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A Study on an English Textbook Used in a Technical High School

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The purpose of this study is to examine if the English textbook currently used in a technical high school corresponds to the necessities and interests of technical high school students in English education. For this purpose, sixty-six technical high school students from two classes of second year students answered a questionnaire consisting of three parts, students' personal information, students' attitudes toward English and students' attitudes toward the English textbook. Also, ten students and two non-native English teachers were interviewed, and the English textbook currently used was analyzed. This study shows that there are some problems in using the same English textbook in two different schools, academic and technical high schools and provides practical suggestions to improve the English textbook for technical high school students based on the results.

1. Introduction

Technical high school students are considered less proficient, less confident and less interested in learning English. When compared with academic high school students, it may be true, but it may also be the result of the problems of English education in a technical high school. Both academic and technical high schools use the same English textbook, but when considering the different characteristics of the two different kinds of schools and the fact that the English textbook is written for an academic high school, it seems to be inappropriate to teach technical high

school students using the same English textbook. Therefore, this researcher investigated the technical high school students' interests and their purposes of English learning and examined how much the English textbook corresponds to their specific needs. In addition, after finding out the difficulties the technical high school students and teachers are faced with in the current situations, some practical suggestions were made as to how to revise and improve the English textbook for technical high school students based on the research findings.

Research Question

Does the English textbook used in a technical high school correspond to the necessities and interests of technical high school students in English education?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Role of Textbook

Rivers (1981) emphasizes the importance of a textbook by saying that a textbook decides what and how students will learn both inside and outside of the classroom. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) say students' interests should be considered the most in choosing materials, and Jakobovitz (1970) emphasizes students' motivation as the most important factor for success in learning a foreign language. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), however, even though the material is very interesting, if it is too difficult for learners to understand, it cannot help them acquire the language. In an EFL situation especially in a vocational high school setting where students rarely have a chance to use English outside of the classroom, the classroom tends to be the only place where students receive input and the English textbook tends to be the main material both teachers and students rely on in English education. Therefore, the textbook should reflect learners' interests, motivation and English levels to help them learn the language better.

2.2 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Communicative language teaching (CLT) stresses communication with a focus on meaning. Instead of learning grammatical structures, learners can learn the communicative functions of forms (Cook, 2001). Under communicative language teaching, communications mostly rely on learners' ability to negotiate meaning, and during the process of negotiating for meaning, learners would comprehend unfamiliar language forms and understand the rules of grammar without explicit instruction.

According to Savignon (1983), communicative language teaching begins with identification of the needs and interests of learners, and needs assessment was defined as a survey of learner needs and interests to serve as a basis for second language curriculum and material development. Therefore, instead of long reading passages with complex grammar and difficult words, an English textbook for a technical high school should include various games, role-plays, simulations and other task-based communicative activities that are relevant to the English level and needs of technical high school students.

2.3 Previous Studies

There have been some studies on vocational high schools and they show some common findings. Koo (2001), Mun (2002) and Choi (2002) agree that it is not appropriate that vocational and academic high schools use the same English textbook and insist on the need for developing an English textbook for a vocational high school. Especially Koo (2001) investigated the effects of teaching vocational high school students' familiar everyday English on their English speaking and listening skills and attitudes toward English learning. The results of the study explain that teaching vocational high school students familiar English from daily life, such as the one they use with friends and teachers at school, proved to be efficient to improve speaking and listening skills of vocational high school students who lacked basic English knowledge and motivation.

3. Methods

3.1 Participants

Sixty-six male students from two classes in the second grade and two non-native English teachers in Dong Yang Technical High School participated in this research. The students attend English classes twice a week and each class is conducted for 50 minutes with a focus on grammar, structure, new vocabulary and especially reading comprehension. Most of the students do not have many opportunities to learn and use communication-oriented English.

3.2 Data Collection

3.2.1 High School English Textbook Analysis

The textbook "High School English" published by Jangwon Kyoyuk (2002) as used in Dong Yang Technical High School is used in this study. This textbook is analyzed to examine how much it corresponds to the necessities and interests of technical high school students in English education. Cunningsworth (1995) provided four criteria for evaluating textbooks: (1) Textbooks should correspond to learners' needs; (2) they should reflect the uses that learners will make of the language; (3) they should take account of students' needs as learners and should facilitate their learning processes; and (4) they should have a clear role as a support for learning. In this study, the textbook is analyzed by using the four-criteria checklist presented by Cunningsworth (1995).

⇒ Lim Byung-bin, Kang Yong-gu, Yeun Jun-heum, Yu Chul, Song Hae-sung (2002). *High school English.* Seoul: Jangwon Kyoyuk

3.2.2 Questionnaire for Students

A questionnaire was devised to measure technical high school students' degrees of satisfaction, confidence, needs, and interests in learning English. The questionnaire contained three sections for a total of 20 items (Appendix A), and it was done in Korean in order to prevent the students

from misunderstanding the questions.

3.2.3 Interview with Ten Students

Ten students among the participants were selected to be interviewed. First, they were provided with twelve topics covered in the English textbook and asked to choose the five interesting topics and to rank them in order of interest. Then they were asked to list the other interesting topics they want the textbook to cover and also asked what the biggest obstacle to their English learning is and in what aspects the textbook needs to be improved (Appendix B).

3.2.4 Interview with Two non-native English Teachers

Two non-native English teachers working at Dong Yang Technical High School were interviewed. One is a forty-three year-old male teacher who has taught English for eleven years, and the other is a fifty-one year-old male teacher who has taught English for twenty-three years. First, they were asked if they think the quantity of the textbook contents is appropriate compared with the given teaching periods and asked what the most difficult problems are in teaching English to technical high school students with regards to the current textbook. Also, they were asked if they feel the need to develop a textbook for technical high school students and asked to list what kind of things should be considered in developing the new textbook (Appendix C).

3.3 Procedures

First, the English textbook "High School English" was analyzed. Second, the copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the participants, and they were asked to complete the anonymous questionnaire. The quantitative questions on the questionnaire were counted and tallied. Third, the ten students were interviewed, and lastly the two English teachers were interviewed to get their opinions about the English textbook they use, and to find out if they have any problems in teaching students

with that textbook. Finally, they were asked to identify what these problems are. All interviews were recorded.

3.4 Context of the Study

3.4.1 The Present State of a Vocational High School

In the past, students decided to enter a vocational high school after considering their goals. Also, since many students needed to support their families, they first wanted to get a job after graduating high school and then if possible, continue studying. Nowadays, however, the reason for entering a vocational high school has changed. Students simply go to a vocational high school because their grades are not good enough to go to an academic high school. Both Kang (2001) and Choi (2002) show that the main reason their participants applied to a vocational high school was their poor grades. As a result, it is clear that the English level of the students in a vocational high school is generally lower than that of the students in an academic high school.

The curriculum of a vocational high school seems to widen the gap in English levels between these two types of school. Since it is a vocational high school, the curriculum is designed to focus on its own specialty such as technology or commerce, and relatively the time and effort allotted to English are small. The second year students in a technical high school take just two English classes a week, which are not enough to improve their English proficiency. These are definitely insufficient when compared with the class hours academic high school students get— four classes a week.

3.4.2 Vocational High School and a College

It was common for vocational high school students to get a job after graduating from high school, but nowadays many students want to go to college. In Korea, academic high school students usually take the SAT to go to college, but vocational high school students find other ways, such as special admissions for vocational high school students and occasional

admission. Since these selection processes ask only for the GPA and an interview score for application, an SAT score is somehow far from the concerns of vocational high school students.

4. Results

4.1 Textbook Evaluation

4.1.1 Aims and Approaches

The aims of the textbook are first to help students improve their communicative abilities and second to help students improve the ability to understand other cultures and introduce Korean culture to the world. The communicative ability here includes not only oral communicative ability but also written communicative ability. Even though the aims look ideal, since English is considered as a tool to be a specialist in their fields, the textbook for a technical high school should be based on more realistic and practical aims.

4.1.2 Design and Organization

The textbook consists of twelve lessons, and each lesson is organized in the order of listening, reading, speaking and writing. It provides a 'Review' section where students can review sounds, communicative functions, new words, useful expressions and structures and offers 'Supplementary Learning', 'Advanced Learning' and 'Speed Reading I and II' to help students study voluntarily depending on their abilities. At the end of each lesson, it also provides an 'English for Fun' section that contains various interesting activities such as a puzzle.

4.1.3 Language Content

New grammar and vocabulary are introduced in reading passages, and the main grammar items and words are reviewed in the 'Review' section. Compared with the English level of technical high school students, the level of the grammar lesson is higher, and the textbook does not provide

enough explanations and examples. It is good that students learn new words through reading passages, but since the reading passages are long and difficult, there are too many new words, and the words are also difficult for technical high school students. The textbook includes pronunciation work, but it just covers individual sounds and liaison, not stress or intonation.

4.1.4 Skills

The textbook covers all four skills but lacks material for integrated skills work. The level of the reading passages and associated activities is much higher than that of the target students, and the amount of reading materials the textbook provides seems too much when considering the English class hours technical high school students take at two classes a week. In case of listening and speaking, the materials are not authentic, and the activities are generally limited to pattern drills. The textbook tries to provide various types of writing activities such as filling out a form and describing a picture, but most of the activities are also limited to sentence-level writing.

4.1.5 Topic

The textbook contains various topics with social and cultural contexts, and some of them such as music and movies seem to attract students' interest. The textbook, however, lacks materials of genuine or practical interest to technical high school students, such as job-related topics.

4.1.6 Methodology

A communicative approach is the basic principle of the textbook. Based on this approach, the textbook follows a notional-functional syllabus and tries to provide task-based activities. To help students play a role as an interactor, it also provides many pair and group works, and the teachers are supposed to play a role as a facilitator and counselor. Even though the textbook aims at a communicative approach, since the English level of

technical high school students is generally low, it is true that the students need a lot of teacher's help to fulfill the tasks in the textbook. Also, since the textbook includes a huge amount of content compared with the English class hours a technical high school provides, the teachers feel impelled to skip some speaking and listening activities and instead focus on translating the reading passages.

4.1.7 Teacher's Books

There is a teacher's guide book which is comprehensive and supplementary to the textbook. It adequately covers teaching techniques, language items such as grammar rules and testing methods and also provides classroom English and useful Internet sites related to teaching English.

4.1.8 Practical Considerations

Since it is a school textbook, it is cheap and easily obtained. Also, since students can get a CD that contains the contents of the textbook including a tape script for listening activities, they can study at home by themselves. The textbook, however, is not attractive in appearance.

4.2 Questionnaire

4.2.1 Personal Information

All the students major in electrical engineering. Most students started to study English either in middle school (35/66; 52%) or elementary school (27/66; 41%). Only one student started to study English before elementary school, and there are three students (5%) who started to study English in high school.

4.2.1.1 English in Life

Only one of them has experienced traveling to an English speaking country. The others (65/66; 98%) have never been to any English

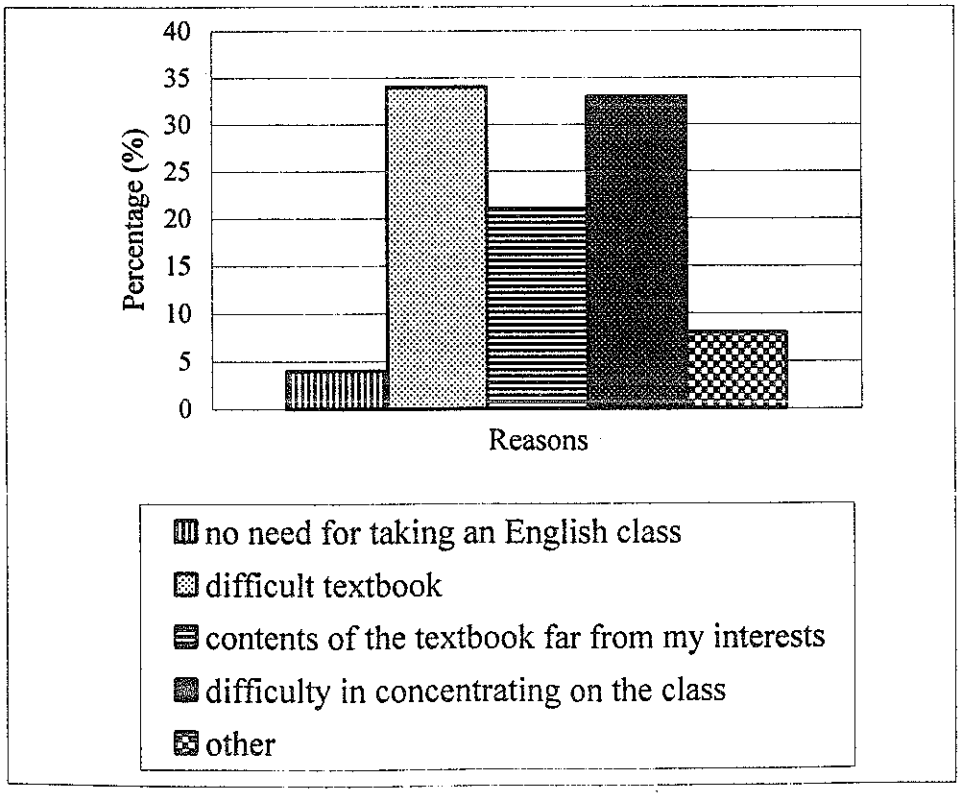
speaking countries before. To the question 'How often do you use English in your life?', 37 students (55%) answered that they hardly use English in their lives, and 17 students (26%) answered that they sometimes use English. Nobody answered that they always use English in their lives.

4.2.1.2 Students' Attitudes toward English Classes

When asked 'How well do you participate in an English class at school?', 4 students (6%) answered that they participate very hard, 30 students out of 66 (45%) reported that they participate hard in their English classes, and 20 students (30%) answered that they participate medially. Eight students (12%), however, answered that they hardly participate in their English classes, and 4 students (6%) answered that they never participate in their English classes. The reasons they do not participate hard in English classes are various (Figure 1).

Figure 1.

Reasons for not Participating Hard in English Class



4.2.1.3 English Study outside of Classroom

Most of the students (53/66; 80%) reported that they do not study English except taking English classes at school. Only 13 students (20%) answered that they study English outside of classroom by watching EBS program, by studying at an institute and through extracurricular activities.

4.2.2 Attitudes toward English

When asked 'To what extent are you confident in English?', 27students (41%) answered that they have medial confidence in English, 23 students (35%) answered that they have little confidence in English, and 14 students (21%) answered that they have no confidence in English. Nobody answered that they have a lot of confidence, and only 2 students (3%) reported that they have some confidence in English.

4.2.2.1 Students' Interest toward English

To the question 'Are you interested in English?', half of the students (33/66; 50%) reported that they have medial interest in English, 14 students (21%) reported that they have some interest, and 12 students (18%) answered that they have little interest. Six students (9%) answered that they have no interest in English, and only one student (2%) answered that he has a lot of interest in English. The reasons they are not interested in English are shown in the following figure on the next page (Figure 2).

4.2.2.2 Students Have Reasons to Study English

More than half of the students (43/66; 65%) reported that it is necessary for them to study English, and the results of the question asking why they study English are shown in Figure 3.

Figure 2.

Reasons for not Being Interested in English

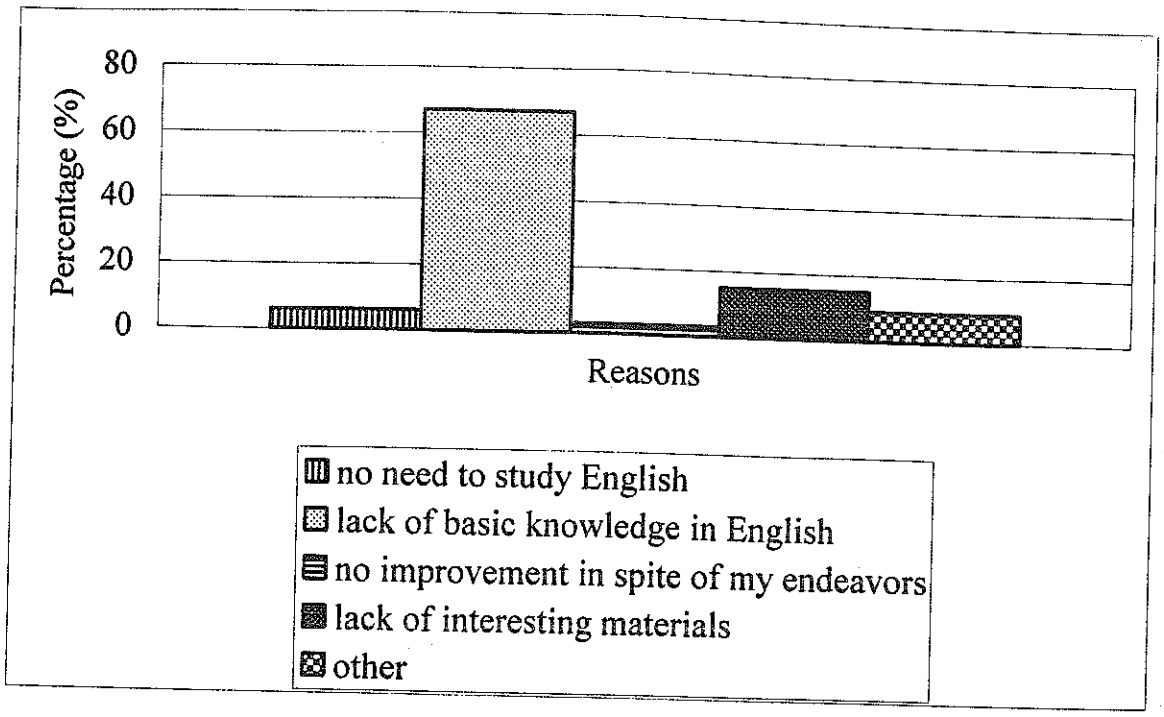
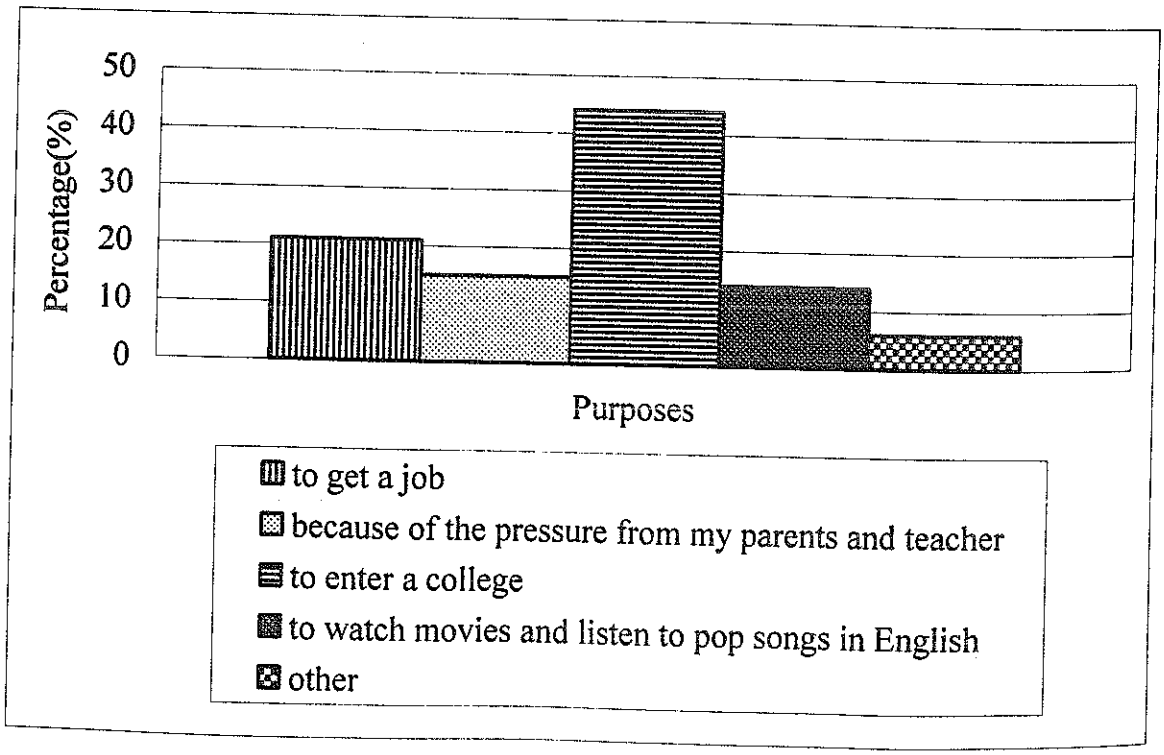


Figure 3.

Purposes of Studying English



4.2.2.3 The Part Students Want to Improve

More than half of the students (38/66; 58%) answered that they want to improve their ability for having conversation. 16 students (24%) answered that they want to improve their SAT scores, 8 students (12 %) answered that they want to understand English movies and pop songs through studying English, and 3 students (5%) answered that they want to improve their TOEFL or TOEIC scores.

4.2.3 Attitudes toward the Textbook

Six questions were asked to examine the students' interest in and understanding of the textbook. Another set of six questions were asked to investigate the students' needs to develop a textbook for technical high school students as well as the contents they want to study through a textbook.

4.2.3.1 Students' Interest in the Textbook

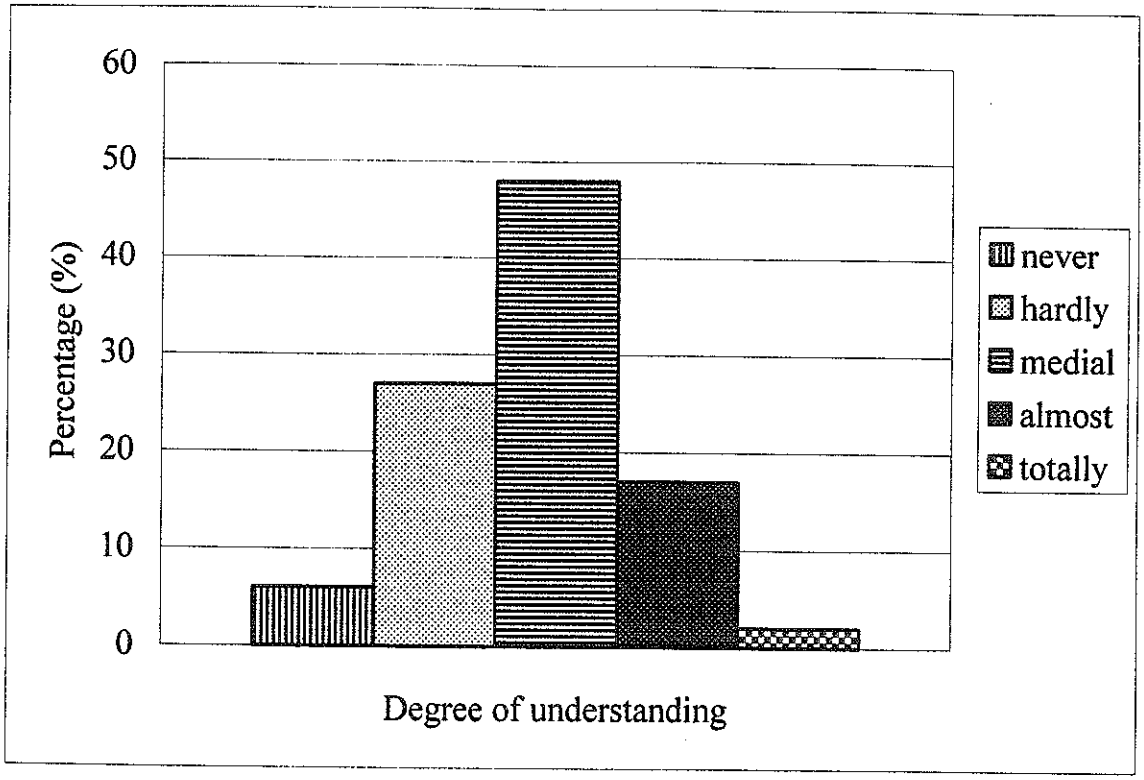
To the question 'Are you interested in the English textbook?', 28 students (42%) answered that they are medially interested in the English textbook, 10 students (15%) answered that they have some interests in the English textbook, and only one student answered that he has a lot of interest. Nineteen students (29 %), however, answered that they have little interest, and 8 students (12%) answered that they are not interested in the English textbook at all. The reasons they are not interested in the English textbook are various: too difficult contents (14/66; 36%), no interest in English (12/66; 31%), contents not related to their concerns (10/66; 26%), unattractive design of the textbook (1/66; 3%), and other reasons such as lack of basic knowledge and only interested in vocabulary.

4.2.3.2 Students' Understanding of the Textbook

Answers to the question 'How well do you understand the textbook?' are shown in the following figure (Figure 4).

Figure 4.

How Well do You Understand the Textbook?



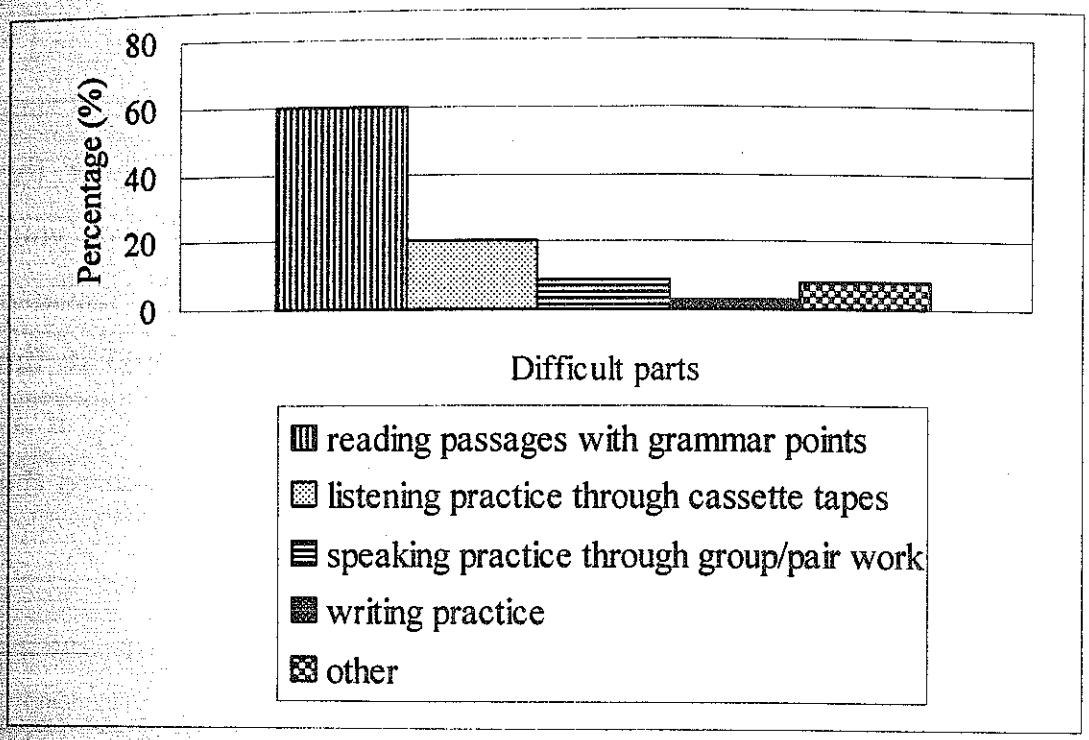
The reasons they do not understand the textbook well are various: lack of basic English knowledge (14/66; 37%), lack of own efforts (13/66; 35%), too difficult contents (5/66; 14%), and not interested in the contents (5/66; 14%). When asked 'Which part of the textbook is the most difficult for you?', more than half of the students (40/66; 60%) answered that the reading passages with grammar points are the most difficult for them (Figure 5).

To the question 'Which part of the textbook do you think is the most beneficial to you?', 25 students (38%) answered that reading passages with grammar points are the most beneficial to them, and 24 students (36%) answered speaking practice through group/pair

work. Twelve students (18%) answered that listening practice through cassette tapes is the most beneficial, and 3 students (5%) answered that writing practice is the most beneficial to them.

Figure 5.

The Most Difficult Part of the Textbook



4.2.3.3 Necessity to Develop a Textbook for Technical High School Students

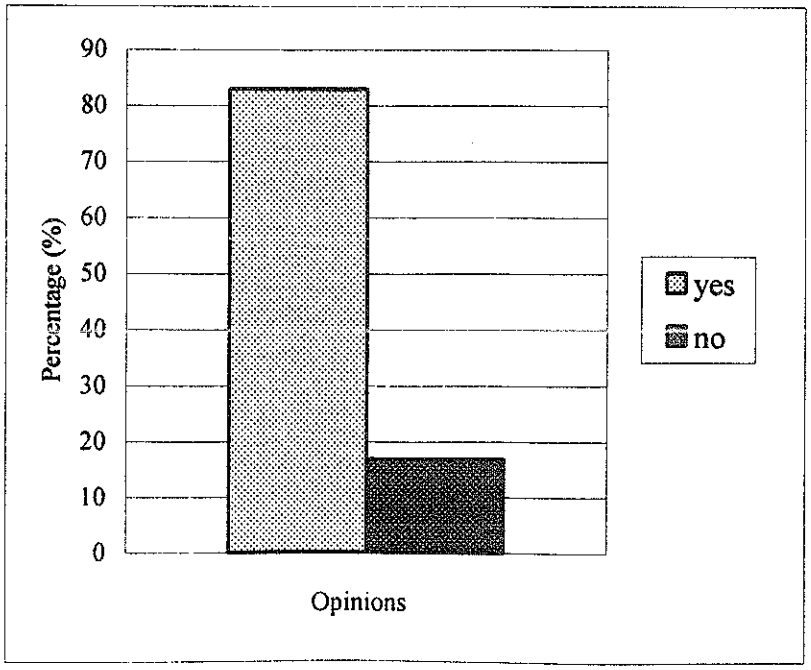
The question 'Is it appropriate to use the same textbook at both an academic high school and a vocational high school?' was asked to investigate the students' needs, which are the basis for developing a textbook for them. While more than half of the students (36/66; 55 %) answered that it is not appropriate to use the same textbook at both academic and vocational high schools, 30 students (45%) answered that it is appropriate. The majority (55/66; 83%), however, answered that it is necessary to develop an English textbook for a vocational high school (Figure 6).

4.2.3.4 Contents Students Want to Study

To the question 'Which contents will be beneficial to vocational high school students?', 23 students (35%) answered that basic knowledge of English will be beneficial, and 22 students (33%) answered that hobby-related contents such as movie, music, and games will be beneficial. Fourteen students answered that major-related contents such as civil, chemical, mechanical, and electronic engineering will be beneficial, and 7 students answered that job-related contents such as interview, résumé, and telephone English will be beneficial. When asked 'Do you think the textbook including the contents related to your major will enhance your interest and facilitate learning vocabulary?', 29 students (5 students answered 'certainly' and 24 students answered 'some') answered in the affirmative. Adding the 24 students who answered 'medially', it is possible to say that the majority of students (53/66; 80%) answered the question positively.

Figure 6.

Is It Necessary to Develop an English Textbook for a Vocational High School?



4.3 Interview

4.3.1 Results: Ten Students

4.3.1.1 Topics Students are Interested in

As shown in the following table (Table 1), the students were most interested in music and movies.

Table 1.

Students' Report on the Topics of the Textbook

Topics	Rank	Points	Votes
Music & Movies	1	35	9
Travel	2	28	8
Food	3	19	5
Animals	3	19	7
Internet	5	14	5
Inventions	6	11	3
Challenging Sports	7	10	4
Environment	8	9	4
Loving Others	9	3	2
Respecting Parents	9	3	1
Getting Information	11	2	1
Korean Culture	12	1	1

* Points were added as follows:

first choice : 5 points second choice : 4 points

third choice : 3 points fourth choice : 2 points

fifth choice : 1 point

4.3.1.2 Topics They Want the Textbook to Cover

They were supposed to list two topics they want the textbook to cover other than the existing topics. Most students like topics related to comic books (8/10) and computer games (5/10). Other topics are jobs, broadcasting, cooking, majors, sports, education, and meeting girlfriends.

4.3.1.3 The Biggest Problem of Learning English

Three students out of ten reported that they are poor at English due to a lack of basic knowledge of grammar. Two students reported difficulty with reading, and two more reported difficulty with interpretation. Other problems are little interest, lack of vocabulary, and difficulty with making sentences.

4.3.1.4 Characteristics of the Ideal Textbook the Students Want

Three students out of ten want easier contents, while the other three students want the textbook to include interpretations. The rest recommend having contents related to daily life, reducing the volume of contents, having short reading passages, and inserting cartoons.

4.3.2 Results: Two Teachers

4.3.2.1 Amount of the Textbook Contents Compared with the Given Teaching Periods

Both teachers responded that the textbook contains too many contents to cover within the given periods. At the end of the semester, they usually feel sorry that they have not finished teaching all of the things in the book.

4.3.2.2 The Most Difficult Problems in Teaching English with the Current Textbook

Both teachers pointed out that the chapters of the textbook are arranged randomly without consideration given to the level of each chapter, so that students do not develop their linguistic abilities through stages. Also, the textbook deals with too many words and structures for the students to focus on and to learn without considering the low proficiency of the students.

4.3.2.3 Necessity of an English Textbook for Technical High School Students

Both teachers strongly agreed to the idea of developing a new textbook

for technical high school students.

4.3.2.4 Things that should be Considered in Developing a New Textbook

The two teachers listed these considerations below:

1) It should provide shorter reading passages and contents must deal with basic grammar points and vocabulary, as well as interesting and attractive topics related to technical high school students' real life.
2) It should focus on the use of practical English through daily activities such as shopping, talking on the phone, ordering at a restaurant, writing an e-mail, and filling out forms, among other things.

5. Discussion

The results of the research show that it is not appropriate to use the same English textbook at a technical high school and an academic high school. The results also prove that the English textbook currently used in a technical high school does not correspond to the purpose, interests and the English level of technical high school students as far as their English education is concerned. The biggest problem of the English textbook currently used in a technical high school is that it is too difficult for the students. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), if the level of the material is too much higher than that of learners, the material cannot help the learners acquire the knowledge. Unfortunately, both the students and teachers agreed that the English textbook is too difficult for the students. Only 18% of the students responded that they understand the textbook well, and the difficulty of the textbook proved to be the biggest reason for students' lack of interest in their English textbook. Students said that they have difficulty understanding the textbook because they lack the basic English knowledge. Moreover, they expressed the biggest difficulty in

reading had to do with complex grammar points.

A difficult English textbook surely causes students to have little desire and enthusiasm for English, which could eventually lead to the student giving up studying English. Therefore, the English textbook for technical high school students whose English level is generally low should be much easier than the one for academic high school students in terms of the level and complexity of grammar, vocabulary and reading materials. Instead of introducing long reading passages with too many words and structures, the textbook should provide short and interesting reading materials with simpler sentences and easy words. It should be helpful for the students to construct their basic English knowledge at a pace that suits them. Also, decreasing the reading passages and increasing the speaking part can help ease the difficulty of the textbook's contents.

Students' motivation and interests are the key factors in all kinds of learning, and especially to those who are not confident in English, interesting materials are essential. The English textbook currently used in a technical high school, however, does not seem to attract students' interest and to motivate them in English learning. Eighty-three percent (83%) of the students expressed that the English textbook they use is only mildly interesting, with 12% even saying that it is never interesting. One of the reasons they are not interested in the English textbook is that the contents of the book are not related to their concerns or interests. Both of the results from question number 19 (Are you interested in the topics covered in the textbook?) and the student interview explain that students are not much interested in the topics the textbook covers. Students, however, believe that if the textbook includes topics related to their majors, it will increase their interest in English studying and the English textbook. Therefore, to increase technical high school students' interest, the English textbook should include major-related contents such as a story of a famous technician or a conversation between two engineers at work.

Since the students answered that the part they want to improve most is conversational ability, decreasing the reading part and increasing

the speaking part can be another way to have students be more involved in an English textbook, and it also corresponds to the current issue of Communicative Language Teaching in English education. The long reading passages included in the textbook can lead the English classes to a translation-based teaching, and it can cause the students to lose their interest.

Following the current trend of a vocational high school, many students (44%) answered that they study English to go to college. The result of question number 11 (Which part do you want to improve through studying English?), however, shows that the part they want to improve is conversational ability, not SAT scores. Since technical high school students usually enter a college by special admissions, the result seems understandable. Then it becomes clear that the English textbook should help the students continue studying English at college and get the English ability a college requires. Since they usually go to a technical college, the textbook can provide some contents related to their future majors so that the students are familiar with the major terms or foreign books they will encounter in college.

Even though 44% of the students answered that they study English to go to college, 21% still responded that their purpose of studying English is to get a job. It means that while most of the academic high school students want to go to college, many technical high school students still want to get a job after graduating and be able to use English at work. Therefore, the English textbook for a technical high school should consider the need of those students as well and provide job-related contents.

Lastly, too much amount of materials in the English textbook currently used in a technical high school is another problem. Both of the teacher interviewees answered that the textbook contains too many contents to cover within the given class time, and as a result, they cannot cover all of it in class. Compared with an academic high school, a technical high school has less class hours for English, thus using the same

textbook in spite of the different class hours seems inappropriate. The textbook should provide the right amount of contents for a technical high school.

6. Conclusion

Technical high school students think that English is important in their lives and try to participate in their English classes, but the English textbook currently used at a technical high school does not seem to help them in studying English. Especially, the high-level textbook compared with the students' level makes the students lose their interest and be frustrated in studying. In spite of the different characteristics between a technical high school and an academic high school, using the same English textbook at the two schools seems to be a contradiction in policies. Therefore, there is a strong need for developing an English textbook for a technical high school which must be distinct from the one used for an academic high school in terms of purposes, interests and levels in English learning.

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Appendix A

<Questionnaire for Students>

I. Personal Information

1. What is your major?
2. When did you start studying English?
   ① before elementary school ② elementary school
   ③ middle school ④ high school
3. Have you ever been to English speaking countries (America, England, Canada...)?

3-1. If yes, what was that for?

4. How often do you use English in your life?
   ① never ② hardly ③ sometimes ④ often ⑤ always
5. Do you study English except taking an English class at school?

5-1. If yes, where and how do you study English?

6. Do you participate in an English class at school?
   ① never ② hardly ③ medial ④ hard ⑤ very hard

6-1. If not, what is the reason?

① no need of taking an English class
② difficult textbook
③ contents of the textbook far from my interests
④ difficulty of concentrating on the class

II. Attitudes toward English

7. Are you interested in English?
   ① none ② little ③ medial ④ some ⑤ a lot

7-1. If not, what is the reason?

① no need of studying English ② lack of basic knowledge in English ③ no improvement in spite of my endeavors ④ lack of interesting materials

8. To what extent are you confident in English?
   ① none ② little ③ medial ④ some ⑤ a lot
9. To what extent is it necessary for you to study English?
   ① none ② little ③ medial ④ some ⑤ a lot

10. Why do you study English?

① to get a job ② because of the pressure from my parents and teacher

③ to enter a college ④ to watch movies and listen to pop songs in English

11. Which part do you want to improve through studying English?

① conversation ② score of TOEFL or TOEIC

③ score of university entrance exam ④ understanding of movies and pop songs in English

III. Attitudes toward a Textbook

12. Are you interested in the English textbook?

① none ② little ③ medial ④ some ⑤ a lot

12-1. If not, what is the reason?

① too difficult contents ② contents not related to my concerns

③ no interest in English ④ not attracting design of the textbook

13. Do you understand the textbook?

① never ② hardly ③ medial ④ almost ⑤ totally

13-1. If not, what is the reason?

① not interested in the contents ② too difficult contents

③ lack of my efforts ④ lack of basic English knowledge

14. Which part of the textbook is the most difficult for you?

① reading passages with grammar points ② listening practice through cassette tapes

③ speaking practice through group/pair work ④ writing practice

15. Which part of the textbook do you think is the most beneficial to you?

① reading passages with grammar points ② listening practice through cassette tapes

③ speaking practice through group/pair work ④ writing practice

16. Is it appropriate to use the same textbook at both an academic high school and a vocational high school?

16-1. If not, what is the reason?

① do not consider the different characteristics of the two different

schools

② do not consider the difference of the students' English levels of the two schools

③ focus on academic high school students

④ different purposes of the English study at each school

17. Is it necessary to develop an English textbook for a vocational high school?

18. Which contents will be beneficial to vocational high school students?

① job-related contents (interview, telephone English)

② hobby-related contents (movie, music, game)

③ major-related contents (civil/chemical/mechanical/electronic engineering)

④ basic knowledge of English

19. Are you interested in the topics covered in the textbook?

① none ② little ③ medial ④ some ⑤ a lot

20. Do you think the textbook including the contents related to your major will enhance your interests and facilitate learning vocabulary?

① none ② hardly ③ medial ④ some ⑤ certainly

Appendix B

<Questions for Student Interview>

Q1. Choose the five interesting topics among the following topics covered in your textbook. List them in order of interest.

Topics	Ranks
Music & Movies	
Travel	
Food	
Animals	
Internet	
Inventions	
Challenging Sports	
Environment	
Loving Others	
Respecting Parents	
Getting Information	
Korean Culture	

Q2. List other interesting topics you want the textbook to cover.

Q3. What are your problems in learning English these days?

Q4. Tell me about the ideal textbook for you.

Appendix C

<Questions for Teacher Interview>

Q1. You have taught English to technical high school students for more than ten years. Do you think the amount of the textbook contents is appropriate compared with the given teaching periods?

Q2. What are the most difficult problems in teaching English here with this textbook?

Q3. Do you feel the need to develop a textbook for technical high school students?

Q4. If so, what kind of things should be considered in developing a new textbook?

Teaching Pronunciation With a Focus on Suprasegmental Features

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The purpose of this project is to design the most appropriate pronunciation lessons for a specific adult learner whose oral proficiency level of English is generally intermediate low. It consists of four parts. In the first part, the target learner's pronunciation problems are analyzed on the basis of the results of pre– listening/speaking tests. Since these problems may be caused by either the learner's own problems or the common problems of most Korean learners, part two provides predictable difficulties that Korean learners will have in common in acquiring English pronunciation through Contrastive Analysis. This analysis gives a useful guidance for English teachers to design an effective pronunciation curriculum, especially in EFL situations like Korea where target learners speak the same one native language. Among the target learner's problems, only some teaching points are selected, which are "suprasegmental features," based on the target learner's needs and the teacher's teaching philosophy. Accordingly, in the third part, four lesson plans for eight hours and sample materials are presented to improve the learner's pronunciation, focusing on rhythm, emphasis, sentence stress and reductions/contractions. Lastly, in part four, after the post–listening/speaking test is done, the results are compared to those of the pre– tests. Also, both the teacher and the learner's reflections of the whole process are mentioned.

1. Pronunciation Problems of the Target Learner

1.1 The Student Profile

The target student is a 26-year-old college student whose oral proficiency level of English is generally intermediate low. He has been studying English since middle school with a strong focus on explicit knowledge of grammar and translation. Thus, he is not accustomed to communicating with other people in English. However, since starting university, he has been exposed to English speaking environments with native English speakers for several months in private language schools and for two semesters of elective English classes at his university. He is interested in communicating in English and also wants to improve his pronunciation.

1.2 Pre-test

1.2.1 Listening

Since he has already learned before how to discriminate each phoneme in listening to minimal pairs, it seems that 'the clear listening test' from *Gilbert's Clear Speech* (1993), in which test items are designed to assess segmental and suprasegmental features, is an appropriate pre-listening test for diagnosing his current state of English pronunciation.

1.2.2 Speaking

The learner is asked to read three texts, the words and contents of which do not cause him difficulty to speak fluently. The first one is the 'clear speaking test' from *Clear Speech* (Gilbert, 1993), which is good for assessing pronunciation in a natural conversational setting. The others are 'Arthur the Rat' and 'The Rainbow Passage' from the web site http://www.ukans.edu/~idea. They are good enough to assess his pronunciation in a formal and text-based reading situation. The part of the

learner's speech is recorded and transcribed for analysis.

1.3 Analyzed Results

1.3.1 Listening

Even though he distinguishes each segment very well while he is listening to minimal pairs, he needs some improvement of his suprasegmental areas. The test scores of each part are as follows: part 1- sounds (8/10), part 2-syllable numbers (8/10), part 3-word stress (7/10), part 4-contractions/reductions (6/20), part 5- focus: identification (5/10), part 6- focus: meaning (20/20), and part 7- thought groups (14/20). Considering the result of his pre-test, he is not good at noticing contractions/reductions, catching emphasized word in each sentence and getting thought groups whereas he can differentiate well enough each sound and syllable, and notice the most stressed syllable of each word.

1.3.2 Speaking

Generally, he pronounces each syllable very accurately and pauses between every word without using pitch, intonation, and emphasis patterns for fluent connected speech, so that the rate of reading is quite slow. In addition to the suprasegmental problem, he has some repeated segmental problems that are enumerated below.

First, when consonant clusters come, he usually inserts /ə/ vowel between C (consonant) and C such as Wednesday /wɛnzədey/, film /fɪləm/ and apparently /əpɛrəntəli/. Second, he tends to release final consonant stops /d/ and /t/ and insert /u/ after the sounds. For example, he pronounces /hɛlpə/ instead of /hɛlp/. Even after the other syllable final consonant clusters, he inserts /u/ such as have /hævə/ and ninth /naynθə/. Third, when affricates come as coda, he inserts /i/ after them; he pronounces /wɪtʃi/ and /ritʃi/ rather than /wɪtʃ/ and /ritʃ/. Fourth, he pronounces voiced alveolar fricative /z/ close to voiceless /s/ rather than /z/, and sometimes the /v/ sound becomes devoiced.

Fifth, he sometimes omits /r/ of /r/-included consonant clusters such as return /rɪtən/ instead of /rɪtərn/, already /əlɛdi/ instead of /əlrɛdi/. Sixth, he is likely to coalesce /ɔ/, /ʌ/, and /a/ into /o/. For example, he pronounces /olsow/ and /oktəbər/ instead of /ɔlsow/ and /aktəbər/. While the problems above constantly happen, there are some inconsistent problems, which even seem like mistakes that do not occur in any certain position. There are some mixed uses of /f/ vs /p/, /o/ vs /ow/, /s/ vs /ʃ/, /v/ vs /b/ and /r/ vs /l/. Also, he sometimes deletes one sound, especially grammatical morphemes like /s/, /z/ and /d/.

On the basis of the results, the teacher can make general guidelines for pronunciation tutoring. First, he needs to practice and deliver more accurately the segmental sounds that he sometimes mispronounces. Second, he should practice how to pronounce consonant clusters and apply them into pronouncing syllables. Lastly, he should practice using word stresses in a sentence, using pitch, intonation, emphasis patterns, and linking them in connected speech. Before designing lesson plans, contrastive analysis between Korean and English pronunciation needs to be done for discriminating the learner's own problems with the common problems of most Korean learners.

2. Common Problems of Korean Learners

Structural linguists in the 1950s and 1960s assumed that we could predict the errors that learners make by identifying the linguistic differences between their native language and the target language. The underlying assumption of this *contrastive analysis* (CA) (Lado, 1957) was that errors occurred primarily as a result of interference when the learner transferred the native language 'habits' into the L2 (Ellis, 1994). Even though *error analysis* developed in the 1970s, to which were attributed all possible sources such as intralingual factors, developmental factors, contextual factors as well as interlingual sources (Brown, 2000), CA was successful especially more in phonology than in other areas of language.

Furthermore, for EFL situations like Korea where target learners speak the same one native language, CA gives helpful guidance to set a pronunciation curriculum by predicting errors from L1 interference. Accordingly, using contrastive analysis, this part provides information on predictable difficulties that Korean learners will have in common when they acquire English pronunciation. The following contents are compiled from some research results of interlanguage phonology of Korean learners of English (Avery and Ehrlich, 1992; Kim, 1999; Power, 2003).

2.1 Consonants

2.1.1 /p/ vs /f/ and /b/ vs /v/

Since Koreans do not have the sounds /f/ and /v/, Korean speakers tend to substitute /p/ and /b/ interchangeably (Avery and Ehrlich, 1992). For example, they sometimes replace 'five' /faɪv/ and 'vase' /vɛɪs/ with /paɪv/ and /bɛɪs/ respectively.

2.1.2 voicing of fricatives (/v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/)

Since the Korean language does not have the voiced fricatives, Koreans tend to make the sounds voiceless, especially when articulating /z/ sound. They hardly pronounce /z/ right, instead they make similar sounds like 'ㅈ' of Korean to make that sound; that is they tend to replace /zuw/ with /z (devoiced) uw/.

2.1.3 voicing of stops (/p, t, k/ vs /b, d, g/)

The absence of voiced stops in Korean also makes it difficult for learners to perceive and produce the difference between voiced and voiceless stops in non-initial position. However, Korean has aspirated and unaspirated voiceless stops, so they can make the voiced/voiceless stop distinction in initial position. For example, they usually do not discriminate the different length between /b/ and /p/ when they come as coda such as 'cab' /kæb/ and 'cap' /kæp/.

2.1.4 allophones of voiceless stops

Since the allophones of voiceless stops in English are different phonemes in Korean, Korean learners have difficulty in perceiving and producing positional variations (allophones like aspirated, unaspirated, and unreleased sounds) of each voiceless stop (/p, t, k/) of English. For example, they tend to pronounce /p/, /p^h/, and /p'/ as a unitary sound /p/, and consider /p^h/ and /p'/ as different phonemes from /p/.

2.1.5 /s^h/ and /ʃ/

Since /s^h/ and /ʃ/ are the allophones of the phoneme /s/ (ㅅ) in Korean, Korean learners have difficulty in discriminating /s/ and /ʃ/ of English and may sound the same (Avery and Ehrlich, 1992). For example, novice level learners, especially, tend to pronounce 'ship' /ʃɪp/ as /sɪp/.

2.1.6 /l/ and /r/

Korean students tend to substitute /l/ for /r/ in initial position. They may substitute what sounds like an /r/ or a flap /ɾ/ for /l/ between vowels (Avery and Ehrlich, 1992). For example, light /laɪt/ is pronounced as /raɪt/, and delight /dilaɪt/ as /diɾaɪt/.

2.1.7 /θ/ and /ð/

Some Korean learners substitute aspirated /t/ for /θ/ and unaspirated /t/ for /ð/, while others make those sounds well.

2.1.8 palatals (/ʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʧ/ and /ʤ/)

In words ending with palatals, Korean speakers tend to insert a high front vowel /i/ after the sounds. For example, church is pronounced /ʧərʧi/ instead of / ʧərʧ/.

2.1.9 Nasalization

Korean speakers tend to change /p, t, k/ preceding a nasal /m, n, ŋ/ into its homorganic nasal sound. For example, *nickname* is pronounced

as /nɪŋneym/ instead of /nɪkneym/. Also a liquid /l/ following nasal sound tends to be changed into /n/; for example, *homeless* is pronounced /howmnɪs/ instead of /howmlɪs/.

2.1.10 /ɯ/ – insertion

Korean has its own phonotactic constraints and the generally classified possible phonotactics are CV, and CVC. Therefore, Korean cannot pronounce more than two consonants in sequence either in syllable-initial or in syllable-final positions. Therefore, they tend to insert /ɯ/ (short /u/ vowel) between consonants or after the double consonants occurred in word final position. For example, they may pronounce *street* as /sɯtɯriytɯ/ instead of /striyt/ and *help* as /hɛlpɯ/ instead of /hɛlp/.

2.2 Vowels

2.2.1 tense vs lax vowels

The distinction between tense and lax vowels does not exist in Korean because all Korean vowels are tense vowels. However, since Korean vowels are classified into long or short vowels, which may cause contrastive distinction in some words, Korean speakers usually produce a long vowel sound for the tense vowels and a short vowel sound for the lax vowels when pronouncing English.

2.2.2 /ɛ/ vs /æ/, /ɔ/ vs /o/ and /ʌ/ vs /a/

These three sets of vowel sounds are difficult for the Korean speaker to distinguish because there is no distinction between each of the pair in Korean.

2.3 Suprasegmental Features

Korean prosody is more monotonous than English because Korean has

syllable-timed rhythm while English has stress-timed rhythm. English has more complex sentence stress rules or adjustments in connected speech, which sometimes influences the changes of meaning. Basic intonation patterns are also more complex in English than in Korean. For example, English has 2-3-1 intonation contours in wh-questions while yes-no questions with question word order have 2-3-(3) contour. On the other hand, Korean has 2-3 intonation contours in both question forms. The effect of the prominence and intonation in discourse is more powerful in English than in Korean. Accordingly, this suprasegmental part is required to be taught in a systematic way from the beginning of the instruction. Korean learners have problems in perceiving and producing stress-timed rhythm, English characteristic intonation patterns, and word/sentence stresses.

3. Syllabus Design

3.1 Background of Developing the Syllabus

In order to provide the most effective tutoring in a short given time, only some teaching points among many pronunciation problems mentioned above are selected based on the target learner's need and the teacher's teaching philosophy.

3.1.1 The Learner's need

He wants to produce more natural sounding and fluent pronunciation instead of making individual sounds clearly. When the teacher tells him about the common pronunciation problems of Korean learners, he says that he seems to know already how to pronounce isolated sounds in spite of making errors sometimes, thus he wants to practice linking, intonation and sentence stress rather than practicing segments.

3.1.2 The Teacher's View of Learning Pronunciation

In order for learners to acquire intelligible pronunciation, the English curriculum should deal with both listening and speaking practices quite evenly because speaking and listening correlate with each other; that is, practicing speaking enhances listening comprehension, and vice versa. This is really true of learning segmental features of English because they are basic forms that are required to achieve successful communication. However, considering the English learning situation in Korea (EFL), listening comprehension is more important in pronunciation than speaking, especially at the suprasegmental level. It seems that production-focused teaching is not effective in that Korean learners do not have many chances to speak English with native speakers outside of class and it is very hard to practice suprasegmental features that they have learned in authentic situations. In addition, the mistakes in production are less dangerous than those in comprehension. Even though they make pronunciation mistakes due to prosody in speaking, native interlocutors can understand what they mean through context or other situational clues in many cases. However, comprehensive mistakes block communication more severely and bring misunderstanding, especially when their proficiency level is not so high. Therefore, in teaching suprasegmental features, the author supposes that listening comprehension should be emphasized more than speaking production even though both should be dealt with in class.

3.1.3 Target Teaching Points

Based on the learners' problems analyzed above and the learners' needs, this curriculum aims at practicing 1) stress-timed rhythm to correct the learner's habit of inserting /ɯ/ or /i/ between consonants; 2) reduction/contraction; and 3) catching emphasized word in each sentence. Both listening and speaking activities are used in the lessons, but mostly listening-focused teaching is developed. Therefore, the ultimate goal of the curriculum is set to improve listening

comprehension more than speaking when accomplishing the three designated points mentioned above. The total allotted time for teaching is eight hours in four periods: two hours for one period. The target contents of each period are as follows: In the first period, the learner is required to practice "syllable-timed rhythm" and "usual English sentence stress". After "emphasis" is focused on in the second period, "reduction/contraction" is dealt with in the third- and the fourth periods.

3.2 Lesson Plans

In developing procedures of each lesson, some reasons are backed up. In most lessons, communicative activities and further tasks are preceded by controlled /guided activities because they make the learner ready to get authentic input by building up background knowledge and skills.

In the first period, a variety of materials are used for practicing sentence stresses, such as limericks, nursery rhymes, poems and TV commercials. Limericks and nursery rhymes are fun and have predictable stress patterns, which makes them useful for practicing sentence stress. Clapping to the rhythm of the limericks and nursery rhymes helps the learner comprehend and pronounce stressed and unstressed syllables. Poetry is also an interesting way to practice rhythm as well as other features like linking or reduction. A website provides audio recordings of poets reading their own poems, which make them a good resource in that it can reflect the poet's intention in writing the poem, and learners have chances to hear a variety of authentic voices. TV commercials are also interesting materials because they have appealing contexts for most learners. They are usually recorded by voice actors, so they sound clear. Also, since commercials are shorter authentic materials with specific messages, learners can practice sentence stress and rhythm through a whole story. After listening and practicing with the two commercials, the learner is required to do a communicative task with his partner (the teacher), which is 'making

your own commercial'. By using the similar format of the commercials given, the learner will use similar rhythm and sentence stress to make his own commercial appealing. Finally, the learner is given an assignment of writing a journal after reviewing, because having reflection time is very important to learn English. Also the reason why the learner is asked to write a journal in Korean is to reduce the extra burden of studying English other than the task at hand; otherwise, the learner will lose his interest in pronunciation.

The other three lessons are built on the same basis as the first one in most parts, so that only some different activities need to be mentioned. In the second period, the information gap activity is given because the learner naturally can use emphasis patterns while he communicates with his partner to solve the task. In order to build up the skill further, the learner is required to do some activities at two websites. Through these activities, the learner can comprehend where, when, why, and how to use emphasis appropriately. For the final activity, two scenes from the sitcom 'Friends' are chosen because through them, the learner can check how emphasis is used in real authentic conversations. Furthermore, the sitcom gives tips on communicative strategies in conversation, cultural information as well as suprasegmental resources. In the third period, the learner gets a broad outline of reduced/contracted form usage through the song. The other activities provided enable the learner to get accustomed gradually to forms ranging from isolated sentences to extended dialogues. As homework, the learner is required to visit a listening quiz website for self-study in order to let the learner know that he can use a lot of useful resources through the Internet and do self-checking of how much his listening ability has improved through the lessons that focus on suprasegmental features. In the last period, some materials including pop song are provided for further reduction/contraction practices. Songs are very good learning materials for increasing motivation. Also, since texts are carried to a rhythm through a song, it is helpful for practicing reduction/contraction

patterns, as well as rhythm. As a final activity, the learner listens to a message recorded on an answering machine and creates his own afterwards. These listening texts are familiar to many people, and the given message is supposed to be for the speaker's friend, so that reduction/contraction forms are used a lot in such a casual talk. Also, through the process of creating his own message, he can practice to pronounce reduction/contraction forms by recording his own speech and listening to it.

3.2.1 The First Period

Objectives :

By the end of the lesson, the learner will be able to

1) understand and produce American English syllabification systems;
2) count and pronounce consonant clusters appropriately;
3) compare stress-timed rhythm of English to syllable-timed rhythm of Korean; and
4) comprehend and produce rhythm and sentence stress through limericks, nursery rhymes, poetry and TV commercials.

Procedures :

Activities	Materials	Sources	Time
1. Do controlled and guided activities for noticing syllables	handout #1 listening tape cassette player & recorder	*Clear Speech* (Gilbert, 1993): from units 1 and 9	20 min

(Procedures continued)

2. Listen to some limericks & nursery rhymes and practice	handout #2 listening tape cassette player & recorder	*Clear Speech* (1993): from units 9 and 12 Loony Limericks (http://home.earthlink.net/~kristenaa/) Nursery Rhymes (http://www.zelo.com/family/nursery/)	30 min
3. Visit poetry website and let the student choose whatever he wants to read; listen and read loud.	computer with headset and access to internet	http://www.poets.org	30 min
4. Watch two TV commercials and catch the stressed words (key words); make his own commercial using the similar format of the commercials given.	handout #3 computer with headset and access to Internet	http://www.gohackers.com (go to the part for learning English with TV commercials)	40 min
5. Homework : a. review and self-monitor b. write a journal in Korean (about what you learned; what part has been improved; what part is still difficult, etc.)			

3.2.2 The Second Period

Objectives :

By the end of the lesson, the learner will be able to

1) classify content words and function words in a sentence;

2) comprehend emphasized (strongly stressed) words within a thought group through authentic conversation ('Friends' sitcom) as well as isolated sentences; and

3) communicate with other people effectively by using emphasis pattern in solving information gap activity.

Procedures :

Activities	Materials	Sources	Time
1. Do controlled and guided activities for noticing emphasized (strongly stressed) words within a thought group	handout #1 listening tape cassette player & recorder	Clear Speech (1993): from units 11 & 12, Listen for it (1995): from units 3, 7, 10, and 17	20 min
2. Do communicative activity; information gap activity	handout #2	Created form	10 min
3. Visit 'emphasis' website; listen and practice the patterns	computer with headset and access to internet	http://grove.ufl.edu/~klilj/pron/emp/	20 min
4. Visit 'emphasis quiz' website; listen and solve the questions about noticing emphasized words	computer with headset and access to internet	1) http://heinle.com/esld/templates/resources/083840016_tapestry_ls2/quiz/chap3/chap3.html 2)http://heinle.com/esld/templates/resources/0838400167_tapestry_ls2/quiz/cha7/chap7.html	20 min

(Procedures continued)

5. Watch two scenes from the TV sitcom 'Friends'; 1) listen and grasp the general meaning, 2) fill in the blanks, 3) on the script, mark the emphasized words, and 3) practice the dialogue with a partner (teacher)	Handout #3 and #4 'Friends' DVD, computer & headset	Created forms based on the 'Friends' DVD, which serves caption	50 min
6. Homework : a. review and self-monitor b. write a journal in Korean (same form as that of the first period)			

3.2.3 The Third Period

Objectives :

By the end of the lesson, the learner will be able to

1) discriminate strong forms and weak forms of function words;
2) recognize what reduced forms are commonly used in conversations; and
3) comprehend and practice reduced forms through songs and poems.

Procedures :

Activities	Materials	Sources	Time
1. Listen to a song; 1) fill in the blanks by focusing on reduced/contracted forms, 2) find which words are reduced and guess the reason, and 3) sing a song	handout #1 cassette player & CD	Song lyrics 'A whole new world'	35 min

(Procedures continued)

2. (1) Do "can vs. can't" activity; 1) controlled and guided listening, 2) pair practicing, and 3) recording a dialogue and monitoring (2) Do other contraction/reduction activities	handout #2, 3 listening tape cassette player & recorder	Clear Speech (1993): from units 9 and 12 Listen for it (1995): from unit 15 SMU-TESOL methodology course pack	30 min
3. Read loud 1) strong forms vs. weak forms of function words, and 2) straightforward reductions on a list	handout #4 (list)	Teaching pronunciation (2003): from chapter 7.	10 min
4. Visit a website for practicing reductions/ contractions; 1) learning each pattern, 2) practicing with songs or narrative poems, and 3) solving reduction quiz.	computer with headset and access to internet	http://eleaston.com/aap/v/red-pattern.html	45 min
5. Homework : a. review and self-monitor b. write a brief journal in Korean c. visit a listening website http://www.esl-lab.com and choose one listening quiz and solve it from pre-listening to post-listening activities.			

3.2.4 The Fourth Period

Objectives :

By the end of the lesson, the learner will be able to

1) firmly comprehend reduction/contraction forms through various

materials such as authentic conversations and pop songs;

2)produce some reduction/contraction forms in a casual conversation; and

3) listen to and leave a telephone message using reduction/contraction patterns.

Procedures :

Activities	Materials	Sources	Time
1. Check homework together by talking about the difficulties of the listening quiz; and do another listening activity which is in a little bit higher level category than the homework	computer with headset and access to Internet	http://www.esl-lab.com	30 min
2. Review 'reduction' pattern by visiting 'reduction' website; listen and practice the patterns	computer with headset and access to Internet	http://grove.ufl.edu/~klilj/pron/red/	20 min
3. Listen to a song; 1) fill in the blanks, 2) find which words are reduced, and sing a song by focusing on reduced/ contracted forms	handout #1, cassette player, and CD	Song lyrics to 'You'll be in my heart'	30 min

(Procedures continued)

4. Listen to a message recorded in an answering machine; and create own massage to leave on the answering machine.	handout #2, listening tape, cassette player, and recorder	Recorded material from Randall's ESL Cyber listening lab	30 min
5. Do post listening and speaking test, which is in the same format as the pre – test; discuss the whole lessons	test sheet	Clear speech (1993): clear listening/ speaking test, two reading texts used for pre-test	10 min

3.3 Sample Materials

3.3.1 Handout #2 (for the first period)

♠ **Using poetic conventions, mark stressed elements (/) and unstressed elements (∪) within a rhythmic foot on each limerick or nursery rhyme, and practice.**

Example (from Celce-Murcia, 2003)

Mary, Mary	/∪/∪
Quite contrary	/∪/∪
How does your garden grow?	/∪∪/∪/
With silver bells,	∪/∪/
And cockle shells,	∪/∪/
And pretty maids all in a row.	∪/∪∪/∪∪/

1. There once was a man from Peru,
   Who dreamed of eating his shoe,
   he awoke with a fright,
   in the middle of the night,
   and found that his dream had come true! (by Laura Black)

2. A mouse in her room woke Miss Doud
   Who was frightened and screamed very loud
   Then a happy thought hit her
   To scare off the critter
   She sat up in bed and just meowed (by Lorna)

3.3.2 Handout #3 (for the first period)

♠ **Watch a TV commercial and answer the following questions.**

1. Don't look at the script below. Just watch the commercial. What do you think this commercial is for?

A: _____

2. Write down the words you can hear from the commercial.

3. This is the script of the commercial. Circle the stressed syllables.

On note : Audition 4A Man 1 : broken man... Man 2 : I think your buzzer is broken. Band : No, it works. We are just looking for guys who are committed.

4. With your partner, create your own commercial script following the similar format of the two commercials you watched and record it.

3.3.3 Handout #2 (for the second period)

Information Gap activity

Student A

Baker Street					
	No.12	No.14	No.16	No.18	No.20
Name		Miss Dudd			Mr. Abraham
Marital Status	married		Bachelor		widower
Pet		a dog		no pet	
Book	thrillers		historical novels	Charles Dickens' novel	
Drink	wine	beer			beer

Student B

Baker Street					
	No.12	No.14	No.16	No.18	No.20
Name	Mrs. Evans		Mr. Charles	Mrs. Burt	
Marital Status		spinster		divorced	
Pet	a tortoise & a rabbit		a canary		a cat
Book		love stories			doesn't like reading
Drink			whisky	coffee	

3.3.4 Handout #2 (for the third period)

♠ **Listen to the dialogue and fill in the blanks with 'can' or 'can't'**

Mom : Sweetie, I'm going to go pick up the snacks for the party. How many people are coming?

Daughter : Kate said she _____ make it, but her boyfriend _____ because he has to work. Do you want to make a list?

Mom : Yeah. Okay, so Kate's coming. Who else?

Daughter : Brad and Janice are coming, I think.

Mom : Brad. Janice.

Daughter : And Lisa said she thinks she _____ come. She wants to know if she _____ bring her friend Ann.

Mom : Ann West? I don't like that girl. Last time I caught her smoking out on the back porch!

Daughter : Come on, Mom. I'll tell her she _____ smoke.

Mom : Alright. Anyone else?

Daughter : Yeah, this girl in my class, Heather. I think that's it. How many is that?

Mom : What about Chuck?

Daughter : He said he _____ come. I think he has a test or something. How many is it?

Mom : Eight - Kate, Brad, Janice, Lisa, Ann, Heather, you and me. Alright, I'll be back in an hour.

Daughter : Uh, Mom?

Mom : Mm-hmm?

Daughter : You _____ come. You're not invited.

♠ **Practice the dialogue with your partner, and record it. Then, listen to your recorded dialogue and discuss the result with each other.**

4. Assessment Report

4.1 The Teacher's Evaluation of Teaching

The whole class consisted of four periods, which took two hours each. During the whole eight hours, planned materials and contents were all dealt with in class; in addition, the learner spent at least six hours on reviewing and practicing the target contents at home. Overall, the tutoring seemed to be successful because each lesson was prepared quite cautiously and the learner had enough motivation to improve his pronunciation. The learner was very helpful and enjoyed most of the activities. Even though the amount of target contents was somewhat too much to be covered within eight hours, the learner put in extra effort to achieve the target objectives even at home.

In most periods, *Clear Speech* (Gilbert, 1993) was used for the first activity by covering some easy and useful tasks, which was helpful for the learner to grasp the general objectives of each class and to find out about his problems. In the first period, using limericks and nursery rhymes seemed to be so effective that the learner seemed to get accustomed to using stress-timed rhythm gradually. However, using poetry was not so successful even though he liked to visit the website and choose a poem on his own, because the recorded voice by the poet was not so clear and the content was quite difficult for the learner. He sometimes seemed to have difficulty in understanding the message of some part of each poem. TV commercials, which were short, authentic, and exciting, were really good resources to practice listening to stressed syllables. Likewise, the sitcom and the pop songs used in the other lessons were also interesting and helpful for learning the target suprasegmental features.

From the second to the fourth periods, some websites for learning pronunciation were added to practice using emphasis, reduction and contraction. They were all well designed and provided clear

explanations. Also, some communicative activities were successful such as creating his own commercial script, information gap activity, and making his own message for recording on the telephone answering machine. While teaching, the audio recording method was used in every class because listening to one's own pronunciation is a very important feedback to do self-correction. It was very effective, and he usually found his problems before the teacher pointed out the mistakes. Furthermore, as a classroom language, both English and Korean were used in order to reduce the extra burden of using English except for improving pronunciation and listening ability, which is what was agreed on before the start of the tutorial.

For post-tests, he was given the same format as those used for pre-tests, which are clear listening and speaking tests from Clear Speech (Gilbert, 1993) and two other reading texts. Even though both pre- and post-tests are exactly the same, the pre-test did not seem to affect the post-test score. The way of testing seemed to be reliable in that the pre-test was taken about two months ago, and the student was not told the answers even after the pre-test. The listening test scores of each part are as follows: part 1-sounds (8/10), part 2- syllable numbers (9/10), part 3-word stress (8/10), part 4- contractions/reductions (12/20), part 5- focus: identification (7/10), part 6- focus: meaning (20/20) and part 7- thought groups (14/20). Compared to the pre-test scores mentioned in part I, the contractions/reductions part was much improved, and in other parts like sounds, syllable numbers, and word stress he showed noticeable improvement. Moreover, there were no parts that got lower scores than those in the pre-test.

With regards to the speaking test, he used more natural rhythms and stresses than before, so that his reading speed got a little faster. However, in spite of all these advantages, there was one negative effect, that is, he used reduced or contracted expressions like 'wanna' and 'gonna' so consciously and more frequently, which made his speech sound a little strange.

The whole project (four parts) was in fact quite challenging, but it was very helpful for the tutor to be a better English teacher. To design a lesson, teachers should analyze the target students' errors first and consider theirs needs as a very important factor. Also, while preparing teaching materials and activities, teachers should reflect on learners' opinions at some point. Once a learner participates in the process of the whole lesson, it triggers them to be more motivated in learning. Next, there exist a lot of good resources that can be accessed for free and conveniently through the Internet. Rather than teaching some isolated parts of pronunciation, sometimes it would be more helpful for the learners to be introduced to some useful websites and to do self-studying. Lastly, teachers should help the learners to realize that it takes much time and effort to master a foreign language, thus learning is not only the teacher's job in school but the learner's job, too. The reason this teaching program was very successful is not only because of a well-designed lesson but also because of a highly motivated student.

4.2 The Learner's Evaluation of the Lessons

(This part was a summary and translation of the learner's journal entries written in Korean during the period of the tutorial.)

Above all, I am happy because I could find my pronunciation problems through these lessons. I also realized specific things I needed to improve my English pronunciation further. I have never learned about suprasegmental features of English pronunciation in class before. Actually, even though I thought I could pronounce each English sound as accurately as native speakers, I could not read or speak fluently especially in case of extended texts. Before this project, I did not know the exact nature of my problems. '*Clear Speech*' was really helpful for me to find my specific errors and practice correcting them. Also, all the other activities were so effective for me to improve my listening ability as well as my pronunciation. The websites I visited are all really nice,

and I realized that I could practice pronunciation for free with just a computer. Especially, the 'emphasis' part was the most interesting among all the websites. Also, commercials, sitcom, and pop songs are all interesting and helpful for me to improve my English. Working with sitcoms, I could learn some cultural points that are different from those of Korea. In almost every class, I was asked to record what I practice on the audio recorder. At first, I did not like this way because I thought it would be more useful if the teacher corrected my errors whenever they occurred. However, as time went by, I got to like that way so much because I could directly check for myself how my pronunciation was improving. Overall, this program was really helpful and interesting, and it made me decide to study English pronunciation and listening more. There exist many good materials around me that are accessible whenever and wherever I want to use them.

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Internet Sources for Teaching Materials

http://eleaston.com/pronunciation

http://www.soundsofenglish.org

http://grove.ufl.edu/~klilj/pron

http://www.esl-lab.com

http://www.poets.org

http://www.gohackers.com

http://home.earthlink.net/~kristenaa

http://www.zelo.com/family/nursery

The Effect of Emotionally Charged Input on Memory Formation

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A connection has been established between emotionally-charged input and a corresponding change in brain processing and memory encoding. This emotionally-related memory enhancement has been observed using several mediums that include both audio-video and written materials. As memory formation and recall are fundamental processes involved in second language learning, the concept of enhancing memory processes through emotionally-charged input may have practical applications in the field of TESOL and second language acquisition in general. Specifically, it is important to determine how the recollection and use of linguistic elements found in emotionally-charged input compares to the recollection and use of linguistic forms embedded in emotionally neutral input. If a correlation is found between emotional elements of a text and the subsequent recollection and more accurate use of linguistic forms on the part of second language learners, it may have important implications for how language learning material might be developed in the future.

1. Introduction

A connection has been established between emotionally-charged input and a corresponding change in brain processing and memory encoding (Heuer and Reisberg, 1990; Cahill et. al., 1994; Lang et al., 1996). This is clearly demonstrated by enhanced explicit memories. Enhanced explicit memories, or "flashbulb memories," are especially vivid or crisp

memories related to emotionally-charged events (Brown and Kulik, 1977). Dolan (2002) gives the example of the Challenger shuttle disaster as an example of a flashbulb memory that is commonly remembered more clearly and vividly than non-emotionally charged memories. More recent examples may include the death of Princess Diana and the September 11th terrorist attacks in New York City and Washington. Rugg (1998) begins to explain this phenomenon by stating that all events are not equal as they differ in how they are initially encoded into memory. This difference in initial memory encoding is thought to be related to the difference in memory strength and detail (Dolan, 2002). Some researchers have stated that the effect goes beyond simple memory encoding as it also affects related processes such as attention, capacity, and retrieval (Lang et al., 1996). Different mediums have been used to test the effect of emotionally charged input on memory formation. While Lang et al. (1996) based their study on the effect of negative video, Heuer and Reisberg (1990) and Cahill et al. (1994) studied enhanced memory encoding caused by emotionally-charged written text. Furthermore, Cahill and his colleagues not only demonstrated a link between emotions and memory encoding, they also strengthened scientific support for the connection by developing a method of arresting memory enhancement through the administering of adrenaline blockade (Cahill et al., 1994).

If, as these studies suggest, memory-related processes are enhanced by emotionally-charged elements embedded within input, this concept may have important implications in the study of bilingualism, the field of TESOL, and subsequent language acquisition in general. This is particularly true in the area of curriculum and material development as a link between emotionally charged input and learning can be exploited to maximize the potential effectiveness of classroom material on student learning. This paper will introduce important concepts related to the effect of emotionally-charged input on memory-related processes as well as attempt to isolate and briefly describe the physical and psychological factors that contribute to this phenomenon. The guiding purpose of this

work is to link advances in cognitive science with the practical application of theories in the field of bilingualism and subsequent language teaching and learning.

2. Memory

Anderson (1995) defines memory as "the relatively permanent trace of the experience that underlies learning" (p. 420). Although this dictionary type definition provides a sound, basic description, it fails to demonstrate the complexity that surrounds the concept of memory. Most notably, it does not seem to address the possible differences that may exist between the actual event and the memory trace stored in the brain. Schacter (1996) addresses this issue as he describes memories as records of how we experience events, not as replicas of the events themselves. This is critical because, as he explains, "Experiences are encoded by brain networks whose connections have already been shaped by previous encounters with the world" (Schacter, 1996; p. 6). This preexisting knowledge has a strong influence on how memories are encoded and stored, thereby contributing to the "nature, texture, and quality" of what we recall about a particular moment (Schacter, 1996; p 6).

Research in this area has required that the general concept of memory be broken down into more specific elements for the purpose of study and observation. Several memory-related distinctions have been created to include type of memory and duration of storage. Two systems have been proposed to represent types of memory; episodic memory, our personal memory system, and semantic memory, which is our store of general knowledge (Tulving, 1985). Tulving (1985) marks the distinction between these two systems as one of memory and one of knowledge. Episodic memory contains autobiographical information while semantic memory contains general information such as facts, words, and language (Terry, 2000). In addition to the type of memory, a distinction has also been made with regards to time, or duration, of storage. These elements

include short-term memory, long-term memory, and more recently, working memory (Anderson, 1995).

2.1 Short-Term and Long-Term Memory

The concept of memory is traditionally broken down into several time-based elements with short term and long term memory being the most common. Short term memory is described by Terry (2000) as a memory store that is limited in both its capacity and duration. He later refers to it as "our mental blackboard: a temporary, reusable workspace in the mind used for comprehension, reasoning, and planning" (Terry, 2000; p. 231). In contrast, long term memory is more durable, more permanent, and is virtually limitless in size (Terry, 2000). Unlike the more permanent long term memory, short term memory estimates commonly range in the area of five to fifteen seconds (Klein, 2000). Furthermore, items in this memory store can be "bumped out" by new information entering the short term memory (Klein, 2000; p. 423).

2.2 Working Memory

Short term memory has been expanded in some circles into the concept of working memory. Although underlying features such as limited capacity and time limits for storage remain the same, working memory breaks short term memory down into several sub-categories (Baddeley, 1986). The sub-categories include one concerned with verbal and acoustic information, the phonological loop, a second, the visuospatial sketchpad as its visual equivalent, and a third described as an attentionally-limited control system, the central executive (Baddeley, 1986).

3. Memory Encoding

Memory encoding is a term that describes the processes that mediate between the experience of an event and the formation of a memory of that experience (Rugg, 1998).

More recently proposed theories of memory processing have benefited from both theoretical and technical advances in cognitive science. Ratey (2001) describes Long-Term Potentiation, or LTP, as "the most recent and most powerful explanation for how memories become encoded." Long-Term Potentiation (Bliss and Lomo, 1973) is a neurologically based theory that proposes that new experiences cause neuronal firing across some synapses to strengthen while others weaken. The pattern represents the initial encoding of the experience as a memory. Further firings of the neuronal pathway will cause the pathway to strengthen, thereby making it easier for further messages to move along the same path (Ratey, 2001). Eventually, an entire network develops and the more it is strengthened, the more permanent the new memory becomes. Although typically associated with hippocampal learning, LTP is also evident in many other parts of the brain (Anderson, 1995).

3.1 The Physical Brain and Memory Encoding

From a neurological perspective, memory encoding is a complex process that involves many different structures of the brain (Klein, 2002). For example, the medial temporal lobe, containing such structures as the hippocampus, is involved in the eventual storing of experiences in memory (Klein, 2002). Even within the medial temporal lobe, there are individual systems that operate semi-independently in the process of encoding memory. Support for this comes from Schacter and Wagner (1999) which states that the timing of the contributions of two regions is staggered such that encoding activity in the hippocampus follows encoding activity in the anterior medial temporal lobe. This demonstrates that different structures within the brain work in concert with regards to timing and processing. In addition to the various organs involved in encoding memory within the medial temporal lobe, connections, such as those from the anterior cingulate cortex to the prefrontal cortex, serve to link memory-related processing to different areas and functions of the brain (Goldberg, 2001).

3.1.1 Neurons and the Chemical Link

Brain functions, regardless of strength or intensity, require that chemical and electronic signals be sent and received across a spectrum of brain areas and connections (Klein, 2000). Mental processing and memory construction rely on chemical and electronic communication at the neuronal level. Neurons, the primary building blocks of the central nervous system, are nerve cells that allow for this complex exchange of information (Zilmer and Spears, 2001). As stated by Slaughter, the creation and maintenance of permanent memories involve a dynamic process involving electrical processes, neuro-chemical processes, or both to prime neurons for memory consolidation (Slaughter, 2002). Cahill et al. (1994) focuses on the change in the brain's chemical balance in relation to memory strength, particularly the increase in plasma adrenaline and noradrenaline that accompanies the activation of the sympathetic nervous system following highly emotional experiences.

Cahill and his colleagues strengthened scientific support for the theory that an increase in adrenaline strengthens memory encoding by developing a method of arresting memory enhancement through the administering of adrenaline blockade (Cahill et. al., 1994). The results of this study provide definitive support for earlier theories suggesting enhanced memory is, at least partially, a result of chemical changes in the brain occurring as a reaction to emotional elements embedded within input and provides neurologically based support for earlier studies on emotionally enhanced memory (see Heuer and Reisberg, 1990).

3.1.2 The Limbic System

The Limbic System is a somewhat dated and controversial term used to describe several structures thought to be closely associated with emotion and memory construction. This system contains the amygdala, the hippocampus, and the cingulate cortex (Goldberg, 2001). Both Ledoux (1998) and Damasio (1994, 2003) pay a great deal of attention to the role of the amygdala and hippocampus in processing of emotions and

memory. Ledoux describes the amygdala as a regulator for interactions with the environment that are directly related to survival (Ledoux, 1998). He points out that the amygdala is responsible for rapid, precognitive, affective assessment (Ledoux, 1998). It is this precognitive assessment, also a focus of several of Damasio's theories (1994, 2003), that provides the force behind the relative strength of emotions over cognition. One explanation for the strong effects of emotion on cognitive processes, such as memory, focuses on the amygdala from an evolutionary point of view. Ledoux (1998) notes that at this point on the evolutionary history of the brain, the amount of connections from the amygdala to the cortex, responsible for higher functions such as more thorough threat assessment, still greatly outnumber the pathways from the cortex to the amygdala.

Although a feedback loop does exist from the cortex to the amygdala, the connections lack the number and strength of those sending survival-based messages from the amygdala (Ledoux, 1998). This imbalance may not only explain why certain fears cannot be subdued through rationalization alone, it also adds neurological support for the impact of emotion and emotionally-charged input on memory and other forms of cognitive processing.

3.1.3 Emotional Tagging

The process in which input is coded with regards to emotion and how it is to be processed in follow-on operations has been termed emotional tagging by Ratey (2001). Ratey (2001) discusses a link between the emotional impact of the input, attention given to the stimulus, and the process of encoding that serves to store the information in the brain's memory store. The strong effects of emotion and emotional tagging have been shown capable of overcoming certain deficits in the brain's memory system. For example, enhanced memory for emotional items has also been reported in amnesiacs, who despite profound deficits in episodic memory, show normal memory enhancement for emotional material when tested by recognition (Dolan, 2002). LeDoux (1998) cites a historical case

report that supports separate processing for declarative and emotional information. It is the story of a female patient with brain damage who had apparently lost the ability to create new memories. When the patient returned to a room within minutes after leaving it, she would not remember who was in the room. Interestingly, after a doctor pricked her with a hidden pin while shaking hands, she refused to shake his hand the next time. She still did not remember him or have a conscious recollection of the reason she would not shake hands, but her brain had apparently stored the pinprick in her subconscious and used this memory to prevent a recurrence (LeDoux, 1998). This case demonstrates the complexity of emotionally-related memory encoding and provides interesting data for the development of future theories of processing.

4. Retrieval

The effect of emotion on memory encoding, as seen in flashbulb memories, is just one of the many variables involved in memory encoding. Tulving (1983) proposed the Encoding Specificity Principle, which states that not only do many factors surrounding an event affect encoding, retrieval of a memory is dependent on retrieval cues that match the original encoding. This is not to say that a literal similarity must exist between the encoding and retrieval. It is more important that the retrieval cue reinstates the individual's subjective perception of the event, to include thoughts, fantasies, and inferences at the time of encoding (Schacter, 1996).

In addition to Tulving's encoding specificity principle (1983), several interesting theories have been proposed that demonstrate a connection between retrieval and a diverse pool of variables. On such theory is based on context-dependency and states that the context in which a memory is encoded has a strong effect on recall. Godden and Baddely (1975) demonstrated this effect by teaching a list of words to divers while either on land or in the water and then testing them in both

environments. Subjects demonstrated much better recall when the context of the test matched that of the learning environment (Godden and Baddely, 1975). These findings have interesting implications in the study of bilingualism and may have practical applications in second language teaching and learning. Two similar ideas involving encoding and retrieval variables are state-dependency (Eich et al., 1975) and mood-dependency theories (Eich and Metcalfe, 1989). Similar to context-dependency, these two theories explore the relationship between the subject's physical state and mood at the time of encoding with their state and mood at the time of retrieval. As with the context-dependency theory, there is evidence to support a link between these variables and a change in recall performance (Anderson, 1995).

5. Emotion

In order to accurately gauge the effect of emotion on memory encoding, it is necessary to first define emotion and determine, if possible, both how and when emotions arise.

Researchers disagree about how many basic emotions there are but most would include the following in their list: Joy, Distress, Anger, Fear, Surprise, and Disgust (Evans, 2001; p.7). Categorizing emotions has been difficult and researchers have yet to reach a full consensus on how to classify different emotions. Past attempts have attempted to label emotions as positive or negative as well as basic or complex. Highlighting the complexity of this task, Ekman (1999) points out that negative emotions such as anger, disgust, and sadness all differ with regards to appraisal, antecedent events, probable behavioral responses, and physiology. Similarly, he states that positive emotions such as amusement, pride in achievement, and satisfaction all differ (Ekman, 1999).

As the area of memory research has a fundamental base in neurology and psychology, it is important for the examination of emotion and memory interaction to attempt to define emotions from a scientific

perspective. Damasio (2003) clearly and concisely outlines key components for emotion from a neurological perspective. He provides the following definition:

1. "Emotion-proper: an emotion-proper, such as happiness, sadness, embarrassment, or sympathy, is a complex collection of chemical and neural responses forming a distinctive pattern" (p. 53).

2. "The responses are produced by the normal brain when it detects an emotionally competent stimulus (ECS), the object or event whose presence, actual or in mental recall, triggers the emotion. The responses are automatic" (p. 53).

3. "The brain is prepared by evolution to respond to certain ECSs with specific repertoires of action. However, the list of ECS is not confined to those prescribed by evolution. It includes many others learned in a lifetime of experience" (p. 53).

4. "The immediate result of these responses is a temporary change in the state of the body proper, and in the state of the brain structures that map the body and support thinking" (p. 53).

5. "The ultimate result of the responses, directly or indirectly, is the placement of the organism in circumstances conducive to survival and well being" (p. 53).

This neurological based definition provides a perspective from which bio-chemically and electrically driven brain processes such as emotion and memory encoding can be examined, compared, and linked.

6. Discussion

By classifying emotions as a collection of chemical and neural responses,

Damasio (2003) establishes a neurological link between emotions, physical structures in the brain, and memory. His assertion that the responses are automatic and occur when the brain detects an emotionally competent stimulus is supported by Ledoux (1998) and provides evidence for the possibility that emotionally-charged input can affect mental processes such as memory encoding without conscious awareness. The final key is that the immediate result is a temporary change in the state of the body proper and the brain structures that map the body and support thinking (Damasio, 2003). It may be these physical, chemical, and neural changes that account for flashbulb memories and the emotionally enhanced memories reported by Heuer and Reisberg (1990), Lang et al (1996), and Cahill and his colleagues (1994). The theory that emotionally-charged input enhances memory encoding through emotion and memory based brain processing is supported not only by current cognitive science theory, but also by empirical evidence drawn from numerous studies on the subject. It is important to note that this theory does not suggest that students be constantly bombarded with emotionally shocking material in the attempt to enhance memory formation and recall. Rather, this theory suggests that texts should not intentionally be made void of emotionally charged material as this material can be exploited to enhance the student's learning process. Even if the benefit is slight, it can, combined with effective teaching and study techniques, lead to an increase in successful learning on the part of the second language students. While more research is required to solidify this theory and develop a more exact understanding of both the complex processes and many diverse variables involved, the theory has enough support to move to a stage where application in the fields of TESOL and second language acquisition is not only possible, but also practical. By enhancing memory encoding through emotionally-charged input, we as educators can take advantage of our students' bio-chemically based emotion and cognitive functions and skills in order to maximize encoding and retention of information. The long-term corresponding change in language behavior brought about by this

enhanced memory can be summed up with a much more common and more easily recognizable term: learning. As learning is the primary focus of second language education, the use of emotionally-charged input has great potential to enhance the probability of success both in and outside of the classroom.

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Developing Multimedia-based Materials Based on SLA Theories

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This paper presents a project that develops a multimedia-based material for a target group based on SLA theories. As multimedia tools are frequently used in English classroom, today's English teachers are encouraged to use multimedia technologies. However, it may not be effective to use the multimedia software and CD-ROMs on the market, developed for an educational purpose, because they are not designed for specific students and lessons. The purpose of this project is to design a multimedia material for a lesson about transportation, according to SLA theories and using an authoring tool, Flying Popcorn, to suggest how to develop appropriate multimedia materials to teachers for their own classes.

1. Introduction

Computers and many other multimedia tools are widely used to teach English in Korea. Every classroom in school has at least one computer, and English teachers in both schools and English institutions use the Internet and multimedia software to teach English. Students, even pre-schoolers, are increasingly accustomed to using the Internet and computers to learn something. All of these situations prompt teachers to use multimedia materials in their classes. Sticking to textbooks and workbooks is now regarded by some to be behind the times.

However, despite the need for using multimedia materials in an English classroom, there are limitations. Although some multimedia software that was developed for an educational use looks wonderful, they cannot be the best materials for a class. The reason is that they were not

designed by considering the students and the lessons. Therefore, teachers are now encouraged to consider developing their own multimedia materials for their classes. If they design the materials by themselves, those materials will be most appropriate and effective for their lessons.

This paper introduces a project that develops a multimedia material for a specific class and lesson by using Flying Popcorn, the multimedia authoring software that beginners will find easy to learn. In this project, what teachers should consider to design multimedia materials is briefly addressed. Then, developing a multimedia material on the basis of SLA theories is exemplified.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 First Considerations in CALL Software Design

Ana Gimeno Sanz (2002) says that the following should be considered in designing multimedia CALL software. These considerations are reflected in the process of planning this project.

Table 1.

Sanz's first considerations for designing multimedia CALL software

Considerations	Description
The target group	Specific conditions for the students whom the teacher teaches the material such as age, grade, language experiences and number of students should be considered.
The language level of the target group	Students' language proficiency level for the four skills; listening, reading, writing and speaking should be observed.
The purpose of the package itself	It should be considered whether the material is for general or specific purposes.

(Table 1 continued)

The methodological approach	It should be examined what theories or approaches in SLA are applied.
The appropriate use of technology	It should be concerned with what media-based technologies such as animations, video clips, hypertext, sound components, etc. will be used.

2.2 Developing Multimedia CALL Based on SLA Theories

Chapell (1998) suggests that multimedia CALL should be developed on the basis of SLA theories, research and hypotheses. She mentions that software designers should look to research and principles in SLA for making the software effective to the learners. Based on SLA theories, research and hypotheses, seven hypotheses are outlined below. Among the seven hypotheses, only the first five hypotheses about input and output are addressed in this project.

Table 2.

Chapell's (2000) seven hypotheses on developing multimedia CALL based on SLA theories

- The linguistic characteristics of target language input need to be made salient.
- Learners should receive help in comprehending semantic and syntactic aspects of linguistic input.
- Learners need to have opportunities to produce target language output.
- Learners need to notice errors in their own output.
- Learners need to correct their linguistic output.
- Learners need to engage in target language interaction whose structure can be modified for negotiation of meaning.
- Learners should engage in L2 tasks designed to maximize opportunities for good interaction.

3. Description of the Project

3.1 First Considerations

According to Sanz (2000), five things (as shown in figure 1) —the target group, the language level of the target group, the purpose of the package itself, the methodological approach, the appropriate use of technology— should be considered when designing multimedia materials. This project was carried out with those considerations in mind. The methodological approach is mentioned in 3.2.

First, the target group and its language level were considered. One of the classes this researcher currently teaches is the target group. The detailed descriptions about the target students are as follows:

Table 3.

The target students of this project

- Age: 10 years old
- Grade: elementary school students in the third grade
- Place: ChildU Namgazoa campus in Seoul
- Language Proficiency:
  Listening: Novice-high / Reading: Novice -high
  Speaking: Novice -mid / Writing: Novice -low
- Number of Students: 8
- Type of Class: Private language institute, English immersion class, meets three times a week /60 minutes for each class
- Motivation: Students currently learn English through a web-based curriculum. They are accustomed to use computers and the Internet for learning. They are enthusiastic about games and activities that have clear goals.
- Language Experience: Most students have learned English for about three years in school and language institutes.

Second, the purpose of this material was also considered. This material was designed for a lesson about transportation for the target students. After they are taught about 6 modes of transportation, such as bicycles, boats, trains, cars, rockets and airplanes. The teacher then checks how much they understand and provide more information related to transportation by using the material.

Last, it was considered what kind of technologies would be used for making an appropriate material. Several multimedia-based technologies were used for educational purposes in this project. First of all, various sounds were inserted. If the students click a button, they can hear the pronunciation of a word, a narration about the page or a sound effect. Wood (2001) presents the sound functions in CALL software, "The potential for this feature to reinforce vocabulary knowledge is enormous, particularly for L2 learners and children with special needs." Second, some animated images of related information were introduced. According to Wood, they play an important role by offering vivid demonstrations on words, situations and even sophisticated concepts. Furthermore, hyperlinks and roll-over functions can be seen in this project. Wood (2001) states, "Through hyperlinks, users are encouraged to access a wealth of related information." (p. 179). They encourage the students to access related information by themselves. If the students click on or roll over an image or a text, they can see more information about the image or the text. Such hyperlinks and roll-over functions motivate the students to learn vocabulary in this project.

3.2 Developing Multimedia CALL Based on SLA Theories

This project is designed with Chapell's (1998) seven hypotheses of developing multimedia software based on SLA theories in mind. Those hypotheses were actually suggested by other SLA researchers and integrated by Chapell. In this project, the first five hypotheses about input and output hypotheses are highlighted.

First, this project focuses on input hypothesis. Krashen & Terrel (1983) insisted that learners could produce the target language after they received a large amount of "comprehensible input." Considering the role of caregiver speech in FLA, if the learners understand the message, they can be ready to acquire. The first two items in Chapell's seven hypotheses (Table 1) address this. The level of the vocabulary used in this material is a little bit higher than the level of the vocabulary the students know. However, they can understand vocabulary through visual aids on the screen.

Countering Krashen's hypothesis, Swain (1995) argued that input alone is not sufficient in producing the target language – and "comprehensible output" should also be emphasized. Therefore, focus on form is also dealt with in this project. The next three of Chapell's hypotheses deal with this output hypothesis. According to Swain and Lapkin (as cited in Chapell, 1998), learners need to notice linguistic problems through feedback. Therefore, linguistic forms and structures are taught, and error correction is also included in this project.

3.3 Lesson Plan

Title of this lesson	Learn about Transportations		
Level:	Novice high to Intermediate-low	**Lesson length:**	60 min.
Skills taught:	Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing		
Aim of this lesson:	1. After this lesson, students should be able to figure out and tell each transportation in English they have learned by listening to and reading the explanation of it. 2. After this lesson, students should be able to make complete sentences using the verbs, 'go…by', 'ride', 'travel', 'leave for' and 'get on'.		

(Lesson Plan continued)

Material:	• ChildU Intermediate 4 as a main textbook • A computer system for teacher-use connected to the Internet with a big monitor • Multimedia material (Title: **Going Home**) developed by Flying Popcorn
Procedure:	▶ **Warm-up** - The teacher checks the students' comprehension about the six transportations: bicycles, boats, trains, cars, rockets and planes that they have learned in previous lessons by asking some questions about the animation. ▶ **Presentation** - First, the teacher teaches new words using the Internet. Next, the teacher divides the students into two groups and they do a writing game. One student in each group comes up to the board and writes down the name of a transportation that the teacher describes. All students have a chance to do so on the board. The group with more students who write correctly will win the game. Last, the teacher teaches some expressions such as 'I *go to* (a place) *by* (a transportation).', 'I *ride* (a transportation).', 'I get on (a transportation).', 'I get off (a transportation).', 'I travel by (a transportation).', 'I leave for (a place) by (a transportation).', 'I take (a transportation).' ▶ **Activity** - Using the multimedia material, the teacher asks each student of 8 to solve one riddle. If the students choose the correct answer on the first try, the teacher gives bonus points to them. After solving the riddles, the students do match and write, then sing songs about transportations.

3.4 Feature of the Material

As the students begin the material, they are given a task. The main

character of this material, Hena, lost her way home (Figure 1). The students need to help her to find her way by solving 8 riddles about transportations.

Figure 1. *Task screen*

Once the students accept the task, they come to solve 8 riddles one by one. The material is organized into 8 riddles about 8 transportations. Each student has an opportunity to solve a riddle. The main screen of the riddles is shown in Figure 2. The students are supposed to listen to the narration of each riddle and choose a right picture based on what they have heard. They can listen to the riddle again if they click the speaker icon.

Figure 2. *Main screen of the right riddles*

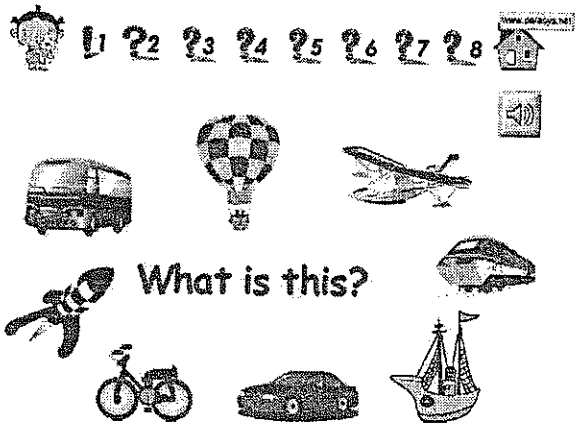
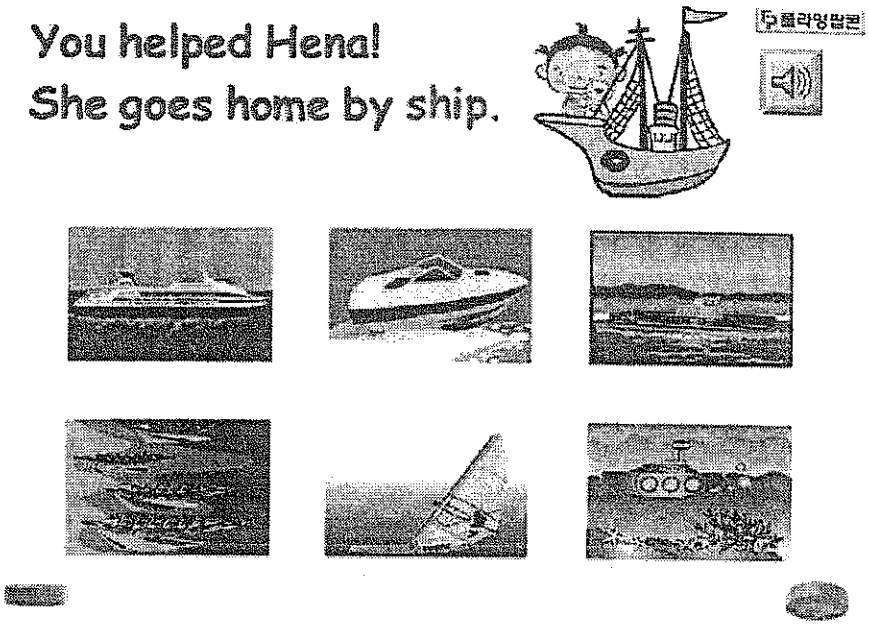


Figure 3. *Correct answer and elaboration*



If the students choose a correct picture, the screen changes and more information about the answer is elaborated. As Figure 3 shows, they can expand their vocabulary related to the answer and learn some expressions that are usually used with vehicles and traveling such as 'go… by~', 'get on', 'take' and so on.

Figure 4. *Focused vocabulary and grammar forms*

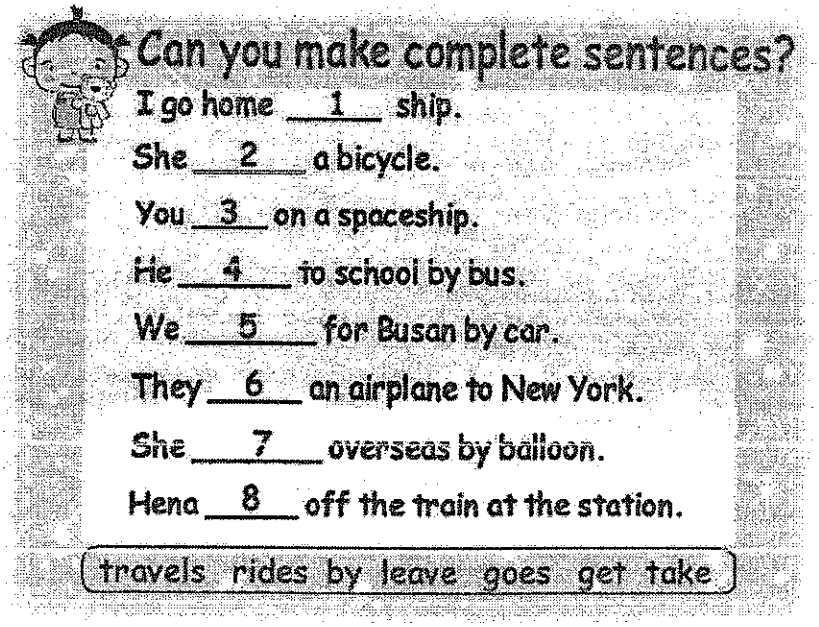
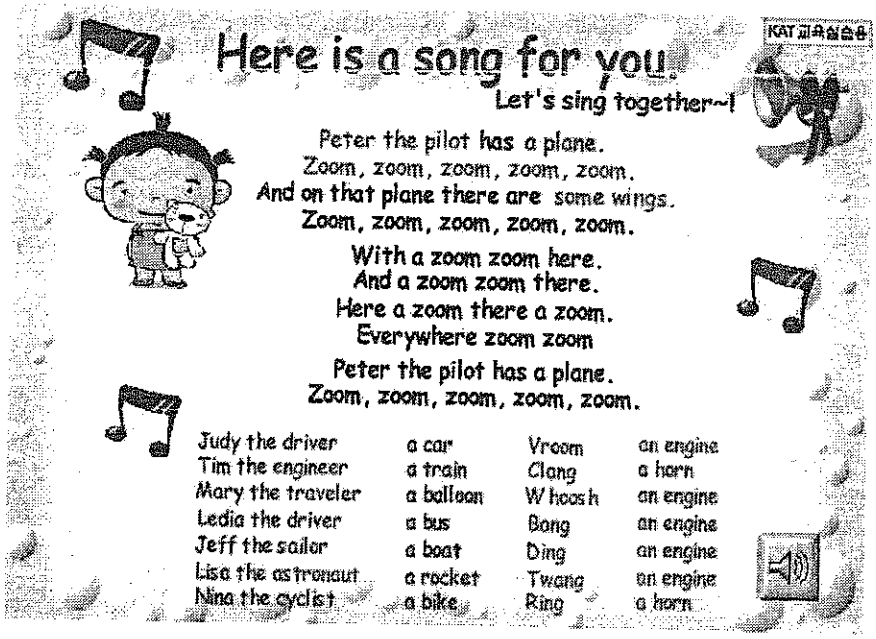


Figure 5. *Closing Song*



After the students solve the 8 riddles, they come to make 8 complete sentences by using the words and structures they have learned from the previous screens (Figure 4). Each student also has a chance to make a sentence. Finally, after they finish filling the blanks, they listen to a song about transportations and sing along. The lyric of the song includes the students' names and transportations they learn. (Figure 5)

4. Conclusion

According to Kramsch (1999), "today's teachers are frequently urged to make use of computer technology to teach foreign languages." (p. 31) Thus, teachers are encouraged to develop multimedia materials by themselves in accordance with what they plan to teach. This project is an educational experiment on developing multimedia-based materials by using the Flying Popcorn software. To make an effective multimedia material, it is necessary to consider the target class setting and SLA theories. They help teachers to design appropriate materials for the target students.

As a result, the students in this project were motivated to learn the lesson by using the material that their teacher designed by herself. The material provided comprehensible information more than what they had known or learned from the previous lesson so that they could assimilate those input by following the process of the material. In addition, the material focused on the structures the teacher taught through the lesson so that they could practice the forms using the material. The teacher could lead and control the lesson successfully because she had designed the lesson plan and the material by considering the class and students. In short, teachers can prepare the most suitable materials for their classes if they design the material by themselves.

Despite its strength, there could be some problems when teachers develop their own multimedia materials. Designing a multimedia material costs teachers much time and effort. However, many easy tools like Flying Popcorn are continuously developed to help teachers. All the teachers have to do is to gather some graphics, sounds and animations through the Internet. If the students are inspired to study English by their teacher's effort, that makes it worth the challenge of making special materials.

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Discourse Analysis in the Language Classroom: Asking for Clarification

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According to Bates & MacWhinney (1982), there are at least two levels of language processing: the functional level, where all the meanings and intentions to be expressed are represented; and the formal level, at which all the surface forms used in the language are represented. Functions precede forms in the development and use of language in the sense that forms are mapped onto the functions they serve. Harmers and Blanc (2000) qualified that as language develops, form-function mapping is not necessarily a one-to-one correlation: a single form can be mapped onto different functions. Conversely, a single function may be served by several linguistic forms. The purpose of this study is to help teachers develop and use discourse analysis in the language classroom to teach speaking that is focused on a learner's use of requests for clarification. The discourse activities presented in this paper are based on previous research findings about learners' pragmatic development depending on their proficiency levels by analyzing one specific speech act, clarification request. The discourse analysis activities are expected to develop low proficiency level learners' awareness raising and to provide communicative practice through the chains of tasks.

1. Introduction

The present study aims at how teachers help learners develop their pragmatic skills, which means we posit pragmatic development as the learners' ability to map diverse forms onto function in the appropriate

context. We assume that a learner's level becomes somehow fossilized after some period of no use, or that because they do not receive enough input, what they get is not quality input. This may affect learners who cannot use the language outside the classroom, thus also affecting their rate of development, competence and performance in the target language. Therefore, we suggest teaching materials in order to instruct learners' pragmatic development so that they finally overcome their weakness through instruction. In order to develop our teaching materials, we first analyzed 10 low and 10 high proficiency Korean university students' manner of asking for clarification within aural interviews conducted by native speakers of English. These interviews were related to a previous study that is not explained in detail in this paper. The materials used in this paper such as transcripts are drawn from the interviews mentioned above. In order to develop discourse analysis activities helping those low proficiency learners raise awareness and use clarification techniques, we present first a theoretical background for this paper.

2. Theoretical background

Language behavior does not and cannot exist outside the functions it serves. Language is in the first place a tool developed and used to serve a number of functions, both social and psychological, which can be classified in two main categories: communicative and cognitive (Bruner, 1990). Language does not exist in itself but has a use for the overall behavior that is meaningful in a given culture. Functions of language are universal but the linguistic forms vary across languages and cultures. The twofold interplay between individual and society and between form and function is characteristic of processing in complex human behavior (Hamers and Blanc, 2000). According to Kasper and Rose (2002), learners noticing and focusing attention on the pragmatic features and learner's self analysis are mainly important. They state such opportunities are related to context and tasks and activities in which learners participate,

and the occasions afforded learners for engagement as listeners and speakers are relevantly related to pragmatic learning.

The role of instruction in performing particular speech acts as well as the effect of explicit and implicit instruction has been analyzed by Rose and Ng (2001) and Takahashi (2001). Explicit instruction focused on description, explanation, discussion of pragmatic features as well as practice. Results from these studies (Rose and Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001) point to a positive improvement of the learners' pragmatic competence after the instructional process. A study by Norris and Ortega (2000) synthesizing the role of instruction in interlanguage pragmatics denotes a clear advantage of explicit over implicit instruction. Teaching pragmatic items explicitly has been performed by means of two different task types, those of awareness raising and activities providing communicative practice. The former involve learners in observing pragmatic aspects of the target language from both oral and written discourse, while the latter imply group interaction where learners take part in role-play and simulation activities.

Kasper (2001) raises the need for acknowledging to what extent attention to pragmatic forms enhances acquisition development even beyond instruction. Yoshimi's results (2001) on the effect of focusing on interactional task demands developing pragmatic competence since the learners' knowledge of the interactional functions of pragmatic features was fostered by means of classroom interaction. Kasper and Rose (2002) summarized that research conducted from a cognitive-processing perspective, as well as from different or combined social-practice approaches with an analytical focus on situational interactional engagements, have demonstrated potential for explaining different facets of second language pragmatic learning. In response to this, we view language as a holistic type of ecosystem that functions certainly with patterns but not necessarily on a planned or easily controlled basis. This leads us to the shift which relates to creating a social environment in the classroom. Basically we need to create a situation in the classroom that

allows people to be exposed to natural input and react to natural types of input. Lastly we need to shift from a teacher-focused classroom to a more student-focused classroom and the best way that this would seem to take place would be to try to initiate an analytical focus on language for the students. This means that the students will be analyzing both native speaker output and their own language, that is, students as discourse analysts or language researchers. Analysis and self analysis is an extremely important aspect of trying to make people learn how to speak on their own in response to specific needs.

The following chains of tasks aim at developing awareness and communicative practice, particularly clarification request, of 10 low-proficiency research subjects who started studying English as a foreign language. They have been studying English for about six or eight years, from middle school to university. They attend the Sookmyung Women's University. They are encouraged to collaborate, which can provide an opportunity to hear others' perspectives and to explore the frames of interpretation that may be operating, and which can thus serve as a check on validity. We basically follow the six steps of discourse analysis that Riggenbach (1999) presented: step 1: Predict— Learners make predictions about the target structure; step 2: Plan— Learners set up a research plan that will produce samples of the target structure; step 3: Collect data— Learners observe and record the target structure in its discourse environment; step 4: Analyze— Learners analyze the data and explain results and make conclusions; step 5: Generate— Learners discuss the target structure or produce the target structure in its appropriate context; and step 6: Review— Learners summarize their findings or reanalyze the data that they produced, asking whether the data conform to their conclusions in step 4.

However, in order to make the data manageable and the discourse analysis studies doable in a short period of time and make our tasks realistic, step 2 (Plan— Learners set up a research plan that will produce samples of the target structure) is done by the teacher before the class

since the English class context in terms of time constraint and difficulty of data collection on the students' part has limitations, therefore this particular step is left out in the activities we develop. In addition, in step 3, the teacher prepares for the kind of data that is likely to be relevant and helpful to students studying discourse in a limited time frame and then the teacher asks the learners to collect data following teacher's instruction and analyze their results later. In lieu of the original step 2, we inserted another step, renamed 'step 2— Explain' because, as we already mentioned above, explicit instruction of pragmatics has many advantages and they are proven by other researchers (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Takahashi, 2001; Rose & Ng, 2001). In step 3, collect data, we consider the amount and type of strategies employed by our subjects in situations provided on the basis of Trosborg's suggested taxonomy (1995, cited in Safont, forthcoming) of request realization strategies. Thus, the revised version of Trosborg's suggested taxonomy is used to explain the differences in terms of direct, conventionally indirect and indirect strategies for further analysis, which will be done in step 4, analyze.

To sum up, our activities consist of six chains of tasks as follows: Step 1-Predict, Step 2-Explain, Step 3-Collect Data, Step 4-Analyze, Step 5-Generate, Step 6-Review, with each step having more than one sub-task to help achieve the main tasks.

3. Discourse analysis activities in the classroom

This follow up activity is drawn from analyzing learners' discourse through interviews and aims at developing low proficiency level learner's awareness raising and providing communicative practice through the following chains of tasks. In particular, the activities are designed to enhance the learners' appropriate use of asking for clarification. At the end of instruction we expect that firstly, the learners should be able to be aware of the clarification request function; secondly, the learners should be able to use various expressions of asking for clarification depending on

certain contexts; and thirdly, the learners should be able to analyze how to use the expressions appropriately.

3.1 Predict

3.1.1 Task 1

The teacher hands out a script of a conversation in L1 (shown below) and asks students to think about the focus questions. The students then discuss the questions in groups. The questions are as follows:

1. What is this conversation about?
2. What is the social relationship between A and B?
3. What are the highlighted sentences used for?

Handout 1

Conversation in L1 using questions for clarification

A: 너 이번 여름 휴가에 뭐 할거니?
B: 글쎄...다른 나라로 여행가고 싶었는데 아무래도 우리나라 어디로 갈 것 같아.
A: 왜 중얼중얼?
B: 뭐라 구?
A: 왜 장소를 바꿨냐 구? 너 전번에 태국 가고 싶어 했잖아. 그지?
B: 그랬지. 근데 지금은 돈을 좀 모아야 할 거 같아서 말야. 너도 알다시피 나 집 사는데 은행에서 대출 많이 받았잖아. 넌 무슨 계획 있어?
A: 중국 가고 싶은데 같이 갈 사람이 없다. 니가 혼자 였다면 나랑 같이 갔을 텐데 말야. (웃음)
B: 너 중얼중얼 되잖아
A: 뭐? 뭐라 그랬어?
B: 내 말은 너 남자친구랑 가면 된다구.
A: 그랬음 좋겠다.

3.1.2 Task 2

The teacher plays a tape of dialogues spoken in English based on our research findings above and asks the students to take note when they hear the same functions they think are similar to the highlighted sentences in the previous Korean dialogue. Then they discuss the following questions in groups.

1. What are the expressions they think have the same functions as those found in the previous Korean dialogues?
2. Compare their findings to Korean expressions given in the previous tasks and think about similarities or differences.
3. Brainstorm more expressions that have the same functions both in Korean and in English.

Transcripts 1.

Conversation in L2 using questions for clarification

Dialogue 1
Me: Do you drive?
S: Sorry?
Me: Do you have a driver's license?
S: Yes I have.

Dialogue 2
Me: Is it easy to transfer from one university to another?
S: Pardon?
Me: Is it easy for you to transfer? Is it easy? What did you have to do to transfer from one university to another?
S: I start study I study for a one year.

Dialogue 3
Me: While you were studying which book did you use?
S: Yes?
Me: What was your textbook?
S: I don't understand.
Me: Which book was your textbook?

3.1.3 Task 3

The teacher hands out the written transcripts, and explains the situation of the dialogues in which a professor, a native speaker of English, interviews a university student in order to test her English level. The teacher then asks the students to predict what the interviewer says in the blank. Later, the teacher checks the original utterance and lets students compare their predictions to the original ones presented in parentheses. The original

clarification expression of the interviewer is "Doing what?" for dialogue 1, "Which day?" for dialogue 2, and "What does that mean?" for dialogue 3.

Handout 2

Conversation in L2 using questions for clarification

Dialogue 1
Interviewer: You're in the second year. What do you want to do in the future? Pharmacy, people think that's a very good major.
Interviewee: I want to work for pharmacy company.
Interviewer: _____
Interviewee: .....um.....Marketing.
Interviewer: Okay, you don't want to do experiments?

Dialogue 2
Interviewer: So, what days do you have class with Mel Salta?
Interviewee: Monday and Saturday
Interviewer: _____
Interviewee: Saturday.

Dialogue 3
Interviewee: Dog name is Monnaee.
Interviewer: _____
Interviewee: uh, ugly, ugly dog
Interviewer: really? Is your dog ugly?
Interviewee: Yes.

3.2 Explain

3.2.1 Task 1

The teacher answers the questions given above with students. Then the teacher describes the function, asking for clarification. The teacher explains various expressions for asking clarification explicitly, which are presented in the box below. Then students need to fill in the chart below based on the frequency of using clarification questions. Students write down the sentences that they used or heard and rate the frequency of use from a range of used a lot to never used. Table 1 below represents

awareness of expressions for asking clarification.

Table 1.

Various forms for asking clarification

Making clarification requests	
I beg your pardon? / Pardon me? / Pardon?	I'm sorry? / Sorry?
Excuse me?	What do you mean?
Can you repeat that?	You passed right by me.
I didn't catch that.	Come again?
What did you say?	What was that?

Chart1.

Frequency of using expressions for clarification requests

A lot used	Sometimes used	Rarely used	Never used

3.2.2 Task 2

The teacher introduces four different dialogues in which a professor interviews a university student, plays the dialogues, and asks the students to take note of clarification requests when they hear them in order to check whether they are able to recognize them. Then the teacher hands out the written transcripts and checks their understanding. Later, the teacher asks the students to judge the clarification expressions used in the dialogues as either appropriate or inappropriate and asks them to suggest other or better expressions that they've learned earlier in the lesson. The transcripts the teacher lets students read are presented below.

Transcripts 2.

Recognition and justification of clarification in use

Dialogue 1
Interviewer: What does your sister look like? How could you describe her to me?
Interviewee: umm…..뭐? slowly
Interviewer: What does your sister look like? How does she look?
Interviewee: Yeah
Interviewer: Would you tell me what she looks like?
Interviewee: Umm, My sister um very pretty. hehehehe

Dialogue 2
Interviewer: What do you want me to call you?
Interviewee: Yeah?
Interviewer: What should I call you? Do you have special name? or What should I call you?
Interviewee: Kim, Eun-ji

Dialogue 3
Interviewer: Do you like your room?
Interviewee: Yes,
Interviewer: What about the wall? Do you have many things on the wall?
Interviewee: What?
Interviewer: On the wall of the room, do you have many pictures?

Dialogue 4
Interviewer: What do you want me to call you?
Interviewee: Call?
Interviewer: How should I address you?
Interviewee: My dress?

3.3 Collect data

3.3.1 Task 1

The teacher lets students in groups attempt to discuss the given focus questions while they are listening to the three different types of conversations. The following conversations are originally done by a fellow graduate school student, Sunae Park, who based them on interviews with her co-workers at a private language school when she was

doing research.

1. What is this conversation about?
2. What is the social relationship between A and B?
3. What expressions are used to make clarification requests?

Transcripts 3.

Teacher plays recording for group discussion

Conversation 1
A: What are you doing this summer vacation?
B: Well…I really wanted to go to another country…escape from Seoul…but I think I'm gonna go somewhere in Korea.
A: Why (blah blah)?
B: What?
A: Why? Why did you change the place? You really wanted to go Thailand before in this summer. Right?
A: Yes I did, but I need to save money at the moment. I mean it is really difficult to save money these days you know, I loaned a lot of money to buy a house. How about you? Have you any plans yet?
B: I wanna go to China but I can't find anyone I can go with. If you were single you could go with me. (laughter)
A: You can go with (blah blah).
B: What? What did you say?
A: I mean you can go with your boyfriend.
B: I wish I could.

Conversation 2
A: How's your work these days?
B: My work is torture because I'm working from 7 o'clock in the morning to 9:40 at night. I'm working 11 hours a day.
A: Do you have any …faculties?
B: Excuse me?
A: I mean do you have any difficulties?
B: Well the only thing that I have is getting up in the morning. I usually get up at you know at 9 or 10, then I exercise and come to work in the afternoon.

Conversation 3
A: How do you (blah blah) ?

B: How do you...what do you mean?
A: I mean how do you get here? I mean at the English institute?
B: I'm supposed to take the bus, but everyday I take a cab. My wife doesn't know about it.

Conversation 4
A: What time do you usually (blah blah)?
B: Excuse me?
A: What time do you usually go to sleep?
B: I get home about 10:20, so I eat and I usually go to bed about 12 o'clock.
A: When do ...(blah blah) dinner?
B: I beg your pardon?
A: When do you have dinner?
B: Me? I eat lunch at 1. My break is from 5 to 7. Usually, I'm not hungry then. You know why? Because I have a big lunch. I don't eat dinner. I just eat dinner at home.

Conversation 5
A: Do you have any (blah blah)?
B: What was that?
A: Do you have any special skills that you can use in your class especially when your students feel bored or something?
B: You mean extra activities like that?
A: Exactly.
B: Yes, I have some games and icebreakers or I tell funny stories, funny things that I've been through.

Conversation 6
A: Are you happy... (blah blah) with your...?
B: Can you repeat that?
A: I said are you happy with your job?
B: No I'm not
A: Why not?
B: I don't know. I just don't like teaching anymore. I don't know. I think I'm not meant to be a teacher. I just want to do another thing.

Conversation 7
A: What kind of food do you like?
B: My favorite food is tofu 찌개(Chigae).
A: Tofu 찌개 (Chigae)? Isn't that kimchi 찌개 (Chigae) with some tofu in

it?
B: No it's tofu 찌개 (Chigae).
A: Where do you eat it? Where can you eat it?
B: Usually in 여의도 (Youido).
A: Why do you like tofu 찌개 (Chigae)?
B: I like tofu very much. That's all.
A: Anything else?
B: You mean other kinds of food?
A: Yes.
B: I like bulgogi, but these days I want to lose weight, so I try to stay away from bulgogi.
A: Can you…(blah blah) ?
B: Pardon me?
A: I asked can you cook any Korean dishes?
B: Kimchi 찌개 (Chigae), kimchi 볶음밥(bokumpap).
A: How often do you… (blah blah)?
B: I'm sorry? Can you repeat that please?
A: How often do you eat Korean food?
B: I try to eat Korean food every day, but these days, I'm so busy with my schedule. Maybe three times or four times a week. How about you? What kind of food do you like?
A: Well…basically I like all kinds of food especially Italian food like pasta and pizza.
B: Why do you especially like…(blah blah)?
A: Sorry?
B: Why do you especially like Italian food?
A: I don't know. It just tastes good.

3.3.2 Task 2

The teacher hands out to students the transcripts of the recordings above that they have just listened to in the previous task. Students then complete chart 2 by collecting data from the given transcripts.

Chart 2.

Data collection from transcripts

Topic	Social relationship	Place	Expressions asking for clarification

3.3.3 Task 3

Teacher shows examples to explain direct and indirect clarification requests using the following table from Trosborg (1995: p. 205, as cited in Safont, forthcoming).

Table 2.

Direct and indirect clarification requests

Type	Examples
Indirect request for clarification	I thought of another thing. I was out of space for a moment.
Conventionally indirect request for clarification	Could you/Would you repeat that again please? I would like to listen to what you said again. I beg your pardon?
Direct request for clarification	One more time. (please) Repeat that again. What? Sorry? Yes?

3.4 Analyze

Students discuss and find out the forms from their data collection in the previous step, that is, from direct clarification request to indirect clarification request. After that, they are instructed to complete the chart below. Then they analyze the differences between direct clarification requests and indirect clarification requests. In addition, after their completion of the chart below, they specify the distinctions among the requests depending on social relationships.

Chart 3.

Categorization by directness and indirectness

Direct Clarification Requests	
Conventionally Indirect Request for clarification	
Indirect Clarification Requests	

3.5 Generate

3.5.1 Task 1

The teacher hands out the paper that includes role-play descriptions. The role-play handout consists of four brief descriptions for situations that identified the status of the speaker and hearer in the exchange to be produced. Let students role-play in pairs and the teacher monitors and facilitates each pair's dialogue.

Handout 3

Role-play descriptions

Student A

Prompt 1

Role A: You are the professor of B. Person B comes to your office. Listen and respond to what B says by using requests for clarification.

Prompt 2

Role A: You are one of B's close friends. Person B is talking on the phone with you. Listen and respond to what B says by using requests for clarification.

Prompt 3

Role A: You are a daughter. You and your mom are having watermelon in the living room and talking. Tell your mom this sentence: "Mom, will you buy me ZANGOWAH?"

Prompt 4

Role A: You are a stranger and are looking for a bank on the street. Ask the first person you see the following question: Excuse me, could you tell me where the nearest PANGJOPING is?

Student B

Prompt 1

Role B: You are a student of person B, who is your professor. Tell him this: My computer has been infected by a virus but I didn't know that. My final project in the computer was blah blah.

Prompt 2

Role B: You are one person B's close friends. You are talking to her on the phone and are saying the following: "I had a terrible cold yesterday so I couldn't attend English class. Tell me what was…blah blah.

Prompt 3

Role B: You are the mom person A. Your daughter and you are having watermelon and talking in the living room. Listen and respond to what A says by using requests for clarification.

Prompt 4

Role B: You are walking on the street. You are familiar with the street. A stranger comes up to you and asks something. Listen and respond to what A says by using requests for clarification.

3.5.2 Task 2

The teacher divides 10 students into 4 groups, A, B, C, and D. Each group has cards 1, 2, 3, and 4 where the topics and roles are written. There are two or three people in the group. The teacher has students take turns and role-play and ask students to use clarification requests as much as possible. At this moment, while the teacher records the conversations, the others monitor the role-play group. The monitor groups are given the handout. While the other groups monitor, they fill in chart 4 below. The teacher gives learners appropriate feedback: the teacher encourages all students who participate in the role play or in other monitoring groups. Students should be able to ask vagueness about asking for clarification and they should be able to sound natural during role-play.

Role-play Card 1

Looking for the nearest restroom
Student A: A person who is looking for the nearest restroom.
Student B: Stranger.
Student C: A person who lives in the neighborhood. (This person knows where the nearest restroom is.)

Role-play Card 2

Ordering Korean food in a Korean restaurant in New York
Student A: A waiter/ waitress, Korean, poor at speaking English.
Student B: The wife of student C, customer, Chinese, tries to eat Korean food for the first time (very curious person).
Student C: The husband of student B, American, has eaten Korean food several times before.

Role-play Card 3

Asking for a date
Student A: A man, Korean, talkative, poor at speaking English.
Student B: A woman, English, stuck-up.

Role-play Card 4

Shopping
Student A: Canadian, clerk in the duty free shop, very kind.
Student B: Korean, tourist, customer, picky, poor at speaking English.

Chart 4.

Monitoring each group's role-play

Group	Topic	Social relationship	Place	Expressions asking for clarification
A				
B				
C				
D				

3.6 Review

The teacher asks each group to discuss and compare the results from the monitoring of the other three groups based on the completed chart 4. Meanwhile, students are instructed to fill out chart 5 below by judging their requests for clarification as either appropriate or inappropriate and explaining the reason they think so. In the case of inappropriate expressions, they are asked to suggest alternative utterances. Later, the teacher lets the class listen to their recordings and gives opportunities to suggest alternative expressions. Each group then reports their research findings to the class; a class discussion follows each group report.

Chart 5.

Appropriateness of using request clarification strategies

Group:_____ Appropriate Inappropriate Explain why:_____ If inappropriate, provide an alternative expression Suggestion:_____ Group:_____ Appropriate Inappropriate Explain why:_____ If inappropriate, provide an alternative expression Suggestion:_____ Group:_____ Appropriate Inappropriate Explain why:_____ If inappropriate, provide an alternative expression Suggestion:_____

4. Conclusion

Students of languages, whether at the individual, interpersonal, or societal level, commonly address the issues from one necessary but insufficient disciplinary perspective, using either a micro- or a macro-level. In order to capture the totality of this complex phenomenon, it is essential not only to examine it from different disciplinary viewpoints, but also to integrate these at both the theoretical and methodological level. In the form-function mapping process, according to Hamers and Blanc (2000), language forms are developed to serve functions in the process of form-function mapping. Most language behavior is possibly understood through this complex mapping mechanism.

Learners have to be able to map linguistic forms into social contexts in order to make appropriate requests in English. We found from the previous research that learners show the following tendencies when developing their pragmatic competence on making requests: low proficiency learners show direct request forms to indirect request forms increased with proficiency. High proficiency level learners use more non-formulaic, idiosyncratic expressions than low proficiency level learners, who they expect to use more formulaic utterances. High proficiency learners are more sensitive and aware of different contexts to map various forms according to the context onto the clarification request function, whereas low proficiency learners are highly context-dependent, show more repetition of addresser's utterance, or echo without any use of syntax. Low proficiency learners over-generalize one form regardless of social relationships, which results in the use of impolite request forms, but high proficiency learners change the forms according to the context, especially in the interview situation where they are expected to use polite forms of requests. However, we expected even though high proficiency learners show non-native like expressions comparing to the native speaker of English interviewer's fine-tuning of requestive force to participants and contexts due to lack of authentic context to use or practice requests form

in the society, here in EFL context which is supported by the previous research findings through selective questions of the written survey. In addition, low proficiency learners were expected to show negative L1, Korean transfers where they use Korean clarification request forms mapped onto the L2, that is, English functions without the use of appropriate forms. We hope this discourse analysis activities presented here can help learners develop their linguistic and pragmatic competence, specifically, the strategies for mapping the right forms onto the functions, one of which is to request for clarification depending on the context.

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Writing a Thesis

Jiyoung Kim

1. Introduction

Writing a thesis is often a new experience to most students because it involves a great deal of independent study. This is why most people feel a lot of pressure and frustration when they choose to write a thesis. However, if you get some advice from people who have already written a thesis, or from people who are in the process of writing one, it can get you started on the right track as you conduct research and write an academic paper.

2. General Format of the Thesis

Before you start to write a thesis, you need to read a lot of articles and be accustomed to the format of an academic paper. Most academic papers consist of major parts labeled as: 'statement of the problem', 'purpose of the study', 'research questions', 'hypothesis', 'theoretical background', 'experiment', and 'conclusion', generally in that order. It is important that you are familiar with and these different parts and attend to them more or less in the order you will actually end of writing them. Careful planning from the very first will save a thesis writer a lot of time in both the overall planning and revision stages.

As a first step, you need to identify a specific problem, which can come from your personal teaching experience, conversations with your professors and classmates, or from an article you have read. After stating the problem, you need to explore questions related to it that you would want to be answered. After that, you brainstorm possible answers to your questions and solutions to your problem. This is a long and arduous the goal of which is to try to try to narrow the problem done to something

manageable. Generally students first come up with problems that cannot be handled well in their thesis, like "how can I improve my student's learning styles?" or "how can I get my students to speak more in class." These are good questions but are much too vague to be handled in a Master's thesis. You need to narrow them.

The all-important process of narrowing your topic is probably best achieved by asking and quickly trying to answer a variety of different questions both on and about the topic. You need to attack the initial question from a range of different points of view, thinking constantly about both your specific purpose and what is doable for you. At the end of this process, which involves a copious amount of reading to try to find out what has already been done on the topic, you should have both a highly specific topic and a set of highly specified and interrelated research questions.

After you construct your research questions, you can design your experiment(s) to find answers to those questions. The more specific your research questions are, the easier it will be for you to design your experiment. The experiment(s) you conduct must be scientifically motivated and valid. Before doing your experiment, a set of research hypotheses in accordance with the research questions must be formulated. A research hypothesis is an expected outcome from an experiment. You can check whether your hypothesis is right or wrong by doing your experiment.

As a simple example, if you think that keeping a journal is a major factor in improving students' writing skills, you can make a hypothesis stating that students who keep a journal over a certain period of time will achieve higher scores on a writing test than students who do not keep a similar journal. Then, you can set up an experiment to test your hypothesis. You form two groups of students and start your experiment with a pre-test, then teach both groups the same content in the same way except you ask one group to keep a journal (and probably a specific type of journal). After a designated period of study passes, you give a post-test

and compare the test results of the two groups. This comparison between the two groups' test results will show whether your hypothesis is right or wrong. This is a necessarily oversimplified example, but I think you get the point.

All information that can help the readers of your thesis understand your research better should be included in a chapter that addresses a 'theoretical background'. It is better starting from a general theory and narrowing it down to specific information that pertains to the experiment. Before designing an experiment, you need to have enough theoretical background for your thesis, however, when writing the final paper, you will probably need to trim down the theoretical part, including only the information that is directly relevant to your experiment. The reason for this is that to design a specific experiment, or series of experiments, the writer needs to have a full and general view of what has been published in the area to make sure they are not stating something already done, or something that has been done and proven invalid. In short, you need to know your specific topic area well. But don't go overboard in the actual writing of the thesis. Bear in mind that the theoretical background exists to help readers understand why you are doing the experiment and what you are trying to prove through the experiment. It should be restricted to that.

In the thesis it important that you explain very carefully the specifics of the experiment(s) you have done. The reader needs to know all the little details of your experiment as the validity of the whole thesis rises or falls on the way you designed and implemented your experiment. For this reason, it is often easier and more valid to base the experiment on one that has already been done and adapt it for you own specific purposes. Remember that it is not important and probably not practical for the Master's thesis to be completely original or ground-breaking.

At the end of the experiment, you need to interpret the results and speculate on the significance of such data in your 'discussion' section. The interpretation part is also very important, in that you can explain your

test results with the backing of other scholars' voices. It is similar in format to the theoretical part except it has more specific information about the actual results. All that is left is then to write up a short and direct conclusion which summarizes the results.

Being familiar with the format of an academic paper helps you not only to write a thesis but also to read and understand the many academic papers that you will encounter.

3. Difficulty of Writing a Thesis

Before writing a thesis, you need to read a lot of articles. Finding articles is one of the difficulties you may encounter in the process of researching. The easier way of finding articles to read is going to the electronic library of the Sookmyung Main Library homepage. It may be hard at first to get articles related to your research topic, however, it gets easier as long as you spend time digging through the resources available in the homepage of the library. If you find an article you like, or sentences you like, check the reference list and then try to find another article. This way, you can collect some articles related to your subject.

There are two important things that you should bear in mind when writing a thesis. First, all parts of the thesis must be tightly organized. One of the common errors in writing a thesis is that sometimes, the 'research questions', 'hypotheses', the 'experiment' part and the 'theoretical background' do not match each other well. A thesis is a scientific paper, thus a researcher must make sure that their work is theoretically sound and that all answers to the research questions are explained clearly. To avoid this irrelevance, having a lot of discussion about your thesis is recommended. Talk about your thesis with your advisor, students who are also currently writing a thesis, and even with your friends even though some of them may not be familiar with your subject. While you explain your thesis to them, you can get fresh ideas as to what works and what does not in your research process.

The second thing you need to keep in mind is to back up all assertions you make with evidence from legitimate sources. It is impossible to write a thesis based solely on your creative ideas. All ideas in your thesis must be supported by citations or direct quotations from known academic scholars in your field. This is why we must always indicate where an idea comes from by citing the source both within the text and in the reference section. You might think you have come upon an original idea but, more often not, such an idea has already been stated (and published) by a more authoritative figure. The interesting thing is that your research paper gains more credibility and authority when you have all these renowned scholars backing up your statements. Therefore, your thesis must have a lot of in-text citations and a clear reference list.

Whenever you find a useful idea from a book or an article, copy it together with the title of the book or article, name of the author, the year of publication, the publisher, and the page number where you found the information you needed. Put these quotes small cards of paper that can be ordered and reordered. It may seem a little time-consuming at first, however, it will save you a lot of time when you begin writing your first draft.

4. Personal Experience

Personally, I think the purpose of writing a thesis in the fifth semester is to independently learn how to research and write an academic paper. The most difficult part for me is doing it by myself. Because there is no class to attend and no assignments from professors to expect, it is hard for me to stick to a regular schedule to write my thesis. If you are used to accomplishing tasks mostly by extrinsic motivation, or if you do not have strong motivation for thesis writing, I recommend you not to take the thesis writing option. You need to rely on yourself here

Another piece of advice I can give my fellow graduate students is to keep a good relationship with classmates and other people who are

writing a thesis. While talking to my friends and classmates, I can find comfort and learn small tips, such as how to interpret statistics, efficient ways of organizing data, and how to overcome stress, among other things. I think that sharing your ideas and your experiences and helping each other are the best ways you can do to reduce the difficulties of the writing process.

5. Conclusion

All the things I have mentioned above are what I understand about writing a thesis based on what I have experienced so far and on advice I have received from professors and fellow students. They are by no means the only way to write a thesis. You may have a different way of doing things. You may even find new and better ways to make the writing process a lot less difficult. The important thing is that you share what you learn with other students. Finishing a thesis means that you have a printed copy to show at the end of all you hard work. But it also entails a valuable experience of learning and sharing that you will remember for the rest of your life.

Swinging the Practicum

Suzie Kim

1. Introduction

As all the TESOL graduate students know, in order to receive their hard-earned MA degree there are two ways to go about it. The choice involves either writing a long and stressful, but undoubtedly proud, thesis on a specific topic or doing the less long but more stressful Practicum/exam package, which covers what the student has learned in their classroom experience and in this program.

The word "thesis" immediately takes your breath away. It sounds great but it's simply overwhelming trying to deal effectively with a specific idea in the haze of infinite knowledge acquired in the previous two years. Ah, the choices are so boundless as to what thesis candidates can write, however, as the final semester arrives and the pressure is on, the mind boggles with endless revision after revision and one begins to wish the road that they had chosen could magically make a U-turn and lead them blissfully to the land of Practicum.

Upon first glance the Practicum sounds so tempting with only an exam to be taken and some course work to be completed, but the truth is realized when one is confronted head on with a nerve wrecking "comprehensive" exam which is, in reflection not surprisingly, outrageously comprehensive. On top of the exam, PEP has to be prepared every week with the group members, and let's not forget the readings assigned by the professors. OK, the Practicum is not exactly a cakewalk either.

Both options present a final and extremely high hurdle to getting the Master's degree. Still a choice must be made. Then, why think of doing the Practicum over the thesis? The thesis seems to have more prestige compared to the exam. A thesis seems permanent because you get

copies you can give to family, friends, and co-workers, but which sometimes end up sitting in the trunk of your car. And it is specific. Along with a serious time handicap, the thesis impels one to exclusively cover an area in depth while the Practicum doesn't. In the end having a comprehensive view over the broad area of TESOL doesn't seem all that bad. In fact that is what I did and I don't regret it for a second.

2. Practicum Classes

The Practicum classes I and II are required courses that must be successfully completed in order to take the comprehensive exam. These courses, of course, are about approaches to teaching English in Korea. These are similar to other courses offered throughout the previous semesters in that they take some of the ideas and concepts introduced in those classes and reintroduce them into a new and challenging context. In general, Practicum I focuses on PEP (Peer English Practice) planning and presentation, while Practicum II focuses on PEP evaluation and reflections on teaching.

The PEP that we did provides free, non-credit English speaking and writing practice to Sookmyung students. It is organized by the Practicum professors (Kim and van Vlack) and lead by the TESOL Graduate School students taking the Practicum to enhance the development of their teaching skills through observed planning and practice. The PEP program is targeted to undergraduate students who need to take the MATE test as a graduation requirement and must achieve a moderate level of English if not commanding. The PEP is designed to meet twice a week for about an hour each time with the group leaders (the Practicum students) teaching in pairs. During PEP meetings, the leaders act upon lesson plans prepared in turns by their peers in the Practicum I class. The lesson plans are prepared at least two weeks in advance of the day they are proposed to be taught and are presented for review at least twice to the entire group before being finalized. In this way, through the

process or feedback and revision we wound up with what seemed to be effective lesson plans the PEP members responded positively to.

But life is not all roses and butter. While running the PEP meetings all sorts of mistakes and errors can occur. Those are commented and reflected upon in the Practicum II class. Here we get feedback on the performance side of teaching. PEP meetings are discussed during this class time and the group leaders share what they've accomplished. As the PEP continues throughout the semester, the leaders and the members usually establish a keen relationship. This helps the PEP members to attend the meetings regularly and leaders can observe their progress and achievements as it mirrors their own.

3. Comprehensive Exam

Through all the toil and excitement of preparing and discussing the PEP meetings, there is still one thing, actually three, which never leaves the minds of all the practicum members - the comprehensive exams. The exam is divided into three separate parts: language teaching methodology, curriculum/materials design and second language learning theories. These three separate exams, taken together, basically cover most of the classes offered in the two-year cycle of course offerings. All the subjects that you have taken have to be considered in detail and some people (including me) do get nervous trying to remember what was learned, especially when you find that you did not take good notes during class. There is simply a massive amount of material that needs to be known for the exams.

There is, however, a system for how to prepare for the exams and here it is. The Practicum students are provided with study questions and possible definitions for each test, but beware because these study questions change a bit every semester. The first glance at the question sheets often induces a high degree of nervousness in the poor Practicum student. The first reaction is generally a depressed panic. Why the panic?

It's likely due to having no clue about certain questions. Within the four semesters of coursework we all took not all courses offered have been taken by any one of the members. Some may not have any clue to questions related to bilingualism while some know little about the intricacies of curriculum design. This wide scope of the exams renders every member of the Practicum extremely useful. No one can pass these exams working alone.

Because of this the students are set up in groups from the very beginning of the semester. Certain students elect to choose a certain subject to work on and each member is made responsible for a particular set of questions that they, more or less, feel confident with and use their expertise in a specific area to temporarily relieve the other student's burden of not knowing everything for the exam. Working together, the students manage to cover all the respective gaps in their knowledge and experience. After all the organizing, then, the real work sets in. Each student has to write up an extended answer to each of the questions they have taken and a comprehensive definition for each of their assigned definitions. This is hard work and requires going back and looking at notes and course materials and even no small amount of research. You see, the study questions are purposefully general while the questions on the actual exam are specific. Because we never know what aspect of the vague question will be asked we have to try to give a very comprehensive answer that covers all the bases.

With the flurry of excitement indicative of all new challenges the first month and a half passes by quickly worrying about how the questions should be answered without actually going about answering them. The panic stage hits again as the date for the exam is set. Cramming is the worst thing to do as a student, but it is done as the members start to turn in their initial answers to their questions for tentative approval from the professor. Many questions look for broad and diverse answers to fill the pages when the actual exam hour comes and it is not surprising when we are told we left things out or that some ideas we included are not

closely related to the question. We all revise and then share the final versions of our answers with everyone. In the end of the writing process every practicum student winds up with a veritable book of answers covering all the questions. All that is left to do is read and internalize the answers we and our classmates have so carefully crafted and wait for the exam to descend upon us, which it does like a lead cloud.

The wait is the most hand sweating part till the exam itself. All the memorized answers black out right before your eyes, the harder you try to think. However, once your pen starts writing out the exam, a well-appreciated rush of adrenalin enables us to complete the exam successfully. There is a mere 70 minutes to answer all those questions. No time to think. You must know your answers before you start to write and write like the wind. Not a pretty paper. No time for neatness. Blink too much and you are suddenly out of time. We do this three times over two consecutive days. And then it's all done.

When everything is over and done with, most exam takers feel as if a huge load has been taken off the shoulders. Most of us wonder how the others have answered but what's the point of talking about it? The only thing left to do is to enjoy the long lost nights of rest and endure the strain of waiting to hear the results. Worst case scenario, I do all again next semester.

4. Getting the Result

For the thesis, revisions are made constantly and even after passing the first defense, another set of revisions awaits. If you don't do them well, you can still fail and the revision process spills into the next semester, but in a less harried fashion. It is an easy cruise, even though it might take longer. This is not the case with the Practicum. For the Practicum members the exam result is a definitive, black and white final destination. There is no possibility for revision. You can't make the test up again soon. You either pass or fail. You pass and you're done. You get your life back.

If you fail, you do the whole thing, just the exams, not the coursework unless you failed that too, all over again the next semester. Remember the questions change so it really is like doing something new but a bit familiar. On the Practicum the result is everything.

It's difficult to weigh the respective advantages of the thesis and Practicum, but as mentioned before if one seeks a lovely piece of written work in a blue hard cover, please do so with plenty of time on your hands. While those who have no time to afford on long hours of research and revisions, should consider ending the Master's course with one big bang. It's the vicious black and white, pass or fail aspect of the Practicum that frightens many but with the help of the members and professors, the Practicum turned out to be the best option, at least for me. Besides, honing an all around basic knowledge of TESOL as working teachers and English educators might also have its own rewards.

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