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Introductory Remark

Where have all the students gone for English?

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We hear more often than not if we have to send our children abroad, specifically to English speaking countries for English education. Parents are puzzled about the situations with which their children are faced at present in our 'globalized' society, and they desperately ask us for expert answers, the answers we may never be able to provide without taking the risk of losing face. Let's think about two points regarding English education in Korea.

The first issue is about concrete goals of English education, for example, if we are teaching English as a communicative tool for international contact situations, written and/or spoken purposes. This question leads us to the next one, namely what if we don't need English on a daily basis, but instead only in very sporadic situations? This latter question seems rather easy to answer because learning a foreign language is an important step on the path to getting into college. Luckily English does not function as a tool of laymen's communication, but of exclusive personnel in high ranking officials and managers in Korea. We still believe that Korea is a monolingual and monocultural society, a serious misunderstanding regarding the statistical reality of our country. In fact Korea is a multilingual and multicultural society, like it or not. More than 1% of the population of Korea comes from other countries. They want true communication with us, in either English or Korean.

The second issue is an educational issue regarding so called early education of English. English language teaching is a critical part of training the human mind, especially when the learning is taking place as early as age four. Throughout elementary school and secondary school there is a demand on our children to take full charge of learning English, a challenging task to

perform. The answer is content-based instruction, i.e. teaching subject matter in English. Other subject teaching can be delivered in English only with proper preparation. Simple or abstract concepts, ideas, philosophy, societal issues, and science will provide a full range of training tasks. This is what we want to pursue further for the benefit of English education in Korea.

The Ministry of Education is taking a step forward in teaching content matter in English, such as math and science from primary school level. Other subjects will soon follow, and we want to get ready for teacher training here. Our students will stay safe and be successful in Korea.

Reading as Input for Grammar Development in Writing: Is Comprehensible Input Enough?

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In an ESL/EFL environment, developing grammatical structure is one of necessary skills in a better writing proficiency. In order to do that, Krashen (1985a) suggested that forms are acquired via comprehensible input only and that once acquired, a form is fully available for production. However, it is not enough and too much simplified explanation for that. As VanPatten (1996) mentions, L2 learners process meaning before they process for form because lexical items have priority over grammatical morphology. In this vein, comprehensible input (exposure to reading), which is predominantly meaning-focused cannot produce native-like grammatical competence in learners' output (writing). In the meantime, the comprehensible output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) claims that production can aid a more complete acquisition when the learners are pushed to produce appropriate language that is grammatically accurate. Regular practice at writing should therefore improve students' control over syntax. Through practice of writing (output), learners can notice his or her weakness of certain grammar point and therefore can more focus on form. Another way of doing is visual input enhancement by bolding, capitalizing, or underlining. It is implicit and unobtrusive means to draw the learners' attention to form contained in the written input (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Therefore, the purpose of this paper is finding the better ways for developing grammar in writing in a meaning-based context (reading) with using various second language theories.

1. Introduction

In recent years, one of the issues on which all researchers appear to be in agreement is that there can be no second/foreign language learning or

acquisition without language input. The most common meaning as used in second language acquisition is language data that the learner is exposed to, that is, the learner's experience of the target language in all its various manifestations. As Krashen (1982) mentions, if comprehensible input makes learners acquire language and thus produce language such as speaking or writing it would be a perfectly enjoyable and natural principle in learning language. However, the notion of comprehensible input has been criticized on a number of different grounds by various researchers (e.g. Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987; Swain, 1985). Apart from criticism about the difficulty of operationalizing the input hypothesis as it is currently conceptualized, research shows that predominantly meaning-focused instruction does not produce native-like grammatical competency. Evaluations of the Canadian immersion programs by Swain (1985) have shown that while students, who have been provided with comprehensible input, acquired fluency, they do not show an equivalent control over a range of grammatical items. As a result of these findings, comprehensible input alone for grammar development is not enough. So Swain (1985) put forward the comprehensible output hypothesis that claims production can aid a more complete acquisition when the learners is pushed to produce appropriate language that is grammatically accurate. Regular practice at writing should therefore improve students' control over syntax. But is it possible for students to acquire their syntax incidentally, while they are focusing on meaning during reading? Or can they focus on both meaning and form at the same time?

In this paper, in order to develop grammar in writing production, several SLA theories have been reviewed and made its connection with reading and writing.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Reading for Comprehension vs. Reading for Acquisition

As we see in the following Figure 1, learners' developmental grammar may have those forming negative statements such as "I no must do it." Being exposed to the nativelike order – "I must not do it" – may not necessarily bring about a change in that system. Given there two basic possibilities, that

is, processing input for meaning (comprehension) and processing input for acquisition, it is necessary to have a good idea of what processing for acquisition involves (Smith, 1993).

FIGURE 1 (Smith, 1993, p. 168)

Input	Understanding	Learning (intake for acquisition)	Output
I must not do it	yes	no	*I no must do it
I ran home	yes	no	*I runned home

2.2 Input

2.2.1 Comprehensible Input

2.2.1.1 Input Hypothesis

According to Krashen (1982, 1985a), the Input Hypothesis states learners acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is a little beyond their current level of (acquired) competence, which he calls "*i*+1." The Input Hypothesis claims that reading and listening comprehension are of primarily importance in a second language program, and that the ability to write (or speak) fluently in a second language will come on its own with time.

The Input Hypothesis states that in order for acquirers to progress to the next stages in the acquisition of the target language, they need to understand input language that includes a structure that is part of the next stage. Thus, of the acquirers are "up to" the third person singular morpheme –s in English, they can only acquire this morpheme if they read or hear messages that utilize this structure and understand meaning.

To state the hypothesis a bit more formally, an acquirer can "move" from a stage *i* (where *i* is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage *i*+1 (where *i*+1 is the stage immediately following *i* along some natural order) by understanding language containing *i*+1 (Krashen, 1985a). In addition, this stance assumes that conscious attempts to gain language knowledge through overt instruction and focus on form rarely, if ever, lead to true acquisition (Gardner, 2004). The following in Figure 2 is the summary of the Input Hypothesis.

FIGURE 2

The Input Hypothesis: Major Points (Krashen, 1985a, p.23)

1. Relates to acquisition, not to learning.
2. People acquire by understanding language a bit beyond their current level of competence. This is done with the help of context.
3. Spoken fluency emerges gradually and is not taught directly.
4. When caretakers talk to ac acquirers so that the acquirers understand the message, input automatically contains "i+1," the grammatical structures the acquirer is "ready" to acquire.

The requirement that input be comprehensible has several interesting implications for classroom practice. First, it implies that whatever helps comprehension is important. This is why visual aids are so useful. They supply the extra-linguistic context that helps the acquirer to understand and thereby to acquire. Second, it implies that vocabulary is important. With more vocabulary, there will be more comprehension and with more comprehension, there will be acquisition. A third implication is that in giving input, in talking to students, the teacher needs to be concerned primarily with whether the students understand the message (Krashen, 1985a).

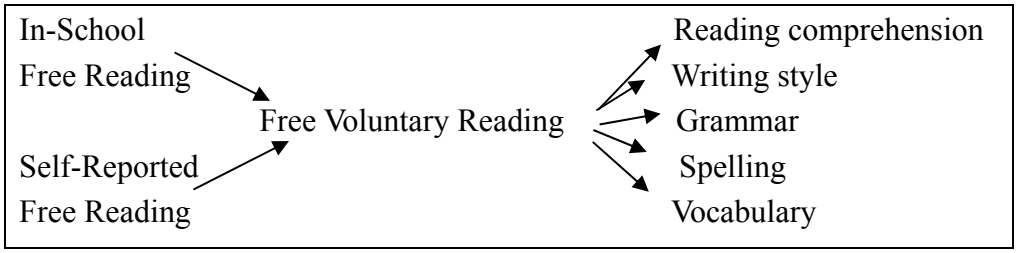
Long (1982, p. 347) summarizes the main assumptions of the Input Hypothesis as follows: (1) access to comprehensible input is characteristics of all cases of successful language acquisition, in both first and second language acquisition; (2) greater quantities of comprehensible input seem to result in better (or faster) L2 acquisition; and (3) lack of access to comprehensible input results in little or no acquisition.

2.2.1.2 Free Voluntary Reading

Krashen (1993) has claimed that one source of comprehensible input is free voluntary reading (FVR). According to Krashen (1993), FVR means reading because readers want to: no book reports, no questions at the end of the chapter. It is one source of comprehensible input. Among in-school FVR, there are three kinds of in-school free reading programs: sustained silent reading, self-selected reading, and extensive reading. In sustained silent

reading, both teachers and students engage in free reading for short periods each day (from 5 to 15 minutes; Pilgreen, 2000). In self-selected reading, free reading is a large part of the language arts program, with teachers holding conference with students to discuss what was read. In extensive reading, a minimal amount of accountability is required, for example, a short summary of what was read. The combination of in-school free reading and out of school self-reported free voluntary reading studies show that more reading results in better reading comprehension, writing style, vocabulary, vocabulary, spelling, and grammatical development. The following Figure 3 summarizes the reading hypothesis (Krashen, 1993).

FIGURE 3 (Krashen, 1993, p.17)



Although the results of reported free voluntary reading studies are impressive, there are some problems with this research. First, the studies rely on how much reading people say they do which may or may not be accurate. Second, one can imagine other factors that could have been responsible for literacy development. Perhaps those who read more also did other things, such as vocabulary exercises, or perhaps those who did more drills and exercises in school did better on reading tests and also become better readers and thus read more.

2.2.2 Processing Input

According to Smith (1993) Input, taken literally, is a misleading term. Because people can not know from observation alone exactly what is processed by the learner at a given moment in time, many utterances to which the learner is exposed may contain elements that pass by the learner. The part of input that has actually been processed by the learner and turned into knowledge of some kind has been called intake (Corder, 1982). In Processing Input introduced by VanPatten and Cadierno (1993a), they explain these

differences.

FIGURE 4

Processes in Second Language Acquisition
(VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993b, p. 226)

I II III
Input → intake → developing system → output

What Figure 4 attempts to capture are three distinguishable sets of processes in acquisition. The first (I) converts input to intakes. From intake the learner must still develop an acquired system; that is, not all of intake is automatically fed into the acquired system. The second set of processes (II) then includes those that promote the accommodation of intake and the restructuring of the developing linguistic system. Finally, research on output reveals that learner language is not a direct reflection of acquired competence. Thus, a third set of processes (III) must be posited to account for certain aspects of language production, e. g. monitoring, accessing, control, and so on.

FIGURE 5

Traditional Explicit Grammar Instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993b, p.227)

Input → intake → developing system → output
↑
↑
focused practice

Input processing is concerned with the first set of processes, that is, conversion of input to intake. Note that in Figure 4, the input data (i.e. intake) flow into the developing system. In other words, the arrows go from left to right, not from right to left. Rather than manipulate learners' output to effect change in the developing system (as seen in Figure 5), input processing might seek to change the way that input is perceived and processed by the learner

(as seen in Figure 6).

FIGURE 6

Processing instruction in Foreign Language Teaching (VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993b, p. 227)
Input → intake → developing system → output ↑ processing mechanisms ↑ focused practice

VanPatten (1996) also mention readers do attend to form once it is relatively easy to extract the meaning. In his processing input principles, SL learners process meaning before they process for form (e.g. lexical items have priority over grammatical morphology and more meaningful morphology has priority over less meaningful morphology). Then, if they are to concentrate their attention on form, they must be able to process the communicative content of the message at little or no cost to their attentional resources, which are always a limiting factor.

In addition, according to VanPatten and Cadierno (1993b, p.239), output practice may be useful because "learners need to develop their abilities in accessing the developing system for fluent and accurate production" (DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996). Therefore, performance on production tests should be as good for students who received "processing instruction" (comprehension practice) as for those who engaged in production practice (Cardierno, 1995; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993a).

2.3 Output

The notion of comprehensible input has been criticized on a number of different grounds by various writers (e.g. Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987; Swain, 1985). Apart from criticisms about the difficulty of operationalizing the input hypothesis as it is currently conceptualized, research shows that predominantly meaning-focused instruction does not produce native-like grammatical competency. Evaluations of the Canadian immersion programs have shown that while students, who have been provided with

comprehensible input, acquire considerable fluency and possess discourse skills, they do not show an equivalent control over a range of grammatical items. As a result of these findings Swain (1985) put forward the comprehensible output hypothesis that claims that production can aid a more complete acquisition when the learner is pushed to produce appropriate language that is grammatically accurate. Regular practice at writing should therefore improve students' control over syntax. She states that when learners are required to produce pushed output, they may be forced to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing. In a subsequent study, Swain (1985) identifies a number of different roles for output: (1) It enables learners to improve their fluency; (2) it may help learners to notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say; (3) it serves as a means by which learners can test hypotheses about comprehensibility or linguistic correctness, and (4) it can help learners to develop metalinguistic knowledge of how the second language works. She maintains the position that both comprehensible input and comprehensible output are important for L2 acquisition. Thus, is it possible for students to acquire their syntax incidentally, while they are focusing on meaning? Or can they focus on both meaning and form at the same time?

Krashen (1985a) argued that it is form the student's act of processing for meaning that the grammar of the SL is internalized. In addition, according to Krashen's Natural Approach, forms are acquired via comprehensible input only, and that once acquired, a form is fully available for production, except for the effect of the "output filter" (Krashen, 1985a).

The actual mechanism for the development of the interlanguage grammar is left unspecified. This lack of specificity and the evidence from evaluation of the Canadian immersion programs has led other researchers to claim a role for focus on form for the development of the SL grammar (Doughty, 1991; Ellis, 1999; Long, 1988; Long & Robinson, 1998).

2.4 Focus on Form

2.4.1 Definition of Focus on Form

The term "focus on form" is firstly introduced by Long (1988) and its definition is stated as follows (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

> focus on form… overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus on meaning or communication (Long, 1991, p. 45-46).

> focus on form… often consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production (Long & Robinson, 1998, p.23).

The first definition is the more theoretical one, offering little specific applicability for classroom use. The second one offers researchers and practitioners greater direction for practice implementation (Long & Robinson, 1998).

However, focus on formS has different meaning. It is equated with the traditional teaching of discrete points of grammar in separate lessons, and as such includes the approach advocated by DeKeyser (1998). Therefore, in focusing on form, learners can draw their attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lesson whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication (Long, 1991, p. 45-46).

In addition, the intended outcome of focus on form is what Schmidt (1993) calls noticing:

> I use *noticing* to mean registering the simple occurrence of some event, whereas understanding implies recognition of a general principles, rule, or pattern. For example, a second language learner might simply notice that a native speaker used a particular form of address on a particular occasion, or at a deeper level the learner might understand the significance of such a form, realizing that the form used was appropriate because of status differences between speaker and hearer. Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory… understanding relates to questions concerning how that material is organized into a linguistic system (Schmidt, 1993, p. 26).

2.4.2 Implication of focus on form

Focus on form – in the important sense of how the learner's attentional

resources are allocated at a particular moment – may (not will) be achieved pedagogically by materials designers or teachers in a variety of ways, of which the following are but three illustrations (Long & Robinson, 1998). First, frequent usage of certain forms is recommended. For example, in reading (and rereading) this task involves in written summaries of sales trends for different sectors of the Japanese economy, each of which uses such terms as *rose, fell, grew, sank, plummeted, increased, decreased, declined, doubled, deteriorated,* and *exceeded.* The frequency of these lexical items in the input, due to their repeated use in the different passages, and/or their being underlined or italicized, makes them more salient, and so increases the likelihood of their being noticed by students. If a subsequent task encourages it, the lexical items are therefore more likely to be incorporated in their speech or writing, as has been demonstrated can occur with written input for such tasks that is "seeded" with grammatical items, with closed tasks more apt to produce the useful "recycling" of the target items than open tasks (Manheimer, 1993). The other way of focusing on form is explicit negative feedback such as *metalinguistic explanation*. Having found the error to be pervasive and systematic, and knowing the problem to be remediable for learners, the teacher is usually justified interrupting the group work in order to draw attention to the problem. Another way that focuses on form may be attempted in through the provision of implicit negative feedback, such as *recasts*. Rather than control obstructing attention to language as object, the findings suggest that it facilitates use of a particularly salient procedure, recasting, through which teachers and materials designers can deliver focus on form without interrupting a lesson's predominant focus on meaning, a goal of all such analytic approaches (Long, in press).

An important factor that helps determine ease or difficulty of learning form-meaning mappings is, of course, frequency. According to N.Ellis (2002), the typical route of acquisition of grammar structures is from formulae through low-scope patterns to constructions and that the abstraction of regularities within these constructions is frequency-based. If the mapping is very clear, minimal exposure may be enough for acquisition; if it is very obscure, the structure may well never be acquired. Therefore, the learner/reader makes the meaning from the form better when they have more

opportunities to process the form in the meaningful context of reading a passage (N.Ellis, 2003, p. 132).

3. Discussion

According to Krashen's *The Power of Reading* (1993), increasing writing quantity does not affect writing quality. Instead of writing to write, reading for pleasure and enjoyment more affects writing itself. When people read the book, their reading for comprehension (semantic processing) and reading for acquisition (syntactic processing) are differently processed. If readers can attend to form once it is relatively easy to extract the meaning (VanPatten, 1996), how do they learn syntax through reading and thus produce it in writing? How do they develop their grammar in writing without traditional grammar instruction? Is it possible that only exposure to reading (comprehensible input), as Krashen suggested, can enhance writing proficiency with accurate grammar usage?

As many studies argued, comprehensible input alone is not enough to develop grammar in writing. Through comprehensible output (practice of writing) and visible input enhancement (e.g., bolding, capitalizing, or underlining), target form can be noticeable so that learners can access syntactic processing in meaning-based text (reading) followed by relevant input.

3.1 Comprehensible Input (Exposure to Reading): Insufficient model for Grammar Development in Writing

The role of reading as a function of general language proficiency has received considerable attention among researchers and teachers over the last two decades or more. As "an intrapersonal problem-solving task that takes place within the brain's knowledge structures" (Bernhardt, 1991, p.6), reading is understood not only as a cognitive activity, but as a social process that is vital to the success of academic L2 writers (Eskey, 1993; McKay, 1993). Furthermore, the act of reading involves a transformation of the reader's state of knowledge (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998).

A fundamental principle of L2 education is that students acquire more knowledge and learn more efficiently when abundant and meaningful input is

made available to them (Krashen, 1985a). Consequently, many ESL writing courses are found on the premise that "writing competence results somehow from exposure to reading, and good readers make good writers" (Carson, 1993, p. 85). Krashen (1984) summarized much of the L1 and L2 research related to this topic, which leads to his unequivocal assertion that "reading exposure is the primary means of developing language skills" (1985b, p. 109), including grammatical knowledge, vocabulary, and writing proficiency. Controversial and subject to frequent criticism, Krashen's more extreme claims are nonetheless important for ESL composition teachers because they highlight a fundamental argument: The emergence of academic literacy must, to some extent, depend on learners' exposure to and processing of print matter.

Studies of voluntary reading among L1 and L2 learners in various age groups offer empirical confirmation that the ability to produce written text emanates at least partly from long-term, self-initiated reading and that this ability can develop without learners' conscious awareness. In Birnbaum's (1982) study of fourth- and seventh-grade NES students, for example, the more proficient writers had typically engaged in voluntary reading as well as self-sponsored writing. Applebee (1978) likewise discovered that high school students who reading an average of 14 books during the summer vacation were also successful writers whose composition scores were superior to those of students who reported reading significantly fewer books. These studies and others like it (e.g., Donalson, 1967) systematically indicate a positive relationship between good reading habits (e.g., reading extensively, reading for pleasure outside of school, etc.) and a demonstrable ability to compose fluent, meaningful, and grammatically accurate text (cf. Krashen, 1984).

The similar studies have been done in L2 reading and writing. Because of ESL learners' unique and complex situation, the positive effects of self-initiated and assigned reading on their L2 writing proficiency are more difficult to discern than they might be for L1 writers. The task of literate ESL writers involves challenges that L1 writers never confront. For example, the ESL writers with whom this section is concerned bring to the ESL composition class a set of L1 literacy skills that may be well developed (Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, & Kuehn, 1990). Nonetheless, their

English literacy skills require support "from a language system which, in the early stages at least, is insufficiently developed to allow those learners the full range of literacy practices to which they are accustomed" (Eisterhold, 1990, p. 94). Therefore, ESL composition teachers must take into account their students' not-yet-native knowledge of the structure and use of written English, not to mention the possibility of transfer and nontransfer of L1 literacy skills into L2 performance (Eisterhold, 1990; Friedlander, 1990).

Salyer (1987) compared the English writing performance of two groups of college ESL students: the first group reported extensive pleasure reading in English, whereas the second reported almost none (although students said that they read for pleasure in their L1s). Whereas the two groups had begun their ESL composition course at the same level of writing proficiency, the groups that reported frequent pleasure reading showed significantly greater improvement by the end of the course. In an analogous study, Janopoulos (1986) examined the reading habits and writing performance of graduate ESL students. Based on significant relationships between amount of self-initiated reading and standard writing scores, he concluded that "the amount of pleasure reading a foreign student does in English may be used as a reliable predictor of his/her English writing proficiency" (p. 767).

However, enthusiastic reading proponents have further argued for the primacy of reading over explicit writing and grammar instruction in L2 classrooms (Goodman, Goodman, & Hood, 1989).

3.2 Output (Practice of Writing) for Grammar Development in Writing

Some of researchers have been argued that reading may actually make a more significant contribution to writing proficiency than the practice of writing, particularly when reading is self-initiated or self-selected (Krashen, 1984; McQuillan, 1994). Shanahan (1984) mentioned reading for pleasure is not enough for enhancing writing proficiency because there is no reason to assume that extensive reading of any sort automatically leads to competent reading or composing skills. It has been also been shown that college ESL writers may need to develop an explicit awareness of rhetorical and grammatical conventions before they can reproduce academic tests such as summaries, essays, reports and research papers (Carrell, 1987; Carson et al.,

1990; Connor & Farmer, 1990). In fact, the ability to read and make sense of academic content actually entails a large number of microskills that may not be apparent to those of us who take many such skills for granted.

Although ESL teachers must appreciate their responsibility to promote productive reading habits and skills among their students (Carson & Leki, 1993), they should be careful not to subordinate writing practice to reading: "The more experience students have writing about specific topics in particular genres and contexts, the more confidence they gain and the more fluent their writing becomes" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1993, p. 122).

In series of studies (Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara & Fearnow, 1999), they investigated whether output (essay-writing task) would indeed alter the learners' subsequent input processing and promote their interlanguage development. Focusing on the English grammar, past hypothetical conditional, these studies compared a group that was given writing opportunities and subsequent exposure to relevant input and a group that received the same input for the sole purpose of comprehension. The results indicated a significant improvement on the form only after the second phase of the treatment, which suggested the importance of extended opportunities to produce output and receive input in effecting substantial learning.

3.3 Visual Input Enhancement in Reading for Grammar Development in Writing

Visual input enhancement is an implicit and unobtrusive means to draw the learners' attention to form contained in the written input (Doughty & Williams, 1998). The basic method of the enhancement is simply increasing the perceptual salience of the target form via combinations of various formatting techniques (e.g., bolding, capitalizing, or underlining – see example 1), which may sometimes be accompanied by an explicit mention to the learners to attend to the highlighted form. With a particular form chosen for the target, the enhancement embedded in the overall reading lesson aims to achieve the integration of attention to form and attention to meaning.

Example 1 (Smith, 2004, p. 270)

The resultS of this study question the pedagogical practice that restricts learners' exposure to grammatical itemS until after these itemS are explicitly taught and practiced. The resultS strongly indicate that learnerS can make meaning out of formS they have never formally studied as well as make connectionS between the formS and their meaningS.

Noticing the form (focus on form) with input enhancement has been studies by many researchers. Alanen's (1995) study suggested that noticing seems to be an important factor in accounting for subsequent learning, but the cross-comparison of the noticing results and learning outcomes suggests that noticing seemed to be induced by a variety of factors, such as input enhancement. White (1988) reported that many learners noticed the forms but were not sure of their relevance or importance, which arguably accounted for the limited improvement by the enhancement group in her study.

4. Conclusion

Krashen's Input Hypothesis states understanding input makes learners acquire grammatical structures in a second language and reading as input has an important role for developing linguistic system and writing as output. However, his hypothesis has not enough explanation for grammar development and connection of reading and writing.

Reading for comprehension (semantic processing) and reading for acquisition (syntactic processing) are different. As VanPatten (1996) mentions, L2 learners process meaning before they process for form so that readers can attend to form once it is relatively easy to extract the meaning. In this vein, comprehensible input (exposure to reading), which is predominantly meaning-focused cannot produce native-like grammatical competence in learners' output (writing). In order to complement input hypothesis, Input processing was come out. Input processing is concerned with the first set of processes, that is, conversion of input to intake. For this conversion from input to intake, readers should process reading consciously and subconsciously. It points out importance of output as well as relevant

input. In addition, according to VanPatten and Cadierno (1993b, p.239), output practice may be useful because "learners need to develop their abilities in accessing the developing system for fluent and accurate production." In the meantime, the comprehensible output hypothesis claims that production can aid a more complete acquisition when the learners are pushed to produce appropriate language that is grammatically accurate. Regular practice at writing should therefore improve students' control over syntax. Through practice of writing (output), learners can notice his or her weakness of certain grammar point and therefore can more focus on form. Through writing practice, learners can draw their attention to mismatches between input and output, that is, causes them to focus on form, and can induce noticing of the kinds of forms for which a pure diet of comprehensible input will not suffice. Another way of developing grammar is visual input enhancement. Visual input enhancement (e.g., bolding, capitalizing, or underlining) is an implicit and unobtrusive means to draw the learners' attention to form contained in the written input (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Through two ways which are applied from output hypothesis and input enhancement, grammar can be developed in writing in a better way.

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Evaluating and Suggesting on Literacy Programs for a Public Elementary School in Korea

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The purpose of this paper is to review the current literacy curriculum for a public elementary school, and to suggest a revised program that could contribute to students' literacy development. This paper consists of three parts. The existing curriculum is described in the first section, with goals, objectives and teaching methods. Positive aspects of the program include spoken language before written language, the language experience approach and oral reading. The negative aspects of the program include lack of authentic information, neglect of students' interests, and literacy-poor environment. The last section proposes a revised program that could be applied in the classroom at elementary school level, along with a lesson plan.

1. The current program description

General information

This is for the 5th graders in a public elementary school. They take English twice a week, 40 minutes per class. They have been learning English for three years. The textbook is composed of 16 function-based units.

1.2 Goals and objectives

1.2.1 Goals and objectives

According to the 7th national curriculum of elementary English, the goal is that students should be able to improve the basic reading and writing skills for the various communicative functions in the targeted topic areas.

Objectives are that students should be able to;

· read sentences and match them to the corresponding pictures.
· make sentences with the given words.
· rearrange the scrambled sentences and read correctly.

· read a short diary, letter/card and explain the meaning.
· compose short writings related to topics and functions.
· apply learned expressions creatively.

Literacy skills

According to the 7th national curriculum of elementary English, the teacher should;

· encourage students to practice and enhance vocabulary, language and comprehensible skills.
· promote literacy related play activities.
· stimulate students to participate in activities that involve reading and writing such as a letters, cards, posters and diaries.
· help students understand graphic-phoneme relationships.
· emphasize the importance of correct spelling in finished written products.

Linguistic factors

Grammar and syntax are not taught through direct instructions, but they are repeated in meaning focused interaction with students. The important and repeated forms are confirmed in inductive ways through classroom interactions such as “What did you do yesterday?” “I played computer games.” “What are you doing?” “I’m playing computer games.” and so on. Also, students’ errors are corrected in a natural way. For instance, if a student says, “He don’t like to play soccer,” the teacher recasts in a correct form, “He doesn’t like to play soccer.”

Topics and functions

Topics and functions are selected based on what the students are familiar with and what they have learned through experience.

Table 1.
Topics and functions (the 5th grade textbook)

Unit	Topic	Unit	Topic

1	· Greetings	9	· Asking about possession
2	· Naming dates	10	· Food
3	· Describing position	11	· Describing what they do (using the present progressive form)
4	· Describing weather (using an exclamatory sentence)		
5	· Giving directions	12	· Describing a house
6	· Describing daily routine	13	· Describing past experience
7	· Describing physical appearance	14	· Telephone talk
8	· Suggesting	15	· Inviting
		16	· Describing what they did during a vacation

A method of teaching

Students learn oral language first, and then reading and writing. The teacher wants students to look at pictures in the book and asks them some questions to activate their schema, such as “What do you see?” “What are they doing?” “Where is it?” “Can you make up a short story with pictures?” “Can you guess what are they talking about?” The teacher tries to incite students’ background knowledge related to the topics. Students get some ideas about their lesson by answering and listening to other students’ responses. After that, the teacher asks students to read the title of the unit and repeat it together aloud. The main content or key expressions are learned through oral practice and activities first.

The teacher writes the key expression on the board when students practice spoken language. The orally learned words are presented in sentences. The visuals presented with the words or sentences assist students’ comprehension about the meanings. Their reading skill is developed from words, simple sentences, and conversation. Written language is also taught through various activities and tasks. The teacher gives lots of language input, and allows for a tolerant atmosphere in which students feel free to take risks in their language use. Table 2 shows literacy activities.

Table 2.

Literacy activities (Teacher’s guide book)

· Reading and matching sentences with pictures
· Filling in the blanks looking at pictures

· Completing sentences by linking word chunks
· Rewriting the scrambled sentences correctly
· Reading short descriptions and answering the questions
· Making a short story using the given sentences
· Completing a short story
· Correcting wrong words using various clues
· Reading a diary, letter, or card and correcting the mistakes of capitalization and punctuation
· Activities such as a board game, bingo, information gap, survey and making mini-books.

2. Critique

2.1 Positive points

2.1.1 Oral language first

Spoken language is learned before written language. According to Ong (1983), spoken language plays an important role in learning literacy. Human beings generally speak without any specific instruction but writing is different. Writing could not be managed without speaking. Human language is first expressed orally and repeated patterns are formulated into grammar rules and develop into writing (Ong, 1983). Spoken language has many variables and is easy to change depending on contexts and counter interlocutors.

According to Ong (1983), learning spoken language before writing is much more helpful for students' literacy development for several reasons. First, it follows the natural way of the human language learning process. Spoken language is much easier to learn than written language. Second, students are not afraid of taking risks since spoken language is more flexible and tolerable about ambiguity than written language. Third, students learn chunks of words from context as a meaningful unit for communication that is a goal of elementary school English education. Fourth, students can become more interested in learning and be more motivated because topics are related to their experiences and life. Students are best taught from their own experience and if their background knowledge is printed in a meaningful way, they will learn from reading it.

2.1.2 The Language Experience Approach (LEA)

The Language Experience Approach can help students connect oral language with written language (Morrow, 2001). According to Burgess (1997), LEA is one of the most effective approaches to teach ESL students to transition from oral language to reading print. Meaningful reading materials are created based on the students' own vocabulary, language patterns, and schema.

This approach can be used at all levels when students produce their own experiences. For example, when the teacher introduces the unit, students brainstorm words or expressions looking at pictures. At the same time, the teacher writes down on the blackboard what the students said. Students practice their learning by writing simple sentences. Writing development begins first with reading a sentence and filling in blinks. Next, the students read scrambled sentence strips and sequence them in a correct order. Then students read a short diary or card and rewrite it by revising some words related to their real life. Thus, four language skills are integrated and students can develop their literacy naturally through various language activities (7^{th} National Curriculum teacher's guide book).

2.2 Negative points

2.2.1 Lacking authentic information

The public elementary English literacy program is based on the 7^{th} national textbook. According to Kenne (2000), a textbook is a good tool in that it is organized in a regular sequence systematically to help students understand it easily, as well as learn specific skills with repeated, limited vocabulary, basic sentences and picture clues. It is designed to provide guidance in what to teach and in some cases, how to teach so that students will read widely and well.

However, the public elementary English textbook lacks authentic meaning and literacy qualities. It does not provide enough materials for students to practice various strategies to understand meaning. For instance, students should be able to practice reading in a top-down way as well as in a bottom-up way. And they could use their background knowledge and schema to catch meanings from the written text (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). However, the textbook is contrived within national regulation and its content, words and expressions often do not reflect real life situations. The

information in the textbook is often not very natural. It is difficult for students to get useful, meaningful information from it.

2.2.2 Neglecting student's interest

The textbook does not reflect students' proficiency levels and interests because it is developed targeting the average 5th grader from all over the country. It means that it could not meet all students' levels and interests properly. It could be too easy and boring for some students, and too difficult for some students. It reduces students' motivation to read. According to Nuttall (1996), choosing the right materials is very important for efficient and enjoyable reading. Therefore, the various reading materials should be used to complement the textbook, and to meet the students' levels and needs.

2.2.3 Teaching vocabulary

Vocabulary is critical to the reading process. Drucker (2003) found that almost the same number of words is necessary for reading in second language as reading in first language. Nagy & Herman (as cited in Bell, 1988) claim that students between grades three and twelve learn up to 3,000 words a year. It means that students can learn much more vocabulary from reading than direct vocabulary teaching. This suggests that reading interesting books is much more effective in promoting vocabulary growth than simply teaching new vocabulary.

2.2.4 Literacy-poor environment

Students need a literacy-rich environment that is important to foster interests in and curiosity about written language (Vacca, Vacca, &Gove, 2000). Graves, Watts, and Graves (1994) argue that students must be interested in books if they are to develop their full potential in reading. The textbook used in the classroom is not the only factor in developing reading skills. Teachers must extract students' curiosity and provide materials, which are interesting and able to motivate students. They also need to create a literate classroom environment so that students can read and discuss various authentic materials.

3. Revised literacy program

3.1 Goals and objectives

The followings are added to the above mentioned goals and objectives.
Students should be able to;

- develop good habits that enable enjoyable reading.
- develop various reading skills through efficient reading.

3.2 A method of teaching

3.2.1 Oral reading

Oral reading can be done either by the teacher or by the students. Davis & Lass (1996) argue that oral reading to the less able readers is especially important. These students lack the tools to benefit from exposure to language and concepts that are accessible to good readers. Even though they choose to read, the complexity and amount of vocabulary they meet is limited by the level of the books they are capable of reading. They are prevented from learning new concepts through reading. Oral reading helps to provide them with the vocabulary they are not attaining on their own. Oral reading provides readers a chance to hear the sound and see the corresponding graphic representation simultaneously.

3.2.2 Teaching vocabulary

Reading depends on the interaction between word identification and meaning. The new vocabulary can be more effectively learned when students are engaged in reading. According to Davis and Lass (1996), the word identification techniques that proficient readers use are sight, context, structural analysis, and phonic analysis, in that order. They use context to predict or infer its meaning and accept or reject word identification on the basis of whether or not the word fits the sense of the sentence. Davis and Lass (1996) suggest that all students need to develop the meaning of vocabulary. The more exposure to new words and concepts students receive, the deeper their comprehension of written materials will be. Students with wide and varied understanding of word meanings may be capable of reading the more challenging materials that are currently offered in the classroom.

3.2.3 Language Experience Approach (LEA)

According to Burns, Roe and Ross (1984), LEA is related with schema theory because it uses the student's experiences as the basis for written language, the

student will have adequate schemata to comprehend the reading. The vocabulary and language patterns used by students could be more difficult than those found in textbook. Nevertheless, students find their own language much easier to read because clues in familiar context are easier to use.

LEA helps students to see what they said in written form. According to the article of Language Experience Approach (Saskatchewan, 1992), LEA provides students with many opportunities to read and write in meaningful situations, which increase their vocabulary and concept development. It helps them to share common feeling with peers, and further to expand their knowledge about the world around them.

3.2.4 Applying extensive reading

According to Nuttall (1996), reading is an effective means of extending students' language command, and extensive reading is quite a good way to improve a foreign language. If the teacher can increase the amount of reading, s/he can improve their vocabulary. Extensive reading can be done in the morning for 30 minutes before the regular classes begin. Students work in groups and cooperate with one other. Graves, Watts and Graves (1994) claim that cooperative learning puts students with varying abilities and knowledge bases together so that they can provide scaffolding for each other as they work toward mastering strategies. Students select reading materials based on what they want to read from the classroom library. A competent student reads aloud first and less competent readers follow the reading matching the sounds and words. The teacher does not provide any worksheet but suggests that they talk about the content, ask one another questions, or write difficult or unknown words in their own dictionary.

3.2.5 Developing various activities

A wide variety of activities can be done in class to develop students' reading. A predicting activity is one that focuses students' attention on what to look for as they read. It is important for students to attend to everything in reading. Predicting makes students hypothesize about the meaning and structure of the following text. Students can predict by using background knowledge and many clues from the text such as title, pictures, and previous reading (Paul,

2000).

Also, the teacher can provide students with a short story that is familiar to them without last sentence. As they read the story in groups, they complete the story in spoken language or written language. This can be compared to the original sentence.

4. Implementing the revised program in the classroom

The existing curriculum is a foundation for the revised program. According to Graves (2000), need analysis is quite helpful in understanding students themselves, their levels, and how to teach effectively. Relevant factors include the existing curriculum, textbooks for the current and previous courses, students' language abilities and interests, learning styles, attitudes and the current state of the learners. The revised curriculum will be balanced between students' needs and curriculum requirements.

4.1 Lesson plan

These are two consecutive lesson plans for one chapter. The students will study for two periods (80 minutes) for two days. They will take a break for 15 minutes between periods. The topic, titles and the profile of students follow.

Table 3.
General information

Topic	Club Activities
Title of lesson	11. What do you want to do?
Source	Ministry of Education (2003). Elementary School English (5th). Seoul: Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development. The teacher developed some activities based on the lesson 11. What do you want to do?
Profile of target	- Age/grade: 11 years old, Elementary School 5th Grade, 36 students (male: 18 female: 18) in class

students	- English proficiency: Novice mid for 4 skills (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing) - Types of Class: 40 minutes period, 2 times per week - Motivation: Students are interested club activities cause they should join the school club as the school curriculum. - Experience: Most of students have a little knowledge of the target language. They have learned English for 4 years in school. Almost of them attend English classes at a language institute. - Familiar contents: They are familiar with present and progressive of some verbs, plural 's' and 3rd person singular. (i.e. wear, wearing, apples, wants, needs) - They are familiar with these words and expressions Verb: learn, join, want Nouns: dancer, actor, artist - Expressions: “What to you want to be in the future?” “I want to be a dancer.” - **Extensive reading program**: every morning 20 minutes before the regular class. - **Literacy environment**: English library with various authentic reading materials and the classroom is decorated with students’ works (such as frequently used expressions, song lyrics, a kid’s newspaper and so on) to read.

Contents	Vocabulary- skill, instrument Expressions - "Which club do you want to join?" "I want to join the computer club." "What do you do in the club?" "I learn many computer skills." Function- Expressing whishes Tasks- Listening and answering the questions, Reading for the information Saying what they want to do, Asking what they want to do Writing what they want to do
Objectives	By the end of the lesson, students should be able to -orally produce sentences what they want, using the expressions "Which club do you want to join?" "I want to join the computer club." "What do you do in the club?" "I learn many computer skills." -demonstrate their understanding by writing the correct number in the given pictures. -use the new content words in a proper situation. -orally answer to the question related to pictures. -demonstrate their understanding by checking yes or no questions about the text based on the club activities. -demonstrate their understanding by making up the dialogues of the club activities to join using the pictures. -demonstrate their understanding by filling the survey form using the expressions. -demonstrate their understanding by connecting the lines according the dialogue and writing what they want to be in the future.
Materials	cassette tape, cassette tape player, projection TV connected to the computer, worksheets, visual presenter

In the warm-up step, there are activities to retrieve students' background knowledge and to predict the coming content. The teacher asks students

"Which club do you want to join?" and tells them her/his club activities when she was a student. (I.e. I joined the dance club to learn western dance. I wanted to be a dancer.) The teacher writes their answer on the blackboard by making a web. Table 4. shows the procedure of the lesson.

Table 4. *Procedure of the lesson*

Day	Procedure	Description (time)	Note
1st day	Warm-up	**Activity 1. Let's think!** (10 minutes) The students write down the clubs that occur themselves in the different shapes. Then some of them show their webbing.	Worksheet#1
	Presentation	**Activity 2. Look and listen!** (20 minutes) The teacher introduces the new contents through the listening activity. The teacher asks students to name what they see in the picture before listening to make them predict what they will listen to the audio. **Activity 3. Read and circle!** (20 minutes) The teacher reads the dialogue aloud before the students read it. S/he encourages them to catch general information first.	Worksheet#2 Worksheet#3

	Post-activity	**Activity 4. Making a dictionary** (15 minutes) The students take out their own English dictionary book and add some unknown words. They write the unknown words and include pictures and sentences. **Activity 5. Information gap** (15 minutes) The teacher gives students two different type handouts. The students have to ask each other to fill the blanks.	

2nd day	Warm-up	Review the last lesson (5 minutes)	
	Presentation	**Activity 1. Talk with friends!** (8 minutes) In this activity, the students do a pair-work activity. The teacher has the students make up dialogues of club activities they want to join. The teacher walks around to help them. Some students present their work.	Worksheet#4
		Activity2. Ask friends. Tell the class! (10 minutes) The students do group work. The teacher divides students into 6 groups (each team has 6 members). Each group has to complete the survey form. Have the students ask, answer and write what club they want to join, what they want to do in the club and what they want to be in the future. The teacher goes around to check students and to correct their errors. Each group presents their results.	Worksheet#5

	Post-activity	**Activity 3. Making a poster!** (30 minutes) The teacher gives students, group project. The teacher puts students into groups of five or six, according to the kind of clubs they want to join in. Ask them to make a poster for their club. **Activity 4. Role-play: Club Promotion** (25 minutes) The students who make a poster for their activities then have to organize how to promote their club to make other students want to join. They have to write a short description. Each group promotes the club with music or props.	Put the students' work up on the wall of the classroom.
	Closure-follow up	**Guide extensive reading** (5 minutes) The teacher gives students homework. This is job search. The students gather information related to the job they want to have in the future. They should bring it to the next class. It might be a book, magazine or newspaper for the next day's morning reading.	

4.2 Implementation in the classroom

4.2.1 The aspects of schema

At the beginning of the unit, the teacher reads the title with the students, "*11. What do you want to do?"* in order to let them say what they will learn and read. Before reading, students need some ideas of what to expect in order to compare their expectation to what they encounter as they are reading. The teacher draws a web related to club activities (1st day-Activity1). The teacher asks students some questions about which club they want to join and what

they want to learn in the club. The teacher helps them to answer to the questions. After receiving predictions from students, the teacher lets them check whether their prediction was correct with the corresponding activity. This process will facilitate students' understanding and memory of what they read.

4.2.2 The aspects of oral reading

The students learn oral language first then they study reading and writing. The teacher has students look at pictures in the book and asks them some questions in order to activate their schema related to the subject. For instance, in the 1st day-Activity 2, the teacher asks: "In picture A, what's he wearing?" "What's she doing in picture B?", "Can you guess what the club name in picture C?" "What's the boy holding in picture D?", "Can you tell the name of the instruments in picture E?" The students listen and write the number in the blanks. According to Bell (1998), listening materials provide students with a model of correct pronunciation which aids word recognition and exposes students to different accents and speech rhythms. Students' confidence in their ability to produce natural speech patterns and to read along with the voice of a recorded speaker maintains their motivation to learn the language.

After listening, they check the answers with the teacher. The teacher puts the students in pairs and has them take turns pointing randomly to the pictures and asking each other questions about what they have learned, such as "Which club do you want to join?" "I want to join …" "I want to learn …" and so on.

Many students are familiar with the sentences in the textbook because they are learned orally first and are aided by visuals. Thus, the teacher asks questions for a competent student to answer by reading them (1st day-Activity 3.Read and circle). The teacher checks their pronunciation, suprasegmental factors, and comprehension. Then students read chorally after listening to the recording by native speakers. Finally, the teacher asks almost the same questions to poor readers to check their understanding, pronunciation and vocabulary.

4.2.3 The aspects of teaching vocabulary

According to an article from Scholastic Early Childhood Today (2001), making an English dictionary (1st day - Activity 4. Making a dictionary) is one of the best ways for students to maintain their interest in English and expand their vocabulary. Students may pay attention to the environmental printing materials in their daily routine such as food packages, newspapers, and magazines, and use them as material for their dictionary. Also, when they meet an unknown word, they write it down in their dictionary with a picture, a definition, or a sentence. They may add words that help them to understand the meanings, or to assist their spelling. They can also practice writing using the words and expressions from the dictionary depending on individual proficiency level. Furthermore, the dictionary can be shared with friends.

4.2.4 The aspects of LEA

This approach could be used in many topics such as family, vacation, daily routine, and shopping. For example, in this lesson plan to begin the lesson, the teacher writes the topic 'club' on the board. The teacher asks students questions like "Which club do you want to join?" "What do you want to learn in the club?" The teacher helps them to answer to the questions. Students think about their likes and speak out in words or sentences. The teacher writes on the board what they said. The students read the words or sentences with the teacher's help. The lesson begins with LEA and oral language. The discussion is usually generated from an interesting or exciting class experience. To begin the discussion, the teacher asks open-ended questions that will encourage descriptive responses rather than just yes/no.

4.2.5 The aspects of extensive reading

The teacher guides students to extensive reading (2nd – closure). Extensive reading has been going on in the morning for 20 minutes before the regular classes begin. In the first semester, students read relatively short materials with topics related to those in the textbook. Students work in groups and cooperate with one another. According to Graves, Watts and Graves (1994), cooperative learning puts students with varying abilities and knowledge bases together so that they can provide scaffolding for each other as they work toward mastering strategies. Students select reading materials based on what they want to read from the classroom library. A competent student reads aloud first and less competent readers follow the reading matching the sounds

and words. The teacher does not provide any worksheets or questions but suggests that they discuss the content, ask each other questions, or write difficult or unknown words in their own dictionary. Its purpose is to increase students' vocabulary and interest in reading.

4.2.6 The aspects of literacy environment

The teacher sets up the English library with various authentic materials such as kid's newspaper articles and cartoons, Internet sources and storybooks. Also, the teacher makes a pleasant and comfortable classroom environment where students are encouraged to take risks, and are praised for their strengths rather than being blamed for their weaknesses and have the opportunity to read independently or in a group every day. Every student will be enthusiastic about reading with the abundant reading materials and a supportive reading environment. Also, the teacher decorates the classroom with most students' outcomes related reading activities from the classes (2^{nd} – Activity3 and 4).

4.2.7 The aspects of reading activities

Many reading skills and activities can be introduced during the class to support students' effective and efficient reading. According to Pilgreen and Krashen (2000), follow-up activities are interactive and provide students with opportunities to use their excitement about the topic. The activities could be varied depending on students and reading materials. While students participate in follow-up activities, they could encourage others to be interested in the books they read and to learn new things. Also, the activities can motivate students to be more involved with books and to want to read further.

Reading and writing are closely associated with each other so any tasks or activities to improve one skill will influence the improvement of the other and vice versa (Nuttall, 1996). Students will improve their reading and writing abilities when they have many opportunities to write (Dickinson and Digisi, 1998). For example, making a poster for their club (2^{nd} day – Activity 3) will be interesting and will benefit students' reading and writing development. Students could learn the writing convention such as punctuation, capitalization and improve reading comprehension as well

because reading can be taught of as process of composing meaning. Also, through letter, diary or invitation card writing, students could only engage in important writing but also seek clues to convention of various genres.

According to Nuttall (1996), information gap (1st day-Activity5. Information gap) or jigsaw reading can be used at all levels. It involves close attention to text, oral exchange of information and a problem-solving element. Students cannot understand some key factors of the story or solve problems if they do not have information from the texts. For example, the teacher gives different, incomplete information to each group. To fill out the blanks and obtain something, students should read and discuss the text first and also exchange information with others.

5. Conclusion

This paper is to evaluate literacy program for public elementary school 5th graders and to make a suggestion that could contribute to their literacy development. The existing program is described with goals, objectives and teaching methods. Also, their positive and negative points are discussed. Finally, suggestions are proposed to improve students' literacy ability. The lesson plan was developed based on the revised reading program to be implemented in the classroom at elementary school level. Several aspects based on teaching methods, vocabulary teaching, reading skills with examples are discussed. Furthermore, teachers should keep training themselves to be good guides for students' literacy development as a reader too.

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Reasons and Motivations for Code-Mixing and Code-Switching

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This paper presents why bilinguals mix two languages and switch back and forth between two languages and what triggers them to mix and switch their languages when they speak. These bilingual phenomena are called 'code-mixing' and 'code-switching' and these are ordinary phenomena in the area of bilingualism. According to Hamers and Blanc (2000), 'Code-mixing' and 'code-switcing' were considered as signs of incompetence. However, Khnert, Yim, Nett, Kan, and Duran (2005) remark that an alternative view is to recognize the cultural, social, and communicative validity of the mixing of two traditionally isolated linguistic codes as a third legitimate code. As mentioned, these phenomena may influence bilingual's language positively. The purpose of this paper is to indicate the positive factors of code-mixing and code-switching for language education by discussing societal factors related to the reasons and motivations for these phenomena.

I. Introduction

Most countries have been globalizing and it will continue to happen. Recently, it is easy to find bilinguals in such traditionally monolingual countries as Korea as well on account of this globalization. Also, it is noticeable for them to speak different languages at the same time. That is, they speak mixed language and they also switch back and forth between two languages. In order to understand the process of their utterances, it is necessary to study code-mixing and code-switching in the area of bilingualism. Code-mixing and code-switching are widespread phenomena in bilingual communities

where speakers use their native tongue (L1) and their second language (L2) in different domains. However, it is not always the case where each distinct language is exclusively used in one particular domain. Instead, what tends to happen is that a mixture of the two languages in question is used (Celik, 2003). Grumperz (1982) notes that when bilinguals are made aware of their mixed speech, they blame a “lapse of attention” for their “poor” linguistic performance and promise improvement by the elimination of language mixing and switching. However, Khnert, Yim, Nett, Kan, and Duran (2005) state that code-switching is an effective communication mode available to proficient bilingual speakers for interactions with other individuals who share both languages. According to Faltis (1989), as the culturally and linguistically diverse child engages in communication with others, she or he is often faced with the predicament of which language to use to best communicate with family, peers, and teachers in school. One way of overcoming this communication and language predicament is for these children to alternate between two languages. In order to help bilingual kids not to be confused with two languages and not to be alienated in monolingual societies, it is very critical to make both bilinguals and monolinguals familiar with code-switching and code-mixing. It would be much better for other people to know about certain bilingual phenomena and try to accept the bilingual phenomena naturally, so that they could see how much social and cultural aspects affect bilinguals’ language and learn how bilinguals and their monolingual interlocutors should lead to smooth conversation. As a result, it would help monolinguals to understand bilinguals’ utterances and help bilinguals to relieve their difficulty in communicating with other people in both of the cultures. In addition, it would be better for teachers to try to teach students both a native language and a second language so that the student could be familiar with bilingual people and societies.

II. Theoretical Background

2.1 Code-Mixing and Code-Switching

Muysken (2000) defines code-mixing as all cases where lexical items and

grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence. In terms of the definition from Bhatia and Ritchie (2004), code-mixing refers to the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence. More specifically, code-mixing is intrasentential and is constrained by grammatical principles. It may also be motivated by social-psychological factors. Despite these definitions, many people may have difficulty using the terminologies since many researchers use different terminology for code-mixing. For instance, Pfaff (1979) employs the term "mixing" as a neutral cover term for both code-mixing and borrowing while Beardsome (1991) rejects the use of the term code-mixing "since it appears to be the least-favored designation and the most unclear for referring to any form of non-monoglot norm-based speech patterns." Yet others use the term "code-mixing" to refer to other related phenomena such as borrowing interference, transfer, or switching (McClaughin, 1984).

In fact, some people have difficulty distinguishing between code-switching and code-mixing. Code-mixing transfers elements of all linguistic levels and units ranging from a lexical item to a sentence, so that it is not always easy to distinguish code-switching from code-mixing (Grosjean, 1982). Code-switching is defined as the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence, or constituent. Intersentential alternations occur when the switch is made across sentence boundaries (Grosjean, 1982; Torres, 1989). DiPietro (1977) defines it as "the use of more than one language by communicants in the execution of a speech act." (as cited in Grosjean, 1982: 145). Poplack (2000) states that code-switching is the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent. According to Clyne (2000), code-switching is the alternative use of two languages either within a sentence or between sentences. Also, this contrasts with transference, where a single item is transferred from languages B to A (or vice versa), whether integrated into the grammatical and /or phonological system of the recipient language or not.

2.2 Different Process of Code-Mixing

2.2.1 Insertion

The concept of insertion is defined as insertion of material such as lexical items or entire constituents from one language into a structure from the other language. According to Muysken (2000), approaches that depart from the notion of insertion view the constraints in terms of the structural properties of some base or matrix structure. Here the process of code-mixing is conceived as something akin to borrowing: the insertion of an alien lexical of phrasal category into a given structure. The difference would simply be the size and type of element inserted, e.g. noun versus noun phrase. Muysken (2000) mentions that insertion is frequent in colonial settings and recent migrant communities, where there is a considerable asymmetry in the speakers' proficiency in the two languages. A language dominance shift, e.g. between the first and third generation in an immigrant setting, may be reflected in a shift in directionality of the insertion of elements: from insertion into the language of the country of origin to the presence of originally native items in the language of the host country.

2.2.2 Alternation

Approaches departing from alternation (associated with the Poplack (1980)) view the constraints on mixing in terms of the compatibility or equivalence of the languages involved at the switch point (Muysken, 2000). Conjunctions and appositions are incorporated through adjunction rather than insertion (2000). Verbs are often incorporated through adjunction to a helping verb. Language alternation is a normal, common, and important aspect of bilingualism (Grosjean, 1982; Pennington, 1995). According to Muysken (2000), the process of alternation is particularly frequent in stable bilingual communities with a tradition of language separation, but occurs in many other communities as well. It is a frequent and structurally intrusive type of code-mixing.

2.2.3 Congruent Lexicalization

The notion of congruent lexicalization underlies the study of style shifting

and dialect/standard variation, as in the work of Labov (1972) and Trudgill (1986), rather than bilingual language use proper (Muysken, 2000). Congruent lexicalization is akin to language variation and style shifting: switching is grammatically unconstrained and can be characterized in terms of alternative lexical insertions. Linguistic convergence feeds into congruent lexicalization and the two processes may reinforce each other. Some cases of word-internal mixing can be viewed as congruent lexicalization (2000: 221). The exception is the bilingual research by Michael Clyne (1967) on German and Dutch immigrants in Australia. This comes closest to an approach to bilingual language use from the perspective of congruent lexicalization. According to Muysken (2000), congruent lexicalization may be particularly associated with second generation migrant groups, dialect/standard and post-creole continua, and bilingual speakers of closely related languages with roughly equal prestige and no tradition of overt language separation.

2.3 Reasons and Motivation for Code-Mixing and Code-switching

When bilinguals switch or mix two languages, there might be motivation and reasons for code-switching and code-mixing. Grosjean (1982) suggests some reasons for code-switching. For example, some bilinguals mix two languages when they cannot find proper words or expressions or when there is no appropriate translation for the language being used. Also, their interlocutors, situations, messages, attitudes, and emotions generate code-mixing. According to Grosjean (1982), code-switching can also be used for many other reasons, such as quoting what someone has said (and thereby emphasizing one's group identity), specifying the addressee (switching to the usual language of a particular person in a group will show that one is addressing that person), qualifying that has been said, or talking about past events. On the basis of a number of factors such as with whom (participants: their backgrounds and relationships), about what (topic, content), and when and where a speech act occurs, bilinguals make their language choice (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004).

2.3.1 Participant Roles and Relationship

Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) remark that participant roles and relationships play a very critical role in bilinguals' unconscious agreement and disagreement on language choice. That is, whether bilinguals code-mix or not depends on whom they talk to. Grosjean (1982) presents some interviews about how interlocutors affect bilinguals' languages. The interviewee who is a Greek - English bilingual remarked, "I find myself code-switching with my friends who are all Greek… they know English so well and nobody gets offended with code-switching… I don't switch with my parents as I do with my friends." (p. 149). Another interviewee who is a French-English bilingual said, "I tend to use both English and French within the same conversation, within the same sentence, when I'm with Francos who are obviously bilingual, but also with Francos with whom I am at ease." (p. 149). As these two bilinguals, interlocutors and their relationship with interlocutors affect their code-mixing.

2.3.2 Situational Factors

Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) state that some languages are viewed as more suited to particular participant/social groups, settings or topics than others. They also postulate that social variables such as class, religion, gender, and age can influence the pattern of language mixing and switching both qualitatively and quantitatively. With regard to gender, one of the social variables, Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) state that in many traditional societies, where gender roles are clearly demarcated, i.e. men work outside the home and women are engaged in domestic activities, language mixing and switching in women is qualitatively different from that in men. Gel (1979) writes: "Among the various attributes of speakers it is neither their status as peasants nor the nature of their social networks that correlates most closely with language use. It is their ages."(p.136). Pedraza, Attinasia, and Hoffman (1980) also state that the Puerto Ricans in New York primarily engage in code-mixing as adolescents; when they have turned into 'responsible' adults they keep their languages more apart.

2.3.3 Message-Intrinsic Factors

Some reasons and motivations are also highly related to messages alone. According to Bhatia and Ritche (2004), there are some factors which generate code-mixing such as quotations, reiteration, topic-comment/relative clauses, hedging, interjections and idioms and deep-rooted cultural wisdom. Direct quotation or reported speech triggers language mixing/switching among bilinguals cross-linguistically. Gumperz (1982) presents the example of a Spanish-English bilingual who mixes two languages through a quotation. Also, Bhatia and Ritche (2004) state that reiteration or paraphrasing marks another function of mixing and topic-comment function makes bilinguals mix languages. Nishimura (1989) conducted research about it with Japanese-English bilinguals and found that language mixing and switching revealed when the topic is introduced in Japanese (formally marked with *wa*) and the comment is given in English. In addition, code-mixing and switching serves an important function in hedging (Bhatia & Ritche, 2004). That is, when bilinguals do not want to give interlocutors a clear answer, they usually code-mix or switch. The other function of language mixing and switching is to add an interjection or sentence filler. For example, Singaporeans usually put 'la' at the end of sentences (Tay, 1989) since the Chinese that Singaporeans speak usually has a 'la' sound at the end of sentences.

2.3.4 Language Attitudes, Dominance, and Security

Language attitudes, dominance, and security determine the qualitative and quantitative properties of language mixing (Bhatia & Ritche, 2004). As for the attitudes, the frequency of code-mixing from bilinguals depends on whether a society considers code-mixing positively or negatively. Poplack (1980) and Nortier (1990) postulate that speakers who code-mix fluently and easily tend to be quite proficient bilingually, whereas Weinreich (1953) thought that intra-sentential code-mixing was a sign of the lack of bilinguals proficiency and interference (as cited in Muysken, 2000). As mentioned, dominance also affects code-mixing. Genesee, Nicoladis and Paradis (1995: 615) view dominance in terms of relative proficiency and predict "a general tendency for bilingual children to mix elements from their dominant language when using their non-dominant language, rather than vice versa, because

many of the linguistic structures for communication are lacking in the non-dominant language". Also, bilinguals' security has to do with code-mixing. As reported in Grosjeans' (1982) study**,** a Russian- English bilingual states, "When I speak to another Russian-English bilingual, I don't speak as carefully and often the languages blend. This also happens when I am tired or excited or angry." (p.150) That is, when bilinguals do not feel secure, they tend to mix languages more.

2.4 Bilinguals' Perception of Code-Mixing and Code-switching

According to Bhatia and Ritchie (2004), the vast majority of bilinguals themselves hold a negative view of code-mixed speech. They consider language mixing/switching to be a sign of "laziness", an "inadvertent" speech act, an "impurity," and instance of linguistic decadence and a potential danger to their own linguistic performance. However, Zentella (1999) claims that code switching is more common during informal interpersonal interactions, including those that take place between family members in natural contexts.

III. Discussion

3.1 Introduction

In monolingual societies, people may think that code-switching and code-mixing are very unnatural. However, it is inevitable to notice that people usually switch and mix their languages in bilingual and/or multilingual societies. Grosjean (1982) states that in bilingual communities, it is very common for speakers to code-switch and code-mix. With regard to the reasons of code-switching and code-mixing, bilinguals usually explain that the reason why they code-switch and code-mix is that they lack facility in one language when talking about a particular topic. They report that they switch when they cannot find an appropriate word or expression or when the language being used does not have the items or appropriate translations for the vocabulary needed (Grosjean, 1982). Also, some bilinguals remark that they usually code-switch and code-mix when they are tired, lazy, or angry (Grosjean, 1982). However, Gutierrez-Clellen (1999) claims that instances of

code-switching behavior should not be interpreted as lack of language skill. Children who are bilingual may code-switch within and between utterances depending on multiple factors such as pragmatic, sociolinguistic, priming effects, etc., and not necessarily because of relative lack of proficiency across the two languages or because of parental use of code-switching. According to Grosjean (1982), code-switching is often used as a communicative strategy to convey linguistic and social information. He also states that code-switching not only fills a momentary linguistic need, it is also a very useful communication resource (1982). Auer (2000) also finds that code-switching serves important purposes in the ongoing negotiation of footing in bilingual interaction. In addition, Greene and Walker (2004) state that code-switching is not random or meaningless. It has a role, a function, facets and characteristics. It is a linguistic tool and a sign of the participants' awareness of alternative communicative conventions. That is, in terms of the researchers who have positive points of view about code-switching and code-mixing, the fundamental reason why bilinguals switch and mix their languages is not because they lack language skills but because they try to make their utterance more easily understandable and meaningful.

With the positive points of view about code-switching and code-mixing, it is necessary to examine more specific reasons and motivations about these bilingual phenomena. There are some factors which affect code-switching and code-mixing such as grammatical, lexical, and societal factors. Among these factors, societal factors would be the most influential factors for the reasons why bilinguals switch and mix their languages. Arnfast and Jorgensen (2003) state that code-switching becomes a sociolinguistic phenomenon. Fishman (2000) also finds that the choice of language among bilingual speakers is determined by factors such as participants, situation, or topic, i.e. factors which are outside the speaker. In certain circumstances the speakers will speak one language, and if the circumstances change, it may lead them to switch into the other languages. In addition, Auer (1998) states that one of the reasons why people code-switch is because of macro sociolinguistic paradigm. It focuses on the influence on language use exerted by the general sociolinguistic context. According to Wei (2005),

sociolinguistic and socio-pragmatic studies of code-switching have taken an 'ideological' turn. Concepts such as 'power, 'authority', prestige', and 'gender' are all invoked in explaining why and how bilinguals switch from one language to another. As many researchers state, code-switching and code-mixing are quite influenced by societal factors.

3.2 Societal factors for Code-Switching and Code-Mixing

Societal factors seem to be the most influential of the factors which trigger bilinguals' code-switching and code-mixing. Romaine (1995) states that a speaker may switch for a variety of reasons. They may switch two languages back and forth in order to redefine the interaction as appropriate to a different social arena, or to avoid, through continual code-switching, defining the interaction in terms of any social arena. The latter function of avoidance is an important one because it recognized that code-switching often serves as a strategy of neutrality or as a means to explore which code is most appropriate and acceptable in a particular situation. In many government offices in Canada, it is customary for employees to answer the telephone by saying 'Bonjour, hello' in order to give the caller the option of choosing either language to continue the conversation. Like Romaine mentions (1995), a social situation is a very important factor to explain the reasons and motivations for code-switching and code-mixing. It is not too much to say that situational factors are the most realistic and plausible reasons and motivations for code-switching and code- mixing. Hamers and Blanc (2000) state that many situational variables seem to affect the type and frequency of code-switching: the topic of conversation, the participants, the setting, the affective aspect of the message and so on. It also seems that 'because of its reliance on universalized shared understanding, code-switching is typical of the communicative conventions of closed network situations' (Gumperz, 1982). The notion of situational switching assumes a direct relationship between language and the social situation (Blom & Gumperz, 2000). That is, the relationship between language and social situation is inevitable. The linguistic forms employed are critical features of the event in the sense that any violation of selection rules changes members' perception of the event. A

further regulating factor is recognized via the concept of situation (Fishman, 2000).

It is also crucial for bilinguals to learn communication strategies in order to have a smooth relationship with each different society by using appropriate choice of languages. Bilingual children develop typical strategies for dealing with bilinguals situations, learning how to adapt their language to the situation, the roles and the interlocutors, to the extent of playing the role of interpreters between monolingual speakers of different language (Swain, 1972). Also, their interlocutors should know that bilinguals are very sensitive about situational factors. According to Hamers and Blanc (2000), it should be stressed that a bilingual's communication strategies vary within an interactional situation and therefore a code that is optimal at one point may cease to be so later as a result of changes in the situation, the topic, role relations, etc.

There are some situational factors related to a society such as interlocutors, physical setting, other social variables like social status, race, age, etc., affect people's utterance considerably. Firstly, participants and social groups are one of the situational factors which make code-switching and code-mixing. That is, bilinguals may speak differently depending on whom and which groups they are talking to. For example, if Korean-English bilinguals talk to a Korean person, they probably start talking to them in Korean. However, if they talk with people from one of the English speaking countries, they would speak to them in English. Fishman (2000) states that one of the first controlling factors in language choice is group membership. This factor must be viewed not only in a purportedly objective sense, i.e, in terms of physiological, sociological criteria (e.g., age, sex, race, religion, etc.), but also, and primarily, in the subjective socio-psychological sense of reference group membership. Interlocutors are also related to bilinguals' identities since a language a bilingual speaks presents his/her identity. According to Auer (2005), there is quite a different way of looking at code-switching as an index of social identity. This perspective considers mixing and switching itself into a style which indexes different types of social membership beyond the memberships indexed by the monolingual varieties

involved. Auer (1984) also calls for an approach to code-switching as a language style itself which indexes some kind of social membership beyond the membership indexed by the monolingual varieties involved in the language alternation. By using two codes in two different turns, the speaker has also been able to encode two identities and the breadth of experience associated with them. For this reason, participants may find it socially useful to treat certain speech events as non-conventionalized exchange, if it is at all possible (Myers-Scotton, 2000)

Secondly, physical situations (settings) play a significant role which triggers code-switching and code-mixing. Bilinguals may switch and mix their languages in accordance with a variety of situations. Ervin (1964) observes that various situations (settings) may be restricted with respect to the participants who may be present, the physical setting, the topics and functions of discourse and the style employed. In terms of what he states, a physical setting is one of the situational factors. For instance, a Korean – English bilingual who learned how to play the piano in English may speak English when he/she talks while playing the piano. However, he/she may speak Korean when they are shopping at a Korean grocery store. Another example about this case is that a French computer technician trained in the United States can talk about his job only in English, or in French with a lot of code-switching (Grosjean, 1982). Poplack (1985) reports on a study of French/English code-switching in Ottawa, where French is the minority language, and in Hull, where English is the minority language. Speakers of French tended to switch three to four times more frequently in Ottawa than in Hull, which reflects the norms and values for the use of the two languages in these two settings. Li (1996) found that code-mixing usually occurs when the discourse of informal genres touches upon certain domains, such as computing, business, food, fashion, showbiz (film and music), and Hong Kong lifestyle. Also, Schweda (1980) reports an interesting trend in northern Maine, where the inhabitants of the St. John Valley cross the border between New Brunswick and Maine quite freely. When asked which language they would speak at a party, some said that at a party on the American side of the border they would speak English, but at a party in Canada, they would speak

French. Others said it would depend on the particular town on the American side: French in Frenchville, English in Fort Kent, and both languages in Madawaska.

Thirdly, topic of discourse would motivate bilinguals to code-switch and code-mix. According to Grosjean (1982), in some instances, members of a community are reported to code-switch regularly when a particular topic is discussed. For example, a Korean – English bilingual talks about memories in Korea, he/she may talk about the memories in Korean since his/her experiences with Korean society trigger him/her to speak Korean. Fishman (2000) remarks that some topics are better handled in one language than another, either because the bilingual has learned to deal with a topic in a particular language, the other language lacks specialized terms for a topic, or because it would be considered strange or inappropriate to discuss a topic in that language. That is, certain topics may make bilinguals switch their codes more than others. Also, Grosjean (1982) presents an interview about code-switching and code-mixing by topics, one of the situational factors with a Kurdish-Arabic bilingual. The Kurdish-Arabic bilingual said that he finds when he speaks about politics, science, or other specialized topics, he will mix languages, especially the nouns. Fantini (1985) mentions bilingual children's code-switching by topics. What he states is that some topics related to experiences in English, often produced increases lexical borrowing or interference although not a complete code-switch. Topical switching became a fairly well established procedure when discussing other school topics, including science, mathematics and the like. He (1985) also states that technical discussions of the stroke caused bilingual kids to switch codes. It became obvious that both academic topics and technically complex ones began to play a significant part in their code-switching behaviour.

Fourthly, other social variables such as social status, race, age, etc. would cause bilingual people to switch their utterances and/or mix their languages. The socioeconomic status of the participants is an important factor. In East Jana, the higher status person switches into Ngoko or plain Krama level of Jananese from Indonesian while the lower status person uses Krama with honorific terms if he/she is able to, or continues in Indonesian (Soeseno,

1991). That is, people in the East Java switch languages depending on their interlocutors' social status. Race also affects language switching and mixing. According to Greene and Walker (2004), African Americans develop the ability to code-switch in order to manage in a society in which they are a racial minority. They also state that code-switching is a strategy at negotiating power for the speaker and it reflects culture and identity and promotes solidarity (2004: 436). One of the social variables that motivate bilinguals to code-switch and code-mix is age. Wald (1974) reports that in coastal Kenya, the young use both Swahili and the local language when speaking to one another, but never use Swahili when talking to the elders, who would consider it an affront, even though they, too, are bilingual.

IV. Conclusion

With regard to the point of view of code-mixing and code-switching, people used to think about code-mixing and code-switching negatively. According to Hamers and Blanc (2000: 258), 'Code-switching' and 'code-mixing' were considered as signs of incompetence. Even such informed linguists as Hugen (1950) and Weinreich (1953) saw them as abnormal oversights on the part of bilingual speakers. These opinions might make bilinguals feel they have a lack of both languages and they are not included in both cultures either. However, code-mixing and Code-switching may influence bilinguals' languages positively**.** Khnert, Yim, Nett, Kan, and Duran (2005) remark that an alternative view is to recognize the cultural, social, and communicative validity of the mixing of two traditionally isolated linguistic codes as a third legitimate code. It is necessary for both monolinguals and bilinguals to understand those factors which make code-mixing and code-switching and change their negative point of view. In order to make it happen, it is better for language teachers to introduce bilingual education into their classroom and try to teach students two languages.

More specifically, in the case of Korea, it would be more effective to teach English to students both in Korean and English. Many Korean parents tend to prefer only native English teachers because they want their kids to

receive only English input. They believe that it is the best way for language acquisition. Hence, they would not like the idea of bilingual education. However, there are many studies which present beneficial points about bilingual education. Schwarzer (2004) suggests that the use of L1 might function as a learning strategy to enhance communicative competence in the foreign language. In another study, Polio and Duff (1994) found that teachers code-switched from the target language to English in order to maintain classroom order, to create solidarity or empathy, to cover lack of experience or strategies, to rephrase or modify their speech. Camillery (1996) also presents bilingual education in Malta and describes that they used code-switching to distinguish between talk about lesson content and talk related to the negotiating of the social relations of the classroom, like building a rapport with students or asserting the teachers' authority. The code-switching provided a crucial means of accomplishing lessons across the curriculum and managing the problems of working with texts that are mostly written in English. According to Celik (2003), code-mixing can be applied to vocabulary teaching in EFL/ESL classes and this study has shown that careful and judicious use of code-mixing can lead to appropriate successful teaching and learning of new vocabulary in speaking classes. As the studies show, bilingual education may lead to more effective and meaningful language learning. It is important for Korean parents to have this positive point of view about bilingual education. Also it is necessary for them to realize that some of their children might get pressure about leaning English from not being able to talk any Korean in the classroom and they might learn some English words that they are never going to use in society because of some cultural difference. As mentioned before, the reasons why bilinguals switch their utterance and mix their languages is not because of their lack of language skills but because they try to deliver better meaning related to the society that they belong to. Therefore, making students use only English in Korea does not necessarily make learners learn the language effectively as we apply this idea to English education in Korea. Also, it is important to remember that code-mixing and code-switching contribute to effective language learning and communication.

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Essential Elements on Proficiency for English: Teachers, Students, and the Materials that They Use

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This paper covers some of basic elements for the successful designing of a communicative syllabus. Among the components of it, a needs survey will be presented because a needs analysis is the first and most fundamental step in designing a communicative syllabus. (Yalden, 1987) Textbook evaluation will be presented because teaching materials we use in the class are other essential elements for language learning. In addition, a lesson plan based on the CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), which was created in group, is briefly presented. Each part reflects recent changes in points of view on language and language instruction. That is, language instruction focuses on student's language creativity and communicative interaction rather than linguistic proficiency alone. (Swaffar, Arens, and Bynes, 1991) In the first part of the paper, the students' needs survey shows perspective of the students on proficiency for English. As for the teaching materials, text evaluation helps the teachers think more about the importance of authentic materials for language learning in EFL situations like Korea. Lastly, from a teacher's perspective, a lesson plan based on media is created for communicative interaction. As EFL teachers in Korea, we need to bear in mind these basic elements and strive to implement them in the real classroom for successful language teaching.

1. Introduction

This paper starts with following question about English learning in Korea : Is

it possible to master English in Korea without studying abroad? In EFL situations like Korea, learning English has many obstacles. The learners aren't exposed to a fully English environment and don't have enough chances to practice English in real life. Until now language learning has been considered as a mastery of linguistic skills instead of communication focused on meaning. As Birckbichler and Corl (1993) point out in their article, there have been fundamental changes in the way we view language and proficiency oriented instruction. Changed views of language instruction focus on communicative interaction. (Swaffar, Arens, and Bynes, 1991). We, EFL teachers in Korea, need to be well aware of these changes and try to apply them to our English teaching. In other words, we need to establish objectives based on learner's needs and understand better what they want. We need a well-organized syllabus based on the learner's need for successful English teaching. If learning English means acquiring proficiency in English, there are three perspectives on proficiency: they are proficiency from students, teachers, and teaching materials. (Birckbichler and Corl, 1993) When each of these perspectives on proficiency can meet their needs fully through the lesson, successful language instruction will be done. In the following paper, based on these perspectives, I surveyed students' needs to know their perspective on proficiency of English. Next, I evaluated the text I use in the class from the teaching materials. Lastly, I produced a lesson plan based on CALL as a group work from the perspective of the teacher.

2. Needs Survey: From the Student's Perspective

2.1. Introduction

Since the 1970s, there have been various new approaches to syllabus design for foreign language teaching. Kranhnke (1987) clearly introduced six types of language teaching syllabus which can be represented as a continuum from being based mostly on form to being based mostly on meaning. Yalden (1987) also suggested the communicative syllabus based on idea of evolution of syllabus design. It means that syllabus design develops a meaning-based syllabus which is focused on the communicative aspect of language rather

than linguistic accuracy. Naturally, it entails carrying out a survey of the communicative needs of the learners. We, EFL teachers, need to try to know what the learner wants to do with English as a powerful tool of communication. In the following paper, I review the literature of the needs analysis and describe how this concept can be applied to improving English proficiency of the first year of students in a high school classroom. This includes the aim, the methodology, and the results of the needs survey for the first year of students of high school. In conclusion, I present how to conduct a needs survey in my teaching context and how to design an English teaching syllabus according to the students' needs.

2.2 A Brief Literature Review of the Needs Analysis

The concept of needs analysis is attributed to changing perceptions of the learner. The learner is at the center of learning as an active and independent object. Yalden (1987) mentioned the background appearance of needs analysis as follows :

> "Second language acquisition theory has suggested that classroom procedure should be oriented toward the communicative situation. ...Within this current of development the learner is seen as a member of society with specific roles to perform in it. This is another of learner-centeredness, with many implications for teaching and learning, in which course design springs in the first instance from a need analysis that is based on sociolinguistic features of communication." (pp. 56-57)

Yalden (1987) indicated that needs analysis is the initial step and prerequisite element in designing a communicative syllabus. The concept of needs analysis involves the identification of the communication requirement, personal needs, motivation, relevant characteristics and resource of the learner. Nunan (1988) defined needs analysis as refering to techniques and procedures for obtaining information from and about learners to be used in curriculum development. When we, EFL teachers design the syllabus focused on communicative competence, we need to survey the students' needs and

analyze and find out what they want to learn. Graves (2000) explained clearly that the role of needs assessment (needs analysis) is essential in the development of a course. According to him, "needs assessment is a systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions based on the interpretation in order to meet the needs " (p. 98). White (1988) mentioned that the principles of needs analysis are sociologically based, and procedures involving both the user community and the learner have evolved. Many of these overlap with evaluation procedures, and in so far as needs analysis is on-going, it merges with formative evaluation as a means of shaping both syllabus and course.

2.3. Background information of teaching context

They are in the first year of I girls' high school, which is located in Incheon metropolitan city. There are 31 students in the class. They are 15-16 year old girls. The class to whom I teach English is one of three advanced classes in the first grade which is consists of the students who got above 83 out of 100 in the final English test of the first semester. They move to a different classroom from their usual classroom whenever they have English class. I meet them four times a week for 50 minutes. Even though the class is composed mostly of students at a relatively advanced level compared with other common groups, there is still a big gap between some high level students who got over 92 percent and intermediate level students who got below 85 percent in the final English test of the semester.

Their English proficiency and level of speaking is intermediate low, their listening level is intermediate low, their reading level is intermediate mid, and their writing level is novice high. They learn English with a fixed textbook designed for integrating four language skills, and one reference aimed at improving grammatical skills. Basically, the teacher deals with the textbook more intensively using worksheets. Most of the lessons are focused on reading comprehension for the university entrance. They have been learning English for 7 years in the public school system but have not had an

opportunity to practice English outside the classroom. They have had much more practice reading and listening than speaking and writing. As for motivation, above all, the students want to score well on the university entrance exam. Basically, they are required to take this course by the university. They are sincere and active students. They enjoy interacting with one another through various activities such as games and role plays, and they like to participate in the group work, presentations and surveys using internet web site.

2.4. Aim and methodology of the Needs Survey for the Advanced Students of English in the First Grade.

As an English teacher, I have conducted a needs survey for the advanced students of English, carried out in their first year on November 26 for 20 minutes. The following is the needs survey procedure.

2.4.1. Aim of the survey

The aim of the survey is to collect information on students' backgrounds, language experiences, characteristics, interests, future goals, and motivation to establish specific language objectives based on their needs. This information can be used to plan English lessons to meet students' needs more effectively for improving English proficiency. In addition, I want to know what the students' needs are for this winter English class.

2.4.2. Methodology of survey

After the main aim had been decided, I made my own survey forms referring to needs survey form from appendix Ⅲ in Yalden's (1987) and Nunan's (1988) book. The form consists of four categories of questions regarding the students' needs and an additional short interview for missing and obscure parts.

2.4.2.1.

General background information including age, place of residence,

personality, other foreign language experience, traveling abroad experience, the purpose of learning English, present level of English.

2.4.2.2.

Past educational background including numbers of years of English learning, the place of learning, what they learn, experience of attending an English program.

2.4.2.3.

Future goals including future career, specific points of English language they want to improve, short-term goals and long term goals for learning English.

2.4.2.4.

Learning style and interest including preferred learning mode, preferred leaning materials, interesting topics

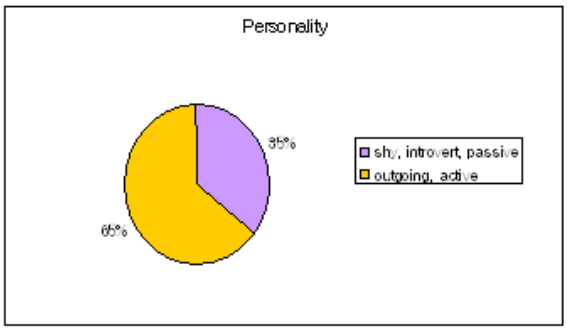
I distributed needs survey form to the 31 students in English class and gave detailed instructions about the questions. They then were given 20 minutes to fill out the form. The following results are from those 31 forms.

2.5. Survey results

2.5.1. Background

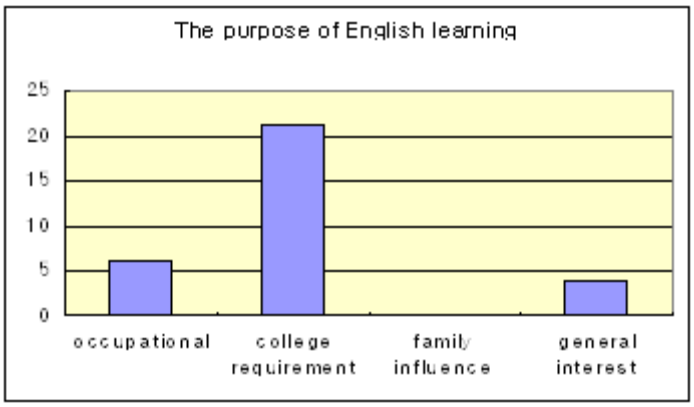
The students are 15-16 years old girls who live in the city. They are in the first year of high school. Since the class I teach English is consisted of 31 advanced students, I surveyed their overall personalities to know subjective information which reflects the learner's attitudes toward the class. Figure 1 reveals that 65% of the students are extrovert and active. It means they generally enjoy participating in the various activities, but over one third of the students are still a little bit passive in their attitude to participating in class activities. The teacher needs to give careful consideration when choosing the topic and activities for facilitating active participation. For successful group work, when the teacher plans group activities, he/she needs to make flexible groups, and mix active and passive students in groups together.

Figure 1. Personality



Ten of the 31 students have studied Japanese for over six months and seven students have studied Chinese for over three months. Only two of the students have ever been to the foreign countries, like Singapore and Canada. Figure 2 below shows the results of the purpose of English learning survey. We can see that most of students think that the primary purpose of learning English is for college requirements. Since all of them want to enter university for their future career, they want to improve their reading ability for college study. Also, a few students concerns are about occupational purposes. Fortunately, four students learn English for their general interest. As an English teacher, we need I try to make more students feel enjoyment for English learning.

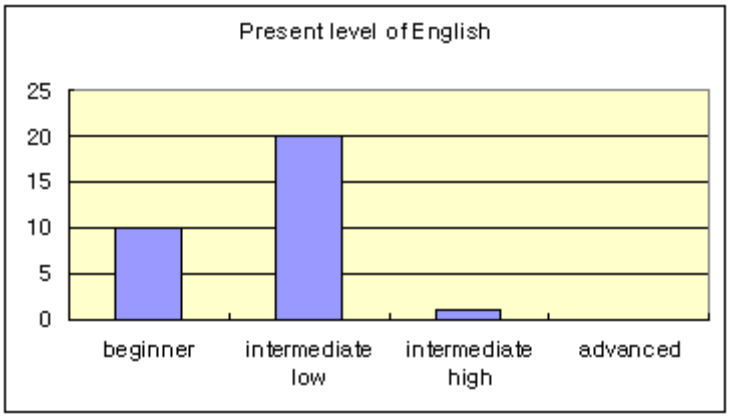
Figure 2. The purpose(reason) of English learning



As we see from Figure 3, 20 students think that their present level of English is intermediate low and 10 students think that their English proficiency level

is beginner.

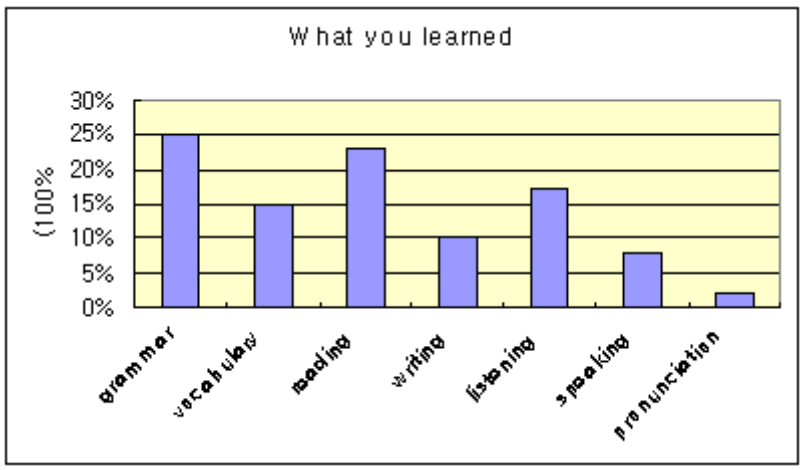
Figure 3. Present level of English



2.5.2. Past Education

In the second part, I surveyed the students' past education experiences. 27 students have been studying English for over 7 years and 16 students attended private institutes for learning English. They learned mainly grammar, reading comprehension skills, and vocabulary from school and private educational institutes, as shown in Figure 4. One student has never attended English Camp or any other English program. This means most of them hardly have enough chances to practice English outside of the classroom.

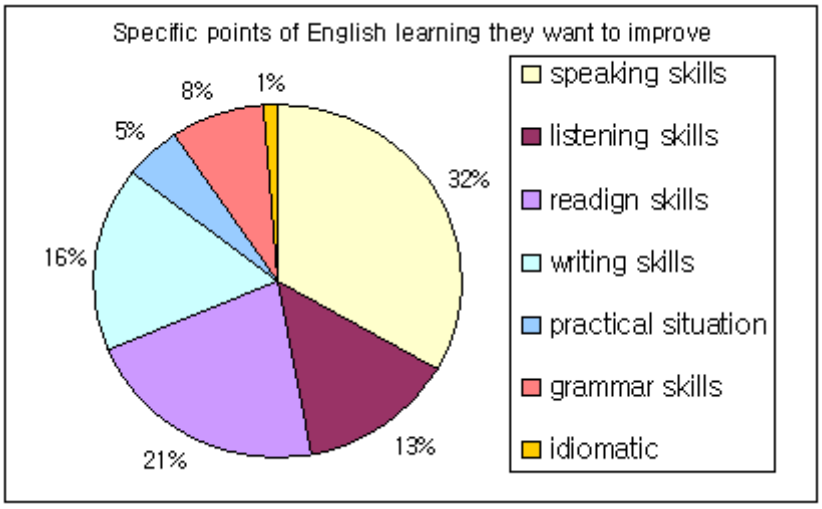
Figure 4. What you learned



2.5.3 Future Education

In this part, I wanted to survey the students' future goals, career expectations, their thoughts about how English influences their future goals, and what specific points of English learning they want to improve. 23 students expect to use English on a regular base in college, the workplace, and foreign countries. Figure 5 reveals that 32% of students want to improve their speaking ability for practical use and they still want to improve their reading and writing skills for college studies. They need more authentic learning materials, such as newspapers, magazines, other reading books rather than the textbook, and they want to practice writing reports and letters. Their short-term goals for learning English are to pass the entrance exam for the university they want to enter. Their long-term goals for English are varied. They recognize English is an international language and want to use English for communication with people from other countries. They want to learn English for traveling abroad, getting a promising job, studying abroad, getting more information and so on.

Figure 5. Specific points of English learning they want to improve

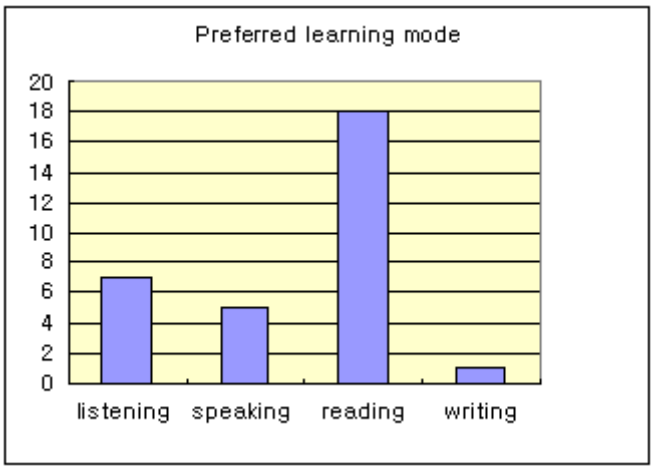


2.5.4 Learning styles and interests

Figure 6 shows that the students' preferred learning style is reading. In an

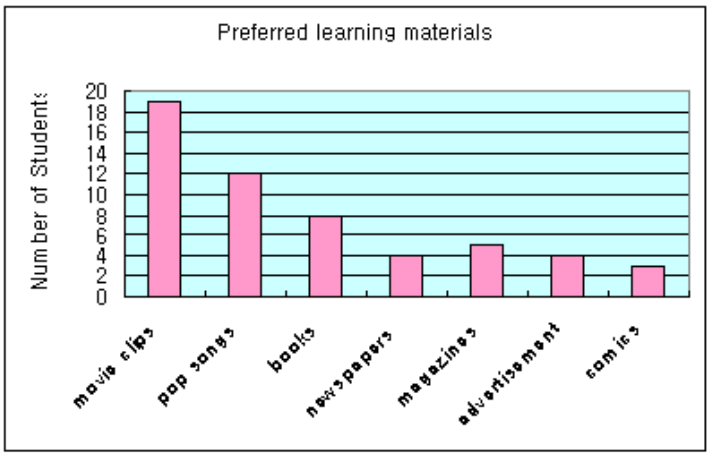
EFL situation like Korea, reading among other language skills, is thought to be the best way to learn foreign language because it is easily accessible learning material.

Figure 6. Preferred learning model



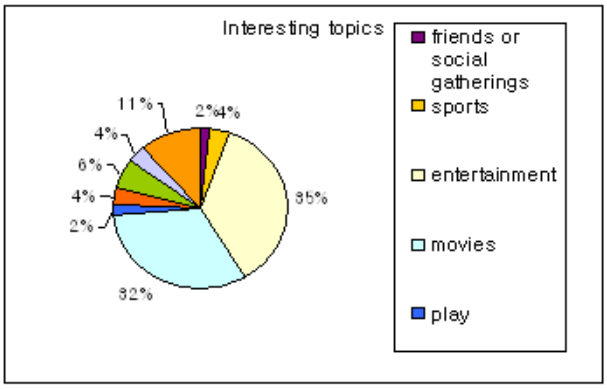
As I expected, most of the students chose movie clips and pop songs as preferred learning materials (Figure 7). Since they are called the generation of visual media, it is natural that they like to learn English with visual and audio aids. Actually, they are used to using computers and enjoy surfing the internet. The teacher needs to develop more useful Computer Assisted Language Learning methods for the lessons using videos.

Figure 7. Preferred learning materials



Lastly, I surveyed the topics that students found most interesting for learning English. The fact that total 67% students chose entertainment and movies implies that they eager to enjoy learning English. (Figure 8) Interesting and authentic topics motivate them and help them keep learning actively and independently. Taking pleasure in learning English is one of the essential elements for successful language learning.

Figure 8 Interesting topics



2.6. Conclusions

Most students said that the main reason for learning English was in order to fulfill the university foreign language requirement. They are eager to enter the college they want because it is closely related to getting into their future career. Therefore, the main goal of this course should be to help students to achieve a certain degree of proficiency especially in reading and listening skills to get a high score in the SAT test. However, in the long-term, they want to improve the four language skills equally because they realize that English is an essential factor for living in the globalized world. Even though they don't have enough chances to practice English outside of the classroom, they expect to use English on a regular basis when they get a job or take a trip abroad. Through the survey, the students show that they feel that reading is the most familiar learning mode and they are eager to learn English in a fun way by using movie clips and pop songs rather than reading textbooks.

Therefore, the teacher should design the course based on the students'

needs analysis. I want to start the course design by developing authentic reading materials because reading is the most familiar learning style for the students. Also, reading can be the starting point of integrating the four key language skills in addition to accessing them easily. I can prepare diverse authentic reading materials and manipulate effective and easy teaching materials for speaking, listening, and writing skills. Since we have a computer in the classroom, I can plan CALL lessons to satisfy their needs for movie clips and pop songs. Above all, I will try to develop interesting teaching materials to increase their motivation, and various activities to encourage active participation in the class.

3. Text Evaluation: teaching materials

"High School English" published by Doosan Corporation is currently used as a high school common English textbook for the 10thgraders. It was written by five co-authors, Sungkon Kim, Hyukseong Kwon, Jeongim Han, Youngye Park, and Jeayoung Kim, in 2003. Four of the authors are linguists and college professors, and one is a high school teacher. The book has 312 pages and includes appendixes for extra reading materials, new words, formative tests, and scripts. It costs 3,180won. It is divided into 4 units. Each unit has a general topic and contains 3 different lessons related to that topic. It is designed for intermediate low to intermediate mid proficiency level students.

The primary aim of this book is to let the students improve the 4 language skills equally, with target expressions focused on functions and structures. There are 10 steps in each lesson. They include ‘Listen and Do’ for listening, ‘Let’s Talk’ for speaking, ‘Read and Think’ for reading, and ‘Let’s Write’ for writing. It helps the students know the world around them, and understand other cultures and communicate with people from other cultures in English by using topics such as ‘The world around us’, ‘Science and Imagination’, ‘The wonders of world cultures’ and ‘Adventures into the Future’ etc.

In terms of suitability and interest, this book covers a variety of topics suited to the interests of high school students, like planning for a future

career, the relationship between siblings, worries and advice, Home remedies for minor health problems, opinions of the internet, cultural meanings of world festivals, and so on. These topics help activate content schema easily for successful reading because they are very familiar and authentic. This book includes various text types such as on-line newspaper articles, e-mails, diaries, dialogues, and maps. They also make the intermediate-low/mid students get involved in their tasks actively. The ordering of materials by topics is well arranged in a logical fashion. The first unit deals with myself, family and friends, and then the next unit covers my daily life and expands its scale from the world to the universe.

However, there are inauthentic plays whose dialog does not correspond to actual dialogue and conversations composed for texts and enacted by native speakers. For example, " I have a terrible cold. Really? That's too bad. It's important to get a lot of rest". In speaking and writing steps, many pattern drills and contrived dialogue make the text boring.

With regard to the vocabulary in this book, the new words are introduced at bottom of each reading part so as not to interrupt skimming, and some expressions are presented for helping to get a gist with comprehension questions. As for the structure, even though a typical deductive approach is used, the three target structures presented in each lesson are very simple and clear for intermediate low/mid students to understand easily. Those new words, idiomatic expressions and structures are clearly explained in the context and recycled in every language activity like listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It makes it possible for the student to keep practicing and using what they have been taught without difficulty.

Lastly, in terms of exercises and activities, this book has various activities in each lesson. For listening practice, the students have individual tasks to solve. For the speaking part, they can take a cloze test in the cartoon while listening to the tape, and a pair or group activity for substitution drill. This book enhances the development of reading skills, such as skimming, scanning and prediction by doing pre-reading, through reading, and after-reading activities. For writing part, there is an individual activity for both

controlled and creative writing. At the end of the lesson, there is a test which can check 4 target skills together and an extra test for the advanced learners. Overall, the layout and colorful illustrations and authentic pictures of the text help make English learning more effective. Therefore, this book is rated as a "good" textbook, suitable for intermediate low/mid proficiency level high school students because it has many advantages as mentioned above.

4. A Lesson Plan Based on CALL: From the teacher's perspective

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 Description of the learners

The learners are third year high school students, aged 17. Their proficiency level is intermediate high for speaking and listening, intermediate mid for reading and novice high for writing. Their native language and cultural background is Korean. They were born in 1987 and were attending their elementary school in mid 1990. It means they have lived under the rapid progress of technology like Internet and cell phone. They are used to using computers and visual media such as video and CD instead of reading printed-paper. Some of them have been to the foreign countries once or twice. They live in the 'globalization era'. They understand the importance of English as an international language since they will need to communicate with people from other countries when traveling and in business in the future. After they finish the SAT in November, they will have 3 months vacation until beginning of the new semester in college. They want to travel abroad to learn about different cultures. They want to have a chance to experience ethnic food as well as famous places in each country. They are eager to know about other countries' culture and food. When they visit a restaurant in another country, they need to know how to order food in English by using the relevant expressions.

4.1.2 Introduction of the CALL material

The CD-Rom is made to meet the objectives of the class by using Flying Popcorn, which is suitable for designing multi media and home pages. It includes a world map, photos of world ethnic food in six countries (Korean, Japanese, American, British, Italian, and Indian food), list form, useful expressions for when ordering food, and pictures to use in a role-play. The world map with several national flags will be used for the Information and motivation stage. The next part of the ethnic food section is the activity in input stage. The part on useful expressions presents many sentences for the task. They identify the words of a waiter and a customer as a third activity in focus stage. The material will provide example listening clips to do with ordering food. The students will do role-plays in the transfer stage.

4.2. The lesson

4.2.1 Main purpose

At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to

1. Recall and use vocabulary to do with ethnic food from six countries (Korean, Japanese, American, British, Italian, and Indian food) when they order in a restaurant.
2. Make their own situational dialogue by using useful expressions they learned.
3. Order food in English by using several expressions they learned in the class.
4. Understand other countries' food culture and table manners.
5. Solve the problems caused by cultural differences by negotiating in English.

4.2.2 Describe activities/procedures

4.2.2.1 Information and motivation stage (5 minutes)

The teacher divides students into six groups of four. Each group shares one computer in class. First she asks the students to look at the world map on the

computer, and then asks the students what country they would like to go to if they had ten million won. Then she quickly writes students' answers on the white board. She chooses one of the countries from the answers and asks the students to discuss, for two minutes, what kind of ethnic food people eat in that country. She gathers the students' ideas and makes a list on the white board as an example to introduce what they are going to do in the next stage.

Figure 9. Index of the CALL Material & World Map

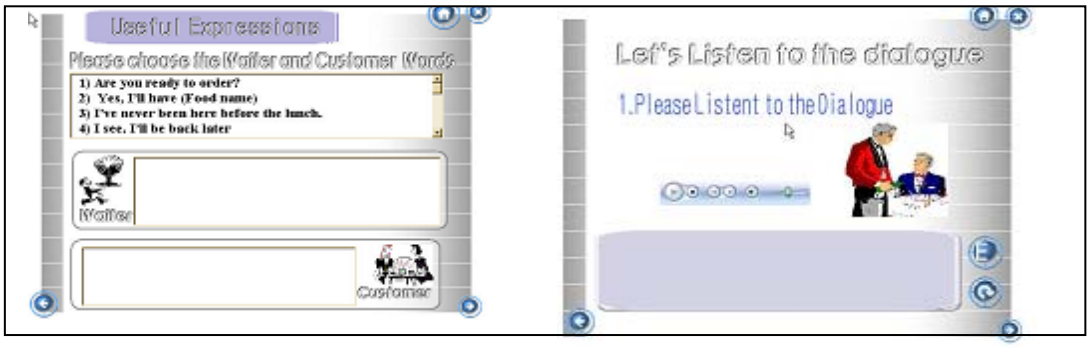
4.2.2.2 Input stage (15 minutes)

First the teacher explains how to move from the country page to the list pages and then she asks the students to click on one of the six countries on the list and, using the computer, spend five minutes making a list of ethnic food people eat in that country. At the end of this activity, each group presenter comes to the front of the class and explains and shares each group's decisions. At this stage the students activate their schema through writing down their favorite country and food by brainstorming and making lists. They also learn new target vocabulary for ethnic food.

Figure 10. The example Pages of Ethnic Food & List

After practicing the target vocabulary in the input stage, the teacher asks students to click the next page. On this page students can see many useful expressions that both waiters and customers use when they take orders and order foods in the restaurant. The teacher gives each group five minutes to put the useful expressions into the right categories.

Figure 11 Useful Expressions & Listening the Audio Clip



4.2.2.3 The Focus Stage (10 minutes)

In this stage, the students have to make their own situational dialogue with group members by using useful expressions. Before the activity, the teacher asks students to click to the next page and then check with their answers while they are listening to the audio clip. In other words, the teacher introduces the sample situational dialogue using the computer screen to show the students how to make their own dialogue. Now they can understand and learn specific usage of the expressions.

Then, the students are divided into six groups of four, and choose one country out of the six by drawing lots. They make their own dialogue about ordering food using learned expressions in their group, and each group leader presents dialogue they create. For example, if one group chooses India, they will make situational dialogue about ordering Indian food in an Indian restaurant. Listening to the sample dialogue and making a dialogue in groups help the students to learn how to use language in a practical situation, like ordering food.

After that, the students will play a true or false game concerning table manners that reflect each of the six countries' culture. It helps the students to build up background knowledge of food culture. The teacher makes a handout for this. This activity is designed as preparation for the active role play in the transfer stage. The students can recognize cultural differences, and learn how to deal with them while answering the questions the teacher asks. If possible, the students can discuss cultural differences briefly in the class.

4.2.2.4. The Transfer Stage (12 minutes)

In the last stage, the students are supposed to do problem solving activity. Six groups of students choose one situation card, on which is written a certain problem caused by different food culture among different countries. And then each group of students has to show how to solve the given problem, using information they learned about food culture through the True/False game in the focus stage. Also, on the situation card, there are specific roles for students to perform and act-out. For example, in the focus stage, students already learned that Japanese people don't use spoon as Koreans do. On the situation card, there is written a specific setting that Jim and Susan go to Japanese restaurant after traveling to Saporo in Japan and then they recognize there are no spoons to eat soup. This is a problem to be solved and finally, with the help of waiter, Jim and Susan understand and get to know why they are confused at the situation. So each group of members has to take the necessary roles and act as Jim, Susan and the waiter. Each group will choose only one of the six different situation cards. They will have about 5 minutes to make a role-play to solve the problem, using what they learned about ordering food and cultural tips related to the table manners. Then arbitrary groups act out in the class. Then the rest of the groups evaluate the group doing the role-play according to criteria such as creativity, participation, and performance.

5. Conclusion

These three projects I did through the Curricular and Material development course were very meaningful and helpful procedures which make me think about how to teach English more effectively. I realized the importance of needs analysis when designing a syllabus to teach English. I need to change my teaching style from a focused on Grammar Translation method into a student-centered method, based on communicative language competence because the students want it. They want to learn English for their future career in the globalization era, and communicate with other people from other countries and cultures. In particular, they want to have fun learning English, using authentic materials or multimedia. We, EFL teachers, should design course by analyzing the students' needs. It is a starting point for successful language learning.

As for teaching materials, since we use a fixed textbook through the semester in the classroom, it is very meaningful job to evaluate it. Actually, I evaluated the textbook referring to Skeiro's (1991) Evaluation checklists. Fortunately, "High School English", the textbook I evaluated, was rated "good" for intermediate low/mid proficiency level students because it is appropriate for the aim, suitability and interest level, vocabulary and structures, and exercises and activities. Also we need to try to find authentic materials, such as ads form newspapers, take out menus from restaurants, short pieces from magazines, maps and so on to motivate the students' interest and to teach authentic language use. If the authentic materials are taught with meaningful activities, it is the best way to teach English in the classroom. Lastly, we created a lesson plan based on CALL in group work. The target students were high school students with intermediate mid proficiency level. We used the Flying Popcorn program to teach how to order food in the foreign restaurant and help them understand differences in food culture and table manners. CALL is the most effective way to teach English because the students we are teaching are the 'Computer generation'. We used various useful activities, such as T/F game, role plays and flexible group

work. In conclusion, we have to struggle to develop many teaching materials based on students' needs for communicative language teaching.

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Appendix A

Needs survey for first year of student of High school in English Class

Ⅰ Background

1. Age :
2. Sex :
3. Nationality :
4. Place of birth : _____ dong, Incheon Metropolitan City
5. Personality : shy, active, introvert, outgoing, timid, passive
6. Other foreign language experience : _____ / _____ yrs.
7. Have you ever been to foreign countries before ? How long? When?
8. What is the purpose of learning English ?
   -Occupational
   -College requirement
   -Family influence
   -General interest
9. Present level of English
   -beginner
   -intermediate low
   -intermediate high
   -advanced

Ⅱ Past Education

10. Numbers of years of English learning:
11. Where did you learn English? Only school, Institute,
    Other ( )
12. What did you learn?
    -grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, speaking, pronunciation.
13. Have you attended English Camp or other program in the vacation? What is the name of the program?

Ⅲ Future education

14. In what setting will you need English?

15. What job would you like to do in the future? :

16. Do you expect to use English in your career? (Yes/ No)

If 'Yes', will English be required: regularly, often, occasionally, seldom.

17. What specific points of the English language do you want to improve?

a. speaking skills(conversation, discussion, presentation _____)

b. listening skills(TV, radio, lectures, service people, _____)

c. reading skills (newspaper, magazine, textbooks, books, _____)

d. writing skills (papers, professional letters. stories, _____)

e. practical situation (greetings, telephone, restaurant _____)

f. grammatical skills

g. idiomatic expressions

h. others.

18. Short-term goals for learning English

19. Long-term goals for learning English

Ⅳ Learning style and interests

20. preferred learning mode

- listening - speaking - reading - writing

21. Do you like group work? Why or Why not?

22. How do you feel about making mistakes while learning a new language

23. Preferred teaching materials

- movie clip/ - pop songs / - pictures
- books / - newspapers / - magazines
- advertisement / - flash cards / - whiteboard/ - comics - others

24. Specify your interest

- family / - sports / - entertainment
- movies / - play/ - school life
- science / - environment / - history/ - others

Appendix B

Culture Tips Worksheet for True/False Game

♠ The following are statements related to food culture of several countries. If the statement is right, write T in the blank. If the statement is not right, put F in the blank.

① Koreans enjoy fermented foods such as kimchi, salted fish and Korean pastes. - ( )

② Koreans use both a spoon and chopsticks and people put their spoons into the same stew and eat together. - ( )

③ Japanese people use only chopsticks but not spoon and should express their appreciation before the meal. - ( )

④ Japanese people have to drink the soup by touching the bowl with their mouth because they don't use spoon.

⑤ In India, talking during the dining is considered to be impolite. They talk after washing hands and gargling when they have to talk. - ( )

⑥ In India, people wash hands before washing and generally they eat with their fingers, but sometimes they use wooden spoons when the food is hot. - ( )

⑦ In America, people have to ask for the salt or sugar if they are sitting far away from it. - ( )

⑧ In America, people blow their nose during meal if necessary.
- ( )

⑨ In Italy, people don't like to be asked to take oil and salt which are far away. So they themselves go to take the oil and salt if necessary. - ( )

⑩ In Italy, foods are on a common large plate and people take food to their own small plate to eat it - ( )

⑪ In England, if the napkin, knife or fork fall on the floor, the waiter has to pick it up not customers themselves. - ( )

⑫ In England, people think it's not sanitary to touch hair, lips, ears and nose during meals.

Appendix C

Situation 1

Two Americans, Jim and Susan go to a Japanese restaurant after traveling to Saporo in Japan. When they are about to eat soup, they realize that there are no spoons. Jim calls the waiter and the waiter explains the reason.

Roles to do: Jim, Susan, and Japanese waiter

Situation 2

Sumi and her two friends go to an Indian restaurant to eat curry. They are talking cheerfully, eating with their left hands. People around them stare at Sumi and her friends, so she calls the waiter over. The waiter explains the reason.

Roles to do: Sumi, her friends, Indian waiter

Situation 3

An Italian, Sebastian was invited to an American friend, Tom's home for his birthday party. The Italian stretches his arm to get salt, which is far away from him. This makes American friends confused. Noticing this situation, Tom explains the reason why other people are embarrassed.

Roles to do: Sebastian, Tom, other American friends.

Special Needs in ELT

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There are lots of students who can not learn due to their individual problems. The students with serious problems are called students with special needs and they call for special care from their teachers. However, most of the teachers in Korea are not ready to take proper care of them because there were no such things as teacher training programs for dealing with these students. This paper is aimed at introducing examples of special needs and giving teachers tips on how to help students with these special needs. This paper will cover three examples of special needs – suicide, sleep-deprivation, and cyber-bullying.

1. Introduction

Being a good language teacher requires consideration about not only students' linguistic knowledge but also problems each individual faces. We call some of the more serious and outrageous problems 'special needs'. The students with special needs suffer from factors such as cyber-bullying, suicide, and depression rather than English itself. So far, Korean teachers of English haven't taken account of students with special needs and there weren't any teacher training courses on how to deal with students with special needs. Actually if teachers pay more attention to students' special needs in the language classroom, we can lead students overcome their problems while helping them learn language. Teachers should be knowledgeable about special needs, therefore we'd like to introduce a case study on suicide and provide two teacher's in-service packets for sleep deprivation and cyber-bullying as examples.

2. Case Study - Suicide

2.1 Brief Description of the Learner

Hwang Ji Hyun is in a very harmonious and happy family. Her father is a doctor, and her mother is a pharmacist. Her brother, Hwang Jun Sang, who is 2 years older than she, is very smart, and was a gifted student when he was at school. Her parents reacted sensitively to her brother's grades; however they were very generous to her. Externally, it seemed that she had no problems and nothing much to worry about. She didn't care much about her appearance although she was quite chubby. She tended to enjoy studying but her grades weren't good. Furthermore, her grades were not as great as her brother's, but she didn't mind. She was just proud of her brother. But whenever she argued with her brother, he teased her about her IQ or not being smart. Unconsciously she kept in mind that she wasn't good at studying and that she wasn't naturally clever. Before she reached puberty, she was an active and easy-going girl. Sometimes she envied her friends who were popular among others, but it wasn't serious. She liked to play with her best friend, but she felt uncomfortable when playing with many friends.

2.2 Problems

It was at 16, when she started thinking about suicide. Others thought that she was a lucky and happy student, and that she had no serious complex or depression; however, she worried about herself a lot. The simple worries started to get bigger when one of her male friends told her seriously that she was ugly and unattractive. She realized how fat she was and got very stressed. Then she knew that her grades were bad, and she started to compare her grades with her brother's.

From that moment she saw herself in a different viewpoint and everything about her changed. Her smiling face turned into angry face, full of complaints. First of all, she didn't like thy way her parents treated her and her brother. It seems that they expected many things from her brother, but not from her. And they kept saying that, "Junsang is smart but Jihyun isn't smart as him." She was so sad because she felt like she got no attention from

her parents. The second problem was her appearance. She started to care about her weight since others teased her about it. She tried to eat just a little but that didn’t work well. To make things worse, she got fatter, because after a while she started to eat more due to all stress. Her third problem resulted from the bad grades. She was studying but her grades were poor all the time. She wanted to catch up with her brother, but it seemed almost impossible. She started to believe that her brain wasn’t good enough to catch up with her brother.

These main 3 problems made her unhappy. She was gloomy all the time, and her viewpoint on the world was negative. It was hard to see her smiling face and she couldn’t stop complaining about everything. As time went on, she lost interest in her life. She began to think about death and killing herself. The frequency of the suicidal thoughts increased and she thought about it everyday, all day long.

On a website, there are some verbal and behavioral clues to indicate whether a person is showing signs of being suicidal.

Saying things like:

- I shouldn't be here.
- I'm going to run away.
- I wish I were dead.
- I'm going to kill myself.
- I wish I could disappear forever.
- If a person did this or that…..would he/she die?
- The voices tell me to kill myself.
- Maybe if I died, people would love me more.
- I want to see what it feels like to die.

Doing things like:

- Talking or joking about suicide.
- Giving away possessions.

- Preoccupation with death/violence; TV, movies, drawings, books, at play, music.
- Risky behavior; jumping from high places, running into traffic, self-mutilation.
- Having several accidents resulting in injury; "close calls" or "brushes with death."
- Obsession with guns and knives.
- Previous suicidal thoughts or attempts.

Among those symptoms, the highlighted sentences are the ones that mostly applied to her. However, it seems that her thinking was dangerous, but that she wouldn't have had the courage to go through with it since there is not much accordance with the 'doing' lists.

2.3 Solutions

Now she doesn't think about suicide anymore. And she is surprised by the fact that not all people think about suicide. Her dangerous thoughts disappeared as her puberty ended, however, if she had opened her mind, and asked help from others, then her school life would have been happier. She should have spoken to her parents or friends. It is very surprising that she never told anyone about her worries. Also, it is important to find someone who can help.

- Parent(s), guardian, or other family member
- School psychologist, social worker, counselor or nurse
- Teacher
- Personal physician or nurse
- Personal clergy
- Your local hospital
- Local Crisis Intervention Center
- Websites that run free secure counsel programs

2.3.1 Parents' Role

In my opinion, Ji-Hyun's parents are the most important people to deal with this problem. If they had listened to their daughter more carefully, then she might have been alright. Also, it was wrong to compare her with her brother. They should always say something that can challenge Ji-Hyun, not just hopeless comments.

According to AACAP(American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry), there are symptoms to look out for when children are planning to commit suicide.

A teenager who is planning to commit suicide may also:

- complain of being a bad person or feeling rotten inside
- give verbal hints with statements such as: I won't be a problem for you much longer, nothing matters, it's no use, and I won't see you again
- put his or her affairs in order, for example, give away favorite possessions, clean his or her room, throw away important belongings, etc.
- become suddenly cheerful after a period of depression
- have signs of psychosis (hallucinations or bizarre thoughts)

Ji-Hyun's parents didn't pay much attention when Ji-Hyun said something about herself, and just considered her opinions to be complaints. That made it more difficult and hard for Ji-Hyun to bare all the issues. Or maybe, they didn't know the symptoms of suicide. The symptoms are quite similar to those of depression. Below is a list of symptoms displayed by suicidal students. Parents should refer to this information and keep an eye on their children.

- I feel sad.
- I feel like crying a lot.
- I'm bored.
- I feel alone.
- I don't really feel sad, just "empty".
- I feel helpless.

- I’m always getting into trouble.
- I’m restless and jittery. I can’t sit still.
- I feel nervous.
- I can’t think straight. My brain doesn’t seem to work.
- I feel ugly.
- I don’t feel like talking anymore – I just don’t have anything to say.
- I feel my life has no direction.
- I feel life isn’t worth living.
- I don’t want to go out with friends anymore.
- I don’t feel like taking care of my appearance.
- I feel "different" from everyone else.
- I smile, but inside I'm miserable.
- I have difficulty falling asleep or I awaken between 1 A.M. and 5 A.M. and then I can't get back to sleep.
- My appetite has increased - I feel I could eat all the time.
- My weight has increased/decreased.
- I feel nauseous.
- I'm dizzy.

Parents should be aware of the following signs of adolescents who may try to kill themselves:

- Change in eating and sleeping habits.
- Withdrawal from friends, family, and regular activities.
- Violent actions, rebellious behavior, or running away.
- Drug and alcohol use.
- Unusual neglect of personal appearance.
- Marked personality change.
- Persistent boredom, difficulty concentrating, or a decline in the quality of schoolwork.
- Frequent complaints about physical symptoms, often related to emotions, such as stomachaches, headaches, fatigue, etc.
- Loss of interest in pleasurable activities.
- Not tolerating praise or rewards.

2.3.2 Teachers' Role

I found that it would be a tough for teachers to know which students are suicidal and choosing those who are thinking of death seriously. As mentioned above, teachers should pay attention to the 'symptoms' of suicidal thoughts. The student might have said something to the teacher to show his/her problems. However, most teachers don't catch the subtle differences, or are just interested in the grades.

One last thing to mention is that, it is 'interest in herself, and love' that make a student stop thinking of suicide. If a teacher or parent had paid attention seriously, and counseled at least once a week, Ji-Hun would have forgotten all her suffering more easily.

3. Teacher's in-service: Sleep Deprivation

3.1 The Actual Status of Sleep-Deprivation

Whenever I enter the classroom I can see at least 3 students lying on his/her face and don't even try to get up. Walking around the class, I wake them up. This is what happens in everyday routine. Whenever I asked students how they feel today, their answers are unified all the time; 'I'm tired and sleepy.' About two months ago, I took a simple survey concerning how long do students sleep in a day. The following charts are the results of the survey;

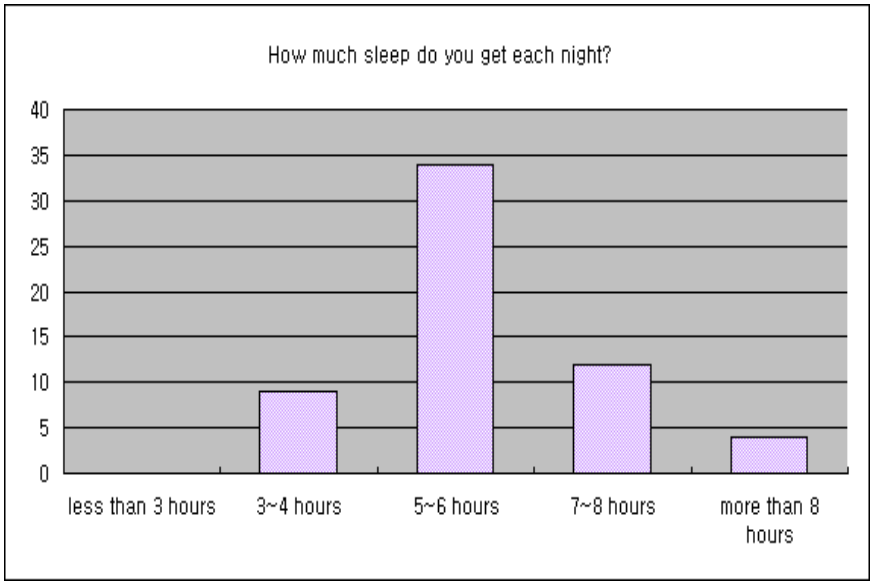
Table 1. *Survey Results of the Actual Status of Sleep-Deprivation*

How much sleep do you get each night?		
less than 3 hours	0	0%
3~4 hours	9	15%
5~6 hours	34	58%
7~8 hours	12	20%
more than 8 hours	4	7%
How much sleep do you need each night?		
4 hours	4	7%
7 hours	7	12%
8 hours	23	39%

9 hours		11	19%
more than 9 hours		14	24%

According to their answers, most students sleep far less than the minimum sleep requirement for adolescents. Also, they were already aware of the fact that they are sleep-deprived. Most people seem to think drowsiness is a simple, temporary problem.

Figure1. *The Graph 1 of the Survey Result*



Some people consider less sleep to be directly related to sincerity, or hard-working. However, a lot of surveys and research have shown that it is not that simple a problem.

Figure2. *The Graph 2 of the Survey Result*

3.2 The Causes of Sleep Deprivation - Life Style

There are many factors that cause sleep deprivation. However, sleep deprivation among teenagers is caused by one main reason; their careless life style. Most students who are sleep deprived often have very irregular life styles. They usually play computer games, drink alcohol until late at night, and go to sleep as late as 3~4 A.M.

Considering emotional side, depression, or stress can be one of the causes. Students easily get stress from their work and exams. Or during puberty they might get many worries that prevent them from sleeping well at night.

Diet can also influence sleeping habits. Too much eating two hours or less before bedtime can keep you awake. Try to avoid drinking water, tea or other fluids before bedtime as they increase the likelihood of having to get up during the night to urinate.

3.3 The Effects of Sleep Deprivation

3.3.1 Mental Problems

It seems that people still can perform their work although they are sleep deprived; however, sleep is needed to reconstruct some parts of the body, especially the brain, so that it may continue to function fully. If sleep deprivation continues for long enough, the malfunction of brain will show up

and it will affect human behavior. Think about our classes. There are many students who seem awake and seem to have no problem concentrating in class, but many of them are having trouble concentrating. This means that our brain keep working when we are sleep-deprived, however, it operates much less effectively. Therefore, decision-making ability might deteriorate, and it will take longer to make a decision. Not only the brain, but also emotional mood will be weakened. Students with sleep deprivation can be very irritated and annoyed by little incidents. They might become hot-tempered.

3.3.2 Physical Problems

Students might gain weight due to increase of appetite with insufficient rest. Or students might suffer from eye problems. Lack of rest can make the eyes tired and make it difficult to focus the properly.

3.4 The danger of Sleep deprivation

According to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, over 100,000 automobile accidents a year are caused by driver fatigue. The less sleep you get, the greater chance that you will have an accident. Students should change their sleeping habits before it harms them.

Below is a list of some of the dangerous consequences of sleep deprivation.

- sensitivity to cold, weight gain
- depression
- joint or muscle pain
- slow speech

3.5 Tips for Good Sleep

Here is a list of tips that you can give to your students who are sleep deprived:

- Rest according to a schedule – Try to set up the bed time.
  Go to bed on time and try to get up on time.
- Exercise – proper exercise can leads you fine sleep.

Do exercise 20 – 30 minutes everyday.

- Eat and Drink long before bedtime – A heavy meal can spoil sleep. Try to avoid food and fluid at least two hours before.
- Relax - Meditation, relaxation techniques and breathing techniques may all work.

4. In-Service Teachers: Cyber-Bullying

4.1 Introduction

In the 1990s, bullying revolved around student-on-student violence so schools implemented many programs to keep gangs out of schools. In the 21st century, school bullying is taking on a new and more insidious form. Now, new technologies have made it easier for bullies to gain access to their victims. This form of bullying has become known as cyber-bullying. Cyber bullying, while being similar in its intent to hurt others through power and control, is different due to the use of new technologies such as the Internet. Nowadays, students are always connected or wired, and communicate in ways that are often unknown by adults and away from their supervision. This can make it hard for parents and school teachers to both understand the nature of the problem and do something about it. In addition, there's nothing that we teachers can do to prevent cyber bullying if we aren't knowledgeable regarding the use of current school technology and the ways and means students are using. Teachers and parents need to pay attention to cyber bulling and deal with it. Therefore, I'd like to talk about cyber-bullying and especially cyber bullying of the disabled.

4.2 Cyber-Bullying

4.2.1 Definition

Bill Belsey, a nationally recognized educator from Alberta, Canada describes cyber-bullying as "bullying (that) involves the use of information and communication technologies such as e-mail, cell-phone and pager text messages, instant messaging, web sites to support deliberate, repeated, and hostile behavior by an individual or group, that is intended to harm others".

Cyber bullying might be more harmful than other types of bullying in that it can hurt the victims anonymously so the victims can't face the bullies directly. Anyone can be a victim, but usually the students who look different from others tend to be bullied much more than others, so it's more likely for disabled children to be victims of cyber bullying.

4.2.2 Signs of being cyber-bullied

What are the signs that your students are being cyber-bullied? According to an announcement by the Australian Government, there are some signs that the cyber-bullied children display: Having trouble sleeping or having nightmares, feeling depressed or crying without reason, mood swings, feeling unwell, becoming anti-social and falling behind in homework. If a student shows these kinds of signs, the teachers and parents should pay attention and question if he/she is a victim of cyber-bullying. Cyber bullying can hurt students severely in extreme cases, it can lead to suicide. Thus, teachers and parents should take cyber-bullying seriously and try to prevent it by letting students know that cyber-bullying is serious crime that can carry a prison sentence.

4.3 Case Study - Cyber-Bullying

I'd like to introduce the real case which happened in my school a few weeks ago. Actually this accident made me think about cyber-bullying and take it more seriously. I have two students with special needs in my English reading class. They have both physical and mental developmental disorders. Thus, though they are fifteen year's old, they look like 8 year olds. Both of the boys are registered disabled and are just 150 centimeters tall. One has a mental age of 8, and fortunately he adjusted himself quite well to class environment. But the other boy has more serious mental developmental disorder. He has a mental age of 5. This student has a habit of beating his own nose with his fist until it bleeds. When I asked the special needs teacher who is in charge of them the reason he behaves like that, she told me that it is because he has been bullied since elementary school. He beats his nose as a way of threatening other children not to bully him. I was shocked to hear that and I

got to observe him more closely. From this semester, he beat his nose more often and bled a lot. One day, one of my colleges discovered a home page where this student's picture was posted. In the picture, he was bleeding from the nose and he looked aggressive, beating his nose with his fist. Actually, the bullies provoked and made fun of him to see him beating his own nose. Then whenever he beat his nose, they took pictures of him and posted them on their home page. (This is attached at the back of this paper.) What do you feel? When I first saw it, I got furious and I thought I should give a lesson to students in my class about the cyber bullying.

Soon, the other teachers' got to know about this, including the principle. As this accident was revealed, it became a big problem. The principle summoned the student violence discipline council which consists of a teacher in the discipline department, the bullies' parents, the four dominant bullies, a lawyer and a policeman who are in charge of the school. They had a long discussion and finally they made a decision. The bullies and their parents attended just the first half part of the discussion to ask for forgiveness and in the second part, the discussion how to deal with the accident and what punishment should be given to the bullies.

4.4 Activity - Discussion

Now, I want you to discuss this matter. Cyber bullying for disabled student - what punishment should be given to the bullies? Let's do a role play. Make groups of four. Each member will take a role which represents one member from student violence discipline council. One should be a teacher, one a lawyer, one a policeman and one the principal. Discuss this matter and decide the punishment. After the discussion write down the decision on the piece of paper that I gave you. Then we will share the ideas and opinions together as a class.

♠ Activity procedures ♠

1. Get the teachers to make groups of four.
2. Let them do the role play. Each one takes each role of student violence discipline council.
3. While doing the role play, make a decision of what punishment should be given to the bullies.
4. Write down the decisions each group makes on the paper and present them to other groups.
5. Share the ideas and opinions together as a whole class.

4.5 Conclusion

The decision that our school council made was to suspend two of the bullies from school until the end of this year. The other two and their parents were ordered to write apology letters to the victim and his parents, and do social/community service for 50 hours. At first, Yong the father of the victim was thinking about suing the bullies and their parents but they finally decided against this because they are still young students. However, they wished the bullies had learned something from this experience and that an incident like this would never happen again. According to Korean law, the person who commits cyber-bullying can be sentenced three years in prison, because it's a serious crime. However, most parents and teachers tend to think that their child would never do something this mean, and what's more the adults don't know the technologies as well as their children do. Most adults approach computers as practical tools while for young students the Internet is a lifeline to their peer group. Unfortunately with the development of these technologies, cyber bullying has become very common and easy for students to do. Therefore, we as teachers should know how to use current technology and the ways that students are using them. By guiding children to use the technology in ways that promote respect, understanding and responsibility, we can lessen the impact of this new form of bullying.

5. Conclusion

Until now we've covered only three special needs but there are lots of special needs besides these. For example, dyslexia, vision problems, ADHD(Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder), and depression are major special needs that can influence students' learning, so they should be dealt with in teachers training programs. Teacher's training for special needs is common in other countries. However, it seems that only few people are aware of the importance of the training in Korea. We provided this paper about a case study and two teachers in-service packet with hope that it would raise teachers' interest and awareness of special needs. We expect this paper will help for you to get insight on special needs.

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http://pohang.kbs.co.kr/bbs/ezboard.cgi?db=k_pohangcol5&action=read&dbf=44&page=1&depth=2

Sleep Deprivation Information:

http://www.sleep-deprivation.com/html/

Cyber-Bullying:

http://www.bewebaware.ca/english/CyberBullying.aspx

http://responsiblenetizen.org/cyberbullying/

Incorporating Movie Clips and Books Into Language Teaching By Using Software

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The purpose of this project is to create multimedia teaching materials by using the multimedia authoring tool, Flying Popcorn. Since movies and books are authentic and easily available resources in English as a foreign language (EFL) situations, this project utilizes books and movies as its contents. This project reflects students' interests and uses currently popular works: 'Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets' and 'The Chronicles of Narnia – The Lion and the Witch and the Wardrobe'. According to Miriam (1999), movies can be used in diverse settings – in classrooms, in distance-learning sites and in self-study situations. Flying Popcorn can also be used in teacher's professional development or with students as a way of presenting teaching materials and providing explanation of concepts. Books, if released as a movie, become more familiar and can be read with the help of the movie. In addition, by editing movie clips in advance, teachers can maximize class time.

1. Introduction

1.1. Language teaching in Korea

If we are asked if it is possible to learn English in Korea, we need to think about the environment. The major difference between 'English as a second language' and 'English as a foreign language' in language learning and acquisition is the quality and the quantity of the language exposure. In English speaking countries, you are continuously receiving diverse exposure from media, signs and your community. On the other hand, in EFL situations, learners are required to actively generate input. We can conclude that the role of teachers is to provide a good quality of input as much as possible. Since

most public school students in Korea have three to five English classes a week, which is an extremely short time to master English, teachers need to carefully design English lessons to maximize class time.

1.2. The need for this project

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) opened up an exciting new range of teaching and learning opportunities for students of languages (Graham Davies, 2002). Language teachers have been using ICT in the modern language classroom for over twenty years. With an adaptation of technology, most Korean public schools have been equipped with computers and software. However, teachers have left the multimedia tools unutilized and students' reaction to computer mediated language class is less enthusiastic than expected.

There are several reasons for this, such as technology concerns, teacher concerns, student concerns, and material concerns. In this study, I will mainly explore material concerns. First, it is hard to find appropriate materials, which contribute to language development, as well as meet students' needs. According to King (2002), when commercially released videos series, explicitly made for ESL/EFL, were first utilized in the classroom, the student response was relatively positive in that motion pictures are far more dynamic and vivid than a text or a sound-only recording. Nevertheless, students' interests in educational video clips faded after a short time. Watching the same video characters appear in every episode becomes an unattractive routine for most learners. Such unauthentic videos are produced with a large budget but become quickly outdated. In addition, they require students to expose target language repeatedly and to practice language rather than get the general idea of the motion picture. Although some teachers use movies in language class, they often do not provide any follow-up activities and let students spend the whole class only watching the movies.

Second, a lot of software is used for one class period and is not related to other English classes. In my teaching experience at Baekwoon high school, where students have four English classes a week, English teachers use a designated textbook for three classes and take their students to a computer lab to do Computer Mediated Instruction (CMI) for one class period. Materials for in-class study are not related to the CMI class.

Third, teachers know using movies in the EFL classroom is somehow helpful but do not know how to apply them effectively, and also which

follow-up activities should be offered to maximize the application. It also would not be appropriate to sit and watch a movie for two hours without any activities or instructions. Most students are easily distracted and fall asleep even though a movie is interesting. If they do not like the movie, they start doing something else after 5 minutes

1.3. The purpose of this project

The purpose of this project is to develop multimedia teaching material for self-study and a teacher's presentation, which deals with the four suggested problems: (1) to maximize effective multimedia application in the EFL classroom, (2) to introduce authentic material such as movies and books into the classroom, (3) to incorporate from the bottom-up as well as from the top-down strategies for listening and reading exercises, and (4) to lead students to be engaged in self extensive reading.

2. Literature Review

2. 1. Benefits of using multimedia in language instruction

Multimedia in a Computer Assisted Language Learning(CALL) environment means that input from written texts may be enhanced by pictures, graphics, animations, video, and sound as well hyperlinks to other, explanatory texts (Elizabeth, 2002). Students use CD-Rom titles and can immediately access the Internet for further information. Therefore, the application of multimedia in CALL can offer considerable enrichment of the learning environment over that of conventional media or computers or video. According to Warshauer and Healey (1998), it also provides individualized learning in a large class. Students control their speed of learning and repeatedly access the learning materials without feeling of ashamed of their performance.

2.2. Using authentic materials

Alejandro (2002) pointed out that using authentic materials in the classroom, even when not done in an authentic situation, and provided it is appropriately exploited, is significant for many reasons. First, textbooks and recorded cassette tapes only include standardized English and do not include incidental or improper English. Besides, learners who are accustomed to American English often have problems in understanding British English. Second, Authentic materials keep students informed about what is happening in the

world, so they have intrinsic educational value. Third, authentic materials can encourage reading for pleasure because they are likely to contain topics that are of interest to learners, especially if students are given the chance to have a say about the topic or kinds of authentic materials to be used in class.

2.3. Integrative listening skills

Morley (2001) stated that listening comprehension is felt to be a prerequisite for oral proficiency as well as an important skill in its own right. Language teachers focus on applying hundreds of possible techniques which are basically divided into two categories: from the bottom-up processing and from the top-down processing. The bottom–up mode of language processing involves the listener paying close attention to every detail of the language input. On the other hand, the top-down processing of listening involves the listener's ability to access background knowledge of the heard language. Teachers need to provide students with practice in both kinds of langue processing. Besides, listening and reading skills, such as comprehension and production, compensate and reinforce each other.

2.4. Extensive reading

Nothing improves reading and reading enjoyment like extensive reading.
Krashen (2004) stated that:

> Reading is consistently shown to be more efficient than direct instruction: Reading is a powerful means of developing reading comprehension ability, writing style, vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. In addition, evidence shows that it is pleasant, promotes cognitive development, and lowers writing apprehension. (p 37)

Most teachers would agree with Krashen but do not know how to encourage students be involved in pleasure reading. Software that provides pre-reading activities and activates students' schema would enhance extensive reading in that it would motivate students by guiding their reading direction to read, and provide scaffolding through pictures or sounds. In addition, according to Deborah (2002) software that encourages learners to reread a text helps them achieve the goal of spending more time reading, even if what they are doing does not appear to be directed toward a specific reading-related skill.

3. Film application

3.1. Benefits of using films in EFL Class

Feature films are more intrinsically motivating than videos made for EFL/ESL teaching because they embody the notion that they are "a film with a story that wants to be told rather than a lesson that needs to be taught" (Ward & Lepeintre, 1996). Moreover, the realism of movies provides a wealth of contextualized linguistic, paralinguistic features films are more intrinsically motivating than videos made for EFL/ESL and authentic cross-cultural information, classroom listening comprehension and fluency practice (Braddock, 1996; Mejia, 1994; Stempleski, 2000, Wood, 1995). Films are such valuable and rich resources for teaching, for they present colloquial English in real life contexts rather than artificial situations; an opportunity of being exposed to different native speaker voices, slang, reduced speeches, stress, accents, and dialects.

Film communication offers links between classrooms and society. Motion pictures can help explore cultural context, may be integrated easily into the curriculum, are entertaining, and allow flexibility of materials and teaching techniques. Motion pictures can also be related to student’s personal experiences, act as a focus for teacher-student interaction, and can be used to promote awareness of the interrelationship between modes (picture, movement, language sound, captions) (Wood, 1995). They are controllable teaching instruments and offer a great variety of subject, communicative language, language environment, and cultural content(Wood 1995).

Science fiction and fantasy have long been the favored recreational reading genre for adolescent boys. There are many movie and television versions of science fiction tales which can be used for reading motivation and for stimulating the imagination. Narnia is one of the three greatest fantasies: Tales from Earthsea, The Lord of the Rings, and Narnia. In addition television networks such as PBS and CNN provide classroom guides for educational materials that can be used as a vehicle.

3.2. Things to consider when using movies

3.2.1. Instructional value

Teachers should evaluate a film for tie in content and instructional presentation, which means how it fits with the outlined goals and objectives of the lesson or the course. For example, "to infuse video into my lessons" is not a good goal. Using multimedia can not be a goal, just a medium. The goals should be directly or indirectly linked to the national curriculum.

Second, age limit should be considered. Two widely used sitcoms among adults are ‘Sex and the City’ and ‘Friends’. There are inappropriate for students because they contain sexually oriented jokes.

3.2.2. Planning

The second phase of evaluating and implementing video technology is planning for instruction. List the main skills the students will need to improve whether listening or reading. When applying movies in listening instruction, a teacher would list the skills the students would need to accomplish this task. Students need to use extensive listening skills to get the general idea of the text while using selective listening skills to answer specific questions. To give another example, if you want good oral presentations, you might want the students to have good eye contact, appropriate gestures and a strong persuasive introduction with facts to support it. (Naomi, 2002)

3.2.3. Designing Tasks

In phase three, the instructor needs to design tasks for the students to practice the skills taught. As you design tasks, include the instructional strategies for teaching the skill. Provide various types of questions to increase comprehensibility or to check comprehension. Questioning strategies are highly applicable. Benjamin Bloom created this taxonomy for categorizing levels of abstraction of questions that commonly occur in educational settings.

Table1. Bloom's Taxonomy

Competence	Description
Knowledge	Exhibits previously learned material by recalling facts, terms, basic concepts and answers
Comprehension	Demonstrating understanding of facts and ideas by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptions and stating main ideas.
Application	Solving problems by applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules in a different way
Analysis	Examining and breaking information into parts by identifying motives or causes; making inferences and finding evidence to support generalizations
Synthesis	Compiling information together in a different way by combining elements in a new pattern or proposing alternative solutions.

Evaluation	Presenting and defending opinions by making judgments about information, validity of ideas or quality of work based on a set of criteria.

Retrieved from http://www.kcmetro.cc.mo.us/longview/ctac/blooms.htm

The teacher can use these six types of questions according to students' proficiency levels or the goal of the lesson.

3.3. Further learning

According to Wepner (1990) the computer is not an embellished drill sheet that is tacked onto lesson. In order to integrate software into any literature-based lesson, it is important to know the contents and potential applications of each piece of software. What follows are ways to connect software to trade book reading focusing on linking one, two, and three computer applications, respectively, with literature based lessons. Well-designed instructional software can provide learning opportunities for students both at school and at home. There are many English print materials: novels, recipes, newspapers and magazines. I will simply divide books into two groups. One is dramatized books and the other is not. Students who are interested in books can easily buy a dramatized book after watching the movie. If you go to a big bookstore, you can easily find 'The Lord of the Rings', 'The Harry Potter Series' and 'Bridget Jones's Diary'. They are displayed on the desk where people pass by. An Interest in movies often leads to pleasure reading.

3.4. Selecting a movie

Miriam suggests criteria to be followed in a movie selection. She uses the ideas of Arcario (1992), Johnston (1999), and Stempleski (1992) in which teachers ask themselves the following questions before choosing a video or video series:

Table 2. Criteria in movie selection for language learning.

Criteria	Questions
Inspiration Motivation, Interest	Will the video appeal to my students? Will it make them want to learn?
Content	Does the content match my instructional goals? Is it culturally appropriate for my learners?
Clarity of message	Is the instructional message clear to my students?
Pacing	Many authentic videos move at a pace difficult for a nonnative speaker to follow.

Graphics	What graphics are used to explain a concept? Do they clarify it? Do they appear on screen long enough to be understood by the learner?
Length of sequence	Is the sequence to be shown short enough?
Independence of sequence	Can this segment be understood without lengthy explanations of the plot, setting, and character motivation preceding and following it?
Availability and quality of related materials	Does the homepage provide any educational supporting materials? Is it easy to find teaching material on the internet?
Use of videos	How will I use the video? In the classroom or for self-study.

4. Project

4.1. Objectives

By using this CD-Rom,

- Students can answer the questions by using extensive listening skills and selective listening skills.
- Students can skim and scan the script to find the answers.
- Students can read the book without looking for unknown words.
- Students can find the differences between the movie and the book.

4.2. Target students and setting

10^{th} grade public high school students at low or mid intermediate level are targeted. Students will be meeting at the computer lab in public school, and also doing the project individually (Harry Potter) or with teachers (Narnia).

This project can also be a listening exercise in that it provides selective and extensive listening questions with a meaningfully edited movie. It also allows students to scan and skim the text to compensate the lack of listening skills. In addition, the whole project can be a pre-reading activity for extensive reading for a month or semester.

4.3 Harry Potter (H) vs. Narnia (N)

Since the difficulty of H is higher than that of N, easier questions are provided in a multiple choice form for H, and more difficult questions with

open-ended answers are provided for N. There are more knowledge and comprehension questions, such as ‘What is the name of the little creature’ in clip 1. The answer is very easy. Nuttall stated “Outcomes involving little speaking or writing can be encouraging to less proficient students, as they allow students to demonstrate comprehension without making unrealistic demands on their active control of the language”. On the other hand, more analysis, synthesis and evaluation questions using ‘Why’ are applied.

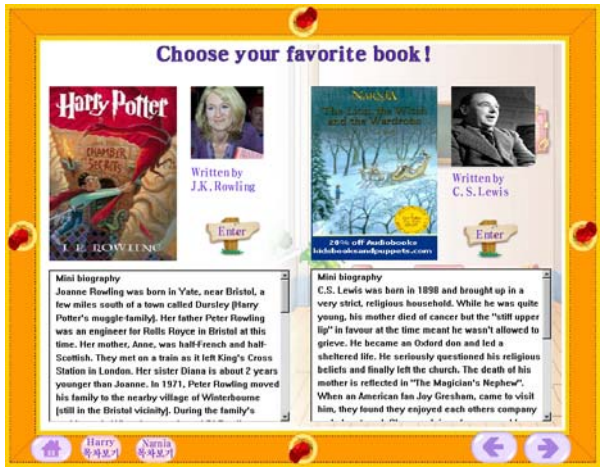
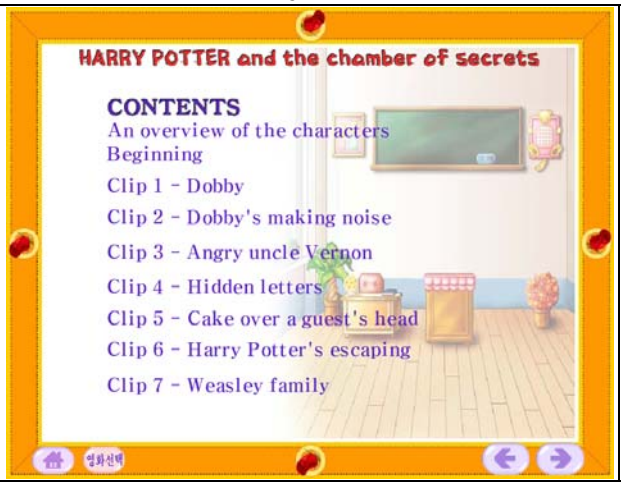
For Harry Potter, movie clips, scripts and a book are used because the phrases in the movie and book show noticeable differences between spoken language and written language. In contrast, in Narnia, most vocabulary in the book is used in the movie.

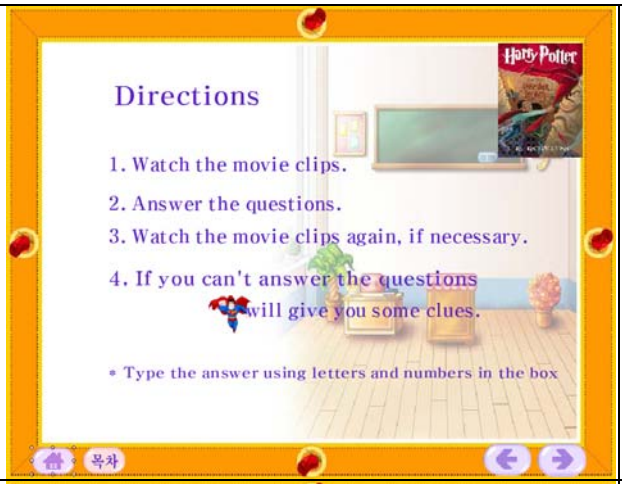
4.5. Procedure

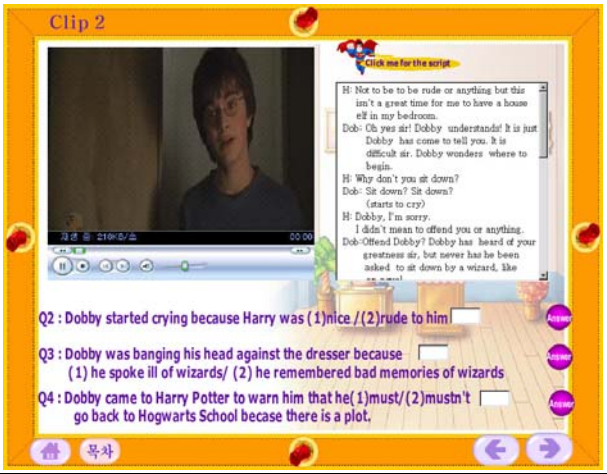
Harry Potter and Narnia follow almost the same procedure:

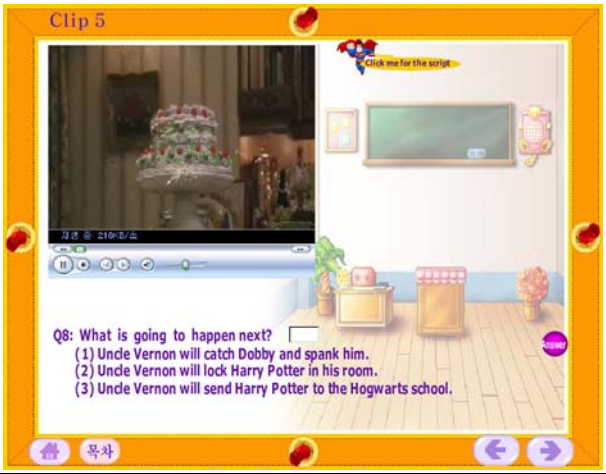
- A teacher asks students to come to the computer lab.
- The teacher asks some questions about the movie “Harry Potter” to activate students’ schema. There will be oral interaction between the teacher and students.
- The teacher and students open a CD-Rom together. (1st page)
- The teacher reads the directions with students (4th page)
- The teacher explains how students use contents and icons (5th page)
- The teacher and students have a whole discussion about the characters of the movie (6th page).
- The teacher reads the beginning of the movie and checks that students understand. If necessary, explain unclear stories for lower level students.
- Each student completes the questions individually. The teacher circulates in the class and provides help when asked.
- Review some questions with the whole class.
- Ask students to read the first forty pages of the book and compare the differences between the movie and the book.

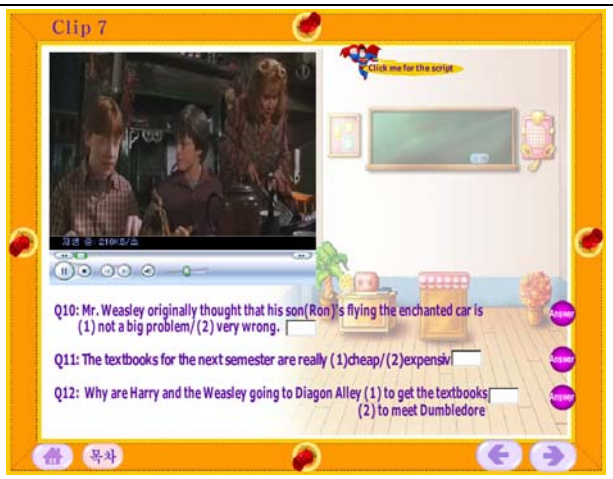
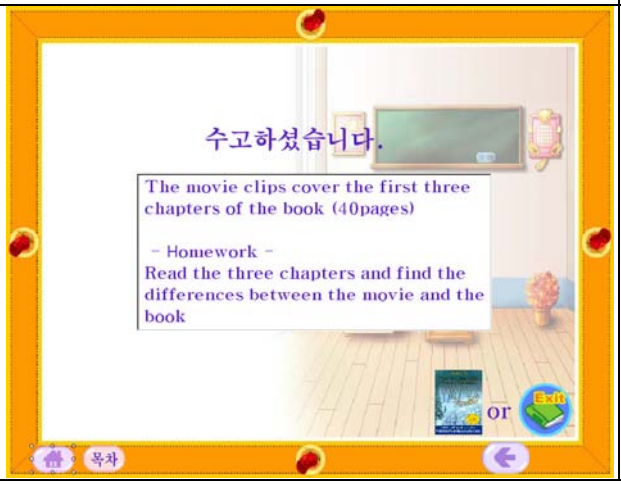
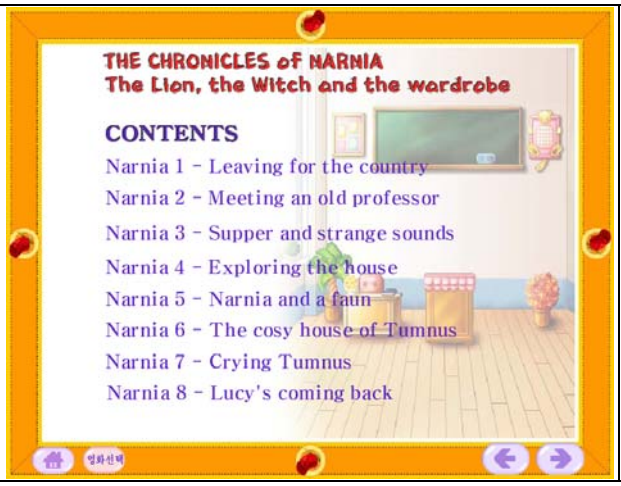
3.6 Detailed Procedure with actual material

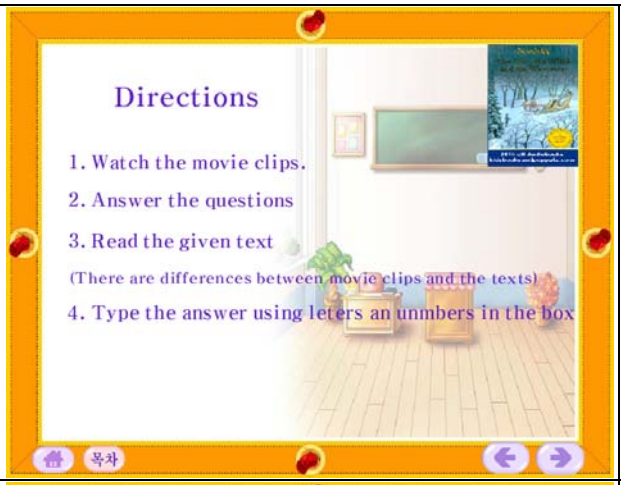
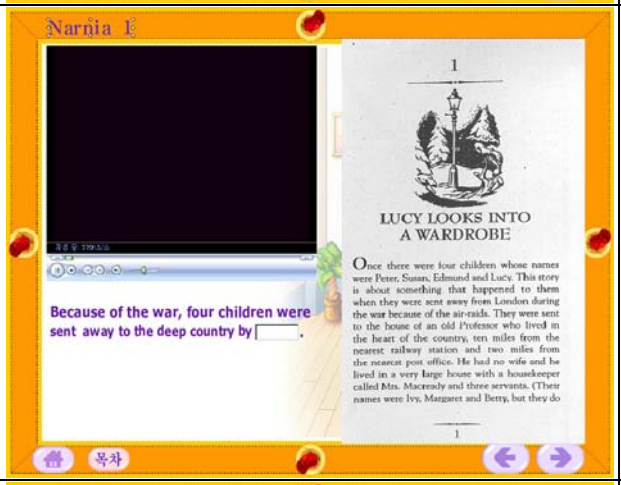
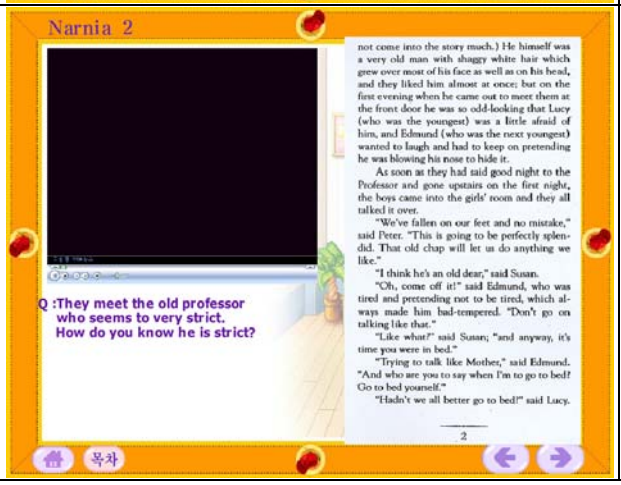
1		Create a CD-ROM title by using movie clips and novels.
2		Give students a choice & information about a book and a writer by providing a cover of the book and short biographies of the writer.
Option 1 - If students choose Harry Potter		
3		Introduce the Contents. Students do not have to follow the order and go directly to each scene by clicking the title.

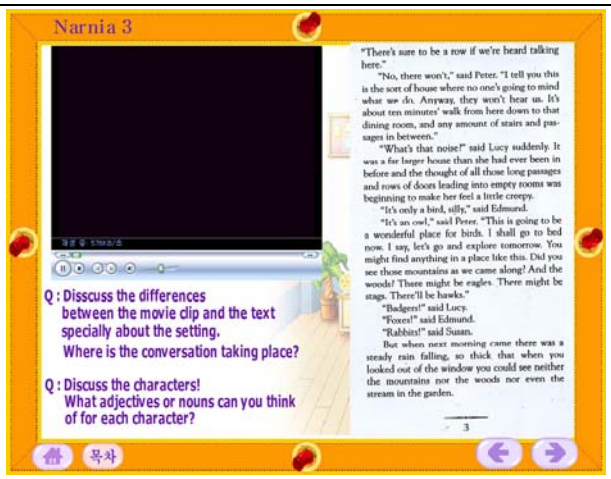
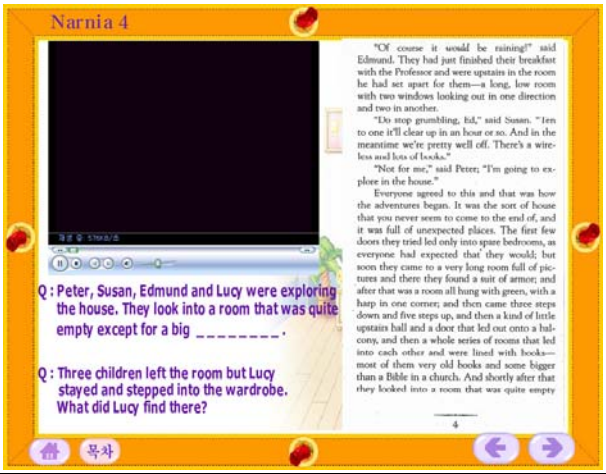
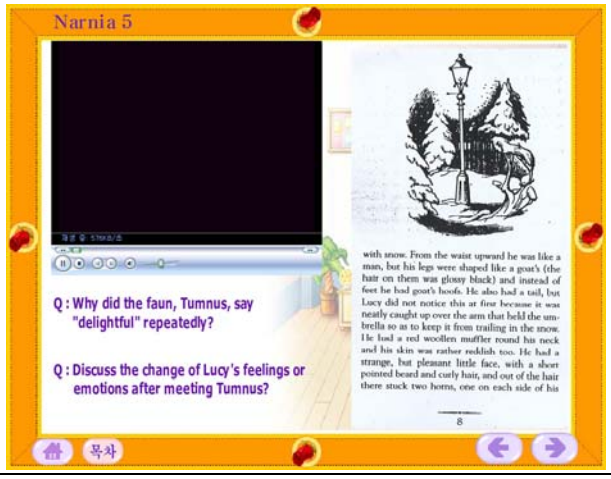
4		Give students clear directions because some students have a fear of using a computer.
5		Provide an overview of the characters to stimulate their scheme Let students guess the personality of a main character.
6		Provide a short summary of beginning part of the story

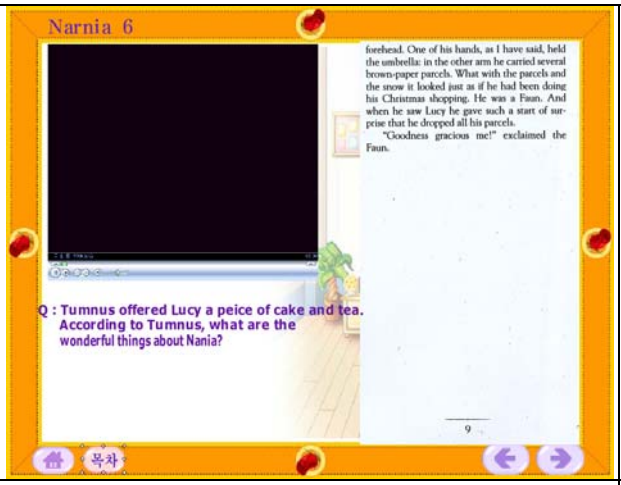
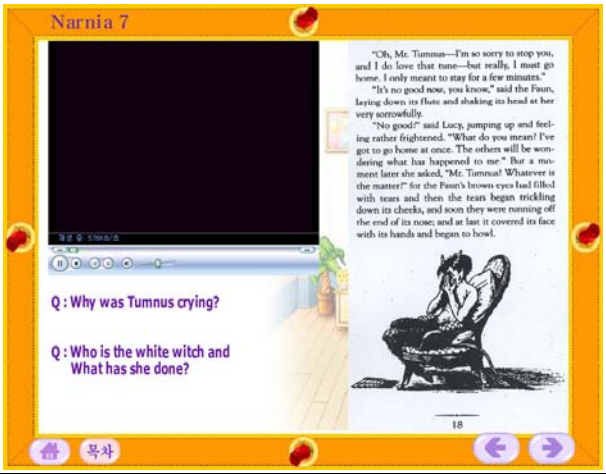
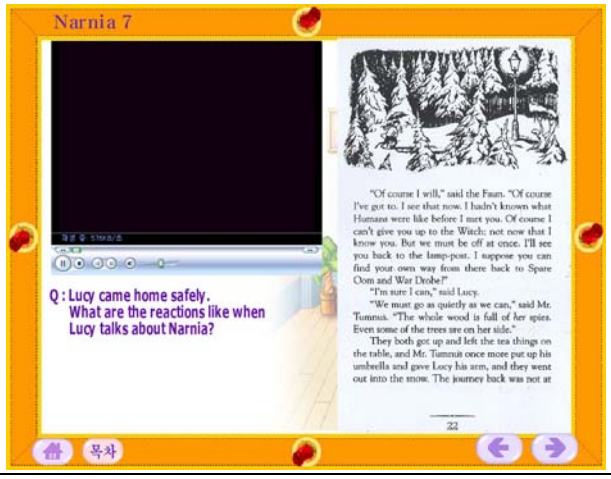
7		Students watch the movie and answer the question. Start with an easy question
8		If the answer is unclear after listening to the movie many times, students can check the script and scan the text for answers.
9		Encourage empathetic listening by guessing the emotions of the character.

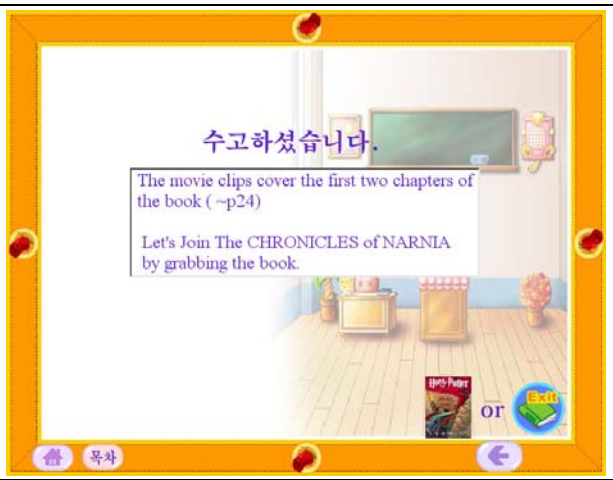
10		Encourage global listening by figuring out the topic.
11		After watching the movie, students can predict what is going to happen. Offer an interesting situation to motivate students to actively participate in looking for the answer.
12		Reordering sentences. Students predict the sequences and watch the movie or vice versa.

13		The answers for questions of clip7 require intensive and selective listening skills. Ask students to understand the tone of the conversation.
14		Find a relationship between the movie and the book. Encourage students to start pleasure reading.
Option 2 – If students choose The Chronicles of Narnia		
15		By looking through the contents student have an idea of what they are going to cover.

16		Give clear direction if it is not a whole class activity
17		Provide an easy question as a warm-up
18		Give a question to understand character traits.

19		To find the differences between movie clips and the book, students need to read carefully. Describe each character by using adjectives.
20		If students cannot answer the question, they can read the text.
21		Even though students cannot understand what the character says, they can answer the questions by looking at facial expressions.

22		Use integrative listening skills; bottom-up and top-down listening.
23		The answers are more than just a word so students need to listen intensively.
24		Give them controlled questions: The answer is clear but can be expressed in various ways by different people

5		After showing students many pictures, a teacher encourages extensive self-reading.

5. Limitation

5.1. Confusion

The use of authentic videos is challenging. Often they do not provide the best means of explaining complex concepts or practicing particular grammar or writing skills (Johnston, 1999). As the language use and the context of authentic videos are not controlled, teachers will need to take time to explain these if necessary. However, this project does not deal with what students are unaware of but what they already know and partial language focuses.

5.2. Time consuming

It takes time for the teacher to preview and select authentic videos and then to prepare activities for learners. Obviously such a project requires a massive investment of time. It took more than 100 hours to make 24pages of CD-Rom. First, select a movie, watch the movie over and over to find the best scene and time the each clip. Second, it is necessary to read the books to see how well the movie and the book match together. It took about three days. Third, editing the movie using a moviemaker is required because the computer crashed several times due to the huge volume of the movie. Fourth, making the procedure, designing and editing can take a lot of time. Even finding suitable clipart can take one hour.

5.3. Copyright

Copyright presents another challenge. Regulations governing the use of broadcast programs off-air are concerned with how long the recording can be

kept and how often it can be shown. Details can be obtained from *Circular 21: Reproductions of Copyrighted Works by Educators and Librarians* (Library of Congress, 1995).

5.4. Reliability of the equipment.

If the equipment is constantly breaking down, freezing or running erratically, it is difficult to maintain momentum. Especially, if the software or program requires Internet access, there is more possibility of unexpected cable problems. Therefore it is better to have someone to arrange preparation for class. It's also essential to have an alternative plan for those times when the technology malfunctions.

6. Conclusion

Using authentic movies and books can be a good way to maximize authentic exposure to student in EFL situations specifically. However, without any guidance, students can be overwhelmed by the amount of unknown words and the volume of the book. Dividing lengthy movies into suitable sized units using multimedia authoring tools allows students to try and experience extensive reading and listening. It also saves class time and clears the direction to go for teachers as well as students and results in effective class time management.

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The "Right" Imagined Community for the Right Investments:

Learning English as a communication tool

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Working from a critical applied linguistics framework, this paper explores the presence of English in all aspects of the lives of Koreans by investigating the actual investments of government's policies and people's practices in learning the English language. By examining how learners' investments correlate with their imagined community, I attempt to suggest ways to empower learners to have a sense of ownership and set attainable goals in English which, in turn, will help them access and participate in their imagined community.

"English is in the world and the world is in English" (Pennycook, 1995, p. 35).

1. Introduction

English has become genuinely a lingua franca, as the recent study suggests a greater number of people (estimated 600 to 990 million worldwide) are projected to be using or learning it as a second or foreign language (L2) than the native speakers of English (NS; about 377 million) (Crystal, 1997). Another figure appraises that within a decade, at least a half of the world's population, 3 billion in all, will be using English as a communication tool in various aspects of their lives (Park, H., 2005). With the rapid development of communication technology in the late 20th century, particularly with the worldwide spread of the internet where an estimated 80% of information saved on computers is in English, English has gained an even stronger stance

as one of, if not the most important languages in international politics, trade, economy, mass media, academia, computer communication, to name a few areas. In short, the importance and communicating effectively in English is emphasized ever more in the globalized world of the 21st century.

South Korea (hereinafter referred to as Korea) is no exception. However, there is a growing concern that English proficiency of Koreans still "lags far behind" despite much investment in learning English (allegedly spending more money than anywhere else in the world in early English education) ("Foreigners' evaluation," 2004) while others warn such "English fervor" positions Koreans to be prone to linguistic and cultural imperialism of English (See Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992).[1] Therefore, it is timely and necessary to investigate "how English is taken up, how people use English, why people choose to use English" (Pennycook, 2001, p. 62) in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context like Korea.

In this paper, I conduct a critical analysis on the presence of English in all aspects of the lives of Koreans by investigating the actual investments of government's policies and people's practices in learning the English language and how their imagined community (Norton, 2001; see also Pavlenko, 2003 and Dageneis, 2003) matches or mismatches with their investment.[2] As stated by Norton Peirce (1995), when learners invest in L2, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will eventually increase the value of their cultural capital, among others. In simple terms, learners expect or hope to have a good return on their investment. By exploring the relation between learners' investments and imagined community, I attempt to suggest the ways to empower learners to have a sense of ownership and attainable goals (i.e. realistic imagined community) in English which, in turn, will help them access and participate in their imagined community. It is also hoped to inform the policy makers and English educators of these factors to better serve the diverse needs of English as a Second Language (ESL) and/or English as

[1] This topic is too vast to be dealt within the scope of this paper, and will not be elaborated further.

[2] The notions that "different learners have different imagined communities" (Norton, 2001, p.165) and that investments influence and are influenced by participation in the language learning have been supported by many studies (e.g. Ibrahim, 1999; Kanno, 2003).

Foreign Language (EFL) learners. Moreover, I hope that EFL learners consider themselves as legitimate language users, not language deficient (Pavlenko, 2003).

2. English in Korea

2.1 Not a choice, but a necessity

For many Koreans, studying English is not a matter of choice, but a necessity imposed on them by a number of various social constraints. As stated by Pennycook (1995):

> The spread of English is today commonly justified by… a functionalist perspective, which stresses choice and the usefulness of English, and suggests that the global spread of English is natural… neutral… and beneficial... there is a failure to problematize the notion of choice and an assumption that individuals and countries are somehow free of economic, political, and ideological constraints (pp. 36-38).

Having a certain degree of proficiency in English signifies a better job and more affluent life, i.e. a shared notion of imagined community, for many Koreans, and their investment in English is notable in that it is extremely costly in terms of time, money and efforts, and pain-staking which often requires a great deal of sacrifice in their identity and social practices. However, there is a rise of concern on the widening gap between their investment and imagined community; in other words, in spite of much investment into learning English, many Koreans confront yet another dilemma of ever-growing, and somewhat unrealistic expectations of “higher,” native-like proficiency in English from all sectors of society. The reality in Korea is such that the knowledge of English does not necessarily result in benefits such as personal or financial gains as it used to.

2.2 English market

Triggered by what is termed as the "English craze," the English language market in Korea has grown astronomically over the last twenty years. According to an official statistic released by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MOE), over 3,000 private English institutions were in business as of 2002, but parties of interest guesstimate that as many as 10,000 private English institutions are operating nationwide and their incomes add up to 2 billion dollars.[3] Although no official figure is available, at least 4.1~5.2 billion dollars are estimated to be circulating in the English market, including the constantly expanding English-related book business of 309 million dollars, English textbooks and supplementary materials market of 721 million dollars, and another 310 million dollar market of English teaching tools including toys and videotapes for preschoolers. Another big chunk, estimated to be about 1.55 billion dollars, comes from the expenses incurred by students studying abroad, both short and long term, in English speaking countries (Hong, 2003). Moreover, a study conducted among 2,348 fourth year college students informs that each student has spent an average of 12,989 dollars over the four years for "private" study, 12,299 dollars of which were spent on preparation for the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and/or the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) (Park, Y., 2002).

2.3 English in school

Over the last decade, English proficiency has been actively promoted by the governments as well as by individuals in many non-English speaking countries, and over-enthusiastic fervor to learn the language struck many Asian nations (Lee, K., 2002). What is termed as "paranoid language policy" by Phillipson (1992), Kanno (2003) points out that government's visions "of imagined communities, implicit or explicit, exert a powerful influence on their current policies and practice and ultimately affect the student's identities." Such is the case for Korea.

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[3] All dollar figures referred in this paper are US dollars calculated as 970.80 won = US$1.00 according to an exchange rate released by Korea Exchange Bank as of January 31, 2006.

With the recognition of the importance of communicative competence in English, and the imagined community of brining up "communicatively competent English speakers as global citizens," the MOE initiated a new English program in elementary schools in 1997. The program requires every school in the nation to have English class for one hour a week for third and fourth graders, and two hours a week for fifth and sixth grades, among others. Many previous trials suggest that the implementation of the program has been successful in establishing spoken English programs in schools, and in bringing about educational changes in the practice of teaching English in Korea (Jung & Norton, 2002). Recently the ministry announced the plan to introduce such programs for first grade students starting as early as 2008. This quite an ambitious plan, however, and it is not without some obstacles. For instance, the Ministry's report alarms that among 67,464 English teachers in elementary to high schools, only 7.5% (5,074) are said to be able to conduct lessons in English (Lee, I., 2002). Hiring NS teachers is one of the various efforts exerted by the Ministry.[4] However, it does not only "solve" the problem, but also generates other sensitive issues such as tensions between NS teachers and NNS teachers (e.g. inequality in work conditions and pay). In summary, forced investment of local teachers may not guarantee them or students an entrance into the imagined community devised by the Ministry. Even with good intentions, the Ministry cannot escape from criticism that the decision was not carried out in a more discreet matter; that is, instead of preparing and adjusting for changes, it somewhat rushed in its implementation of the plans: top-down, unrealistic imagined community for students as well as teachers who have to teach them.

2.4 English towns

As Pennycook (1994, 1995) notes, learning the English language could be the

[4] In order to solve the shortage of English speaking teachers, the 7th Amendment of the National Education Curriculum (initiated by the MOE) plans to select 300 English teachers for an intensive English program overseas for four weeks focusing on communicative skills in English. It is also announced that as of the year 2007, 4,150 NS teachers will be positioned in elementary, junior and senior high schools, which averages out to be about one NS for every two schools in the nation (Yang, 2002).

key to a better life for the underprivileged, and English language learning is perceived to be directly linked to success in one's life. A number of initiatives have taken a place in the hope of promoting more authentic, English-only contexts in Korea where home-staying Koreans can enjoy a "firsthand" experience of English.

Starting with the first English town in 2004, a number of English towns have been established in Seoul metropolitan area and more are planned for other areas of Korea as well. Facilities like English language institutes, restaurants, hotels, banks, movie theaters, as well as public facilities such as post offices and public libraries are "simulated" within the town. Anyone who is within the boundary, including visitors, is required to speak English only. What is more, when entering the town, a person is given an English name. One of the devisers of such a plan argues that by setting up such a town, they seek to help students communicate in English in any "imaginable" authentic situations, even in an EFL context, and thus, sharpen the competitive edge of Koreans in the globalized world (Jung, J. S., 2005).

2.5 "Distorted" Investments

Zealous enthusiasm in learning English among some Koreans has caught the attention of outsiders. Perhaps the most extreme case is reflected in the tongue surgery known as frenectomy.[5] Although critics say it is unnecessary, some parents force their children to have such surgery so that their children can touch the roof of the mouth with their tongue to pronounce "/r/," one of the most difficult phonemes for Koreans, more easily (Demeck, 2002). Also, in order to have an early start, some parents-to-be take advantage of prenatal English services. Moreover, some parents who want to send their kids to English speaking preschools, where the overall curriculum is copied from typical North American preschools. The average monthly tuition fee is around $1,000~2,000, and students may have to be placed on a waiting list for up to several months (Jung, J. Y., 2005).

3. Leaving Korea to Study English

[5] Cutting the thin band of tissue under the tongue called frenulum.

3.1 "English divide"

Some Koreans make the decision to head to English speaking countries to acquire English, citing reasons such as it is actually less expensive and more efficient to study English abroad considering the soaring costs of learning English in Korea. The Bank of Korea estimates the total expense incurred by students studying abroad, including short term language training, to be as much as 7.6 billion dollars in 2004, and 9.7 billion dollars in 2005. Educational expenses alone, excluding living costs, are estimated to have been about 1.85 billion dollars in 2003, increasing 34.6% to 2.49 billion dollars in 2004. The amount surged to 2.25 billion dollars for January to August in 2005, a 41.2% increase on the same period the previous year. Canada is one of the most popular destinations. Between 1995-2002, Korea was the principal source country of foreign students in Canada (with the exception of 1998), and the number of Korean students studying in Canada tops the list outnumbering a distant second placed China more than two fold in 2004 and 2005 (Jung, J. Y., 2005).

Table 1

Foreign Student Flows by Country of Origin

Country of Last Permanent Residence	**2004**							**2005**			
	Total	**Q1**	**Q2**	**YTD**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**YTD Rank**	**Q1**	**Q2**	**YTD**	**YTD Rank**
South Korea	12,292	3,771	2,184	5,955	4,372	1,965	1	3,465	2,050	5,515	1
China	4,960	1,088	1,694	2,782	1,722	456	2	1,043	1,556	2,599	2

Source: Citizenship and Immigration Canada. www.cic.gc.ca/english/monitor/issue11/04-students.html

According to the MOE, the number of elementary to secondary students, who stayed in English speaking countries longer than 30 days during the summer of 2005 for the purpose of acquiring English, is said to be 7,481. Students from Seoul account for 35.5% (2,640), and among them, students from *Kangnam* and *Seocho-gu*, known to be affluent neighborhoods

in Seoul, make up 30.2% (796). They are also 10.6% of the total students and more than twice of the number of students (372) from *Jollabuk-do* and *Jullanam-do* provinces together (Jung, J. Y., 2005). Needless to mention, such phenomenon, dubbed "English divide," creates a series of social, economical and political tensions among people from all walks of life in Korea, which is, some might argue, an inevitable proof of English imperialism, and a result of excessive investment.

3.2 Emigration

Another recent phenomenon in Korea is a surging number of emigrants to English speaking countries, particularly to Canada and Australia. September 5 (2003) issue of *Chosun Ilbo* titled, "Why's everybody going?" laments that many South Korean middle-class professionals want to emigrate to other English-speaking countries citing a number of reasons, but the most critical one has to do with *English* – both their own and their children's English. The article notes that:

> it has become part of the curriculum to play English songs for children still unable to mumble in Korean. Then they will attend English academies on the side while in kindergarten, then outpace each other leaving for study overseas while in elementary school. This all leads to misplaced ideas about bestowing on one's children the citizenship ahead of time. It's almost strange that we're still surprised to see the exodus of adults.

Although it seems bizarre, it is certainly not so uncommon to hear similar such news stories before we have finished chuckling about the previous one, and know at least a dozen households whose family members are separated across the Pacific, named "satellite families": i.e. dad staying home earning money while mom and children are abroad in the hope of providing their children with opportunities to acquire "live" English in English speaking countries, and have a "shot at a better and more affluent life."

Here we need to ask questions. Why then, do their lives have to revolve around English? What imagined communities they have in mind, if any? Are their investments worthwhile? Where does their identity as an EFL learner stand? Do they have a sense of ownership of the language? Do they feel marginalized and deficient?

4. Imagined communities and investments: Filling the gaps

4.1 English as an end itself, not a means to reach another goal

A study shows that eight out of ten university students think of studying for TOEIC not as a way to improve their English proficiency, but as a means of getting a job. A survey of 240 university students revealed that 80% of those surveyed studied TOEIC for job recruitment exams, while only 12.5% answered that they study it to improve their English proficiency (Jung, Y. K., 2003). In some way, it seems reasonable for them to spend time investing in English, since it is reported that seven out of ten employees suffer from what is dubbed as "English language stress." According to a survey conducted by Job Korea (www.jobkorea.co.kr) of 2,200 workers, 70% of employees felt stressed out due to a required English language proficiency set by the employers citing reasons like: fear of lagging behind the competition (41.1%); having difficulty in doing assigned work (31.4%); and a fear of losing a chance for promotion (17.7%) (Chae, 2004).

However, we should recognize the fact that the imagined community of proficient English speakers does not equate with a high TOEIC score or vice versa. This realization could help learners have more concrete and realistic investment in learning English.

Also, realizing that language learning does not take place overnight, learners should not adhere to a false claim (i.e. market scheme) that promises: *We can cure your English problems! Just invest two months of your life. We can make you speak English* (Advertisement on *Chosun Ilbo*, March 3, 2004).

Although, it might be true that by taking a few classes at such institutions, learners might learn a few tricks to score high on certain standardized tests, but the proficiency in language does not come that instantly for most people. As the following remark illustrates, many Korean students might do well on standardized tests such as TOEFL and TOEIC, but their communicative competence often falls short.

> American professors are amazed by Korean students for three reasons: first, they are surprised to see such high TOEFL and GRE scores recorded on students' application forms; second, they are shocked to witness students' poor English when encountering them for the first time; and finally, professors are most amazed by the fact that students still cannot speak English well even after obtaining a degree from an institution (Kim, 2002).[6]

In a similar line of argument, a foreign professor currently teaching at a university in Korea observes Korean students' investment in learning English the following way:

> I never witnessed any group of people who is dedicated in learning English so much. Also, I am afraid to see that there is a serious gap between their investment of money, time and effort to the actual result [i.e. imagined community]. It is similar to dieting in the States. It seems Koreans lack true passion in learning English. They only want an easy way. Rather, they need to have a positive attitude and a strong motivation. Learning English is not a means to get to another goal like a high score on college entrance exam, more job opportunities, among others. Whereas a German person studies English to speak with a foreigner, a Korean speaks to American to practice his/her

[6] Translated from Korean to English by the author of this paper.

English (Kang, K., 2005).[7]

In summary, learners' investment in English education is really an investment in a wider range of identities and possibilities. In other words, what is considered "success" for many of them might not necessarily mean the same for others. Also, it should be emphasized that high scores on TOEFL/TOEIC tests do not automatically guarantee or generate communicatively competent English speakers (users).

4.2 A realistic goal and an attainable imagined community

For many ESL/EFL students, their future goals in academic success may relate to a large extent to their perceived future marketability upon scoring certain points on TOEIC/TOEFL tests or passing oral tests administered by the company of interest. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that potential financial gains may play a large role in Korean learners' investment in language learning. However, such investment cannot simply be reduced to issues of employment and finances. We must consider other reasons for investment in English that involve social, cultural and/or other more personal reasons.

Despite the MOE's well intended effort, many consider it "inadequate" to acquire English proficiency through public education alone, considering the fact that only one or two hours are dedicated to English study in elementary schools where limited target-like input and output opportunities are available. As mentioned earlier, it has also created some tensions between the haves and have-nots, i.e. those who can afford private lessons and study abroad programs and those who cannot. Thus, some people in Korea, notably Mr. Bok, a writer, even proposed an idea of making English an official language of Korea (Park, Y., 2002) arguing that English is no longer owned by NS speakers only, i.e. it is an international language, and can be our resource if we take advantage of it. They claim that by providing naturalistic and equal opportunities to people in Korea by declaring English as an official language, inequality in educational opportunities will disappear. Absurd as it

[7] Translated from Korean to English by the author of the paper.

may sound, one can feel the desperation Koreans feel in this issue of investment and imagined community of English for Koreans in a globalized world.

However, it is arguable that imagined community that many Koreans have is unrealistic and to a certain degree, unnecessary. It seems that everyone is obsessed with acquiring good English, like a NS -whatever the definition of NS might be. In order to "sound" like NS, enormous amount of money, time and effort are often invested in learning English, which place mental, financial, and psychological burden on young children to middle-aged businessmen as illustrated earlier. Not every one needs to be as fluent as NS, and certainly not every one needs to score highly on TOEIC, TOEFL or on any other tests. Also, Halliday once stated that if English is international, it must be intelligible to speakers around the world; it does not matter whether they are NS or NNS. In other words, we must first analyze our needs, and set realistic and attainable goals (i.e. imagined community), and strive to achieve them by investing what we can. After all, with the exception of some who are preparing for high-stake standardized tests like TOEFL, "intelligible" English as a communicative tool may be sufficient and a feasible end for most of us. However, it should be stressed that reimagination is only worthwhile if it is followed by continuous reflection, action and change (Pavlenko, 2003).

5. Ownership of English as a world language

In order to be empowered, maintain healthy identity as language learner, and have ownership of English (See Norton, 1997), the learners need to have more realistic and matter-of-fact reimagination of community that they place themselves in and invest accordingly. Only through that can they balance their investment and imagined community.

English is a communication tool for the world citizens in the 21st century. Foran (2003) argues, "it (English) is already the spokesperson for no single political power or region." When locals "view the language mostly as a tool, one they can manipulate, and perhaps even make their own," i.e. they can turn the *explosion* of English to their advantage. English is no longer

foreign to many people, educated (literate) or not. The realization that English no longer belongs to any one culture or is represented by a certain group of people can provide the basis for promoting cross-cultural understanding in the increasingly global village that we live in. NS and NNS alike should employ English as an empowering tool for communications. As voiced by McKay (2002), teaching and learning English as a world language must be guided by a new set of assumptions and goals because of its international status. *Diversity* has been one of the political buzzwords in many parts of the world, and as nicely coined by Toolan (1997), "world English is out, and world's English is in." It should be used in helping and introducing world citizens into a more diverse, globalized world of the 21st century. As for NNS like Koreans in an EFL context, investment in learning English should match with their imagined community in order to generate the best possible outcome from their investment.

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Types and Quantities of Input and Interaction through Face to Face Conversation and Oral Proficiency Improvement of International Graduate Students

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In relation to input and interaction of ESL learners, many studies have investigated whether measures of interaction might be a predictable variable of their performance on proficiency tests. While some researchers have found that ESL adult learners with a greater amount of informal contact are more proficient than those with less (Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986), others have found the opposite (Day, 1985; Krashen & Seliger, 1976). The present research explores what types and quantities of input and interaction international graduate students are able to set up and how these interactions affect their oral proficiency improvement. It was hypothesized that students who have more input and interaction through face to face conversation will show more oral proficiency improvement than those who don't have.

The data for the study has been collected by interviewing eight international graduate students enrolled in a language skills course. The interview questions were based on a questionnaire that includes the types and the quantities of interaction the participants engaged in. The results from the self-estimate show that there were correlations between the average time, the proportion of speaking English compared to L1, talking at work and oral proficiency gains; however, there were no significant associations between oral proficiency gains and talking with

friends and talking at home. Implications for a need of further research to investigate more reliable measurements of social interaction and oral proficiency will be discussed.

1. Introduction

Language acquisition requires that learners have access to the target language so they may have opportunities to use the target language for real purposes in their daily lives. In the literature on second-language (L2) acquisition, a number of studies have emphasized the role of learning context and learning opportunities for learners' language input and social interaction. Hymes (1972) emphasized that knowing what goes on outside the school setting is necessary to understanding what goes on inside. In relation to input and interaction through face to face conversation in non-instructional settings of second language speakers, many studies have investigated whether measures of interaction might be a predictable variable of ESL learners' performance on certain types of proficiency tests. While some researchers have found that ESL adult learners with a greater amount of informal contact are more proficient than those with less (Kim, 2000; Perdue, 1993; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986), others have found that ESL adults learners with greater opportunities to use the L2 outside the classroom setting do not appear to benefit any more than those with little or no informal contact with the L2 (Day, 1985; Krashen & Seliger, 1976). Possible explanations can be made for these conflicting results of relationships between learner's interaction and oral proficiency improvement in terms of the ways that researchers have constructed and operationalized learner's interaction and oral proficiency.

Many researchers have constructed social interaction in different ways. Different ways of constructing social interaction may affect the research findings for investigating the effects of social interaction on certain oral proficiency measurements. In his functional analysis of speaking, Bygate (1987) emphasized the qualities of oral interaction explaining that learners are required to negotiate meaning, and generally manage the interaction in terms of who is to say what, to whom, when, and about what. Kasper and Rose (2002) interpreted social interaction from the view point of pragmatics.

According to them, in a narrow sense, social interaction refers to encounters in which at least two participants are co-present and engaged in a joint activity differentiating from the social interaction in a wide sense that can be extended to encompass all sorts of written and mixed forms of communication.

In order to investigate whether differences in the types and the amount of input and interaction of language contact can contribute to variation in the proficiency of L2 learners, it is necessary to design studies that can investigate the effects of how much time spent speaking a target language and what types of interactions made in real and sustained language use. In an effort to assess the extent to which learners in any learning context spend time speaking the L2 outside their classroom experiences, a document entitled “The Language Contact Profile (LCP)” has been used by many researchers (Bialystok, 1978; Day, 1985; Deweay, Freed, Segalowitz, & Halter, 2004; Freed, 1995; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986). The LCP, designed for both before- and after-study experiences, asks students to self-report prior formal exposure to the L2 and time spent using the L2 outside the classroom (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), time spent using the L2 (how much, what type, and with whom), and the proportion of time they spent using the L2 and their L1. However, even though some results (Bialystok, 1978; Segalowitz, & Freed, 2004; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1985) revealed both quantitative and qualitative differences in learners’ out-of-class contact with the second language on certain types of proficiency tests, some problems in these studies may exist.

First, most of studies mentioned above used a self-report by the learners to measure their types and amounts of social interaction by administering LCP questionnaire once or twice. However, asking learners to estimate how much time on average they spent speaking L2 relies on the learner’s memory and recall, which can be flawed. Second, the process of coding issues emerges. Some studies (Day, 1985; Seliger, 1977; Segalowitz, & Freed, 2004; Spada, 1986) interpreted the types and the amount of time learners spent speaking L2 by giving points. For example, in Spada’s (1986)

study, if a subject reported spending 2-4 hours a day engaging in conversation in English, this response was given two points. However, if a subject reported watching television for 2-4 hours a day, this response was given one point. Quantifying the input and interaction by giving points to the number of hours in this way, probably results in losing the feature of the raw data in terms of the real type and amount of time each participant differentiated. Another problem of these studies is that even though they investigated the relationship between language use and oral proficiency, LCP included time spent not only speaking but also listening, reading, and writing. They then measured the learner's oral proficiency using a test which might not be fit to measure the effects of all kinds of input and interactions. Furthermore, even though Seliger (1977) separated the other types of practice such as watching TV and listening to radio from the real language use focused on face to face conversation, the measurement was different from measuring oral proficiency such as a test of English structure (Lado-Fries), the Queens College English Language Institute Test of Aural Comprehension and a close test. As a result, the research findings in relation to the effect of learner's language use through social interaction on proficiency achievements remain unclear and questionable. It would seem, therefore, that further investigations are needed in order to examine how to measure the types and the quantities of interaction, oral proficiency and the relationship between these variables.

The present research explores what kinds of learning contexts and learning opportunities international graduate students are able to set up in relation to input and interaction through face to face conversation in non-instructional settings and how those environments affect their oral proficiency improvement. The assumption is that linguistic input and interaction in the classroom are not adequate for them to develop their oral proficiency since many graduate students take a small number of class hours and most of the classes are lecture-based instead of group discussion. As a result, if they do not have enough interaction outside the classroom, it is assumed that they do not have enough authentic input and speaking opportunities through face to face interaction in their ordinary lives. That might result in their not developing oral proficiency much in their second language or in slowing down their second language development. The

purpose of this study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between input and interaction through face to face conversation and learners' oral proficiency improvement. It is hypothesized that students who have more input and interaction through face to face conversation will have more oral proficiency improvement than those who have not.

The specific research questions addressed in this paper are:

1. What amount of time each day do international graduate students spend speaking the target language in non-instructional settings?
2. How does social interaction outside of the classroom affect their oral proficiency improvements as measured by the SPEAK test?
3. How reliable are self-estimate and self-measurement of L2 language use reported or recorded by learners?

This paper is organized as follows: first, a description of the participants and the programs in which they were enrolled is provided; second, the measure used to collect information on learners' language use outside of classroom is described; third, the instrument used to gather data on the subjects' proficiency is described; and finally, the present paper reports on the results of a study intended to investigate how differences in amount and type of contact contributed to variation in international graduate students' improvement in L2 oral proficiency.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The participants were 8 international graduate students who enrolled at a U.S. university in a language skills course that focuses on pronunciation, fluency, grammar and comprehensibility. A Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit (SPEAK) score of 50 is required for them to get an international teaching assistantship. In the class there is a particular emphasis on test taking strategies and extensive pronunciation practice outside of class in order to

prepare them for the SPEAK test. All of the participants got 45 at the first SPEAK test before the semester began. Scores between 42.50 and 47.49 are rated as 45 in the final score report. The median score for the first SPEAK test of 8 participants was 45.41 with a highest score of 47.08 and lowest score of 42.5. They took the second SPEAK test about 100 days after the first test during the semester. The class lasted for 10 weeks and there were 11 students. Each of students was able to practice three exercises per class from the textbook that includes the same tasks at the SPEAK test, including giving directions, picture description, graph explanation, and announcement sections. The participants ranged in age from 21 and 27 years old. The participants included 5 Indians, 1 Japanese, 1 Malaysian, and 1 Turk. Eight students were in a masters program and one student was in a Ph.D. program. Three of them majored in mechanical engineering, two of them in chemical engineering, two in geology and one in mathematics.

2.2 Instruments

The interview was used to investigate linguistic behaviors in noninstructional settings for each participant. The interview was held before the second SPEAK test. Each interview took about an hour. It was tape recorded and notes were taken. The interview questions were based on a questionnaire that included the amount and frequency that the participants spoke in the target language, the types of activities they did, who they spoke with, and how they prepared for the test. The questions were grouped into categories, including talking with friends, talking at school, talking at home, talking on the phone, talking in social groups, talking while shopping, eating out, and doing hobbies, the average time spent speaking in English a day, and self-evaluation of English use and interaction and oral proficiency test preparation. Since all of the participants were graduate students, talking at school was divided in detail into sub-categories such as classroom, study groups, visiting professors, peer talk, break time, lunch time, and talking at work. The interview questions are included in the Appendix A.

All participants were asked for a week to record the amount of time they spoke English in a day, including with whom, where, how long and about what kinds of topics they spoke English. This log is included in

Appendix B.

In order to compare the differences in the results of their SPEAK tests, students' scores before the semester began and during the semester of the interview were collected.

2.3 Proficiency measures

The Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit (SPEAK) test is an institutional oral proficiency version of the TSE, the Test of Spoken English by the Educational Testing Service, ETS. The SPEAK test consists of three warm-up questions and twelve rated questions. Raters of the SPEAK focus on four areas of communicative competence: language function, appropriateness, coherence/cohesion, and accuracy. According to the SPEAK guidelines of ETS (1996), language functions include making recommendations, giving directions, giving and defending opinions, describing, persuading, comparing, defining, announcing, etc. Appropriateness refers to responding with language appropriate for the intended audience or situation. Coherence/cohesion reflects the ways language is organized (coherence) and how ideas relate to each other (cohesion). Accuracy includes pronunciation, grammar, fluency, and vocabulary. The SPEAK scores range from 20 to 60 in 5 point increments. A minimum SPEAK score of 50 is required for the participants to get an international teaching assistantship at this university. Based on the rating scale by ETS (1996), a SPEAK score of 50 means that communication is generally effective, the task is performed competently, and that the functions are generally performed clearly and effectively. It also means that in general an appropriate response is given to an audience/situation, that it is coherent, with some effective use of cohesive devices, and that the use of linguistic features are generally effective; the communication is generally not affected by errors.

3. Type of analysis

First, the oral proficiency gains from the differences between the first SPEAK test scores and the second test scores were reported. Next, the results of the self-estimate of L2 use reported at the interview were summarized in terms of the amount of time in relation to the levels of the input and interaction variables which showed the salient differences and varied among the participants. The other factors for which the answers among the participants did not vary or most of the participants answered they spoke very little English, were not statistically analyzed. The factors ruled out for further statistic analysis were classroom talk, study groups, visiting professors, peer talk, break time, lunch time, talking on the phone, talking in social groups, talking while shopping, and eating out. However, these variables were highlighted and compared later in relation to the students who made the highest gains and the lowest gains. The factors selected for statistical analysis were 1) talking with friends 2) talking at work 3) talking at home 4) the average time spent speaking English a day, and 5) the proportion of speaking English compared to L1. These five factors from the self-estimate of L2 use were compared to the results of their oral proficiency gains. Spearman Rank Order Correlation was conducted to examine whether there was a significant relationship between the oral proficiency gains and each of the five factors.

Third, the results of the self-measurement average of L2 use were recorded in a log for a week, and were summarized in relation to factors 1), 2), 3) and 4) above. The participants were not asked to record the proportion of English spoken compared to L1 because the time spent recording would be disproportionate to the need for these results. Spearman Rank Order Correlation was conducted to investigate whether there was a significant relationship between the oral proficiency gains and the self-measurement of L2 use that the participants recorded for a week.

Finally, another Spearman Rank Order Correlation was used to examine the associations between self-estimates and self-measurements of L2 use to investigate if the results were consistent and reliable.

4. Results

4.1 Proficiency Measures

The scores of the first and the second SPEAK tests, the results of the tests; either pass or fail, and the score gains of the participants are presented in Table 1 in a rank order from the student who made the highest gain to the student who made the lowest gain (All tables presented in this study follow this ranking order). Three students passed the second SPEAK test and five students failed. However, all eight participants made some gains. G who made the highest gain and N who made the second highest gain have passed the test. M and T did not improve very much at the second SPEAK test. M made the second lowest gain and T made the least gain.

Table 1.

Proficiency scores

	First test result (Exact Score)	Second test result (Exact Score)	Pass or Fail	Score Gain between 1st and 2nd tests
G	45 (47.08)	55 (52.91)	Pass	5.83
N	45 (45.83)	50 (50.41)	Pass	4.58
A	45 (46.24)	50 (49.16)	Pass	2.92
JT	45 (43.74)	45 (47.08)	Fail	3.34
E	45 (43.33)	45 (46.66)	Fail	3.33
J	45 (42.5)	45 (44.58)	Fail	2.08
M	45 (45.41)	45 (47.08)	Fail	1.67
T	45 (44.16)	45 (44.99)	Fail	0.83

4.2 Self-estimate of L2 use reported at the interview

The amount of the time of the selected five variables among the input and interaction variables in order to compare them to the oral proficiency gains using the statistical analysis is presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

Self-estimate time of L2 use per day

	Talking With friends 1 hour=1	Talking At work 1 hour=1	Talking At home 1 hour=1	Time spent Speaking in E 1 hour=1	Proportion Speaking in E compared to L1 100%=1
G	3.5	2	0	3	0.8
N	0	1	2	2	0.8
A	1.5	1	1	2	0.75
JT	0	1.5	1	2	0.7
E	1	0	1	2	0.7
J	0.5	0.33	0	1	0.5
M	1	0.5	2	1.5	0.7
T	1	0.33	0	1	0.5

4.3 Correlations between oral proficiency gains and the self-estimate of L2 use

Spearman Rank Order Correlation was carried out on the five factors from the self-estimate of L2 use with proficiency gains. The results of these correlational analyses are presented in Table 3.

Table 3.

Correlations between oral proficiency gains and the self-estimate of L2 use

	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (1-tailed)
Talking with friends	-.037	.466
Talking at work	.663	.037*
Talking at home	.113	.395
The average time spent speaking English a day	.894	.001*
The proportion speaking English compared to L1	.803	.008*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

The results indicate that there was a significant moderately strong positive correlation between talking at work and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.663, p<.05; there were significant strong positive associations between the average time spent speaking in English a day and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.894, p<.05 and between the proportion speaking in English compared to L1 and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.803, p<.05. However, there were not significant correlations between talking with friends and oral proficiency gains, ρ=-.037, p>.05 and between talking at home and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.113, p>.05.

4.4 Self-measurement of L2 use for a week

The participants recorded the amount of time they spoke English each day for a week. The average time per day they spoke in English is presented in Table 4 in relation to talking with friends, talking at work, talking at home, and the average of the total time spent speaking English a day.

Table 4.
Self-measurement of the average L2 use per day

	Talking with friends 1 hour=1	Talking at work 1 hour=1	Talking at home 1 hour=1	Total hours speaking in English a day 1 hour=1
G	2.33	2.0	0	4.5
N	1.33	1.66	0.45	3.6
A	0.5	1	0.66	2.25
JT	0.66	1.4	0.2	2.5
E	0.75	0.25	0.5	1.75
J	0.5	0.47	0	1.07
M	0.2	0.66	0.33	1.35

T	0.4	0.25	0	0.9	

4.5 Correlations between the self-measurement of L2 use and oral proficiency gains

Spearman Rank Order Correlation was conducted to investigate if there was a relationship between the self-measurement of L2 use and oral proficiency gains. The results of these correlational analyses are shown in Table 5.

Table 5.

Correlations between oral proficiency gains and the self-measurement of L2 use

	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (1-tailed)
Talking with friends	.946	.000*
Talking at work	.790	.010*
Talking at home	.122	.387
The average time spent speaking in English a day	.952	.000*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

The results indicate that there was a significant strong positive correlation between talking with friends and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.946, p<.05; there was a significant moderately strong positive association between talking at work and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.790, p<.05; there was a significant strong positive correlation between the average time spent speaking English each day and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.952, p<.05. However, there was not a significant correlation between talking at home and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.122, p>.05.

4.6 Comparing the self-estimate to the self-measurement

Table 6 presents the median, the range, the maximum and the minimum of the self-estimate and the self-measurement per day. According to the self-estimate of the participants, the median of the amount of time they spent

speaking English in a day was 2 hours, the maximum was 3 hours, and the minimum was 1 hour, so the range was 2. Self-measurement of the average L2 use per day was that the median was the same as 2 hours, but the maximum was 4 and a half hours and the minimum was 54 minutes, so the range was larger, 3 hours and 36 minutes.

Table 6.

Median, range, maximum and minimum from the self-estimate and the self-measurement per day

Self-estimate	Self-measurement
Median: 2 hours	Median: 2 hours
Range: 2 hours	Range: 3 hours and 36 minutes
Maximum: 3 hours	Maximum: 4 hours and 30 minutes
Minimum: 1 hour	Minimum: 54 minutes

In order to examine the consistency and the reliability of the reports of self-estimate and self-measurement, the results were compared in Table 7.

Table 7.

Comparing the amount of time from the self-estimate to the self-measurement per day

	Estimate friends	Measurement friends	Estimate work	Measure work	Estimate home	Measure home	Estimate average	Measure average
G	3.5	2.33	2	2	0	0	3	4.5
N	0	1.33	1	1.66	2	0.45	2	3.6
A	1.5	0.5	1	1	1	0.66	2	2.25
JT	0	0.66	1.5	1.4	1	0.2	2	2.5
E	1	0.75	0	0.25	1	0.5	2	1.75
J	0.5	0.5	0.33	0.47	0	0	1	1.07
M	1	0.2	0.5	0.66	2	0.33	1.5	1.35
T	1	0.4	0.33	0.25	0	0	1	0.9

4.7 Correlations between the self-estimate and self-measurement of L2 use

One more Spearman Rank Order Correlation was conducted to examine the associations between self-estimate and self-measurement of L2 use to see if the results were consistent and reliable. Since there is no specific direction between the variables, 2-tailed Spearman Rank Order Correlation was used to analyze the results. The results of these correlational analyses are shown in Table 8.

Table 8.

Correlations between the self-estimate and the self-measurement of L2 use

	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
Talking with friends	.000	1.000
Talking at work	.939	.001*
Talking at home	.710	.048*
The average time spent speaking English a day	.932	.001*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The results indicate that there was not a significant correlation between the self-estimate time and the self-measurement time of talking with friends, ρ=.000, $p>.05$. However, there was a significant strong positive association between the self-estimate time of talking at work and the self-measurement time of this, ρ=.939, $p<.05$; there was a significant moderately strong positive correlation between the self-estimate time of talking at home and self-measurement time of this, ρ=.710, $p<.05$; there was a significant strong positive correlation between self-estimate time of the average time spent speaking English a day and the self-measurement time of this, ρ=.932, $p<.05$.

Comparison and contrast between the students, G&N, who made the most and the second highest improvements and the students, M&T, who made the least and the second lowest improvements.

Table 9 presents the self-estimate of L2 use a day between the students, G&N, who made the most and the second most improvement and the students, M&T, who made the least and the second least improvement.

Table 9.

Self-estimate of L2 use a day at the interview

	Proficiency Gains	Talking with Friends 1 hour=1	Talking At work 1 hour=1	Talking At home 1 hour=1	Time spent Speaking in E 1 hour=1	Proportion English : L1 100%=1
G	5.83	3.5	2	0	3	0.8 : 0.2
N	4.58	0	1	2	2	0.8 : 0.2
M	1.67	1	0.5	2	1.5	0.7 : 0.3
T	0.83	1	0.33	0	1	0.5

Table 10 presents the self-measurement of L2 use a day in a log between the students, G&N, who made the most and the second most improvement and the students, M&T, who made the least and the second least improvement.

Table 10.

Self-measurement of L2 use a day

	Proficiency Gains	Talking With Friends	Talking At work 1 hour=1	Talking At home 1 hour=1	Time spent Speaking in E 1 hour=1
G	5.83	2.33	2.0	0	4.5
N	4.58	1.33	1.66	0.45	3.6
M	1.67	0.2	0.66	0.33	1.35
T	0.83	0.4	0.25	0	0.9

Overall, both tables 9 and 10 show that the oral proficiency gains are consistent with the amount of time the students reported and recorded. However, talking at home is not quite consistent because G lived with a Hindi roommate so he did not need to speak in English. Meanwhile, these tables show that there are some students who overestimated or underestimated the amount of time they reported at the self-estimate compared to self-measurement. For example, G overestimated his talking with friends, 3.5 hours on the self-report, different from 2.33 hours on the self-measurement. He underestimated the average time spent speaking in English as 3 hours at the self-report but the recorded time was larger, 4.5 hours. In addition, M, who made the second lowest improvement also reported larger, 1 hour talking with friends and 1.5 hours talking at home; however, his record in a log was quite different, 0.2 hours and 0.33 hours. This indicates that self-report is not quite accurate compared to the self-record because this kind of self-report relies on the estimate based on memory recall.

In relation to other factors such as classroom talk, study groups, visiting professors, talking in social groups, G answered most questions very positively showing that he was actively joining in these social activities. In contrast to G, T who made the least gain at the second test almost answered negatively. Meanwhile, M evaluated his English use and interaction very positively different from the results at the self-measurement. It is likely that he is unaware of how much he interacted with others speaking L2. Another interesting difference between the participants is oral proficiency test preparation. G and N answered they did not prepare anything special for the test. They believed in talking to native speakers and interacting with them as much as possible, whereas M and T studied very hard to pass the second SPEAK test by recording their voices almost every day and regularly practicing the exercises in the textbook. This study effect on oral proficiency test leads to further investigation.

The following are excerpts of interview transcripts in order to show the fuller pictures of the importance of face to face input and interaction by comparing the student, G, who made the most gain and the student, T, who made the least gain in the second SPEAK test.

G:

"I've been here since August this year. Most of my friends are Americans. I speak most of the time in English. Maybe 80-85% I speak a day is English. I hardly speak Hindi here because even when I meet my Indian friends, we speak in English due to different dialects except for roommates. I think I speak English for about 3 or 4 hours a day. I enjoy Latin dance club a lot so I hang out very often with people I met there. I talk with my American friends on the phone for about 40 minutes every day. I go to the recreation center with them too. Most of the time, I study together with my American friends. I tutor American undergraduate students on how to do the experiment at the chemistry lab three times a week. I think I have no problem to communicate with people in English. My problem was how to adjust my Indian accent to American accent. Since I got here, I monitor what I said and try to adjust my pronunciation, especially when Americans don't understand what I said."

T:

"I've been in the States for about 6 years. I graduated from the college here but I almost didn't speak in English. That was possible because most of friends were Japanese and I majored in Math. We didn't speak at all in the class. Most of my friends here are Japanese or international students. We have few Americans in the class. I don't speak English very often. Maybe I speak 50% English and 50% Japanese here. I'm still nervous when I talk to Americans. However, I study English very hard. I meet my literacy tutor every week for an hour and I got pronunciation correction. This semester, I had a tutor from Dr. Ha as well. I practice English every day. I record some parts of TV news such as weather forecast and try to imitate the way they speak, then I record my voice and listen to that. I

sometimes talk to myself in English to practice. Now, I failed SPEAK test nine times so I don't know what to do to improve my English."

5. Discussion

Research Question No.1: What amount of time each day do international graduate students actually spend speaking in the target language in non-instructional settings?

The amount of time each day international graduate students spent speaking English in non-instructional settings ranged from a minimum of 1 hour to a maximum of 3 hours for the self-estimate, and the median was 2 hours. However, self-measurement was different, ranging from minimum 54 minutes and maximum 4 hours and 30 minutes. The median was the same, at 2 hours for the self-estimate and the self-measurement. When students were asked to report the amount of time they spent speaking English, they seemed to overestimate or underestimate. For example, G who made the most improvement in the SPEAK proficiency test estimated at the interview that the time he spent talking in English with friends was 3.5 hours, talking at work, 2 hours, and the total amount of time spent speaking English a day, 3 hours, whereas the results from the self-measurement showed that the time he spent talking with friends was 2.33 hours, talking at work, 2 hours, the total amount of time spent English a day, and 4.5 hours. He even answered 3.5 hours talking with friends and 2 hours at work when he had the interview, but the total amount of time speaking a day, 3 hours, was less than the sum, 5.5 of talking with friends and at work.

The range of two hours speaking English a day is hard to judge since the other studies do not specify the exact amount of time spent. For example, the study using Language Contact Profile (Bialystok, 1978; Day, 1985; Deweay, Freed, Segalowitz, & Halter, 2004; Freed, 1995; Seliger, 1977; Spada, 1986) did not show the exact amount of time; instead they gave points depending on the type and the amount of time the participants spoke English in a day. It can be concluded from the results of the present study that an average of two hours speaking English is not good enough to improve the SPEAK test from 45 to 50, since three students who passed the second

SPEAK test spent more than 2 hours speaking English a day according to their self-measurement.

The participants spent most of their time speaking English with friends and at work. Six out of eight students answered their classes were more lecture style and they did not talk much in the class. This fact shows how important language contact outside of the classroom is for them to keep using English and improve their speaking skills. Even though the present study analyzed the salient factors that were variant and different from each other, the other factors should be considered in terms of the types and the amount of time the participants spent speaking English a day. However, the problem here is that the other types of activities are not regular routines so it is difficult to compare them. For example, in relation to study groups, four students answered they did not have a study group. However, one student answered that he joined a study group every other day and talked for 30 minutes at one session; the other student also joined a study group but he talked very little.

The present study asked students what proportion they speak L2 compared to L1 at the interview, but did not ask students to keep recording the amount of time speaking L1. It might be another interesting factor to investigate the relationship between the amount of time they speak L1 and L2 even though this study found there was a significant correlation between the proportion of L1 and L2.

Research Question No. 2: How does social interaction outside of classroom affect their oral proficiency improvements as measured by the SPEAK test?

Both statistical analyses showed there was a significant strong positive correlation between the average time spent speaking English in a day and oral proficiency gains, $\rho=.894$, $p<.05$ from the self-estimate and $\rho=.952$, $p<.05$ from the self-measurement. This result can be interpreted as showing that asking the participants the average time they spend speaking English is quite reliable and the hypothesis of the present study is proved correct, that students who have more input and interaction through face to face

conversation mate more improvements in oral proficiency than those who have not. However, asking the students separate questions such as talking with friends, talking at home, talking at work is less reliable than asking them the total amount of time spent speaking English in a day. This leads us question why the results were contradictory from other researchers investigating the relationship between social interactions measured by self-reports and oral proficiency gains since they asked the students separate questions to report how much time they spent speaking L2 in various situations. The students probably found it hard to estimate the amount of time they spent on separate activities.

The factor, talking with friends showed counter results between the self-estimate and the self-measurement. There was not a significant correlation between talking with friends and oral proficiency gains, ρ=-.037, p>.05 at self-estimate. However, there was a significant strong positive correlation between talking with friends and oral proficiency gains, ρ=.946, p<.05. This result can be interpreted that at the interview, the question itself separated talking with friends who are native speakers of English from peer talk outside of classroom. Some students have the concept that classmates who are native speakers of English are all friends, but others think the opposite and they put talking with classmates into peer talk categories which are separate from talking with friends. Asking the students separate questions between talking with friends and talking with peers outside of the classroom made them either redundant or confused. However, when they recorded the amount of time they spent speaking English in a log, they included the amount of time they spent talking with either friends or classmates in the same category as talking with friends.

Talking at work and oral proficiency gains showed the correlations at both self-estimate and self-measurement, ρ=.663, p<.05 at the self-estimate and ρ=.790, p<.05 at the self-measurement. In his functional analysis of speaking, Bygate (1987) suggested that oral interactions can be characterized in terms of routines, which are conventional and therefore predictable ways of presenting information on interaction. This seems to be true because talking at work in the self report is consistent with the self-measurement since working hours are already set up every day and the activities at work

are conventional.

Research Question No. 3: How reliable are self-estimate and self-measurement of L2 language use by learners?

Except for the relationship between the self-estimate time and the self-measurement time of talking with friends, ρ=.000, $p>.05$, there was a significant strong positive association between the self-estimate time of talking at work and the self-measurement time of this, ρ=.939, $p<.05$; there was a significant moderately strong positive correlation between the self-estimate time of talking at home and self-measurement time, ρ=.710, $p<.05$; there was a significant strong positive correlation between self-estimate time of the average time spent speaking in English a day and the self-measurement time of this, ρ=.932, $p<.05$. These results can confirm the findings of the present study again. Talking at work is a regularized activity so self-report and self-measurement showed strong correlations. This means that self-report is quite reliable in case of such a regularized activity, talking at work. In addition, students seem to have good insights into the total amount of time spent speaking L2 a day. Comparing these two factors with other factors such as talking at home showed weaker correlation.

6. Conclusions

Before conclusions are drawn from the present study, it should be noted that any implications of its findings must be regarded with caution in view of the following: (1) the sample size was small and therefore the study needs to be replicated in order to generalize its findings; (2) although an attempt was made to distinguish between variations in the type and amount of learners' L2 use, other instruments need to be developed which will capture more information regarding qualitative aspects of social interaction; (3) the study took place over a short period of time measuring learners' social interaction based on self-report at an interview and a week-long log, therefore the long-term effects of the type and the amount of language use on oral proficiency

gains might be different.

Keeping the above limitations in mind, the findings of this study suggest that input and interaction through face to face conversation in non-instructional settings are important for international graduate students to improve their oral proficiency. This is especially true with regularized input and interaction such as talking at work and informal talk between friends, which resulted in the students having large differences in oral proficiency gains. Furthermore, self-reports and self-records were reliable in the overall amount of time speaking in L2 and the regularized routine such as talking at work. However, self-reports showed the problems of either overestimating or underestimating the amount of time spent speaking English and if asked about non-conventional activities such as talking at home or talking with friends, the results from self-reports only are not reliable. As a result, it is suggested that double measurements such as self-report and a log may be more reliable in measuring language use of learners. In addition, there is a need for more research to investigate not only how to measure the type and the amount of learner's language use, but also the effects of these interactions on the L2 abilities of learners. Finally, learners are required to be aware of types and quantities of input and interaction through face to face conversation so that they can try to have more opportunities of language use to improve their oral proficiency.

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Appendix

A. Interview 1 Questions

Talking with friends

Do you have friends who are native speakers of English?

If yes,

How did you initiate the relationship?

How often do you meet them? (regular or irregular?)

What kinds of activities do you do together?

Where and when do you usually meet your friend?

How long do you usually meet your friend at a time?

On average, how much time do you actually speak with them at one meeting?

If no,

Do you want to make friends who are native speakers of English?

On average, how much time do you speak in English with your friends a day?

Talking at school

1) Classroom

How many classes are you taking?

Are your classes more lecture-style or group discussion?

How often do you talk to your classmates? (NS, Non-NSs, Same language groups?)

On average, how much time do you speak in English in the class a day?

2) Study Group

Do you join any study groups?

If yes,

How often do you join the study groups?

How long does it usually take?

How much time do you think do you usually speak in study group?

On average, how much time do you speak in English in your study group a day?

3) Visiting Professors

Do you go to see your professors during their office hours?

If yes,

How often?

How long do you speak with them?

On average, how much time do you speak in English with your professor a day?

4) Peer Talk

Do you often talk in English with your peers outside of classroom?

On average, how much time do you speak in English with your peer outside of classroom a day?

5) Break Time

What do you usually do during your break?

Who do you usually speak with in English during your break time?

On average, how much time do you speak in English during your break time?

6) Lunch Time

Who do you have lunch with?

If you have lunch with somebody,

What languages do you usually speak with him/her?

How much time do you think you usually speak in English during lunch time a day?

On average, how much time do you speak in English during lunch time a day?

7) Talking at Work

Are you employed on campus?

If yes,

What kind of job do you do?

How many hours a week do you work?

On average, how much time do you speak in English during working hours a day?

Talking at home

Who do you live with? (NS, Non-NSs, Same language groups?)

What language do you speak at home?

On average, how much time do you speak in English at home a day?

Talking on the phone

Who do you usually talk with on the phone?

What language do you usually speak on the phone?

How much do you speak on the phone?

On average, how much time do you speak in English on the phone a day?

Talking in social groups

Do you join any American social group?

If yes,

What kind of group do you join?

What do you want to get from the group meeting?

How often do you join the group? (regular or irregular?)

How many hours at a time do you spend on group meeting?

What kinds of activities do you do?

If no,

Do you want to join any group? (What kind of group?)

On average, how much time do you speak in English in your social group at a time?

Talking while shopping

How often do you go shopping?

Who do you usually go shopping with? (NS, Non-NSs, Same language

groups?)

On average, how much do you speak in English going shopping at a time?

Eating out

How often do you eat out?

Who do you usually eat out with? (NS, Non-NSs, Same language groups?)

On average, how much time do you speak in English while eating out at a time?

Average time spent speaking in English a day

How much do you think you spoke in English yesterday?

On average, how much time a day do you speak in English?

Do you think you speak English enough? Why do you think so?

Self-evaluation of English use and interaction

How long have you been in America?

Do you think your speaking ability in English improved? Why do you think so?

Do you think you speak in your native language more here or speak in English more?

Do you think you interact with NSs of English enough? Why do you think so?

Oral proficiency test preparation

What do you do in order to improve your English? (Study, interact with NS, watch TV, etc.)

How do you prepare to pass the SPEAK test?

Do you do your assignment at home from the language skills class such as exercises including the practice of pronunciation and intonation?

Do you practice English by yourself? If so, how do you do that?

B. Keep a log: Keep recording the amount of time the participants speak a day for a week

Date:
How many hours/minutes did you actually speak in English today?
With whom?
Where?
What were the main topics of your conversations?

Date:
How many hours/minutes did you actually speak in English today?
With whom?
Where?
What were the main topics of your conversations?

Date:
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Where?

What were the main topics of your conversations?

A Study of Verb Examples in an English-Korean Electronic Dictionary

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This study originated from the idea that bilingual learner's dictionaries can be exploited as a resource for learning a foreign language, and adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches to solving the question of how a current English→Korean learner's dictionary is helpful for learning, with special focus on provided examples. The sample data for review were examples showing how verbs are used, and were examined with evaluative criteria for learner's dictionaries set by major dictionary publishers: (1) whether examples are acceptable and grammatical; (2) whether they are presented in complete syntactic structures; (3) whether they reflect common uses of words; and (4) whether they are provided with faithful translations in Korean. The results show that many of the examples in the current English-Korean dictionary do not reflect real use of the language and, ultimately, are not very helpful for the users. Thus, this study concludes that dictionary examples need to be updated and adopted from corpora, so that they can serve their role as positive input for learners.

Korean Sixth Grade Elementary School Students' Meaning Negotiation in Task-based CMC

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This study examines task-based, synchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) among 18, 6th grade elementary school students. The research specifically explores whether task type has an effect on (a) encouragement of meaning negotiation, (b) selection of meaning negotiation devices, and (c) student participation and response. Two experiments, drawing on differing forms of CMC, were performed for this purpose. In experiment I, three groups, each consisting of 3 students, completed 3 conversational tasks using a chat room. In experiment II, another three groups of 3 students each completed 3 jigsaw tasks and 3 decision-making tasks using messenger. All tasks were designed by the researcher and were based on lessons from the school authorized English textbook. The data from the chat logs, the participants' post-chat reports, the interview, the pre and post surveys, and the researcher's journal were all examined for analysis.

The results showed that, in CMC, decision-making task types are a more productive stimulus in CMC for inducing active student meaning negotiation. Among the 5 meaning negotiation devices set forth by Long (1983a), students seemed to be heavily dependent on clarification requests and self-repetitions. In regard to their attitudes toward each task type, students seemed to enjoy tasks involving cognitive challenges, as demonstrated by their preference for conversation and decision- making tasks over jigsaws. Finally, the degree of student preparation and participation differed depending on the task types.

The Effect of Multiple Intelligences on Young Learners' Foreign Language Vocabulary Development

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This study investigates how Gardner's multiple intelligences can affect Korean young learners' English vocabulary development when combined with directed teaching. The study also investigates what learning strategies learners use to study foreign language vocabulary and how they can affect learners' vocabulary learning. An experiment was conducted with 16 primary school children involved in 12 lessons designed and directed towards students' attested intelligences. Multiple intelligences assessment, vocabulary assessment, pre-tests and post-tests and a vocabulary learning strategies survey were used to draw the results. The results of the experiment indicated that basically every student possesses more than one intelligence, however, most of them show one strongly developed intelligence. The lessons designed and directed towards their attested intelligences were effective in learning vocabulary in general, but some unexpected results were shown and students' vocabulary learning strategies seemed to affect the results. The results of this study demonstrate that applying students' multiple intelligences in teaching foreign language vocabulary through activities can be effective.

기본 파닉스 기법의 발달: 학습자중심 교육활동의 효과

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본 연구의 목적은 학습자중심 교육활동의 영어 교수법인 파닉스 수업이 초보 독자에게 어떤 영향을 미치는 가를 규명하는데 있다. 연구목적 성취를 위하여 두 가지 유형의 파닉스 수업방법을 두 개의 실험집단에 각각 투입한 후 그 결과를 비교 분석하는 실험설계 연구 방식을 채택하였다. 실험대상은 서울 “M” 지역에 위치한 고아원에서 생활하고 있는 초등학교 1학년과 2학년 아동 14명으로 두 집단으로 분리하였다.

본 연구는 2005년 2월초 사전검사로 시작해서 6개월간의 수업기간을 거친 후 2005년 8월말에 사후검사로 실험이 종료되었다. 사전검사를 실시한 결과 이 두 실험집단은 비슷한 학업능력을 갖추고 있었으며 두 실험집단을 비교하기 위해 본 연구자는 최대한 동일한 시간, 노력과 관심을 할애하였다.

실험집단 A 에게는 시중에 나와있는 파닉스 교재를 이용하여 그 지침에 따라 자음과 모음 구분 없이 알파벳 순서대로 교육을 진행하였다. 실험집단 B 에게는 실험대상 아동의 학습 유형과 다중 지능을 반영한 학습자중심 교육활동에 기초를 둔 파닉스 수업방법으로서 자음을 먼저 교육한 후 이어서 모음을 교육하는 순서로 진행하였다.

연구결과, 학습자중심 교육활동의 파닉스 수업방법은 파닉스 교재에 의한 기존의 수업 방법보다 의미있는 효과를 나타내었다. 본 연구에는 연구과정 중 학습능력 저하로 의심되는 아동에게서 수업방식에 따른 반응의 차이를 찾아볼 수 없었던 제한점이 있었다.

향후의 파닉스 수업은 학습자중심 교육활동으로 운영될 것을 제안하며 이를 위해서는 후속되는 관련 연구가 필연적으로 이루어져야 할 것이다.