancing learner acquisition of reading comprehension strategies through the RT methodology (Yoosabai, 2009).

The limitations of this review include the observation that the research question is broadly framed, but the review itself is relatively short. The studies selected for review therefore only highlight some of the potential measures that can supplement RT dialogues in enhancing learner reading strategy use. Furthermore, the interpretation of "strategy use" adopted by the review is a broad one which incorporates learner use of strategies during RT dialogues as well as learner strategy performance during experimenter-developed tests. Therefore, the review includes the theoretical assumption that improved

learner strategy performance at posttest or maintenance stages occurred as a result of effective learner practice of strategies during RT dialogues, and that evidence of the former implies the existence of the latter. As a means of testing this assumption, it could be deemed appropriate for qualitative research into how strategy-regulation scaffolds such as those implemented by Schunemann, Sporer and Brunstein (2013) and Sporer and Schunemann (2014) affect the quality of RT dialogues.

Nevertheless, the review addresses the research problem of identifying pedagogical measures that can enhance the effectiveness of RT dialogues in supporting effective learner use of reading comprehension strategies. This review of the research has indicated that there is a potential need for additional supports to RT dialogues in such teaching contexts. Incorporating additional instruction and material scaffolds for strategy-regulation appears to be a potentially beneficial measure for facilitating my learners' practice and development of reading comprehension strategy use. However, I feel that to prevent overburdening learners the measures of a strategy-regulation journal, helpsheets, and feedback logbook would have to be introduced in a piecemeal fashion, rather than as a collective measure.

Thus, while this review has provided some useful information in response to the research question, a number of other curiosities have arisen which potentially form a foundation for future research. These include investigating the relative effectiveness of strategy-regulation journals, helpsheets and feedback logbooks (Schunemann, Sporer, & Brunstein, 2013; Sporer & Schunemann, 2014), whether it is necessary to implement them in concert, and, if staggering their implementation, in which order it is best to introduce them. Furthermore, research into the practical implications of using L1-scaffolded RT dialogues with young EFL learners may also be beneficial in informing teaching practice. In addition, comparative studies that examine the effect of the instruction and practice of L2 sentence stems as linguistic scaffolds to supplement RT dialogues in supporting learner use of reading comprehension strategies could be of value. As has been noted in the introduction of this paper, there is a plethora of variations of RT methodology being used to enhance learner reading comprehension through the use of reading comprehension strategies. This provides fertile ground for further comparative studies that isolate particular pedagogical measures as independent variables to be conducted as a continual attempt to identify aspects of effective RT practice.

REFERENCES

Anton, M., & DiCamilla, F. (1998). Socio-cognitive functions of L1 collaborative interaction in the L2 classroom. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *54(3)*, 314-342.

Chamot, A. U. (2009). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach, 2nd edition*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman.

Chamot, A. U., O'Malley, J. M., Barnhardt, S., El-Dinary, P., & Robbins, B. (1999). *The learning strategies handbook*. New York: Longman.

Dole, J.A., Duffy, G.G., Roehler, L.R., & Pearson, P.D. (1991). Moving from the old to the new: Research on reading comprehension instruction. *Review of Educational Research, 61(2)*, 239–264.

Fung, I. Y. Y., Wilkinson, I. A. G., & Moore, D. W. (2003). L1-assisted reciprocal teaching to improve ESL students' comprehension of English expository text. *Learning and Instruction*, *13*, 1-31.

Graesser, A. C. (2007). An introduction to strategic reading comprehension. In D. S. McNamara (ed.) *Reading Comprehension Strategies: Theories, Interventions, and Technologies,* (pp. 3-26). London/New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Lim, S. E. (2010). *The effects of reciprocal teaching in a Korean high school reading classroom.* (M.A. thesis). Seoul: The Graduate School of TESOL, Sookmyung Women's University.

Lim, Y. (2017). *The effects of L1 use in reciprocal teaching on L1 and L2 reading comprehension and strategy acquisition*. (M.A. thesis). Seoul: The Graduate School of TESOL, Sookmyung Women's University.

Marks, M., Pressley, M., Coley, J. D., Craig, S., Gardner, R., DePinto, T., & Rose, W. (1993). Three teachers' adaptations of reciprocal teaching in comparison to traditional reciprocal teaching. *The Elementary School Journal, 94(2)*, 267-283.

McAllum, R. (2014). Reciprocal teaching: Critical reflection on practice. *Kairaranga, 15(1)*, 26-35.

Okkinga, M., van Steensel, R., van Gelderen, A. J. S., & Sleegers, P. J. C. (2018). Effects of reciprocal teaching on reading comprehension of low-achieving adolescents. The importance of specific teacher skills. *Journal of Research in Reading*, *41(1)*, 20-41.

Ostovar-Namaghi S. A., & Shahhosseini M. (2011). On the effect of reciprocal teaching strategy on EFL learners' reading proficiency. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 2(6)*, 1238-1243.

Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction, 1(2)*, 117-175.

Palincsar, A. S., Brown, A. L., & Martin, S. M. (1987). Peer interaction in reading comprehension instruction. *Educational Psychologist, 22*, 231-253.

Palincsar, A. S., David, Y, Winn, J., Stevens, D., & Brown, A. L. (1990). Examining the differential effects of teacher-versus student-controlled activity in comprehension instruction. Paper presented to the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston.

Palincsar, A. S., Ransom, K., & Derber. S. (1989). Collaborative research and development of reciprocal teaching. *Educational Leadership, December 1988/January 1989*, 37-40.

Palincsar, A. S., Stevens, D. D., & Gavelek, J. R. (1989). Collaborating with teachers in the interest of student collaboration. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *13*, 41-53.

Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1994). Reciprocal teaching: A review of the research. *Review of Educational Research, 64(4)*, 479-530.

Salehi, M., & Vafakhah, S. (2013). A comparative study of reciprocal teaching only (RTO) explicit teaching of strategies before reciprocal teaching (ET-RT) on reading comprehension of EFL learners. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences, 7(2)*, 148-155.

Seymour, J. R., & Osana, H. P. (2003). Reciprocal teaching procedures and principles: Two teachers' developing understanding. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19*, 325-344.

Schunemann, N., Sporer, N., & Brunstein, J. C. (2013). Integrating self-regulation in whole-class reciprocal teaching: A moderator-mediator analysis of incremental effects on fifth graders' reading comprehension. *Contemporary Education Psychology*, *38*, 289-305.

Sporer, N., & Schunemann, N. (2014). Improvements of self-regulation procedures for fifth graders' reading competence: Analysing effects on reading comprehension, reading strategy performance, and motivation for reading. *Learning and Instruction*, *33*, 147-157.

Tarchi, C., & Pinto, G. (2016). Reciprocal teaching: Analysing interactive dynamics in the co-construction of a text's meaning. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *109(5)*, 518-530.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. In M. Gauvain and M. Cole (eds.) (1997). *Readings on the Development of Children, 2nd edition*. New York: W. H. Freeman & Company.

Wenden, A. L. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy*. New York: Prentice Hall.

Wertsch, J. V., & Stone, C. A. (1979). A social interactional analysis of learning disabilities remediation. Paper presented at the International Conference of the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities. San Francisco, CA.

Woolmarans, A. R. (2016). *Reciprocal Teaching: A strategy for the 21st century.* Cape Town: Curro Centre for Educational Excellence.

Yoosabai, Y. (2009). *The effects of Reciprocal Teaching on English reading comprehension in a Thai high-school classroom.* (Ph.D. dissertation). Bangkok: Graduate School, Srinakharinwirot University.

How Digital Games Are Used in Meaningful and Authentic Ways in Game-Enhanced L2 Learning

Jinyoung Kim

Digital Gaming and Teaching and Learning

Abstract

The use of digital games is full of benefits for the second language learning (L2) classroom. They include autonomic and participatory features that are regarded as the effective approach of vernacular games in language learning. Despite all of the distinctive advantages of using vernacular games, which include goal-orientation, interaction, feedback, narration, and motivation (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013), it would not be useful without the proper guidance of a teacher with appropriate supportive materials in the classroom. Based on an analysis of four different studies of how digital games are meaningfully and authentically used in game-enhanced L2 classrooms to enhance social-cultural awareness, this paper argues that materials used in the classroom should be authentic in context and the activities should be designed in a creative and engaging way to encourage active participation and increase motivation in L2 learning.

1. INTRODUCTION

Even though it is still a new sphere of technology-assisted education, as computer-based simulated games are used more for language learning and teaching, more research studies are published. Game-enhanced language learning is highly motivational and effective in terms of achieving goals and completing tasks because of its player-driven setting (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013). This meaningful player-driven approach is beneficial for second language (L2) learning because its appropriate activities and supportive materials can fulfill pedagogical needs. Developing these activities and materials requires new literacy approaches (Lankshear & Knobel, 2006), since people tend to adapt and learn new literacy in a particular domain to become a part of the affiliated group by practicing a certain semiotic activity (Gee, 2003). In other words, games involve a socially activated literacy with interactions in different forms of discourses in the domain reflecting social practice in using language.

As we consider game playing as a literary and social practice, the concept of language awareness arises (Reinhardt & Sykes, 2011). Language awareness (Bolitho et al., 2003; Carter & McCarthy, 1997; Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008; Reinhardt & Thorne, 2011; van Lier, 1995) is driven by active attention to language use and is an attempt to use the language learned by realizing its patterns.

Language awareness is inseparable from language learning since we need to use the language in a meaningful way to learn and we improve in language use by adapting the patterns used by a social group (Halliday, 1978). By learning how to communicate through language, we know what appropriate language to use in a certain context (Hymes,1972b: 277) and this is a competence acquired socially through recognizing patterns (Gee, 2003). Therefore, in language learning we need to create social-cultural situated contexts to acquire the competence of recognizing patterns and the vernacular game is beneficial due to it having these features and characteristics.

After analyzing whether the digital game is useful as a means for L2 learning by referring to specific criteria including goals, interactions, feedback, narratives, and motivation (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013), I realized that game-playing would be effective for language learning. However, just playing games would not be enough to have pedagogical benefits in the L2 classroom because L2 learners would not pay attention to the target learning object without proper guidance (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2012). As deHaan (2005b) reported on students' experience of playing baseball games in Japanese as a second language learning tool, despite students' positive perceptions of learning by playing games, a participant reported that he could not pay much attention to listening and reading Japanese because he was so focused on hitting the ball. Also, according to deHaan, Reed and Kuwada (2010), the game players recalled second language vocabulary much less than watchers did. Therefore, it is crucial to create an authentic language learning setting by bridging the activity and learning in a game-enhanced classroom. As teachers, we need to offer appropriate materials which consider learners' scope of learning development (Vygotsky, 1987), and organize activities that are meaningful and authentic enough to raise language awareness so that students can broaden their contextual knowledge of words and social and cultural meaning (Hughes, 2003). The game is designed by developers, but to make the game as pedagogical as possible the teachers should carefully design materials to connect to the game. This paper describes how games are used and implemented in game-enhanced L2 classrooms and discusses how materials and activities are used in meaningful and authentic ways. I am going to review four selected research studies on game-mediated learning, discuss their findings, and conclude with implications for future.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Miller and Hegelheimer (2006) investigated how the simulation game, the SIMs, was used effectively for focusing on reading and vocabulary acquisition and examined how computer simulation can be used in ESL literacy. In terms of vocabulary acquisition, a good way of instruction is divided into two parts (Miller & Hegelheimer, 2006), which are explicit and incidental learning. Although many argue about whether explicit or incidental teaching is better (Chun & Plass, 1996; Zahar *et al.,* 2001), Miller & Hegelheimer (2006) find an agreed direction of acquiring vocabulary from the contexts of a simulation game which is full of vocabulary-embedded contexts that could

stimulate cognitive processes and active involvement (Thurman, 1993). These aspects are critical in terms of motivating learners to have an authentic experience in the language classroom because language is used in the real world with real people. The simulation game would help to promote authenticity by offering scenarios and feedback in real time.

This study uses Chapelle's (2001) framework for evaluating tasks using six criteria (language learning potential, learning fit, meaning focus, authenticity, positive impact, and practicality), and asks three research questions to seek an appropriate way of supporting authentic simulation game use. First, it asks whether explicit vocabulary instruction before completing a computer simulation task enhances vocabulary acquisition. Second, it asks whether students find the offered materials helpful in understanding and completing the simulation if they used them. Lastly, it considers which supplementary materials students perceive as being the most and the least helpful. For the study, 18 participants were divided into six groups depending on proficiency level. Each group experienced one of three conditions: compulsory use of supplementary materials, optional use of supplementary materials, or no materials. The materials included vocabulary and grammar lists and exercises, dictionaries, and online cultural notes. The students played at an assigned station and received task instruction for 50 minutes once a week for a total of 15 weeks. Results of surveys, questionnaires, and vocabulary quizzes indicated that explicit vocabulary instruction before simulation tasks was effective for vocabulary acquisition. Also, the students seemed to find the materials were helpful, with the vocabulary materials being most helpful and the cultural notes being least helpful for completing tasks in simulation. This result indicates that the supplementary materials were effective and appropriate for performing the tasks.

The learning objective of this study was vocabulary acquisition using supplementary materials when playing authentic simulation games. The meaningfulness and authenticity of the task seemed to be reliable because they used vocabulary selected in accordance with the context of the task of the day. This contextual learning and practice using simulation games turned out to be effective according to the results, and language seemed to have been used in meaningful and authentic ways. However, materials such as cultural notes which supposedly help to understand the context of the task of the day were not really helpful. This indicates that the material itself was neither meaningfully designed nor authentic enough for learners to relate it to their task because it only explained general information about the topic of the day. This implies that implementing the appropriate material is also critical along with using it meaningfully. Furthermore, creating authentic tasks and materials could also be extended to other productive skills including speaking and writing by encouraging more interactions among students in the classroom as a wraparound activity.

The second study is deHaan's (2011) investigation of constructionist learning (Papert, 1991, 1993) and media literacy learning (Buckingham, 2003). Constructionist learning indicates the active process of learning which involves creating personal and meaningful projects (deHaan, 2011). In other words, people tend to make ideas or knowledge instead of just receiving or getting them. As the game is

mediated in language learning, incorporating further literacy practice could be beneficial if it involves authentic and meaningful projects. This study had two educational projects including computer role-playing game design and game magazine design, and both included a context for language learning. The first purpose of these two projects is to understand the game literacy as involving the creation of actual game features and game-related media. By experiencing interactions with developers or designers, students could share more knowledge gained through recognized patterns of the literacy in groups (Gee, 2003). The second purpose of the project is to improve students' spoken and written English language skills. As they have to use English in this particular literacy to create English role-playing games and English game magazines, an improvement in language skills was expected to be seen after the projects. The project was at a rural Japanese University with three students for game design and eight students for magazine design.

First, to create a role-playing game the participants met a total of five times over four months and developed an English language role-playing game for the PC. Nearly all activities were done in English in every meeting. From making plots to creating characters in English, the students were motivated to find English adjectives describing personalities and they discussed dialects and varieties of English to characterize game characters. In the project of creating a game magazine, they spent four months creating printed and online versions of an issue of an English game magazine. They had played games in the library and all the activities were done in English. According to deHaan (2011), this project promoted all four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Activities included discussing games and design features, listening to others to respond appropriately, reading game reviews and learning how to write them, and describing game features. Despite the difficulty of learning to use the technology to create something, they seemed very motivated, especially when the professionals visited and gave advice on their work.

The learning object of this study was developing language skills and motivation, and the students studied games to complete tasks such as creating characters, narratives or layout and observing other game magazines. Through assessing reflection notes, the researcher assessed that students had improved their language skills through those two projects, although there was no supporting assessment scale or score to judge. Digital game practices create learner-centered experiences of design and participation (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013), and the tasks deHaan (2011) used were also learner-centered because students participated in creating the game and magazine. They led the project with the guidance of the teacher, and they discussed and negotiated the outcome of the whole process. Moreover, they used language in the process which creates an authentic and meaningful learning environment. Therefore, they were motivated to achieve specific goals using games and they learned language without realizing it in a process-oriented approach (Breen & Candlin, 1980; Ellis, 2003) by completing the tasks.

The third study is Reinhardt and Ryu (2013) which investigated the pragmatic awareness of Korean honorific language using bridging activities on social networks. The bridging activities model

(Reinhardt, 2008; Throne, 2009) is a framework for offering the principles of the digital L2 literacies and using bridging activities. In bridging activities, a learner-centered approach is adopted. Learners create their own situated texts to increase their awareness of language through making linguistic choices of which language to use (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008). To implement the situated texts, Facebook (FB) was used as a social medium to develop pragmatic awareness in elementary level Korean learners. The participants were nine students, three of which were of Korean-American heritage and one of which travelled to Korea often with her family. The activities involved learner-generated texts, which meant that students analyzed expert production and then produced their own. They also analyzed others' social network-mediated texts and they completed three bridging activities.

The first activity was to observe and analyze the instructor's post on a FB feed to find the daily honorifics they used and consider the relationships they indicated. The second activity was to develop a more critical awareness. Students were told to identify elements that were unknown or unconventional to them. The third activity was to see if students could apply their pragmatic understanding of using honorifics in a simulated social networking context, and the students engaged in a role-play and follow-up analysis. They designed authentic prompts with newly-learned honorifics and completed their prompts on assigned characters' FB. For the follow-up analysis, they analyzed others' posts as to whether they used appropriate honorifics in socio-pragmatic way.

The learning objective of this study was to enhance awareness of Korean honorifics. Even though they did not actually use the bridging activity model in the tasks and students participated in a simulated context, the researchers found that there was an awareness of socio-pragmatics in the social network context, and the result of the tasks and survey supported this. Moreover, they implemented the activities following the sequence cycle of game-enhanced activities: observe, explore, create and participate (Reinhardt & Sykes, 2011). However, they had to create some situated context on FB and this setting seems to detract from authenticity. In terms of having socio-pragmatic awareness, it would have been more authentic if they had used the context from films or drama featuring the unknown or unconventional discourses because they are more likely to offer more sophisticated simulation.

The last study is Shintaku (2016) which investigated the interplay of game design and pedagogical mediation for learning Japanese. Even though digital gaming is considered a future platform for language use, game-mediated L2 learning is not recognized enough in the classroom (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008). Thus, Shintaku (2016) further explored the pedagogical implementation using supportive materials. As Miller and Hegelheimer (2006) and Ranalli (2008) found, the supplemental materials created by teachers helped students to pay more attention to their target language in the simulation game, the SIMs, giving learners the required support for learning new literacy. From this point of view, the supplementary materials could be recognized as the gap filler between gaming and L2 learning (Shintaku, 2016).

In the study, the teacher-designed supplementary materials were used to find out the vocabulary functionality in game design, and which language would be essential for playing the game

successfully. There were nine participants from a large public university in the U.S and all participants had gaming backgrounds. Using a vocabulary reference list, vocabulary pre-tests and worksheets, they played the game, and then had a posttest. This study asked the following research questions. First, it asked how the materials should be designed for L2 vocabulary learning and whether students liked them. Students used the supplementary material usefully and they would not have been able to have learned such vocabulary without the material. The second question asked whether game-enhanced L2 learning had an effect on prolonged vocabulary retention and the results showed that vocabulary knowledge was retained.

The learning objective of this study was vocabulary retention, and participants played games with a vocabulary reference list. How they leveraged an adventure-puzzle design game to learn vocabulary in L2 was assessed by students' questionnaires with very positive responses. These responses also indicated that it was very helpful for acquiring vocabulary and useful for playing games. Moreover, the supplementary materials have to be carefully designed because the functionality of vocabulary in the game also has a big impact on language learning (Shintaku, 2006). Secondary vocabulary is tangential to the game play, while primary vocabulary is essential to complete the game and is crucial to material design. Other skill focuses could be considered in designing activities to be more effective for the purpose of vocabulary retention. The addition or modification of tasks including interaction in pairs using primary vocabulary could be another way of increasing efficacy and authenticity.

3. DISCUSSION

Using vernacular games is what makes materials and activities authentic (deHaan, 2005) and playing the games promotes learning through autonomic and participatory features. As game literacy is considered a social practice with continuous interactions and feedback, players try to be part of a group by trimming the type or style of discourse to socio-culturally adapt to the group. For this reason, game-playing has pedagogical benefits in L2 learning. However, due to information overload or different levels of accepting the pathway of the game, the players could easily get lost in terms of learning without precise learning objectives and the proper guidance of teachers (Sykes & Reinhardts, 2012). Therefore, it is important to fill the gap in game-enhanced language learning by bridging game play and learning. As a supportive resource, teachers design and create materials and activities to guide learners in a game-enhanced language learning classroom. Moreover, those materials and activities should be relevant to the game they use. Otherwise, learners would not consider using the materials and would have difficulties connecting the game to learning, and ultimately their motivation of playing it would decrease. Thus, it is important to review how digital games are used meaningfully and authentically in game-enhanced pedagogy.

After reviewing all four studies, there are findings to be discussed and trends appear in using games as a pedagogical tool in L2 classrooms. First, it seems that they mostly focus on vocabulary

acquisition. As several researchers argue that vocabulary learning has been an essential part of learning language (Zahar *et al.* 2001; Nation & Waring, 1997), acquiring the vocabulary seems to be regarded as the preliminary steps in game literacy. In Miller and Helheimer's (2006) study investigating the use of the simulation game the SIMs, it was found that supportive materials could enhance ESL literacy and which materials were most helpful in understanding literacy. According to the results of the study, vocabulary materials were the most favored. This indicates that the designed material was appropriate in terms of the students' needs. This could also be analyzed to suggest that materials were meaningfully and authentically used, supporting the argument that vocabulary should be embedded in a context (Qian, 1006; Decarrico, 2001; Gass & Selinker, 2001; Read, 2000; Nagy, 1997). The effectiveness of acquiring vocabulary through games is also shown by Shintaku's (2016) study as students showed they retained vocabulary knowledge in a posttest.

However, the vocabulary material itself does not make the acquisition of language happen. How and when learners use the materials are important because students need real-time and continuous feedback (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013) By Shintaku (2016) presenting the supplementary materials with a vocabulary reference list, students were able to refer to it whenever they wanted to help them engage in the game and complete the task. Moreover, according to research by deHaan (2011), the right feedback with the teacher's help on complicated assignments during the project, and the professional magazine editor's advice on their work, highly motivated students to continue.

According to deHaan (2011), the most distinguishable aspect is that the project was done in very student-driven way. Having students highly involved and engaged in multi-literacy by creating actual games and magazines in English, created a genuine authentic and meaningful situated context. Although the game play practice was regarded as a bridge between learners, target language and cultures (Ranalli, 2008), the project done by deHaan (2011) brought in the more authentic socio-cultural context of the affiliated group (Gee, 2003), using game literacy which was much more participatory and interactive. In addition, the results show that motivation was particularly powerful in this study. The students were very motivated to create work and engage more in language learning.

From a socio-cultural point of view, the study of Reinhardt and Ryu (2013) also suggested students developed socio-pragmatic awareness on social media. Although students were assessed after participating in the simulated context online by using the bridging activities cycle, they found very supportive results of improving socio-pragmatic awareness of Korean honorifics through following the steps of observe, explore, create and participate. Although, they were assessed in a situated post that the researchers created, students found it fun and meaningful because it was authentic enough for them to engage interactively online. Also, by role-playing with their own prompts in an extended activity, they could analyze themselves and others through giving feedback about each other, which brought more authenticity.

4. IMPLICATIONS AND THE FUTURE

Although most parts of the studies used games with supportive materials in a meaningful way, there are implications to consider for future research. As was found by Miller and Hegelheimer (2006), cultural notes were the least helpful for language learning while vocabulary materials were the most helpful. If the cultural notes had more explicit task-related and powerful hints integral to completing the task instead of giving general ideas of a certain topic, the material would be more meaningfully used because it would be more authentic in that context. Without a clear goal for the material, students would lose motivation without knowing the intended learning objective (Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013).

In addition to the quality of the material used, more creative extended or wraparound activities are required because it is important that learners create and participate at the stages of the bridging activities cycle. At this stage, students apply and create new forms of what they have learned through exploration and examination processes (Reinhardt & Sykes, 2011). Role-playing with short, created prompts, as used by Reinhardt and Ryu (2013), does not seem to be enough. Although the projects done by deHaan (2011) would not be very realistic in most studies due to time and cost factors, it could be possible to create something similar on a smaller scale. As students found vocabulary references most useful in engaging in a certain context of literacy, they prioritized the material and used the most useful resource for completing the task and finding patterns during literacy practice. This highlights the importance of meaningful and authentic situated context use for materials and the strategic implementation of activities. Therefore, the teacher, as an agent of filling those gaps, could help learners to become better pattern recognizers.

REFERENCES

deHaan, J., Reed, W. & Kuwada, K. (2010). The effect of interactivity with a music video game on second language vocabulary recall. *Language Learning & Technology, 14*(2), 74-94.

deHaan, J.W., Reed, W.M. & Kuwada, K. (2010) The effect of interactivity with a music video game on second language vocabulary recall. *Language Learning & Technology, 14(2),* 74-94.

Gee, J. P. (n.d.). *What video games have to teach us about learning and literacy*. Palgrave: Macmillan.

Halliday, M. A. (1978). *A course in spoken English: Intonation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hymes, D. (1972b) On communicative competence. In J. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds.) *Sociolinguistics.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Lankshear, C., & Knobel, M. (2004). Englishes and digital literacy practices. In C. Leung and B. Street (Eds.) *The Routledge Companion to English Studies*. London: Routledge.

Miller, M., & Hegelheimer, V. (2006). The SIMs meet ESL: Incorporating authentic computer simulation games into the language classroom. *Interactive Technology and Smart Education, 3*(4), 311-328.

Ranalli, J. (2008). Learning English with the SIMs: Exploiting authentic computer simulation games for L2 learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 21*(5), 441-455.

Reinhardt, J. & Sykes, J. (2011). *Framework for Game-enhanced Materials Development*. Tucson: Center for Educational Resources in Culture, Language and Literacy

Shintaku, K. (2016). The interplay of game design and pedagogical mediation in game-mediated Japanese learning. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching, 6*(4), 36-55.

Thurman, R. A. (1993). *Instructional simulation from a cognitive psychology viewpoint* (4th ed., Vol. 41). Educational Technology Research and Development.

Thorne, S.L. & Reinhardt, J. (2008). "Bridging activities", new media literacies, and advanced foreign language proficiency. *CALICO Journal, 25(3)*, 558-572.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

The importance of transfer and its impact in SLA

Guljamila Nurimbetova

Second Language Learning Theories

Abstract

This literature review focuses on the concept of Language Transfer, and it also states different views of linguists and researchers regarding transfer in SLA. Moreover, its types are briefly clarified, including positive and negative influence on language proficiency and literacy. In addition, this paper provides information about the importance and role of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis in language learning. Finally, some suggestions are given for avoiding negative transfer in foreign language acquisition.

1. INTRODUCTION

There are plenty of theories about language transfer and its positive and negative influence on language learning. Odlin (1989) defined transfer as the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired. The majority of works done on transfer concentrated on the impact of transfer in SLA, and transfer can be positive as well as negative. It's widely believed that transfer has a more negative influence rather than positive in SLA. Negative transfer occurs when the L1 and L2 have differences and the L1 results in errors in the acquisition or use of the L2. Positive transfer is vice versa, it may occur when the native language and target language have similarities, and when it accelerates the process of L2 acquisition. This paper will focus on confirmed data about the role of transfer in SLA and its influence, and it will concentrate on positive transfer to investigate if transfer is workable and has a positive influence in SLA. Below we can see a brief explanation of the above mentioned aspects.

1.1 Definition of Transfer

There were several explanations and definitions of transfer presented by linguists. According to Gass and Selinker (1992, p. 234), transfer is the use of one's native language or a previously learned language's knowledge in the acquisition of another language. Transfer is the action between knowledge or skills from one linguistic structure to another. For instance, when a person is studying a foreign language L2, his/her L1 phonological structure will influence their L2 phonological system. This means transfer is taking information from one system and utilizing it for another. Transfer can be bidirectional as it may influence a person's use of L1 or L2. Weinreich (1953) explained the process of transfer as a

deviation from the norms of language which happen in the language of bilingual people as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. Moreover, there are several terms for transfer. For example, Corder (1983, 1992) applied the term "mother tongue influence". This was because of the recognition of the fact that there was more influence from the mother tongue than only the obvious appearance of a mother tongue form. Kellerman and Smith (1986) and Odlin (1989) mentioned that transfer is a cross-linguistic influence or cross-linguistic generalization (see Gass, 1996 and Whong-Barr, 2006).

1.2 Role of transfer in SLA

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the process of learning a language other than the mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom (Ellis 1997, p. 3). Language transfer has an important role in the SLA process. Until the 1960s, language transfer was not an important notion in language teaching. It was first introduced by Robert Lado, an American scholar, who presented two claims about transfer. The first was that learning a second language becomes difficult not because of the new features, but because of the first language habits already existing in the mind. The second claim was that the student who learns a second language will find some new features simple, because they are similar to his/her native language, and other features will be difficult, because they are different. There was a time in the 1970s when it was linguistically unclear why errors appeared in second language learners. However, nowadays transfer is considered to be a very important phenomenon in SLA. With the help of transfer the teaching may become more effective, and it can show what is common to all languages, i.e. language universals (De Angelis, G. and L. Selinker 2001, p. 40). Moreover, in recent years, investigators and linguists have also defined the role of L1 transfer in SLA not only as a complex mental operation but also as a collection of strategies L2 learners use in the course of L2 attainment (e.g., Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Mahmoud, 2000; Mu & Carrington, 2007; Raimes, 1987; Wolfersberger, 2003). Schachter (1983) mentioned that transfer is an approach in which the learner plays an effective role in the whole process. Bialystok (1983) explained that learners might use their native language as a method to tackle both their learning and interaction problems. In L2 writing, transfer can be considered as both a learning device and as a strategy to solve communication problems. As Mahmoud (2000) pointed out, when learners attempt to compose a piece of writing, they might use transfer as a tool to learn or as a means to convey their meaning; they may use it to formulate hypotheses about the target language and to test those hypotheses. Many of the composing strategies are the same in the L1 and the L2, and thus, L2 learners may be able to transfer those from their L1 to their L2 writing. For example, learners who have already learned how to plan, develop ideas, revise, and edit their writing in their L1 may use the same strategies when they are composing in their L2 (Cumming, 1990; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989).

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 A historical viewpoint about the concept of transfer

Research about transfer in language learning started in 1940s and 1950s, at that time transfer was related to behaviourism theory. Behaviourist theory explained language learning as a process of habit formation. It was widely believed that native language habits interfered with the new habits of an L2. Later in 1957, Lado introduced Contrastive Analysis theory, this approach was concentrated on the similarities and differences of the L1 and L2. It was believed that these similarities and differences play an important role in learning an L2, as they will ease the process of L2 acquisition. However, in 1959, another idea about the process of second language acquisition was brought forth by Chomsky. He put forward the concept of "creative construction", where language learning was not viewed as a process of habit formation, it was seen as a developmental process. Chomsky (1965) claimed that second language learning is an innate language acquisition ability of individuals, and they are born with this innate capacity to learn languages. Thus, children's language acquisition is not much affected by outside factors as it is guided by a series of universal and innate mechanisms. Later, Krashen (1984) and Dulay and Burt (1974), mentioned that the mature second language acquisition process is very similar to L1 acquisition in children. These researchers claimed that L2 learning happens according to their "creative construction hypothesis". According to this hypothesis, learners build principles of the language step by step as they are exposed to it in the course of acquisition. In addition, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1981) claimed that L2 learner errors are very similar to L1 learner errors, and these errors are mainly developmental and not transfer errors.

2.2 Recent hypothesis about transfer

Current research has extended the focus and questions regarding transfer, and these studies are important in clearly understanding the concept of transfer. Recent studies mostly concentrate on inquiries such as: What is transfer? Why and when does transfer occur? To what extent does it occur? What is the Influence of transfer in SLA?

Dulay et al (1982) define transfer as an automatic process. It appears due to habit of placing the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. This means individuals use transfer unconsciously, and it appears as a result of people's nature. Carroll (1964) asserts that second language learning process is similar to the process of first language acquisition. To successfully learn an L2 requires the L2 learner to often preclude the L1 structures from the L2 learning process, if the structures of the two languages are distinctly different. Selinker (1983), distinguished between two types of transfer: positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer is when L1 knowledge speeds up the acquisition of an L2. Negative transfer occurs when L1 knowledge interferes with and negatively influences L2 acquisition. Selinker brought into use the term 'interlanguage', it is a system between the learner's L1 and L2 language. In his point of view, L1 transfer plays an important role in the development of interlanguage.

2.3 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The interest in transfer in SLA has been obvious in efforts at defining interference impacts by contrastive analyses between the second language (L2) and the first (L1). Contrastive Analysis (CA) is the comparison of two or several languages by paying attention to differences and similarities between them. CA was first suggested as contrastive linguistics in 1941 by Whorf. CA came from behaviourism theory, and it claims that language acquisition is a matter of habit formation and native language transfer is the main cause of errors made by L2 speakers. Fries (1957 cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 95) stated, “The basic problems arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language themselves but primarily out of the special set created by the first language habits”. CA holds that one can account for errors made by L2 learners by considering the differences between two languages in contrast, thus, the greater differences, the greater the errors that can possibly take place (Gass & Selinker, 2008). The published book “Linguistics across cultures” by Robert Lado in 1957 was the starting point of modern applied contrastive linguistics. Later this term was changed to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Today, CAH can help teachers in designing teaching materials, engaging the learners in activities, evaluating text books, and paying attention to every detail of teaching process. CAH can be categorised into 2 divisions: weak and strong. According to Schechter and Rutherford (1979) the strong version of CA is a step by step analysis of the similarities and differences of the morphological, phonological, syntactic, and other subsystems of two given languages. Moreover, making a comparison between two languages aims at predicting the difficulties that L2 speakers can encounter. Brown (1987) stated that the main emphasis of the weak version is not on prediction of difficulties that result from differences between two languages in contrast, but rather on explaining the sources of these errors. Fries (1945:9) describes the strong type of CAH as: The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. This programme outlined by Fries was realized a few years later by Lado (1957) in a comparison of English and Spanish. In the preface, Lado claimed that “We can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student.” Valdman (1966) implies that language learning is influenced by similarities and differences between L1 and L2. Language learners compare their L1 with the L2 and find similarities, differences, and difficulties of these languages. This knowledge could be used by second language teachers in organising their teaching materials. The responsibility of a language teacher is to identify those differences and difficulties and be prepared to teach them to foreign language learners. However, Ritchie (1967) and Wolfe (1967) in the article "Language Learning" stated their opposite point of view about CAH. They believe that languages do not differ from each other, and if someone has learned one language they already know and have understanding about any other language he/she must learn, because the structure of languages are almost similar and the difference

between languages is not quite noticeable. Also, phonetic representations and surface structures of languages are quite similar so there will be little use of studying languages in a contrastive method.

2.4 Impact of transfer in L2

Negative transfer

Odlin (1989) implied that negative transfer may occur when the L1 form used in L2 production is not a part of the L2 norm. Thus, negative transfer appears when the learner inappropriately transfers a linguistic form from one language to the other or if the learner is misled by the partial similarities between the two languages. When low-level learners use their native language in L2 writing, it will create errors in their L2. The reason for using their L1 will be their lack of knowledge in the L2. This process could be considered code-switching or directly translating from L1 into L2, which will bring negative effects. Odlin (1989) claimed that negative transfer is less likely to appear in a classroom atmosphere because in the classroom the learners are focused on the L2 and they try to avoid negative transfer. Out of classroom, they are not focused on their language and language mixing is permitted. Taylor (1975) asserted that learners at the elementary level experience more errors due to negative transfer. When learners become more proficient in their L2, they won't rely on the L1.

Positive transfer

Transfer can facilitate the attainment process of a foreign language if the L1 and L2 are close. When the process is facilitated it will motivate the learners and make them more active in learning something new. Learners of similar languages are often believed to have less learning obstacles than learners of divergent languages. Therefore, this was implemented as a strategy and pedagogical materials for study were developed in Europe for European languages (EuroCom) whose pedagogical principles include paying special attention to international vocabulary, language-family vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation, syntactic structures, morphosyntax, and affixes. Lado (1957), Wardhaugh (1970), supported this point of view, they asserted that there are similarities between languages that ease the process of learning a foreign language. However, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008, p. 11) had a totally different point of view about this. They clarified that obvious differences between languages often make target language structures easy to learn. It implies not only similarities between languages may have positive impact, but differences also may have a positive influence in the L2. Another position about positive influence we can see in the Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research by Khaled Karim and Hossein Nassaji (2013), where they indicated that L1 usage during writing tasks might have a positive impact on the L2. The learners make use of the L1 as a composing strategy, to compensate for the possible deficiencies in their L2 proficiency, and also as a tool to facilitate their writing process. They use L1 for generating ideas, searching for topics, developing concepts, and organizing information and for planning purposes. Studies have also shown that learners transfer a number of other L1-based strategies including metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies to L2 writing, and that

these are transferred across languages positively. However, lower proficiency writers may not be able to easily transfer L1-based strategies when writing in an L2. Advanced level learners appear to be better able to use their L1-based strategies and are also better able to make use of their L1 resources for other matters such as generating ideas, monitoring, and lexical-searching purposes.

2.5 Avoiding negative transfer

Transfer plays an essential role in language acquisition as it can motivate learners When students can apply their prior knowledge of their L1 in the L2, they will become actively involved in the L2 learning process. Therefore, in order to keep learners motivated, teachers should try to avoid negative transfer, they should teach the learners to be able to express themselves in a different system, and instructors should not avoid comparison of the target language with the learners' native language. Several research works done on CA were related to drawing the learners' attention to the differences between L1 and L2 in order to facilitate the acquisition of the L2 by developing the students cross-linguistic knowledge with cross-lingual teaching strategies. Kupferberg and Olshtain (1996) researched the effect of contrastive metalinguistic input (CMI) on learners' grammar acquisition. The study results showed that CMI concentrated on differences between the languages facilitated the acquisition of L2 structures. Below are several points about how teachers can take advantage of negative transfer and make it work in positive way:

1. Errors are not the only outcome of transfer. In many cases the consequences of transfer are positive, such as in cases where it leads to conventional language use and accelerated acquisition.
2. Transfer can affect not only the rate and ultimate success of learner's second language, but also the route of acquisition, i.e. the stages they pass through as they gain proficiency in their target language.
3. Differences and similarities between languages do not necessarily lead to learning difficulties or transfer. Easily perceived differences make the target-language structures easier to acquire, and similarities are those which often lead learners to make mental associations or interlingual identifications.
4. Contrary to popular belief, the occurrence of transfer does not decrease as the proficiency in the target language increases. In many cases transfer only manifests itself after the learner has acquired enough of the recipient language.
5. Language transfer can occur not only from L1 to L2, but also from an L2 to an L3, and from an L2 to an L1.
6. Transfer interacts with other factors which together determine the likelihood of transfer (or transferability) of a certain structure in a specific context.

7. The effects of transfer are not just limited to language forms, such as morphological, phonological and syntactic structures, but they also extend to the meanings and functions that the users of language associate with those forms. Transfer also encompasses the variety of ways a language is used to perform pragmatic functions.
8. Finally, individual differences play a major role in the extent of transfer exhibited in the use of the recipient language (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 11-12).

3. CONCLUSION

3.1 Summary

The major point of the paper was to study the role of transfer in SLA. The main objective of the current work was to indicate influence of transfer in second language learning, and it was found that transfer occurs because of similarities and differences in languages, also its appearance depends on the previous knowledge of the learners. In addition, it was found that transfer has a mainly negative influence on the L2. It is important for teachers to know beforehand about the possible impacts of learners' native language on the target language, and it would be better for teachers to understand the importance of both negative and positive transfer. From previously done research it is evident that teachers can organize their classes and materials to deal with negative influences with the help of CAH. Also, they should know and be able to see that there can be advantages from negative transfer in teaching an L2. For instance:

- Differences and similarities between languages do not necessarily lead to learning difficulties or transfer. Easily perceived differences make the target-language structures easier to acquire, and similarities are those which often lead learners to make mental associations or interlingual identifications.
- Errors are not the only outcome of transfer. In many cases the consequences of transfer are positive, such as in cases where it leads to conventional language use and accelerated acquisition.

To sum up, language teachers should not ignore transfer. Instead, they should implement it in their classes and find new techniques for overcoming negative transfer so it may have a positive influence on learners' L2.

3.2 Pedagogical Implications

As it is definite from the resources used in this paper that language teachers should use Contrastive Analysis in order to analyse what should be taught and how it should be taught. This can be achieved by:

- Evaluating the textbook or materials in advance.

- Designing materials which will bring positive impacts from the native language and target language of the learners.

Moreover, teachers can teach the learners how to transfer in a positive way and put it into practice: 1. By explicit teaching. Teachers can encourage transfer by teaching the learners how to apply what they have learned each day in other parts of their lives. 2. Reflection is important. Teachers should challenge the learners to think about strategies that personally work best for them. For instance, if taking notes works best for them in history class then they can use this in other classes as well. 3. Using metaphors. Metaphors and analogies take what students already know and apply it to a new situation to understand it better.

Also, what was mentioned above concerning negative transfer. According to Ellis (1997), negative transfer will appear when there are gaps in the learner's knowledge; this occurs because the learner of an L2 does not know what is correct. So, teachers should work hard and help their learners' fill in the gaps according to their needs.

REFERENCES

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Sprouse, R. (2018), Negative Versus Positive Transfer, The Tesol Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching, First Edition. Edited by John I. Liontas (Project Editor: Margo DelliCarpini).2018 John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Published 2018 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Doi: 10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0084.

Behfrouz, B. & Ameneh, J. (2017). International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences. Available online at www.irjabs.com Issn 2251-838X / Vol, 8 (11): 1870-1873 Science Explorer Publications.

Benson, C. (2002). Key concepts in ELT, Transfer/Cross-linguistic influence, elt Journal Volume 56/1 January 2002, Oxford University Press.

Bhela, B. (1999). Native language interference in learning a second language: Exploratory case studies of native language interference with target language usage, Flinders University School of Education, International Education Journal Vol 1, No 1.

Bialystock, E. (1983). Some factors in the selection and implementation of communication strategies. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), Strategies in interlanguage communication (pp. 20-60). London: Longman.

Brogan, F., & Son, J. (2015). Native Language Transfer in Target Language Usage: An Exploratory Case Study. Ucla. Journal. Vol 3, (1). ISSN. 2328-5451.Uiversity of California.

Brown, D. (1987). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Prentice Hall Regents.

Cai, J. (2015). A Psycholinguistic Account of L1 Lexical Transfer in L2 Production Qufu Normal University, Language and Cognitive Science _ 1(1): 55−75, issn 2058-6906 (print). doi 10.17923/lcs-2015-0003.

Carroll, J.B. (1964). Language and Thought, Prentice- Hall, Englewood Cliffs.

Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the theory of syntax. Cambridge: The Mit Press.

Cohen, A., & Brooks-Carson, A. (2001). Research on direct versus translated writing: Students' strategies and their results. The Modern Language Journal, 85 (2), 169-188.

Corder, S.P. (1993). A role for the mother tongue. Language Transfer in Language Learning, 85–97.

Cortes, N. (2005). Negative language transfers when Learning Spanish as a foreign language. Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Interlingistica. Issn 1134-8941.16(1). pp. 237-248.

De Angelis, G., & Selinker, L. (2001). Interlanguage Transfer and competing linguistics systems in the multilingual mind. In J. Cenoz, B. Huffeisen & U. Jessner (eds.), Crosslinguistic influence in Third Language Acquisition. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. 42—58.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. Language Learning, 24, 37-53.

Dzapo, A. (2015). Cross-Linguistic Influence in Croatian-English-Spanish Multilingual: Evidence from spoken and written production. University of Zagreb. Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. Department of English. Tefl Section.

Ellis, R. (1997). Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fries, C. (1957). Forward. In R. Lado, Linguistics Across Cultures. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan press.

Gass, S. (1979). Language transfer and Universal Grammatical relations. The University of Michigan. Indiana University. Vol. 29, No. 2

Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (1992). Introduction. In S. Gass, & L. Selinker, L (Eds.), Language transfer in language learning. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Gass, S. (1994). Ass. Language transfer in language learning. Michigan State University. Issn 0925-0123; v. 5.

Gass, S. (1996). Second Language Acquisition and Linguistic Theory: The Role of Language Transfer, in W. C. Ritchie and T. K. Bhatia (Eds.) Handbook of Second Language Acquisition, London: Academic Press. pp. 317-345.

Grami, M., & Ghanim, M. (2012). L1 Transfer among Arab Esl Learners: Theoretical Framework and Practical Implications for Esl Teaching. Issn 1799-2591 Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 8, pp. 1552-1560. doi:10. 4304.Finland.

Irujo, S. (1986). Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc. (Tesol). Vol. 20, No. 2. pp. 287-304.

Jakobovits, L. (1968) Second Language Learning and Transfer Theory. A Theoretical Assessment. Center for Comparative Psycholinguistics University of Illinois, Urbana.

Karkafi, L. (2014). Negative Language Transfer: A Study of Essays by Heritage and L2 students of Russian at the Intermediate Mid Level of Proficiency. University of California. Los Angeles.

Karim, Kh., & Nassaji, H. (2013). First language transfer in second language writing: An examination of current research. Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research 1(1), 117- 134, University of Victoria, Canada.

Kellerman, E. (1984). The Empirical Evidence for the Influence of the L1 in Interlanguage, in A. Davies, C. Criper and A. P. R. Howatt (eds.) Interlanguge. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Kharitonova, A. (2013). Lexical transfer and avoidance in the acquisition of English phrasal verbs. Ma-Thesis. University of Oslo.

Kielo, J. (2013). Language transfer in the compositions written by upper secondary school students. University of Tampere. School of Modern Languages and Translation Studies. English Language and Literature.

Kim, S. (2002). Transfer and access to universal grammar in adult second language acquisition, University of Groningen.

Krashen, S. (1984). Writing: Research, theory and applications. Beverly Hills: Laredo.

Kupferberg, I., & Olshtain, E (1996). Explicit contrastive instruction facilitates the acquisition of difficult L2 forms. In Carl James (ed.): Crosslinguistic Approaches to Language Awareness, Special issue of Language Awareness. 149-65.

Lu, X. (2004). Promoting Learner Awareness of Language Transfer Errors in I Call. Department of Linguistics, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Oh 43210, USA.

Mahmoud, A. (2000). Modern standard Arabic vs. non-standard Arabic: Where do Arab students transfer from? Language, Culture and Curriculum, 13, 126-136.

Mu, C., & Carrington, S. (2007). An investigation of three Chinese students' English writing strategies. Tesl-Ej, 11(1), 1-23.

Odlin, T. (1989). Language Transfer. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Odlin, T. (2002). Language transfer and cross linguistic studies: Relativism, universalism, and the native language.

Pavlenko, A., & S,Jarvis. (2002). Bidirectional transfer. Applied Linguistics 23(2):190-214.

Ritchie, W. (1967). Some Implications of Generative Grammar for the Construction of Courses in English as a Foreign Language. Language Learning, 17, 45- 69, 111-131.

Shaker, Y., & Almahammed, O. (2016). First Language Transfer in the acquisition of English prespositions by Jordanian elf lerners. Faculty of Major Languages Studies. Universiti Sains Islam Malaysia. Nilai.

Schachter, J., & Rutherford, W. (1979). Discourse Function and Language Transfer. Working Papers in Bilingualism.Vol. 19.p. 1-12. New York Addison Wesley Longman Limited.

Schachter, J. (1983). A new account of language transfer. In S. Gass & L. Selinker (Eds.). Language transfer in language learning (pp. 98-111). Rowley, Ma: Newbury House.

Selinker, L. (1983). Language transfer. In S. Gass & L. Selinker (Eds.), Language transfer in language learning (pp. 33-68). Rowley, Ma: Newbury House.

Smith, Sh. (1994). Second Language Learning: Theoretical Foundations. London: Longman.

Tajareh, M. (2015). An Overview of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Cumhuriyet Üniversitesi Fen Fakültesi. Fen Bilimleri Dergisi (cfd), Department of English language, Tonekabon Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tonekabon, Iran. Cilt:36, No: 3 Özel Sayı. Issn: 1300-1949.

Talalakina, E. (2015). National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia Fostering Positive Transfer through Metalinguistic Awareness: A Case for Parallel Instruction of Synonyms in L1 and L2, Journal of Language & Education, Volume 1, Issue 4.

Taylor, B. (1975). The use of overgeneralization and transfer learning strategies by elementary and intermediate students in Esl. Language Learning 25. 73-107.

Uzawa, K., & Cumming, A. (1989). Writing strategies in Japanese as a foreign language: Lowering or keeping up the standards. Canadian Modern Language Review, 46, 178-194.

Wang, X. (2009). Exploring the Negative Transfer on English Learning. Asian Social Science. Vol.5, No.7.

Wardhaugh, R. (1970). The contrastive analysis hypothesis. Tesol Quartlerly 4(2): 123-130.

Weinreich, U. (1968) Languages in Contact. The Hague: Mouton. (Originally published in 1953.)

Whong-Barr, M. (2006). What transfers? in S. Unsworth, T. Parodi, A. Sorace, and M. Young-Scholten (Eds.) Paths of Development in L1 and L2 Acquisition, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company. pp. 187-199.

Wolfe, D. (1967). Some Theoretical Aspects of Language Learning and Language Teaching. Language Learning, 17, 173-188.

Wolfersberger, M. (2003). L1 to L2 writing process and strategy transfer: A look at lower proficiency writers. Tesl-Ej, 7, 1-15.

Y, Du. (2016). The Use of First and Second Language in Chinese University efl Classrooms. Springer Science Business Media. Doi 10.1007/978-981-10-1911-1-2. Singapore.

The Detailed Procedure and Theoretical Application of Designing a Reading Course Book for University Students in Korea

Keunah Song, Eun-sun Park & Hye-sook Kwon

Curricula & Materials Development

Abstract

This paper describes the detailed processes and rationales of the development of a reading course book dealing with not only reading but also listening, speaking, and writing skills for university students at an advanced level of English proficiency. After an environment analysis and a student needs analysis by way of a survey completed by university students, Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Grammar Translation Method (GTM), and Swain's Output Hypothesis were chosen as the main principles for the development of language skills, and Lexile Measurement was used for the adjustment of vocabulary and text to ensure it was of the appropriate language level. All the pictures and activities were selected based on learning theories about real-life listening activities, creative activities, grammar teaching methods, and new technology. During the design procedure, the material evaluation criteria were continuously considered so that the authors could maintain the target learners' perspective for balanced material development. After the design stage, the material was shown to the target learners and a post-survey was conducted for a more precise evaluation of the material. Most of the target learners who took part in the survey gave feedback indicating that they were satisfied with the material overall. In conclusion, the designers of the material realized that the sophisticated procedure for material development can be an effective way to learn about language learning.

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper outlines the processes undertaken to create a course book that aims to help learners achieve a higher level of proficiency in a variety of English skills. The course book is aimed at learners in their 20s who are willing to participate in a reading and speaking club at a university. It is also intended that the material is able to be used in a regular classroom. It applies effective teaching methods and principles to provide a solid theoretical foundation, and incorporates technology that aims to motivate learners and help them to learn a second language effectively.

This curriculum and material development project involved a series of analyses: (1) an environment analysis, (2) a student needs analysis, (3) a material analysis, and (4) a materials evaluation. Results from these analyses led to the selection of three basic principles that were used in

the curriculum design and development of the material. These principles were as follows: (1) Content-Based Instruction (CBI), (2) Grammar Translation Method (GTM), and (3) Swain's Output Hypothesis. These principles offered a solid theoretical foundation for the materials and are outlined in section 2.

In addition, we have prepared this textbook considering five further points. First, we used "Lexile Measurement" to grade the texts at the appropriate level. Setting the language level of the textbook was highly challenging for us because it should be neither too difficult nor too easy to learn. It was found that Lexile Measurement was an appropriate tool for setting the appropriate language level. Second, when designing the lesson format, we considered environmental factors. We allowed two hours for the instruction of each unit, with the target class size consisting of eight students. These factors helped us to figure out the appropriate number of activities for each unit. Third, we applied a task-based approach to give learners more opportunities to engage in real-life communication by focusing on meaning and authentic interaction. Fourth, because of time pressures involved, we decided on a lesson format and topics by referring to some of the existing textbooks, taking a "layers of necessity" approach (Tessmer & Wedman, 1990). Lastly, we refined the material after learning about the significance of illustrations, design, layout, real-time listening activities, creative activities, grammar teaching methods and new technologies.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Content-Based Instruction

Content Based Instruction (CBI) was our main principle for both the lessons and the material design. CBI derived from the evolution of CLT (Rodgers, 2001) and is a language teaching method whose "popularity and wider applicability have increased dramatically since the early 1990s" (Stoller, 2002, p.107). The core of CBI can be simply described as the integration of specific contents for language teaching of subject matter and second language skills (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989). This approach exactly matches our intention to incorporate an interesting topic or subject matter rather than just focus on target language forms so that students can develop both subject-knowledge and language skills.

Both Met (1991) and Snow et al. (1989) advocate that CBI provides learners with various opportunities to engage in meaningful communication with others. In addition, according to Scarcella and Oxford (1992), if learners are actively participating in meaningful content based tasks, they gain repeated exposure to language which helps them to process it. Krashen (1982, 1984, 1985) poses the input hypothesis in which learners are deemed to acquire language when they receive "comprehensible input". It means that when learners focus on the subject matter rather than the form and they understand the content, they are able to attain the desired learning goals. Swain (1985, 1993) developed the comprehensible output hypothesis which complements Krashen's input hypothesis and

claims that learners should produce orally and in writing using the new language to develop communicative competence. In terms of CBI, learners produce language after understanding content. Therefore, the language is used for the purpose of learning content and it acts as a medium of instruction. In that way, learners can acquire background knowledge on a variety of topics including global issues or issues relating to their own cultures and effectively develop their linguistic abilities at the same time.

CBI is considered a very effective method of teaching, but it is not easy to determine the particular content to best develop learners' language competence. Cognitively appropriate content engages learners in deeper information processing, helping them learn better. Also, it is able to motivate learners because CBI considers learners' academic needs, interests, and cognitive and affective preferences when determining subject matter. Therefore, teachers are able to develop learners' language consciousness using meaningful and coherent content that triggers their awareness of the second language and their linguistic competence.

An extensive needs analysis was therefore conducted in order to determine what content needed to be included in the material. According to a student survey, we found that learners were interested in various topics including culture, travel and food. We consequently decided to develop materials incorporating these topics.

2.2. Grammar Translation Method

Grammar Translation Method was adopted to satisfy student demand arising from needs analysis survey results. We found that a large number of students wanted to get help with parsing and vocabulary acquisition. More than 60 percent of survey participants (six out of nine) answered that they required grammar and vocabulary learning activities. Despite initially considering Communicative Language Teaching as potentially being a primary guiding principle for our material, after analyzing the survey results we realized that students in Korea still needed grammar skills for translating text.

Through GTM, students are able to learn grammatical rules and apply them effectively by translating between the target language and first language (Chang, 2011). GTM focuses on reading and writing rather than speaking and listening. Therefore, the ultimate goal of learning a target language in GTM is to better understand literature or language structure. Grammar rules are learned deductively; students learn grammar rules by rote (Rodgers & Richards, 2001). Grammatical accuracy is highlighted to promote understanding of the meaning and structure of text (Zimmerman, 1997).

Even though traditional GTM has been criticized for a lack of focus on communication skills and opportunities for learners to listen and speak, it is still widely used as a method of teaching English (Aqel, 2013). We decided to apply GTM by providing grammar exercises and learning vocabulary sections to develop learners' abilities to understand and use grammar and vocabulary to improve their reading skills.

2.3. Swain's Output Hypothesis

It is widely accepted that the Output Hypothesis plays a pivotal role in helping learners achieve an advanced level of language proficiency. Swain (1985) advocates maximizing students' speaking time by giving them a chance to actively participate in the class in order to acquire language skills. For this, the student needs to produce output on the basis of the comprehensible input they receive. This illustrates that authentic language acquisition cannot occur without output processes through writing and speaking.

In addition, these activities can help to check whether or not the student understands clearly what they learn in the lesson. Swain (1985) asserts that learners are able to gain an awareness of when they make the most of their linguistic schemata, and they can discover the difference between what they know and what they do not know. Through this process, learners gain corrective feedback from teachers, peers and self-assessment when they make output errors.

Furthermore, the student survey results highlighted a need for exercises to enhance learners' language knowledge through writing and speaking activities to improve their language competence. Hence, Communicative Language Teaching activities such as warm-up discussions were included in the material design for learners to engage in natural and fluent language performance.

In order to develop all four language skills, the students need to produce language output using their interlanguage abilities in relation to the content they study. Writing activities like making sentences with key words, answering comprehension questions, and summarizing content using their own words can facilitate not only students' language intake, but also their writing fluency. Writing and speaking activities in the material are based on these theoretical foundations. It is believed that students' enhanced consciousness of the target language will assist them in achieving their language goals.

2.4. Lexile Measurement

The reading content is the main part which decides the language level and language objectives of a reading course book. We needed to provide reading texts which not only provoke learners' interests but also make them enjoy the challenge of language learning. As a tool of adjustment of text level, we chose "Lexile Measurement" so that texts were of an appropriate reading level for learners of advanced proficiency.

Lexile Measurement is particularly appropriate for the materials because it considers two important factors associated with GMT: semantic difficulty and syntactic complexity (Lennon & Burdick, 2004). According to Stenner (1996), Lexile Measurement combines these semantic and syntactic components by analyzing the word-frequency and sentence-length of a text and deciphering the level after applying its own calibration equation. It is a proven scientific approach that measures reading ability and the complexity of texts. Now more than a million books and various other reading materials have a Lexile Measurement as an indication of text complexity. A number of readers around

the world have a Lexile Measurement that demonstrates relative text grading (Norte, Negreiros & Correia, 2017).

Table 1: Typical Reader Lexile Measures by Grade

Grade	Reader Measures
4	415L to 760L
5	635L to 950L
6	770L to 1080L
7	885L to 1165L
8	925L to 1235L
9	985L to 1295L
10	1040L to 1350L
11&12	1130L to 1440L

The range of the Lexile scale starts from 200L for beginner to above 1700L for advanced texts (L stands for Lexile Measure). Table 1 (above) shows Lexile Measures matched to academic grade (The Lexile Framework for Reading, n.d.-a). It shows that 12th grade students' general level is 1130L to 1440L. The world's bestseller *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone* is 880L, the SAT Test is 1300L, and the ACT Test is 1200L. By considering all these levels and the levels of popular textbooks, we set the average Lexile level for target learners of the material at 1100L and decided to adjust the level of reading texts in the material to provide a range from 1000L to 1300L. Using Lexical Measurement was considered the best way to avoid texts that were too easy or too hard, which could be detrimental to target learners' motivation to learn.

3. MATERIAL DESCRIPTION

3.1. Material Development Procedure

3.1.1. Environment Analysis

It is becoming increasingly necessary to have good English skills in this new global era. Most of the university students surveyed said that better English language skills were necessary to participate fully in English courses at university. In addition, English ability plays an important role in a competitive job market after graduation. Reflecting this, English reading club attendance is quite popular among university students. We therefore made a decision to make a textbook for those who are struggling with achieving a high level of English proficiency at university. The purpose of the material development is to offer students the most appropriate reading material in which they can access listening, speaking, and writing practice opportunities along with interesting reading content.

Before developing the material, we administered a multiple choice questionnaire to figure out target learners' preferences and needs. We could then use the information to make a specific design plan for our lesson environment and material development.

3.1.2. Students' Needs Analysis

Prior to the material development, we prepared a student needs analysis survey of nine participants to get some ideas relating to target learners' preferences and needs. Before conducting the survey, we expected that students would prefer reading informative topics or speaking activities to language learning activities. However, we were totally surprised at the findings of the survey. As shown by Table 2 (below), most of the topics students selected to read about were daily-familiar topics except one: Culture was the only informative topic students expressed a like for, and other informative topics such as Science, History, Arts and Politics were selected as disliked topics.

Table 2 also shows students' activity preferences. Reading comprehension related activities such as finding the main idea or comprehension check activities were chosen as disliked activities. Contrary to our expectations, many students wanted to develop their English ability by doing tasks focused on new lexical items and grammar application.

Tasks and activities for the materials were selected according to the survey results in order to fulfill students' needs. After developing the material, we conducted a further student survey to figure out whether the materials satisfied these needs and preferences. The result of this post-survey is in the research-based evaluation in section 4.2 below.

Table2: Pre-survey Result (Participants: 9 students)

	Survey Result (Students like)	Survey Result (Students dislike)
Topics	Culture (8) Food (6) Travel (6) Relationships (4) Arts (4) Social Issues (3)	Science 4) History (3) Arts (2) Politics (1)
Activities	Language learning activities- vocabulary and grammar learning (6) Writing activities (5) Group discussion activities (5) Questions before reading (5)	Finding the main idea of the passage (2) Comprehension check activity (2) Questions for thinking alone (3)

	Communication activities (3)	

3.1.3. Collaboration of the Development Procedure

From the environment analysis, we found that university students demand all-round English skills because society wants them to be prepared for the future by having strong English language abilities. Many students participate in an English reading based speaking club to have the opportunity to read and speak and increase their English abilities. We therefore decided to make material which can be used by university students and reading clubs on campus, as well as in our own reading classes.

The student needs analysis found that students want more writing and language focused activities and daily-familiar topics from a reading course book. Some of them wanted discussion questions, but that was not found to be a major need. We consequently put an appropriate amount of language focused activities in the material as *pre-* and *during* tasks while providing a high level of meaning focused and fluency development activities.

We organized the material format to fulfill all the needs and interests of the students regarding both topics and activities. We arranged the contents with mostly daily-familiar topics such as food, relationships and travel, reflecting the survey findings. Furthermore, each unit consists of three stages of task: *pre*-tasks, *during* tasks and ***post-***tasks. According to the task-based approach, tasks are considered as one of the units of progression in a syllabus. *Pre*-tasks offer opportunities to build vocabulary and consider meaningful background knowledge. This can help learners to activate their working memory in language and communicative skill at the same time. With an appropriate level of reading text, *during* tasks give learners the chance to acquire syntactic knowledge and metacognitive awareness. The *post*-tasks mostly consist of fluency development including comprehension testing, summarizing, and questions for discussion which lead students to use higher order thinking. A more detailed explanation of the material and activities follows.

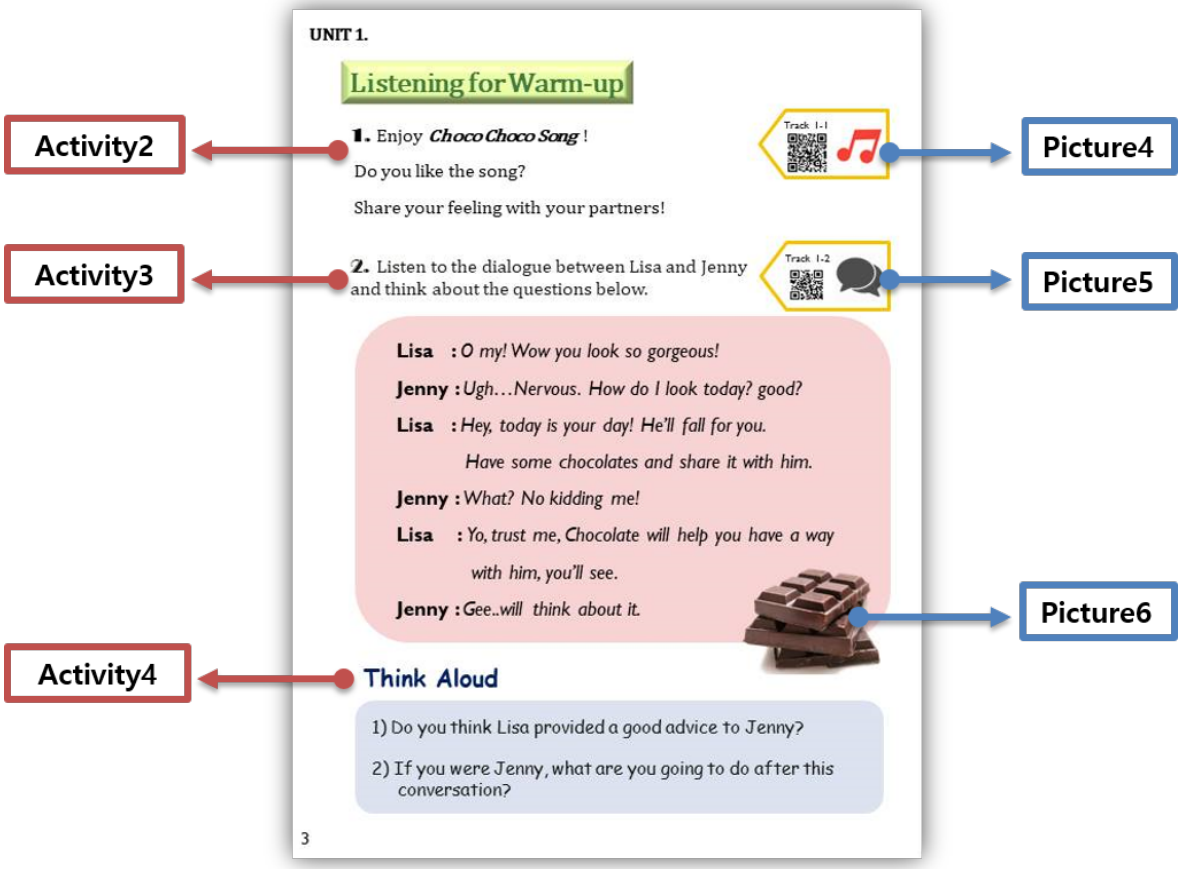
3.2. Material Description by Page

(1) Pages 1 and 2

Description		Reason
Content	Type	
Picture 1	Illustrative	This unit symbol picture is an abstract drawing. This colorful and attractive figure matches the concept of our material.
Picture 2	Stimulus Response (Talking-with picture)	This big color photo on the first two pages is used as a cover picture to grasp learners' attention and stimulate their personal experiences. According to Canning-Wilson (1999), pictures activate learners' knowledge of the world, let learners use language related to the picture, and get them to recall their personal experiences. Thus, this picture is quite appropriate for activating schemata. The depiction of a 'blind date' functions to stimulate learners' background knowledge, make them consider its relationship with the title, and provoke their curiosity.
Picture 3	Stimulus Response (Talking-with picture)	Solman and Wu (1995) claim pictures have a positive effect on learners' motivation and interest, and this picture has this effect. The function of the color photo is to have learners pay attention to the title and provoke not only learners' curiosity as to the secret of chocolate, but also their imagination to make a story related to the other picture (Picture 1).

Activity 1: Warm-up Question	Pre-task: Meaning focused output (Activating schema)	This schema activating activity is a creative one which gives learners the opportunity to construct a story. The first question makes learners think about the two different pictures from different points of view and connect the contents to make a new story. This kind of creativity enhancing activity is called 'bissociation'. Creative activities such as bissociation promote learners' interests and expand their flexibility (Han, Kim, and Oh, 2013). The second question also stimulus learners' background knowledge through them guessing the meaning of the title and function of chocolate.

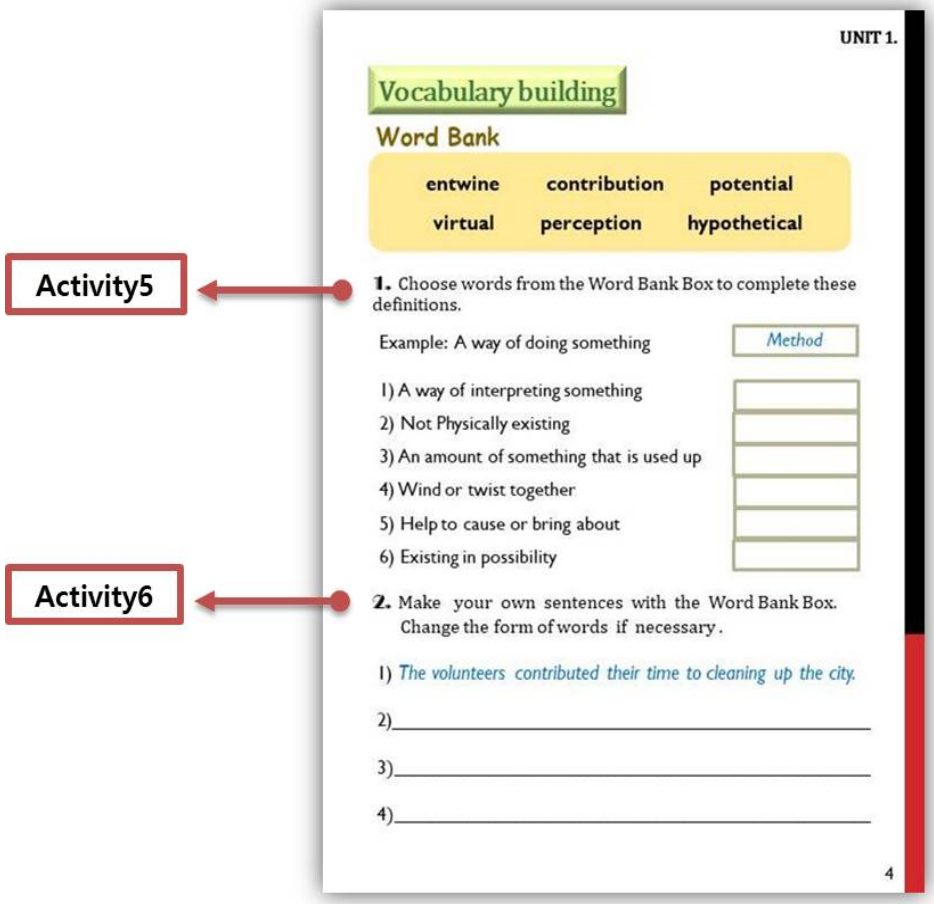
(2) Page 3



Description		Reason
Content	Type	
Picture 4	Illustrative	This is an abstract drawing that includes a QR Code linking to a *YouTube* music video of the Choco Choco Song (MrWowzers9111, 2009). Learners can access the webpage directly through the QR Code scanner on their smartphone. QR Code stands for Quick Response Code which is a new technology that university students are used to. The QR code features in the printed material as a tool to connect the main material to sub medias including an audiovisual *YouTube* video clip and audio materials for listening activities (Activity 2, 3, and 5).
Picture 5	Illustrative	This abstract picture also contains a QR code which connects to a *YouTube* audiovisual clip (Song, 2018a) for the listening activity (Activity 3).
Picture 6	Illustrative	This color photo of chocolate is decorative. It can help learners feel at ease.
Activity 2: Listening for Warm-up / Enjoy Choco Choco Song	Pre-task: Meaning focused input (Activating schema)	This activity is an extraordinary one which cannot be found in any other reading course book. This activity is an ice-breaker. Learners listen to enjoyable disco music together to activate their schemata. We used new technology for this activity. As Tomlinson (2011) describes, there are a lot of 'unpackaged' resources readily available through websites such as *YouTube*. Robin (2007) asserts that students should be taught to exploit the potential of the unpackaged material by learning to deploy those user-controlled technological devices. This activity is one such example. The song of the music video which is linked to this activity (MrWowzers9111, 2009) is a famous disco song named 'Choco Choco Song' by the UK band Soul Control. Because the song is quite fun and rhythmic, it can lower learner stress as they start the class and open their mind to learning. Also, the repetition of "choco choco" in the song makes learners recall their own experiences or opinions about chocolate.
Activity 3:	Pre-task:	In daily life, people speak and listen to spoken language (Ma, 2010).

Listening for Warm-up / Dialogue Listening	Meaning focused input	Ma said "spoken language consists of short, often fragmentary utterances, in a range of pronunciations. There is often a great deal of repetition and overlap between one speaker and another, and speakers frequently use non-specific references" (p. 465). But listening activities in English classroom for EFL learners usually do not provide chances to listen to such a real-life conversation. So, we designed a listening activity with the dialogue formed by spoken language so that learners can experience real-life listening. To enhance comprehensibility, a written dialogue is included. The listening part is accompanied by an audio file in the form of an application. The order of listening and reading can be decided by the learners depending upon their needs. Learners can listen while they read, listen first and read later, or read first and listen later.
Activity 4: Listening for Warm-up - Think Aloud	Pre-task: Meaning focused output	After listening, learners can interact with each other and negotiate the meaning of the input together.

(3) Page 4



Description		Reason
Content	Type	
Activity 5: Vocabulary Building - Words Matching	Pre-task: Language focused learning	This vocabulary activity is likely to be helpful for learners' understanding of the reading text. This activity can get students to recognize key words so that the students can read them when they encounter them in the text. The definition of each key word is provided in Activity 5 which enables the learner to infer and find the definition from the word box. During the activity, the students can extend their linguistic knowledge stores and thinking skills to come up with the key words. However, learning vocabulary is not a simple process or just an awareness of the meaning, and it needs to be continued into the subsequent activity (Activity 6).

Activity 6: Vocabulary Building-Making Sentences	Pre-task: Language focused learning	After recognizing the key words, learners have to make sentences with the keywords by themselves. According to Swain (1985), students can retain these words deeply with nuances of the meaning and complex grammatical properties through mental effort. As the frequency of the key words increases, the learners become more able to produce meaningful output based on comprehensible input (provided during Activity 5). The learners can reduce the gap between their language cognition and language level by engaging in this activity.

(4) Pages 5 and 6

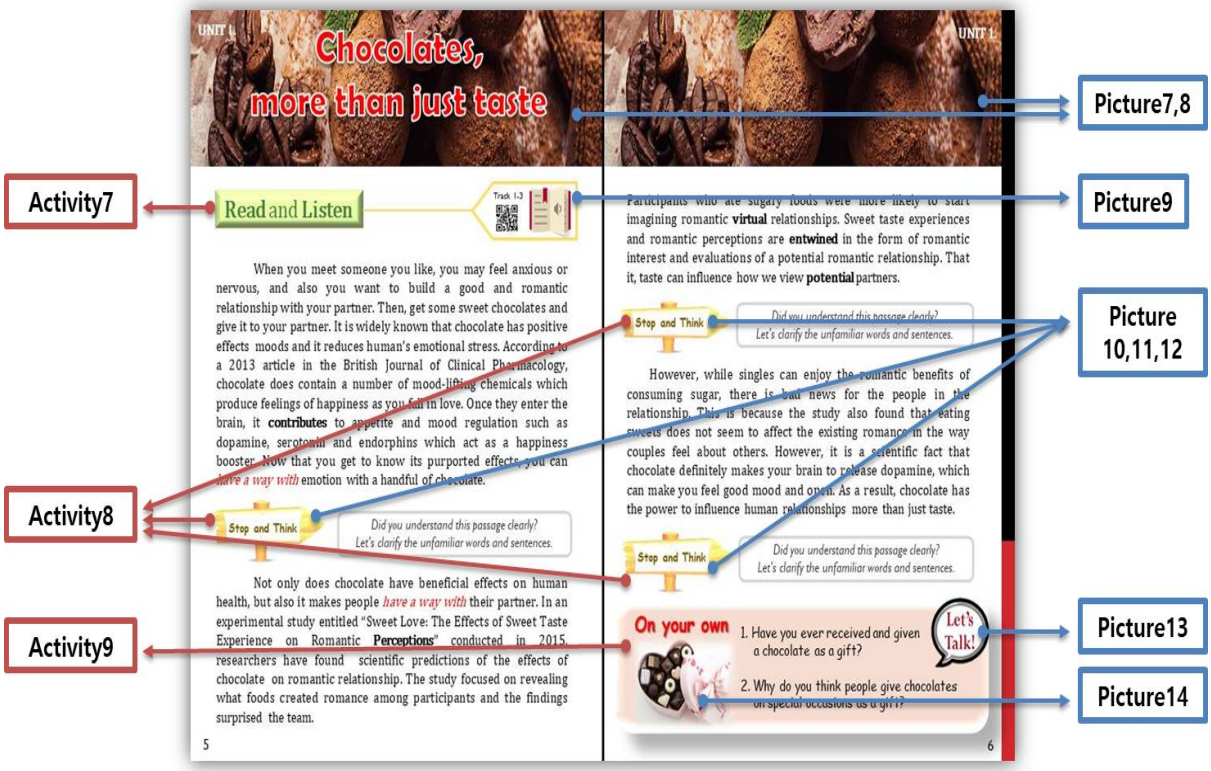
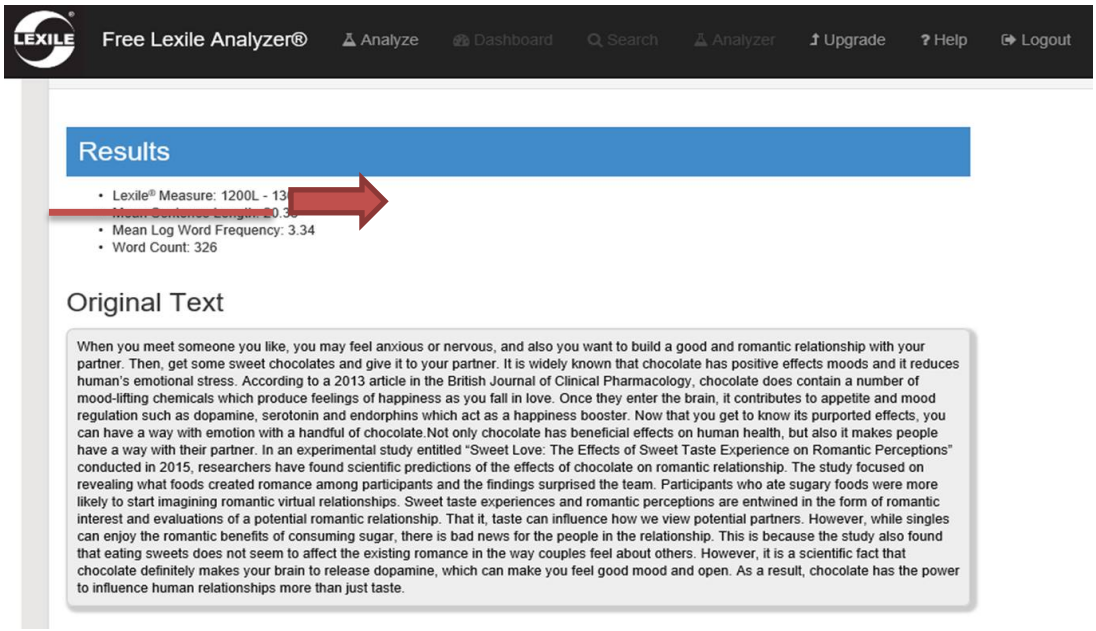


Image 1: Reading Text Lexile Measure (Lexile.com webpage screen captured)

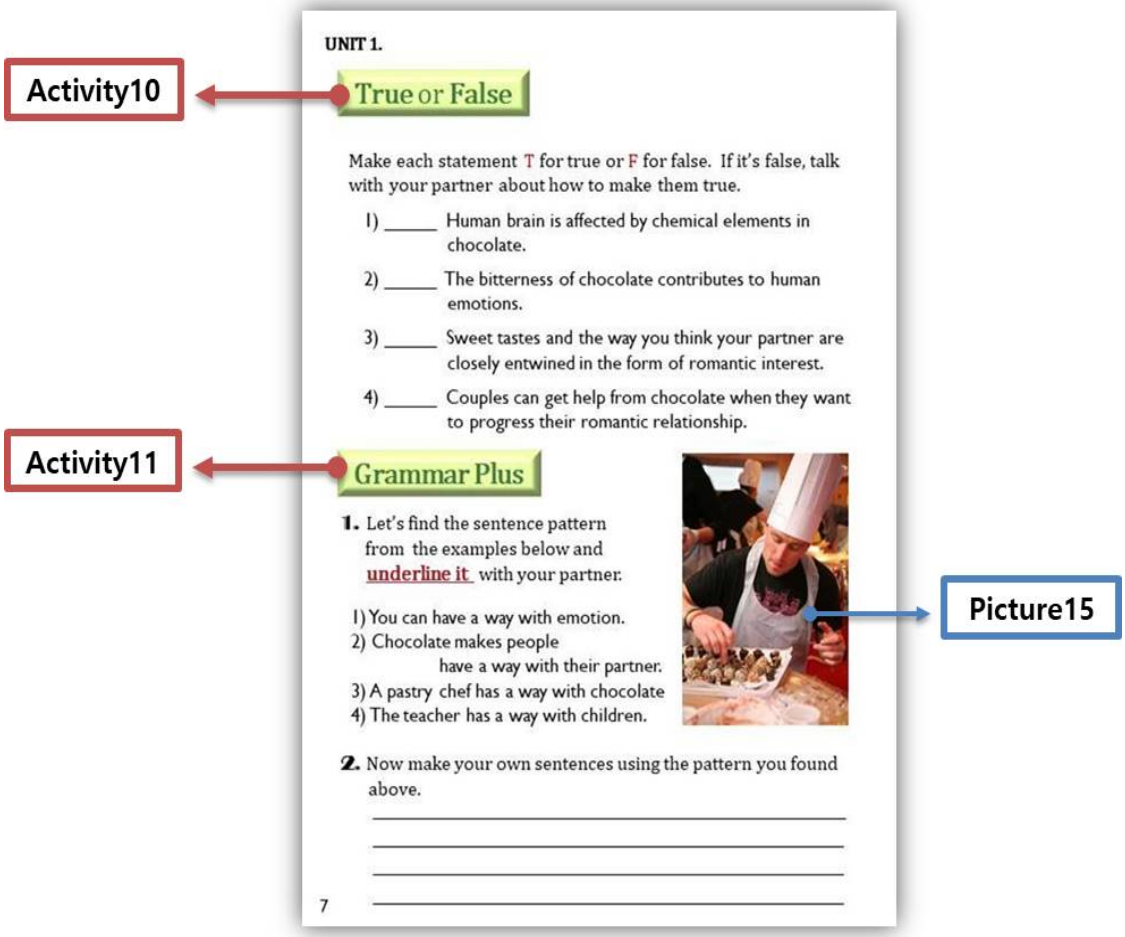


Description		Reason
Content	Type	
Picture 7,8	Illustrative	These are color photos to provide a clue of the content and to lower learner anxiety before they start to read and listen. It also provokes students' content schema based on their background knowledge and learners can predict what they will learn. The pictures can stimulate learners to read by enhancing their curiosity.
Picture 9	Illustrative	This color abstract drawing of a listening symbol including QR code is decorative picture which provides access to the sub media for the listening activity. Through this picture the learners can easily access the *YouTube* audiovisual clip (Song, 2018b). It will be useful for those who want to read and listen.
Picture 10,11,12	Illustrative	These signs have the function of making the learners briefly stop reading the text and clarify their understanding of the previous reading passage. This is distinctive from other existing materials.
Picture 13	Illustrative	This color abstract drawing mark is to let learners know that the activity is a speaking activity (Activity 9).

Picture 14	Illustrative	This color photo is provided to recall the reading content 'chocolates', and to activate the students' content schema on the basis of their background knowledge so as to talk about the question in On Your Own.
Activity 7: Read and Listen	During-task: Meaning focused input	Since this material is a reading course book, we considered the Read and Listen activity as being the main receptive task. To adhere to the goal of the reading texts being at a level of 1000L to 1300L (the Lexile scale for advanced level), Image 1 (above) shows how we adjusted and confirmed the level of the reading text using the Lexile Analyzer (The Lexile Framework for Reading, n.d.-b). The signs for Stop and Think lead students to actively think and evaluate their understanding during reading. This activity is based on metacognitive awareness. According to King (1991, 1994), students who were trained to ask and answer metacognitive questions that focused on the construction of relationships between prior and new knowledge were better able to understand the materials. This is why we put these signs among the reading text. A listening activity is also provided along with the reading text. If learners scan the QR code with their smartphone, they can access a YouTube audio clip of a native English speaker. If the learners listen to the audio clip before reading, they can reduce any sense of pressure to read the text, lowering their affective filters (Krashen, 1977). Thus, the students can feel more comfortable during reading. Students can easily access the listening text anytime and anywhere using the QR code, which can motivate them not only to enhance their listening skill but also to understand the reading text better.
Activity 8: Stop and Think	During-task: Language focused learning	At each symbol, learners stop reading the passage and implement a comprehension check of unknown words or unclear sentences in order to precisely understand the content they are reading. If the student's understanding of the passage is vague, they can read it again. Through the activities, the student develops a more careful attitude to reading, which can help them deal with the following post tasks.

Activity 9: On Your Own	Post-task: Fluency development	According to Swain (1985), language acquisition occurs when the learner can produce output by speaking or writing based on comprehensible input. Thus, an output activity has to be considered as a balance between language input and language output. The material is therefore based on Communicative Approaches (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978) that language perception is only developed by interaction and interpersonal relations with others. Therefore, to enhance speaking ability, opportunities are offered for learners to engage in utterances using the given explicit questions. After reading the text, the students will have talking time where they can express their thoughts in their own words, which can encourage them to participate in speaking with peers and groups by conveying the information and ideas. Also, this activity reflects the lesson goals of fulfilling students' needs in terms of improving speaking fluency development.

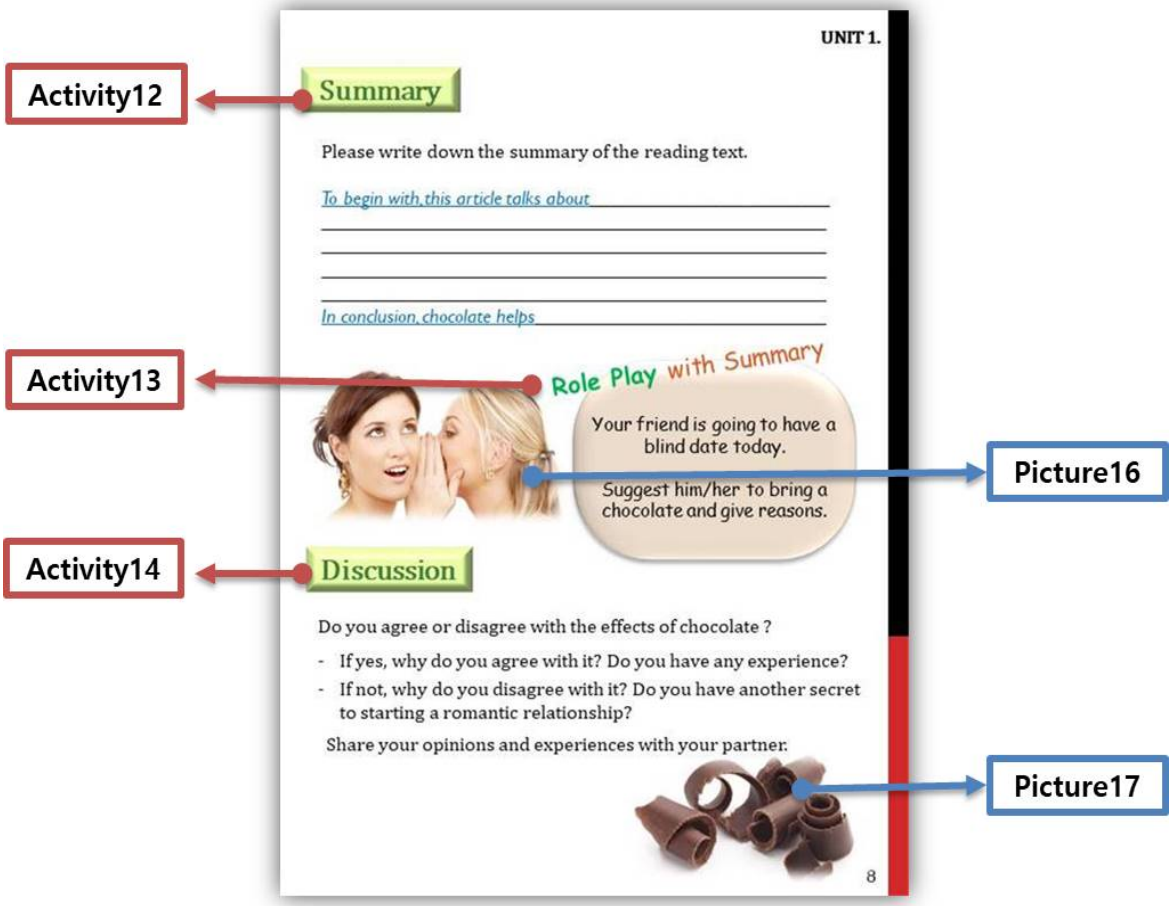
(5) Page 7



Description		Reason
Content	Type	
Activity 10: True or False	Post-task: Meaning focused input	This course book focuses on reading by asking comprehension questions. These True/false questions provide meaning-focused input because they focus on understanding messages. The four questions in this activity involve the target vocabulary being used in more generative ways. Therefore, these four questions clearly help vocabulary learning, as well as understanding of the words within the context of the sentence. In addition, they draw on learners' knowledge. That way, learners can retrieve the meaning of the vocabulary which strengthens their memory of the words. Learners have to comprehend the word as a part of the sentence and this involves a deep level of mental processing, contributing to the learning of the words.
Activity 11: Grammar Plus	Post-task: Language focused learning	This involves a deliberate focus on language features, especially collocations. Based on the results from the needs analysis survey, we found that most students wanted to learn grammar while not wanting to use time for only language focused learning. Therefore, in this course, learners would not spend too much time on language focused learning but still experience an appropriate amount of grammar learning. According to Brown (1994), teaching grammar through deductive and inductive approaches at the same time could be more appropriate. Therefore, we made a decision to combine both deductive and inductive approaches in this activity in order to support learners to understand the meaning and rules of language more efficiently, and raise their conscious awareness and knowledge of language. It is generally considered that deductive teaching is more appropriate for adults because it starts with the presentation of a rule, making learners aware of language features directly and saving a lot of classroom time. However, our course book is mainly focusing on CLT based materials, so we want to make students participate in the activity more actively, as we hope this course book can be used in student-centered classes. Therefore, in order to help learners find the meaning, raise their consciousness, and understand the use of

		language in context more efficiently, we decided to combine two approaches. First of all, this activity gives several example sentences in an inductive way. It then asks learners to underline the repeated sentence pattern with their partner instead of a teacher providing the grammatical rules directly. Thus, learners should interact with their partner and they can notice the sentence pattern themselves. This is a top-down teaching method which motivates learners to learn through direct interaction and allows them to find meaning. Furthermore, by practicing and making their own sentences by using patterns after finding the rule, they can use their conscious knowledge, raise their conscious awareness, and check their written output at the end. The Grammar Plus activity can be a stepping stone to a fluency-development activity.
Picture 15	Illustrative	This color photo is illustrative. It helps learners understand the meaning of the language (Duchastel, 1978). It facilitates their comprehension by providing information related to the sentences. Also, it can strengthen learners' memories.

(6) Page 8



Description		Reason
Content	Type	
Picture 16	Illustrative	This color photo shows what learners are going to do with their partners and aims to help learners feel at ease. There are lots of different activities crammed onto the last two pages. We colored the title in green and orange to give a game-like feel, so that learners can be motivated to take part in the enjoyable activities. The activities involve learners doing things which are not a part of normal language use or of normal language learning.
Picture 17	Illustrative	The purpose of this color picture is also to make learners more comfortable with the discussion topic. They may recall the main text and use their knowledge to discuss the questions.

Activity 12: Summary	Post-task: Fluency development	This is a writing fluency activity. Learners can make the best use of what they learned from the previous activities and the main text. They will write about things where they can bring in a lot of previous knowledge. Teachers can offer feedback on the content during the class. In order to lower learners' affective filters, model sentences are provided in the first paragraph. Thus, we expect that learners are able to write a summary of the story easily and that they are able to focus on delivering messages based on what they understand. There is a 10 minute time limit so learners are required to perform at a faster speed, providing an opportunity to practice their fluency. Moreover, it enhances their reading and writing skills.
Activity 13: Role Play with Summary	Post-task: Fluency development	This is a speaking fluency activity and the previous activity supports learners to take part in this one. This means that they are able to talk about a very familiar topic that they have already spoken about. It involves profound questions based on the understanding of the reading text. It raises learners' consciousness, recalls their experiences and facilitates long term memory storage. By doing a role play activity, learners solve problems and interact together.
Activity 14: Discussion	Post-task: Fluency development	For this part, learners can make the best use of what they have already learned from the whole unit.

4. MATERIAL EVALUATION

4.1. Theory-Based Evaluation

A material development lecture by Kang (2018) emphasized five impact factors a material has to achieve: 1) Novelty, 2) Variety, 3) Attractive Presentation, 4) Appealing Content, 5) Achievable Challenge. We set the goal to make a material which has these five impact factors. For this reason we wanted to choose evaluation criteria which contained the five factors. It seems that there is no one specific criterion that caters for them. Thus, we have mixed several criteria for the theory-based material evaluation.

Using, the 'Physical and Utilitarian Attribute' section of Abdel Wahab's (2013) checklist, we could evaluate the variety and attractive presentation of the physical aspects of the material. We

selected the checklist items which were appropriate for evaluating our material. Table 4-1 (below) displays the selected checklist items with our answers.

Table 4-1: Our Answers to Abdel Wahab's (2013) Material Evaluation Criteria

A-General Appearance	Good	Satis-factory	Poor
1. The outside cover is informative and attractive.	○		
2. The font size and type used in the book are appropriate.	○		
3. There is enough white space to achieve clarity.		○	
4. The titles and sub-heading titles are written clearly and appropriately	○		
5. The textbook has sufficient number of pictures to make the situation more life-like.	○		
B- Layout and design			
1 There is a variety of design to achieve impact.		○	
2. There is consistency in the use of headings, icons, labels, italics, etc.	○		
3. An adequate vocabulary list or glossary is included.	○		
4. Adequate review sections and exercises are included.	○		
C- Visuals			
1. The Visuals are well produced ,varied and attractive	○		
2. The Visuals stimulate students to be creative.	○		
3. The Visuals are functional.	○		
4. The Visuals are compatible with students' own culture.	○		

In evaluating the 'General Appearance,' the checklist asks about the cover, font size and type, enough white space, title and sub-headings, and the number and variety of pictures the book contains. In answering the checklist, the cover page (material page 1 and 2) was considered to constitute the outside cover. When it came to 'white space' it was considered that because of the characteristic of our material – a reading course book for adults, the material had to deal with informative activities with a lot of text meaning that we could not allow for a lot of white space. However, the location of each picture and activity was still adjusted with a consideration of the need for white space in helping to lower learner stress. It was also felt that the title and activity headings were all written clearly and properly, and that the material had a sufficient number of pictures to make the situation more life-like. There are 17 pictures in this material and all nine of the color photos function to make the material more life-like and stimulate learners' personal experiences and related knowledge.

The 'Layout and Design' part of the checklist asks about design, consistency of heading and icon usage, and adequate vocabulary list and exercises. It was felt that while the design is clear and harmonized, variety was limited due to its focus on just one topic – food and relationships. It was

considered that all the repeated items and letter types show consistency so that learners can feel at ease with the organized contents. Adequate vocabulary lists and exercises are evident. For example, for the vocabulary building activity there are word banks and a vocabulary list, and a definition of each word is also included. Review exercises are provided by productive activities always following receptive reading and listening activities. The summarizing and discussion activities also wrap up the unit through reviewing and interpreting the main idea of the reading text.

In evaluating 'Visuals,' the checklist asks about all the appearance factors of the material including the functional aspect. It was felt that all photos and drawings were located appropriately, each of which were visually attractive. The cover page pictures in particular function to stimulate learners' curiosity and creative thinking, complementing the warm up activity. This provides an example of how each picture has its own role and function, as described previously (section 3.2). A further example of image functionality is the QR code offering a new technological image and actual IT related function. Furthermore, because the topic was selected from the answers of the student survey, all the factors including visuals in this unit are deeply associated with the target learners' own culture.

In addition, we analyzed all the pictures in the material with Kim and Kang's (2017) picture analysis criteria as outlined in Table 4-2 below. All 17 pictures featured were chosen under cautious consideration. According to Kim and Kang (2017), students have a more positive perception of color photos and drawings. The material has only color pictures and drawings so that learners feel at ease and easily understand the contents when they look at the material (Solman and Wu, 1995). Although the functionality of all the pictures except two is illustrative, each picture and drawing has a specific purpose, as explained previously in section 3.2. From Picture 1 (the unit symbol) to Picture 13 (the Let's Talk symbol), all the abstract drawings have their own role to help students understand the activities. The two stimulus-response pictures on the cover page also have the role of stimulating learner curiosity and help them think about their own experiences to create a story, increasing students' motivation to learn from the material (Duchastel, 1978).

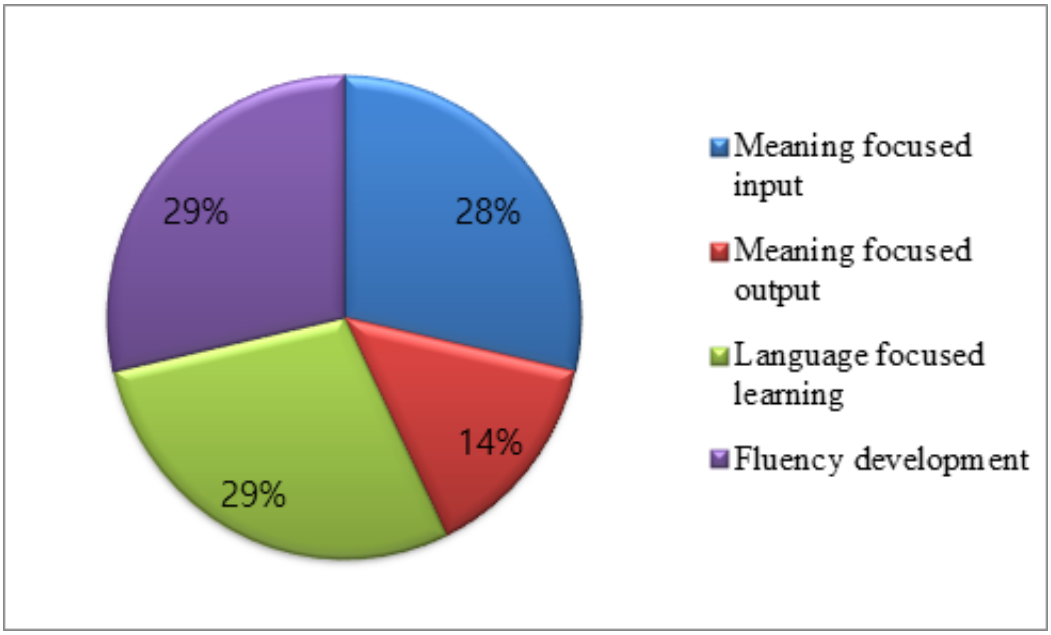
Table 4-2: Picture Analysis Criteria by Kim and Kang (2017)

Functional Types	Numbers	Picture Types	Numbers
Illustrative	15	Color photos	9
Stimulus–response (Talking about pictures)	2	Black and white photos	0
Stimulus–response (Talking with pictures)	0	Realistic drawing	0
Student-generated	0	Imaginary drawing	0
		Abstract drawing	8

In addition, the four strands criteria by Nation (2007) offers a very important standard for the activities in each unit of the material. Nation (2007) said that:

> [T}he four strands are opportunities for certain types of learning. They differ from each other according to the conditions that are needed for the different types of learning. They can fit together in many different ways. (pp.8-9)

Figure 1: Activity Analysis by Four Strands



Reflecting Nation's assertion, 14 different activities in the material have different types of opportunities for learning, and through an effort to make a balanced material with consideration of these four strands, they fit together well. Figure 1 (above) indicates what the four strands are and how the material balances them. Since the activities in the fluency development strand incorporate language output activities, the number of meaning focused output strand activities are reduced. However, the balance of input and output activities is demonstrated by the data in Table 4-3 below.

Table 4-3: Material Evaluation Table

Strands	Title of activities	Ratio	Sequencing
Meaning focused input	1. Enjoy Choco Choco Song 2. Dialogue Listening 3. Read and Listen 4. True or False	28.6% (4/14)	1. Warm-up Question 2. Enjoy Choco Choco Song 3. Dialogue Listening 4. Think Aloud

Meaning focused output	1.Warm-up Question 2. Think Aloud	14.2% (2/14)	5. Matching Words 6. Making Sentences ----------> Pre Task 7. Read and Listen 8. Stop and Think ----------> During Task 9. On Your Own 10. True or False 11. Grammar Plus 12. Summary 13. Role Play with Summary 14. Discussion ----------> Post Task
Language focused learning	1. Matching Words 2. Making Sentences 3. Stop and Think 4. Grammar Plus	28.6% (4/14)	
Fluency development	1. On Your Own 2. Summary 3. Role Play with Summary 4. Discussion	28.6% (4/14)	

The way that tasks are sequenced in the material means that they can be divided into three types: *pre*-, *during*, and *post*-task (see Table 4-3). There are six *pre*-tasks before reading the main text, two *during* tasks including the reading and listening activity, and six *post*-tasks with the activities taking place after reading the text. Especially for the *during* tasks, we wanted to satisfy the Novelty and Achievable Challenge impact factors from the five advocated by Kang (2018). Most reading course books contain reading texts which are expected to be read without pausing. By separating passages and including the Stop and Think activity, the material offers learners online reading which allows learners to move around the text to help with their understanding and clarification of its meaning. This idea of Stop and Think is brought from the effect of metacognitive awareness (Carrell, 1989). If learners have an opportunity to stop during reading and to think whether they understand the meaning of the words and sentences, and if they have a time to adjust their use of reading strategies such as clarifying, their reading comprehension can be better than if they just read the text from beginning to end without stopping and thinking (Barnett, 1988).

As the last stage of the theoretical evaluation, we evaluated the topics and structure of the material using the 'Subject Matter' part of the criteria proposed by Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979), as outlined in Table 4-4 below.

Table 4-4: Evaluation Criteria by Daoud and Celce-Murcia's (1979)

The Textbook		
a	Subject matter	
	1	Does the subject matter cover a variety of topics appropriate to the interests of the learners for whom the textbook is intended (urban or rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female students)?
	2	Is the ordering of materials done by topics or themes that are arranged in a logical fashion?
	3	Is the content graded according to the needs of the students or the requirements of the existing syllabus (if there is one)?
	4	Is the material accurate and up-to-date?

The first question seems to cover Kang's (2018) Variety impact factor. By considering the new material contents table (see Table 4-5 below), you can see the other items and factors of our material which are not shown in the description of a single unit. A variety of topics are covered by the material. The six topics were chosen by students. The needs analysis found that university students want more daily-familiar topics than informative topics. In light of the survey results, we decided to combine the two topic preferences of food and relationships. This is therefore a potentially interesting topic for students.

With regards to the second question, it was intended that the topics were ordered logically. We have focused on arranging the topics, so the most preferred topic (Culture) features as the last unit as a means of keeping students motivated. By maintaining interest and curiosity from the first unit to the last one, students can develop all four language skills across all units.

Table 4-5: New Material Contents

Number of units	6 units	
Pages per unit	8 pages	
Language skills	Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing	
Medium	Paper Book (Sub-medium: Audio and Video clips)	
Topics	**Unit 1 Food and Relationship**	Chocolate, more than just taste
	Unit 2 Relationship and Psychology	Being beautiful or handsome is easier than you think
	Unit 3 Travel	Explore the world's biggest country

	Unit 4 Arts	Cultural rebirth
	Unit 5 Social Issues	Ready to take off, flying cars
	Unit 6 Culture	The B Boy-hip-hop dance worldwide
Language Objectives	Syntactic Knowledge Acquisition	
	Expanding Vocabulary Knowledge	

In response to the third question, it was considered that the contents of the material were selected and graded according to the result of the first needs analysis. The fourth question is related to Kang's (2018) Appeal impact factor, and it is an important factor to evaluate because our target learners are university students who are very sensitive to recent trends and new technologies. By incorporating QR codes and YouTube video clips, we have included detailed and up-to-date items to attract target learners.

In addition to a theoretical evaluation, we researched student reaction to the material to find out whether we actually achieved the goals we set.

4.2. Research-based Evaluation

This material reflects learners' needs, interests, and goals based on the results of the needs analysis. Through practical feedback from surveys and several discussions throughout the development process, frequent modifications have been made to achieve a final material design. We therefore believe that our material enables learners to improve their reading, speaking, listening and writing skills

We conducted both pre- and post- design student surveys, with the latter applied to evaluate the material design. Questions for this survey consisted mainly of two categories. One was about appearance and the other was about content and activities. The questions for the latter were divided into three subcategories which are: subject matter, exercises, and vocabulary and structures. In the first category, the questions asked if the pictures, structure, design and layout were appropriate. The questions of the second category asked if the topic was interesting, whether each activity was fun or creative and what skills could be improved through each activity. We obtained clear and constructive responses from the survey.

First of all, as a result of the evaluation of the appearance of the material, we received excellent feedback from the students. Most of the students said that the picture on the first page matched the topic very well, and was very intriguing. Also, the pictures were found to make the activities feel more enjoyable. They seemed to reduce students' affective filters and encourage them to communicate with their partner more naturally. Students also said that the colors used were appropriate, and that the material had a very well organized layout. In particular, because the input

was sufficient and the material was well organized, students said that after completing the summarizing activity they could enjoy doing the role play activity to develop their fluency.

Survey results will now be considered in light of two aspects; the four language skills and Kang's (2018) five impact factors. In terms of the achievement of language skills coverage, we made several activities based on the results of the need analysis. When asked about their preference for activities, the students answered; grammar learning (6), writing (5), group discussion (5), questions to talk before reading (5), and communication activities (3). (The numbers in brackets indicate the number of participants, out of 9, that indicated the preference.) To reflect these needs, we made a variety of activities that helps students to improve the four skills as well as their knowledge of grammatical rules.

However, we found that there is a big difference between the way students viewed the material and the way we did. Figure 2 (below) shows the percentage of each of four language skills students think they will improve through using this material. Particular points to look at was that there was no demand for listening activities indicated by the pre-design needs analysis survey results, but the data from the post-design survey showed that students thought it would be difficult to improve listening skills using this material. Moreover, although grammar and writing activities account for 30 percent of the total activities, only 15 percent of students thought they could improve their grammatical competence. From these results, we concluded that the needs analysis did not represent all of the students' needs, making them difficult to satisfy. In addition, we found that the material must include various activities that can improve all four language skills because students want to improve them all. Students expected that this material would improve their speaking and reading skills a lot. Most students said they were satisfied with the vocabulary building activity because it helped them to subsequently read the text. Also, they said that they did not have much difficulty learning the words. This shows that it is an appropriate material for advanced learners to enhance their English proficiency.

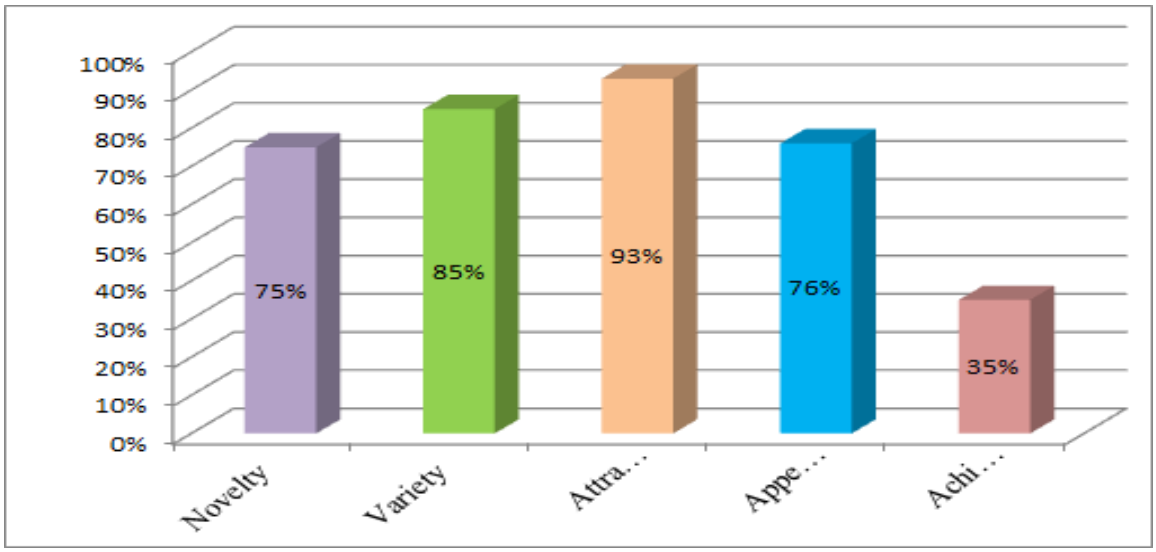
Figure 2: Survey Result about Four Language Skills

We further evaluated the material using the criteria of Kang's (2018) five impact factors. We analyzed these factors using the student post-survey results so as to discover a sense of impact of the material regarding the participants' aggregate opinions. To calculate a percentage for each impact factor, we considered the number of specific answers by participants related to survey question categories that could be associated with each factor. We made sure that not only answers of multiple choice questions were considered, but also the participants' detailed feedback about each open response question. The percentage findings are shown in Figure 3 below, with the components associated with each impact factor displayed in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6: Five Impact Factors of Material Achievement

Novelty	• Unusual Topics • Illustrations • Activities
Variety	• Breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with the unexpected activities • Using many different text-types taken from many different types of sources • Using a number of different instructor voices on a CD
Attractive Presentation	• Use of attractive colors • Lots of white space • Use of photographs
Appealing Contents	• Topic of interest to the target learners • Topics which offer the possibility of learning something new • Engaging stories • Universal themes • Local references
Achieve Challenge	• Tasks which challenge the learners to think

Figure 3: Survey Result of Five Impact Factors of Material Achievement



5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Why This Material?

This material is different from other reading course books in Korea. Most of the reading course books in Korea focus on translation and reading comprehension activities, but there is lack of opportunity to expand reading skills for communicative usage. We focused on university students as our target learners, and we chose topics and activities by considering their needs and interests. At first, according to the results of the need analysis, the material was made to mainly improve learners' reading, speaking and writing skills. Afterwards, we added a real-time listening activity to further raise learners' communicative competence. The results of the second student survey to evaluate the materials confirmed that the material gives learners opportunities to improve four language skills at the same time through provoking higher order thinking and engaging in higher level reading processes.

To reflect Swain's Output Hypothesis, we included comprehensive output tasks which help learners to make unfamiliar vocabulary and grammar meaningful, and use those new language items in a communicative situation. We expect that after doing writing and speaking activities, learners can compare the language they produce to distinguish what they know and what they do not know, facilitating their second language learning. Most students said they were satisfied with the vocabulary building activity because it helped to study the vocabulary before reading the text. Furthermore, they were especially satisfied with the illustrations, creative activities and the interesting topic. Needless to say, as a result, students expected that this material could help to improve all four language skills while also satisfying the five impact factors.

6. WHAT WE LEARNED FROM THE WHOLE PROCEDURE AND RESEARCH

To begin with, in order to design this material, we have considered and applied a variety of things to make helpful material for learners to learn a second language more efficiently. We initially examined various theoretical principles and repeatedly evaluated many other course books to compare findings with our own material plan, and modify it accordingly. Some ideas were changed to match the environment and students needs analyses findings and some ideas were refined by consulting theoretical methods and concepts. Task Based Instruction (TBI) gave us a chance to think about the quality of the activities. With the consideration of the elements of a task, vocabulary and grammar activities (Vocabulary Building and Grammar Plus) became interesting tasks by including both linguistic goals and thinking processes.

Topics of the material were also seriously considered under the Content Based Instruction principle (CBI). As we designed the lesson under the theme-based model of CBI, the topic itself became the motivational factor for students. That is why the material consists of daily-familiar topics which were chosen to reflect student preferences.

We then started to create a real textbook based on a solid theoretical foundation. For this process, we considered how to blend other incidental things that we learned from lectures about illustration, design including layout, real-time listening activities, creative activities, new technology, and so on. This was intended to increase the market value of the material. We surveyed the students to evaluate our textbook and received useful and practical feedback so we could further improve our textbook.

We primarily only focused on principles and content, but after understanding the significant role of pictures in textbooks, we considered inserting interesting pictures in our material. It was very hard to find appropriate pictures that would motivate and interest learners. Especially when choosing the cover page, which involved numerous revisions. We were very satisfied that many students gave good feedback about these pictures in the final survey. They said that it was very interesting to imagine a story using the pictures, and that they provided clues about the topic. It seems like these pictures had a large effect on students' memories and improved their comprehension of the topic.

In addition, this material was made after much consideration as to how to improve learners' English skills. In particular, we added a real-time listening activity in order to raise their communicative competence, and their use of metacognitive, cognitive, and social affective strategies. By listening to spoken English in a dialogue and conferring with their partners to reach an answer, learners can make predictions and raise their communicative competence.

Furthermore, we used new technology to support learners' language learning. We inserted QR codes for the electronic delivery of materials. This enables learners to interact with non-human partners and to study independently without any problems. In addition, we make a decision to combine both deductive and inductive approaches to grammar to support learners in understanding the meaning and rules of language more efficiently and raise their consciousness.

All these considerations and findings from the theories and surveys consulted during the material design process resulted in designing a reading course book with the goal of helping students achieve a higher level of speaking, writing, and listening skills, as well as develop their reading skills. It was not easy to balance the various elements of theoretical principles and student needs in one material, but we tried to use these as a solid fundamental baseline for curriculum and material development. We learned that all these plans can change continuously throughout the practical design procedure. In the end, we could understand the interests of the various positions of writer, teacher, and designer, through the process of learning, understanding and making our own textbook. The material development process was a precious period in which many things were learned.

REFERENCES

Aqel, I. M. (2013). The effect of using grammar-translation method on acquiring English as a foreign language. *International Journal of Asian Social Science, 3(12)*, 2469-2476.

Barnett, M. (1988). Reading through context: How real and perceived strategy use affects L2 comprehension. *Modern Language Journal, 72,* 150-162.

Brinton, D., Snow, M. A. & Wesche, M. B. (1989). *Content-Based Second Language Instruction*, New York: Newbury House, 3-4.

Canning-Wilson, C. (1999). Role of video in the F/SL classroom, in Riley, Troudy and Coombe (eds.), *Teaching, Learning and Technology*, TESOL Arabia.

Carrell, P. L. (1989). Metacognitive awareness and second language reading. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 121-134.

Carter, B. (2000). Formula for failure. *School Library Journal*, 47(7).

Chang, S. (2011). A contrastive study of grammar translation method and communicative approach in teaching English grammar. *English Language Teaching, 4(2),* 13-24.

Chastain, K. (1971). *The development of modern language skills: Theory to practice*. Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development.

Duchastel, P. C. (1978). Illustrating instructional texts. *Educational Technology, 18(11),* 36-39.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Grabe. W & Stoller, F. L. (1997). *Content-based instruction: Research foundations*. In M. A. Snow, and D. Brinton (Eds.). *The content-based classroom: Perspectives on integrating language and content* (pp. 5-21). White Plains. NY: Addison Wesley-Longman.

Han, J., Kim, Y. & Oh, H. (2013). A study on the development of English teaching and learning activities based on creativity techniques to enhance Korean EFL learners' creativity, *Foreign Languages Education, 20(4),* 175-210.

Hardman, M. C. (2009). *Developing a teacher's handbook for content-based instruction*, Brigham Young University's English Language Center.

Iakovos, T., Iosif, F. & Areti, K. (2011). Content-based Instruction in the Teaching of English a Foreign Language. *Review of European Studies, 3(1)*, pp. 115-121.

Kang, N. J. (2018). *Curricular and Material Development_Week 9* [PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from http://snowboard.sookmyung.ac.kr/course/view.php?id=39909

Karim, A. (2006). *Revisiting the Content-Based Instruction,* Language Teaching in relation with CLIL: Implementation and Outcome.

Kim, J. & Kang, N. (2017). 국내와 국외에서 제작한 어린이 영어책에 있는 그림들에 관한 연구 An analysis of pictures used in Korea and global English textbooks for young learners. *인문사회21, 8(2)*, 1163-1182.

King, A. (1991). Effects of training in strategic questioning on children's problem-solving performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*, 307–317.

King, A. (1994). Guiding knowledge construction in the classroom: Effects of teaching children how to question and how to explain. *American Educational Research Journal, 31,* 338–368.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. London: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications.* New York: Longman.

Krashen, S. (1986). A case for narrow reading. In J.F. Haskell (Ed.), *Selected articles from the TESOL Newsletter: 1966-1983* (pp. 189-190). Alexandria, VA: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Krashen, S. (1988). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Prentice-Hall International.

Krashen, S. (2001). The Lexile Framework: Unnecessary and Potentially Harmful, *California School Library Association Journal,* 24(2), 25-26.

Lennon, C. & Burdick, H. (2004). *The Lexile Framework as an approach for reading measurement and success*, MetaMetrics, Inc.

MrWowzers9111 (2009, August 20). *Chocolate (A Choco Choco) lyrics*. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rWy1w7WXeq0

Norte, P., Negreiros, J. & Correia. A. (2017). *Cultivating students' reading literacy using digital Lexile-based reading in a Chinese primary school*, 14th International Conference on Cognition and Exploratory Learning in Digital Age (CELDA 2017).

Rippa, S. A. (1971). *Education in a Free Society*, *2nd. Edition*. New York: David McKay Company.

Rivers, W. M. (1981). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*, *2nd Edition*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

Robin, R. (2007). Learner-based listening and technological authenticity. *Language Learning and Technology, 11(1),* 109-115.

Rodgers, T. S. & Richards, J. C. (2001). *Approach and Methods in Language Teaching, 2nd edition*. Cambridge, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Scarcella, R. C., & Oxford, R. L. (1992). *The Tapestry of Language Learning: The Individual in the Communicative Classroom* . Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Solman, R. T. & Wu, H. (1995). Pictures as feedback in single word learning, *Educational Psychology, 15(3),* 227-244.

Song, A. (2018a, June 13) *1 2 Dialogue Listening*. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PFmsP6ib7VY

Song, A. (2018b, June 12). *Chocolate, Just More Than Taste Text Reading*. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3jp2HEjJ4p8&t=4s

Stenner, A. J. (1996*). Measuring reading comprehension with the Lexile Framework*. Durham, NC: Metametrics, Inc.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development, in S. Gass and C. Madden (eds.). *Input in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1993*)*. The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 50*, 158–164.

Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate. Step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistic,s 16*, 371~391, p 371.

Tessmer, M. and Wedman, J. F. (1990). A layers-of-necessity instructional development model. *ER&D, 38(2*), 77-85.

The Lexile Framework for Reading (n.d.-a). *Measuring Growth with Lexile*. Retrieved from https://lexile.com/educators/measuring-growth-with-lexile/lexile-measures-grade-quivalents/

The Lexile Framework for Reading (n.d.-b). *Free Analyze*. Retrieved from www.https://la-tools.lexile.com/free-analyze

Tomlinson, B. (1998). *Materials development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and language*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Zimmerman, C.B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy* (pp. 5-19). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Effects of a Blog-based E-portfolio an EFL language performance

Jiwon Yoon

Research Methodology

Abstract

According to many researchers, electronic portfolio (E-portfolio) is defined as an academic tool to allow students to collect their works and organize their portfolios in different formats. Moreover, they revealed advantages of using electronic portfolios (e-portfolios) in L2 classroom. However, there has been not yet proved the additional benefit of e-portfolios when implementing using a blog as a platform. Thus, with regard to advantages of blogs this research has been conducted to examine the effectiveness of blog-based electronic portfolios (e-portfolios) in L2 writing and students' perception of using a blog-based e-portfolio with respect to writing. The results showed that using blog-based e-portfolios positively affected students' writing fluency, which means they showed an improvement in their writing fluency by the end of the course. The perceptions of using blog-based e-portfolio in writing indicates that the students were the most positively affected by the communicative function of blog-based e-portfolio, followed by reflective function, and entertainment function was the least effective for the students to develop their writing.

1. INTRODUCTION

The use of electronic portfolios (e-portfolios) has received considerable attention and has become more widespread (Barrett, 2000). Educational e-portfolios are one of the alternative electronic tools that used in teaching and learning. The e-portfolios motivate students to learn and become actively independent learners (Chau & Cheng, 2010; Gebric, Lewis, & Amin, 2011; Stefani, Mason, & Pegler, 2007). It also provides learners with opportunities to reinforce their learning skills, self-assessment, and their communication with the world. Finally, it helps learners develop their goals throughout their learning process (Barrett, 2006). Meanwhile, current research in computer-mediated communication environments has evolved beyond synchronous chat rooms, newsgroups and discussion forums to the potential use of weblogs and blogging in education (Embrey, 2002; Shachtaman, 2002). Thus, I came up with using a blog as a platform of making e-portfolios, as it may enable the learners to more easily manage their works and organize their portfolios in terms of following features of blog. First, the learners are able to post text or images instantly to the web without the user's need for professional

programming knowledge. Next, people may provide comments or feedback on each blog post. In addition, it provides opportunities to archive past posts by date, and to establish hyperlinks to other bloggers as well as to more general Internet resources (Chuang 2008).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of e-portfolios on L2 literacy, especially in writing with help of using a blog by exploring the relationship between e-portfolios, blogging, and L2 literacy. The reason that I am willing to do this research is because of noted significance concerning the way of assessing students' L2 performance through written exams. Although there has been an alternative method, which is a paper-based portfolio, it is still difficult to capture dynamic and complex processes of teaching and to get learners actively involved in the construction of meaning considering the specific process through the task (Williams & Burden, 2004). Therefore, this study will provide an answer to this significance of using e-portfolio in L2 teaching context, and how it affects to the learners' writing skill. Moreover, this study will not be limited to the e-portfolio but extend the view of the e-portfolio by implementing blogging into it.

The paper is organized into two parts. The first part will be a review of studies and the second part will be the methodology. This paper will carefully examine two research questions: (1) Does using a blog-based e-portfolio affect students' writing fluency? (2) What are the perception of using a blog-based e-portfolio with respect to writing?. After reviewing the studies, there will be a description of how I carried out my research, specifically the design of my research, selection of participants and collection of data, in order to answer my research questions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The following is divided into three sections: an explanation of relevant theories, a review of relevant studies, and a summary of the literature presenting my research questions. The relevant theories will introduce the e-portfolio, blogs as a potential platform for e-portfolio, and social constructivist theory as the theoretical framework of this study. Next, there will be reviews of five studies investigating the effectiveness of e-portfolios on students' L2 performance. The final part will be a summarization of the key trends in the literature and studies related to my research questions.

2.1 The Electronic Portfolio (E-Portfolio)

Electronic portfolio, e-portfolios, web-based portfolios, technology-based portfolios, and digital portfolios are all names for the same tool, which rises from e-learning and has become widely used in different disciplines (Cole et al., 2000; Pelliccione, Dixon, & Giddings, 2005; Butler, 2007; Barrett, 2006). Butler (2006) indicated that an e-portfolio is used for students while studying, for teachers and institutions while assessing their work, and for graduates while searching for a job. DiBiase (2002) from Penn State University defined e-portfolios as being "personalized, web-based collections that include

selective evidence from coursework, artifacts from extra-curricular activities, and reflective annotations and commentary related to these experiences" (p. 2). In other words, e-portfolios depend on gathering, organizing, and evaluating the best works as well as mastering learning skills and self-assessment. Barrett (2000) described the e-portfolios as "a digital container (that is) capable of storing visual and auditory content including text, images, video, and sound" (p. 2). From these definitions, one can grasp that the purpose of e-portfolios is to allow students to collect their works and organize their portfolios in different formats.

Many researchers specified advantages of the e-portfolio. First, an e-portfolio is less difficult to implement and less time consuming while it provides better and easier access to content and information and helps teacher in planning lessons in line with the progress observed in the online portfolio process (Al Kahtani, 1999). Second, using an e-portfolio supports self-reflection for both the learner and the teacher, as they can control over the learning procedure and allow flexibility (Avraamidou & Zembal-Saul, 2002). Third, using e-portfolio increases the user's motivation and self-confidence, because online publishing of one's work enables all Internet users to look at their works. Finally, the learners can exchange feedback between their peers and their teacher, which makes them to successfully perform a reflective approach through their portfolios (Woodward & Nanlohy, 2004).

2.2 Blogs as a potential platform for e-portfolios

According to Chuang (2008), features of blogs include instant publishing of text or graphics to the web without sophisticated programming knowledge, and provides mechanisms via which readers may provide comments or feedback to each such blog post. There are also opportunities to archive past blogs by date, and to additionally establish hyperlinks to other blogs as well as to more general Internet resources. Blog-based platforms present a less steep learning curve and friendly user access because blogs are essentially web pages where all writing and editing are managed through a web browser without any programming code or server software. In addition, blogs facilitate self-description and allow learners to label their individual entries with thematic tags and classify their entries.

A blog has the advantage of being the platform for e-portfolio in terms of intrinsically reflective activity, overcoming isolation constraint, and providing dialogues between two or more people or simply commenting reactively one person to another. Furthermore, Vygotsky's (1978) theoretical framework suggests that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. That is, increase in social interaction will ultimately promote an individual's reflective practice. Thus, Weblog seems to be a natural response to the increasing demand on the reflective components of electronic portfolios.

2.3 Social Constructivist Theory

Using e-portfolios in ESL classroom enhances learning within social context where students cooperate and work together. Vygotsky's (1978) notion of learning through social development is one

theory that reinforces using e-portfolios. Vygotsky explained that constructivism has an effective role in the widely spread use of paper-based portfolios in education, believing that knowledge exists within "social relationship" (p. 7). In other words, learning occurs in a close social context in a classroom or an institution, where learners view their learning and personal knowledge within their surroundings. Social constructivist theory values collaborative learning and discussion that construct new knowledge among learners within social and cultural context. Although it does not view student learning as a direct result of teacher actions in the classroom, it views students as partners in teaching-learning process and who are capable of adopting new ideas and methods (Levin, 1999). Using e-portfolios and new technologies foster social interaction, meaningful context, and interpersonal support with teachers and students' peers. This social constructivist approach helps teachers to build new bridges through constructivist experiences (Jacobsen, 2002; Levin & Wadmany, 2006). Thus, changes in the learning environment expand and enrich classroom practices and influence students' view of integrating learning and technology.

2.4 A definition of "fluency in writing"

Many of the definitions given to writing fluency are of qualitative nature, including producing written language rapidly, appropriately, creatively, and coherently (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998) and using linguistic structures to achieve rhetorical and social purposes (Reynolds, 2005). On the other hand, some researchers adopting process-based definitions of writing fluency view it as the richness of writers' processes and ability to organize composing strategies (Bruton & Kirby, 1987), and the speed of lexical retrieval while writing (Snellings et al., 2004). This variance clearly shows that there is no unified definition of writing fluency. Brown (1994) refers to fluency activities as "saying or writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time without any self- or other correction at all" (p.113). In related to most Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) studies focusing on writing, his definition is not appropriate as the basis for a definition of writing fluency. When writing is done with computers, any word count increase may be attributable in part to an improvement in students' typing speed rather than to a true development of writing fluency. In order to avoid the problem of writing the same simple sentence repeatedly over the period, Fellner and Apple (2006) define fluency in writing as the number of words produced in a specified time frame, together with lexical frequency, irrespective of spelling and content, provided that writer's meaning is readily understandable. The term "lexical frequency" has been used to describe the difficulty level of words based on the frequency with which they normally occur in written English (Laufer & Nation, 1995; Goodfellow, Lamy & Jones, 2002). The less frequently a word normally appears, the more difficult it is considered to be. Thus, it is necessary to consider the lexical frequency of words in combination with the number of words produced.

2.5 Review of the studies

Genc and Tinmaz (2010) conducted a study on 42 preservice teachers at Computer Education and Instructional Technology at the University of Firat in Turkey. The study showed that e-portfolios were more suitable for project-based courses and higher education. The study also showed that e-portfolios were more personal, planned, and educational without any type of commercial concerns compared to regular websites. Eventually, the learners developed different skills, such as portfolio preparation and presentation. However, four teachers reported that they did not develop any skills or abilities during the course.

Valdez (2010) conducted a study on 43 students who enrolled in ENGLCOM (English communication) course in De La Salle University to investigate literacy development and workload. The study showed that students documented their growth as writers throughout the course by starting from personal interests towards society issues. Although some learners resisted using e-portfolios because of time-consuming, concerning of criticism from others, using e-portfolio brought them to vary their writing styles to suit various audiences.

A study conducted by Gerbic et al. (2011) was a three-year study on 68 students in Auckland University of Technology at New Zealand. The study examined the influence of e-portfolios on students' L2 learning experiences and the potential challenges while using them. The findings showed positive development and changes in students' perception of using e-portfolios. It also showed that e-portfolios helped students to be more independent, track their development, and consider their weaknesses.

Chau and Cheng (2010) conducted a qualitative study on an e-portfolios competition to investigate the use of e-portfolios for enhancing independent learning and the challenges associated with them. They conducted the study on 63 undergraduate Chinese students, who were from different academic disciplines and who had no previous experience with e-portfolios. Although the study showed some difficulties of design and implementation, many benefits had emerged. First, a sense of ownership was increased among learners. Second, using e-portfolios supported independent learning through commitment, purpose, and strategies. Third, using e-portfolios made students control their learning goals and personal planning.

Huang and Hung (2010) conducted a study that investigated the impact of e-portfolios on speaking skills in Taiwan. Thirty English major Chinese students participated in this study and selected into either control or e-portfolios group. The researchers examined the effects of e-portfolios on students' speaking performance and their attitudes towards the employment of e-portfolios in promoting their speaking skill. The data collection took the form of recording orally the required tasks and electronically submitting them to their instructor. The results showed that the e-portfolios group revealed significant oral and language learning. Using e-portfolios improved learners' oral performance in terms of language quantity, lexical richness, but not for syntactic complexity. Huang and Hung (2010) added that using e-portfolios motivated learners to strengthen their learning outcome. However, the findings revealed two. The first was "the absence of real-time interactions" and the second was problems of uploading and

website breakdown, which created a sense of frustration (p. 205-206).

As the review of studies shows, there are positive effects of using e-portfolios to promote not only language skills but also learning skills. Specifically, e-portfolios contributed to L2 learners' improvement in their reading and writing. Valdez (2010) found that students construct their writing by reading and selecting suitable sentences and words to write their essays. He indicated that using e-portfolios for writing in a structured format helps students follow their personal growth and writing development.

In addition, Chau and Cheng (2010), and Gebric et al. (2011) stated that L2 students become independent learners and gain positive self-confidence that permits learners to trace their learning strengths and weaknesses more than a test. In this regard, when it comes to longitudinal study, using e-portfolios help learners revise their previous writings throughout their learning process. Thus, it is proved from the studies that using e-portfolios promotes learning and motivates learners, as they become responsible and monitor their literacy and personal planning for lifelong learning.

In respect to the effectiveness of implementing blog into L2 writing, there are several studies found that blogging has been effective tool to improve writing skills. Students were found to believe that using blog in the class as a writing tool was a good idea, as they claimed that they were able to write better and more effectively when using blogs and that blogging has allowed them to be creative despite having limited proficiency in the language (Nadzrah, 2007).

Blackmore-Squires (2010) found that a blog can empower students to become analytical and critical writer, which in turn improve a student's self-confidence, while claiming that an online writing such as writing on blogs has many advantages to offer such as: 1) encouraging feedback and representing both writing and reading activity; 2) stimulating debate and critical analysis and encouraging articulation of ideas and opinions; 3) offering opportunities for collaborative learning; 4) providing an environment in which students can develop skills of persuasion and argumentation; 5) creating a more student-centered learning environment; and 6) offering informal language reading.

McDowell (2004) supported the idea that educational blogging can enhance learning opportunities as he reported positive feedback from students on the use of blogs as learning tools as they increased interactivity and promoted reflective activities among students. In a study carried out by Blackmore-Squires (2010) regarding the use of blog as a tool to improve writing in the second language classroom, it was found out that the use of blog has encouraged learning through collaboration, which was in terms of communication between peers and tutors, as well as through learner autonomy. By using blog as a tool of communication, the learner actively constructs knowledge by translating ideas into words built upon the reactions and responses of others (Alvi, 1994). Furthermore, Campbell (2003) stated that a class blog run by the entire class is a collaborative effort of the class to create a platform for students to express themselves through writing.

As far as the affective is concerned, Blacksone et al. (2007) found that blogging activities boost nearly all the student participants' motivation, an element which has long been recognized as vital for

language learning (Dornyei, 2003) and writing. Since blogs are authentic, interesting and communicative, they can serve a variety of purposes in a foreign language learning classroom (Pinkman, 2005). This is the reason why blogs have the potential to supplement and enhance teaching method.

To summarize, although there are many studies that found the effectiveness of e-portfolios in students' L2 literacy, there has been not yet proved the additional benefit of e-portfolios when implementing using a blog as a platform. Taking the advantages of blogs, the affordances of blogs in creating e-portfolios enable us to expect every student to add constructively to a discussion and establish interconnection with each other. Moreover, it is expected to provide opportunities of multimedia formats of self-expression by playing a role of writer, publisher, and graphic designer simultaneously.

Thus, this study will provide an extended view of e-portfolio using blog as a platform by examining following two research questions.

1. Does using a blog-based e-portfolio affect students' writing fluency?
2. What are the perception of using a blog-based e-portfolio with respect to writing?

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

This study involved five Teaching English as Second Language (TESL) major students who registered in *media literacy* class, at K University in South Korea. Including this *media literacy* class, TESL students are taking classes that are taught totally in English. Thus, their English proficiency is regarded intermediate mid-high on average. Participants will be selected by using purposive sampling. As the research is examining the effects of blog-based e-portfolio in L2 writing skills, I have purposely chosen the students who are taking Media Literacy class and are subject to do tasks using their own blog as a platform for creating e-portfolios.

3.2 Research design and data collection procedures

The media literacy class comprised weekly 90 minutes sessions over 15 weeks. Two weeks will be absent for mind-term and final exams. This course is aimed at enhancing TESL students' media literacy skills by creating e-portfolio using blogs as a platform. First, they will create their own blog through WIX, which is a website providing various templates to create the blog, and play around with designing of the blog. Then create an introductory page that describes who they are and what their portfolio is about. For each week, the students will be introduced a variety of different genres in multimedia, such as digital audio, podcasting, images, vlogs, screencasts, animation, and social media. Along the introduction of each multimedia, they will be assigned a task each week to make use of it. Each task will be uploaded on their personal blog. They will write an introduction and reflection for each task. The purpose of writing introduction is to create curiosity in the reader to want to see or listen to their

task, and writing reflection shows their reflective thought and ideas on how it can be useful in the classroom. In completing the tasks, the students are also subject to give feedback to their partner and response to the feedback they received. At the end of the 15-week course, all students will do a survey about their perception of using blog-based e-portfolio with respect to writing.

Table 1 Research procedures

Week	Content	Data collection
1	Introduction to the course Create to learn Getting creative	N.A
2	Decisions, decisions Accessing and analyzing ideas	N.A
3	Creating ideas Reflecting and taking action	N.A
4	Create your own Blog (project)	N.A.
5	Blogs and websites	N.A.
6	Digital audio and podcasting	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
7	Images	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
8	Mid-term project due	N.A.
9	Infographics and data visualization	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
10	Vlogs and screencasts	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
11	Video production	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
12	Animation	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
13	Remix production	Blog entries (Introduction&Reflection)
14	Social media	N.A
15	Final project due	Post-survey

3.3 Data collection and Data sources

This particular study is both a quantitative and qualitative case study and aims at collecting data through mixed-method research design. Data is collected from surveys that include both quantitative and qualitative questionnaires, students' blog entries, and rubrics assessing content and organization of students' writing.

To examine the students' improvement in their writing fluency, in reference to the first research question, their blog entries will be analyzed by counting the number of words they produced in their introduction and reflection. The words will be counted using an online program *Word Counter*. Additionally, it should be taken into account that word count increase in writing done with computer may be attributable in part to an improvement in students' typing speed rather than to a true development

of writing fluency. Therefore, in order to avoid the problems of simply counting words used, their lexical frequency will be also measured by using a program named *VocabProfiler*. *VocabProfiler* analyzes words used in text into four levels: 1 to 1000 most common word families, 1001 to 2000 most common word families, 570 academic word families, and offlist, meaning words not appearing on any of the previous three lists. These "offlist" words are often called "low frequency" words, and hence more difficult. This method of examining writing fluency has been adopted from the research of Feller & Apple (2006). They explain the necessity of measuring lexical frequency of words in combination with the number of words produced to evaluate the students' wiring fluency with following theories.
By considering the lexical frequency of words in conjunction with the number of words produced, the definition ensures that an increase in writing fluency cannot be attributed solely to improved typing speed. However, in case of this research, since there is no time limit for students to write their blogs, word counting might not enough to indicate writing fluency. Therefore, this study adopted a rubric from site named pngdown.com as another measure for writing fluency. This rubric assesses students' writing in terms of organization and content. It lists the criteria in the column on the left: The report must explain clear introduction, body paragraphs and transitions, and conclusion. The quality of each criteria is scored from 0 to 10 points.

For the second research question, a survey will be conducted among students in order to examine the perception of using blog-based e-portfolio in terms of students' writing skill. The survey will be designed as a Likert scale in which the respondents' perceptions are registered by having them circle or check numbered categories, for example 1(Strongly Disagree), 2(Disagree), 3(Neutral), 4(Agree), or 5(Strongly Agree). Likert scale was chosen, because it is popularly used to investigate people's attitudes or perceptions toward something. The survey questions are adopted from Angeles et al (2015). The survey is consisted of two ways of questions, which are quantitative and qualitative. The Survey is going to be conducted twice through online (GOOGLE survey). The initial plan was to conduct the same survey twice, at the beginning of the course and at the end of the course, because the purpose was to compare the two surveys and see the change of students' perception of using blog-based e-portfolio. However, I couldn't make the pre-survey at the first class, so the best plan for following research would be taking just post-survey (Appendix A).

The reason why I decided to collect data in these ways is to precisely prove the effectiveness of blog-based e-portfolio in student's writing performance. To enhance validity and reliability, the two times of survey designed with same questions and with the same format. In terms of analyzing writing performance, using same and reliable online programs will enhance the validity of collecting data.

3.4 Data analysis

For the purpose of answering two research questions, data collected from the two different types of data sources were analyzed separately and then compared to assess if they support each other, draw comparisons between the sources, and fill in any gaps.

First, with analyzing students' writing performance in reflection and introduction, the word they produced in their reflection and introduction was simply counted using *Word Count*. Then lexical frequency level will be measured by copying all non-proper noun words into the online version of the RANGE program VocabProfiler. Among 7 total tasks, 5 tasks (podcast, images, infographic, video, and animation) were selected for each student will be analyzed in the same way and the data were statistically compared within their individual performance whether it has been increased. To support a true improvement of writing fluency, the rubric data in regard to organization and content of writing was also analyzed and the results was considered all three together to examine student's writing fluency. Assessing writing with rubric was taken to enhance validity and reliability of the result of writing fluency (Appendix B).

Next, the questionnaires consisted of both quantitative and qualitative questions which were designed to discover whether the students had experience in using blog-based e-portfolio in both personal and educational contexts, what are their perceptions toward blog-based e-portfolio in improvement of writing. The perception was categorized into 5 aspect of blog-based e-portfolio, which are communicative, reflective, entertainment, technological, and future use. Additionally, qualitative questions, which were related to their perceptions and expectations of using blog-based e-portfolio, were more conducted in order to support the limitation of this research design, since there's no re- and post-test for writing.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Word count results

The results of the word count of students' blog entries showed an overall increase in words produced from the first task through the last task that they completed each week during the 15-week course. As noted in Table 2, the average word count for student's written introduction and reflection was about 300.6 words in total from the first task on week 6. By the end of the course, this number had increased to an average of 406 words, representing an overall increase of almost 35%. Although this does not show a significant increase of their word use, they did improve their L2 production in terms of quantity. However, the total number of word count from Task 3 and Task 4, which were done on week 9 and week 10 respectively, decreased to an average of 290.8 and 237.6 words respectively. In respect to this decrease of total number of words produced on week 9 and 10, Figure 1 shows a different amount of increase of word count between five students. The highest individual student increase (S2) was from 269 to 572 words, or almost 112%, while the lowest word count (S3) increase was mere 69 words (from 427 to 496). Additionally, there was a student (S4) whose word count was even decreased from an average of 261 to 88 words when comparing the first task and last task, and she did not write for task 4. Thus, it must be taken into account that students' proficiency, as well as individual differences in

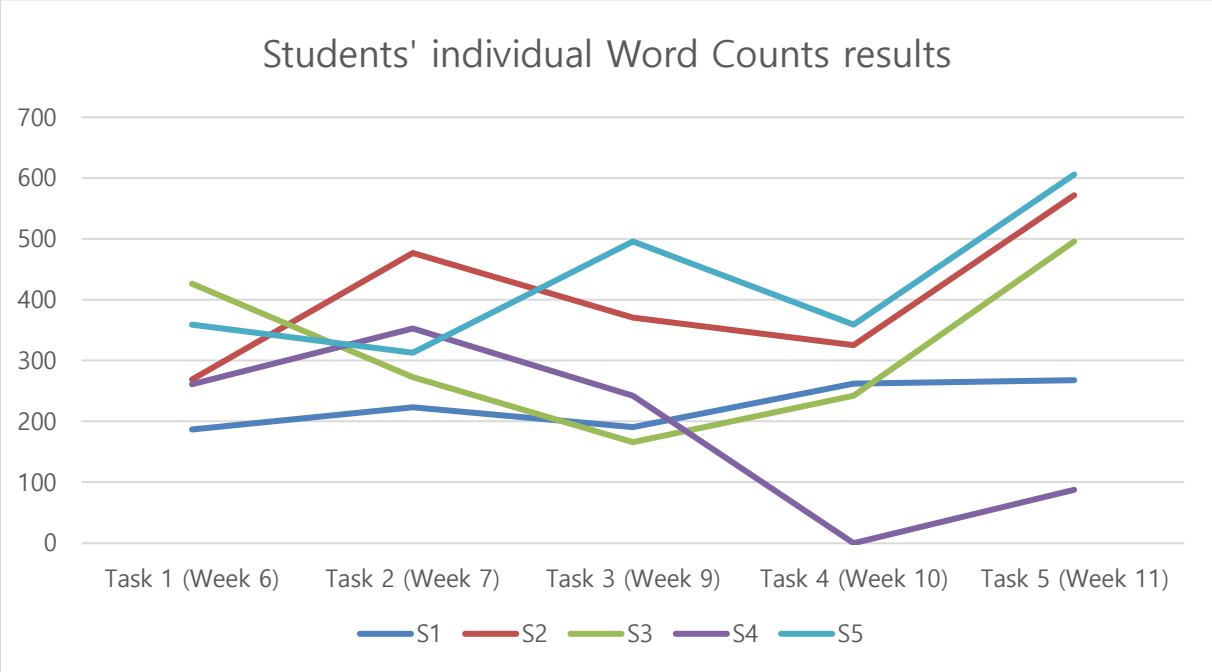
motivation and interest in the task topic, may have been factors influencing the total number of words produced.

Despite the inconsistent increase of word count in the middle of the course, it showed the overall increase of word count from the first to the last task, the result remained beneficial for the development of writing fluency,

Table 2. Written introduction and reflection total word counts over the five tasks

Words count	Task 1 (Week6)	Task 2 (Week7)	Task 3 (Week9)	Task 4 (Week10)	Task 5 (Week11)
Total	1,503	1,639	1,454	1,188	2,030
Avg. per S	300.6	327.8	290.8	237.6	406

Figure 1. Students' individual word counts results



4.2 Lexical frequency level results

An analysis of students' written introductions and reflections revealed not only that word counts increased by the end of the course, as mentioned previously, but also that more less frequently occurring words appeared by the end of the course. In other words, the students used more difficult lexical items in the final task than they did in the first task (See Table 3). In the first task, which was done on sixth week, students used an average of 8.6 words per student in the 1001-2000 word level, whereas in the last task done on 12th week they were using 24.2 words. Additionally, in terms of using academic words,

the word count increased from an average of 13 words to 20 words per student. Finally, the average number of offlist words in students' written introductions and reflections was increased as well from 25 words to 41 words. In respect to increase of word counts as mentioned earlier, the improvement of students' writing fluency can be proved by indicating the increase of less frequent, and difficult lexical words as well.

Table 3. Total word count and per student average word count by frequency level

Word count	1000 word level		2000 word level		Academic words		Offlist words	
	week6	week12	week6	week12	week6	week12	week6	week12
Total words	1.284	1.748	43	121	65	100	125	205
Avg. per S	256.8	349.6	8.6	24.2	13	20	25	41

4.3 Organization and content assessment results

As the students had no time limit during writing introduction and reflection on their blog, it was necessary to assess their writing with a rubric to examine writing fluency. The results of the assessment in terms of organization and content of blog writing showed improvement in total score (Appendix B). Every student except for S4 received a higher score in the final task compared to the first task. Especially, S3 and S4 had the biggest change in total score that the score moved from 50.9 to 54.5 out of 60 and 50.5 to 54.9 out of 60 respectively. To be specific, almost all students' organization in their writing improved using proper transitions and when it came to content, as they expressed clear topic sentences and conclusion statements in the last task. This might have been a positive influence from blog-based e-portfolio, as they can reflect on their previous work and share feedback with each other.

4.4 Perception of the respondents towards blog-based portfolio in five categories

The perception of the students toward blog-based portfolio was categorized into five categories: communicative, reflective function, entertainment function, future aspect, and technological function.

A. Communicative function

Table 4 shows the perception of the students on the communicative function of the blog-based e-portfolio. Students gave the highest rate of agreement on statement "I benefited from looking at my classmates' e-portfolio" which means that they have been improved in writing by interacting with other students, especially who are in higher proficiency. Moreover, students strongly agreed on the statement "sharing my e-portfolio with other classmates helped me feel like I was part of a community". This means that they overcame the isolation constraint through use of a blog-based

e-portfolio and might have been motivated to write more.

For overall average rating in this category, 45 percent of the students benefited from e-portfolio in terms of the communicative aspect, while 40 percent had a neutral stance, and 15 percent on average reported not finding help from e-portfolio use regarding the communicative aspect. Although 45 percent itself is not a significantly high rate, we can see that they took full advantage of communicative function of blog-based e-portfolio in their writing from the quantitative survey. The students stated in open-ended question related to this aspect that "I got to know my drawbacks I didn't think about by the feedbacks.", "By commenting on others, I could look back to my project and improve it", "I enjoyed watching their product".

Table 4. Perception of students on communicative function of blog-based e-portfolio

Questions	Total	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)
3. The ePortfolio helps me to communicate better with my classmate.	5	0%	20%	80%	0%	0%
6. ePortfolios (and the examples in them) provided by my classmates helped me to learn.	5	0%	40%	40%	20%	0%
7. I benefited from looking at my classmates' ePortfolios.	5	0%	80%	0%	20%	0%
8.Sharing my ePortfolio with other classmates helped me feel like I was part of a community.	5	20%	20%	40%	20%	0%
Total Average		5%	40%	40%	15%	0%

B. Reflective function

Table 5 shows the perception of students on the reflective function of blog-based e-portfolio. The statements "Keeping an e-portfolio encouraged me to become more autonomous learner" and "I think my e-portfolio shows my strengths and weaknesses better than a test or score" got the same rate of students' agreement of 40 percent each. Also, 40 percent of students strongly agreed on the statement "The use of e-portfolios helped me to evaluate my own progress". This means that that students agreed that blog-based e-portfolio provided them with opportunities to self-regulate during the writing process, look back at their thoughts and help gain new awareness.

In general, 40 percent of students agreed that blog-based e-portfolio helped for reflecting on their own writing and voicing out what is in their mind. Another 40 percent was unsure as to whether they favored using it for such a reflective process, and 20 percent had a negative perception of blog-based e-portfolio in regard to writing. In connection with this ratio, it is hard to say that use of a blog-based e-portfolio was particularly beneficial as a reflective approach to their practice. However, when looking at their replies on the open-ended question related to this category, reflective function partly helped them in terms of identifying their weakness in grammar and organizing their thinking effectively. The statements are as follows: "I could organize my thinking effectively by looking back on my work", "It was meaningful to think about what I did for the

project at the end of the program", and "It motivated me to learn the grammar more".

Table 5. Perception of students on reflective function of blog-based e-portfolio

Questions	Total	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)
9. The use of ePortfolios helped me to evaluate my own progress.	5	40%	0%	60%	0%	0%
10. Keeping an e-portfolio encouraged me to become a more autonomous learner.	5	0%	40%	40%	20%	0%
11. I think my e-portfolio shows my strengths and weaknesses better than a test. score.	5	0%	40%	20%	40%	0%
Total Average		13%	27%	40%	20%	0%

C. Entertainment function

Table 6 shows the perception of the students on the entertainment function of blog-based e-portfolio. Both statements "The use of an e-portfolio in this course had an impact on my level of motivation in writing" and "the use of an e-portfolio increased my desire to learn English" got the highest rate on neutral stance, 60 percent and 80 percent respectively. Overall, an average of 70 percent of students expressed neutral stance, while only 30 percent students agreed on entertainment aspects of blog-based e-portfolio in respect to writing. This means that students are not sure that using blog-based e-portfolio is as entertaining as to motivate their either writing or English learning. These results might have been affected due to technological difficulties which will be described later.

Table 6. Perception of students on entertainment function of blog-based e-portfolio

Questions	Total	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)
4. The use of ePortfolios in this course had an impact on my level of motivation in writing.	5	20%	20%	60%	0%	0%
5. The use of ePortfolios increased my desire to learn English.	5	0%	20%	80%	0%	0%
Total Average		10%	20%	70%	0%	0%

D. Technology function

The perception of the students on the technological function of blog-based e-portfolio is reflected on the quantitative survey which was conducted as open-ended question. According to an analysis of those questions related to this category, students were not favorable of the blog-based e-portfolio, because they were not familiar with its usage. It can be shown in students' statements "Internet access was difficult", "Creating a project for the e-portfolio consumed more time than other on technological projects". However, students seem to get better with the technology, as they mentioned "It was difficult at first, but got better", and "It took a lot more effort than I expected, but it was fun". Thus, even though they might have been unpleasant in using blog-based e-portfolio

at first, they become familiar with it and enjoy at last.

E. Future aspect

Table 7 shows the perception of the students on the future aspect of using a blog-based e-portfolio. Overall, 50 percent of students agreed to use e-portfolio in the future to improve their media literacy, whereas 40 percent disagreed with continuing use of the e-portfolio, and 10 percent were unsure whether to use it or not. Although there were some who disagreed, there remains the potential to use blog-based e-portfolio for students in L2 learning including writing in the future.

Table 7. Perception of students on future aspect in using blog-based e-portfolio

Questions	Total	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)
12. I will continue the use of my ePortfolio after the course ends to help me develop in reading and writing.	5	0%	40%	0%	60%	0%
13. I would use an e-portfolio to guide my knowledge development in media literacy.	5	0%	60%	20%	20%	0%
Total Average		0%	50%	10%	40%	0%

5. DISCUSSION

A significant factor that initiated my research on the effectiveness of blog-based e-portfolio in writing fluency was the limitation of using paper-based portfolios in assessing students' L2 performance. For example, it is difficult for students to capture the dynamic and complex processes of teaching and difficult to get learners actively involved in the construction of meaning. In addition to this, there has not been significant previous research on the effectiveness of using a blog as a platform for e-portfolios, even though there are many studies that revealed blogging has been an effective tool in the improvement of writing skills.

To discuss the results of data, using blog-based e-portfolios positively affected students' writing fluency. Based on word counts, lexical frequency, and the content and organization rubric, it is clear that students showed an improvement in their writing fluency by the end of the course. The improvement in writing fluency is evident through the increase in total word output, increased use of lower frequency occurring words, and development in their content composition and organization skills. This finding is consistent with that of Fellner and Apple (2006), which also suggest that blogging attributes to developing writing fluency. A significant difference between Fellner and Apple's (2006) study and this study is time setting during writing. This study did not considered time during writing, and rubric has been used to assess their writing fluency related to content and organization skills. Supplementing rubric assessment enhanced the validity of the examining writing fluency, because writing fluency is not only defined as "writing a steady flow of language for a short period of time

without correction" (Brown, 1994, p. 113), but also defined as the richness of writers' processes and ability to organize composing strategies (Bruton & Kirby, 1987).

The analysis of students' perceptions of using blog-based e-portfolio in writing indicates that the students were the most positively affected by the communicative function of blog-based e-portfolio, followed by reflective function, and entertainment function was the least effective for the students to develop their writing. Additionally, many students had technological problems at the beginning of writing their blogs, however this issue was diminished as time went by. Although there were still some students who were not sure of the effectiveness of using blog-based e-portfolios as indicated by neutral stance in all categories, they showed potential willingness to use of blog-based e-portfolios later on to improve their L2 learning.

Considering students' perceptions, the increase in their writing fluency might have been influenced by the communicative function of the blog-based e-portfolio. As the students communicatively write and take advantage of the blog by commenting on each other's work and giving feedback, it would encourage students to write more expressively. Moreover, they could have improved in their writing fluency, as they gave more attention to vocabulary choice or enhanced their vocabulary retention by reflecting on their previous work. When it comes to improvement in their content- and organization skills, they might have had help from those functions of blog as well.

This study has several implications for writing instruction and research. First, since students' writing fluency can be improved after using blog-based e-portfolios in teaching writing, language teachers might be encouraged to implement online environments when learning L2 writing, such as blog. With the help of blog blog-based e-portfolios, students can write text collaboratively and regulate themselves through monitoring. Since there were technical difficulties of because of unfamiliarity, secondly, teachers need to provide enough time to make use of blog and show how the e-portfolio is designed through blog.

6. CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to examine the effectiveness of blog-based e-portfolios in L2 writing and students' perception toward it. Through analyzing their written introductions and reflections using a blog as a platform for an e-portfolio, it has been noted that participating students improved in their writing fluency. The quantitative evaluation of the learners' performance revealed that not only their total vocabulary production but also the complexity of the vocabulary increased. Also, the content and organization of their writing improved. With respect to students' perception toward blog-based e-portfolios in writing, they seemed to have been positively influenced from blog-based e-portfolio in aspect of communicative and reflective function of blog.

There has been noted limitation in this research, such as there was no control group and no pre- or

post-test to evaluate their writing proficiency. In order to minimize those limitations, more quantitative data, such as an open-ended questionnaire was conducted within the survey. Moreover, it was too short to examine their improvement of writing fluency within 15 weeks. To further improve these limitations, future studies should narrow down the effectiveness of blog-based e-portfolio in writing fluency by comparing a control and experimental group within longer time frame, as well as conducting pre- and post-tests to make the result more reliable, valid and effective.

REFERENCES

Al Kahtani, S. (1999). Electronic portfolios in ESL writing: An alternative approach. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *12*(3), 261-268.

Alavi, M. (1994). Computer-mediated collaborative learning: An empirical evaluation. *MIS quarterly*, 159-174.

Angeles, L. L., Bongon, R. M. B., Esguerra, F. M. C., Rodriguez, M. L., & Kagaoan, M. A. C. G. (2015). Perception of students towards blogging as a method of writing. *Communication Research*, *2*(1).

Avraamidou, L., & Zembal-Saul, C. (2002). Making the case for the use of web-based portfolios in support of learning to teach. *The Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, *1*(2), 52.

Barrett, H. (2000). Electronic Teaching Portfolios: Multimedia Skills + Portfolio Development = Powerful Professional Development.

Barrett, H. C. (2006). Using electronic portfolios for formative/classroom-based assessment. *Classroom Connect Connected Newsletter*, *13*(2), 4-6.

Blackmore-Squires, S. (2010). An investigation into the use of blog as a tool to improve writing in the second language classroom. *Unpublished master's thesis, University of Manchester, UK*.

Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (Vol. 1, p. 994). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Butler, P. (2007). A review of the literature on portfolios and electronic portfolios.

Campbell, A. P. (2003). Weblogs for Use with ESL Classes. *The Internet TESL Journal, 9*(2), 33-35.

Chau, J., & Cheng, G. (2010). Towards understanding the potential of e-portfolios for independent learning: A qualitative study. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *26*(7).

Chuang, H. H. (2008). Perspectives and issues of the creation for weblog-based electronic portfolios in teacher education. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *39*(1), 170-174.

Cole, D. J. et al. (2000). *Portfolios across the curriculum and beyond*. Corwin Press.

DiBiase, D. (2002). Using e-portfolios at Penn State to enhance student learning. *E-Education Institute*, *23*.

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory,

research, and applications. *Language learning*, *53*(1), 3-32.

Embrey, T. R. (2002). You blog, we blog: A guide to how teacher-librarians can use weblogs to build communication and research skills. *Teacher librarian*, *30*(2), 7.

Fellner, T., & Apple, M. (2006). Developing writing fluency and lexical complexity with blogs. *The Jalt Call Journal*, *2*(1), 15-26.

Genc, Z., & Tinmaz, H. (2010). A reflection of preservice teachers on e-portfolio assessment. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *9*, 1504-1508.

Gerbic, P., Lewis, L., & Amin, N. M. (2011). Student perspectives of e-portfolios: Change over four semesters. *Changing demands, changing directions*, 423-436.

Goodfellow, R., Lamy, M. N., & Jones, G. (2002). Assessing learners' writing using lexical frequency. *ReCALL*, *14*(1), 133-145.

Huang, H. T. D., & Hung, S. T. A. (2010). Effects of electronic portfolios on EFL oral performance. *Asian EFL Journal*, *12*(2), 192-212.

Jacobsen, D. M. (2002, April). Building different bridges two: A case study of transformative professional development for student learning with technology. In *83rd annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA*.

Laufer, B., & Nation, P. (1995). Vocabulary size and use: Lexical richness in L2 written production. *Applied linguistics*, *16*(3), 307-322.

Levin, T. (1999). The non-linear curriculum. *S. Sharan, H. Shachar, & T. Levin, T.,(Eds.), The Innovative School, Organization and Instruction*, 115-146.

Levin, T., & Wadmany, R. (2006). Teachers' beliefs and practices in technology-based classrooms: A developmental view. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, *39*(2), 157-181.

Lewis, L., Gerbic, P., & Amin, N. M. Student Perspectives of ePortfolios: Change over four semesters.

McDowell, D. (2004). Blogging in the K12 Classroom. In B. Hoffman (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1358165032000165671

Nadzrah, A. B. (2007). Using Blogs To Develop Interests Among ESL Students: A New Paradigm In Language Education. In *5th Asia TEFL International Conference, Putra World Trade Centre (PWTC), Kuala Lumpur* (Vol. 50, No. 1, pp. 57-85).

Pelliccione, L., Dixon, K., & Giddings, G. (2005). A pre-service teacher education initiative to enhance reflection through the development of e-portfolios. In *Balance, fidelity, mobility: Maintaining the momentum in proceedings of the 22nd Annual Conference of the Australasian.*

Pinkman, K. (2005). Using blogs in the foreign language classroom: Encouraging learner independence. *The Jalt CALL Journal*, *1*(1), 12-24.

Shachtman, N. (2002, June 6). Blogging Goes Legit, Sort Of. Retrieved from https://www.wired.com/2002/06/blogging-goes-legit-sort-of/

Stefani, L., Mason, R., & Pegler, C. (2007). *The educational potential of e-portfolios: Supporting personal development and reflective learning*. Routledge.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (2004). *Psycology for language teachers*. Ernst Klett Sprachen..

Woodward*, H., & Nanlohy, P. (2004). Digital portfolios: fact or fashion?. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *29*(2), 227-238.

Valdez, P. N. (2010). Reflections on using the digital portfolio in academic writing in a Philippine university: Problems and possibilities. *Philippine ESL Journal*, *5*, 160-170.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. (Ed.) M. *Cole, V. John-Steiner, A. Scribner, and E. Souberman. Cambridge*.

APPENDIX A

Students' perception of blog-based ePortfolio with respect to L2 writing

Instructions: Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement with the following questions. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please answer each item.

* 필수항목

이메일 주소 *

이메일 주소

1. Did you have experience creating ePortfolios before taking this course?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

2. I think that creating ePortfolio helps me to practice L2 writing.

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

3. The ePortfolio helps me to communicate better with my classmate.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

4. The use of ePortfolios in this course had an impact on my level of motivation in writing.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

5. The use of ePortfolios increased my desire to learn English.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

6. ePortfolios (and the examples in them) provided by my classmates helped me to learn.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

7. I benefited from looking at my classmates' ePortfolios.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

8.Sharing my ePortfolio with other classmates helped me feel like I was part of a community.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

9. The use of ePortfolios helped me to evaluate my own progress.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

10. Keeping an e-portfolio encouraged me to become a more autonomous learner.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

11. I think my e-portfolio shows my strengths and weaknesses better than a test. score.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

12. I will continue the use of my ePortfolio after the course ends to help me develop in reading and writing.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

13. I would use an e-portfolio to guide my knowledge development in media literacy.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Strongly Agree

14. Among those literacy skills, which do you think you learned more during this course?

- ☐ Speaking
- ☐ Writing
- ☐ Reading
- ☐ Vocabulary and grammar

Instructions: Please write in your responses to each of the questions.

15. What benefit(s) or drawback(s) did you experience while creating an ePortfolio in this course?

내 답변

16. What benefit(s) or drawback(s) did you experience while reviewing and commenting to others' ePortfolio in this course?

내 답변

17. How was the experience of writing reflection in ePortfolio?

내 답변

18. How was the exprience of using blog as a platform of ePortfolio?

내 답변

19. Do you have any comments about ePortfolio? (Difficulties/ Anything needs to be improved...)

내 답변

제출

Google 설문지를 통해 비밀번호를 제출하지 마세요.

		9-10 points	8-8.9points	7-7.9points	0-6.9points	Points
ORGANIZATION	Introduction A preview of the essay body that includes a thesis/ claim and gives its context	An exceptional introduction that includes a thesis/claim, its context and a preview of the essay body	An effective introduction that includes a thesis/claim, its context and a preview of the essay body	A somewhat effective introduction that includes a thesis/claim, its context and a preview of the essay body	No introduction , or an introduction without a thesis/claim, context or preview of the essay body	
	Body paragraphs and Transitions Organization at the paragraph level; each paragraph has a clear topic sentence stating its main idea and supporting sentences. Connections from one paragraph to another and within paragraphs	Paragraphs with exceptional topic sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentence Exceptional transitions between and within paragraphs	Paragraphs with effective topic sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentences Effective transitions between and within paragraphs	Paragraphs with somewhat effective topic sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentences Somewhat Effective transitions between and within paragraphs	Paragraphs with ineffective or no topic sentences, supporting sentences and concluding sentences ineffective or no transitions between and within paragraphs	
	Conclusion A fresh restatement of thesis/claim and a thoughtful ending to the essay	An exceptional conclusion	An effective conclusion	An somewhat effective or off- topic conclusion	Ineffective or no conclusion	
CONTENT	Introduction	-Introduce the topic with an opinion clearly stated in the form of a thesis -Purposefully focused -Provides necessary background information	-Introduce the topic with an opinion stated in the form of a thesis - focused -Provides background information	-Introduce the topic with an opinion stated (thesis missing) -semi- focused -some background information	-opinion is not clearly stated -thesis missing -not focused -little or no background information	
	Body paragraphs and Transitions	-provides reasoning for the opinion that are supported by facts and details -uses evidence from the text to enhances the opinion/argument/claim	-provides reasoning for the opinion that are supported by facts and details -uses evidence from the text to support the opinion/argument/claim	-provides reasoning for the opinion but does support it by facts and details -uses evidence from the text to support the opinion/argument/claim in effectively	-limited reasoning for the opinion but does not support it by facts and details -lack of evidence from the text to support the opinion/argument/claim	
	Conclusion	-ends the essay with a strong concluding statement related to the opinion	-ends the essay with a concluding statement related to the opinion	-ends the essay with a concluding statement	-ends the essay	

An Action Research Study on Feedback on Vocabulary in a Speaking Class

Bernadette Manalastas & Jaerin Yang

Practicum

Abstract

This action research focuses on how to enhance the speaking skills of university students through feedback on vocabulary. The participants in this action research were 32 undergraduate students and four teachers or researchers in a speaking class in S University in Seoul, South Korea. Based on a needs analysis of learners and the reflections of teachers at the beginning of the course, vocabulary and feedback seemed to be problematic areas, thus they were chosen as the key issues to be resolved. To address these issues, an intervention was implemented which included teachers ensuring that they are knowledgeable of the lessons' vocabulary and providing students' preference for vocabulary feedback such as implicit feedback, paraphrasing, using word associations, etc. The intervention lasted for five weeks. The data collected throughout this period was from a pre-survey given to students, observation sheets recorded by teachers, reflections of teachers, and finally, a student post-survey. The overall results indicate that learners believed that the teachers' feedback on their vocabulary helped them improve their speaking skills. The results also suggest that learners' preference on which type of feedback they prefer may change throughout the intervention. A strong recommendation of this action research is that "awareness" of teachers and learners in providing and receiving feedback is the first step. Flexibility is also crucial in providing effective feedback to enhance learners' speaking skills.

1. INTRODUCTION

This action research (AR) was conducted with undergraduate students enrolled in a speaking course called English in Action in S University in Seoul, South Korea. This action research investigates effective ways of providing spoken form of feedback on vocabulary. The role of feedback has an importance in second language learning and language pedagogy (Ellis, 2009). According to the needs analysis conducted with learners, vocabulary is their problematic area. Thus, the focus of this action research is how to enhance learners' speaking skills through feedback on vocabulary. To solve these issues, an intervention was implemented which includes conducting pre- and post-surveys to learners, recording learners' tendencies of reaction to feedback, and documenting feedback types and strategies on observation sheets. Examples of feedback types provided by teachers are implicit and explicit

feedback. Examples of vocabulary feedback strategies are paraphrasing, using word associations, using word structure, etc. The results of this research show that effective feedback should start from awareness. Furthermore, flexibility in providing feedback should also be considered. Finally, providing and receiving vocabulary feedback is a two-way process to be considered from both the perspectives of teachers and learners.

2. CONTEXT

The English in Action Speaking course which is based on a TBLT setting is designed for undergraduate students and aims to build students' global English competence through interactional and transactional tasks. The syllabus and lessons are designed such that students perform real-world tasks according to ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines with speaking proficiency as the main emphasis. Another goal of this program is to help students attain a higher score on the OPIC, ACTFL OPI, and other official speaking tests.

The English in Action speaking class is conducted twice a week. Each session is an hour and 15 minutes long. English is the language used in all aspects of the course including in-class discussions, assignments, presentations, and exams. There are no textbooks in the class, however, reading materials are provided every week. The themes and functions of the syllabus are founded on a needs analysis conducted at the beginning of the semester. The midterms and finals are given through a special type of C-Cloze Tests (C-Test), Discourse Completion Tests (DC Test), and special tests that cover their reading homework.

There are 32 undergraduate students in this course. They consist of 25 Koreans and seven Chinese and Taiwanese students. The speaking proficiency of the students ranges from intermediate-low to advanced high according to the results of their C- Test and DC Test based on ACTFL speaking proficiency guidelines. The average score of their C-Test as a class is 64% which is equivalent to Intermediate High. For the DC Test, the average score of the class is 81% which is equivalent to Advanced-Mid. Therefore, the students' average level of proficiency is from Intermediate High to Advanced-Mid based on the ACTFL speaking proficiency guidelines.

According to the needs analysis and survey answered by the students, half of them have spent more than 10 years studying English, with seven of them having studied English abroad. They typically use English for studying and socializing. Their standardized exam score such as TOEIC ranges from 570 to 990. They are most confident with their reading and listening skills. On the other hand, the needs analysis revealed that they are least confident with their vocabulary and speaking skills. More than half of them perceive English as their "friend" rather than an "enemy." 21 of the students consider interaction with foreigners as the best way to learn English. Furthermore, their motivation is to use English for better job opportunities and make friends with foreigners. What demotivates them to speak

English, however, is when they lack the proper vocabulary and expressions to express themselves and being embarrassed when speaking English which affects their confidence.

The class is led by one professor and several "big sisters." The term "big sisters" in this action research refers to TESOL MA Program students. Their main job is taking turns running the class and facilitating a group of undergraduate students which will be referred to as "little sisters." They are also responsible for providing feedback and encouragement to the little sisters. This AR is conducted by 2 big sisters and the results from this AR reflects their analysis and solutions of an issue they perceived needed to be addressed to meet the goal of improving teaching practices and students' speaking skills.

3. RESEARCH QUESTION AND RATIONALE

The research question (RQ) of this paper was prompted by two issues: vocabulary and feedback. The vocabulary issue is founded on students' vocabulary concerns based on the needs analysis. The feedback issue originated from big sisters' ability to provide feedback based on their reflections. The RQ of this action research is, "How can we enhance students' vocabulary through giving feedback in a speaking class?"

Vocabulary seemed to be one of the biggest issues based on the results of the students' needs analysis. According to the survey, vocabulary was recorded as the least confident part of students' English skills. Below is a needs analysis question and results:

Q: What parts of English skills do you have the most confidence in? Rank the following order (1 = most confident, 8 = least confident)

Skill	Rank
Reading	1
Listening	2
Pronunciation	3
Writing	4
Grammar	5
Speaking	6
Test preparation	7
***Vocabulary**	***8***

From the results of the data above, it is evident that their knowledge of vocabulary is their least confident skill as it is ranked 8th or last out of the 8 skills. More evidence from the needs analysis that vocabulary needs to be addressed is shown below:

Q: What types of English learning tasks would you like to do in class? Rank the following in order (1 = most preferred, 10 = least preferred)

Tasks	Rank
Storytelling	1
Games	2
Describing	3
Watching videos	4
***Vocabulary**	***5***
Role play	6
Pronunciation practice	7
Focused listening	8
Debating	9
Impromptu	10
Group presentation	11
Individual presentation	12

From the table above, we could infer that vocabulary tasks are ranked 5th among the 12 tasks the students would like to do in class. Finally, in one of the survey questions about what demotivates learners to speak English, the most common response was "when they cannot come up with proper words."

Q: When do you get demotivated to speak English?

Answers	Number of students who responded out of 31
(a) When I can't find the right or say the proper words	13
(b) When I get embarrassed or forced to speak in English	10
(c) When I can't understand what others are saying	1
(d) When being compared with others' English	1

From the results in this question, more than half of the respondents stated that difficulty in finding the right words demotivates them to speak English. Students should then be helped in widening their vocabulary to motivate them and make them more confident when speaking English. To summarize the results of the needs analysis, we concluded that vocabulary is one of the top issues that needs to be addressed for the learners to improve their speaking skills because it is the least confident skill, it is task preferred, and it is the top reason for demotivation.

Aside from the needs analysis, vocabulary was observed to be an issue based on the reflections of the big sisters.

> "I need to have courage. In fact, I read the survey they filled out, and found out many of them also feel stressful about English when they can't come up with 'the right word' in context or someone tries to judge their English. We all need to break the fear of English."
>
> – Reflection from JH week 2

From the big sisters' reflection on vocabulary, it is another reason why vocabulary needs to be tackled in class, not only for the little sisters' improvement but for the big sisters' improvement, as well.

The second issue that is focused on in this action research is feedback. The need to improve feedback in learners is essential for TBLT (task-based language teaching) classes. According to Brown (2007), TBLT is learner centered, cooperative, and collaborative learning is emphasized. Also, Brown described "working together in pairs and groups" to share information or seek assistance as a "team". Feedback that a learner receives from others is one of the biggest keys to successful second language learning (Brown, 2007). Considering the cooperative characteristics of TBLT, feedback from facilitators can be expected to play an important role in encouraging learners take risks in speaking. Through giving feedback and interacting with each other in TBLT, learners can be supported and they will be willing to speak more to accomplish the task. However, it is not easy to know how and when to give feedback and we experienced some difficulties when dealing with feedback. Some of the reflections on feedback from big sisters are below:

> "One of the big issues is still how to react students' utterances. On the first activity, which was matching jobs to people by describing their appearances, we needed to share our opinions as well as descriptions of each person. I tried to arrange students' opinions when they took their turn by repeating their utterance and suggesting alternative words when a little sister seemed to have difficulty finding an appropriate word like, 'Oh, you mean she looked decisive so you think she's a fire fighter.' However, when feedback is too frequent, I feel that I get into group's talking too much and a little bit dominate the group."
>
> – Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 4

> "I think it is better to design lesson plans with activities that elicit vocabulary depth. Also, we should scaffold this by giving proper feedback."
>
> Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 4

According to the reflections above, we also need to focus on giving feedback on vocabulary at the right time and the right way through observation of students' reactions during the task.

Thus, for our action research, we decided that we needed to explore effective feedback on vocabulary to better support the little sisters. Therefore, our research question asks how to enhance students' vocabulary through feedback in this English in Action speaking class.

4. LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1 Importance of feedback

The role of feedback has an importance in second language learning and language pedagogy (Ellis, 2009). In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of second language learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language development. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy (Ellis, 2009).

For feedback to be useful, teachers must also exercise skill in observing and interpreting the student talk that is elicited to provide appropriate scaffolding and descriptive feedback (Katz, 2012). Teachers and learners interact during instructional time to co-construct knowledge and understanding as the teacher scaffolds student learning through questions and feedback on students' responses (Katz, 2012). An example is through prompts or paraphrasing or follow-up questions; these will assist learners in developing their language ability (Katz, 2012).

For these reasons, we are going to investigate which types of feedback and vocabulary feedback strategies can be effectively used to enhance students' learning.

4.2 Feedback Types – Descriptive, Implicit, and Explicit

This AR focuses on 3 types of feedback: descriptive, implicit, and explicit. First, descriptive feedback considers the students' developmental, language proficiency, and experiential levels (Gootlieb, 2012). Descriptive feedback begins with a description of what the student did well with positive feedback. After that, the teacher suggests follow-up strategies for the student to try which basically means expanding the vocabulary repertoire. The second type of feedback is implicit feedback which is a type of corrective feedback. In implicit feedback, there is no overt indicator that an error has been committed (Ellis, 2009). The corrector can incorporate the content words of the immediately preceding incorrect utterance and changes and corrects the utterance in some way. Another way of providing implicit feedback is repeating the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress (Ellis, 2009). Finally, explicit feedback is a feedback that directly provides the answer. It could be by metalinguistic feedback which means "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance." (Ellis, 2009).

4.3 Amount and Clarity of Feedback

Feedback can vary in amount and clarity (Brookhart, 2008). The amount of feedback can affect the quality of the feedback (Brookhart, 2008). Focusing on the most important part related to major learning goals is important. Too much feedback may be impractical and discouraging. For clarity of feedback, this means the feedback has clear explanations and concepts with a helpful goal to the student (Brookhart, 2008).

4.4 Feedback Strategies on Vocabulary

There are seven feedback vocabulary strategies focused on this AR. They are paraphrasing, using context, using word structure (prefixes, roots, suffixes), using word associations, using reading materials and smart phones, supplying the correct word, and finally, seeking assistance from a professor, a big sister, or other students. Paraphrasing helps learners to define a word or expression and clarify it in a much broader, more general core idea (Ellis & Farmer, 1996-2000). Contextual clues are helpful to remind learners of the context of a meaningful subject-matter lesson (Ellis & Farmer, 1996-2000). Vocabulary can be explained by explaining word parts such as root words, base words, prefixes, and suffixes (Jones, 1999). Word associations and clusters of words help students understand words that are interrelated and frequently occur together (Ellis & Farmer, 1996-2000). References such as smart phones and reading materials can come in handy in giving vocabulary feedback. Supplying a word is necessary when learners do not know the exact vocabulary. Finally, seeking assistance from other students, big sisters, and professor can be helpful for interaction and providing better vocabulary feedback.

4.5 Student Reaction to Feedback

Student reaction reveals a student's utterance and response that immediately follows a teacher's feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). It could be through repetition, incorporation, or other reactions. First, repetition refers to a student's repetition of the teacher's feedback when the latter includes the correct form. Second, incorporation refers to a student using the feedback provided without assistance. Lastly, students may also show other reactions, as well, such as nodding or acknowledging.

As a summary, for five weeks of the English in Action speaking class, big sisters investigated which types of feedback enhanced learners' vocabulary learning. We first identified students' preferences. Then, we applied which feedback type is preferred such as descriptive, implicit, or explicit feedback. We were also careful to provide the right amount of feedback. Further, we tried to provide the most appropriate vocabulary feedback strategy. Finally, we observed student reactions.

5. INTERVENTION

The research question of this paper is, "How can we enhance students' vocabulary through giving feedback in a speaking class?" Based on the literature, the intervention would be as follows:

1. *Facilitators or big sisters need to study the reading homework.*

   In order for the facilitators be able to provide quality feedback, they need to ensure that they read the reading homework. They will be more confident if they are knowledgeable of the lesson content.

2. *Apply the appropriate feedback students prefer.*

   Facilitators should apply the appropriate vocabulary feedback type (descriptive, implicit, and explicit) and vocabulary feedback strategies (paraphrasing, using context, using word structure, word associations, using reading materials and smart phones, supplying the correct word, and finally, seeking assistance from professor, other big sister, or students). The feedback should also be the right amount, simple, and clear. Finally, the facilitator will record the student reaction if they repeat the word, incorporate it in their own utterance, or if they have no opportunities to use it.

6. DATA COLLECTION

1. *First, a pre-survey should be conducted with the learners (Appendix A).*

   The pre-survey contains the students' preference of feedback type, vocabulary feedback strategy, and their typical reaction to feedback.

2. *Observation sheets should be filled out by facilitators every meeting (Appendix B).*

   The facilitators will fill out observation sheets to record the instances they provided for two little sisters every meeting twice a week. An observation sheet consists of what type of feedback is given and the vocabulary feedback strategy the facilitator used. The facilitator will also write down students' reactions on the observation sheet.

3. *Reflection should be written by facilitators after every class on a reflection website for future reference.*

   The facilitators should reflect on their ability to provide feedback. For example, they could reflect on the quality of feedback they provide and the vocabulary the little sisters do not know.

4. *A post survey should be conducted with the learners (Appendix C).*

   Through a post survey after the intervention period, we will figure out how helpful our vocabulary feedback was and which types of feedback were most helpful to students by analyzing the correlation between the rate of feedback strategies and students' satisfaction with feedback.

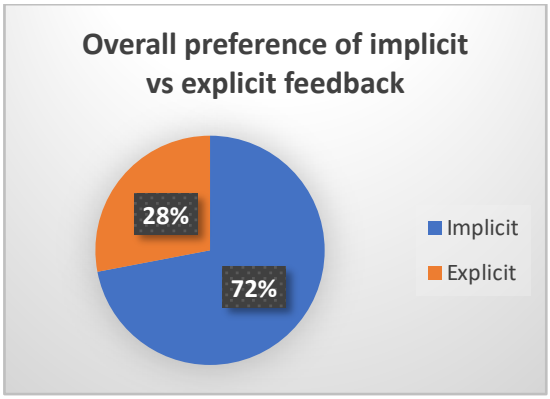
7. DATA ANALYSIS

This section contains the results of the pre-survey, analysis of observation sheets, reflections, and results of the post survey.

7.1 Pre-survey results

On the first day of the intervention period, we surveyed students' preference for vocabulary feedback type, strategies, and their usual reaction to the feedback. Each questionnaire had questions in a 5-point Likert scale format (1-strongly disagree, 5-Strongly agree). The result of the score represents overall preference from all students toward the feedback types and strategies which they would like to receive from big sisters.

Figure 1. Result of overall preference of types of feedback



Through Figure 1, we determine students' overall preference for implicit feedback versus explicit feedback. The majority of the students responded that they prefer to receive implicit feedback rather than explicit feedback. Based on this result, we decided that big sisters should focus on using various feedback strategies such as giving examples, paraphrasing, and contextual cues, etc. There were also two extra comments from the little sisters:

"It would be helpful if you give us feedback related to situation in real life."

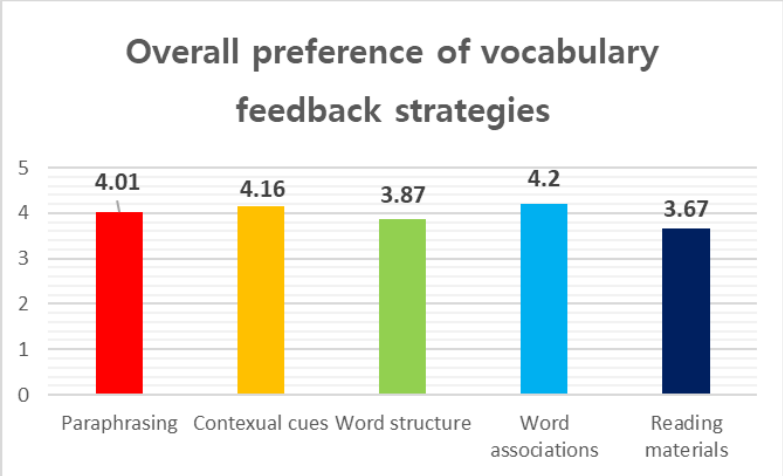
– Student YL from Group L

"Giving feedback directly is good as well."

– Student JR from Group L

To sum up, as shown in the figure 1, big sisters should also consider the way to give feedback explicitly and not only focus on implicit feedback.

Figure 2. Result of the overall preference of vocabulary strategies



Along with the result in Figure 1, Figure 2 shows students' overall preference for each feedback strategy. Through the result of well-balanced preference of strategies, we can conclude that big sisters need to try to use all strategies and not only focus on one or two strategies.

The highest scoring strategy is using word association. This means that students want to receive feedback based on its relationship with other words. For example, if students learn the word "braise" with "beef", they receive vocabulary feedback through word association. Therefore, facilitators should help little sisters to learn vocabulary based on how it can be used in sentences or which words can be used together.

Along with word association, students also showed a preference for receiving feedback on the contextual use of vocabulary. This means big sisters must also consider the formal or informal use of a word. Otherwise, while the other three strategies show high preference, using reading materials and word structure show lower preference.

Figure 3. Result of overall reaction to feedback

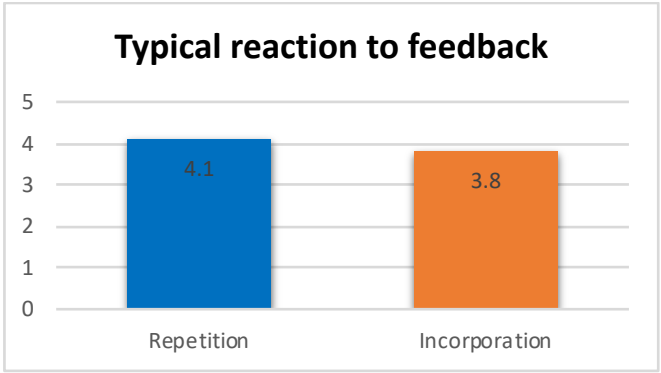


Figure 3 above represents students' perception of their usual reaction to the feedback. According to the students' answers, they typically repeat a word and sometimes use the vocabulary on their own (incorporation). Along with repetition and incorporation, we also asked the students to write down if they have any reaction. There were only two extra comments from the little sisters:

> "I keep thinking about the vocabulary inside how to use it differently or how to use this word later on."
>
> – Student L from group L
>
> "I also try to find synonym of the word, which I got feedback"
>
> – Student H from group I

Based on the students' various answers to their own reaction styles, we realized that even if students do not show an instant reaction to the feedback, it does not mean that they do not prefer the feedback or do not understand the feedback.

After the intervention, we will conduct a post survey to investigate students' satisfaction on the overall vocabulary feedback from big sisters and we expect that we can figure out the most effective ways to give feedback.

7.2 Feedback Type

The following data was gathered from the observation sheets filled out twice a week by big sisters for Weeks 6, 7, 9, 10, and 11 of the English in Action speaking class. The graph in this section shows the trend of the feedback type - explicit, implicit, and descriptive. These were the types of feedback used by big sisters.

Descriptive feedback refers to providing better or more expressions to the learner even without an error to expand learners' vocabulary repertoire (Gootlieb, 2012). An example given by a big sister based on the observation sheet is:

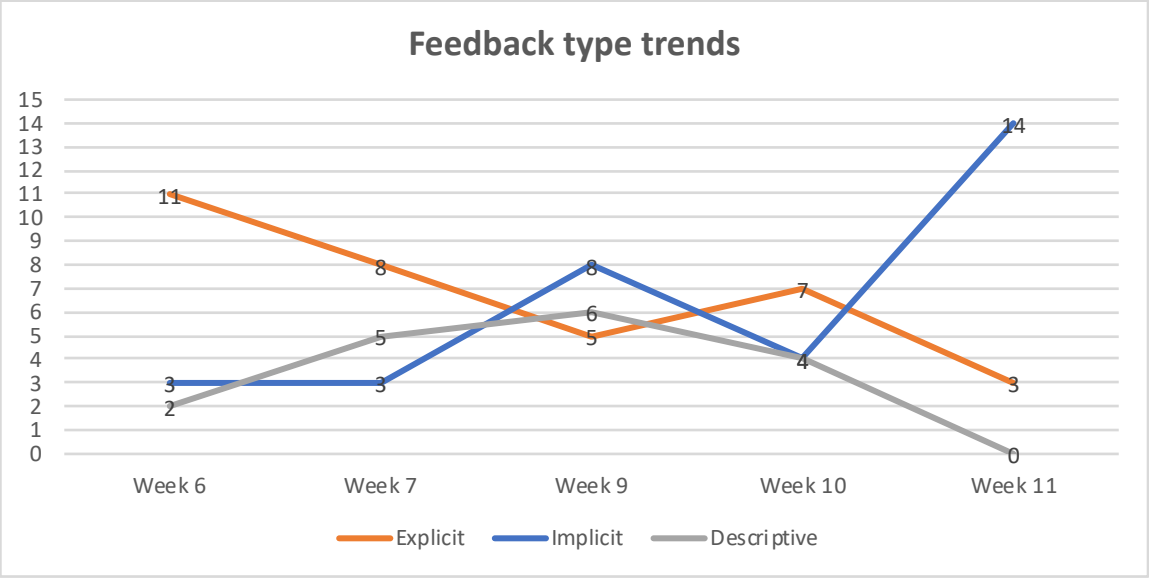
> Little sister Sienna: "The line of the graph *went up*."
> Big sister BM: "How about use the term *soared* instead of *went up*?"

For the implicit feedback, it means big sisters provided a hint, examples, pictures, or clues first to correct an error. An example of implicit feedback is below:

> "I prepared four vocabulary words related to dark colors (somber, subdued, dull, muted). I showed a picture of some colors up on the slide and explained how they can match the four words to the colors and if a word is negative or positive with an example."
>
> – Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 11

Finally, explicit feedback means the big sister corrected the error directly with a correct answer. An example is when one little sister asked what another term for a bird's mouth was, the big sister supplied the correct word directly with "beak."

Figure 4: Feedback type trends for 5 weeks



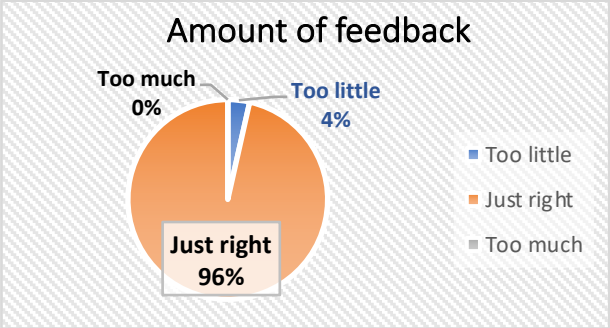
Looking at Figure 4, in the first two weeks of the intervention, big sisters used more explicit feedback compared to implicit and descriptive feedback. This trend was noticed during the mid-intervention. This trend contradicted the pre-survey results where little sisters showed a preference for implicit feedback over explicit. Descriptive feedback was not in the pre-survey so it cannot be compared.

A mid-intervention analysis of data was done after two weeks of the intervention to confirm if big sisters were following students' preference for feedback based on the pre-survey. The mid-intervention analysis presented several discrepancies compared with pre-survey and actual implementation of feedback. First, the trend of too much explicit feedback being given by big sisters as opposed to the preferred implicit feedback was shown. This prompted a recommendation for big sisters to concentrate on providing implicit feedback. As a result of this mid-intervention measure, as shown on Figure 4, it could be observed that on Week 11, the numbers of implicit feedback soared while the numbers of explicit feedback dipped. For the descriptive feedback data, it increased first with a peak on Week 6 and then it steadily decreased. It could be concluded that the big sisters made efforts to use more implicit feedback after the mid-intervention measure.

7.3 Amount of Feedback

The data below from the observation sheets for five weeks show the amount of feedback provided by the big sisters if it's too little, just the right amount of feedback, or too much feedback. The goal is to provide "just right" feedback. Too little feedback could be insufficient and the learner may still misunderstand vocabulary. On the other hand, too much feedback may be impractical and discouraging (Brookhart, 2008). The data below are from the big sisters' perspectives.

Figure 5. Amount of feedback for 5 weeks



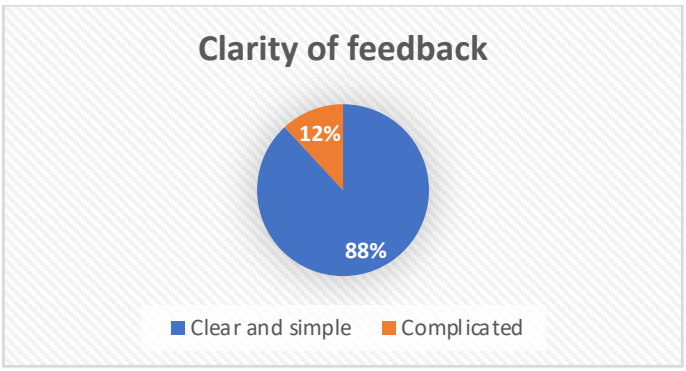
As shown in Figure 5, the pie chart clearly shows that 95% of the time, the big sisters believed that they were able to provide feedback with the right amount of words which is ideal. A reflection from a big sister regarding the amount of feedback to give is:

> "I made sure when I provided feedback, I did not give too much as to not confuse the little sister. Just enough is good."
>
> – Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 14

7.4 Clarity

Clarity is necessary to ensure students were given clear and simple feedback and not complicated feedback. Based on the observation sheets filled out by the big sisters, the data show the trend of how clear the given feedback was from big sisters' perspectives.

Figure 6. Feedback clarity for Week 6 to 7



The pie graph above indicates that the big sisters believed that they mostly provided clear and simple feedback about 88% of the time for five weeks. The amount of clear and simple feedback is substantially greater than complicated feedback. This is ideal to provide quality feedback.

In the beginning of the intervention, however, a big sister was not sure if clear feedback was used.

> "This week, I gave them feedback by providing better vocabulary (activity -> event) or words they didn't know in English. This made me wonder if they have recognized I am

> giving them feedback or not. So from next week, I hope I can provide them better quality feedback."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister WJ Week 5

In subsequent weeks, nevertheless, big sisters believed that they provided clearer feedback.

> "Every time I give vocabulary feedback, I tried to give vocabulary feedback more clearly using an online dictionary or asking professors' or other big sisters' opinions."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JH Week 5

7.5 Vocabulary Feedback Strategies

There are seven vocabulary strategies used to enhance students' vocabulary. In the pre-survey, the learners were only asked about five strategies. They were paraphrasing, using context, using word structure (prefixes, roots, suffixes), word associations, using reading materials and smart phones. However, on the first day of the intervention, big sisters realized that two more vocabulary feedback strategies should be added. They are supplying the correct word and seeking assistance from the professor, other big sisters, or peers.

Two bar graphs below based on big sisters' observation sheets demonstrate how the big sisters provided vocabulary feedback all throughout the five-week intervention.

Figure 7. Vocabulary feedback trends for five weeks for paraphrasing, using context, and using word associations

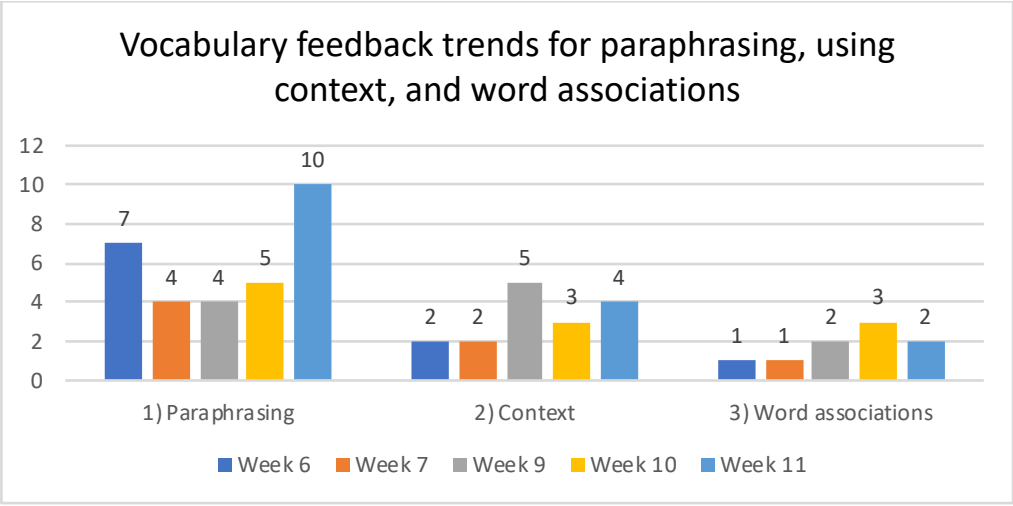
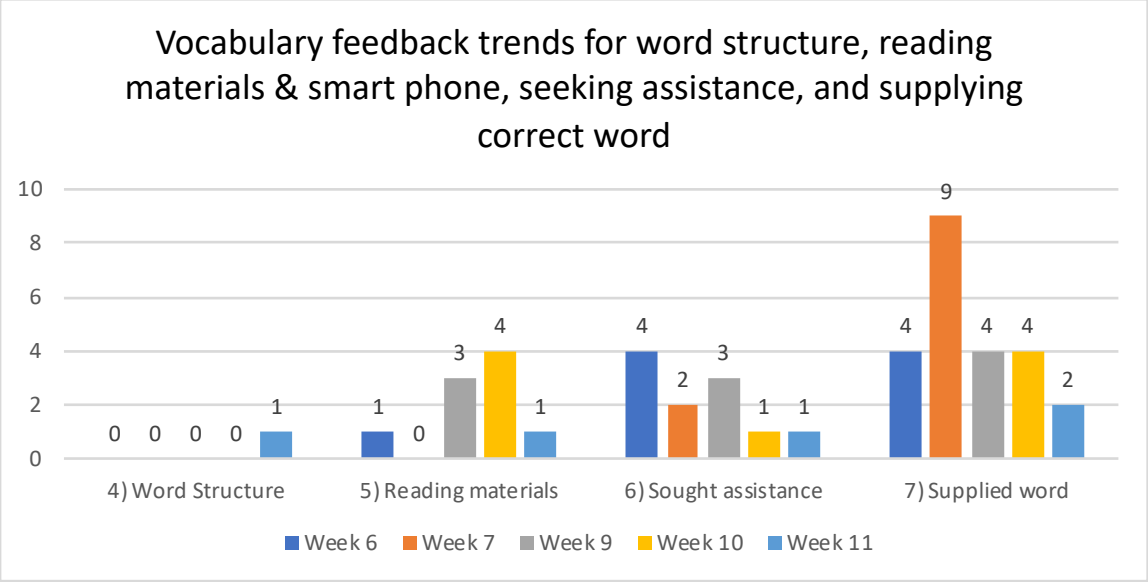


Figure 8. Vocabulary feedback trends for five weeks for word structure, reading materials & smart phones, seeking assistance, and supplying the correct word



The bar graphs above show that overall the most preferred methods for providing feedback are paraphrasing, supplying the correct word, and using context. The least used methods are using word structure and word associations. This contradicts the pre-survey preference of learners to use all feedback strategies equally. Despite the mid-intervention measure recommending providing feedback equally, it seemed to be difficult for the big sisters to balance using all the vocabulary feedback strategies.

Paraphrasing seems the most efficient way of providing feedback. There were many instances from the reflection and observation sheets where paraphrasing was used:

> "Also, they did not know 'obscene remarks' so I said they are verbal comments that are inappropriate and make you feel uncomfortable and hurt. Also, they asked about 'sexual advances' and I said it means when someone touches in an uncomfortable way without your consent."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 14

> "While fluctuate is used to describe a huge difference or huge gap, flutter usually goes with a small gap."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 10

Little sister Rosa: *What does insipid mean?*
Big sister BM: *It means it does not excite or it lacks color.*

Word association was also tried more in the mid-intervention. From a big sister's reflection:

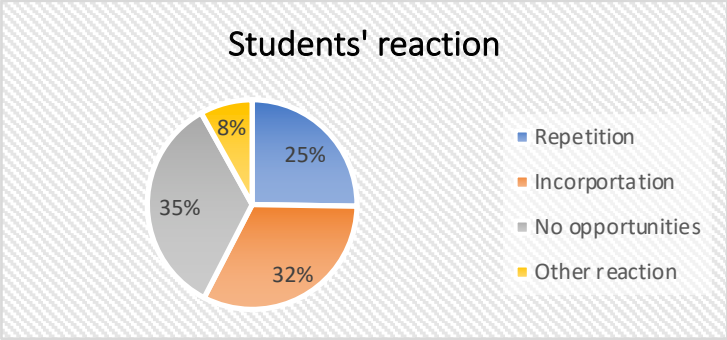
> "I try to balance it now, instead of just paraphrasing and seeking assistance, I tried to use the word association strategy this week."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 12

On the contrary, word structure was used only once during the entire intervention despite a mid-intervention measure reminding big sisters to use this method. Looking at the vocabulary recorded by the big sister on the observation sheet, most of these expressions were already in their root word form. Examples *are fuel, physical health problems, give up, surge, marginally, privacy, tax, discordant, gaudy, car (for a subway separated into cars), nepotism, fetus, accessibility, etc*. Furthermore, most of these expressions were supplied directly or the context of the lesson constrained the big sisters to provide feedback strategies other than word structure.

We could conclude that the feedback strategies given are dependent on the nature of vocabulary itself and the context of the lessons. Furthermore, paraphrasing seemed to be the most efficient way of providing feedback followed by supplying the correct word directly.

7.6 Students' reaction

Figure 9. Results of students' reaction from big sisters' observation sheets.



As shown in Figure 9, after the intervention period, we could see the students' reactions to each vocabulary feedback from the observation sheets. Furthermore, if students showed some other reaction, those were recorded together. Additionally, if big sisters could observe any other reaction, it was also recorded in detail. Two examples given by a big sister based on the observation sheet are:

> Little sister A: *Disease which cannot eat…?*
> Big sister JR: *The girl in the video is suffering from* ***anorexia****, which causes a person to refuse to eat.*
> Little sister A: *Ah, right, anorexia,*
> All the students: *(nodding their heads)*
>
> - Week 7 Observation

Little sister B: *She looks very busy.*

Big sister JR: *You also could use the word **'hectic'**.*

Little sister B: *How do I spell?*

- Week 7 Observation

Figure 9 indicates that most of the students were also able to reuse the vocabulary during the class. From a big sister's reflection:

"For example, Hyunjin did not know "apocalyptic". During the script discussion, since our genre was sci-fi, that word was used and she repeated the word and understood the context."

- Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 7

"I asked the professor and he paraphrased the meaning of word with "shy". After the class finished, Joohee came over to me and told me that her little sisters kept saying "I'm meek." whenever they don't know what to say during the activity."

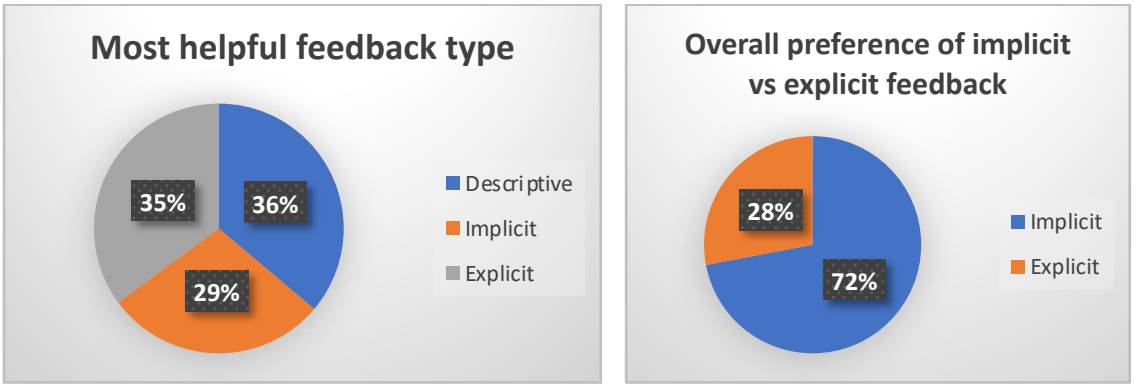
- Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 7

Differently from the pre-survey, we added a "No opportunities" category in order for us to record when students or the facilitator do not have any chance to use vocabulary or observe it. The observation sheets show that 35% of the time there were no opportunities for learners to use the vocabulary when they were given feedback. We found that big sisters need to prompt little sisters to repeatedly use vocabulary related to the class and also share some ideas about vocabulary learning strategies.

7.7 The results of the post survey

After the intervention period, we conducted the post survey to investigate students' perceptions towards vocabulary feedback from big sisters. Similar to the pre-survey, in the post survey, there were four sections included asking students' preferences for feedback types, strategies, reactions, and any word which they could remember from the feedback. After collecting data from the post survey, we compared it to the pre-survey's data to examine any changes.

Figure 10. The most helpful feedback

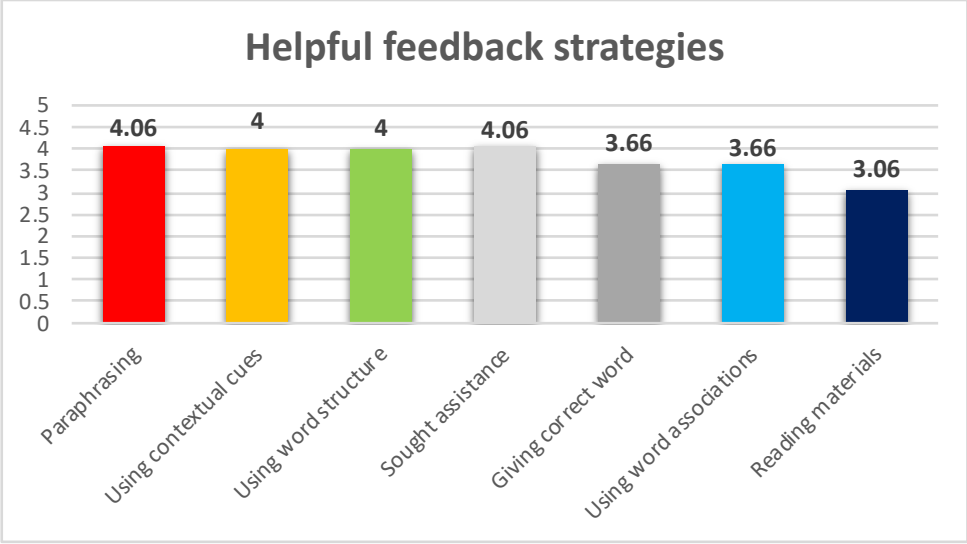


10.1 Result of post- survey *10.2 Result of pre-survey*

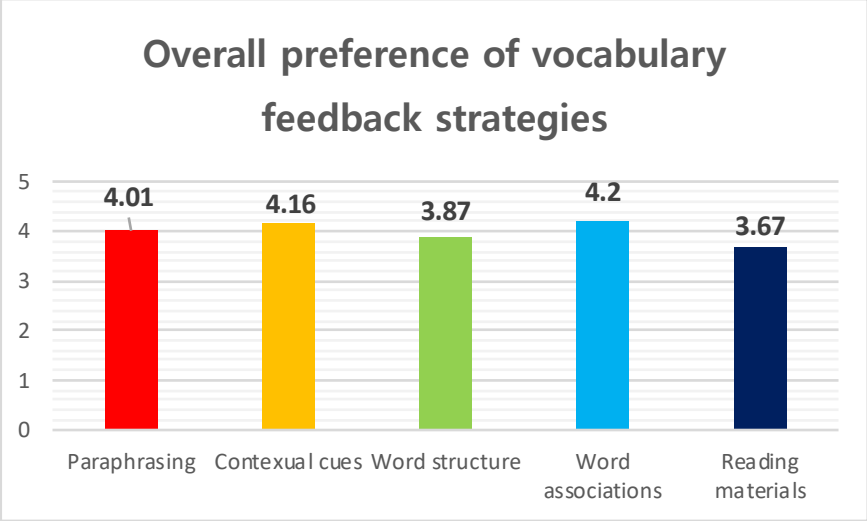
Figure 10.1 shows the little sisters' preferences toward vocabulary feedback received from big sisters. In this part of the survey, we asked students to rank the three types of feedback from 1 (most helpful) to 3 (least helpful) according to their preferences. As seen in Figure 4, descriptive feedback was added during the intervention period so it was included in the post survey.

As we can see in Figure 10.1, students responded that descriptive feedback (suggesting another word) and explicit feedback (giving the answer directly) were the most helpful for them in vocabulary learning. This is different from the pre-survey result, which mostly focused on a preference for implicit feedback. The reason why little sisters showed more balanced preferences on three feedback types could be because big sisters considered and effectively provided all the feedback types.

Figure 11. Helpful feedback strategies



11.1 Result from post survey



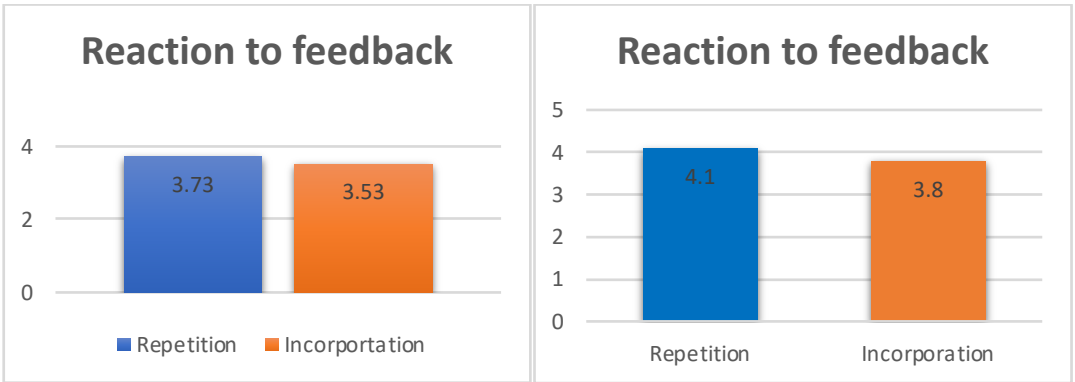
11.2 Result from pre-survey

As we can see in Figure 11.1, since two feedback strategies were added during the intervention period, we included them into the post survey. They were "Sought assistance from professors or sisters" and "Supplying the correct word".

Moreover, we discovered a slight change in students' preferences on the helpful feedback strategies from the pre-survey. In the pre-survey, it seemed that using word association (4.2) was perceived as one of the most helpful strategies. After the intervention period, its score was recorded modestly below 4, therefore, it slightly decreased. Otherwise, students showed more positive answers for using word structure than on the pre-survey. Using reading materials stayed consistent from the pre-survey (Figure 11.2).

Figure 11.1 shows the overall positive perceptions of various vocabulary strategies which little sisters were given by their big sisters. From Figure 11.1 we posited that big sisters tried to give various forms of feedback and accordingly little sisters showed a balanced preference on overall strategies. Consequently, we recognized the importance of using various feedback strategies.

Figure 12. Reaction to the feedback.



12.1 Result of post-survey

12.2 Result of pre-survey

On the post survey, students were asked about how they usually reacted to their big sisters' reaction. As shown in Figure 12.1, we can see that the little sisters mostly repeatedly use the word or use them in their own way. Not many noticeable changes were shown between figure 12.1 and 12.2. However, we also tried to record the little sisters' reactions from our perspectives on our reflection and observation sheets. From a big sister's reflection:

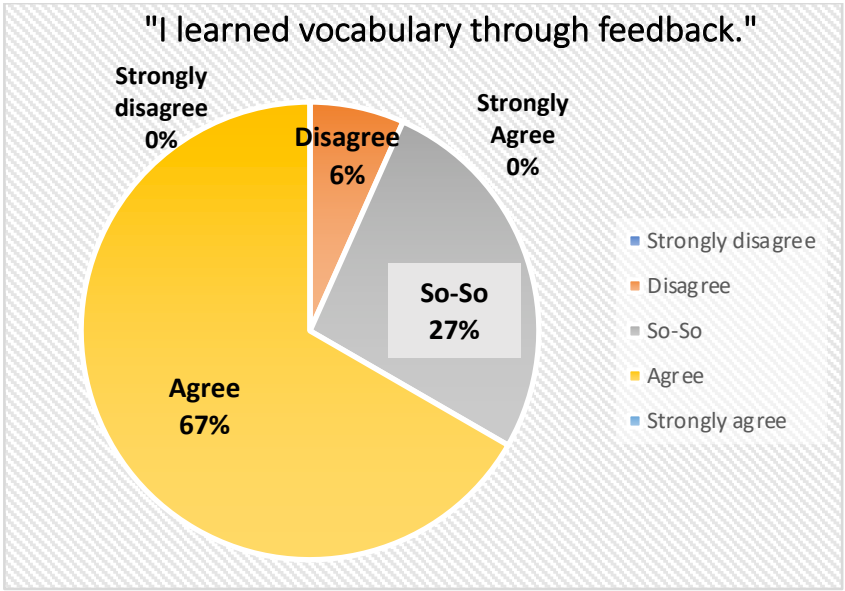
> "And after a brief explanation of the difference between the words, I asked students if they could get the differences, and they nodded their heads or answered me "yes"."
>
> - Reflection from Big sister JR week 11

Although students were fairly receptive to feedback , there is room for increasing students' reactions to the feedback. And this is evidenced from a big sister who mentioned that they felt difficulties providing feedback.

> "I should consider the ways that can prompt students to try to use new vocabulary and phrases provided in the reading material."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JH Week 7

To sum up, we should consider students' individual reaction habits and we also need to prompt students to reuse target vocabulary words as much as possible during the class.

Figure 13. Vocabulary that little sisters can remember from the feedback



In the third part of the survey, we asked students how much vocabulary they think they learned or remembered due to big sisters' feedback. Figure 12 shows that 63 % of the students agreed that they received help in learning vocabulary, however, a few of them disagreed. Some of the reasons that they

disagreed include a lack of opportunities for big sisters to give vocabulary feedback during the activity. From a big sister's reflection:

> "Actually, I think giving feedback in vocabulary helps me focus on student's work and conversation. However, I wonder if I am giving them feedback properly and if they know that I am giving them feedback."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister WJ Week 9

Furthermore, even though students received feedback during the class, if vocabulary was low-frequency in use or an unfamiliar word which is limited to a specific topic, it was more difficult to give effective vocabulary feedback. From a big sister's reflection:

> "I realized background knowledge as well as the vocab knowledge is important. When some students asked me what graffiti was and high art, I knew the meaning of those words, but I didn't have clear background knowledge about them."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JH Week 11

Finally, while it is not revealed in the graph above, we also asked students to write down vocabulary they received feedback on if they could remember it. The remembered vocabulary that little sisters wrote down included: sprinkle, air pollution, sharply, thriller, horror, brail, flambé, human-interest story, marinate, conglomerate, surge, raise, go down (in the graph and leisure class), apocalypse, apocalyptic, strain etc. Based on students' comments, we hypothesized that students still retain the knowledge of the vocabulary from the feedback and that vocabulary feedback was helpful for students.

8. DISCUSSION

The research question of this action research (AR) is, "How can we enhance students' vocabulary through giving feedback in a speaking class?" First, we are going to discuss the positive and negative outcomes of this AR for little sisters and big sisters through the data collected and reflection. Then, we are going to analyze the outcomes to posit the best methods to enhance students' vocabulary through feedback.

8.1 Positive outcomes of providing vocabulary feedback to learners

The positive outcomes of the feedback can be seen from the observation sheets and post-survey data, specifically the students' reactions. From the observation of big sisters, the little sisters have incorporated the vocabulary feedback 32% of the time for five weeks, repeated the word 25% of the

time, and had other reactions 8% of the time such as showing acknowledgment by saying "yes" or nodding their heads. This means that more than half of the time, students used or repeated the vocabulary.

From the post-survey, the data show that with the strategies used in vocabulary feedback, overall, the score is 3.86 out of 5. The score of 3.86 falls between "helpful" and "quite helpful". This suggests that for the little sisters, this active approach of providing feedback is beneficial for their vocabulary improvement.

Furthermore, when little sisters were asked in the post-survey if they remember the vocabulary that they were given feedback on, 63% answered "yes" which denotes that more than half of the students remembered. Some of the cited vocabulary words remembered are *sprinkle, air pollution, sharply, thriller, horror, brail, flambé, human-interest story, marinate, conglomerate, surge, raise, go down (in graph and leisure class), apocalypse, apocalyptic, strain, etc.*

Finally, a positive outcome of the AR seen on the post-survey is that when little sisters were asked how they reacted to feedback, the average score was 3.63 out of 5. The average score of 3.63 indicates that students normally repeated or incorporated the feedback from their own perspective.

As a summary of the positive outcomes, the observation sheets and the post-survey show that students consistently reacted by repeating and incorporating the vocabulary feedback more than half of the time. Moreover, from the learners' perspective, the feedback given was overall helpful.

From the literature, the role of feedback has an importance in second language learning and language pedagogy (Ellis, 2009). Feedback is seen as contributing to language development. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy (Ellis, 2009). It could therefore be stated that the results of this AR correspond to the literature that emphasizes how feedback positively affects learners.

8.2 Positive impacts of giving vocabulary feedback to big sisters

There are four positive impacts this AR has for the big sisters. They are awareness of providing feedback itself, awareness of the type of feedback given, preparing more by reading in advance, and preparing extra materials to provide feedback.

First, a positive impact is awareness of providing feedback itself particularly in the beginning stage of the intervention.

> "For the AR in terms of giving feedback, I am becoming more aware of it now when we talk about vocabulary."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 9
>
> "I think giving feedback in vocabulary helps me focus on student's work and conversation."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister WJ Week 9

A second positive impact is awareness of which feedback type is given by the big sisters. This helped them balance which type of feedback to provide based on the pre-survey.

> "I am more aware of the instances when I give feedback and the type of strategy I use. I try to balance it now, instead of just paraphrasing and seeking assistance, I tried to use the word associations strategy this week."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister BM Week 12

Thirdly, big sisters had begun to prepare better before the lessons to provide quality feedback by paying more attention to vocabulary in the reading homework.

> "I seem to be more confident with giving feedback about the reading homework vocabulary as I dedicated some time to reading it."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 11

Finally, big sisters started to prepare extra vocabulary materials to provide better feedback to little sisters.

> "I prepared 4 vocabulary words related to dark colors (somber, subdued, dull, muted). I showed a picture of some colors up on the slide and explained how they can match the four words to the colors and if a word is negative or positive with an example."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 11

8.3 Negative reaction of providing vocabulary feedback to learners

The learners also had negative reactions to being provided vocabulary feedback. 6% of the little sisters disagreed that the feedback helped them remember vocabulary while 27% answered "so-so". Our assumption is that learners were not very aware they were being given feedback. Furthermore, only two feedback opportunities were actively being recorded which means that even though big sisters were providing a lot of feedback, only two opportunities were documented. This could have affected the data and is a limitation of this research. Another negative reaction from the observation data is that 35% of the time, little sisters did not have opportunities to use the vocabulary. This implies that they might have felt that they had not received feedback as they were not able to use it. The last reason for a negative reaction is that during the beginning of the intervention, some big sisters were not confident and uncertain of their skill in providing vocabulary feedback.

8.4 Negative aspects of providing vocabulary feedback to big sisters

There were negative aspects experienced by the big sisters during the intervention. From the big sisters' perspective, a lack of confidence is a cause of not providing feedback. The seating arrangement

could also have been a factor in the beginning. Here is a reflection of a big sister and the professor overseeing the AR.

> "So, I was so much afraid that I couldn't help or catch up with 'food words' during class. Sadly, my fear came true. The little sisters in my group seemed to be used to those food verbs already, so they did not hesitate when they explained the meaning of food verbs. However, I made a mistake a few times. I studied all those food verbs in advance and tried to check the meaning and usage, but I think that was not enough."
>
> - Reflection from Big Sister JR Week 5

> "As mentioned in class, the seating arrangement has facilitators in the middle of the table and with students that are more shy or have lower confidence / This is important, unless you prefer to be on your feet, moving around the table the whole time. This way, they will seek feedback from you more, and can thus learn better."
>
> - Professor DJR

8.5 How to enhance students' vocabulary through feedback

This section presents the implications of this research to how teachers and students will use feedback in the future. This section contains recommendations for teachers', students', and both perspectives.

8.5.1 From the teachers' perspective

Based on the outcomes of this action research, there are some implications. First, the teachers became more aware of the type, strategy, and quality of feedback. This signifies awareness of feedback as the starting point to enhance students' vocabulary. Freeman (1989) has defined awareness as 'the capacity to recognize and monitor the attention one has given or is giving something' (p. 8). Generating change by increasing their awareness is believed to contribute to teachers' learning and therefore, the improvement of students (Freeman, 1989).

The second answer to the RQ is that teachers can increase their confidence in providing vocabulary feedback. In this AR, teachers improved their confidence by reading the reading homework. This implies that teachers should be knowledgeable of the content of the lesson. Confidence in teachers, in this case, is the expectation of success in providing feedback. It could take time, planning, practice, learning by examples, and monitoring to develop this, however, it is attainable (Quigley, 2016).

Third, the teachers or big sisters became aware of how the learners reacted to their feedback. How the students react can help reveal if they truly learned though feedback. These student-generated repairs or reaction sequence may be important in L2 learning for at least two reasons. The first reason is that they allow opportunities for learners to automatize the retrieval of target language knowledge that already exists in some form (e.g., as declarative knowledge; see Hulstijn, 1990; McLaughlin, 1987, 1990). Second, when repair is generated by students, the latter draw on their own resources and thus

actively confront errors in ways that may lead to revisions of their hypotheses about the target language (Pica et al., 1989; Swain, 1993, 1995). In other words, students are more likely to notice a gap and fix it if they receive feedback.

Fourth, to enhance students' vocabulary through feedback, teachers can also prepare extra materials. In this intervention, some big sisters prepared pictures and a word list as extra materials.

Finally, reflection of teachers on their feedback after teaching helps them to identify their strong and weak points in providing feedback. Reflection helps teachers capture thoughts and reactions to events. On this basis, teachers can develop strategies for intervention or change strategies to improve their practices (Richards & Lockhart, 2013).

8.5.2 From learners' perspective

For the learners' perspective, the implication is that students should be aware that they are being given feedback and what type of feedback is being given to them. They should also be aware of their preferences. Furthermore, they should try to react accordingly to their preference – either by repeating or incorporating the new words into their utterances. Reaction is defined as a discourse move and not as an instance of acquisition, although some researchers have suggested that uptake may be 'related to learners' perceptions about feedback at the time of feedback' (Mackey, Gass, and McDonough 2000: 492). Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified learner reaction as either utterances still in need of repair or utterances with repair. Learners can become aware that repair entails the correct reformulation of their answers and their responses which could be simple acknowledgements such as 'yes', hesitations, or partial repair. This would let them be aware of how their reaction helps their vocabulary knowledge and if it leads to learning.

8.5.3 Enhancing the vocabulary through feedback is a two-way process

Enhancing vocabulary through feedback is a two-way process and both parties should start from awareness and knowing their preferences. From the literature, for feedback to be useful, teachers must also exercise skill in observing and interpreting the student talk that is elicited to provide appropriate scaffolding and descriptive feedback (Katz, 2012). Teachers and learners interact during instructional time to co-construct knowledge and understanding as the teacher scaffolds student learning through questions and feedback on students' responses (Katz, 2012). Therefore, both teacher and learners should understand together the practice of providing, receiving, and reacting to vocabulary feedback effectively.

9. CONCLUSION

The conclusion of this action research is that there are several effective ways to enhance students' vocabulary knowledge using feedback. Awareness, practice, and reflection appear to be the most quintessential elements. However, there are also numerous factors to be considered. These could be from the teachers' perspective and students' perspective. Factors such as the nature of class, the students' needs, students' feedback preferences, and the content of lessons are the first things to consider. Throughout the process, changes could be implemented to improve the quality of feedback given, hence, flexibility is important.

In the future, we recommend not only teachers providing feedback but learners could also do peer vocabulary feedback as they have high proficiency in English. They could be taught the feedback type and vocabulary feedback strategies so they could also be aware when they are given feedback and reflect on it.

Appendix A

본 설문지는 '고급 영어말하기' 수업시간에 여러분들이 big sisters 들로부터 받을 수 있는 feedback 과 관련하여 여러분들의 선호도와 의견을 수렴하고자 합니다. 이 설문지의 결과는 TESOL 대학원 석사과정의 리서치 자료로만 활용되며, 학생 여러분들의 해당 수업 성적과는 아무런 관련이 없습니다. 해당 질문에 답해주시면 감사하겠습니다.

This survey has been designed to find out your preferences about vocabulary feedback you can receive from big sisters during the class. The results of this survey will be used only for TESOL MA research materials and have no effects on your grade in this class. Please take a few moments to provide us with some information regarding your preference about big sister's feedback during this class.

Student Pre-Survey

☺ **Student's name: _____**

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Part A. Which type of feedback do you prefer to receive?		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**So-so**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	I prefer receiving feedback indirectly when I have trouble with vocabulary such as getting clues from my teacher first. Ex. **You:** What does "tightfisted" mean? **Teacher:** I'll give you a clue. It is related to "money."	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Part B. How would you like to receive feedback?		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**So-so**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	*Paraphrasing:* I would like big sisters to help me paraphrase the vocabulary.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2	*Using contextual cues:* I would like big sisters to help me to think about the context or situations the vocabulary is normally used.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3	*Using word structure:* I would like big sisters to help me understand the vocabulary using word structures e.g. prefixes, suffixes, root word, etc.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4	*Using reading materials:* I would like big sisters to help me to understand vocabulary using the reading materials or from other references.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5	*Using word associations and clusters:* I would like big sisters to help me think of examples of word clusters, words associated with each other, or words that frequently occur together. E.g. We typically use the word "braise" with "beef".	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Part C. How do you usually react when receiving feedback?		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**So-so**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	*Repetition:* When I receive feedback from peers or teachers, I usually try to understand the feedback and repeat the same word or expression to remember it.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2	*Incorporation:* I usually try to incorporate or apply the feedback in my own utterance.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3	*Other reaction:* If you have any other reactions when receiving vocabulary feedback, please write in the space provided. *(You can write it down in Korean, too.)*	**Other reactions:** _____ _____ _____				

Appendix B

Observation Sheet

Facilitator's name: _____ ***Week #:*** _____

Day: □ Tuesday / □ Thursday

1.	**Student's name:**	
2.	**Vocabulary:**	
3.	**Feedback Type**	I gave □ more vocab suggestions □implicit feedback □explicit feedback
4.	**Feedback Strategy**	(a) Amount of feedback □a little □ just right □too much
		(b) Clarity □clear and simple □ a little complicated
5.	**Vocabulary Strategy**	□ Paraphrasing □ Using context □ Using word associations □ Using word structure (Ex. prefix) □ Using reading materials/ smart phone □Sought assistance (Ex. Professor, big sisters, or other students) □ Supplied correct word (Ex. **Little sister:** What's this? **You:** It's a *beak.)*
6.	**Student Reaction**	□ Repeated the word □Used the word in her own □No opportunities □ Other reaction: Please specify. _____

1.	**Student's name:**	
2.	**Vocabulary:**	
3.	**Feedback Type**	I gave □ more vocab suggestions □implicit feedback □explicit feedback
4.	**Feedback Strategy**	(a) Amount of feedback □a little □ just right □too much
		(b) Clarity □clear and simple □ a little complicated
5.	**Vocabulary Strategy**	□ Paraphrasing □ Using context □ Using word associations □ Using word structure (Ex. prefix) □ Using reading materials/ smart phone □ Sought assistance (Ex. Professor, big sisters, or other students) □ Supplied correct word (Ex. **Little sister:** What's this? **You:** It's a *beak.)*
6.	**Student Reaction**	□ Repeated the word □Used the word in her own □No opportunities □ Other reaction: Please specify. _____

Appendix C

Student post survey

안녕하십니까? 본 설문지는 여러분들이 수업 중 Big sister 들로부터 받은 모든 vocabulary feedback 에 대한 의견을 수렴하고자 기획되었습니다. 여러분의 소중한 시간을 조금만 내어주시어 설문지에 성실히 답해 주시면 감사하겠습니다. ☺

This survey has been designed to collect your opinions about your preference on vocabulary feedback from big sisters during the last few weeks. We would be very appreciate to you if you dedicate your precious time on answering this survey. Thank

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Part A. Which feedback do you think the most helpful feedback to you? (please rank them, 1=most helpful, 3= least helpful)	
1	___: **gave more and extra vocabulary suggestions** Big sisters: instead of saying "bad air", you can say "toxic" or "polluted" ____: **implicit feedback (giving a clue first)** A: What is "gaudy"? B: I'll give you a hint. Think red and neon green. ____:**explicit feedback (give answer directly)** A: What is "nepotism"? B: It means hiring family members first in a company.

	Part B. How helpful were the big sister's feedback strategies below for your vocabulary learning (on a scale of 1 to 5)?	**Not Helpful**	**A Little Helpful**	**Helpful**	**Quite Helpful**	**Very Helpful**
1	*Paraphrasing:* e.g. "**retreat", in other words, it means "go back".**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2	*Using contextual cues (*context or situations the vocabulary is normally used). **E.g: Formal vs Informal** **The word "junkie" is informal word for "addict".**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3	*Using word structure:* (e.g. prefixes, suffixes, root word) E.g: the prefix "pre" in **"preview" suggests that it is done before something**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4	*From the professor and other little sisters' feedback*	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5	*Giving correct word* *E.g.:* **You: What do you call this?** **Big sister: It's a "beak".**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6	*Using word associations* *E.g.: You use "braised" for "beef".*	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7	*Using reading materials or smartphone to give feedback*	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Part C. Can I remember any words that I learned through feedback?		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**So-so**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	*I can remember new words I learned through big sisters' feedback during this class.*	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2	*If you remember the words you learned from big sisters' feedback, please write some examples on the right.* *<The class list from wk 5-11>* *food-wk5* *Eastereggs-wk6* *movie-wk 7* *social issue-wk9* *graph and leisure-wk10* *art and music-wk11)*	**Words you can remember** _____ _____ _____				

Part D. How did I usually react when I receive feedback?		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**So-so**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	*Repetition:* When I received feedback from big sisters, I tried repeat that word to remember it.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2	*Incorporation:* I tried to use the words in my own sentences.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3	*Other reaction:* If you had any other reactions when receiving vocabulary feedback, please write in the space provided. *(You can write it down in Korean, too.)*	**Other reactions:** _____ _____ _____				

Part D. If you have any comments about vocabulary feedback from big sisters, please write them here ☺ (E.g. which part I liked…… which part I didn't like….)
_____ _____ _____

Thank you ☺

REFERENCES

Brookhart, S. (2008). *How to give feedback to your students.* Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language pedagogy.* (3rd Ed.), San Francisco State University.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and development. *UC Berkley L2 Journal, 1*, 3-18.

Ellis, E. S., & Farmer, T. (1996-2000). The clarifying routine: Elaborating vocabulary instruction. [On-line]. Available: http://www.ldonline.org/ld_indepth/teaching_techniques/ellis_clarifying.html.

Fay, D., & Culter, A. (1977). Malapropisms and the structure of the mental lexicon. Linguist Inquiry, 8(III), 505-520.

Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development, and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. TESOL Quarterly, 23, 27–45.

Gootlieb, M. (2012). *Common language assessment for English learners*. Bloomington : Solution Tree Press.

Hendrickson, J. (1980). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. In K. Croft (Ed.), *Reading on English as a second language (2nd ed., pp. 153-173).* Cambridge, MA: Winthrop.

Hulstijn, J. (1990). A comparison between the information-processing and the analysis/control approaches to language learning. Applied Linguistics, 11, 30–45.

Katz, A. (2012). Linking Assessment wth Instructional Aims and Learning. In C. Coombe, P. Davidosn, B. O'Sullivan, & S. Stoynoff, *The Cambridge Guide to Second Language Assessment* (pp. 66-73). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Jones, S. (1999). Multisensory vocabulary – guidelines and activities. [On-line]. Available: http://www.resourceroom.net/myarticles/vocabulary.htm

Long, M. (1977). Teacher Feedback on learner erro: Mapping cognitions. IN H.D. Brown, C.Yorio, & R. Crymes (Eds.), *teaching and learning English as a second languages: Trends in research and practice* (pp. 278-294)

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 37-66.

Mackey, A., S. Gass and K. McDonough. 2000. How do learners perceive interactional feedback? Studies in Second Language Acquisition 22: 471–497.

Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N., & Morgenthaler, L. (1989). Comprehensible output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 11, 63–90.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (2013). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 50, 158–164.

Quigley, A. (2016). *The confident teacher: Developing successful habits of mind, body and pedagogy*.

Abstracts

Korean University Students' Perception of Native English-Speaking Teachers

Jungmin Byun

This thesis examines how Korean university students' perceptions of NESTs affect satisfaction levels in their current learning environment in both quantitative study with some qualitative data. While many previous studies reported negative aspects of NESTs, this study found that students generally have positive perceptions towards NESTs. However, different opinions and perceptions were revealed according to participants' gender, school, school year, the duration of English education with or without NESTs, and whether they had lived abroad. Furthermore, this study found that participants' perceptions had been significantly impacted by their own participation and performance in the classroom as well as that of their teachers. The study concludes with the participants' individual opinions.

Key words: NESTs, Students' Perceptions

Implementation of Rubrics and Formative Peer Assessment in an EFL Context

Rick Dubois

Based on sociocultural theory and previous research on peer scaffolding, peer assessment and collaborative learning in ESL contexts, this study investigates the ways in which Korean university students use English as a foreign language to assess, scaffold and collaborate with one another while performing oral presentations in English. Students' perceptions and accuracy in formative and summative peer assessment and their respective rubrics are also reviewed in this study. The findings demonstrate that collaboration among students creates learning conditions where peers provide communicative and interactive feedback. The data show that accurate feedback can be sustained in later oral presentations without any imminent formative peer feedback just prior to presenting. Although peer assessment, collaboration and scaffolding research has been undertaken in ESL writing contexts, it remains a new era of research in EFL spoken discourse. This study extends the sociocultural tenets of that research to include EFL and spoken contexts.

Key words: Sociocultural Theory, Rubrics, Formative, Summative, Peer Assessment, Peer Feedback, Scaffolding, Collaboration

---

Shadowing for Korean Adult's Pronunciation Smoothness Using Rapid Speech

Eunkyung Im

The purpose of this experimental study is to examine if there is any improvement of pronunciation smoothness and attitude through shadowing practice. To answer this, 4 Korean females participated in the experiment 2 times a week for 4 weeks. The participants' recordings were collected from before and after Lesson

1 and 8 to see the improvement of pronunciation smoothness, and surveys were also conducted before and after the experiment to identify the changes of participants' attitudes. Previous studies revealed the improvement of pronunciation and attitudes in the shadowing experiment. However, pronunciation smoothness is shown as ones of items in rubric which gives brief (0-4) degree. In this study, among other features, such as consonant, vowel, link, or intonation, pronunciation smoothness relevant items are expressed as numerical graphs. As for attitude, previous studies were focused on elementary to university students, this study can show how adult think about shadowing. The results reveal that pronunciation smoothness and their attitudes were improved after the experiment. That is, shadowing technique is useful tool for students to improve their pronunciation smoothness, and to have positive attitudes towards pronunciation training.

Key words: Shadowing, Pronunciation Smoothness, Rapid Speech

Action Research on the Development Process of Collocation Teaching for a Korean Middle School Student: Using Delexicalized Verbs

Eunjin Jeung

The primary aim of this action research was to develop a process of collocation teaching for a Korean Middle school student. Teaching collocation procedures were used in conjunction with three approaches (reading-based, explicit-based and activity-based) in order to find effective teaching strategies, and more specifically, using de-lexicalized verbs to reinforce word association and combination skills. The thesis was conducted as an action research which had three cycles and each cycle was composed of three different approaches respectively. Survey, interview, collocation test, recording, student's journal, teacher's self-reflection and observation during the lessons were used for data collection. To keep track of the collocation teaching progress, the researcher acted as a teacher and the data was collected over a four-week period. Throughout the three research cycles, collocation teaching was shown to not only reduce the random guessing of de-lexicalized verbs meaning and increasing word association but also to improve the participant's lexical network. A reading-based approach combined with explicit instruction has resulted in increasing the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge of the participant, which in turn improved her reading comprehension skills. This study suggests that Korean English teachers should consider the effectiveness of depth of vocabulary knowledge in teaching collocation with the reading-based approach. Through this study, the researcher hopes for a better awareness of what Korean middle school students know about the use of de-lexicalized verb-related collocations when they are learning English.

Key words: Collocation, Depth of vocabulary knowledge, Lexical approach, Teaching strategy, Delexicalized verbs

Effectiveness of Dynamic Assessment on Korean EFL Young Learner's Writing

Diana Lee

This thesis examines the effectiveness of Dynamic Assessment (DA) on Korean elementary EFL students in Seoul, South Korea. DA is like a type of procedure which integrates assessment and instruction. It is not only allowing the instructor to figure out students' actual language level but it also helps the teacher to assist them to reach their development potential. 14 elementary students participated in 8 weeks long research. Each student had worked on a worksheet which includes a picture with five key words and the key grammar. Students' task was describing the picture by using all requirements. The teacher and student went over the finished writing work together, yet teacher utilized the Regulatory Scale—implicit to explicit, which is introduced by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994). This scale helps instructors to guide students to reduce reliance on the other-regulation or on the teacher, yet increase students' self-regulation. On week 8, after 7 weeks of writing sessions, students' perceptions of DA were taken into account through surveys. Indeed, most students showed the improvement. In the beginning of session, students needed more explicit feedback than implicit feedback to notice and edit their errors; however, the situation was gradually changing. From the second and third writing session, students attempted to think and figure out their own mistakes by themselves and found their errors faster than before. In the survey, 81% of students were satisfied with the new teaching style with DA and they also thought it helped them to improve their English skills. Based on the results from data collection and surveys, it could be said that DA is one of useful teaching methods for teacher to utilize for EFL students.

Key words: Dynamic Assessment, EFL students, Regulatory Scale, Implicit, Explicit, Self-Regulation

---

Suggestopedia with Young Children to Teach Vocabulary

Yean Ji Lee

This thesis examines the effectiveness of Suggestopedia in short-term memory and long-term memory on learning vocabulary with young learners in Korea. It also examines the relationship between Suggestopedia Multiple Intelligence and gender. Ten young learners in 2nd and 3rd grade in elementary school participated in the study for 3 months. They had three sessions of lesson. In the 1st session, they were taught with simplified version of Suggestopedia. In the 2nd session, the process of Suggestopedia were used to teach vocabulary. In the 3rd session, they were taught with modified version of Suggestopedia. Before each session, pre-tests were administrated to all learners. Post-test were conducted on every 2nd class of each session. 2 weeks delayed post-test were administrated 2 weeks after each session. The results of the study indicated that learning vocabulary with Suggestopedia is effective in short-term memory but not in long-term memory. Also, Multiple Intelligence and gender affect in vocabulary learning throughout Suggestopedia.

Key words: Suggestopedia, Multiple Intelligence, Vocabulary learning, Short-term Memory, Long-term Memory

Comparing the Effects of Email and Dialogue Journal Writing on Writing Fluency and Anxiety

Young Mi Lee

This study examined and compared the effects of email and dialogue journal writing on Korean EFL learners' writing fluency and anxiety. In total, 10 Korean female adult participants took part in the study. To investigate the effects of email and dialogue journal on writing fluency, pre- and post-writing tests were analyzed regarding length, content, organization, and vocabulary. Additionally, pre- and post-self-anxiety questionnaires were examined to see whether email and/or dialogue journal writing impacted upon anxiety reduction. Post-survey and follow-up interviews were also conducted to explore participant perceptions of email and dialogue journal writing. This study suggests that email and dialogue journal writing improves learners' writing fluency with regard to length, content, organization, and vocabulary. However, email writing appeared slightly more beneficial in improving length than dialogue journal writing. Additionally, participants' questionnaire results suggest that email and dialogue journal writing has a positive impact on learners' anxiety reduction in writing. However, dialogue journal writing seemed to be more effective in decreasing second language learners' anxiety. The analysis of the qualitative data revealed that participants viewed email and dialogue journal writing as effective tools to learn and develop English writing skills.

Key words: Dialogue Journal Writing, Email, Writing Fluency, Anxiety

---

An Examination into the Polysemous Vocabulary Acquisition Strategies of Bilingual Korean Learners

Michael J. McLaren

This study looked to answer some of the many questions that surround how polysemous words are best learned, and to see if the metacognitive strategies bilingual Korean learners of English use to figure out unknown polysemous words is the same as how current research would lead you to believe. As differences in the way bilingual Korean learners are taught how to encounter these words and what they actually do have far-reaching implications in regards to current teaching practices within the Korean education system. Results show contrary to what the research suggests, the process to figure out the meaning and placement of unknown polysemous vocabulary words and the way its senses work lay almost solely in contextualization and the ability to "read" the context appropriately. This suggests that current teaching methods that bilingual Korean learners of English receive need to be altered to better accommodate these types words.

Key words: Polysemy, Bilingualism, Vocabulary Learning, Metacognitive Strategy Use

Action Research Utilizing Flip and Computer-mediated Communication in the South Korean University Context

Adam Rosenthal

This thesis takes the form of an action research focused on solving problems found in a beginner English conversation course at the university level in South Korea. The action research was composed of three cycles in which the researcher attempted to engage students in computer mediated communication (CMC) through the Flipped classroom model to address issues of time constraints, interactional competence, and a lack of contextual language use amongst participants. This research found that ubiquitous CMC can be leveraged to extend the classroom and provide opportunities for language use and practice in the South Korean university context. It also found that specific task types are necessary to engender motivated student interaction. Furthermore, the use of online affordances to remind students of assignment requirements is effective. Similarly, providing models engages students and affords them the autonomy to explore and engage with related material, effectively increasing their participation and expanding their contexts of English use.