Issues in EFL

SOOKMYUNG WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY
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Mission Statement

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

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

COMMUNITY CONTRIBUTIONS

DEALING WITH THE 1ST SEMESTER ANXIETIES

Yunseon Kim

MA TESOL 3rd semester

A new semester is just around the corner. So, to help new students, I decided to draw a cartoon about how to deal with first semester anxiety. On our facebook account (https://www.facebook.com/sookmyung.tesolma), there are old webtoons about MA TESOL life, please check out the webtoons on our facebook and do not forget to add our facebook account!

어떤 일을 처음 해본다는 것은
대게 두 가지 감정을 동시에 느끼게 하는 것 같아요.

Doing something for the first time
usually means two things for most people.

새로운 것을 시도하는 흥분과 신나는 감정,
그리고 걱정거리나 불안 같은 감정이요!

One is a feeling of excitement and
the other is, of course, a feeling of anxiety.

테솔 대학원 첫 수업 날! 교실에 들어선 저는
외국인 학생들의 수에 적잖이 놀랐었어요!!

In my case, when I stepped into the room for a class
on the first day of the TESOL MA program,
I was a bit surprised by the number of foreign students in the class.

However,
there was one big thing which made me more anxious…
It was…!!!

하지만!!
저를 더욱 놀라게하고 불안하게 한 것이 있었으니
그것은 바로...!!!!

테솔 대학원 학생들 대부분이
이미 전/현직 영어선생님이라는 사실이었어요!!

Most students were actual English teachers already.

이 사실은 저를 넘나 불안하게 만들었어요 ㅠㅠ
이미 전문적인 티칭 경력을 가지고 있는
다른 학생들에게 위축되었지요...

It worried me greatly.
I was in awe of other students
who already had professional careers in this field.

어느 누구도 저에 대해 노관심임에도 불구하고ㅋㅋ
홀로 넘나 다른 학생들을 신경 쓴 나머지

Even though no one judged me, I was too self-conscious and
too conscious of other students.
In my mind, I continuously thought like that...

수업 시간에 조용하고 수동적인
학생이 되었답니다...

and that made me a passive student in class.

van Vlack 교수님의 수업 시간은
제 걱정을 더 심각하게 만들었어요.
왜냐하면, 벤 교수님께서 어찌나 빨리 말씀하시는지 ㅠㅠ

Moreover, Dr. van Vlack's classes made my worries even worse
because I was totally shocked by how fast he spoke during the class!!

교수님의 첫 수업은
에미넴의 'Rap God'을 첨 들었을 때를 떠올리게 했어요...

벤 교수님은 정말 랩신이셨어요..
테솔 MA의 다른 교수님들도 모두 그러셨던 것 같아요..
ㅠㅠ ㅜㅜ ㅜㅜ ㅠㅠ ㅠㅠ

His first class was like
when I heard Eminem's song, 'Rap God' for the first time...

For me, I felt Dr. van Vlack was the rap god...
I thought other TESOL MA professors were pretty similar to Dr. van Vlack.

학기 시작 전,
McNeil 교수님을 뵈었을 때,
교수님께서 모든지 해낼 수 있다고 용기를 주셨었어요.

Before the semester began,
I had a chance to meet Dr. McNeil, gave me words of encouragement
and put a spell on saying,

하지만, 벤 교수님의 첫 수업을 들은 후
제가 미끼를 물어버렸다는 걸 알게되었어요..

But, after the first class, I came out of his spell and
came to a thundering realization that everything was not going to be ok.

제가 뭘 어쩔 수 있겠나요..
이미 등록은 끝났고 도망갈 곳도 없었어요!!

But what could I do?
I was already signed for the course and there was no escape.

생존만을 목표로
“첫 학기를 살아남자”고 스스로 주문을 걸었어요!!

So, I put a spell on myself saying,
“Just SURVIVE the first semester.”

그래서 수업과 과제에
올인하는 나날들을 보냈고,

I only focused on the classes and assignments

**Don't look sideways.
Just charge forward like a rhino!**

“무소의 뿔처럼 혼자서 가라”
결국은 학우들과 이야기할 기회도 없이
한 학기가 훌쩍 지나가버렸어요.

and hence I didn't get to talk and
interact with other students during the semester.

마침내 첫 학기 생존에는 성공했지만,
아이러니하게도 테솔 대학원 과정을 공부하며
가장 중요한 것을 한 학기가 다 지나고서야 깨달았어요!

And survive I did. And when the semester passed,
ironically, I came to realize the most important thing
about the TESOL MA course.

학기 마지막에 열리는 심포지움 행사에서
수업을 함께 들었던 외국인 친구와 이야기를
나누던 중에 말이죠!

This realization came to me when I spoke to
one of my classmates at the symposium
at the end of the course.

저는 학기말이 되어서야 깨달았지만,
TESOL MA 프로그램을 이제 막 시작하시는
신입생 학우분들께 이 말이 도움이 되었으면 해요!

Looking back, I came to this realization at the end of the course,
but I hope to give some encouragement to the new students
as they venture into the TESOL MA.

Don't feel too disheartened that you're not native speakers or teachers.
You're all in the same boat doing the course!

원어민이 아니라서 혹은 영어 선생님이 아니라고해서
위축될 이유가 하나도 없답니다!

테솔 대학원의 새롭고 다양한 분야를
모두 함께 배우는 같은 상황에 있기 때문이죠!

In addition, please remember that
the mistakes you make while you speak English don't matter.

또한, 꼭 기억해주세요.
영어로 말할 때의 실수는 그다지 중요하지 않아요!

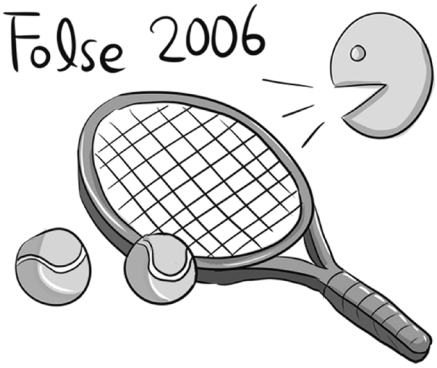
This cut is inspired by the movie, “Zootopia.”

It's the content of what you say that matters.
Do not try to be a perfectionist when you speak.

말의 내용이 더 중요하답니다!
그러니 완벽주의자가 되려고 하지 말고
모든지 다 시도해보세요~~

One of the researchers in TESOL,
Folse (2006) compared English speaking to tennis playing.

Folse (2006)는 영어 말하기를
테니스에 비유했었어요!



He said that knowing how to play tennis is necessary
but spending time practicing and hitting as many balls as
possible is not only important but essential
to increasing the tennis playing ability.

그가 말하기를, 테니스를 어떻게 치는지를 아는 것도 중요하지만,
가능한 많은 공을 직접 쳐보고 연습해보는 것 역시
실제 테니스 실력을 높이는 데 중요하다는 것이죠!

Like playing tennis,
please allow yourself to hit as many tennis balls as possible
during the semester,

테니스 공을 실제로 많이 쳐보는 것과 같이
학기 동안 스스로에게

like, giving opinions during the class, interacting with other classmates,
joining the journal committee/student union,
or applying for a research/teaching assistant jobs.

수업 시간 중이나 이외에도 학우들과 의견도 많이 나누고
테솔 MA 저널 커미티, 학생회 등에서 활동하거나
교수님들의 조교에 지원하는 등의 다양한 학교 생활을
시도해 볼 기회를 주세요~!

Interacting with MA people is
one of the great ways to reducing anxiety!

테솔 MA 학우들과 활발히 교류하고
소통하는 것도 학업에 대한 불안감이나 스트레스를
줄이는 가장 좋은 방법 중의 하나입니다!

I wish you could experience
a true language socialization in the MA course.

학우 여러분들이 진정한 의미의
'language socialization'을 숙명 테솔 MA를
통해 경험하시기를 바래요!

Lastly, if you have any problems and worries,
do not forget that there are 4 sweet professors
(Dr. McNeil will come back next fall semester),
3 friendly assistants and the biggest support for the students,
the student union in TESOL MA program.

테솔 MA 학우분들, 힘들 때나 고민이 있을 때는
다정한 교수님들과 여러분의 든든한 버팀목인
조교들, 학생회가 있다는 것을 잊지 마세요!

우리는 항상 여러분을 돕기 위해 여기 있답니다!
신입생 여러분들 만나기를 늘 고대하고 있어요!
2017 새 학기 화이팅!!

AN INTERVIEW WITH JEEHEE

about Taking a Leave of Absence

Jungmin Byun

MA TESOL 4th semester

It was an honor to interview my colleagues and hear their ideas within the TESOL MA program. I sat down with Jeehee who took a leave of absence last semester to ask for her thoughts, experiences, and advice. I believe her interview will help to those students who are taking or planning to take a leave of absence.

1. Briefly introduce yourself.

Hello, my name is Jeehee Kim. I have been in the MA program since fall 2015 after the YL certificate program.

2. When did you take leave of absence and why? When are you plan to come back?

I took the 2016 fall semester off to get some work experience. Back then, I only had private tutoring experiences, some volunteer work, and a substitute-teaching job for a week, all of which would be hard to recognize as an official career on a resume. I thought I had to start working in the field before completingmy master's degree, so I decided to take the semester off. I am planning to come back in 2017 spring semester.

3. What have you been doing during the time?

I worked in an English kindergarten. I taught 4-years-old children, 6-years-old kids and elementary school children from 9 am to 5 pm. After work, usually, I just rested at home, read some articles, or met friends. It was very nice experience; I learned some things from actual teaching and it helped me think about my thesis topics and interest.

4. What advice would you give to people who are thinking or planning to take leave of absence?

I think it is very important to plan thoroughly and set a specific goal before taking leave of absence. Without it, you will probably waste time and it might be harder to study again after long break unless you read articles by yourself. If you think of taking leave of absence to work like me, I suggest you apply for jobs and get the position first. In addition, even though you do not need to come to campus, as there is no class, I highly suggest keep in touch with professors and visit them as much as possible. Moreover, I think it is very helpful to find and read some articles that you like in your free time, one in a month at least. It will make it easier for you to read and write academic papers again when you come back to school

WHAT ARE OUR ALUMNI DOING?

Advice from alumni to current TESOL MA students

Jimin Park & Diana Lee

MA TESOL 1st semester

Diana: I enrolled in Sookmyung TESOL MA right after I finished SMU TESOL certificate program. I entered graduate school since I did not have any experience in teaching English and my major at university was far from English education. I believed I could enhance my ability to teach English at graduate school.

During my first semester, I suddenly wondered what I could do after I got a master's degree. I wanted to get some advice from our alumni since they have gone through the same process to get their current job. I hope the contents of these interviews will be helpful for you.

Jimin: This was my first semester in Sookmyung TESOL MA, so everything was very hard to me, but many peers and professors helped me by giving useful and helpful advice on how to enjoy school life. In addition, I can get a lot of help through interviewing our alumni. When I read their interviews, I empathized with their past Sookmyung TESOL MA life. I hope that these interviews are helpful to many students. Lastly, thank you to all our interviewees who participated in these alumni interviews.

Hyun-Jeong, Nam

1.Please briefly introduce yourself (Name, Year of graduation, Job position (specifically), etc.)

My name is Hyun-Jeong Nam. I joined the TESOL program in 2000 and earned my M.A. degree in 2003. Then I was awarded my Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at the Trinity College, University of Dublin in 2009. Since 2000, I have been teaching university students English at several major universities in South Korea. The practicum course for Sookmyung MA TESOL students, in particular, gave me opportunities to individually interact with pre- and in-service English teachers. Currently I am working as an assistant professor at Dept. of English language and English literature at Dong-A university. My research has focused on the lexicon in second language acquisition as well as second language pedagogy.

2. Which course in Sookmyung TESOL was the most useful for you?

Although all of the courses were interesting and useful, I found the class "Developing Bilingualism" most inspiring. It gave me opportunities to study my own learning process as a bilingual and to find the better way to teach my students English language.

3. How did you get over a difficulty while you were a MA student?

Since I was teaching at several universities, it was difficult for me to focus on my own study. Time management was the most challenging. I always rushed to Sookmyung university right after finishing my own classes. I remember I stayed up all night preparing for my own class and TESOL courses I was taking. However, it provided good opportunities for me as a teacher to self-reflect on my own teaching and to apply the notion of how language works to my own teaching. I would like to tell any of you who might struggle to juggle teaching and learning at the same time that not only your theoretical background in TESOL but also your hands-on approach derived from a wealth of firsthand teaching experience will benefit your future.

4. Could you tell me the pros and cons of your job?

I believe that teaching is also learning. I love interactions with my students and I learn a lot from the interactions to be a better teacher. However, being a professor at a university is harder than you might think it is. Every year it feels like more responsibilities fall on my shoulders. More seriously, it is getting difficult for universities to survive in Korea, and fewer job opportunities are available for tenure-track positions.

5. Do you have anything else to share with students?

I hope you enjoy the time with your classmates and professors. Sometimes the discussions with them became very heated but I still miss all the discussions I had with my friends and professors about the theories. I am sure you will miss it soon after you leave the course.

Gloria Karam, Lee

1. Please briefly introduce yourself

My name is Gloria Lee (Karam Lee , 이가람). I graduated in 2014 and I am currently working as an English teacher in middle schools.

2. Which course was the most useful for you?

I really liked Dr. McNeil and Dr. van Vlack's classes. One of their classes had lots of group work and sharing. I think they were called teaching reading and listening. It is about learning practical teaching and sharing teaching tips with other currently working teachers. When I look back, they were the one of useful classes.

3. How did you get over a difficulty while you were a MA student?

The hardest task was finding my thesis and sticking with it. I tried to read as any papers as possible and constantly looked for ideas to build my original topic. I thought writing thesis was hard until I faced with the difficulty of editing the thesis. It was hard for me to shrink the results and make them into persuasive analysis after I have wrote a lot!

4. Could you tell me the pros and cons of your job? (If a current TESOL MA student is planning to working in your field, what do they need to prepare?)

Perks of being a teacher... there are a lot actually. First, the advantage of being a teacher are: months long vacation and flexible working hours (compare to other office workers). On the other hand, it also has disadvantages: low salary and maybe getting stress by working with youngsters. I am actually a contract teacher that I have to hop around from school to school every year and it is really hard getting a steady job in a private school. In order to get a steady job in a public school, you have to take a test which is really competitive and lots of people fail to pass the exam. I guess this may be a con of majoring English education, which was my major.

If you do not mind teaching anywhere, then the TESOL program itself is great.

5. Do you have anything else to share with students?

Life in Sookmyung TESOL was one of the most wonderful times in my life. I met great teachers and made lifetime friends. I hope you have the same experience.

David Miller

1. Please briefly introduce yourself

My name is David Miller. I graduated from Sookmyung TESOL in 2014 and am currently working as a university professor in South Korea

2. Which course was the most useful for you?

I honestly feel that I got something different and useful from each of the courses, but I would have to say my first class was also my most useful in terms of pushing me to the next level. I took Introduction to Corpus Linguistics when I was a first year and honestly really felt overwhelmed when I started. However, as the semester went on I learned so much about how we think about vocabulary, how words are connected to each other, and how these notions might offer different, more engaging and more effective ways of teaching English to my students. I still reference a corpus when trying to explain language in use to my students and have even taught some students how to usea corpus to enhance their own learning experiences, but it was not just the content of that course that was so meaningful, it was that was my first chance to start reframing the way I think about language, which was a journey that I continued to take throughout my time at Sookdae.

3. How did you get over a difficulty while you were a MA student?

I suspect that most of us struggle with time management in the MA. Most of us are working and studying at the same time and at first, I felt overwhelmed. It was not until I started incorporating the things I was learning at Sookdae into my daily teaching that I really started to understand how this investment of time and energy was really making me a better teacher. If you are teaching during the MA I really hope that you find a way to use that classroom as a laboratory to experiment with the concepts that you are learning in the coursework. Being able to have a tangible reminder of what all this work will mean for you as a teacher makes an incredible difference and when I was struggling to finish a late reading or writing a long paper, bearing that in mind made all the difference.

4. Could you tell me the pros and cons of your job? (If a current TESOL MA student is planning to working in your field, what do they need to prepare?)

I am currently teaching at a university in South Korea. It is amazing work. I have a lot of freedom in the classroom to continue exploring my own growth as a teacher and I only teach about 15 hours a week (including overtime) so, I am able to spend time preparing and making those hours meaningful to my students. With a lot of freedom at a job unfortunately that is often coupled with a lack of feedback which means that it is easy to stagnate at a university job here. My department head seems only interested in student feedback surveys and if I perform well there I can pretty much do whatever I want. This, sadly, can feel like a low bar and it puts the impetus to improve on the teacher. I would advise a Sookdae graduate who is interested in becoming an English professor here to not stop reading academic literature. I find that is the best way to keep pushing myself and avoiding stagnation in a vacuum of feedback.

5. Do you have anything else to share with students?

While the time you are spending at Sookdae will undoubtedly be some of the busiest of your life, treasure this time, this learning, and the people you are learning with. I still have lifelong friends that I made through my time at the MA and although at the time I am sure my hair got grayer and thinner, it was in retrospect one of the happiest times of my life.

TIPS FOR THESIS DATA COLLECTION

Geonyeong Kim

MA TESOL 4th semester

This upcoming, spring 2017, semester will be my 5thand final semester in the MA TESOL program at Sookmyung Women's University (SMU). It has been a good experience but sadly, my elective courses are now done. This means that I now need to focus exclusively on completing my thesis. So far, I have made good progress in my thesis work. My thesis methodology and literature review look to be in good shape as I head towards the home stretch.

I started collecting the data I need for my thesis at the mid-point of this past semester. This is data on the issues that students feel affect their use of a lexis notebook.For my thesis, I collected data over a 5-week period from undergraduate students taking an elective TESL course at SMU. I developed an interest in studying the use of lexis notebooks as a result of a lexis notebook project that I participated in at the graduate level (MA Corpus). As a result, I wanted to extend the literature on this lexical approach through a case study of the use of lexis notebooks.A lexis notebook is another word for a vocabulary notebook. The purpose of having students keep a lexis notebook is to help them to see vocabulary as words which exist in chunks and to help English language learners (ELLs) to be more autonomous in their learning. The practice of keeping a lexis notebook is one of the final project options provided as part of Introduction to Corpus Linguistics at the undergraduate level.

Even though I made some mistakes, and had some difficulties, I had a good time collecting data for my thesis. My thesis represents my interest and experience, making the process of conducting my thesis research easier and more enjoyable. Through this article, I hope to share my experience with you and, I hope you find it to be useful.

My first advice is that you consider your research questions in depth.

Because of electing not to take the Research Methodology course during my fourth semester, I was faced with the challenges of trying to balance the workload from the two elective classes that I did select (Discourse Analysis and Introduction to Linguistics) with having to tutor 15 undergraduate students each week.

This was problematic because I experienced difficulty balancing the two activities. It was difficult to balance course readings and assignments with designing a qualitative thesis research. As a result, I simply ended up researching articles that were related to my research without strong consideration of my thesis questions; basically, my research design consisted of a pre and a post test.

It was not until I consulted with my academic advisor(Professor van Vlack), regarding my upcoming thesis proposal meeting, that I discovered that I did not have to do a pre or a post test. During the consultation, my advisor helped me focus on building quality research questions as a way of informing my research approach. Though his guidance, I realized that the data you need, and the tools you require, are primarily driven by your research questions. That is to say that, the data from your research is meant to help you form clear answers to your research questions and as such, they are both joint at the hip.

My second advice is that you prepare your research tools and materials (such as, survey questionnaires or recording instruments) well in advance of your research.

One of my biggest regrets from this past summer vacation is that I did not discuss my research with either my classmates or my professors well in advance. I had many opportunities to consult with my advisor but I did not do so early enough, or as often enough, as I needed.

The problem was that I did not know how to start discussions about my thesis topic because I felt as if I was not ready to do so. As I advanced through the graduate program at SMU, my advisor began to ask me questions regarding my thesis; questions like, "How will you conduct your research?", "How long is it going to take?" and, "With whom?" I did not know how to answer these questions so I just tried to delay and put off answering questions about my thesis until the last possible moment. As a result, I continued to feel stuck.

Fortunately, my advisor was able to provide valuable assistance to help me overcome my fear and to help me with developing my research. He allowed me to conduct my research with his undergraduate class. He even created a special project for me to do with the undergrads in his class; i.e. the lexis notebook project mentioned above. As a result, I was able to gradually design my thesis research around this project. It was a painstaking process however; I was able to prepare for my research over time. Without starting the process of preparing for your thesis, the thesis research design will not happen. Keeping your ideas to yourself, pondering them by yourself, will not resolve the problem of thesis research. You need to communicate with your classmates, professors and, advisors in order to gradually construct or prepare for your thesis research.

My third tip is that you should consult your advisor as much as possible.

If you do, so both your mental state and your thesis study will be improved. Initially I was really scared of talking to my advisor about my thesis topic. I felt that, even though I was interested in my thesis topic, my thesis design was an unorganized mess and I was worried sick through most of my vacation. However, I realized that I needed to set my research design even if I was scared of working on the research. I wanted to organize my thesis design before consulting with my advisor. Unfortunately, the thesis design process just does not work that way; not even if you were completely ready ahead of time. You need to consult with your advisor throughout the process.

Consequently, I consulted with my advisor and he afforded me an opportunity to provide tutelage to his undergraduate students for five weeks. At first I felt so intimidated that I almost gave up my research however as I began my research I started to get become more specific regarding my thesis design; specifically, I started to figure out how to get my data and what kinds of data to collect. I soon realized the high value there is in consulting with your thesis advisor as much as possible. Your thesis advisor can be a very vital resource for your research.

My fourth tip is that you recruit at least twice as many participants as you require.

In week 8, following my mid-term exams, I visited Professor van Vlack's undergraduate (Introduction to Corpus Linguistic) class. As my research is a qualitative research, I assumed that I would need roughly 10 participants to conduct my study.

Of these 10 participants, I honestly expected five would want to participate in the lexis notebook project however, contrary to my expectations, 20 students volunteered for the study and 15 of them opted to participate in the lexis notebook project. The problem was that I had only prepared 10 lexis notebook packets and

could not provide every participant with one. Additionally, it was really difficult to work around the weekly schedules of 20 students as opposed to the five that I had expected.

As it turns out, I was fortunate to have gotten so many volunteers as five of my volunteers opted to not participate in my project. The students who opted-out had come in with different expectations and understanding of the project. It made me realize that if I less students had volunteered as I initially expected, I could have ended up with as few as two participants. Having 20 recruits turned out to be for the better. My point is that, I recommend recruiting at least twice as many participants as you think you will need for your study. There is a certain probability of participant attrition during your study.

Tip number 5 is that you provide your participants with clear guidelines from the onset of your research study.

There is a common saying that goes, "A picture is worth a thousand words." In my case, this saying was prophetic. Even though I thought I had clearly informed my participants on how to find and select words for their lexis notebooks, most of the participants struggled with compiling words for their lexis notebook over the two weeks of the study. I thought I had given detailed and clear instructions but during the first week of the research I realized that the guidelines I provided lacked critical information on how to select words for the lexis notebooks. This led to the difficulties that my student participants were having.

To mitigate this problem, my tutees and I worked out the issues via chats on Kakao Messenger. During the first week I received numerous messages regarding the vagaries of the guidelines that I had provided for the project. As it turned out, they were not familiar with the guideline format that was provided or with how to use the online tools required for the research. The students were confused so they needed more time and assistance to get familiar with the research process. My point here is, make clear guidelines and provide clear directions that will help participants to provide the right type of helpful data for your thesis.

Another tip for you to consider is to not feel too self-consciousabout collecting your first bit of data.

As mentioned above, it took a while for my students to become familiar with the guidelines for the notebook project. I had to be patient and give them some time to get used to the format. During the second week, I remained patient with the participants but I was worried that they would lose interest in the lexis notebook project. Therefore, I tried to encourage and commend them for work done. I also tried to provide assistance with using various types of tools for collecting data or informing them about the online tools that I had used to compile data for my own lexis notebook. I did all of this because most of the participants had difficulty dealing with the lexis notebooks. Roughly, two-thirds of my students chose their words with a conspicuous lack of context, filled in too much information or, they chose words simply because they were highly frequent words according to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

It took two weeks of tutoring to get my tutees up to speed on the lexis notebook project. My point is, if you are going to be collecting qualitative and longitudinal data like the one I did, you should be prepared to go through a rough patch and you should be resolved in your approach. There is no option except to keep pushing forward.

My final tip is to have fun performing the experiment with your participants.

For fiveweeks, I met with each of the participants for at least 20 minutes. Students asked questions about graduate school life and about their future job prospects. One student in particular seemed to love sharing

and talking learning languages during our tutoring sessions. My sessions with her often lasted for at least an hour and a half.

Initially, meeting individually with 15 students for 20 minutes – 300 minutes or 5 hours – each week was not easy. It was not easy to set the meetings during the first two weeks. Sometimes I even forgot to attend a tutoring session and had to reschedule the meeting. It was not until the third week that I was able to get a handle of the tutoring schedule. Even then, the fifth week was really difficult to manage because I had to balance the tutoring sessions with completing the final papers for my graduate courses. Still, even though it was difficult to manage my research, meeting with the students created several wonderful opportunities. After the experiment, one of the participants sent me a message telling me that it was the greatest experience she has had at school.

In the end, it had been hard work performing research and collecting data for my thesis but it has also been worth it. Even now, that the research is complete, I still regularly keep in touch and, I still have dinner with my tutees. Honestly, not having very much in the way of teaching experience, I was really worried about tutoring the undergraduate students in my advisor's class. However, if I had notbeen encouraged to do this research or if I had not conducted this research, I would have never experienced this wonderful opportunity. Thus, although it might feel painful to collect data or to conduct research mid-semester, I suggest you keep in mind that the whole process is still so brief that you really ought to take the opportunity to have fun with the whole experience.

WHY YOU NEED TO SLEEP:

The Importance of Sleep

Yujeong Kim

MA TESOL 1st semester

1. Importance of Sleep

A lot of people do not sleep because they do not have enough time to work, study, and even play. Although you may think that your body and brain work well without sleep, sleep is quite important for our health in many ways.

Before starting the explanation of the relationship between sleep and health, let us look at the recommended number of hours of sleep that people should get. Those who are over 22 should sleep at least seven hours a day for their mental and physical health. In addition, there are some questions that you can ask to test yourself about your sleep habits. Those questions are about whether you have sleep deprivation or not. You have to read through and check the ones that apply to you.

What are the signs of sleep deprivation?

1. Concentration difficulties
2. Mentally 'drifting off' during class
3. Shortened attention span
4. Memory impairment
5. Poor decision making
6. Lack of enthusiasm
7. Moodiness and aggression
8. Depression
9. Risk-taking behavior
10. Slower physical reflexes
11. Clumsiness, which may result in physical injuries
12. Reduced sporting performance
13. Reduced academic performance
14. More 'sick days' from school because of tiredness
15. Truancy

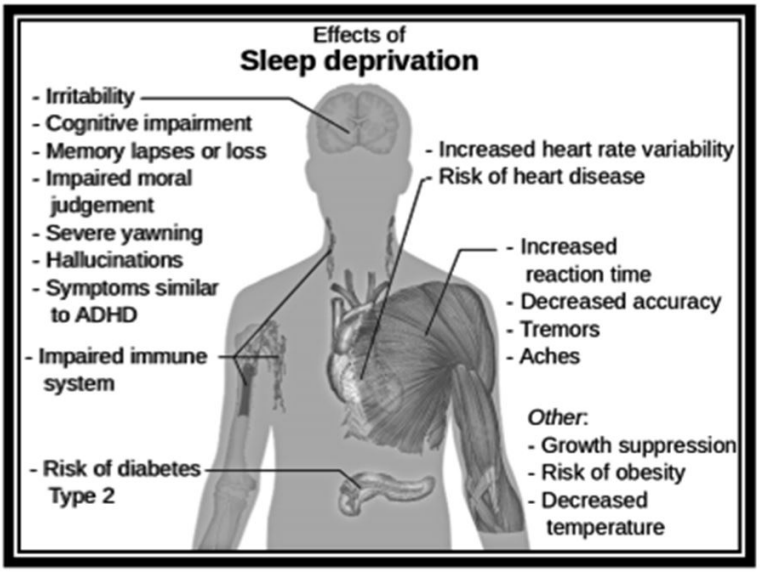
Sleep is important in our life in many ways. However, a lot of people do not sleep well because of their work and studies. The research below shows some phenomenon that occur when people get a lack of sleep. Therefore, for a better life and to improve the overall quality of our lives, we should sleep well.

After checking yourself, you have to decide whether you are lacking sleep or not. If you are lacking sleep, you should try hard to sleep for the sake of your mental and physical condition because sleep has a close relationship with your health as illustrated below.

2. Effects of sleep deprivation and tips for good sleep

2.1 Effects of sleep deprivation

Sleep has an important role in maintaining our brain and body condition. If you lack sleep, you might lose your memory. Also, you might be susceptible to some chronic diseases as you age because the number of hours of sleep you receive is related to predictors for atherosclerosis and for Hemoglobin A 1c, which is a clinical marker for blood sugar levels. Moreover, for healthy weight maintenance, you have to sleep enough hours every day. The effects of sleep deprivation are summarized below as a picture.



Effects of Sleep Deprivation (MIT Department of Athletics (2013))

2.2 Tips for good sleep

There are some tips that might help you to get more and better sleep. If you lack sleep, you have to read through and follow the steps below. I actually use six of the following ten steps and it really helped my sleep and finally my health.

First of all, you have to maintain a regular bedtime and morning schedule. Also, you have to follow these times during the weekends.

Secondly, you have to set a relaxing bedtime routine, such as taking a hot bath or shower or listening to soothing music.

Third, you have to create s sleep-conducive environment, which is dark, quiet, comfortable, and cool.

Fourth, you have to use your bed only for sleep which means that you have to move your bed if your bed is just next to your desk.

Fifth, you have to use your bed only for sleep. Some people use their beds for taking a rest or playing games, however you have to avoid this to help yourself get more sleep.

Sixth, you have to finish eating at least 2-3 hours before your regular bedtime. By finishing eating 2-3 hours before your sleep, your body can sleep in a more comfortable environment.

Seventh, you have to exercise regularly.

Eighth, you have to avoid caffeine like coffee, tea, soft drinks and chocolate before you go to bed.

Ninth, you should avoid alcohol before you go to bed because alcohol disturbs normal sleep patterns by decreasing the amount of time people spend in REM sleep, which is important for memory, concentration, and motor skills.

Lastly, you have to practice relaxation techniques throughout the day. With this, you can fall asleep more quickly.

By following the tips above, you can improve the quality of your sleep. How about trying these starting today for your sleep, body condition, and health?

3. Conclusion

As stated above, sleep is quite important to your memory, body condition, weight maintenance, and health. All of your work and studies are done to improve the quality of your life. Therefore, you have to follow these steps and sleep well for a better quality life.

Do not lose the original intentions of your life: work/study well, live happily and live healthily, and use an important shortcut to achieve all of this: sleep well.

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STAYING HEALTHY DURING THE SEMESTER

Annami van der Merwe

MA TESOL 3rd semester

We are busy and lead stressful lives during the semester, juggling homework, assignments, work and other obligations. Most of us get sick during the semester. Usually more than once. We get set back by the common cold and even the nasty flu. Some students even get hospitalized during the semester. Stress and bad eating habits are major contributors to our weakened immune systems. Stress affects our emotions, sleeping patterns and leaves us with nasty headaches and a general feeling of tiredness

Stress is a hard thing to control and keep at bay since there are so many contributors in our daily lives. We all have our own ways of dealing with stress, for example regular exercise. However, as graduate students, we donot always have the time or energy to eat regularly and healthy. Stress eats away our vital vitamin B supplies. There are eight types of vitamin B, of whichfive are especially important for the healthy balance in our minds, brains and bodies. Vitamin B1, thiamine supports the nerve system and aids memory and concentration as well as regulates moods and energy levels (www.naturesway.com.au). Vitamin B3, niacin supports the nerve and digestives systems and regulates moods as it fights depression, stress and general irritability while maintaining energy and blood sugar levels (www.naturesway.com.au). B6, pyridoxine helps the body to manage stress and supports the immune system (www.naturesway.com.au). B9, folic acid regulates energy and aids cell rejuvenation and growth where B12, cyanocobalamin supports brain functions and regulates moods (www.naturesway.com.au). When we have a vitamin B deficiency, we can feel the effect it has on our bodies. As the semester progresses, we feel more tired, irritated and have to battle to concentrate at times, apart from getting sick and getting more stressed because of it. Stough et al. (2011) found that vitamin B supplements improved their test subjects' personal strain in regards to work stress. Their findings were also consistent with other studies. They found that their subjects experienced a decrease in depression and anger and showed mood and fatigue improvements. Test subjects further-reported improvements in regards to perceived stress.Stough et al. (2011) also argue that vitamin B will help ease work related stress and is further important for personal, organizational as well as societal health. A good vitamin B complex supplement can then help support our bodies' needs.You can easily get them at your local pharmacy or online food and health shop. However, vitamin supplements do not always provide us with enough support as we as graduate students need more vitamins than the general consumer does. The best way is still nature's way, through eating healthy and consistently.

Table 1: Vitamin B foods. B Food

B1	Fish, nuts, seeds, grains, green peas and pork.
B3	Beetroot, fish, seeds and beef liver and kidney, chicken breasts.
B6	Bananas, beef liver, tuna and chick peas.
B9	Green vegetables such as broccoli, spinach and dried chick peas, lentils and beans and citrus.
B12	Fish, meat, poultry, eggs and dairy.

Adapted from naturesway.com.au and healthbeckon.com

Even though it is hard to cook and eat healthy with our busy schedules, it stays important to plan ahead and prepare. Most of the foods listed in table 1 can be turned into healthy snack options. Bananas are available throughout the year in the majority of grocery stores, even convenient stores. Nuts and seeds can be bought in bulk at most big grocery chains. Individual, pre-mixed nut snacks are also frequently available, but not very cost effective. Most balanced Korean dishes include a source of fish and/ or meat and some vegetables. Dried vegetables, chick peas, lentils and peas also make and easy and healthy study snack. Yogurt is a good source of dairy and can be kept longer than milk. Boiled eggs can be prepared at home or bought at grocery stores. A planned trip to the grocery store or an online order can prepare you for those busy, rushed and stressful days. Keep snacks in your bag, maybe not the banana, to have something healthy on hand. Of course, vitamin supplements do not hurt and should be taken in conjunction with eating healthy. Furthermore, when you feel past your expiration date, most local doctors offer a vitamin IV, but as it is pricey and not the solution it should not be used as a last resort.

As our minds and bodies are crucial to a successful and healthy semester, let us try to keep our bodies a priority as we do with our grades.

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FIVE TIPS TO SURVIVE BEING A WORKING MOM AND MASTER STUDENT

Eunjin Jeung

MA TESOL 3rd semester

People address a married woman as madam. Well, if you have a job and a child, you can also be called a superwoman. At some time, we began calling every working mom a superwoman in Korea. A Korean working mom does not live the easy married life under the influence of Confucian culture. Unfortunately, many women abandon their career after getting married or childbirth. For that reason, my friend called me a superwoman, but Ijust call myself crazy. I am a working mom, wife, daughter, sister, friend, and TESOL MA student. There are days that I think about what a bad mom I am for spending less time with my daughter.There are days when I question what this degree will really ever do for me. Every single day I felt so guilty about not being the best English teacher I could be.

Last fall semester was the hardest time for me. As soon as one semester was over, I was looking for a babysitter, reducing my work hours, purchasing books, andsaving money to register becauseI always had to plan ahead to return the next semester. However, Six months ago in August, my daughter Min-Jeong (right) broke her arm and underwent two big operations. She needed three months of intensive hospital treatment. Moreover, when I went to work, she experienced trauma and separation anxiety. The next month in September was the first time that I was trying to juggle being a working mom and a graduate student.Put yourself in my position. What would you do at that time? It was difficult, but I was resolved to keep going and not give up. I started both my daughter's hospital treatment and my 3rd semester at the same time.

People keep asking me how it feels to be finally finished after the last semester. Honestly, I do not really know how I did it. One thing is that being a TESOL MA student and working mom is a completely different experience. Being a working mom and a graduate studentrequires a lot of juggling such as usually opting to wash the dishes instead of do the assignment.It made me think about how I survived being a working mom and TESOL MA student during the semester. This can pose quite the challenge for a working mom of a young child in Korea. Take a look at my five tips for balancing work, parenthood, and being a TESOL MA student based on my personal experience.

1. Be realistic

This was probably the hardest lesson for me. It was tough seeing so many of my classmates doing very well and turning in great assignments while I was concerned about my daughter. The most painful thing is thatI had to leave my injured daughter

in a daycare center while I went to work. I had to constantly remind myself of our differences. My classmates did not have the responsibilities I had. I must admit Icould not have done as well without my husband's help. Being a working mom, wife, and student was not easy to do at the same time. It was impossible to give 100% to each of my responsibilities all of the time.

I did what I could, when I could. I shared housework with my husband and we divided the childcare schedule. I tried to never skip a class and submit my assignments on time. Every weekend, I had to spend a day away from my family to finish everything.

과 목 : DISCOURSEANALYSIS
교 수 : 벤 블랙
일 시 : 수18:20~21:00(순헌관612)

출석/ 지각/ 결석 : 15/ 0/ 0

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15. 2016-12-14 (수)	2016-12-14 18:10:03	

TOP

(My attendance last semester)

2. Have a support system

I could not have finished my last semester without my support system: my parents, husband, daughter, and friends. There were so many times when I wanted to quit and give up – they encouraged me to keep going. In addition, toward the end of the semester, when things got hectic, I really needed someone who could help with cooking, cleaning, and caring to Min-jeong. Of course, there were moments when I felt guilty and selfish. However, I could not finish the semester without my support network.Therefore, I communicated with my husband, family, and friends about my goals, got their support, and let them know how important my MA class is to me.Remember that you are not alone.

3. Have a detailed schedule

In retrospect, my TESOL MA classes were a race against time. It was not impossible to study becauseI am married. I tried to manage my time systematicallyand the most effective way was to use a schedule diary. I arranged the schedule for my daughter and myself and stuck to it. If I scheduled studying for 10am to 6 pm on Saturday and Sunday, then I did exactly that. However, there will be times when you just have to get some assignment done around your child. Therefore, a working mom needs to plan time to concentrate on studying because a mom's time is not their own. As a working mom, you must carve out time in your schedule where you are uninterrupted by your child. The best times are often early in the morning or at night while everyone else is asleep. That is a great opportunity for you to focus on studying and your job.

My schedule diary

4. Include your child

Sometimes, I enjoyed shopping with my daughter around Sookmyung Women's University. My daughter especially liked the Sookmyung snowflake character (눈송이). I bought a lot of snowflakes on my way to school and gave them to her. I asked her to draw the snowflake or I allowed her to purchase as many snowflakes as she wanted. So I set my daughter up with some fun snowflake related activities (using snowflake Post-it notes, writing on snowflake notes, role playing with the snowflake character). These activities gave my daughter a nice memory of mommy's studying and she liked to do homework. Doing my MA has made a positive impression on my husband too. He realized that mom can set a good example for our daughter's study habits. He often tells our daughter that she will have to study hard just like mom.

5. Change your habits

Most days, working mom students probably only have a tiny amount of time to dedicate to studying. As working moms, you have to find time to hit the books.First, do not multitask. Usually, working moms want to do everything at the same time. They are trying to study while they make dinner, check their email, and help their kids with homework. Multitasking makes you obsess about time. So stop trying to multitask and list your priorities. It is a more effective form of time management. Second, shut out social networks. Even if you abandon Facebook and Kakao Talk for the semester, nothing bad will happen. Close your SNS and do not open them again until you have finished your study session.Reading news, watching Web toons, and posting tasty desserts may reduce your stress, but it does nothing for your grade.It is best to stay offline completely while you study, but if your studying requires the internet, stick to only the sites you need.

I hope these five tips can be of help to other working mothers who choose to pursue a master's degree. I want you to get the most out of those precious minutes with these tips to help you maximize your study time.

FINAL PAPERS

CALL Implementation for Listening Comprehension

Educational Potential of Podcasts in Listening Comprehension Development

Jinhee Lee
Internet Based Language Teaching

Since listening is a key second language skill and it has a crucial role in the process of language acquisition, how to develop learners' listening skills is one of the main concerns of language teachers. Thanks to advanced digital technology, there are lots of online sources for language learning these days. One of them is podcasts. There has been a growing interest in podcast use in second language acquisition, especially for the development of listening comprehension. The main concern of this paper is to investigate the educational potential of podcasts for listening comprehension through the development of listening strategies.

1. Introduction

Listening is a key second language skill and it has a crucial role in the process of language acquisition. According to Richards (2008), listening is an essential aspect of communicative competence and the most frequently used language skill. Listening is also the most important skill for language learning, because it is the most widely used language skill in normal daily life (Morley, 2001; Rost, 2001). Therefore, the development of listening skills is one of the main concerns of second language learners.

Traditional language education has usually neglected the importance of listening skills and assumed that it was just a passive skill which could be acquired by simply listening to conversations repeatedly (Greenleaf, 2011). Because of this assumption, in the past, language education focused on written language, such as reading and writing, and there were not many sources for listening comprehension development, which made it difficult for second language learners to strengthen their listening ability. Over time, however, there has been a growing interest in communicative skills and the trend of language learning has changed and educators have had second thoughtsconcerning the importance of teaching listening. Now it is believed that listening ability plays a significant role in second language acquisition and in the development of other language skills. In addition, due to advances in digital technology, ways of teaching language itself has greatly changed over time. Nowadays, there are lots of online sources for language learning. One of them is podcasts.

A podcast is an audio file available on the Internet that can be automatically delivered to a personal computer, an MP3 player, or a cell phone (Carvalho, Moura & Cruz, 2008).Podcasts are gaining popularity among linguists and language teachers for their educational potential and it was found that using podcasts to teach language could be both entertaining and educational. Now language teachers can use various podcasts as an effective teaching tool for their lessons, especially for learners' listening comprehension. Vandergrift (2007) mentioned that "listening comprehension lies at the heart of language learning." As mentioned above, listening comprehension is a

vital skill for language success but most L2 learners have trouble understanding what they hear due to their lack of listening strategies. Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. Brown (2007) argued that listening strategies may play a key part in the acquisition of listening skills in order for second language learners to succeed. Since learners receive so much important input aurally, they should work to develop aural proficiency skills and strategies to help them manage the listening comprehension process (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Hauck, 2005).

I am personally interested in using technologies for language learning and teaching. While taking IBLT course, I learned that podcasts are being used as a teaching tool for developing learners' listening skills but I am not sure about the effectiveness of its use. In addition, English education in Korea mostly focuses on reading and writing, so listening skills in language teaching have been relatively neglected.As such, instruction for effective listening strategies is usually not a part of the ESL curriculum. For future use, I would like to investigate the importance of listening strategies and the advantages of using podcasts as a L2TL tool for improving learners' listening skills, especially for developing listening strategies.

This paper is going to investigate the potential benefits of podcasts on learners' listening comprehension to see if academic podcasting could help learners develop their listening strategies and hence improve their listening comprehension ability. In short,I'll review 8 previous research articles to find answers to the following research question:

• Do podcasts help second language learners to improve their listening skills by developing listening strategies?

This paper starts witha literature review on listening strategies and the pedagogical value of podcasts. After that, the literature review on podcast use for listening comprehension and listening strategies will follow. From the literature review, the answers to the research question will be found as will the implications for second language listening classes, whichwill be described in the discussion section. Finally, the last section, the conclusion, sums up all the previous parts of the paper.

2. Literature review

The goal of this literature review is to figure out the importance of listening strategies in improving listening ability and the pedagogical potential of podcasts in second language teaching and learning, especially for listening comprehension, by developing listening strategies. From the results of previous research, the answer to my research question will be found.

2.1. Listening strategy use and listening ability

Park's (1997) study investigated the relationship between listening strategy use and listening ability. He makes a supposition that when considering the importance of language learning strategies in L2 proficiency, L2 learners' use of listening strategies may facilitate listening ability. Park wanted to find out the possible effects of listening strategy use on listening ability so, with 51 Korean college students, he enacted a research project. The subjects of the research had been studying English for at least six years so they were assumed to have enough English proficiency to take the TOEIC test and use specific listening strategies to facilitate their listening ability. In order to determine students' listening ability, the TOEIC was used. Based on their TOEIC scores, the subjects were classified as beginning to advanced students. Their scores ranged from 80 to 845 and their ages ranged from 19 to 29. Park also developed a self-report questionnaire, the Strategies for English Listening (SEL), to assess the variety and frequency of students' use of listening strategies. The subjects were divided into four groups according to their scores on listening strategies.

The main concern of this study is to investigate the relationship between students' use of listening strategies measured by the SEL and their listening ability assessed by the TOEIC L/C. Park (1997) found that the mean scores of the TOEIC L/C of each group increased in accordance with the increase of the mean scores of the SEL of each group, which shows there is a significant relationship between listening strategies and the TOEIC L/C. It indicates that students' use of listening strategies is related to their listening ability, and this relationship is linear. This result is in accord with O'Malley and Chamot's findings (1989), which show that effective listeners used more listening strategies, such as self-monitoring for checking comprehension, inferencing for using information in

the text, and elaboration for relating new information to prior knowledge, than less effective listeners did. Park's findings (1997) also suggested that strategy training be conducted in classrooms to help students improve their listening skills. The importance and effectiveness of strategy instruction is going to be addressed in the next study.

2.2. Strategy instruction for improving listening skills

Carrier (2003) hypothesized that targeted listening strategy instruction in the ESL classroom leads to improved listening comprehension that can be useful in English language learners' academic content classes. To test this hypothesis, she conducted a study with the research question, 'Does listening strategy instruction in the ESL classroom improve students' listening comprehension of oral academic content material of the type that they encounter in their academic content classes?'.

The participants of the study were 7 intermediate high school students aged from 14 to 17 in a U.S rural high school. Two pretests were given to participants for the measurement of their discrete, or bottom-up listening skills, and video listening, or top-down listening skills. After pretests, participants attended 15 class sessions of targeted listening strategy instruction over a 6-week period in addition to their various academic content classes, such as English literature, biology, etc. The sessions focused on strategies for developing discrete listening skills, video listening skills, and effective note taking, which is a significant skill for effective listening. Through the sessions, participants learned listening strategies explicitly based on Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) recommendations regarding explicit strategy instruction. The strategies participants learned previously were discussed again for them to use for more effective listening and opportunities to practice the strategy for different kinds of oral text were also given. Finally, after strategy training sessions, two posttests were conducted to remeasure the participants' discrete listening skills and video listening and note-taking skills. The format of the posttests was the same as the pretests. For the discrete skills test, the number of correct responses to the questions was used as a measurement and for the video listening test, the number of correct facts about the video was used.

Carrier (2003) found that both the discrete listening tests and video listening tests showed a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores, in a positive direction. The results showed that explicit listening strategy instruction improves participants' discrete listening ability and their video listening and note-taking ability, and therefore enhance their academic listening ability so that they can comprehend oral academic content classes better. There are some illustrative examples which show how listening strategy instruction benefits students in the study. First of all, bottom-up listening instruction helps students to distinguish the difference in sound between can and can't. After specific strategy instruction, the participants improved their ability to distinguish the difference between what previously had been a very difficult combination to decipher. Another example is about the top-down strategy instruction for teaching strategies for selective attention to word stress. The participants were able to focus their listening on the stressed words and phrases after realizing the fact that the important information in an utterance is stressed. The participants' improvement in taking notes and constructing meaning from those notes was also closely related to their success in improving their video listening since effective note taking enable them to guess at meaning in a post-listening review of notes. Note-taking strategy instruction helps learners to develop their own abbreviations and symbols for faster note taking. It also helps them to realize that meaning can be constructed from key words rather than entire sentences.

2.3. The impact of focused listening strategies on the listening-comprehension

Kary and Mauricio (2010) did an action research with 25 students at the B2 level of proficiency according to CEFRL (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment) in order to see if the teaching of focused listening strategies could improve L2 learners' listening comprehension performance. The students showed low levels in listening comprehension not corresponding to their level and Kary and Mauricio thought that this was because the students had never been taught any focused strategies, which could be effective for understanding English.

This action research was divided into three phases: the diagnostic phase, where students took a listening test and then answered a questionnaire about their test experience, the implementation phase, where some focused listening strategies to improve listening comprehension were introduced to students so that they could put those strategies into practice and

improve their self-confidence in doing these type of exercises, and the validation phase, where the students were given a validation test and completed a questionnaire about their opinion. The focused listening strategies introduced to the students were 'sensitive reception strategies', such as focusing on non-verbal communication, and 'focused reception strategies', such as paying attention to important details of what is being heard. These strategies were taught over four sessions and put into practice for execution, evaluation, and repair moments.

From the data analysis of the study, Kary and Mauricio (2010) found that teaching both sensitive reception strategies and focused reception strategies actually helped students to improve their listening comprehension and overcome their difficulties when listening to oral texts. Before the implementation of the strategies, most of the students were not aware of the existence of listening strategies and showed low self-confidence, stress and confusion. However, the validation test results showed that the implementation of the focused listening strategies had a positive impact on students' listening comprehension performance since 23 out of 25 students reached the B2 level after learning listening strategies.

From the results of the three case studies above, it is clear that teaching and using listening strategies is effective for improving learner's listening skills. The significant relationship between listening strategies and listening ability in those studies clearly supports the importance of strategy use in second language listening comprehension. Now, a literature review on the pedagogical potential of podcast will follow.

2.4. Pedagogical potential and advantages of podcast use

Podcasting is one of the most dynamic, powerful, emergent technological approaches in facilitating language learning, especially for listening skills. According to Hasan and Hoon (2013), podcasting is a novel tool being exploited by language teachers to deliver educational content and to encourage learning outside the classroom. There are several researches who have sought to determine the effectiveness of podcasts on ESL students' language skills and they already acknowledge its pedagogical potential and suggest that podcasting greatly helps learners develop various English languageskills, especially in developing learners' speaking and listening skills. Since podcasting provides students with a means to get access to authentic listening materials, it helps students to learn language in real, meaningful, authentic situations. Smidt and Hegelheimer (2005) found that using authentic Web-delivered video enhances listening comprehension. Such diverse authentic materials may also draw students' interest and this interest can motivate learners to enjoy listening to podcasts and show willingness towards this new technology in developing their language skills (Li, 2010). In fact, podcasts have the potential to create both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation among students (O-Bryan and Hegelheimer, 2007). Students can have intrinsic motivation while doing interesting and challenging tasks using podcasts and can find rewards through the enjoyment of the experience. Extrinsic motivation is achieved through the receipt of high grades or praise as a reward for learning, on the other hand (O-Bryan and Hegelheimer, 2007). Furthermore, the use of podcasts reduces students' anxiety because it makes it possible for students to practice listening in a self-directed manner and at their own pace. Even if they miss a class, students can review the lesson using a podcast and if there is anything they do not understand, students can also listen to the podcast multiple times until they achieve a better understanding. It motivates students to improve their listening skills without being afraid of possible failure.

These findings from various researchers give insights into a practice of developing listening competence using podcasts as a second language learning tool. Now, two case studies by Fadda and Qasim (2013) and Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2009) will be described to look at more specific uses of podcastsin improving listening comprehension. Both studies are about effectiveness of podcast use for developing listening skills, but Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė's (2009) study aims more at examining learners' perceptions of the use of podcasts.

2.5. Podcast use for listening comprehension

Fadda and Qasim (2013) examines the influence of podcasting on the listening comprehension of 46 female Saudi EFL students in higher education. They tried to determine the effectiveness of podcasts for enhancing listening comprehension skills and motivation and to figure out students' attitudes towards using podcasts in EFL classrooms, in regard to listening comprehension through their study.

The randomly selected participants of the study were 46 female undergraduate English learners aged from

19 to 23 who attended English major courses and had studied English for at least six years before enrolling in the course. They had no experience listening or downloading podcasts before this study. The participants were divided into two groups: a control of 21 participants and an experimental group of 25 participants, and given a six-week treatment. The control group was given no special treatment whereas the experimental group received podcasts on their mobile devices. Both groups were studying listening comprehension with the same teacher and had taken a pre-test based on their course book before the experiment began. The participants in the experimental group were encouraged to work in groups to create their own academic podcast with the assistance of the researcher. The topics of the podcasts were selected from the students' syllabus and were related to listening strategies and functions such as making predictions, generalizing and expressing opinions, offering clarification, etc. Students wrote their own podcast episode scripts and they were recorded under the supervision of the researcher. At the beginning, only 10 students volunteered to create the podcasts, but by the end of the experiment, most students in the experimental group had been able to create podcasts on demand successfully. After the six-week treatment, all participants took a post-test. A T-test was employed to see the differences between the scores of the two groups and a questionnaire was employed as a post-project evaluation to measure motivation and students' attitudes towards using podcasts.

The result of the posttest shows a significant difference between the two groups' test scores. The experimental group (13.96) performed better than the control group (11.62). It indicates that the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of listening comprehension. From the result, it can be assumed that podcasting is effective for enhancing listening comprehension skills. By using a questionnaire, participants' motivation was measured and the result shows that the participants were generally positive from a motivational perspective. Lastly, based on a questionnaire, Fadda and Qasim (2013) found that the participants had a significantly positive attitude towards podcast-based learning. All these findings imply that podcasts can enhance students' listening comprehension and provide students with opportunity to be exposed to authentic conversations and to be motivated to learn language.

2.6. Learners' perceptions of podcast use and its effectiveness

Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2009) did a research project with the aim of examining learners' perceptions of using podcasts for online listening learning to improve listening skills based on the analysis of self-evaluation surveys.

The participants of the study were 1st year full-time students with two different specializations studying English for specific purposes. The students were asked to choose podcasts by themselves and listen to them outside the classroom. After two weeks, students evaluated their listening experience to podcasts and their performance by answering podcast-related questions in a specially designed questionnaire. They also wrote self-assessment entries in their weblogs to self-evaluate their listening skills.

The analysis of the self-evaluation data showed that more than half of the students assessed their understanding ability of the podcasts' content as generally good. In addition, nearly 70% of the students reported that they listened to podcasts as often as possible, which could imply that they liked using podcasts to improve their listening skills. This was partly because podcasts allowed the students to listen to them whenever and wherever they wanted and to do their homework at their own pace under non-threatening circumstances. The various topics available in podcasts also motivated the students to improve listening skills with authentic language use for specific purposes. Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2009) concluded that the use of podcasts raises students' language awareness by listening to authentic language use and promotes their motivation to learn a language, and hence enables them to develop listening competence.

From this research article, the use of podcasts for listening comprehension was proven to be effective by providing authentic input and also it can be assumed that podcasting promotes learners' motivation. The effectiveness of using podcasts for listening competence and learners' motivation is also addressed in Yeh's (2013) research, but Yeh (2013) also focused on the use of podcast for independent learning in his study.

2.7. Integrating podcast into English class for extensive listening

Yeh (2013) tried to find out the effectiveness of integrating a podcast learning project into an English

class to promote extensive listening and students' independent learning. He hypothesized that podcasting can provide authentic language input outside the classroom and hence promote extensive listening and develop learners' autonomy in the learning process. Therefore, Yeh (2013) conducted a study with two research questions; 'how do EFL university students use online podcast resources for listening practice?' and 'how do they perceive the use of podcasting for educational purposes?'.

Participants of his study were 23 undergraduate students whose English proficiency levels ranged from low-intermediate to low-advanced. Yeh (2013) conducted this study in an English speaking and listening course and among the 23 students, 13 students were English majors and the other 10 were not, but all of them had never experienced using podcasts for language learning before. The study consisted of five sessions; an orientation session for explaining how to find and use podcasts, a podcast experience sharing session for facilitating peer learning and identifying podcasts which fit each student's interest and language level, a teacher-directed podcast session for exposing students to various online audio resources and ancillary learning materials, a daily writing session for developing students' autonomy in their learning, and finally, an oral presentation session for evaluating students' podcast experience.

The results showed that overall, the podcast experience project was successful. For the answer to the first research questions, the results revealed that the students reported their listening skills actually improved after the two-month project and that podcast use also provided opportunities to get new knowledge and information. They also reported that the use of podcasts was good for language learning since podcasts were easy to access and convenient so that they could use them at anytime and anywhere. As for students' independent learning, nearly two-thirds of the students reported that the project motivated them to learn English with freedom of choice, meaningful practice, and enjoyable experiences.

These findings imply that using podcasts as class material can provide authentic input and facilitate students' engagement with listening materials without limits of time and place. O'Bryan and Hegelehimer (2007) also conducted a study of integrating podcast into ESL classroom, but their study was more specific to listening strategy development using podcast as a part of a listening course.

2.8. Implementation of podcast in an ESL listening strategy course

O'Bryan and Hegelehimer (2007) attempted to integrate podcast use into the ESL class for developing listening strategies. They believed that podcasts had the potential to provide a rich source of input and also to transform instruction. On the hypothesis that podcast use can transform classroom instructionwhen students begin listening to language learning materials integrated into the curriculum, especially for listening strategies, O'Bryan and Hegelehimer (2007) conducted a study with international graduate and undergraduate students who had various majors and language backgrounds.

The target ESL class of their study was a "strategies-based" (Cohen, 1998: 82) listening course which focused on describing and modeling strategies for students to use based on Cohen's (1998) suggestions. The instructor of this course had experience with CALL design and use, so she created all podcasts neededfor this course and assisted in re-structuring the course syllabus to facilitate podcast integration into the course. The students took this course two hours a week over fifteen weeks. They listened to fourteen specially designed podcasts. Two of them were video podcasts and the other twelve were audio podcasts, and these podcasts were assigned at specific points to coincide with the topics dealt with in class. All the podcasts were on the course weblog so that the students could listen to them at anytime and anywhere. The students were asked to complete a task or quiz about what they had learned after listening to each podcast to assess their listening comprehension of the podcast contents. For the first twelve weeks, the students got explicit listening strategy instruction with assigned podcasts. In the remaining three weeks, the students prepared to listen to academic lectures with assigned podcasts which helpedto remind them of academic and general strategies to use when listening to the lectures. Throughout the semester, the instructor kept a reflective journal and the students completed two interviews with survey questions about their podcast use experience and interactions with the podcasts.

By analyzing the reflective journal and interviews, O'Bryan and Hegelehimer (2007) found out that podcasts could reinforce strategy instruction through summarizing, modeling and practicing. Also, by providing both video and audio podcasts for input, students' understanding and retention of listening

strategies were actually improved. Besides that, the instructor-produced podcasts promoted student motivation, especially intrinsic motivation with interesting, authentic texts, which led to the improvement of listening comprehension.

3. Results & Discussion

Investigating eight research articles, I described the importance of listening strategies in improving listening ability and the pedagogical potential of podcasting for developing listening skills.

As for the relationship between listening strategies and listening comprehension, a literature review of three research articles was included. Park's study (1997) explored the possible effects of listening strategy use on listening ability. The findings from the study indicated that listening strategies were significantly related to the TOEIC listening comprehension and their relationship is linear, which means that the higher the students' listening ability, the more they used listening strategies. This significant relationship between listening strategies and listening ability in the study clearly supports the need for listening strategies in L2 acquisition. The need for strategy training and instruction for improving listening ability is also stressed in Carrier's study (2003). In her study, Carrier tried to find out whether listening strategy instruction in an ESL classroom was effective in helping prepare learners for comprehending oral academic content material in their academic content classes. The results of the study showed that through explicit listening strategy instruction, participants improved their discrete listening ability and their video listening and note-taking ability, and therefore enhanced their academic listening ability so that they could comprehend oral academic content classes better.Kary and Mauricio (2010) also did an action research to see if the teaching of focused listening strategies could improve L2 learners' listening comprehension performance and the results showed that teaching focused strategies actually helped students to improve their listening comprehension and overcome their difficulties when listening to oral texts. Practically, the results of these three studies imply that strategy training should be included in L2 curriculum to help learners to be more competent in their listening.

For the development of listening ability, podcasts are drawing attention as an effective L2TL tool and are being used in real classrooms. Research on podcasting pedagogy suggest that podcasts greatly help learners develop various English language skills, especially learners' listening skills. Podcasts provide language teachers with a myriad of authentic materials for teaching listening skills. In addition, the use of podcasts can create both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for learning a language and allow learners to develop their language skill in an unthreatening environment since learners can study language whenever and wherever they want and also at their own pace. Based on these positive effects of podcasting on language learning, four studies focused on podcast use for listening comprehension and listening strategies.

Fadda and Qasim (2013) studied the effectiveness of podcasts on listening comprehension by doing an experiment with EFL students in higher education. The findings of the study suggest that podcasts can enhance students' listening comprehension better than traditional classroom instruction by providing authentic materials and making students gain confidence in their comprehension ability in aural input overall. Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2009) also did a research project with the aim of examining learners' perceptions of using podcasts for online listening learning to improve listening skills and found out that most students had positive attitudes towards podcast use since it improved their listening skills with authentic language use. Yeh (2013) and O'Bryan and Hegelehimer (2007) attempted to integrate podcast use into their ESL classes. Yeh (2013) did an experiment to find out whether integrating podcasts into the classroom could promote extensive listening and develop learners' independent learning. The results from the experiment revealed that podcast use promoted extensive listening by providing authentic input and opportunities to get new knowledge and information. Also, podcast use had positive effects on independent learning by promoting learners' motivation with meaningful and enjoyable practice. O'Bryan and Hegelehimer's (2007) study focusedmore on listening strategy development using podcasts as a part of a listening course. They found out that the integration of podcasts into ESL classrooms helped students to understand and retain listening strategies they'd learned and hence improved their listening comprehension.

Taken together, the use of podcasts can help second language learners to be motivated to learn a language, develop listening strategies, and improve their

listening skills. Therefore, the answer to the research question of this paper could be "Yes, podcasts help second language learners to improve their listening skills by developing listening strategies."

However, two new issues which are equally important as the effectiveness of podcasting are raised here.

• How to decide what podcasts are beneficial?

• How is a podcast used most effectively for learners to develop listening strategies?

These issues are very important things to consider for language teachers before implementing podcasts into the classroom.

Constantine (2007) deals with the selection of the most beneficial podcasts and discusses how to maximize learning by using them. According to Constantine (2007), when choosing a podcast for educational purposes, teachers should focus on relevance and transferability. When a topic is relevant, the learner pays attention to it and then it increases learner's motivation (Morley, 2001). Transferability is often connected to relevance. Constantine explains the relationship between these two by mentioning that if students feel that the content is relevant, they are more likely to apply what they learned to other situations whether it is at school or out in the real world. Morley (2001) also argued that the best listening activities present in-class activities that mirror real life.

When it comes to listening strategies, Constantine (2007) explains that students will gain the most from podcasts when employing listening strategies to consolidate their learning. When teaching English listening with a podcast, he suggests that using seven techniques offered by Mendelsohn (1994) which could help learners to focus on any listening activity. The seven steps are listening for one crucial detail, listening for all the details, listening for the gist, listening for mood and atmosphere, listening for the main idea, listening to form hypotheses and make predictions, and listening to make an inference. By practicing these steps repeatedly with various podcasts, learners could develop listening strategies and hence improve their overall listening comprehension ability. Another innovative usage of podcasts suggested by Constantine (2007) is to having students listen to a podcast and read its transcript aloudat the same time. After that, students record the material on a cassette tape and turn it into the teacher. The teacher listens to the recordings and gives feedback to the students. In this way, the students will not only be able to develop listening skills but also to improve pronunciation, to develop fluency in reading and to acquire new vocabulary words.

4. Conclusion

Listening comprehension lies at the heart of language learning (Vandergrift, 2007) and that is why language teachers should pay more attention to listening ability as a necessary skill in L2 acquisition. To aid in listening ability development, podcasts are viewed as an innovative tool which could deliver educational content. The purpose of this literature review was to look into the importance of listening strategies in improving listening ability and to determine the pedagogical potential of podcasting to see if podcasting could be an effective tool for improving learners' listening comprehension. The results from the literature review show that listening strategies are important to improve listening comprehension and needed to be taught in ESL curriculums and that the use of podcasts can help second language learners to improve their listening skills. In addition, from these results, I realized that as teachers, we should help leaners develop their listening skills with appropriate strategy training and instruction and provide them with more authentic materials using podcasts which could both be used inside and outside of the classroom and therefore improve their listening competence.

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Portfolio of Assessment Practices for Korean 5th Graders in Content Based English Instruction

Rebekah Drews
Principles of Language Testing

Reflecting on assessment practices of 5th graders at a private elementary school shows that incorporating more formative assessments can be beneficial in instruction and tracking student progress. Building this portfolio shows the flaws in current summative assessment questions including multiple-choice questions. The adjustments in item choices provide more reliable and valid assessment of student knowledge for monthly content tests. Current formative assessments through reading and discussion can be improved upon with the addition of valid and reliable rubrics through student self-assessment. The portfolio also revealed the struggle in Science content based instruction through simultaneous goals for learning content and language. The solution can be rubrics designed with both types of goals with appropriate categories and descriptors during in-class activities, tasks, and experiments. These rubrics can be designed to be teacher-, self-, or peer- assessed

1.Teaching and student profile

I am teaching in a private elementary school. The goal is to teach English to students through content-based learning. The content that my focus is in is Science. We use authentic textbooks from the United States for the fifth-grade level with Macmillan/McGraw Hill Publishing. There are two levels of student textbooks with four levels of students. The non-abridged hard cover textbook is used with the upper two levels of students. The lower two levels use an annotated version of the textbook that is originally designed to be used as supplemental text for second language learners. However, the lower two levels only use the simplified text alone. There are eight classes, two classes for each level. 12-16 students are in each class. I meet them twice a week for Science with 40 minutes for each class. Once a week I meet the same level of students (two classes total) over sequential two-40 minute classes for non-Science related English that connects to the national curriculum standards that are far below the language students use for their content classes.

Some students also have parents that have English knowledge, but I have not investigated if any of them use English with their Korean parents at home. Some students also have parents that have English knowledge, but I have not investigated if any of them use English with their Korean parents at home. Some students also have parents that have English knowledge, but I have not investigated if any of them use English with their Korean parents at home.

The language objectives are very general for my class. I help students form their questions and answers during discussion. For written language, I guide them with either models they can emulate or for lower levels copy. Most students choose to alter the model I make. For experiment write-ups, I proved the format like a template on the board. The textbook is an authentic US curriculum Science textbook with a table of contents and goals for each lesson and chapter that meet Tennessee state standards. The test questions also meet those standards that are not relevant for my students. Therefore, for my classroom, I choose five chapters for the year that are topics that might also be covered in Korean Science class and adjust the content for the language levels and cognitive ability of my students. I have attached an example of the table of contents for the most recent chapter,

Chapter 12 Using Energy. I decided to only cover three lessons of the five in order to use experiments and allow time to use more deeper-level activities for the three lessons covering heat, sound, and light.

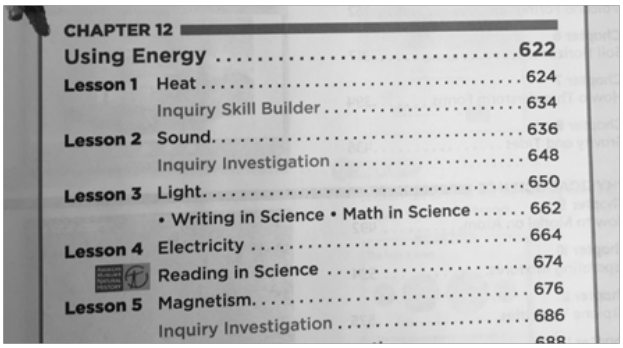

Figure 1: Textbook sample table of content

In general, for all the five chapters, I chose the content to cover. I have students form or repeat questions from the text or ones I add on a PowerPoint. I want students to practice asking the question forms with a reply that correctly answers the question. There can be two aspects of answering; one answer is based on correctness of content. The other aspect that I value more highly is understanding the question form in order to give a reply that answers the question even if not necessarily the correct content answer.

Since the students are Intermediate Mid to Intermediate High according to ACTFL guidelines, I expect students to gather content from the textbook and recombine information. This can result in odd forms but the meaning is similar. I scaffold students through feedback that the idea is correct and to guide them to accurate language forms. So the language goals for my students requires correct content but most of the language forms are guided through feedback either pointing to information on the board, textbook, or giving them chunks of language to use in forming their answer. I also have added language expressions that are commonly used in the classroom to point at when students are talking to each other or to me because my curriculum does not give much room for having tasks with common classroom talk. I provide language examples around the room as reference for them when they need it in real time.

Table 1: Evaluation criteria of weekly scores

Weekly Scores			
Attitude and Participation		**Homework**	
A+	100.00-94.49	A+	100.00-94.49
A	94.48-74.49	A	94.48-74.49
B	74.48-59.49	B+	74.48-64.49
C	59.48-0.00	B	64.48-59.49
		C	59.48-0.00

Table 2: Evaluation criteria of quiz and overall scores

Quiz Scores & Overall Grade Breakdown			
Total Grade Weight		Overall Grade	
Participation	20%	A+	100.00-89.49
Attitude	20%	A	89.48-79.49
Homework	30%	A-	79.48-74.49
Quizzes	30%	B+	74.48-64.49
Total	100%	B	64.48-54.59
		C	54.48-0.00

Students get a weekly participation and attitude grade, weekly vocabulary quiz grade, and a monthly content quiz grade along with the national curriculum test score and a general English test.

2. My beliefs on assessment in second language teaching

English language assessment should combine both formative and summative assessments. With regards to my content-based language teaching, test materials are provided with the textbook for summative assessments. They are practical once adjusted for the content covered in class. Summative assessments are also relevant to my teaching context as students and parents both rely on these scores for checking knowledge progress. The summative assessments are criterion-referenced tests. The criterion for the questions are based on content for the Tennessee statewide test (Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, 2010). Formative assessment through proper feedback is also a very important factor for communication and learning a second language (Jang, 2009). Feedback has also shown to be valuable for language development in a second language over studying abroad (DuFon, 1999). Students learned appropriate communicative language features that those studying in the natural environment did not obtain. Feedback can be given through assigned tasks to students (Bygate, Swain, and Skehan, 2013). The tasks are also based on negotiating meaning, having a real-world objective, and allows the instructor to monitor common language characteristics of each group in the classroom. The other group members and the teacher can both provide feedback to students during a task. Having students work together and be aware of their own language helps build their confidence and become better at noticing language errors. This is also part of my goal to help them become more autonomous in taking charge of their own learning.

My expectations for students rely on language and content knowledge from covered through class textbook readings, in-class activities, homework, weekly vocabulary quizzes, and digital media input in class. In-class discussions and our focus on specific content material is weighted in a similar fashion for the summative assessment. The formative assessments in my classroom have yet to be looked more closely and definitely not with tasks in the formal definition by Bygate et al. (2013) as well as Coombe, Davidson, O'Sullivan, and Stoynoff (2012). For formative assessments through in-class discussions, I adjust language expectations based on one of the four levels of students I am teaching. Nevertheless,I also realize that fifth graders whose first language in English will also struggle with vocabulary used in the textbooks. The informal assessments help me see where comprehension is a language issue and not a lack of attention.

I do not have a formal rubric for assessing students at the moment, but I would count language over content as more important for classroom discussions. I would also include a criterion for negotiating meaning, as I do not rely on students to create a well-formed answer alone. This means that I help students form the language they use with accuracy in partner question/answer time when there is an issue of intelligibility or communication (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin, 2010). However, for experiment write-ups if I were to make a rubric, I would give more weight to content correctness, but the language forms would also be important because I give them the skeleton of what to write. They should fill in information for correct content. In the future, I would like to create general rubrics for class discussion with warm up questions and text comprehension, experiment write-ups, and diagram/chart/study guide designs.

3. My current assessment practices

3.1 The validity and reliability of my current assessment practice

Summative test items that are criterion-referenced tests are more suitable for classroom environments as opposed to norm-referenced tests that rely on creating questions to produce about 50 percent of the test takers getting the answer incorrect (Brown and Hudson, 2002). The student textbooks that we use are from Macmillan/McGraw-Hill. They use criterion-referenced test questions based on Tennessee Standards for their statewide-standardized tests.

My students are not taking the Tennessee standardized tests so the standards that my own students have differ than the goals of the textbook target. There is validity in the test questions as it refers to content in the textbooks and other resources provided by the publishing company. The item reliability of test questions is also based on creating similar level answers. I will sometimes use the test question directly from the publisher and also adjust the language and content based on what I covered in class with my students.

What is matter?

A. anything that takes up space and has matter.

B. anything that takes up space and has volume.

C. anything that takes up space and has mass.

D. anything that takes up space and has buoyancy.

Figure 2: Adjusted multiple-choice test question

My students learned this vocabulary word, matter, but did not learn content related to the publisher's example of the answer choices. So I designed the answer choices myself. It was based on the criteria for knowing the definition of matter as we have already covered in class.

Non-multiple choice questions do not directly mimic the text word order so that it is testing student knowledge of the material.

4. What states of matter would be in a cup full of ice and water?

_____ and _____

Figure 3: Non-multiple choice question

The content validity of my questions is high as the questions directly reflect material from the text and other class materials and discussion. Yet there is always a need to be aware of washback effect. The content quiz should measure students are actually performing well on the test itself as a measure of language knowledge to appropriately answer the science content.

They are hopefully not knowledgeable of the test itself in a manner that reflects their ability to use the study guide to memorize noticeable words and by happenstance perform well (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996 as cited in Poehner, 2008). I try to prevent this by having a variety of question types like cloze with three "questions" with an answer box of four possible answers. If students have studied material, they would correctly fill in the blank, but if I gave a multiple-choice question, the students might be more likely to randomly pick an answer.

I can check reliability by examining multiple choice test items by looking at the choice distribution. I would check the number of students who answered for each item of the multiple-choice answers. A difficulty in measuring the reliability of this method is that the choice distribution might not be reflective in checking for reliability if I have designed a question that reflects content that was covered through instruction because most students would get the correct answer. Especially when we have the review days before the test, students perform better on the test. The final test this year, we were not able to have review days and the questions that were based on the Science experiments with free written responses had above 80% correct answers. So measuring reliability of item choices by distribution might be difficult if it is a question that many students are comfortable answering based on appropriate instruction and experience in class.

3.2 How the current assessment methods can improve

Currently I have been focusing on altering assessments to meet the language proficiency of my students. While I say this, there has not been a highly valid and reliable formal language test given to students to know their formal proficiency level. But through evaluating my assessment practice, I see that there is a void in actual second language goals for my students. Instructions given to me by my team leader, a non-Korean English teacher, was that the focus of teaching Science at the school was to get students to learn English through the Science text. My focus has been mainly on adjusting Science content but less attention to formally addressing language needs of my students. I do not have clear language goals in the syllabus for my year of instruction. There is not even a clear syllabus set out. I choose chapters according to the number of lessons I have before the "monthly" content quiz. This is the large quiz where all four subject areas are tested including 10 questions from Science.

Unfortunately, another issue with testing Science is that it is heavily vocabulary based. If students have memorized the textbook definition, then they are likely to answer the question correctly as seen below. This is testing the Science material based on criteria of the test information as learned in class from a given study guide. But as there is no preset language goal, this type of question does not necessarily probe student language knowledge in a communicative form. I had students make an entry for an example of a lexis notebook and then discussed with them if they see any difference or benefit to learning language with the information that we wrote compared to the typical way they learn vocabulary. Two students agreed that they could learn vocabulary and information a lot better with a lexis notebook but also remarked on how hard it would be to do that for all the words they want or are required to learn. I could make checking and sharing information from their lexis notebooks as part of assessment or their portfolio.

One way to address issues of language would be to provide incorporate more student background knowledge. While encountering many new vocabulary items from the textbook, students find a chapter difficult not based on concepts but based on a lack of understanding the vocabulary items. While I try to use reading strategies as a type of informal formative assessment in class, there might be a bigger issue at hand. Using reading strategies might be limited by vocabulary and background knowledge (Anderson, 1991). Choosing similar topics from their Korean Science class and the English Science class will provide student background knowledge from their L1. But the issue of criterion-related validity is brought up.

According to Akbari (2012), criterion-related validity is when a correlated test that has been previously tested is administered with a similar made test. The original test questions based on Macmillan/McGraw-Hill are based on criteria for a specific group of first language users of Science. I am trying to adapt the test questions to test second language users. I am not sure how valid my test would be for testing students on their knowledge of the second language proficiency if the criteria for a similar test is based on specific and non-communicative text. But the one or two students who do move to the United States each year, they would be assessed appropriately for the content they might be expected to know in those schools.

With reflection on the daily lesson plans, I can design test questions to reflect the content we have focused on. The amount of time we have spent on certain aspects of each lesson can also be reflected in the amount and depth of question types for the tests as well. This will be a reliable test for these students and I would continue to adjust yearly questions based on the students each year have used the content material for each chapter. Therefore, a reliable test of content would be reflected on the constructive validity of test content that matches instruction.

A solution to building up communicative language skills for my students is having tasks based on classroom content that is connected to the real world. Through these tasks, I can assess and give feedback to my students based on communicative language skills. In retrospect, I was always one step away from having an activity become a task. The tasks done on a weekly basis throughout the year could improve communication skills and language proficiency of my students.

For each lesson after starting this course in second language assessment, I see a great need for creating rubrics to reflect teacher, peer, and self-assessments of a variety of in class work students do in my Science classes.

Depending on the activity, I would either design exemplars in content or language and sometimes both with differing weight on each. By showing students the rubric before the task, students would know if they should focus on content or language accuracy on each activity. They would also be prepared to evaluate themselves, a peer, or be evaluated by the teacher (me).

4. Formative assessment

4.1 Formative assessment as instructional intervention

I give feedback to my students during reading comprehension questions, asking questions about background knowledge, experiments, and written work like summarizing and categorizing information with textbook evidence, real world evidence, or pictures/diagrams/charts. The current practice of formative assessment involves feedback with students as mentioned above. When there is an error in accuracy for answering a reading passage, I ask the students how they came to that answer. This type of feedback does not necessarily say yes or no if they are correct. It allows them to reflect on how they answered. This also ensures that students are not randomly guessing and saying words that they heard during the class. I have noticed a decrease in random guessing throughout the year. Students are quicker at pointing to sections of the text in order to support how they got an answer. I also allow other students to openly help each other during this reading comprehension time so that students are more open to answering instead of shutting down. As seen in the variety of reading assessment questions from Hubley (2012) I also incorporate a variety of questions to students through partner questioning or writing down an answer. In the past, students wrote their answers down in notebooks for each lesson's comprehension questions, but I have focused on assessing students reading comprehension through more dialogue first with their partner and then as a class. Giving feedback through these mediums allows me to focus on how the students process language instead of just getting an answer.

I use a lot of formative assessment through readings and discussions in class, but I am also interested in incorporating tasks as seen in Leung and Mohan (2004).

4.2 Using a rubric as part of formative assessment

4.2.1 My assessment practices and beliefs connected to an adapted rubric

One reading rubric I found can be used for having students assess themselves during the partner readings. I would adapt this to partner reading since I am not having students do independent reading. I have a script and directions for how to do partner readings so I could use the rubric for students to self-assess if they met all the criteria for partner reading.

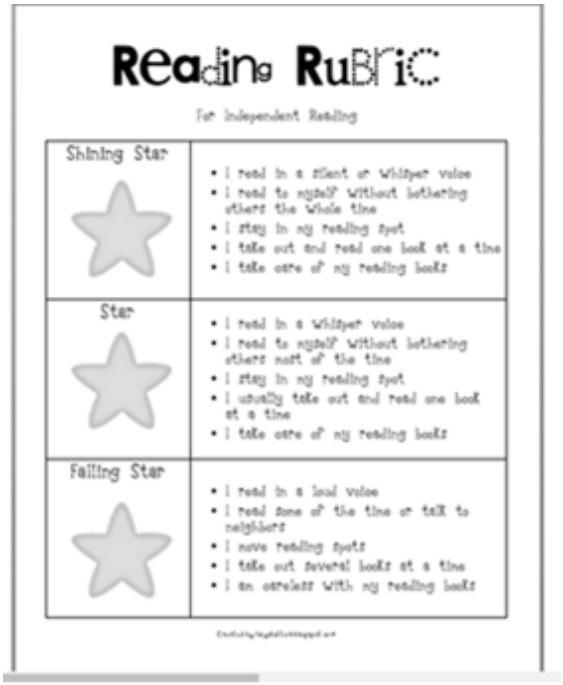

Figure 4: Example rubric from Lacy's Letters, 2013

Adapting this rubric for partner reading is only a minor part of having students monitor their partner reading skills. As students continue to build more partner reading skills like finding/creating the main idea, rephrasing, etc. the rubric can reflect how they are progressing. Students can discuss with each other as well as I monitor on agreeing on their partner's self-assessment. This will provide feedback on what the expectations are and how one is doing. This rubric follows my beliefs of assessment as students can take control of their own learning. This assesses how much the students have chosen to participate in the reading performance. This also includes features to include feedback with their peers and from me, the instructor, as part of instructor intervention. Once students show they continually succeed, they are ready to learn more ways to monitor their reading abilities. This connects to the summative assessments, as an increase in reading comprehension will allow students to learn better for the monthly content quiz. Making connections to within the text will also help them understand the science concepts better. I have noticed that the students naturally want to

Reading Rubric For Partner Reading	
Shining Star	o As the reader, I read quickly and accurately the whole time. o I re-read the sentence every time the coach told me to immediately without complaining. o As coach, I listened for all the careless mistakes. o I did not ask the reader to read again for a non-careless mistake. o I read every word with the reader. o When I asked the reader to read again, I was always quick and polite.
Star	o As the reader, I read quickly and accurately most of the time. o I re-read the sentence most of the time the coach told me to without complaining. o As coach, I listened for most of the careless mistakes. o I did not ask the reader to read again for a non-careless mistake. o I read most words with the reader. o When I asked the reader to read again, I was always quick and polite.
Falling Star	o As the reader, I read the passage/text. o I did not re-read the sentence the coach told me to easily. o I had four or more careless mistakes. o As the coach, I did not follow the reader. o I made two or more mistakes asking the reader to read again because it was not a careless mistake. o I tried to make the reader read again for fun while not paying attention to the line they were reading.

Figure 5: My adjusted rubric for student self-assessment

separate each lesson in a chapter mentally as they expect me to give them the information they have to memorize. However, while trying to teach students to connect ideas is a challenge, self-assessment rubrics will allow the students to engage more in classroom activities and tasks.

4.2.2 Validity, reliability and practicality of this rubric

The practicality of using a rubric for each student of eight classes will be a challenge so having this rubric be self-assessed by the students on non-language tasks makes it very practical. Unfortunately, this rubric is not an informative assessment for student language learning but more for the skill they are developing for language learning. Therefore, if I were to use this rubric to test their language skills, it would not be valid. I would need to find another rubric to use as part of formative assessment during language tasks.

The reliability of this assessment is based on being specific about how good is good. I think providing feedback to students on how they are performing during partner reading in hopes to develop reading skills depends on more concrete details that are being evaluated. The rubric above shows clear expectations that match the script/cue card given to students as they were trained for peer reading. They also use these cards every time they do partner reading.

On the other hand, a drawback for using this rubric is that it is not very clear on how effective the formative assessment will be for language development from the validity perspective. Black and William (1998) had a very vague definition of formative assessment (as cited in Dunn and Mulvenon, 2009). I need to assess student language use and not so much just learning of a skill to learn language.

As mentioned earlier, I would like to design rubrics for speaking, reading comprehension, and work done in class that involves summarizing or re-combining

information from the text that needs categories for language accuracy for writing, visual appeal for drawings and mind maps, and correct information in content.

To provide a more specific goal in using formative assessment for a second language classroom, I should assess students during a task. Designing tasks that meet the needs of my students through Science will also allow me to incorporate a rubric for including more formative assessment. Depending on how students do on the formative assessment, I can adjust the teaching focus to provide more aid or to continue to more language development. I will increase validity in assessing student language knowledge through tasks that rely on communicative language. I can increase reliability of the rubric if I create a rubric that assesses the necessary language to reach the task goal. Practicality of this rubric might decrease depending on how long the task is. Instead of only me assessing students, I can also include a component of reflection after the task to give feedback to students in written form or talking about it in class.

5. Communicating student progress

Currently, students give their content quiz to their parents for a signature. Once a semester, two in a year, I give about 4-5 sentences of feedback of the student performance. If I record information about each student during tasks, I can provide sufficient feedback to parents about the language ability of the students. I can be more confident in providing language knowledge and development through multiple formative assessments in supplement to the summative scores the parents will see on the report cards.

I also think that designing rubrics as part of formative assessment with tasks through student self-evaluation and peer-evaluation will allow students to track their progress in the language and science-content development. Students can keep their own portfolio of feedback with the materials created from tasks to see how they have developed in the second language for the second semester of this school year. If I needed parents to see their work, I could also require a parent signature.

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The Improvement of Motivation through Creative Activity

Kim Yong Hwan
Creativity and Humanism in TESOL

This study is grounded on the assumption that creative activity can help students improve their motivation for language learning. In this research, mathematics was chosen as the main subject of creative activity because it has plentiful potential to provide numerous tasks to experience and develop creativity. 117 students consisting of 61 male and 56 female at Du-Il elementary school participated and their average age was about 11 years old. No homogenizing proficiency test to divide students according to their level was performed because this study was designed to delve into the general influence of creative activity on the motivation of the entire group of students. Students were randomly assigned to four different activities and after their first and second task, they were asked to fill in a questionnaire to show the degree of their favor toward English, while in activity 3 and 4, the participants were required to freely and anonymously describe their opinions about the creative activity. The overall results indicated that participants became more motivated after creative activity. Approximately 60% of participants changed their attitude in favor of English through creative activity in addition to the students being more productive. However, this study also revealed problems to solve such as a lasting pessimistic stance and the negative attitude of some participants after creative work.

1. Introduction

The current and future society where our children live and will live becomes more and more complicated, has heightened and heated competition, and is more unpredictable and exponential in technological change. This society will require an individual who can see the world with a new paradigm, take risks to deal with difficulties, and willingly connect unrelated notions using their imagination.

Creativity is at the center of resolving these kinds of problems. Various ways to define creativity have been tried, but it is still far away from complete agreement. Nevertheless, the five phases of preparation, concentration, incubation, illumination, and elaboration suggested by Guildford (1975) are widely used and approved by diverse researchers. In addition, the four components of creativity which include fluency to produce many ideas, flexibility to see from different perspectives, elaboration to improve an idea, and originality to be unusual give a clue to what creativity is as a process of becoming receptive to problems (Torrance, 1984).

Contrary to the promising expectation of creative activity to build the necessary features in students for the upcoming uncertain and wavering society, what is going on in the classroom tells a completely different story owing to several reasons. The typical culture of competition for university entrance frustrates those teachers who wish to innovate or allow students to work in groups creating ideas and projects. The entrenched habitual custom to regard just the delivery of information and knowledge as teaching and learning is also a barrier to creative activity.

Various efforts have been tried to deal with this sort of hindrance in diverse fields. In this research, mathematics was chosen as the main subject of creative activity because it has plentiful potential to provide numerous tasks to experience and develop creativity. By offering the process of finding useful combinations through forming, recognizing, and choosing important and useful patterns and rules (Henri Poincaré, 1948, 1956), mathematical creativity can enhance learners' motivation. "Creative potential is not fulfilled unless the individual (and his or her social support) is motivated to do so, and creative solutions are not found unless the individual is motivated to apply his or her skills" (Runco, 2005, p. 609).

The purpose of this research is to investigate the role of creative activities in the classroom and follow the next line of enquiry. First, recent research into mathematical creativity will be reviewed. Second, a study that examines how creative activity increases the motivation of children to learn and participate actively in the classroom will be presented. Third, a discussion and conclusion will follow.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Mathematical creativity: usage of technology

Idris and Nor (2010) try to clarify what mathematical creativity is and how technology influences creativity in mathematics. The researchers tackle this matter from three perspectives: 1) the definition of creativity and procedure 2) how to foster mathematical creativity in the classroom 3) the role of technology for creativity in teaching and learning mathematics.

While stating that no unanimous definition exists, they try to handle this situation by providing Guildford (1975)'s five phases of the creative process consisting of preparation, concentration, incubation, illumination, and elaboration, and Torrance (1984)'s four components of creativity comprised of fluency, flexibility, elaboration, and originality.

To apply to mathematics activity, mathematical creativity is defined as an ability to build hypotheses, determine mathematical patterns, to break from fixed mind sets, consider and evaluate unusual mathematical ideas, combine different concepts, and split general mathematical problems into specific sub-problems (Balka, 1974).

With this ability, a motivation problem represented as math anxiety arises which hinders mathematics learning but can be handled by reducing math anxiety and fostering creativity. As a solution, the authors claim that people are motivated and enthusiastic when they are curious and excited through instruction flexible enough to provide room for creativity to prosper, in which students play actively, not just in passive and receptive roles (Pal & Kathy, 1990).

2.2 The Frontage of Creativity and Mathematical Creativity

The authors of this study begin with the general definition of creativity saying that the transition of weight from creativity in art and literature to creativity in science adopts the concept of usefulness into the novelty of a creative idea, describing the definition of creativity from three aspects such as ability to generate new ideas, creative processes consisting of stages, and the final product. Creative activity is a dynamic mental process performing a balance of divergent and convergent thinking.

After conceptualizing creativity in general, the definition of mathematical creativity is dealt with by various investigators. The definition is as follows: generating mathematical concepts through combining activity (Ervynck 1991), divergent thinking, solving a problem with a known solution, solving an old problem in a new way (Ervynck 1991), "the process that results in unusual (novel) and/or insightful solution(s) to a given problem or analogous problems, and/or the formulation of new questions and/or possibilities that allow an old problem to be regarded from a new angle" (Sriraman, 2005, p. 23).

The characteristics of mathematics from this definition such as discovering unknown relations, harmonic combination, pattern forming, observing, and aesthetic instinct make mathematics proper subject where children can simultaneously foster their creativity and increase motivation.

2.3 Creative Language Teachers as Bridge Builders: The Value of Bisociative Thinking

In this literature, the writer tries to place an emphasis on bisociative thinking, which was neologized by Koestler (1964) as the establishment of a new matrix of meaning through the act of combining elements between previously unlinked matrices of thoughts, using the metaphor of the Golden Gate Bridge constructed by Strauss.

The researcher mentions creative language teachers should be able to endure bias from the conventional and habitual thinking of rutted people to achieve their goal like Strauss who overcame the prejudice of the people of his times. He focused on the importance of escaping automatized and routinized thinking and finding a synthesis leading to the emanation of new patterns of relations that have multiple and elaborate structures on higher levels of the mental hierarchy (Koestler, 1980), although coded and coherent thinking is necessary.

In addition to the characteristics of creative people such as "copy, transform, and combine old ideas, synthesize existing information, combine eclectic influences, remix material, build on what came before, and connect the seemingly disconnected" (Popova, n.d.), this literature also asserts that for teachers to be creative, they should be open to many situations, have a willingness to learn about various subjects and revisit what might seem familiar or evident, and the ability to build connections in novel way with new perspectives.

One last thing highlighted is the ability to be destructive-constructive and willingly throw out seemingly precious maxims and wrongly riveted doctrines and bring about a new synthesis.

This article approaches creativity from the perspective of bisociation borrowing mostly the concepts of Koestler. The janusian and homospacial process of Rothenberg (1995) and Mednick's (1962) associative theory overlap and share with the idea of bisociation.

This bisociative thinking activity can be used in class in various writing activities that connect unrelated or wholly different things on the basis of their favorite or random choices like the instruction of the present continuous, prepositions, and others.

During this activity, students can become aware that language learning is not just an acquisition of grammar or information but fun and seeing into new bondage and try a novel challenge beyond what is already engraved into conventional routines and hackneyed, old-fashioned ideas.

As mentioned above, studies have shown that creative activity has positive effects on motivation. However, there are few studies that have investigated the effects of different types of creative activities on improving motivation, especially in the Korean context. Therefore, the present study aims to answer the following research question:

1. How does creative activity affect the motivation of learners to participate in the classroom?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

This comparison between creativite activity and motivation was conducted with 117 participants consisting of 61 male and 56 female students at Du-Il elementary school in Paju, Korea. Their average age was 11 years and all students were in fourth and sixth grade. No homogenizing proficiency test to divide students according to their level was performed because this study tried to delve into the general influence of creativity activity on the motivation of students.

3.2 Tools

Four creative activities were used in this study.

Activity 1:

Students were presented with different shapes and chose five of the shapes following their own interest. They were asked what feeling they got from the respective shape. The children combined the feeling with color using their imagination and bisociation. Each shape was painted with color pencils and the words of their feeling were written beside each shape. Last, they wrote their reason for selecting each color in Korean, or in English for proficient students. Before and after the activity, students checked the questionnaire.

Activity 2:

Students were provided with numbers from zero to nine. They were asked to come up with anything related to the number from their own experience. If they knew an English word, they were asked to write that word, but if they did not know, they were allowed to use related words or drawings. One drawing from each student was shared with his or her peers. A questionnaire of participants' opinions about the creative activity was given before and after the activity.

Activity 3:

Students were provided with four different equations

◁ $1 > 4$

◁ $1 + 1 = 3$

◁ $1 + 1 = 1$

◁ $2 + 3 = 8$

Students were asked whether the four equations were right. Then, if they thought all the equations were wrong, students were asked "How can you make these equations correct?" With the equations not changed as constraints, students explore their brains to find proper conditions or situations that prove the equations correct. Students noticed that there is no right answer and they could produce any resolution in diverse ways from their own experiences. At the end of this activity, students were requested to write their free opinion.

Activity 4:

This activity asked students to identify a pattern. Numbers 3, 6, 9, and 12 were shown to participants. Students were asked, "Which number does not belong to this set?" with a condition that there is no one correct answer and that multiple ways to satisfy the question exist. After students come up with a specific answer to prove the question, they share their own reason to preclude a certain number. At the end of this activity, students were requested to write their opinion.

3.3 Procedure

The participants of this study were divided into four groups following their class fixed at the beginning of this year. Each group consisted of mixed levels of students from low to high intermediate. A proficiency test to homogenize the participants was not performed because this study is designed to investigate the general effects of mathematical creative activity on the motivation of diverse levels of students.

Students were randomly assigned to each activity and followed the aforementioned procedure described in each activity. With one condition that they could not change the question or equation presented as a constraint, no limitation was presented. Participants were encouraged to freely combine, bisociate, and search for patterns in different creative activities. Instructor made participants well aware that there was no right answer and many diverse ways from their experience and knowledge are better than conventional and entrenched ideas. They could ask each other and freely come to the teacher for a word that they wanted to express but did not know.

In activity 1 and 2, the participants were asked to fill in a questionnaire to show the degree of their favor toward English, while in activity 3 and 4, students were required to freely and anonymously describe their opinions about the creative activity after performing assignments.

3.4 Results

The results will be presented and discussed first as a whole and then in detail according to the relation between the degree of change.

Table 1: Change of Favoring Degree before and after activity 1 and activity 2

Degree of Favor	Very much	Much	Average	Not like	Dislike	Total
Before	16	13	16	7	6	58
After	25	13	16	1	3	58

As shown in Table 1, the overall results of the effects between mathematical creative activity and motivation indicated that participants became more motivated after the activity. Out of 58 participants, 24 students moved from a negative to a positive feeling.

It can be seen that 29 participants already had a good or very good feeling toward English and only four students from this group shifted to an unfavorable opinion while 16 children stayed in the same group. About 60% of all participants changed their attitude in favor of English after the creative activity. However, this study also showed that both eleven participants with an average feeling and three that disliked English continued their pessimistic stance, and four students with a good or very good feeling altered in the opposite direction.

In addition, the results of all activities showed that the participants became more productive. Even students who always avoid handing in their assignment willingly and gladly submitted their results. With this productive feature, they also showed the curiosity, confidence, enthusiasm, originality, broad interest, willingness to take risk, and receptiveness to new experiences represented by their attitudes about creative activities. The opinions of the participants are summarized as follows:

- This activity is interesting because I can solve the problem from various perspectives.
- Solving a problem while thinking is delightful.
- It made me think and is good for imagination.
- Later it will be helpful and broaden my thinking process.
- This activity helped me break away from fixed thought.
- It activates my brain a lot.

- We can share and gather ideas with friends.
- There are many more situations like this than expected and it is fun.
- I can think freely in this kind of activity.
- It is a new and exciting experience and we can solve problems while talking with friends.
- It gives me an opportunity to think creatively and differently.
- It makes me keep thinking and is not boring.
- I can attach any idea to a number.
- It makes me think with numbers and I can make a sentence with numbers.
- I can write and draw my thoughts.
- Creativity comes out of this activity and grows better and better.
- It liberates my thought and action.

4. Discussion

Observations regarding the behavioral patterns of the participants usually provide important clues as to the underlying cognitive and emotional processes involved during learning. Feasible relationships between cognitive and affective change and following performance can be inferred from differences recognized in behavioral patterns. The increased rate of participation, active communicating of ideas and voluntary coming to the teacher to ask an unknown word to complete and solve the presented problems indicated that the motivation of the participants was drastically escalated. Besides, the extended attention span and the intensified focus on the task reflected the raised interest of students.

The divergent thinking which is a feature of mathematical creativity (Chamberlin & Moon, 2005) intrigued the participants and liberated them from the entrenched and ordinary drudgery of mathematics that is usually regarded as a boring routine of repetitious formulas. The participants also liked that they can connect the mathematical concepts to some idea of their own way or use their experience and this is supported by Poincare (1948) mentioning that discovery in mathematics is a combination of ideas.

When the novel situation of mathematical problems which have no regular path or correct answer was introduced, they demonstrated cognitive features of creativity such as metaphorical thinking, visualization, coping well with novelty, logical thinking, finding order in chaos as well as affective traits including willingness to take risks, curiosity, perseverance, being internally occupied, and tolerance for ambiguity.

5. Conclusion

Mathematics can play a key role in encouraging creativity and motivation through its intrinsic characteristics that include divergent thinking, analyzing problems from diverse perspectives, observing patterns, and combining different concepts through visualization.

However, the current practice in schools is focusing on a scripted curriculum that represents accuracy, memorization of formula, speed, and skills, while ignoring the essential features of mathematics, falls apart, and is failing students in the classroom. As shown through this study, the way to bring life back to the school and students' minds is not delivering and cramming knowledge and information but rather helping and facilitating students in critical thinking, which requires teachers to withdraw from conventional and insipid customs and

to transform and move into new paradigms and perspectives.

By constructing an environment for creativity and carrying out creative activities in our classroom, students can acquire the characteristics of creativity such as bisociation, visualization, problem finding, divergent thinking skills, etc. With this creative activity, the classroom will be filled with not only knowledge and information, but also with creative minds immersing themselves in the task with fun, happy, and diverse solutions.

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Teaching Lexical Chunks to High Intermediate Adult Learners in a Discourse Class in an Informal Setting

Bernadette Ramos Manalastas
Discourse Analysis

This paper presents lexical chunks (LCs). Specifically, it represents a look into the characteristics and categories of lexical chunks, their importance and, the recommended pedagogy for meeting the needs of English language learners (ELLs). Lexical chunks are the basic level of language representation that has both form and meaning. They are automated units of language consisting of collocated words grouped together in order to reduce the cognitive load used during language processing. The use of LCs makes it easier for the human brain to retrieve a pre-assembled response during language use; as such, it is important to teach and to understand the utility of LCs as automated units of language stored in memory. Making sure that chunks that are connected to a specific context is essential within the LC language pedagogy. The first step in ensuring that chunks are tied to a specific context; specifically noticing these chunks in the context of their use. The next step is to be able to retrieve these chunks from memory as they are needed during language use. The final step is to develop fluency (speed and accuracy) in the ability to use LCs in real-time situations. Acquiring this chunking skill is typically a significant part of the language learning process. The three steps listed above, as supported by English Language Teaching and Learning (ELTL) pedagogy, are illustrated further in two lesson plans discussed later on in this paper. Both lesson plans are designed for adults who are learning English informally at local community centers. The first lesson plan covers terminology and functional language use at airports. The second lesson plan covers helping learners to be able to navigate the (English) website of a museum in order to gather information and to communicate with the museum via the website portal. Finally, reflections on the successes of these "lexical chunks" lesson implementations are presented.

1. Introduction

As a learner of English as a second language (ESL),the emphasis of my education was on vocabulary. The concept of lexical chunks was never introduced. Fortunately, as a result of exposure to authentic language use, I was able to implicitly acquire the knowledge of lexical chunks.

As a teacher of ESL,my experience through the years revealed that language learners struggle to use lexical chunks appropriately. Their first language (L1) tends to heavily influence their collocation of words into chunks; often resulting in a production of awkward expressions. The ability to properly group words into lexical chunks seems to be vital to the success of learners of ESL.

This paper explores the pedagogy of teaching chunks, explicitly and implicitly, to upper-intermediate leveled adult learners who are attending English speaking and listening classes in informal settings. This paper also covers the background of the learners, their goals, the institutions they attend and, the kind of instruction they receive at these institutions.

Also covered further is the definition of lexical chunks, the different categories that fall under it, its characteristics, its importance and, a recommended pedagogy based on literature. Two lesson plans will then be presented towards the teaching of lexical chunks.

Finally, this paper concludes with a defense of the lesson plan designs based on theories provided in literature.

2. Background

2.1 The Learners

The learners are adults between the ages of 30 and 80. Their proficiency level is between Intermediate-Mid and Intermediate-High, based on the ACTFL Speaking standards. They are able to converse with ease and confidence when dealing with routine tasks and social situations. They are also able to successfully handle uncomplicated tasks and social situations involving an exchange of basic information related to their work, school, recreation, particular interests and, areas of competence.

The students are predominantly homemakers and senior citizens with a minority being comprised of job seekers, university students, part time workers or professionals. They are mainly Koreans, the rest being of Japanese, Chinese, or Vietnamese descent.

Beyond the academic pursuit of learning English, their interests involve mostly health-related activities such as hiking, traveling, sports, business, rearing children, and arts. Their listed motivations include, wanting to communicate with foreigners locally or abroad, developing fluency in English language use, teaching their children English, expanding their social circles and, learning simply for the pleasure of learning.

2.2The Educational Settings

The Korean government provides affordable English education for Korean residents, at community and lifelong learning centers. The goal of these programs, specifically in the cases of the Seo-won District Community Center and the Gwan-ak English Village, is to focus on practical applications of the English language. The program also promotes the benefits of participating in a learning environment absent of any pressure from formal testing. The average number of students in each class is somewhere between 10 and 20. The course is taught twice a week, for 55 minutes. The instruction is informal.

2.3 Learning Objectives

The course covers discourse in English. It focuses on developing speaking and listening skills through discourse. By the end of the course, learners are expected to:

a) Be able to communicate effectively with confidence and social appropriateness particularly in real life situations

b) Be aware of their learning style and learning strategies

c) Be able to self-monitor their progress

3. Lexical Chunks:

This section defines lexical chunks based on literature about the different categories of linguistics that it falls under and different pedagogical approaches for dealing with LCs (Bogart, 2011).

3.1 Defining Lexical Chunks

Lexical chunks are a combination of semantic, syntactic, lexical, and even pragmatic information. They do not belong under any specific linguistic category. The common characteristic of lexical chunks is that its units are longer than a single word. The length of a chunk however is not clear. Furthermore, approaches to analyzing lexical chunks are comparatively different across the fields of corpus linguistics, second language acquisition and, other areas of linguistics.

Learning lexical chunks or "phraseology" means learning an inventory of patterned arrangements of words while making sure to preserve associated structural meanings (Ellis, 2008). Lexical chunks are the symbolic units of language relating the defining properties of morphological, syntactic, and lexical language forms with particular semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions.

Lexical context is crucial to the knowledge of the meanings of words and the grammatical roles they play (Ellis, 2008). The discourse roles are not only of single words,but of lexical chunks. The idea here is that chunks are strings of words that may have integrated meanings and these meanings may develop specialized functions (Gee, 2012).

The meaning of the lexical chunks can also be delineated based on two principles. The first principle, the open choice principle, is a conventional idea that grammatical slots or blanks are filled by lexical items. The second principle is the idiom principle. It asserts that speakers use a huge collection of lexicogrammatic chunks whose form and meaning are pre-established and existing in a delicate relationship with each other (Gee, 2012).

Note that, language should not be viewed as a collection of solitary words but rather as a group of words that tend to occur together, for use across different situations, in order to convey similar pragmatic and semantic messages (Bogart, 2011). There are many terminologies that refer to lexical chunks. They include fixed expressions, formulaic language, formulaic sequences, lexical items, lexical phrases, and multiword expressions. Lexical chunks have phonological coherence; meaning, lexical chunks are spoken without hesitation. Its intonation contour is smooth. The most important aspects of a lexical chunk are its frequency, non-compositionality and, collocation as a whole unit in human memory (Bogart, 2011).

3.2 Categories of Lexical Chunks

Lexical chunks can be analyzed for a variety of reasons (Bogart, 2011). Researchers doing corpus analyses tend to focus on LC statistical properties. LC can be categorized based on the phrase length as follows:

1. Polywords are small group of words that function the same way a single word does. Examples are phrasal verbs such as, "put on" and "wake up", slangs, and euphemisms.

2. Phrasal constraints are short phrases that have more variability than polywords and are generally constrained to a small set of words such as, "two o'clock" and "twelve o'clock".

3. Deictic locutions are short to medium phrases which serve as pragmatic indictors which help in guiding discourse. Examples include phrases like, "by the way" and "anyway".

4. Sentence builders are highly variable groupings of words which provide a framework for expressing an idea. An Example is, "as _____as"; as in "A is as big as B".

5. Situational utterances are long phrases or sentences that are appropriate in particular contexts. Some examples are, "don't worry about it", "nice to meet you" and, "have a safe trip."

6.Verbatim texts are text excerpts of any lengths taken from a song, a famous quote or novels.

Another categorical definition is the following (Bogart, 2011):

1. Words and polywords are short and idiomatic. Example is give up, why don't you, etc.

2. Collocations are group of words that occur frequently together. Examples are earn money, make money, etc.

3. Institutionalized utterances are idiomatic and mostly used in spoken discourse such as if I were you, gotta go, catch up later, etc.

The categories mentioned above may overlap with each other. Other types of lexical chunks are aphorisms, clichés, compound nouns and verbs, epithets, euphemisms, exclamations, expletives, frozen collocations, greeting and leaving rituals, idioms, jargon, prepositional and adverbial locutions, proverbs, quotations, similes, small talk, technical terms, social control phrases, etc. It should be noted that what counts as a lexical chunk for one person may not count as a lexical chunk for another (Bogart, 2011).

3.3 The Importance of Lexical Chunks

Why are phrases or lexical chunks important? There is no doubt that learners need lots of words to cope with language demands in and out of the classroom setting (Coxhead, 2008). It is also true that vocabulary is important. However, what makes lexical chunks and phrases worth the time and effort it takes to teach them in class?

The justification is that lexical chunks are the building blocks of discourse. Formulaic sequences are necessary for second language speakers to process, interact and, express their identity within a group. Many lexical bundles are not simply idiomatic; they have meanings that are transparent and distinguishable from the meanings of the individual words that form the bundle (Coxhead, 2008).

Lexical chunks in the form of collocations provide the most powerful and efficient organizational principle for language teaching (Lewis, 2000). Many theories of language performance suggest that vocabulary is stored redundantly; i.e., not only as individual morphemes but also as parts of phrases, chunks of speech, and pre-assembled chunks in memory. Fluency is developed by combining these chunks in order to reduce the cognitive load from processing all this information. These matters relate to the way we naturally store and retrieve language. A great part of the language learning challenge is to chunk unfamiliar material in meaningful ways in order to create more effective lexical phrases. This supports a practice of introducing chunks to learners, providing them with materials that encourage identifying chunks and, making this a central activity of language teaching (Lewis, 2000).

Comparisons of written and spoken corpora suggest that phraseological units are even more frequent in spoken language (Ellis, 2008). Phraseological analysis suggests that verbal communication makes use of fixed expressions; that the phrase is the basic level of language representation where form and meaning meet with the greatest reliability. Additionally, phraseological analysis tells us that formulaic sequences play a central role in language acquisition by children; and that, fluent language users have a vast repertoire of memorized language sequences. Thus according to Ellis (2008), the unit of language is "the phrase, the whole phrase, and nothing but the phrase"; thus one benefit of learning chunks is that it can help lighten the load of language processing (Tian, 2014). Lexical chunks can be stored as automated units in memory. It then becomes easier for the human brain to retrieve a lexical chunk, which is stored as a prefabricated whole, and to put the retrieved chunk into active use. Because the lexical chunk is retrieved as a pre-assembled whole, from the brain, there is no need for learners to compose expressions through additional processes of word selection and grammatical sequencing.

In real-time language production, familiar concepts and speech acts could be expressed using formularized languages. For learners producing language using these formulaic lexical chunks, the skill that is needed is the ability to construct these chunks without having to take notice of the internal structure within them. This reduces the amount of time that is needed in planning, processing and, encoding clauses or larger units (Tian, 2014). In other words, lexical chunks reduce the burden of language processing in real-time.

It can be concluded that, lexical chunks are building blocks of language that ensure a more effective language acquisition; and that, the use of lexical chunks represents a good strategy for learning. The human brain stores and retrieves lexical chunks as a unit; leading to a faster production (processing and output) of language.

3.4 Language Pedagogy of Lexical Chunks

In order to effectively teach collocation, it should be given the same emphasis as other aspects of language such as, pronunciation, intonation, stress, and grammar (Lewis, 1999). The following are methods that could be used to teach collocations:

1. Teaching individual collocations – Teachers should present them in context as they would individual words. It is not enough to know the meaning of a word or expressions. It is necessary to how to use words and expressions.

2. Making students aware of collocation – Even at the simplest proficiency levels, teachers should encourage learners to think bigger than a word; and, to always look for two- or three-word expressions. Noticing is an important stage in learning.

3. Extending what students already know – Extend learner collocational competence by using words

what they already know and, by teach learners new words. A student that is competent enough to make 2000 collocations will function better than a student who simply knows 2000 individual words.

4. Storing collocations - It is important that learners write down, and organize, the collocations they have learned into a lexical notebook. It will be helpful to the learners if they are able to revisit learned collocations regularly as a part of their learning process. Choosing the collocations to teach is as important as choosing the collocations to omit (Lewis, 2000).

Choosing which collocations to teach involves understanding the strength of collocations. The most important thing for the classroom is medium-strength collocations. Medium-strength collocations are those collocations which constitute a large part of spoken and written language. The other kinds of collocations are unique collocations, strong collocations, and weak collocations; all of which are at the other end of the spectrum. An example of a unique collocation is "shrug our shoulders". An example of a strong collocation would be "harbor grudges". Finally, a weak collocation would be "blue shirt". To help language learners increase their collocational competence, priority should be given to teaching medium-strength collocations over the last the three kinds of collocations. Collocation languageis implicitly acquired through usage and requires hundreds of hours of usage for its appropriate tuning (Ellis, 2008). Research suggests that category learning is optimized by utilizing an initial low-variance sample which is centered on familiar exemplars. This means frequently using chunks that the learners are both familiar with and interested in.

Analysis of phraseology has tended to favor pedagogical approaches based on forms (Kennedy, 2008). Language teaching theory and practice was favoring a focus on meaning and function through communicative language teaching; with affordances being made for sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, and pragmatics. Recently, recommendations seeking balance between pedagogical approaches that focus on form and those that focus on meaning have contributed to a modern emphasis on grammar and vocabulary teaching; as seen in the application of lexical grammar and, in the multi-word lexical approach. However, too much emphasis on multi-word frameworks can overlook the semantic relationships associated with lexical chunks (Kennedy, 2008).

Phraseology is more effectively learned implicitly as a result of repeatedly and unconsciously encountering multi-word sequences being used in appropriate contexts (Kennedy, 2008). The more we encounter these multi-word units, the more effortless it becomes to retrieve and produce them from memory. On the other hand, explicit learning implies learning with awareness. The focus of explicit teaching and learning should be on lexical aspects of a language that are frequent and useful. The pedagogical approach is to focus on meaning over form. Despite recognizing that explicitly teaching lexical chunks from corpus is not easy, the challenge for language teachers is to devise methodologies which maximize the opportunities for implicit learning.

Frequent collocations (e.g. "very good", "enjoy life", "find a way", "lose weight", "at the moment", etc.) can be taught explicitly and be added to the curriculum. However, infrequent collocations ("lose momentum", "cease trading", etc.) should be left to implicit learning. Some explicit instruction on using frequently-occurring collocations, taught as vocabulary, is therefore worthwhile. The encouragement of autonomous language learning, especially through reading, is important to help maximize exposure to language in use and can be learned implicitly (Kennedy, 2008).

What pedagogical approach should be used? Planned Lexical instructionis recommended. It is an approach similar to form-focused instruction in that teachers ensure that learners notice the lexical phrases and have opportunities to develop their lexical knowledge through direct practice (Coxhead, 2008). Additionally, the psychological conditions of noticing, retrieval and, generation should be promoted by instructors. This would help students to notice common collocations by highlighting target lexical phrases. Retrieval occurs when learners retells the use of the collocations from the sources studied. Generation is encouraged by isolating target collocations and using them in discourse. Thorough practice should be administered as learners are hesitant to use freshly encountered phrases in real-time.

The ideal goal is for learners to form the same word combinations or lexical chunks, and to use similar schemas as native speakers do (Celce-Murcia, 2000). This is not always the case as interference from the L1 occurs because the learners have insufficient exposure to lexical chunks in the target language. For example, a nonnative speaker may say "back mirror" instead of "rear-view mirror". A sympathetic native

L2 speaker might recognize this error and call attention to it; however, if the interlocutor is a native L1 speaker, the error is likely to be noticed. Therefore, learners should be made aware of authentic materials and contexts to afford the implicit learning of accurate lexical chunks.

It is more effective to teach lexical chunks, to use topic-related or function-based chunks systematically and, to use a task-based approach (Lackman, 2010). Learners can learn to compile lexical chunks, distinguish between form and meaning, practice their pronunciation and finally, use lexical chunks to complete a task. Task completion should always be part of the lesson.

Teachers need to help students become aware of lexical structures. If students become aware many lexical structures, they will gain the ability to building coherent structures like phrases, expressions, and utterances (Lackman, 2010). When teaching lexical chunks, it is essential that teachers not focus on individual words. Varied semi-fixed expressions can be used to help make learners develop fluency with lexical chunks. An average native speaker has about 40,000 individual words and between 250,000 to 300,000 lexical chunks stored in their memory (Lackman, 2010). Obviously, this amount of chunks cannot be taught in a relatively short period of time. Most lexical items stored in memory are not overtly taught but incidentally learned. The focus in pedagogy should be on teaching strategies that afford the acquisition lexicon effectively. The most essential learning strategy is for students to notice lexical chunks through authentic exposure to the language; i.e. through consciousness raising. After noticing chunks, learners need to analyze these chunks for meaning and contexts of use.

In conclusion, considering the above literature, lexical chunks should be taught under the following conditions:

a) The types of lexical chunks to be taught should be primarily medium-strength collocations of interest to the learners.

b) There should be a balance between form and meaning when teaching lexical chunks.

c) Implicit learning of chunks is more recommended particularly to chunks less frequently used as opposed to frequently used chunks which can be learned explicitly.

d) Teachers should teach learners how to notice lexical chunks; and additionally, recalling, processing and, using lexical chunks pragmatically.

4. Lesson Plans:

Presented below are two lesson plans designed for high intermediate adults. Most of the targeted learners are looking to improve, not only their communicative competency, but also their overall well-being. Aside from language learning, they are also interested in traveling and arts. The first lesson plan covers terminology used at the airport. The second lesson plan is covers visiting an art museum abroad.

4.1 Lesson Plan 1 - Traveling at the Airport

A. **Goal:** Learners should be able to travel with more confidence through foreign airports using the skills covered in this lesson

B. **Objectives:**

Terminal Objectives:

1. Learners will be able to learn airport terminologies through explicit instruction

2. Learners will be able to recognize an authentic announcement made in flight, or while onboard a plane that is on the tarmac.

3. Learners will be able to answer possible questions asked by an immigration officer or a customs official.

4. Learners will be able to share their previous airport experience with their peers

Enabling Objectives:

1. Learners will be able to understand the general process of going through the airport.

1. **Materials:**

a. 747-400 British Airways, Captain's Announcement (See Appendix A) https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c-hjTiUZmUs

b. Airport photo guides (see Appendix B)

2. **Building Schemata:**

1. What comes to your mind when you hear the word airport? (See sample diagram for schemata building below.)

Figure 1: sample schemata

C. **Listening Task**

1. The teacher says, "Now, I'm going to play a recording. Listen to it and tell me what are you listening to? Who is talking? Where is it?" See excerpt below. (See Appendix D for more detail)

"This is British Airways operating Boeing 747 BA1762 London, Heathrow. My name is Sandy Mitchell, my pleasure to command the flight this evening. I'm pleased to say that uh we'd still have some 10 minutes to go before our scheduled departure time, our preparation very nearly complete... …. 5 hours 50 is the planned flying time held by some strong tailwinds across Atlantic. In London, we have a sunny day, today, 24 degrees, 75 Fahrenheit, and still expected to be fine for arrival tomorrow morning around 7 o'clock in the morning, it's British summer time, 5 hours ahead, Eastern daylight time here in New York."

The source of this transcript is a video taken by a passenger on board of a British Airways flight in route to the United Kingdom, from New York. The video shows flight attendants and passengers preparing for a take-off while on the tarmac. The announcement is a minute and forty minutes long. The teaching instructions for this segment of the lesson are as follows:

1. The teacher elicits responses from the students regarding identifying what they have just listened to (an in-flight announcement), who was speaking (the Captain), and where they were (inside the cabin, waiting for the aircraft to take-off).

2. The teacher plays the recording again and asks the students to provide details about what they heard in the recording.

3. The teacher provides the following questions and asks the students to discuss the answers with a partner.

• Where is the plane departing from?

• Where is its destination?

• How long did the passengers have to wait before the aircraft could take off?

• How long was the expected flight time?

• Were there any anticipated problems? What was the weather like at the flight destination?

4. The teacher discusses the answers with the students. The teacher gives the student a script for the recording with cloze exercise. The recording will be replayed three times. (See Appendix A.)

"This is British Airways operating Boeing 747 BA1762 London, Heathrow. My name is Sandy Mitchell, my pleasure to command the flight this evening. I'm pleased to say that uh we'd still have some 10 minutes to go before our scheduled _____ _____, our preparation very nearly complete…."

5. The learners will be asked to compare their answers with their partners.

Departure time	Take off time	Flight time	Arrival time

Figure 2: Answer comparison table

D. **Teaching Common Airport Terminologies in Form of Chunks**

1. The teacher asks the learners for expressions used at the airport and writes them on the board.

2. Then, the teacher gives a list of expressions/ chunks and words associated with the airport.

Departure area	Check-in counter	Luggage/Baggage	Carry-on
Airline ticket	Passport	Boarding pass	Seat number
Departure time	Arrival time	On time	Delay
Gate number	Flight number	Boarding time	Aisle seat
Window seat	Center seat	Business class	Economy class
Illegal items	Visa	Overhead compartment	
Fasten seatbelt	No smoking	Customs declaration form	
Flight attendant	Immigration officer	Pilot	Timetable
Baggage claim	Baggage carousel	Conveyor belt	Trolley
Arrival	Layover	Terminal	Shuttle bus
Meeting point	Lounge area	Duty free	International flight
Domestic flight	Go through the security	Go through immigration	

Table 1: Airport Terminology

3. The teacher will practice pronunciation exercise using intonation patterns.

4. Ask the students to match the above applicable expressions with the picture below. (See Appendix B.)

Figure 3: Picture to match expressions

5. A guessing game is played to explain lexical chunks

The teacher has prepared some cut out of the chunks. The students will be grouped into four and one of them will pick a word and explain it to other students. The other learners can co-construct with the learner explaining each chunk.

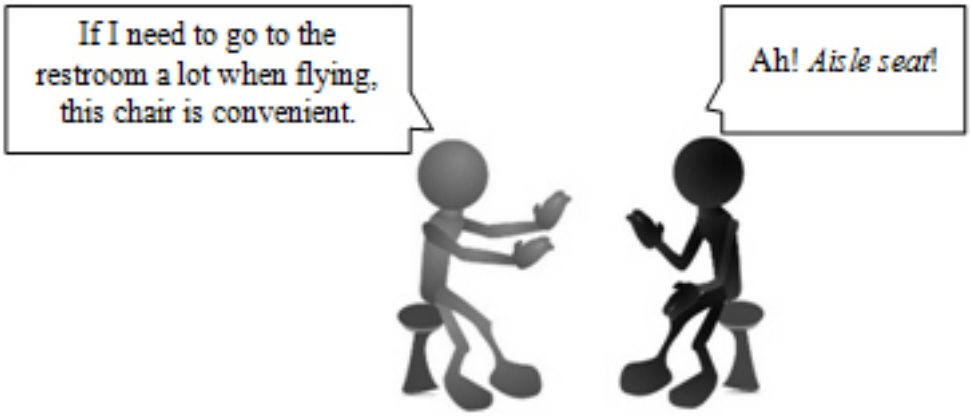


Figure 4: Guessing game

E. **Speaking Task**

a) Discuss the possible scenarios the learners might be confronted with when dealing with customs and immigration officers.

b) Teach appropriate (functional) language for these formal situations using a model demonstration.

Target Language:

1. *Do you have anything to declare? No, Sir. / No, Ma'am. (Cite all possible answers.)*
2. *What is in your luggage?*
   I have _____ here. (Cite possible answers)

Figure 5: Sample-speaking task 1

Target Language:

1. *What isthepurpose of your visit?*
   I'm on a business trip, on a tour, etc. (Cite possible answers)
2. *Where are you staying?*
   At _____ Hotel, etc. (Cite possible answers)

Figure 6:Sample-speaking task 2

F. **Role Play**

Situation:

One student acts as a customs official or an immigration officer. Another student acts as a passenger.

Challenge:

a. The custom official also asks for eye scan and fingerprint. Decide what the officer should say.

b. The passenger is traveling with her young child. Add more details to the conversation between the officer and the passenger.

G. **Speaking Activity (Open-ended Questions):** (Pair Work and in-class discussion)

a. Do you usually understand the announcements you hear at the airport?

b. What are your experiences at the immigration and customs section of the airport?

H. **Self-Assessment**

The teacher asks the learners to assess themselves with their performance of the whole lesson.

Did I do well?		Yes ☺☺	Some 😐	No ☹
Listening Exercise	Did I understand why I need to listen to the announcement?			
	Did I understand most of the listening exercise?			
	Did I answer the questions well?			
Speaking Exercise	Did I speak naturally in my role?*			
	Can I talk to a real customs or immigration officer in the future?*			
	Did I express myself well in the discussion?			
What new expressions did I learn?	1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____			

Table 2: Student Self-assessment

4.2 Lesson Plan 2 – Checking a Museum Website and Visiting a Museum Abroad

A. **Goal:** Learners should know how to navigate the website of a museum in order to gather information and communicate in English when they visit a museum.

B. **Objectives:**

Terminal Objectives:

1. Learners will be able to reserve tickets to a museum and know the operation hours of a museum.

2. Learners will be able to communicate in English when they visit a museum.

Enabling Objectives:

1. Learners will be able made aware of the types of rules and L2 expressions that are used in a museum.

2. Learners will be able to talk about their own experience after visiting a museum.

C. **Materials:**

1. Pictures of museums for warm up activities (See Appendix C)

2. http://www.metmuseum.org/visit/met-fifth-avenue (to be shown on a projector and to be checked by language learners on their smart phones (See Appendix D)

D. **Building schemata**

1. The teacher will show the learners images of the most visited museums in the world. The teacher will ask, "Can you recognize these places? Where are they?" (See Appendix C)

a.  b. 

Figure 7: Lesson Plan 2 Building Schemata Images

1. The teacher confirms the answers as:
a. Palace Museum, Beijing, China
b. Musée du Louvre, Paris, France
c. The British Museum, London, United Kingdom
d. The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, United States

2. The teacher asks the learners, "*Which one would you visit and why?*"

E. **Reading Task**
1. The teacher asks the students to go to the website http://www.metmuseum.org/ on their phone.

Figure 8. Webpage of Metropolitan Museum of Art Fifth Avenue

2. The teacher asks the learners to find out the following information about the Metropolitan Museum located at the Fifth Avenue from their smart phone. The teacher assists the learners not familiar with smart phones.

a) Prices of tickets for Adults _____

b) Days of the week open _____

c) Opening time _____

d) Closing time _____

3. The teacher asks the learners to compare their answers with their partners

4. The correct answers are elicited.

5. Materials are distributed. (See Appendix D.)

6. The teacher and learners read the material in class together.

7. Then, the learners read the article again together in class. "*Each one will read two sentences and please paraphrase if you can. What do those sentences mean to you?*"

8. Ask the learners for anything in the article what they didn't understand. Elaborate anything the learners do not understand.

9. Ask students to answer comprehension questions with their partners.

a) When is the MET closed?

b) What are the rules about food and drinks?

c) Can you take pictures inside the museum? Where is it permitted?

d) What are the rules about backpacks and coats?

e) What would you do if you lost something?

F. **Lexical Chunks used in a Museum**

1. The teacher asks the learners to find museum-related expressions and chunks in the article provided above. The list should look like the one below:

Ticket counter	Ticketing window	Admission fee
Admission ticket	Ticket stub	Coat check
Cloakroom	Flash photography	Coat-check facility
_____ is allowed	_____ is permitted	_____ is prohibited
Self-guided tours	Guided tour	Special exhibition
Gift shop	Closing time	Hours of operation

Table 3: Lexical Chunks used in a Museum

2. Ask the learners, "In what situation would you actually use these expressions?"

3. "Who are saying these expressions?"

G. **Speaking Task**

1. Discuss the possible scenarios with a museum staff.

2. Teach appropriate language when in formal situations. Present model.

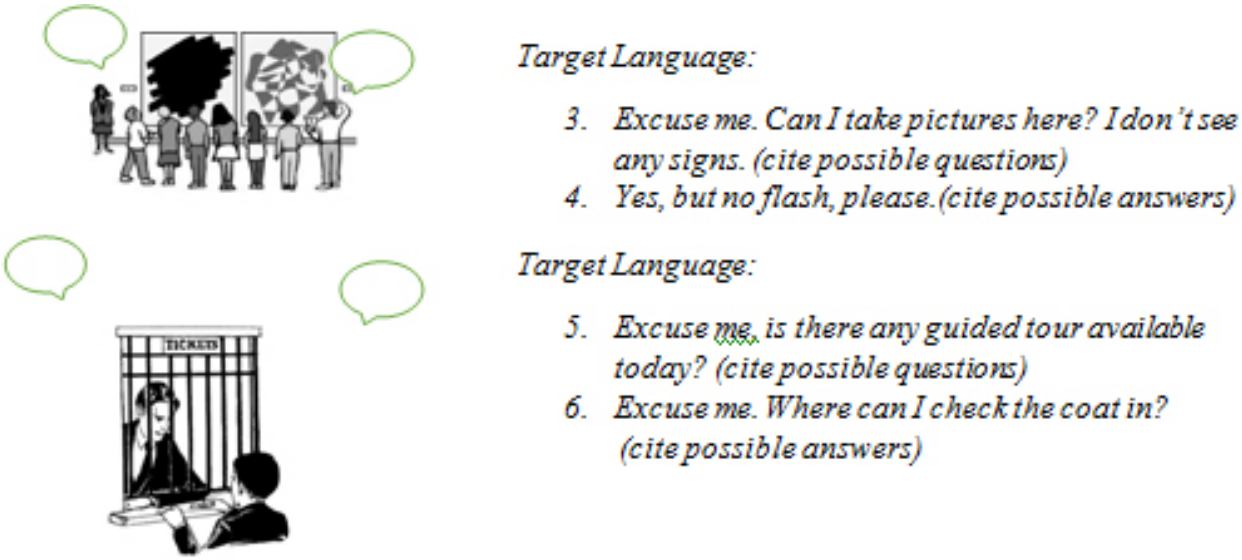


Figure 9: Sample target language examples

H. **Role Play**

Situation: One student acts as a patron and one student acts as a museum staff.

Challenge: The patron is lost and looking for a special exhibition. He or she needs to check-in her coat, use a guided tour, and she is bringing a sketchbook. What should she ask the staff? Check the criteria below: (Figure 10)

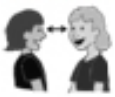
Check if you did this!	Did we have eye contact? 	Did I understand my partner? 	Was my pronunciation good? 	Did we take turns naturally? 	*Did we use correct and politeexpressions? 
Me					
My partner					

Table 4: Role-play evaluation criteria

I. Speaking Activity (Open-ended Questions) (Pair Work, discussion in class)

1. *Would you use the website to check for information when you visit a museum abroad?*
2. *What are experiences visiting a museum in another country? If not, would you like to?*
3. *What new expressions did you learn from this lesson?*
4. *Are you confident to use English when going to a museum?*

5. Lesson Plans Defense

The lesson plans detailed above were based on the literature discussed in the introduction section. From the literature, there are three factors that I consider most important:

1. Why do the learners need to study under this lesson? Is it useful for them?
2. Are the materials and context authentic?
3. How are they able to effectively develop their listening, reading, and speaking skills under this lesson?

The criteria listed above are not only for consideration but represents points of emphasis when teaching lexical chunks as a part of daily lessons and skills practice. In general, the concept of lexical chunks is not the sole focus of the lesson plans. Instead, the exposure of the language learners to authentic materials in their proper contexts is. Authentic materials and their accompanying contexts are initially to be provided, followed by the noticing of the chunks.

To reiterate, learners need exposure to a wide range of words and formulaic sequences in order to incorporate both in their real lives and, in educational settings (Coxhead, 2008). Words, and the formulaic sequences used to place them into lexical chunks, are the building blocks of discourse. These formulaic sequences are necessary for second language speakers to process, interact and, express their identity within a group (Coxhead, 2008). Furthermore, lexical chunks in the form of collocations provide the most powerful organizing principle for language teaching and acquisition (Lewis, 2000).

Several theories of language performance suggest that vocabulary is not only stored redundantly in memory as individual morphemes but also stored as parts of phrases or chunks of speech; and, that vocabulary is often

retrieved from memory as pre-assembled chunks. As such, fluency is significantly afforded by combining chunks in order to reducing processing difficulty.

These matters relate to the way we naturally store and retrieve language. A great part of the language learning task is to chunk unfamiliar material in meaningful ways and to create more effective lexical phrases. This means introducing chunks to learners, providing them with materials that encourage the identification of lexical chunks and, making the study of lexical chunks a central activity in language instruction (Lewis, 2000).

5.1 Lesson 1 (Airport Terminologies)

The topic for this lesson was designed to be used by ELLs when they travel. Although the learners probably will not have any problem getting through Incheon International Airport, they need to familiarize themselves with procedures at internationally located airports. The warm-up activity, involving listening to a pilot announcement prior to liftoff, is an authentic listening activity. The lexical chunks related to airports are explicitly taught with the use of authentic pictures. The chunks are further explained through the use of a guessing game. Practicing their English in authentic situations would serve as a benefit to ELLs.

The lesson plan follows the suggestion of Lewis (1999). It teaches individual collocations and presents them contextually as individual words. The students are to be made aware of collocations using the listening exercise and guessing game. Their knowledge of lexical chunks will be extended once the students experience what it is like to go through the airport procedures. They will able to become familiarized with airport terminology. The learners will also have a notebook in which they can store the collocations that are most important to them. Since the topic is not a basic level topic, it is essential for ELLs to be able to revisit their notes, to review the chunks for language acquisition and, to retrieve these chunks as needed later on.

Additionally, it is just as important to note collocations which are irrelevant to the function being taught (Lewis, 2000). There are additional chunks of airport terminology that I did not include in the lesson plan, such as those used by the air traffic control, cabin crew, cockpit crew, and several others units which are operational in airports. Those expressions are omitted because they are not unnecessary or of low priority to the ELLs the lesson plan is designed for.

5.1.1 Reflection on Lesson Plan 1 - What Worked Well (Lesson 1)

The implementation of the lesson plan was generally successful. The learners were able to familiarize themselves with airport terminology as they were already aware of them in their L1. Furthermore, they were motivated to learn because traveling is their pastime.

The task that was the most successful was the role-play. At first, they laughed at their own mistakes. However, after I pointed out the formal nature of the role-play situation and how they should act and speak formally, they changed their tone and form of language. The second successful task was guessing at terminology because the learners had to explain them in detail. However, I had to tell them to not provide obvious answers. For example, when explaining the expression “window seat” a learner said, “It’s near the window.” After reiterating the rules of giving clues, they were able to explain terminology without obvious clues. For example, for “aisle seat” one learner said, “If I need to go to the restroom a lot when flying, I choose this chair.”

This lesson takes an approach similar to form-focused instruction in that the teachers have to ensure that learners notice the lexical phrases presented and, have opportunities to develop their lexical knowledge through direct practice (Coxhead, 2008). Also included are psychological conditions of noticing, retrieval, and generation of lexical chunks. Students can notice the collocations by highlighting target lexical phrases or when they are taught to them explicitly (collocation list). Retrieval occurs when learners retell the use of the collocations from the studied materials (guessing game). Generation is encouraged by isolating targeted collocations and using them in discourse (role-play). It is suggested that thorough practice be administered since learners typically hesitate to use freshly encountered phrases in real-life contexts (Coxhead, 2008).

5.1.2 What Did Not Work Well (Lesson 1)

The listening part of the lesson did not work very well. First, the audio was not very clear as it was recorded in the aircraft cabin. The learners are used to listening to audio that is scripted, clear, and slow. In real life, spoken language is more disorganized. The learners complained that the British captain talked longer than necessary in comparison to Korean pilots who tend to be more direct and short in their announcements. Concerning lexical chunks, the lesson had to be reviewed multiple times and lexical chunks had to be included in the curriculum. Another key point from the lesson was that there were not enough exchanges of ideas as the topic idea was not directly related to creativity or subjective opinions.

5.2 Lesson 2 (Art Website and Visiting Art Museums)

Most of the learners would like to travel abroad and to use English. They are interested in traveling, arts or, history. The warm up activity is intended to help them build a schema from their prior experience with visiting a museum.

Checking for information on the Metropolitan's website is an authentic activity. It is a good exercise for them in navigating museum websites, and other tourist attractions, in foreign countries; just as if they would be if they were to actually visit a foreign museum.

The lexical chunks explored in this lesson are learned implicitly. They are found in the museum-associated material. The learners should be able to familiarize themselves with common aspects of lexical chunks, what the rules are for having a contextualized formal discourse with museum staff and, performing the function of asking for information. These chunks are also applicable to other places and contexts in which the students have to follow certain rules and etiquette.

According to Kennedy (2008), lexical chunks are learned more effectively through implicit learning by unconsciously encountering them repeatedly in proper contexts. The more learners encounter lexical chunks, the more effortless they become with regards to retrieving and producing them from memory. The focus of pedagogy should be on meaning rather than form. Infrequent collocations (such as baggage claim and layover) should be left to implicit learning. According to Kennedy (2008), the encouragement of autonomous language learning is important in order to help learners maximize their exposure to pragmatic language use and, in order to facilitate implicit learning.

5.2.1 Reflection on Lesson Plan 2 – What Worked Well (Lesson 2)

The lesson plan worked in general. The learners were able to accomplish the task of perusing the museum website through their smart phones, finding the admissions fee information and, creating a schedule for a planned trip to the museum. They were also able to identify some of the lexical chunks related to visiting a museum. The role-play between the staff and the learners was short and to the point.

This lesson plan also worked well because the students became more aware of lexical structures. Through which, according to Lackman (2010), learners will gain the skill of building coherent structures like phrases, expressions, and utterances. The solution is that most lexicons is not taught overtly but rather, incidentally learned (by noticing lexical chunks through the website access). The focus is on teaching the strategies to make the acquisition of a bulk of the lexicon (making a list of chunks) more effective. After noticing chunks, the learners need to analyze the construction, meaning, and usage of chunks in contexts (through role-plays and open-ended questions).

5.2.2 What Did Not Work Well (Lesson 2)

Most of the learners claimed they are interested in art but not in visiting museums so, initially, half of the students were not interested with the topic. Secondly, some of the chunks are mainly useful when traveling; they are medium-strength to strong collocations and, they are not used in daily life. Examples are coat-check, special exhibition, and ticket stub. These chunks also included unfamiliar expressions to the list such as, jogging strollers.

To deal with this problem, the ideal goal should be for learners to form the same word combinations or lexical chunks and, to use the same types of schema as would a native speaker (Celce-Murcia, 2000). Learners should be familiar with authentic materials and contexts in order to implicitly learn the correct lexical chunks. This means teachers need to use authenticity-based lesson plans that are more likely to be practical for everyday life.

The way these lessons were designed, it was essential to find the chunks that are connected to a particular context. Noticing lexical chunks is the first step in the process towards developing functional competency in the presented situations. The next step is being able to retrieve these chunks whenever the need for such expressions arises. The final step is to be able to use lexical chunks fluently and accurately in the real world.

6. Conclusion

This project helped me realize the definition, characteristics, importance, and language pedagogy of lexical chunks. Teaching lexical chunks approach is a versatile, useful, and effective approach for learners to notice, store, retrieve, and use the language in a specific context with meaning. It also increases their processing time therefore increases their fluency. The skill of learning a language through lexical chunks should be a significant part of a learner's learning process. Further, learning through chunks covers all the skills – speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The success of learning this skill though could only be achieved through correct practice over time.

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Appendix A

747-400 British Airways, Captain's Announcement

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c-hjTiUZmUs

"This is British Airways operating Boeing 747 BA1762 London, Heathrow. My name is Sandy Mitchell, my pleasure to command the flight this evening. I'm pleased to say that uh we'd still have some 10 minutes to go before our scheduled _____ _____, our preparation very nearly complete. Just the last door to close and then we should be able to push back and start the engine for departure.

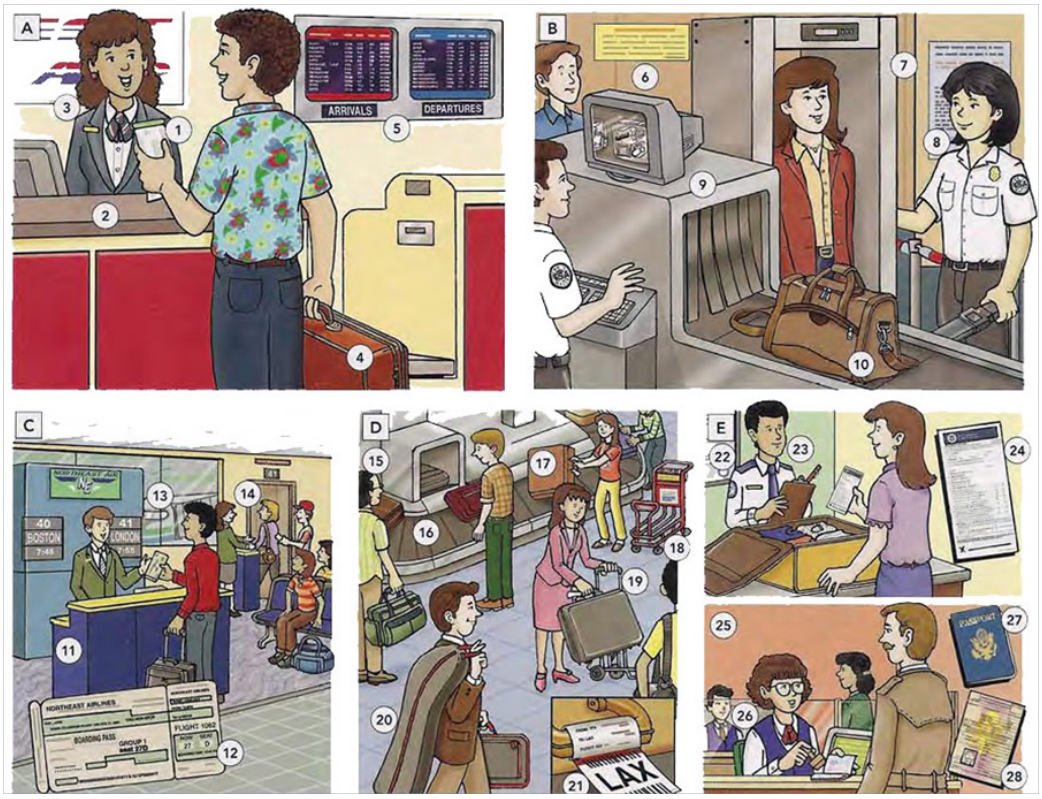
As always that can be here, we're usually caught uh quite a congestion but leaning out of my window on the left hand side here, there's only some 5 to 10 aircraft waiting for departure. Hopefully, we'll be able to get to the head the of that _____ quite soon after pushing back. Once again, airborne, let's turn up over the Atlantic towards London, west corner of England, 5 hours 50 is the planned _____ _____ held by some strong tailwinds across Atlantic. In London, we have a sunny day, today, 24 degrees, 75 Fahrenheit, and still expected to be fine for _____ tomorrow morning around 7 o'clock in the morning, it's British summer time, 5 hours ahead, Eastern daylight time here in New York."

---

a. Where were they departing?
b. Where was the destination?
c. How long did they have to wait for the aircraft to take off?
d. How long was the expected flight time?
e. Were there any problems expected?
f. What's the weather like in their destination?

Appendix B

Match the airport terminologies to the applicable pictures.



Appendix C - Guess the most visited museums in the world.

Appendix D – Metropolitan Museum of Art Webpage (http://www.metmuseum.org/visit/met-fifth-avenue)

The Met Fifth Avenue

The Met Fifth Avenue presents over 5,000 years of art spanning all cultures and time periods. Since the Museum opened its doors to the public in its current location in Central Park in 1880, its footprint has expanded to cover more than two million square feet. Today, art comes alive in the Museum's galleries and through its exhibitions and events, revealing both new ideas and unexpected connections across time and cultures.

Open Seven Days a Week

Sunday–Thursday: 10 am–5:30 pm*

Friday and Saturday: 10 am–9 pm*

Closed Thanksgiving Day, December 25, January 1, and the first Monday in May. Saturday evenings are made possible by the William H. Kearns Foundation.

* Galleries are cleared 15 minutes before closing.

Suggested Admission

If you buy tickets at a museum ticket counter, the amount you pay is up to you. Ticket includes same-day admission to The Met Fifth Avenue, The Met Breuer, and The Met Cloisters.

Adults	$25
Seniors (65 and over)	$17
Students**	$12
Members (Join Today!)	Free
Children (under 12; accompanied by an adult)	Free

Please be as generous as you can.

Exhibitions are free with Museum admission.

Avoid waiting in admission lines! By buying tickets online you agree to pay our suggested prices:

Visitor Tips

* Helpful Hints

• Water in plastic bottles may be brought into the Museum. Other food or drink is not allowed and may not be checked at the coat checks.

• Flash photography and video cameras cannot be used inside the Museum.

• Only pencils may be used in the galleries; the use of pens and markers is prohibited.

• Strollers are allowed in all galleries unless otherwise noted.

• Wheelchairs are available at the coat checks.

* Save Time by Traveling Light

• All backpacks and packages must be checked in at the coat-check facilities. Avoid waiting in long lines by leaving backpacks and packages at home.

• Luggage, carry-on bags, and oversize backpacks are not allowed in the Museum and cannot be checked in at the coat-check facilities.

• Musical instruments cannot be brought into the Museum and may not be checked at the coat checks.

• Coats and small umbrellas may be carried into the galleries. Large umbrellas must be checked.

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* Strollers

Strollers are permitted in most areas—inquire at Information Desks for gallery limitations. Oversize and jogging strollers are prohibited.

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* Luggage and Coat Check

Luggage is not allowed into the Museum and cannot be checked in at the Museum's coat-check facilities. This includes small carry-ons and oversize backpacks. All backpacks, large bags, and large umbrellas must be checked in at the coat-check facilities. To ensure the safety of the collection, the Museum does not permit visitors to carry bags on their backs in the galleries. Musical instruments are not allowed into the Museum without prior appointment, and cannot be checked in the coat-check facilities. Food and drink are not allowed in the Museum and may not be checked in at the coat-check facilities.

The Museum reserves the right to decide what can and cannot be checked in at the coat-check facilities. Questions about the Museum's luggage or coat-check policy can be referred to the Security Office at 212-570-3781.

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* Lost and Found

If you have left something behind at the Museum, call the Lost and Found Office at 212-570-3981.

Education of English Politeness in South Korea

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Sociolinguistics in Language Teaching

The following paper seeks to discuss the education of English politeness in the South Korean education system.Current methods of English education lack in discourse surrounding the pragmatics of English politeness, and this paper works towards bridging the gap between cultural and linguistic differences by answering the question of how English politeness pragmatics can be taught in South Korean schools.Thisanalysisis divided into three major areas of research: developing an in-depth understanding of politeness and how it is different between the English and Korean languages; analyzing current methods of education in respect to English politeness; and discussion surrounding proposed methods of English education.The conclusion then works to integrate current and proposed systems as well as noting the importance of politeness education and why it should be expanded upon.The Korean language is one that holds high levels of politeness in semantic format, and the Korean culture promotes politeness in daily interactions; in comparison, English holds a very different approach to politeness and how one is polite.Without proper education surrounding politeness, there becomes a promotion of misunderstanding and a lack of willingness to communicate that can also arise.Therefore, understanding the importance of politeness, and conveying the underlying pragmatics of it are essential in building confidence and competence in English learners.

1. Introduction

When learning to speak a new language, students will face a number of difficulties such as learning new vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, pragmatics, and cultural nuances.In certain cases, when there is an entire cultural and pragmatic mindset that must additionally be accumulated and understood by the leaner, methods of education and instruction become important.Aspects of stylistic hierarchy, politeness, gender, domain, dialect, etc. are additional aspects of a language that a student may find themselves needing to adapt to; creating a demand for these aspects to be appropriately described, explained, and addressed as they may be vastly different from their native tongue and mother culture.It is the job of educators then to prepare their students by delivering the best instruction that gives the in-depth understanding, awareness, and knowledge of a language to be able to confidently and correctly use it in authentic situations.

When looking at the English and Korean languages, there are many surface differences that can be notice right away.The writing, pronunciation, word order, use of different grammatical formatting, counting systems; all stand at different points of language styling, and students must work hard to traverse between the two as they acquire one from the other.Underneath surface differences, an even more complex difference is the system of hierarchy and politeness that dominates the Korean language compared to English politeness.Holtgraves and Yang (1990) stated that at their core English and Korean stand at opposite poles

in culture, and in politeness.For English speakers who learn Korean, there is an element of memorization that can be utilized in order to begin learning the theories of politeness in Korean, and much of politeness can be obtained through syntactic means. Students are able to memorize grammar forms, specialized formal nouns and verbs, and specific general guidelines, such as age and power, that will indicate when and where to use higher level polite speech forms.Unfortunately, it cannot be said there is the same style of learning for Korean students when learning English.Though there are some specialized forms, English politeness takes stronger form in pragmatics and semantics which are much less easily memorized.

This paper will address the following research question: How can English pragmatic politeness be taught to South Korean students?

South Korea has a culture and language that uphold high levels of politeness, but how the current education system meets the needs and matches student cultural backgrounds of students are areas of question as well.The research question will be broken down into the following aspects: defining politeness, current methods of English education, and suggested methods of English education.The main purpose is to understand the importance of politeness in both cultures and how the transferal of cultural notions of politeness plays a part in language and in the language learning classroom.

2. Defining Politeness

2.1 Politeness Theory and Face

Before unraveling the workings of politeness individually in Korean and English, it is important to understand what politeness, politeness theory, and face are.According to linguists Brown and Levinson (1987)face is "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself consisting in two related aspects…" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). The two mentioned aspects of face are negative and positive face.Negative face relates to the claim of basic and personal freedom of action and imposition, whereas positive face is the positive image created to be approved of by the people one interacts with.This idea of face was originally taken from the linguist Goffman (1967 in Brown & Levinson, 1987)who stated in his reports that generally it can be assumed that all interactions and participants in an interaction constantly strive to maintain 'face' by preserving their own and others. When people engage in different acts of politeness, then, it is correlated with the fact that people do not wish to engage in face threatening acts.

Face threatening acts will endanger one's face and can cause some form of inconvenience, pressure, humiliation, negative emotion, etc. to any person involved in the interaction.Therefore, people utilize this politeness in order to maintain not only personal face, but the face of those around them as well (Brown & Levinson, 1987).Since communication and interaction are connected with face, taking care to know what is considered face threatening, and therefore impolite arises something to be noted across cultures.

Politeness has many different definitions, and multiple theories have been applied when developing politeness theories.Politeness is, at its core, the act of being polite; however, the methods of acting polite are different across different cultures.That is to say, not all cultures find the same gestures and expressions to be polite.Politeness is typically a part of linguistic pragmatics, and is best seen through means of interaction (Eelen, 2001).There are a number of individual politeness theories that have been developed over the years, but there are a few common occurrences across multiple theories.For the purpose of this paper, the politeness that is discussed is going to be void of behavioral politeness and rather focus on the pragmatics of speech and verbal acts of politeness.

In her politeness theory, Robin Lakoff (1997) uses Grice's Cooperative Principal Theory to base the assumption that when people interact, it is in a method meant to maximize cooperation and effectiveness. The aspects of quality, quantity, relation and manner should all be appropriate for clear communication.In the event one of these aspects is not maximized, it could be attributed to politeness; the person is avoiding a face threatening situation and therefore is not being perhaps as clear and concise as the Cooperative Principal Theory believes.Within different cultures there are certain acceptable acts of politeness that correlate to distance, deference, or camaraderie that are taken into account. It should be noted that

American culture tends towards camaraderie, or an informality strategy.Asian cultures on the other hand lean towards a deferential, or hesitant strategy of politeness (Eelen, 2001).This differentiation between the two will become important to note when comparing English and Korean.

Taking into accord Brown and Levinson's (1987) face theory, politeness is centered around conflict avoidance, and balancing the two sides of face.In order to determine what forms of politeness or how to engage with listeners, speakers will take into account power differences, social differences, and how the act could be perceived within a specific culture.These variables are then adjusted in a formula of rational and the speaker will make a choice of how to speak based on the combination of factors (Eelen, 2001). Unlike Lakoff's theory, Brown and Levinson's theory encompasses more social situations, power plays, and can be adapted to apply cross-culturally as well. For many English speakers power and social differences can be downplayed over time, where Korean speakers maintain those social differences at a much more consistent rate.

Chinese linguist Gu (1990) created a theory based off of Chinese concepts of politeness.Though not a major contributor to politeness theory development, Gu introduces the concept of morally prescriptive politeness.According to Chinese culture, politeness is less of an instrument in conversation, but is actually the norm.He uses four maxims: self-denigration, address, tact, and generosity to index the appropriateness of politeness in speech.The other aspect of politeness he introduces is a balance principal (Gu, 1990). This states that in giving an act of politeness one should now receive one in return; it is a paying back theory that balances the people in interaction (Eelen, 2001). Chinese culture, though not representing eastern cultures as a whole brings important information that should be taken into account when considering the historical linguistic background of Korean.

There are multiple other theorists that all have contributed to politeness theory in a different way. However, across multiple researchers' data, a few commonalities arise.For one, all cultures will find direct or indirect requests as being more or less polite; however, not all in the same way or to similar extents and contexts.In addition, length, type or request, and the limits of the request are all important factors that will dictate politeness within verbal politeness.As well as limits and inferential processes which are all culturally dictated.At large, there is an element of pragmatics behind politeness and it calls for cultural awareness (Blum-Kulka, 1987). Understanding cross-cultural concepts of politeness can aid in language acquisition, but that does not mean that learning a language with a different politeness mindset will be a simple task. Having similarities in politeness may help with educating ESL students; however, as in the case of Korean and English, there are not many commonalities that make the learning process a less daunting task.

2.2 Korean Politeness

The Korean language, unlike many Anglo-Saxon languages, does not rely primarily on the application of linguistic pragmatics when engaging in politeness. Rather, there is a syntactic variable as well as a lexical variable that play a crucial role in acts of politeness(Holtgraves & Yang, 1990).Korean culture upholds favoritism directed towards high demonstrations of politeness, and they engage in culturally perceived polite strategies such as negative politeness, and off-record strategies (Holtgraves & Yang, 1990).In Korean culture, the factor of age also plays largely into the way politeness is expressed and received by individuals in a conversation.During one study, people who were observed as standing in positions of power were more likely to perceive negative politeness as appropriate for conversation when being spoken to by a subordinate.On the speaking end, it was also found the people in the positions of power were also more likely to use bald statements.In the way negative politeness was used to speak to people in power, the same politeness applied to situations where there was no close relationship between individuals (Holtgraves & Yang, 1990).The study showed that negative politeness then showed respect and autonomy directed towards elders, persons of power, and strangers.

As mentioned when describing Grice's Cooperative Principal Theory, the common use of negative politeness can be attributed to the Asian cultural tendency of deferential politeness and hesitation (Eelen, 2001). The use of negative politeness and indirect statements is highly associated with hesitation and deference in speech, for when engaging in conversations with someone of a higher social position, it is important to be indirect and take care not to impose on their negative face.This is why negative politeness is

highly common within the Korean community.

When addressing the syntactic side of politeness, there is one main element of the Korean language that should be addressed: the verb-final sentence endings.Korean language has six main styles of honorific (or politeness) speech that are added to the ends of utterances in Korean. They are: the informal-polite style, the formal-polite style, the plain style, the authoritative style, and the familiar style.On an average day, most Koreans will engage with the informal-polite style which is used across the board with people such as doctors, teachers, priests, officials, grandparents and parents, elder siblings, etc.; the main goal of this type of speech is to maintain politeness but also be slightly more informal (Park, 1991).The formal-polite style is used in similar contexts but hold a more honorific connotation and do not indicate informality.

If the informal-polite style does not match the level of politeness demanded in the situation, in the case of adding respect or reverence to a verb without moving up a full sentence ending politeness-level, Koreans have an honorific infix that they engaged with, or when talking about, people of higher social standing. This infix can also be brought into conversations with strangers of seeming higher status but is never used when talking about oneself (Park, 1991).This form can be added to the formal-polite and the informal-polite styles.There are also specifically honorific verbs, nouns, and particles that Koreans will use when talking to and about those of higher social standing then themselves.However, not all words have a lexical honorific form, which means that there is a set list of formal, honorific, polite forms (Park, 1991).The infix adds an extra level of indirectness and politeness to the statement which creates additional levels of politeness within the speech styles themselves.These infixes and lexical entries allow for in-between level polite statements to be made so that overall syntactic politeness is maximized.

On the less formal side of the spectrum, the plain style is used among students, workmen, servicemen, those with a close friendship, and typically around children.When having a form of solidarity within a group or with a person, it becomes impolite to constantly use the polite style endings (Park, 1991). Within the multiple styles of verb endings, there are more variations and acceptable ending markers and methods of making requests and asking questions as well (Park, 1994).Politeness is highly situational as well as relationship and status based within the Korean language.

2.3 English Politeness

Where Korean is heavily lexical and syntactic based in the way politeness is offered in speech, English does not carry the same syntactic base to verbal forms of politeness.That is not to say English is without any basic lexical forms of politeness.“Please”, “Thank you”, “Sir/Madam”, and other such phrases are generally known to increase the politeness of an utterance, but it does not just end there.It is important to point out that politeness strategies in English are at their core linguistically different compared to Korean. The English language and American culture at large tend to lean towards production of positive politeness strategies as opposed to Koreans who prefer negative politeness (Holtgraves & Yang, 1990).Setting apart the two languages at the base level of perceived politeness, before language even comes into a communicative position.

Starting with a syntactic standpoint on politeness, phrases such as ‘how about’ and ‘why don’t you’ serve as a type of tag question that are noted to increases the politeness of the statement (Lakoff,1997). For those who speak standard American English, taking negative statements and turning them into positive statements are another method of creating a polite statement.Rather than a bald statement about a poor meal, the phrase ‘that wasn’t the worst meal I’ve ever had’ is politer and acceptable in certain situations.In this case rather than add insult, the speaker maximizes praise and avoids threatening face(Rong, 2001).Before making any decisions however, the speaker has a list of options they can utilize if a face threatening act must be made.By choosing a bald statement, one with redress, off-record, or withholding the face threatening act all together the speaker picks a level of politeness (Rong, 2001).Where in Korean the levels of politeness are highly syntactic, English politeness as developed through word order and sentence structure is personal and situational; it changes according to each and every conversation.

Looking at politeness as a reflection of appropriateness, there are certain features of English that play a role in the development of language use.There is an appropriate and an inappropriate way to engage in typically ‘polite’ methods of interaction, which emerges then as a matter of pragmatics.Due to the fact that appropriateness in the moment of an event where politeness should be engaged can be interpreted differently, it is important to know what each

situation call for (Meier, 1997).Korean as mentioned afore is a highly polite language with indirect tendencies; but for many standard American English speakers, positive politeness is best perceived in use with both those in power and within individuals with little relation between the two (Holtgraves & Yang, 1990); making it the opposite of the Korean perception.This again moves towards the theory of English speakers using camaraderie as a politeness strategy when engaging in acts of politeness and conversation (Eelen, 2001).Positive politeness culturally promotes solidarity and belonging to a group while also maintaining a positive face that others perceive.

For English speakers, many researchers have developed additional work based off of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory and its regards to face threatening acts.In most cases, there was a heavy sense of responsibility on behalf of the speaker to not threaten face (Rong, 2001).The location and setting of where the speakers are located will also have an impact on the levels of politeness.Also, in English speaking communities, and in western countries in general, maintaining freedom and personal space are high figures of politeness.By not intruding on anyone regardless of social standing there is an element of politeness that is exchanged between two parties. Gender as well as class have also been known to historically play a role in politeness as well.Where apologizing is seen as polite, women are the ones who typically have apologized more than men(Rong, 2001).There are multiple more macro level factors that will play into a conversation and dictate appropriate politeness that have not been discussed at large, for even across English speaking communities there are politeness differences.

2.4 Making Connections

Korean and English when analyzed separately hold very few similarities at basic ideas and linguistic formats surrounding politeness.Korean values negative politeness and holding others at culturally accepted relational distances based off of factors such as age, power, and personal camaraderie.English, on the other hand, emphasizes positive politeness, developing close bonds with others, and taking care to preserve the listener's negative face as an act of solidarity.Before looking into suggestions about how to overcome these differences in an English learning classroom, an overview of current materials and methods will be presented.

3. Current Methods of Teaching English Politeness

In the case of analyzing how English education is executed within the classroom setting, it is important to look to the textbooks that many students interact with as they learn English throughout their education career.In many cases, textbooks have a tendency to over-simplify and recycle grammar and phrases to help students memorize, but leave out essential information students might find useful in language production (Litz, 2005). In addition, textbooks may be severely lacking in pragmatic practice and explanation in a variety of contexts, and there seems to be a very slow shift towards promoting more authentic speech (Vellenga, 2004).This becomes an issue when the lack of authentic speech and dissertation often relates directly to a lack of linguistic competence in the end results.

By looking across different types of English textbooks, pragmatic sections are still generally underwhelming across the board.In terms of politeness, there seems to be more indication of how to be informal rather than be polite with certain domains of speech(Vellenga, 2004).During an up-close analysis of a variety of textbooks, there was little to no offered information on the pragmatic discussion covering politeness or appropriateness.The result of this is a lack of exposure to proper authentic discussion and sets students up to be at a severe disadvantage in the area of competence.There is little instruction regarding politeness cues, using tone to imply politeness, and development of listening and speaking skills surrounding politeness (Vellenga, 2004).Textbooks will give role-play situations and strategies for students to learn from, however due to lack of cross-cultural understanding these techniques become less effective. Often times these role-plays do not reflect the culture of the situation and rather center around memorization (Meier, 1997).By going into memorization as a means of learning, there is an issue with adaptation that arises; mentioned previously each conversation in English is different, and memorization does not give students the tools to compensate accordingly.

Where there is politeness included in text, many times it revolves around grammar and sentence 'strength' as opposed to other forms of politeness in English.The relationship between writing and speaking were often addressed as well; however there remained a lack of authentic conversation or setting discussion to enhance the lesson.Students developed a much greater understanding of the differences in

greetings and modals as opposed to contextual comprehension (Vellenga, 2004).Without contextual comprehension it makes it much harder for the student to engage with the language on an authentic level, and they may have difficulty interacting with a native speaker without this knowledge to communicate.

Many textbooks are paired with a teaching instruction manual that is also central to instructing students on the use of proper pragmatics.Often times where the textbook offered insight regarding politeness, the teacher's manual offered little else to support the learning, and rarely outsourced beyond the textbook for additional learning sources (Vellenga, 2004). Without additional sources, the textbook creates a gap in the learning process.Following that if the teacher does not take it into their own hands to find additional materials, the students will suffer from a lack of deeper comprehension that is necessary in pragmatics; particularly related to politeness in English.Therefore, it is essential to look into other suggested methods of educating on politeness and pragmatics in order to produce confident and competent students.

4. Suggested Methods of Teaching English Politeness

4.1 Awareness Training

Due to the vast differences between Korean and English in politeness production, it is possible that miscommunication can occur.In the case of being polite, since politeness is typically used to avoid confrontation and miscommunication, it becomes all the more important to develop the underlying cultural understanding behind politeness.Chick (1996) indicates a common cause of miscommunication is due to sociolinguistic transfer.When this occurs, the speaker uses rules, functions, and underlying understandings from their own language in another (most likely the listener's) language.When this occurs it is possible for sentiments and intentions, such as politeness, to be misconstrued by the receiving party (Chick, 1996).In this event, it becomes crucial to promote what is called awareness training.

Awareness education should be encouraging, and teach students to interpret conversations rather than only understanding the surface semantics (Chick, 1996).When the conventions of discourse are taught, so too is communicative competence.The reason awareness is crucial in politeness education is due to all of the complex connotations that accompany it.Since in English and Korean there are many instances where the opposite is culturally perceived as polite in the other language this can be conflicting for many students and difficult to retain and put into practice if they are not aware of why what they say matters.Therefore, raising sensitivity and awareness around differences and cultural perceptions becomes a key factor in language education.

4.2 Textbooks

Current methods of education are highly textbook-centered, and though there has been minor improvement, there are more suggestions available for textbook improvement.Textbooks and teaching manuals lack in the area of pragmatic discourse, and the result is the fact that more must be taught if communicative competence is aimed to be accomplished in the field if English education; particularly when involving pragmatic issues such as those surrounding English politeness (Vellenga, 2004).The gap between English and Korean politeness is no small feat to overcome, but starting with the textbooks on which classrooms are centered is one area to start.

There are many benefits to textbooks, including their structure of presentation, practice, and production, which can be modified and formatted to introduce new situations that require students to think critically about the politeness and register needed in different situations; and as students continue their education and move to advanced levels, the tasks can be reformatted accordingly (Litz, 2005).In addition, language textbooks can be formatted to promote authentic tasks and situations for students to learn and reflect from (Litz, 2005).What this means for the education of politeness, is that textbooks can be updated and adapted as tools to prompt students to engage in tasks that develop understanding and promote awareness, rather than just focusing on memorization.

In the case of English textbooks, there needs to be an increase in pragmatic instruction and education to solidify students' understanding of politeness.A well-developed language textbook should promote understanding and lessons about the pragmatic aspects of a language just as much as the semantics (Litz, 2005). Current descriptions are too broad and not nearly authentic enough to be considered beneficial tools to educate with on the topic of politeness (Vellenga, 2004).Rather than average textbooks which focus on

grammar, suggested pragmatic centered textbooks could be added as supplementary materials that would increase comprehension and cultural understanding (Vellenga, 2004).Materials should also reflect not only the target language's culture, but hold part of the culture in which it is being taught.In this way students can engage with familiar concepts and feel as though the learning is relevant and authentic to their lives, and a clear distinction may be made in cases, such as politeness where there are many differences.Many textbooks also maintain a western view on their own language, which results in a lack of relevant material for Korean students to study from (Vellenga, 2004).Without a Korean view on English pragmatics and language learning as a whole, it is possible to lose important cross-cultural information that should be addressed in order to assist in student understandings of politeness.

4.3 The Classroom

English education in the classroom itself can prove to be a very effective method of education as well.In the case of classroom structure, there are different registers of politeness in English speaking cultures compared to that of South Korean class culture.South Korea is within the bounds of the expanding circle of English speaking countries, meaning there is no overarching English speaking culture, rather it is confined mainly to the classroom learning environment (Kachru & Nelson, 1996).In this case, the classroom can be used as a powerful tool in creating an environment where students can acquire the pragmatic background knowledge needed to succeed. This is the same for politeness, as many students will not have authentic interaction with English speaking foreigners.The lack of cultural blending and input hinders the English education process compared to English education within the Inner Circle and Outer Circle English speaking countries; where there are dominant or secondary English cultures that are a major or secondary part of the learner's lifestyle (Kachru & Nelson, 1996).The classroom must be used as a tool then, in order to promote the type of environment students can learn politeness from.

In the event that a teacher is a native speaker, they can provide a more authentic learning environment for the students as they learn.Teachers have high levels of control in the classroom, and the methods of teacher talk they engage in communicate more to students about pragmatics compared to textbooks (Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert, & Leap, 2009).Through example the teacher has the ability to perform politeness acts and encourage them from the students accordingly.Teachers serve as an important tool themselves in the classroom in promoting student awareness as well.According to the interdependence hypothesis, first and second languages and their development are closely tied together (Mesthrie et al., 2009).Therefore, when students are younger and just learning their own cultural perceptions of politeness, the pragmatics of English politeness are in a position to develop as well.This means that the teacher as well must instruct the students according to what they do know.In the case of older learners with strongly developed perceptions and understandings of politeness, it is important to give full explanations and multiple situations as examples to encourage understanding.

Having a native speaker who acts as a gateway for understanding in the classroom is a valuable resource of working towards effective intercultural communication (Chick, 1996).Interpreting patterns in both languages has shown to decrease misunderstandings in the classroom as well.When learning politeness this becomes an important classroom tool, since communication and conversation create an open learning environment that benefits all parties and supplies a chance for pragmatic understanding. Native teachers are also able to help students understanding of what is appropriate and not appropriate in specific domains and situations that may not come as intuitive to the students (Chick, 1996).Though native teachers may not always be available, teachers with sufficient awareness training and proper class materials may have the same beneficial impact on student learning.

4.4 Speech Acts

In the classroom, one way in which teachers can present students with authentic learning environments is through the use of speech acts.Underlying all utterances is what is referred to as a speech act.Cohen (1996) uses Austin's definition of a speech act, defining it as an overall functional unit of communication. Educating students on different types and levels of speech acts and their perceived appropriateness ties closely in with the awareness theory.The cultural understandings and norms behind English speech acts are culturally and systematically different from the South Korean understandings and norms.In order to help students in gaining confidence and competence with politeness in English, speech acts allow for sets of speech to learn from and give new awareness to students.The reason speech acts are important,

is that by educating students about them, the major differences between directness and indirectness can be addressed.In order to engage in a speech act, students must understand the cultural background knowledge needed to engage in certain acts (Schiffrin, 1996).Through context and situational learning, students are given the opportunity to practice active language production and learn how to be polite in real time.

When taking a closer look at Korean and English individually, the different values and politeness associated with different speech acts can be inferred, but not fully understood.Through speech acts and authentic performances by native speakers, the methods by which students will understand the language is vastly improved (Cohen, 1996).In order to encourage the education of speech acts, teachers would need awareness training, or supplementary materials to aid in explanation.If current need for improvement in authentic textbooks, and covering speech acts would add more authenticity and practicality to the lessons (Litz, 2005). If the materials, the teacher, and the classroom environment can support the education of speech acts, student awareness and comprehension will also be supported.

4.5 Intercultural Communication

Speech acts can also be part of the greater umbrella lesson of intercultural communication.When teaching English, it is important to teach awareness of culture in order to convey reasoning behind proper politeness forms. Knowing that there are different levels of politeness appropriate to different situations, and being able to understand the context of the situation will help students develop a stronger understanding and a higher level of proficiency.Since appropriateness and politeness are not static, it is important to teach students how to read a situation beforehand.Students should be well acquainted with multiple different contexts and role-play activities to enhance understanding (Meier, 1997).English can embody multiple different facets of multiple cultures, and it is important for students to know that they can maintain their cultural identity when learning English as well (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).This is especially important for Korean students who have a cultural tendency towards strong politeness; it is possible for them to adapt to English while still maintaining their views and culture.

Rather than taking solely a linguistic approach to language learning, the communicative approach promotes competence and complete understanding with learners.They not only have a better concept of the language, but as the culture from which it stems as a whole.Promoting use of forms in different contexts and learning how to appropriately and strategically use the language when talking to native speakers, should be the goal of language acquisition. However, it is impractical to claim native-competence, by approaching English education with the goal to promote understanding across cultures and not just across grammar and vocabulary is key.The communicative approach has shown to promote successful and confident learners of English as a second language (Alptekin, 2002).

The key in teaching English is not to force students to think and act like English speakers, rather is should be promoting communication and understanding across cultures.Though understanding politeness is important, there are a number of factors that can affect a learning environment or a student's motivation. Therefore, the curriculum should be relevant and authentic to each class (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).Each student, each class, each school will have a different purpose for English, and the curriculum should be addressed as such.

4.6 Authentic Tasks

In order to combine awareness, speech acts, intercultural communication, textbooks, and the classroom as a whole, authentic tasks are most suited for the integration and development of these skills. Schiffrin (1996) stated that teaching interactional sociolinguistics in the classroom should focus on contextual descriptions and institutional settings alongside specific discussions surrounding forms of interaction.These tasks should not only be limited to what is appropriate either, but also include the other side of the scale in identifying what is inappropriate (Schiffrin, 1996). Teaching all sides of a situation promote more authentic understanding that students can benefit from.

Cohen (1996) develops five specific steps for educators who are teaching sets of speech acts to the classroom.The first step is to identify the awareness and understanding of speech acts that the students have (Cohen, 1996).Assessing students on this level allows the teacher to understand how much students can at first sight or listen tell the level of politeness of a statement of phrase.Step two is implementing model dialogues for students to begin the integrated understanding of situation and act as a set.Creating strong connotations for the students to identify acts

with specific environments can help make the students more sensitive and aware as to where the cultural differences are (Cohen, 1996).Third, evaluating students in group settings as they practice politeness allows the teacher to reconstruct or elaborate upon the lessons and promote competence within students (Cohen, 1996).Role-play activities are another area where students may engage in different roles to compare speech acts (Cohen, 1996).This is particularly useful with students in South Korea.Since South Korea has such a strong hierarchical and age dominated language, students can work towards understanding how those semantic rules of politeness translate into English.When speaking to an elder or a superior in Korean, there is a very distinct linguistic pattern that is used, but in English it is pragmatic and nuanced; so role playing can aid in student understanding of the same situation for both their native language and cultural rules, as well as in English. Last, teachers should give constant feedback and explanations.Discussing with students how, why, and the background behind specific acts of politeness gives students a better chance to grow in awareness and cultural understandings (Cohen, 1996).These discussions will most likely prove to be useful learning tools, as they are authentic, and bring allow both cultures to stand as equal but different in status.

5. Conclusion

English education is not without its many struggles as it continues to span across the globe in different classrooms across countries and cultures.For Korean students, one area teachers must learn to pay care to is the area of politeness.The Korean language has six different honorific forms of speaking that can convey stronger or weaker levels of politeness when used in different context.Politeness is strongly embedded in all areas of interaction, and therefore something that should not be forgotten when learning a language. English, though having some syntactic politeness, is heavily pragmatic and polarized in many politeness practices compared to Korean.When comparing the underlying pragmatics of the two languages the mindset of politeness is very different; Koreans engage in negative politeness when increasing levels of politeness within a conversation, where, the opposite is typically true for western English speaking countries (Holtgraves & Yang, 1990).Rather than favoring negative politeness they value positive politeness more.These differences should not be overlooked in the classroom setting.

Current methods of teaching English in the South Korean school system typically tends to be lacking in the department of pragmatic discourse.Textbooks rely heavily on memorization and the linguistic approach to language learning which emphasizes grammar and vocabulary (Litz, 2005).However, research has shown that a more communicative approach is more beneficial for student competence; and when students are competent their confidence also tends to rise(Vellenga, 2004).Intercultural communication is becoming increasingly more common, and without the authenticity and the tools in the textbooks reflecting the demand, it is uncertain that current students would have the awareness and the competence to be able to interact, or compete in a growing global community.

Politeness is in everything speakers say and do, though some implement it in stronger forms than others.Where Korean has overt politeness that can be seen, the covert politeness of English is something students may not be able to pick up on their own. Embedded in the Korean culture is a level of politeness not reflected by the English, or the western mindset at large.In order to promote cross-cultural communication, students need to understand and be aware about the cultures English derives from.Since English can mold to so many different cultures and mindsets, by knowing English politeness theories, Korean students can learn to balance their own cultural identity within that.Understanding how to read and interpret situations and relationships through both the Korean and English language mindset promotes levels of communication highly beneficial to all parties (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).When speakers of different languages can politely and authentically communicate with each other it promotes a global community of understanding.It is not fair to dismiss one culture's identity or beliefs for another, but for many language learners, in order to reach communicative proficiency, the underlying systems and pragmatics of a language are just as important as the semantics.

Through more awareness, authenticity, and higher levels of communication the language classroom can develop into a space for cultural development and awareness as much as a place of language learning. Politeness is something that is not universally understood nor regulated, which is why these systems should be implemented.Politeness in English is not just minding manners and using proper forms of a language, there is an underlying system that is acquired slowly over time for native speakers.For

non-native speakers, the same underlying system will only take form in the classroom and in conversation until the student travels to a community where English has dominant cultural ties.The classroom is key to teaching politeness, and teachers the gatekeepers of communication.Without awareness and understanding though, students will have a very hard time traversing the gap between English and Korean politeness.

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Polysemy in Cognitive Linguistics

Michael J. McLaren
Introduction to Linguistics

This paper will try to give a comprehensive overview of one of the central issues of present day cognitive linguistics: polysemy. Polysemy is a characteristic of most words in many languages and it is inherent in the very nature of words and concepts. This paper thus seeks to define polysemy; what it is, how it is viewed within the continuum of words with multiple meanings, and to place it within an acceptable framework of meaning. This will be done by looking at the way a word is structured as in whether a word can be seen as having one sense or multiple senses, how the different senses of a word are related to each other and the connection between them, the general rules of meaning extension that exist to create these meanings, and how they are indeed stored within our brain. Finally, the paper attempts to show how meanings are attributed to words throughout the course of time.

1. Introduction

There is a growing belief that with the exception of homonyms, most words have only one meaning (Klein & Murphy, 2001) but it is estimated by some that up to 40% of all English words have more than one meaning (Traxler, 2011). In the semantics field it can be assumed that there are three types of word; those that are monosemous, polysemous, and homonymous. Croft (2003) posits that a "one-to-one match between a word and a meaning is called monosemy"(p.358) and these types of words are usually highly technical in nature with a very specific meaning. It is these kinds of words that we are not interested in as from a cognitive linguistic (CL) perspective it very easy to map out how the brain stores them. It is the latter two, but more specifically polysemous words that are of more interest to CL as under different contexts the same word can have many different semantic meanings.So, it is an area of interest as they bring up a number of conceptual questions about how they work in the brain.

2. Defining polysemy

In the psychology of word meaning, polysemy is a very central issue. Dobrić (2014) posits, much like this paper will try to show, polysemy is "perhaps the most elusive semantic issue to account for and the following discussion seeks to outline, define it, and to place it within the acceptable theoretical framework of meaning" (p.146).It is as Dirven and Verspoor (2004) note that polysemy comes "from Greek poly 'many' and sema'sign, meaning'" (p.26). Thus, polysemous words can be seen as words that have more than one related sense. By which we mean "the association of two or more related senses with a single phonological form" (Taylor, 1995, p.99) which "is in contrast to a homonym, which is a word with two or more unrelated meanings" (Crossley, Salsbury, & McNamara, 2010, p.575).

In current polysemy research, a popular trend is to regard polysemy as a graded phenomenon (see Figure 1). This apparent solution to the problem of differentiating between said vagueness and polysemy, however, only serves to present the conceptual confusion more clearly, particularly in the use of the term semantic classes. Brisard, Van Rillaer, and Sandra (2001) describe this situation as follows:

> There seems to be a growing consensus around the idea that polysemy occupies the middle position on a continuum with homonymy situated at one extreme and vagueness at the other (Tuggy 1993, Geeraerts 1993). In this model, a homonymous item displays two unrelated meanings, a polysemous item has one meaning with two or more senses [sic], and a vague item has one meaning with only one sense that can be slightly refined, yet not fundamentally altered, through semantic integration with additional contextual material. The notion of a continuum or cline implies that there are no rigid boundaries between these semantic classes and that the possibility of finding a number of in-between cases, always (and by necessity) constituting polysemous categories, is considerable (p.262).

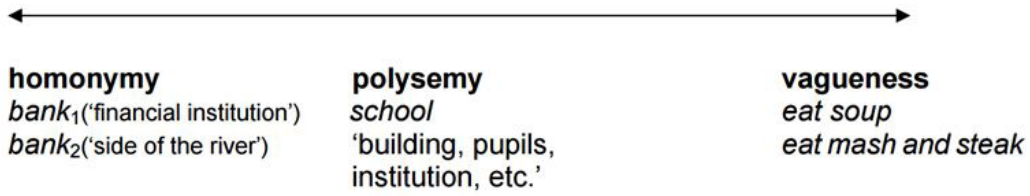

Figure 1: A proposed continuum of polysemy (Zawada, 2009, p.126)

Traditionally the notion of polysemy is noted as being a phenomenon in which there is a relationship between the senses of a lexical item. However, it has been turned into a phenomenon by where "lexical items are assigned to semantic classes, based on various unequal relationships" (Zawada, 2009, pp.126-127).The point of which is the idea that semantic classes can assign words as consistently and unequivocally as possible to one of the three classes (as seen above), or if it is not possible to position them somewhere on the continuum, with the intent that the classes (or positions on the continuum) will be handled differently in a model of the mental lexicon (Zawada, 2009).

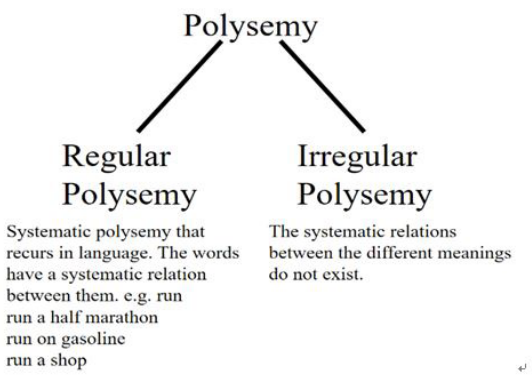

Figure 2: Types of polysemy

As such, this leads to the idea that polysemous forms can themselves be divided into words that exhibit regular and irregular polysemy (see figure 2), though the discrepancies between regular and irregular are not as clear-cut as they first seem (Falkum& Vicente, 2015).

Regular polysemy can be thought of as a form of systematic, recurring polysemy. This is highlighted in Murphy (2010) who postulates that regular polysemy relates to "word senses that are distinct, but which follow a general pattern or rule in the language" (p.89). Akmajian, Demer, Farmer, and Harnish (2001) highlight this with the example of a Sports Illustrated in stating that it "can be bought for 1 dollar or 35 million dollars; the first is something you can read and later start a fire with, the second is a particular company that produces the magazine you just read" (p.235).

Conversely, words that we categorize as retaining characteristics of irregular polysemy do not as a result have this systematic relation. Accordingly, words that possess such irregular polysemy are "triggered by other metaphorical processes" (Apresrjan, 1974, p.18).To show this, Dirven &Verspoor (2004) use the example of fruit to explain this concept. According to dictionary.com (n.d.) fruit is a word with seven different meanings:

1. any product of plant growth useful to humans or animals.

2. the developed ovary of a seed plant with its

contents and accessory parts, as the pea pod, nut, tomato, or pineapple.

3. the edible part of a plant developed from a flower, with any accessory tissues, as the peach, mulberry, or banana.

4. the spores and accessory organs of ferns, mosses, fungi, algae, or lichen.

5. anything produced or accruing; product, result, or effect; return or profit:

6. Slang: Extremely Disparaging and Offensive. a contemptuous term used to refer to a male homosexual.

7. to bear or cause to bear fruit

In this example, unlike the regular polysemous word, it is clear to see that a small number of the definitions used here are very different especially in regard to numbers 5, 6, and 7. As such, each one "represents a separate sense of fruit. In turn, each sense may be thought of as referring to a different set of things in the outside world, a set of referents" (Dirven &Verspoor, 2004, p.29).

From a CL perspective it is interesting to note that polysemy is one of those things that is everywhere in natural languages and affects not only content but function words as well. This is likewise noted by Wilkins, Ross, and Hill (n.d.) who state that polysemy has come to represent an "omnipresent property associated with lexical items but also morphemes, grammatical constructions, and whole grammatical classes" (p.472).

As mentioned previously, most common words do not have a single meaning but instead have a number of related senses. And yet, in everyday language use, polysemy does not really exist in the sense that sense selection in the comprehension process is not something that comes across as a problem at all. In the context of discourse, a word has one meaning except as one should point out in jokes and puns. We understand polysemous words because the words are always used in the context of a discourse and a situation, which eliminates all the adjoining meanings in favor of only the one in question.For that reason, polysemy has thus proved infamously difficult to handle both theoretically and empirically and has long perplexed researchers in linguistics and other fields (Ravin& Leacock, 2000).

Let us consider the studies of Klein and Murphy (2001, 2002) and Taylor (2003) amongst others whose works haveprompted us to look at the following questions about polysemous words in more detail:

1. Does one sense have the status as the word's core sense or are all the senses of a word viewed as equal?

2. How are the different senses of a word related to each other? Is there any connection between them?

3. Are there any general rules of meaning extension that exist between the different senses?

4. How exactly does the brain store polysemous words? Are all the senses stored individually or as one word with multiple senses?

3. How the polysemous senses work

A key element of the theoretical work surrounding polysemy is whether or not there is one core sense for a word or whether there are multiple senses. AsFalkum (2011) eludes "[e]mpirical studies of polysemy representation are few in number and have, to some extent, yielded conflicting results" (p.63).Thus, some believe that speakers retrieve an unspecified core meaning which is later specified thoroughly with contextual information while conversely; there are those who believe speakers retrieve one or more specific senses from a given context when a word is activated.

As mentioned in Lakoff (1987) and latterly Geeraerts (1989) polysemous words contain a multitude of inter-related senses, of which one is a more central meaning and thus has come to be regarded as the "core sense", and the others are therefore designated as non-core senses. Subsequent studies have since designated it as the "most literal meaning" (Verspoor& Lowie, 2003, p.554) amongst the various senses in that the other related senses are actually a result of this meaning. Pylkkänen, Llinás, & Murphy (2006) concluded that this may be the case as their experiments showed that "multiple related meanings with identical sound representations form part of a single lexical entry" (p.105).

So if that were truly the case, then when coming across a new polysemous word with no contextual bias, retrieving the core meaning would give one an idea of what the speaker is talking about (Foraker & Murphy, 2012). Subsequently, any future information

would add more attributes to this core, resulting in the specific, intended sense. As a result, different uses of a word would have highly shared representations. This would support the idea that the acquisition of polysemous words is learned first through prototypical meanings and non-prototypical meanings later. Saxton (2010) eludes to this fact in stating that "structures children hear most often are, in certain cases, the ones that they, in turn, use most often themselves" (p.232). This is in part because children are typically taught prototypes first such as dog, bird, cat etc. and learn specific sub-species/sections of categories later in life as they develop mentally.

This is not to say that this perception of a core meaning for polysemous words has not been critiqued. The experiments in Klein and Murphy (2001; 2002) have shown that many polysemous senses have very little in common with each other. However, Foraker & Murphy (2012) alludes to this being down to the fact that many of the polysemous words that they chose to represent had dissimilar senses. Yet Klein and Murphy's research would seem to further compound what others such as Zgusta (1971), Cruse (1986), Lakoff (1987) and more recently Murphy (2007) still seem to point to a multiple-sense theory.

Another view of polysemous representation is one that is much closer to that of homonymy than polysemy. Homonymy as previously mentioned is assumed to have contrastive meanings which are contradictory in nature. For example, Klepousniotou, Pike, Steinhauer, &Gracco (2012) use the sentences "John lay down on the bank of the river" and "The Royal Bank is the largest bank in Montreal" to illustrate this. In these examples the word "bank" has the meanings "river side" and "financial institution"(p.11). From this perspective, as we have seen, the different senses will have separated entries and as suchit can be difficult to distinguish between homonymy and polysemy. Lyons (1977) noted this is because the differentiation is based on two criteria: the historical derivation of words and the etymological relationship of word meanings.This is as he pointed out is due to the fact that the historical derivation of many words is no longer available and "it is not always clear what is meant by an etymological relationship" (p.552) when referring to context. Subsequently, there are those who view that a reasonable number of senses are represented, and thus one sense of a word might not overlap with a different sense of the same word (Tuggy, 1993; Klein, 2000).

4. Polysemous sense relations

Looking at polysemous words from a core sense outlook tends to suggest that polysemous senses are connected through a singular common core. According to Lakoff (1987), "the senses of a polysemous word are all interrelated, forming a radial category" (p.65) and this idea harks back to Rosch's (1975) idea of prototype theory, in which a "prototype" is considered a central member (or the central member) of a category with other members leading away from the center in graded degrees of membership. As our understanding of how the brain works developed, so did the radial categories model, developing into the meaning-chain analysis as exemplified by Dewey (2010) (see figure 3).Taylor (1986) explains the meaning-chain analysis and why it may fit better as there may be no direct conceptual links between all peripheral senses:

> For each preposition, we recognize a central or prototypical sense. The prototypical sense, rather than being highly general, may well profile a very specific configuration. Polysemy comes about when the preposition is used in a sense which is closely related to, but distinct from, the prototypical instance. For example: a condition which is essential might not be met; a feature which is optional to the prototype now assumes central importance, or vice versa; or some additional feature might be required. By the same process, this derived meaning may in turn give rise to a further extension, and so on. The various senses of the word thus radiate out from the central prototype, like the spokes of a wheel. Senses at the periphery might well have little in common, either with each other, or with the central senses; they are merely related by virtue of the intervening members of the meaning chain. (p.301)

For example, looking at the example of "head" below, here the meaning of head as a limit of capability (in over your head) may have little or nothing in common with the peripheral sense of head in headwater (mouth of a major river) apart from the word head. Lakoff (1987) explains how this may come to be, "[T]he links are sometimes defined by shared properties, but frequently they are not defined by shared properties, but by transforms or by metaphors" (p. 435).

In contrast, there is also research in contradiction of this view of a core sense.As previously mentioned, many linguists thought it difficult to make a clear

distinction between homonymy and polysemy. Klein (2000) noted in her experiments, the overlap of different senses in a number of different tests was surprisingly low stating, "although the overlap of polysemous senses is small, it is not zero" (p.565) and this would go some way to bolster the idea that "when we say that a word is polysemous, this does not mean that all senses of a word are interrelated or have something in common" (Blank, 2003, p.273). Although some senses are likely derived from other senses, a core sense is not shared by the other sense but as Klein (2000) noted "all theories seem to agree that the extension of a word from one sense to a novel one requires some kind of conceptual similarity, analogy, or relation. Without that constraint, the senses of a word could be completely random" (p565).

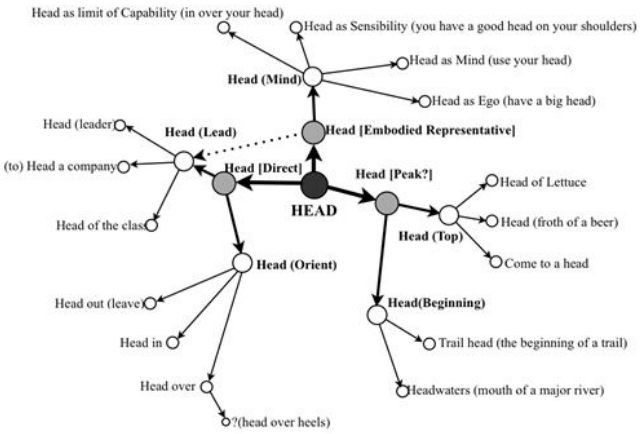

Figure 3: Meaning chain analysis of "head" (Dewey, 2010)

5. Polysemy and meaning extension

There are still a great number of researchers such as Smith (2001), Bartsch (2002), and Sullivan (2007), but to name a few, who still argue that polysemy can be predicted through the principles of meaning extensions such as metaphor and metonymy as the initial stage of creation and acceptance before being conventionalized. Metaphor and metonymy can be considered similar in many ways but metaphor substitutes a concept with another, a metonymy selects a related term.

Furthermore, it can be argued that word meaning can be expanded since human beings think and talk metaphorically (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). This is as Galef (2011) notes because the human brain is incredibly good at abstract reasoning and allows us to take these abstract thoughts and graft them onto more concrete concepts that are a lot easier for people to understand; as such this allows us to extend lexical meaning. Lin (2010) notes the example "he is a tiger in class" (p.20) as a metaphor. In this case, the word tiger is used in exchange for exhibiting an attribute of the person's character. The sentence "the tiger called his students to the meeting room" (p.21) is a prime example of metonymy. Here there is no substitute; instead the person is likened to the tiger for his nature.

However, that is not to say the principles of metaphor and metonymy sometimes fail as the lexicon is simply too unpredictable (Lehrer, 1990). This is further compounded by the fact that metaphors constantly evolve during their time (Gentner, Bowdle, Wolff, &Boronat, 2001). As a result, there is a great deal of polysemy (both regular and irregular) that cannot be predicted by the rules of any general mechanism such as metaphor or metonymy.

6. Storage of polysemous senses

Figuring out how people store and process polysemous words has proven difficult to do (Brown, 2008) and as many theories as there are, there is little consensus that has been reached. Just like the debate of whether there is one core sense or multiple senses, there are two camps on polysemous word storage theories.

Caramazza and Grober (1976) made the initial claim that a singular core meaning is what is stored in a psychological representation of a word that has many senses. From this perspective, it is the core sense that is retained and extended senses are not permanently stored in the lexicon (Klein & Murphy, 2001). This would seem to be the case as later research by Frisson and Pickering (2001, 2002) has shown that different senses are equally easy enough for the brain to process. They proposed that learners originally adopt an interpretation depending on the context in which the word is first encountered and choosing between senses later in processing. This uncertainty in processing would tend to suggest that one word is stored in memory.

Beretta, Fiorentino, &Poeppel (2005) suggest whether therefore, single-entry models of polysemy must be abandoned? While several linguists may make that case, it might not necessarily need to be that way, as previously mentioned in Klein and Murphy (2002) and in more recent papers such as Zabotkina&Boyarskaya (2013). It is also widely acknowledged that polysemous senses range from nearly identical to nearly unrelated.

> It is important not to exaggerate the separation of polysemous senses in our results. For example, we found that more similar senses were sorted together...In addition, we chose polysemous senses that were clearly distinct in meaning...did not use type token polysemy which naïve subjects might not even identify as being different senses. Nor did we use subtle differences...in which different aspects of the same word are emphasized depending on the perspective of the speaker. (Klein and Murphy, 2002, p.568)

Therefore, it could be assumed if a core sense cannot be a basic component of meaning that is shared by all or most of the senses, it is not surprising that the senses of polysemous words are stored separately in the mental lexicon as in homonymy (i.e., homonymy is stored in separate entries whereas polysemy is stored under a single entry).This is certainly the case that recent research supports.

7. Semantic change and different approaches to polysemy

Much like every aspect of polysemy that we have encountered thus far, the question of whether words have always had all their meanings or whether they are derived from other meanings has two approaches. Yet the two approaches in lexicology (synchronic and diachronic), unlike other areas of polysemy, should not be set against each other or contrasted; as matter of fact, they are more than likely dependent on one another. As Ginzburg, Khidekel, Knyazeva, and Sankin (1966) note, linguistic structure is that in every "system exists in a state of a constant development so that the synchronic state of a language system is a result of a long process of linguistic evaluation, the result of the historical development of the language" (p.8).

7.1 Polysemy from a diachronic approach

Looking at polysemy from a diachronic perspective it is recognized as being defined as the growth and development or as a change in semantic structure of the word. The term "diachronic" is composed of the Greek morphemes δια (dia) meaning "through" χρόνος (chromos) meaning "time" (Kiraz, 2014). Hence, polysemy in diachronic terms implies that a word can/may retain its previous meaning or meanings and at the same time acquire one or more new meanings. Then the problem of interrelation and interdependence of individual meanings of a polysemous word prompts us to look at the following questions about the diachronic approach to studying polysemy:

1. Did every word always possess all of its meanings or did some of the meanings appear earlier than the others?

2. If that is the case, what is the nature of this dependency?

3. Is it possible to observe any changes in the arrangement of the meanings?

In the course of a diachronic semantic analysis of the polysemous word tablewe find that of all the meanings it has in Modern English, the primary (prototypical) meaning is "an article of furniture consisting of a flat, slablike top", which is almost identical to the meaning of the word in the Old English period (OE. tabule from the Latin tabula)(dictionary.com, n.d.); thus all other meanings are secondary as they are derived from the primary meaning of the word and appeared later in time.

According to this approach, the semantic structure of a word must therefore contain two types of meanings: a primary meaning and secondary meanings with the terms "secondary" and "derived" meanings being to a certain extent synonymous with each other. As Geeraerts (1999) notes in describing the meaning of the word as "secondary", we subsequently imply that said meaning could not have appeared before the primary meaning existed. When we refer to the meaning as "derived" we are not only implying it is a secondary meaning, but further denoting it as being dependent on the primary meaning and thus subordinate to it. As it changes, it takes the form of variations on the central meaning. Thus, "if a particular meaning starts off as a name for referents exhibiting the features ABCDE, the subsequent expansion of the category will consist of variations on that type of referent" (p.93). Referring back to the word table, e.g. we might say that the meaning "… the food placed on the table" is derived through metonymic transfer as we can also describe it as secondary and metonymic (Grinberg, 1960, p.203).

It follows the idea that the main source of polysemy is a change in the semantic structure of the word. As can be seen from the example above, from a diachronic analysis of polysemy, we can use a number of different concepts and terms that are devoted to the change of meaning. As an example, we can use metaphoric or metonymic meanings if we simply imply the nature of dependency of the meanings, of extended or restricted meanings, or if we connect with

the interrelation of meanings because of semantic change.

Polysemy as previously stated may also be a result of homonymy which shares a very loose boundary with polysemy (Hock, 1991) with the only real way of telling the two apart being personal judgement.Yule (1996) notes "homonyms are words which have quite separate meanings, but which have accidentally come to have exactly the same form" (p.121). As a result the two meanings can be seen as almost making up one semantic structure. The example of bark illustrates this nicely.

a) My dog would always bark at mailmen.

b) The tree's bark was a rusty brown.

In this case bark clearly has two distinct meanings, with (a) coming from the Proto-Germanic word berkaną meaning to bark/rumble and (b) coming from the Old Norse word bǫrkr which may be related to birch (socialdictionary.com, n.d.).However, as confusing as this is Hock (1991) states it is a"certain price for this economy and the conventional nature of language" (p.281). Semantic change thus results as a rule in a new meaning being attached to the ones already residing in the semantic structure of the word. However, not all meanings are always kept as some of the older meanings may well become obsolete or even disappear as the bulk of English words tend to increase in their number of meanings (Ravin& Leacock, 2000).

Polysemy viewed from a diachronic perspective is therefore a historical change in the semantic structure of the word resulting in a new meaning being added to the ones already present and it is clear to see that polysemy cannot suddenly materialize as has been shown; it emerges from very specific circumstances. Furthermore, there is also a reorganization of these meanings within the word's semantic structure.As semantic structure is never static, the relationship between the diachronic and synchronic evaluation of individual meanings of the same word may be different throughout the different periods of historical development of language. Yet this is to be expected of language due to the fact that"the inevitability of language change is guaranteed by the way in which language ispassed on from one generation to the next"(Murray, 1997, p.291).

7.2. Observing changes in semantic meanings

From a usage-based perspective, it can therefore be concluded that synchronic linguistic variation develops from diachronic change (Weinreich et al., 1968) and as McMahon (1994) points out "most native speakers will thus be aware of semantic changes which have taken place within their lifetime"(p.174). Yet one of the main obstacles to the analysis of semantic change is its inseparable link of meaning with culture. This means that in order to understand a change in meaning we may also require as McMahon notes"a good grasp of the socio-cultural situation within a speech community"(p.175). So what conditions are required for such a change?

7.2.1 Conditions for semantic change

Firstly, words need to bepolysemantic; each word must have various meanings or cover a whole range of shades of meaning in which new, analogical forms can encroach on the prototypicalmeaning of the word (McMahon, 1994, p.176). Secondly, language has to be conveyed disjointedly in which McMahon means that people, but more specifically children may learn and use words imperfectly, or make abductiveinferences which alter the language (p.177). Tomasello (2003) on creating language similarly notes this stating "children construct some utterances in an even more creative manner from various bits and pieces whose functions they know from previous usage" (p.305).Finally, semantic change is "sanctioned by Saussure's doctrine of the arbitrariness of the linguistic sign" (McMahon, 1994, p.177). The arbitrariness of a linguistic sign is revealed in the fact that a signifier such as a series of sounds has no internal connection with the concept of whatever it signifies. It follows the idea that when we hear a sequence of sounds, it is associated by the concept of a signified object in our mind. Yet, there is nothing inherent about the signified object that would predetermine its signification exclusively by the above mentioned sequence of sounds. It is this arbitrariness that allows us to regard the signifier and the signified as essentially being independent of each other and may therefore change with time (McMahon, 1994). If the relationship between these two facets of the linguistic sign were inherent, there would only exist a single language.

7.2.2. The causes of semantic change

Knowing what conditions need to be met for semantic changes, Meillet (1912 as cited in McMahon, 1994, p.179) proposed three causes for change in

semantic meaning: historical, social, and linguistic. To these three, Ullmann (1962) adds a fourth cause being psychological.

Historical causes involve a change in the material culture. Referents frequently change, usually due to technological innovation, but the name however remains the same, it changes thusly because the needs of its speakers change. New technologies, new products, and new experiences necessitate new words to refer to them both clearly and efficiently. Consider the example of texting:

> Originally it was called text messaging, because it allowed one person to send another text rather than voice messages by phone. As that became more common, people began using the shorter form text to refer to both the message and the process, as in I just got a text or I'll text Sylvia right now. (Birner, n.d., para.2)

Another possible reason for change is social causes, as no two people have ever had the exact the same language experience. Meyer (2010) states that "we all know a slightly different set of words and constructions, depending on our age, job, education level, region of the country, and so on" (para.3). It is no surprise then that we pick up new words and phrases from all the people of different walks of life that we interact with and these combine to make something original and unlike any other person's particular way of speaking. Simultaneously, various groups within a given society use language as a way of marking their group identity; showing who is and isnot a member of the group.Here, a word tends to acquire a new meaning due to its use by a specific social group, or a word used in a specific sense by a group that comes into common exchange with an extended meaning (McMahon, 1994). This is illustrated with the words autumn and harvest:

> Harvest is the native Germanic word, cognate with German Herbst 'autumn'. However, after the Norman Conquest, the upper classes adopted a great many French words, including autumn. This borrowing promoted a semantic shift: autumn became the normal word for the season, while harvest was reserved for the agricultural labor the peasantry would have been performing at that time. (McMahon, 1994, p.180)

Meillet's last category involves linguistic causes which unlike the other two factors are language-internal, and have nothing to do with the external, contextual factors like the material culture. This is the most complicated as there are many types of linguistic causes that may change the meaning of a word. Of course there are many ways a word can change including traditional approaches such as narrowing, widening, metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, degeneration, and amelioration. Hock (1991) notes a few other linguistic causes such as onomatopoeia, taboo, and sound change.

In onomatopoeia words imitate the real-world sound associated with the meaning of the word. Occasionally the connection to the sounds in nature is strong enough to obstruct onomatopoetic words from undergoing regular sound changes. An oft overused example is that of the English sound "peep /pip/, from earlier pipen, would have become /paip/ by regular sound change […] if not for the influence of onomatopoeia" (Anttila, 1989 as cited in Campbell, 2013p.320).

Taboo is noted for being able to constantly change the semantic meaning of a word (Hock, 1991). For example, Cambpell (2013, p.264) notes that in English, ass"long-eared animal related to a horse" has essentially been replaced in America by donkey (or burro) because it is thought to be too close for comfort to the obscene word ass meaning "derriere, arse"; cock"adult male chicken" has almost be completely replaced by rooster due to the discomfort from using the more obscene associations of cock with "penis".

Furthermore, the sounds of a language change over time, too. Birner (n.d.) notes that sometime close to 500 years ago, the English language began to experience major transformations in the way its vowels were pronounced. Prior to that, geese would have more than likely rhymed with today's pronunciation of face, while mice would have rhymed with the word peace (para.9). At this time, the much mentioned"Great Vowel Shift" began to occur, during which the ay sound changed to ee in all the words containing it, while the ee sound changed to i. In total, seven different vowel sounds were affected.

Lastly, the fourth category as suggested by Ullmann (1962) is the psychological category of causation although it is often referred to as reinterpretation (Hock, 1991). What is meant here is that children may imperfectly learn, or make abductiveinferences which alter the language in some way (McMahon, 1994). An example of this (Hock 1991; McMahon, 1994) is the Old English word (ge)bed which used to mean "prayer" to the Modern English word bead defined as a "small wooden or other ball on a string". If

an adult using a rosary explains to a child that they are counting their beads, we have a vague context: the adult in question intends to convey that they are saying their prayers, yet all the child sees is only the accompanying concrete action involving the movement of the little spheres which are part of the rosary. Consequently, bead alters its sense.

7.3 The process of semantic change in polysemous words

Knowing the conditions and causes needed for semantic change, how do polysemy, vagueness, and contextual enrichment interact in the theory of semantic change? In modern contemporary models of semantic change, the development of polysemy is included, thus itis sometimes considered an intermediate step in semantic change, as shown in the simplified model (below):

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
Word has sense a	Word has two senses: a and b	Word has sense b

Table 1: A simplified model of semantic change

However, polysemy can also be viewed less as an intermediary step and more as a final, stablized stage of semantic change and like any linguistic change; a semantic change is not simultaneously acquired by all the members of a particular community. As Traugott and Dasher (2002:11) stress, as with most semantic change, old meanings are not lost; rather, the outcome of semantic change is most often stable, long-term polysemy. To account for the emergence of polysemy, an additional stage has been theorized (Evans and Wilkins, 2000;Traugott and Dasher, 2002). In this medial stage, before a word develops a more stable polysemy, it conveys assorted meanings in a number of different contexts via specific contextual enrichment which can be described as "inference-driven" (Evans and Wilkins 2000, p.550), and may include additional lexical material or phonetic information. It is important to note however that contextual enrichment serves to clarify some vague element of a word's meaning. Thus, in order for contextual enrichment to facilitate particular utterances in use, the word in question needs to be unspecified for particular attributes. The table below formulates a more complete model of semantic change.

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Word has sense a which is vague	Contextual enrichment specifies an attribute 1 at the exclusion of another attribute 2	Normative usage arises with contextual enrichment that specifies attribute 1 to the exclusion of another attribute 2	Word develops a stable, new sense b that exists alongside sense a

Table 2: A complete model of semantic change

- Stage 1 represents the vagueness that is omnipresent in all lexical semantics. As all words are undefined for some elements of meaning, all words can potentially be explained through contextual enrichment, and it is this contextual enrichment that can in turn result in semantic change and polysemy.

- Stages 2, these vague attributes of meaning are more clearly explained through contextual enrichment. As Wilkins (1996) notes, "an innovation enters into a language and spreads through the speech community along socially determined lines. The original meaning of a form is not immediately displaced by the innovated meaning, but the two coexist for some time" (p.269).

- Stage 3 is when the new word begins to be decontextualized through regular usage as Evans and Wilkins (2000) similarly note as recurring instances of specific, clarifying contextual enrichment that happen to suggest a new, regular use for the word.

- Stage 4, this new use becomes prevalent enough that it does not require contextual enrichment and emerges as its own discreet sense, thus rendering the word polysemous.

This model of semantic change shows us that contextual enrichment, vagueness, and polysemy are the vital parts of the process of change. Thus, it is possible to describe a word and its usage in terms of polysemy,

contextual enrichment, and vagueness to therefore identify stages of emergent semantic change. Geeraerts (1997), Evans and Wilkins (2000), and Enfield (2003) have all worked to relate stages of semantic change to synchronic polysemy and contextual enrichment, with successful results. Indeed, the relationship between polysemy and semantic change drives Evans and Wilkins (2000) to claim that "…to understand semantic change we must focus on polysemy" (p.550). Enfield (2003) on the other hand, posits that "it is not synchronic polysemy but synchronic implicature [or meaning implied by contextual enrichment] that is directly relevant to semantic change" (p.30). Thus according to the model, all three factors can be seen as keys to understanding change in semantic meaning.

8. Conclusion

The most important function of any language is to carry meaning and polysemous words certainly carry their fair share of meanings. The problem that lingers is mainly that of interrelation and interdependence of the various meanings of the same word. Resultantly, it is a major object of confusion and one of the most controversial problems in linguistics, yet it remains of great importance in studying as it is one of the most characteristic features of the English language. What this paper has shown is the fact that the subject of polysemy is severely fraught with a complexity of issues that do not seem to be concluded any time soon.

What is known is that polysemy is characteristic of most words in many languages and it is inherent in the very nature of words and concepts. Every object and every notion has many features and a concept reflected in a word will always contain a generalization of several traits of the object. Some of these traits or components of meaning are commonly known with other objects. Hence the possibility of using the same name in secondary nomination for objects possessing common features which are sometimes only implied in the original meaning. Therefore, when a word is acquiring a new meaning or meanings, it may also retain older previous meanings. Thus, to create the word's semantic structure all the lexical and lexico-grammatical variants of the word need to be taken together.

Furthermore, as we know, not only the sound-form but also the meaning of the word is changed in the course of historical development of a language and these changes occur under the influence of many diverse factors. Change of meaning is affected through association between the existing meaning and the emergent one and this association is by and large based on the similarity or the contiguity of meanings. Due to numerous changes of meaning throughout time, such a phenomenon as the multiplicity of word meaning places an additional burden on efforts to comprehend the correct meaning of words in context.

Lastly, it has not been determined by a number of researchers over several decades of research whether or not there is one core sense of a word or whether there are several separate senses nor the way they are stored in the brain. What has been shown, however, is that metaphor and metonymy play an important part in the sense meaning relationships of a number of words and how they do indeed relate to each other. This paper has shown us is that polysemy and its place in accounting for meaning is still in need of a lot further research.

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A Bridge to the World:

Bridging Activities for the Development of Language Awareness

Jungrim Park
Research Methodology

This paper examines how to teach and assess foreign language learners' Language Awareness (LA) as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge within an instructional framework named Bridging Activities (BA). The rationale for examining the methods of teaching and assessing of LA is scored by the studies that have shown that LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge is teachable and assessable in EFL context (Olshtain& Cohen, 1990; LoCasro's, 1997; Crozet, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Safont, 2003; Salazar, 2003). The necessity and importance of teaching LA have also been recognized, but still foreign language teachers rarely try to teach and assess LA in their classrooms. The hesitation could be partly attributed to the lack of some valid methods for testing interlanguage pragmatics knowledge (Jianda, L., 2006). This paper will review the literature on LA by first considering its historical backgrounds, definitions, and features. Following this, the central issues will be discussed: the way to raise LA through BA and the way to triangulate LA assessment measures.

1. Introduction

In recent years, emerging literacies associated with digital media are highly relevant to our current and future lives as language users. The rapid increase in technology usage is especially noticeable in younger generations. Brignall and Van Valey (2005) analyzed the effects of technology among "current cyber-youth", those who have grown up with the Internet as an important part of their everyday life and interaction rituals. They discovered that due to the pervasive use of the Internet in education, communication and entertainment, there has been a significant decrease in face-to-face interaction among youth. One study, conducted by the Kaiser Family Foundation, found people ages 8 to 18 spent more time on media than any other activity, at an average of 7.5 hours a day (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010). Therefore, this is a particularly critical stage for us, being able to communicate digitally in so many ways. To move beyond language practice and support participation as social practice, researchers are beginning to explore ways to integrate online communities into the language curriculum (McNeil, 2015).

This paper examines the possibility of teaching and assessing foreign language learners' Language Awareness (LA) as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge within an instructional framework named Bridging Activities (BA). The rationale for examining the methods of teaching and assessing of LA is scored by the studies that have shown that LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge is teachable and assessable in EFL context (Olshtain& Cohen, 1990; LoCasro's, 1997; Crozet, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Safont, 2003; Salazar, 2003). The necessity and importance of teaching LA have been recognized, however foreign language teachers rarely try to teach and assess LA in their classrooms. This hesitation could be attributed to the lack of valid methods for testing interlanguage pragmatics knowledge (Jianda, 2006).

Aligned with a multiliteracies approach (New London Group, 1996), Bridging Activities (BAs) exploit the fact that learners may be more capable of learning new skills and practices via familiar media. Formal educational contexts and objectives may have limited relevance to the immediate and mediated

social, communicative, and informational needs of students. BAs are not intended to be a replacement for standard texts or reference grammars. Rather, they are meant to provide a realia counterweight to the prescriptivist versions of grammar, style, and vocabulary in foreign language texts that typically are not based upon actual language use (e.g., Carter, Hughes, & McCarthy, 2000; Thorne, Reinhardt, &Golombek, 2008). In addition, the ultimate goal of BA model extends beyond high-level foreign language proficiency to include intercultural and symbolic competence as part of an increasingly plurilingual, multiliterate global citizenry (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008).

This paper has been organized in the following way. The first chapter gives a brief overview of the focus of the study. Chapter two reviews the literature on LA by first considering its historical backgrounds, definitions, and features. Following this, the central issues will be discussed: the way to raise LA through BA and the way to triangulate LA assessment measures. The third section presents the conclusion of the study.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Language Awareness (LA)

2.1.1 Historical Backgrounds of LA

LA was put forward in the 1970s, primarily by modern linguistics, as a new 'bridging' element in the United Kingdom (UK) school curriculum (Hawkins, 1999). The concept of LA began to gain currency in the 1980s as a reaction to the then prevailing prescriptive approach which focuses on forms and atomistic analysis of a language (Lin, 2011). The notion of an innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) advanced by the once widely accepted Chomsky has also been questioned by mainstream linguists. Further evidence of the importance of the environment (see Bolinger& Sears, 1981) and feedback from adults (see Bruner, 1983)was provided. Since the early 1990s, an impressive body of research shows that conscious learning, especially the kind one would characterize as language awareness, also builds interlanguage, one's interim grammar in the mind (Bourke, 2008). Interlanguage has to grow and develop; otherwise, fossilization sets in and learners may exhibit the all too familiar symptoms of a "grammar gap" (Bourke, 1989, p.21). Many learners seem to experience this gap and need remedial work in order to eradicate fossilized errors. Furthermore, there have been the growing evidence that many pupils, perhaps a majority of each age group, were simply failing to learn the language in which the school curriculum was delivered and examined (Hawkins, 1999). For this reason, LA is currently viewed as a solution to several of failures in traditional foreign language teaching.

2.1.2 Definitions of LA

LA is described and defined in various ways in the used sources and it is difficult to give the concept a clear definition, particularly due to its holistic application and the different dimensions it contributes to (PrticSoons, 2008). The National Council in the UK for Language in Education (N.C.L.E), which supported research on language awareness in the beginning of the LA movement,gave the following definition, "Language awareness is a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life" (1985, as quoted in Malmberg, 2001, p.141). The Association of Language Awareness (ALA), founded by Garret and Van Lierin 1994 is an organization that aims at supporting and promoting activities and research on language awareness. ALA provides the following definition: "Language awareness can be defined as explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (ALA website). Other definitions that are similar to language awareness include consciousness-raising (Rutherford, 1987; Schmidt, 1990; Fotos, 1993; Sharwood Smith, 1993); focus on form (Long, 1991; Doughty and Williams, 1998); grammar interpretation tasks (Ellis, 1995); and form-focused instruction (Ellis, 2001; Hinkel and Fotos, 2002). More recently,LA has been defined as "the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (Carter, 2003, 64; Bourke, 2008).

Definitions of LA are wide in scope, including not only grammatical awareness but also phonological, lexical, and discourse awareness. In order to simplify the variety, the present article refers to all of these approaches as language awareness in a more pragmatic way, as they have a lot in common and differ from traditional grammar teaching in a number of significant ways.

2.1.3 Features of LA

Tomlinson (2003) pointed out two distinctive features of LA: First, it studies language in a larger social, cultural and ideological framework rather than typifying a language by meticulous study. Second, LA is an attribute gained through learners' motivated attention to a language in use. LA can be developed only by learners themselves though paying deliberate attention to language usage. Hawkins views language awareness building as a "dynamic and intuitive" process (Hawkins, 1984, p. 4-5).

Rose (2005) came to the conclusion that there is considerable evidence indicating that a range of features of second language pragmatics are teachable. These include a variety of discourse, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic targets of instruction, such as discourse markers and strategies, pragmatic routines, speech acts, overall discourse characteristics, and pragmatic comprehension (Rose, 2005, p. 396–397).

McCarthy and Carter (1994) offer several principles that aim to develop awareness of language as discourse. These include the contrastive principle, which focuses on differences within comparable text types and/or language used to achieve particular social actions; the continuum principle, involving exposure to a variety of texts in the same genre but produced by different authors; and the inferencing principle, which teaches strategies for cultural and literary understanding, or interpretative skills. What teachers do in taking a language awareness approach is to challenge learners to ask questions, sparkle their interest and involve them in exploring for themselves how language works. In a classroom where learners notice for themselves the features of a certain language, they become 'positive and curious' learners (van Lier, 2001) and the self-gained realization will be registered and more internalized than achieved in a traditional classroom.

As Thorn and Reinhardt (2008) mentioned in their study, the use of language awareness focuses on bringing explicit attention to recurrent discursive and linguistic features of texts and then discussing these aspects of linguistically structured communication openly and directly with learners with the goal of fostering metalinguistic knowledge. It's a developmental process achieved by learners own experience and discovery of how language works (Lin, 2011).

These features of LA will be particularly helpful for individuals whose purpose for learning is not test-oriented but rather communicating in the foreign language and ultimately becoming a proficient language user. Hawkins (1999) pointed out the fact that university students are choosing more and more to pursue a different foreign language from that studied at school highlights the unpredictability of a pupil's future language needs. Language awareness fits into this new paradigm and can address this growing phenomenon as a part of a progressive 'language apprenticeship' as Hawkins (1999) mentioned. Then, how to promote LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge in EFL classroom setting?

2.2 Bridging Activities (BAs)

Aligned with a multiliteracies approach (New London Group, 1996; Kern, 2001), bridging activities exploit the fact that learners may be more capable of learning new skills and practices via familiar media. Activities are centered on developing language awareness (see Bolitho et al., 2003; Carter & McCarthy, 1997; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; van Lier, 1995), which is defined as both a disposition towards language and a pedagogical approach (Tomlinson, as cited in Bolitho et al., 2003). Thorn & Reinhardt (2008) noted that language use is presented as an object of analysis, and grammar is presented as emergent from use, contextually dependent, and intimately tied to social function in a language awareness approach. Demanding motivated attention to the interrelationships between language form, function, and choice, learner awareness develops through a balance of experiential and analytical learning, as explicit analysis of language "strengthens the vital role of implicit awareness arising from language experience" (Masuhara, as cited in Bolitho et al., 2003, p. 254).

Bridging Activities (BAs) model involves incorporating and seriously analyzing student-selected texts within the advanced foreign language curriculum (Thorn & Reinhardt, 2008). BAs balance three steps in dialectical way: observation, experience, and active creation of, and participation in technology-mediated texts and practices with more critically oriented collection, analysis, and reflective discussion of them. According to Thorn and Reinhardt (2008), both teachers and students would engage with these questions and attempt to develop bridging activities that minimally serve two functions in practice: (a) to highlight attention to linguistic and rhetorical forms as they relate to the production of meaning and/or social actions and (b) to increase the practical relevance and contemporary currency of an institution's

foreign language courses. In sum, the central function of BAs is to raise learners' awareness of grammatical and lexical choices in text and raise critical awareness of how such choices affect meaning. If that is the case, how can teachers select the appropriate text as target language of instruction in BAs?

2.3 Speech Acts (SAs)

The Speech Act (SA) is the basic unit of language used to express meaning,an utterance that expresses an intention (Searle, 1969). Speech is not just used to designate something, it actually does something. A speech act stresses the intent of the act as a whole. According to Searle (1969), understanding the speaker's intention is essential to capture the meaning. Without the speaker's intention, it is impossible to understand the words as a speech act. Normally, the speech act is a sentence, but it can be a word or phrase as long as it follows the rules necessary to accomplish the intention. There are four types of speech acts: utterance acts, propositional acts (referring is a type of propositional act), illocutionary acts (promises, questions and commands) and perlocutionary acts. A perlocutionary act can be used to elicit some behavioral responses from the listener (Searle, 1969).

According to Bach (1998), "almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience." Speakers employ a variety of communicative acts, or speech acts, to achieve their communicative goals, including Searle's seminal broad categories (e.g., classification, commissives, declarations, directives, expressives, and representatives) as well as more specific acts such as apologies, requests, complaints, and refusals (Kasper and Rose, 2001).

A great deal of research has been done on the speech acts of apologies and requests, including studies by Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) House and Kasper (1987), Trosborg (1987), Tanaka (1988), and Faerch and Kasper (1989, as cited in Kasper and Dahl, 1991), as well as those by Brown and Levinson (1987), Blum-Kulka and House (1989), Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989), Barlund and Yoshioka (1990), and Bergman and Kasper (1993, as cited in Kasper and Rose, 2001). Fewer studies on complaints and refusals have been conducted; Olshtain and Weinbach (1987), Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990), Chen (1996), and Murphy and Neu (1996) represent some of this research.

As Tello Rueda (2006) mentioned, several empirical studies on pragmatic instruction including speech acts have confirmed that an instructional approach combining communicative practice and corrective feedback enhances noticing and optimizes learners' abilities to attend to the interactional needs of the addressee. If so, how can teachers assess developmental LA in terms of both quantity and quality to provide communicative practice and corrective feedback in BAs?

2.4 Assessment Measures of LA as Interlanguage Pragmatic Knowledge (IPK)

Yamashita (1996) and Yoshitake-Strain (1997) reviewed the six types of methods for interlanguage pragmatic assessment in detail, such as the Written Discourse Completion Tasks (WDCT), Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Tasks (MDCT), Oral Discourse Completion Tasks (ODCT), Discourse Role Play Talks (DRPT), Discourse Self-Assessment Talks (DSAT), and Role-Play self-assessments (RPSA). A summary of the practical characteristics of the six types of tests is given in Brown (2001a). Brown and Hudson (1998) classified language assessment into three broad categories: selected-response assessments, constructed-response assessments, and personal-response assessments. Kasper and Rose (2002) divided the methods of data collection used in developmental interlanguage pragmatics into three parts: spoken interaction, questionnaires, oral and written self-report. Spoken interaction is concerned with authentic discourse, elicited conversation, and role-play. Questionnaires cover Discourse Completion Tests (DTCs), multiple-choice, and scaled-response questionnaires. Finally, oral and written self-reports focus on interviews, verbal protocols, and diaries. They noted that the importance of appropriately matching research method to the task at hand. In order to triangulate the methods, this paper will closely explore the three types of assessment to measure developmental LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge: WDCT from the constructed-response type and MDCT from the selected-response type and diaries from the personal-response type. WDCT and MDCT can elicit valid quantitative data meanwhile diaries can draw sufficient qualitative data. Validity and reliability of WDCT and MDCT are described in Jianda (2006).

WDCTs are written questionnaires including

situational descriptions followed by a brief dialogue with (at least) one turn as an open slot to be completed by the participant (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Participants are asked to provide a response that they think is appropriate in the given context:

2.4.1 WDCT item to elicit an apology

At the College Teacher's office

A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

Teacher: Miriam, I hope you brought the book I lent you.

Miriam: _____

Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week.

(Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p.14).

2.4.2 WDCT test item to elicit a request

You are now shopping in a department store.

You see a beautiful suit and want to see it. You ask the salesperson to show you the suit.

You: _____

(Jianda, 2006, p. 21).

MDCTs specify the situational context and include a prompt for a response, but rather than leaving the response selection to the participant, they specify several response alternatives from which one must be chosen (Kasper & Rose, 2002). From the cognitive perspective, the two questionnaires formats, WDCTs and MDCTs, impose quite different processing demands on respondents, with the open-ended DCT representing a free-recall task and the closed format of the multiple-choice falling into the category of recognition task (Schwarz &Hippler, 1991).

2.4.3 MDCT item for testing pragmatic language use

You are now shopping in a department store. You see a beautiful suit and want to see it. You ask the salesperson to show you the suit.

What would you say or do?

a. Oh, sorry, could you pass that suit to me to have a look? I want to buy it.

b. Lady, I'd like to have a look at that suit. Would you please do me a favor?

c. Excuse me. Could you show me this suit please?

(Jianda, 2006, p. 21)

2.4.4 MDCT item for testing pragmatic comprehension

Susan and Mei-ling are roommates and are getting ready to go class together.

Mei-ling: Is it very cold out this morning?

Susan: It's August.

What is Susan saying?

a. It'll be nice and warm today. Don't worry.

b. Yes, even though it's August, it's very cold out.

c. It's so warm for this time of year that it seems like August.

d. Yes, we're sure having crazy weather, aren't we?

(Bouton, 1988, p. 194).

2.4.5 Multiple choice for speech act identification

Claudia: Oh, Maria, please I would like to go to the concert tonight but I don't have any money. This artist is one of my favorites. Can you lend me five dollars? I can pay you back tomorrow, I promise.

1. This is a(n)

a. apology b. suggestion c. request d. command

2. What helped you understand?

a. Certain words

If so, name one: _____

b. Intonation

c. Every word was comprehensible to me

d. Totally incomprehensible

(Koike, 1989, p.289).

Diaries are the least pre-structured format of all types of self-report. Diaries share with interviews their focus on past experiences and subjective theories while also permitting retrospective reports on specific attended information in the input or in the diarist's mind during an activity (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Dairies have anespecially rich potential for translating the theoretical orientation into research methodology as a prime data source for learners' own perspective on their language learning experience.

3. Conclusions

This paper has attempted not only to review but also to examine how to teach and assess LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge within a new instructional framework named as BA. On the principles of noticing and understanding (Schmidt, R., 2012), LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge can predict the variable rules, probabilities, and linguistic choices associated with particular modalities, contexts and communities, and interpersonal relationships as Cater (1998) mentioned. That is, if well developed, LA would serve an individual across a lifetime of changing linguistic, social, and professional activity.

Based on a review of the abovementioned literature, for example, Jianda (2006) concluded that exposure to the target language is shown to affect the development of EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatic knowledge. One way of remedying this lack of direct exposure to the target culture and society may be through teaching pragmatics. However, foreign language teaching in Korean EFL classroom is conducted mainly in a traditional way, not in language awareness approach. It seems problematic in Korea that still foreign language teachers rarely try to teach and assess LA in their classrooms.

Unfortunately, not many tests to assess learners' pragmatic proficiency have been produced, though pragmatic knowledge is an indispensable part of language proficiency as defined by Bachman (1990). One of the reasons why such measures have not been readily available is that developing a measure of pragmatic competence in an EFL context is not an easy task (Jianda, 2006). Future research needs to expand the range of appropriate assessment measures of LA as interlanguage pragmatic knowledge.

Despite the greater access than ever before to information about LA, the question still arises as to whether we know enough about it at this point in time to be able to adequately teach and assess language learners' awareness in an L2 classroom setting (Jianda, 2006). Additionally, community specific genres of communication are perennially expanding across global networks as new tools, communities, and purposes emerge. The question arises again, how one might select, and then teach, genres of mediated language use that are themselves rapidly transforming, or which may be transient or soon to pass out of vogue, within instructed foreign language settings (Thorn & Reinhardt, 2008). In other quarters, implicit understandings of the representation, expression, and organization of knowledge and discourse become problematic as internet-mediated realities challenge the adequacy of conventional classroom practices, in part because formal educational contexts and objectives may have limited relevance to the immediate and mediated social, communicative, and informational needs of students. In order to continue helping students have the widest range of opportunities possible in creating their lives and contributing to their community and to their future, schools must now adapt to the growing availability of language awareness approach and new technologies for teaching and learning, communication channels, and increased access to cultural and linguistic diversity.

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Maximizing Academic Learning Time in a Task-Based Writing Course: An Action Research Study

Michael McCauley, Jooyoun Sung, Heegyung Kwak

Practicum

The purpose of this action research was to maximize academic learning time in an undergraduate writing course at Sookmyung Women's University. The class was taught by a group of nine graduate students who observed that time management was an area of ongoing concern due to a number of factors including students'; awareness of the time remaining in tasks they were performing, students performing tasks at different speeds, and the level of clarity in task instructions. In order to address this issue, a series of intervention strategies were implemented, the most notable of which were: (1) a timer displayed during tasks, (2) clear modeling of tasks to be performed, (3) reminders of time remaining in tasks, and (4) graduate students intervening in group work when necessary. The interventions were carried out over a period of five weeks and data was collected through surveys of both teachers and students as well as graduate students'; post-class reflections. The findings of this action research revealed overall positive results that saw academic learning time increase through a combination of efficient time management practices on the part of the graduate students and more effective use of allocated time on the part of undergraduates.

1. Introduction

This action research was carried out in an undergraduate writing course called English in Action Writing at Sookmyung Women's University in Seoul, Korea. The primary aim of this course was to help students develop their formal essay writing skills through task-based lessons that provided the necessary context for practicing writing with specific language functions in mind. Each lesson was designed around a central theme that was selected from a needs analysis survey conducted at the start of the semester. The English in Action Writing class initially consisted of 20 female undergraduate students, but that number had fallen to 16 by semester's end due to a few students' personal circumstances. The class lasted 16 weeks and was taught entirely in English by a group of nine graduate students in Sookmyung's MA TESOL program under the guidance of a supervising professor. Each week, one group of 2-3 graduate students led the class as teachers while the remaining graduate students worked with assigned groups of 4-5 undergraduates in the role of facilitators who would provide guidance and assistance during class activities. The class was very learner-centered, and lessons on specific language forms were delivered via weekly homework assignments. In keeping with an established class tradition, the undergraduate students in this action research will be referred to as “Little Sisters” (LS) and the graduate students as “Big Siblings” (BS).

Near the beginning of the semester, the Little Sisters in the English in Action Writing class were given a needs analysis survey as well as a writing proficiency test modeled on ACTFL standards. The needs analysis was completed by 18 of the 20 students and the writing proficiency test was completed by 17 students. The needs analysis survey revealed that all students had extensive experience learning English in school (9 years, on average), and 90% of them had

also learned English at a private institute at some point. In response to the question of how they use English, all 18 students replied that they use English for studying (many were TESOL majors), and the next most popular answers were meeting people (8) and using the internet for things like reading articles, watching videos, and social networking (7). In the self-assessment section of the needs analysis, the Little Sisters revealed that, although they had relatively low confidence in their writing skills in relation to other skills such as listening and reading, they all rated themselves as Intermediate Mid to Intermediate High.

The results of the writing proficiency test placed 11 out of the 17 Little Sisters in the Intermediate Mid (2) to High (9) level. The remaining students tested as Advanced Low (5) and High (1).

2. Research Question

A strong, positive, and consistent relationship has been found to exist between the time students spend engaged in learning and their subsequent achievement and performance (Wyne & Stuck, 1982). In addition, time management has been one of the major issues that has emerged from the English in Action Writing class which was a TBLT-based course. On the basis of this methodological issue related to time-and-learning, this action research focuses on academic learning time in TBLT. Academic learning time refers to the portion of time on task during which the learner is experiencing a high rate of success (Stallings & Kaskowitz, 1974). An important challenge for teachers is to maximize academic learning time within lessons as this is the most important variable affecting students' achievement (Levin & Long, 1981). Hence, our goal in this action research was to maximize academic learning time by maintaining a continuous academic focus of students' attention and engagement so as to increase students' writing skills, and this goal forms the basis of our research question which is:

How can we maximize academic learning time in a TBLT-based writing class?

3. Rationale

Throughout the first five weeks of our English in Action class, reflections from the Big Siblings, both as teachers and facilitators, showed that time management was a major issue in the classroom.

Richards and Lockhart (1994) describe allocated time as "the amount of time that has been allowed by the teacher" (p. 171) and, in some instances, students in our class appeared to have needed more time to complete certain tasks:

...I noticed that our group (and a few others as well) seemed to have a hard time with keeping up with the pace of the first activity which was the paragraph unscramble. It seemed like (the teachers) were trying to stick to their timetable which is important, but some of the groups weren't quite ready to move forward.

- MM, September 16, 2016

At other times, a simple lack of information regarding time remaining was the cause of confusion:

...I think the time management should have been a little bit stricter for each activity. On Tuesday, the time was managed orally by the teacher so that students couldn't know how much time was left. My group members had to rush finishing on time barely writing a paragraph.

- KY, September 24, 2016

Time-on-task, which Richards and Lockhart (1994) refer to as "the degree to which students are engaged in the activity during the time provided" (p. 171), was also problematic:

...Because they spent most of the time on brainstorming and sharing the ideas in a group, they couldn't get to the revision meaningfully. So I think some explicit way of revising should be needed.

- JY, September 30, 2016

...sharing students' ideas or sentences in a group to select the good ones for revising didn't work well. I've observed the group had difficulty making a decision together, became stuck in this step, and wasted a lot of time. Consequently, each student didn't have enough time to write and especially revise, and rushed to finish her writing.

- HK, October 1, 2016

It was also observed by several Big Siblings that, in tasks where a group was collectively writing a single

paragraph or essay, the group's most dominant student tended to take over while the remaining students were mostly idle. In addition, there were times when some groups finished a task early and then spent the remaining time socializing as other groups were still finishing the task. In the early weeks of the semester, both of these situations negatively impacted time-on-task.

Each of these examples also pointed to the need for improvement in academic learning time (ALT) which, according to Fisher and Berliner (1985, as cited in Gettinger & Seibert, 2002, p. 1), is "the amount of time during which students are actively, successfully, and productively engaged in learning."

Before proceeding with the intervention cycle, the Big Siblings had observed both problematic and helpful situations related to time management. Based on these issues, we determined that our intervention strategies would be as follows:

Intervention Strategy for time management	Rationale
Visual timer along with PPT	*...Students had no idea of how much time remained for each activity. Without a timer, they were working and then suddenly (and usually without warning) it was time to move on to the next activity.* *- MM, September 24, 2016*
Reminding the Little Sister of how much time they have left	*...On Tuesday, the time was managed orally by the teacher so that students couldn't know how much time was left. My group members had to rush finishing on time barely writing a paragraph…time should be reminded regularly and also teachers and big siblings must push them to write on time.* *- KY, September 24, 2016*
Pair work rather than group work	*...Each activity included writing, sharing in a group, and revising. Most of all, sharing students' ideas or sentences in a group to select the good ones for revising didn't work well. I've observed the group had difficulty making a decision together, became stuck in this step, and wasted a lot of time. Consequently, each student didn't have enough time to write and especially revise, and rushed to finish her writing.* *- HK, October 1, 2016*
Clarifying instructions by modeling tasks	*...it would be better if there is a demo (example) for a blog making activity. Otherwise, we can put some example format in the reading assignment. Although we know what blog is, little sisters wondered what they have to do for blog making.* *- EJ, September 24, 2016*
Designating a moderator	*...I think teachers gave us enough time to write one sentence on each sheet. However, my students had different opinions about what to write on the handbook……it was difficult to handle the time to gather the opinions and write the sentence on time.* *- YK, September 14, 2016*
Prepare materials before class	*...I liked how the leading group organized the group sittings and prepared the materials beforehand. For each material, it was put in order and labeled with its activity number and name so that big siblings had no confusion distributing the papers.* *- KY, September 30, 2016*

Intervening in group work	[By Teaching Group] *...Teachers also walked around the classroom and facilitated the activities during the class. I think it was really helpful for students and big siblings in the groups to grasp what they are doing. We could ask some questions to teachers and teachers' cues and hints were also effective to make students more concentrate on their works.* *- YK, September 14, 2016* [By Big Siblings] *...I was also happy that Eunju didn't hesitate to ask me whatever questions she came up with during class such as ideas on her festival, vocabulary, grammar, activity instructions, and reading homework. Whenever some group members had hard time thinking of seasonal festival, I tried to give my opinions first in order to encourage them starting off the discussion… I learned from this week's class that if I don't intervene and guide students on the moment I realized something is going wrong, finally they can be hurt and go behind. They can feel a bigger discouragement after they find themselves going wrong.* *- KY, September 24, 2016*
Self-Review sheet	*...it was difficult for me to manage students' writings because all of them wrote at all different speed. Some students wrote very fast but others are not. I was agonized to deal with their writing speed.* *- YK, September 23, 2016*

4. Intervention

This section shows all intervention plans and data collection. The first intervention plan was applied from 7th week of the course and, from that point forward, we collected data via three types of surveys completed by the Teaching Group, Big Siblings, and Little Sisters. Weekly reflections written by Big Siblings, including the Teaching Groups, were another source of data. After the intervention period, we conducted a post-intervention cycle survey of all of the Big Siblings.

4.1. Intervention plans

Gaskins (1988) stressed that the key to increasing time on task appears to be organization. A teacher who is organized can avoid excessive transition times and minimize unproductive use of the students' time. A transition is defined as a teacher-initiated directive to students to end one activity and to start another. Transition strategies are seen as one part of a teacher's time-management techniques (Arlin, 1979).

The following strategies were implemented to reduce transition time, increase time-on-task, and improve the quality of allocated time:

1) Timer visible at the same time as PowerPoint slides

Having a timer visible along with PowerPoint slides gave students and teachers alike a greater awareness of time remaining in any given task.

2) Describe the class agenda at the beginning of the lesson

Establishing and maintaining continuity reduces transition time. At the beginning of the lesson, providing the agenda for the lesson helped students understand what they would be doing and therefore reduce transition time.

3) Teachers checking on progress

The Big Siblings who were responsible for the class in question checked on groups to see that they were progressing through tasks as needed and provided guidance and clarity as required. The Teaching Group as well

as the Big Siblings reminded students of how much time they had left.

4) Material Preparation

Preparing materials such as handouts, chairs, seating plan, food, and other items before the class helped each activity transition smoothly.

5) Facilitator's intervention in group work

Facilitators ensured that each student in each group was working according to the schedule. Additionally, the following strategies were implemented to minimize unproductive use of the students' time:

1) Giving examples (modeling)

Providing specific models for tasks to be completed gave students a concrete idea of what was expected, and this led to more effective use of class time. Modeling helped to avoid wasted time when students were not sure about what they were supposed to be doing.

2) Pair work instead of group work, whenever possible

When possible, students worked in pairs rather than in larger groups. This strategy was meant to increase ALT for each student by giving them responsibility for a larger portion of the task at hand.

3) Designate a "moderator" in each group

The "moderator" was a student in each group who would be responsible for making final decisions based on group discussion after a decision-making time limit had passed. The goal of designating a moderator in each group was to allow the group to use allocated time more effectively, thereby increasing their time-on-task and ALT.

4) Self Revision Sheet (see Appendix E)

This was to be used for students who finished writing before the allocated time ran out. To encourage a fast writer to increase her ALT during the activity, a facilitator would give the students a self-revision sheet to help her review the work she had just completed.

4.2. Data Collection

Wyne & Stuck (1982) assert that, in terms of collecting time and learning data, the most desirable method for collecting time data is also the most time consuming and expensive: direct, systematic classroom observation conducted by well-trained, unbiased observers. In our case, this particular method of data collection was made possible through observations from Big Siblings.

1) Survey (see Appendix A & B)

After each class, the Big Siblings acting as facilitators and the Teaching Group completed a survey of time management criteria to indicate whether each criteria had been met.

2) Reflections

Big Siblings' post-class reflections were checked for insight as to which interventions worked and which ones still needed improvement.

3) Little Sister Survey (see Appendix C)

At first, we selected time logs kept by the BS as one of our data sources. However, after the first week of interventions we found that the time log didn't tell us exactly how long each activity was taking; it only told us

whether the activity ended before or after the planned ending time. Instead of keeping inaccurate time logs or making more demands on BS during class time, we decided to start giving a short post-class survey to the Little Sisters to collect data about the students' perspectives to better meet the goals of our intervention and, in the analysis phase of this action research, find support for data triangulation. Therefore, the LS survey was implemented from the second week of the intervention cycle.

4) Post-Intervention Cycle Survey (see Appendix D)

A survey was completed by all of the Big Siblings after the conclusion of the interventions. The goal of the survey was to gauge the interventions' effectiveness.

The survey responses from The Big Siblings, the Teaching Group, and the Little Sisters were tabulated and then converted into percentages in order to compare each week effectively. With regard to the last question of the Big Siblings' survey which asked if the time was well-managed in general, we counted 3 points for 'yes,' 2 points for 'so-so,' and 1 point for 'no.' All survey data is expressed as percentages with the lone exception of the post-intervention cycle survey.

5. Results

5.1. Overall Outcome

An analysis of the survey data reveals that the overall effectiveness of time management trended upward throughout the course of the intervention period. This can be seen in the results of surveys provided by both the Teaching Groups and Big Siblings in Figure 5.1.1 below. The data shows that the first three weeks of interventions saw an uptick in the perception of how well time was managed, and time management in the final two weeks of interventions was consistently good.

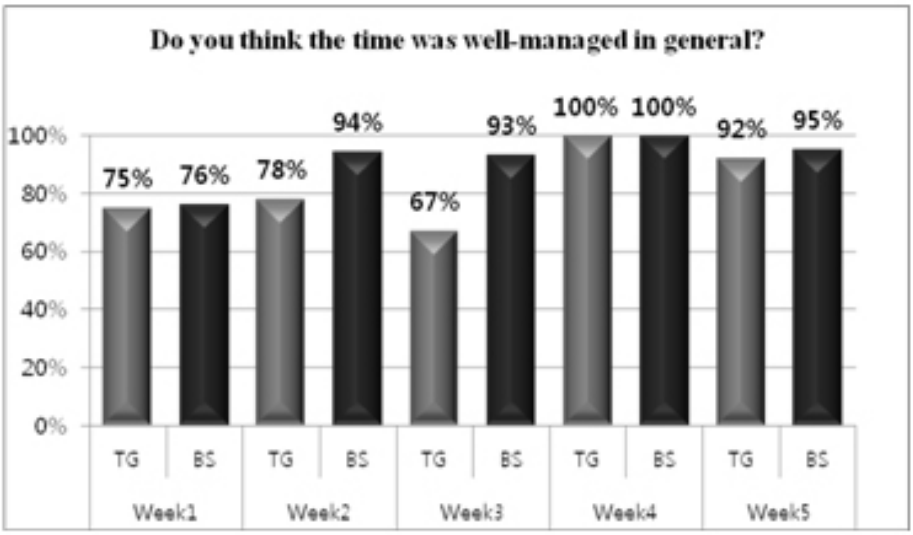

Figure 5.1.1

In addition, according to Figure 5.1.2, the data from the Little Sisters' survey also shows a comparable trend which indicates that the allocated time during the activities had been increasingly well managed, allowing the Little Sisters to complete their tasks. In particular, more than 90 % of the LS were able to complete their tasks within the allocated time in the fourth and fifth weeks of interventions. This result reinforces our conclusion that there was consistently good time management in the final two weeks of interventions.

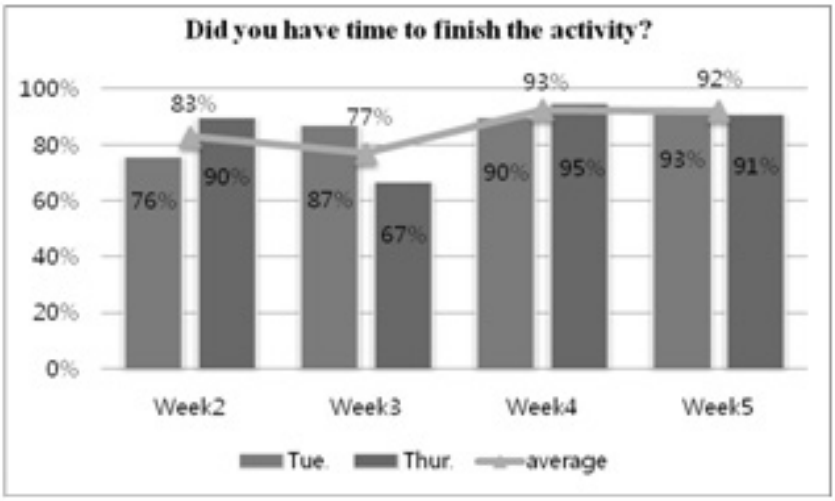

Figure 5.1.2 Little Sisters' Survey

Moreover, the reflections of the Big Sisters in Week 4 and the survey comments of the Big Sisters for Week 5 also indicate that not only was time well managed, but good time management also led to maximizing academic learning time in the final two weeks. Appropriate allocated time, flexible time management by the Teaching Groups, and interventions by the Big Siblings contributed to the maximization of academic learning time as well as good time management.

...At first, students seemed to have sufficient time to discuss and write an essay in a pair. My group had two Big Siblings, Michael and me so we worked with each pair. My pair completed their work within the allocated time. Social issues always activate a lot of discussion. When we finished our work early, we shared our ideas about the issue, add more ideas in writing or revise the sentences. I think the pair made a good use of class time. The process of writing went smoothly. As soon as we finished brainstorming, we just started writing. It was really great to maximize academic learning time. So, reminding how much time was left didn't seem necessary and without reminder we could use the time effectively.

- HK, November 12, 2016

...In terms of time management, students in my group had enough time. As students worked in pairs, it was less time consuming than individual writing. It was also effective that students were collaborative and came up with better ideas. Breaking the lesson down into smaller steps was helpful in managing time as well. Moreover, the teaching group was flexible on time, saving left over time in activity1, taking out a peer review and giving more time on writing body paragraph situationally. However, for most of the activities the time were appropriately allocated and well managed. In my opinion, the appropriate time for each activity led students' final products turn out to be in higher quality which meets teaching group's expectation.

- KY, November 13, 2016

Teaching group gave enough time for each activity. It was good.

- BS, November 15, 2016

...I think we had extra time each activity so we need to allocate time differently. But my little sisters told me it was good to them because they didn't need to rush to finish their writing and they could think deeply than previous lesson. So time management was proper for students.

- BS, November 17, 2016

Finally, the results of the post-intervention cycle survey reveal that our intervention strategies appear to be largely effective (see Figure 5.1.3). The eight main intervention strategies implemented over the course of this action research were judged by the Big Siblings to be fairly equal in terms of effectiveness. The post-intervention cycle survey, which asked each of the Big Siblings to rate the effectiveness of each intervention on a scale of 1 to 5, yielded composite effectiveness scores that ranged from 38 to 43 out of a maximum possible score of 45. The Big Siblings considered using a visible timer along with Powerpoint slides to be the most effective intervention, whereas designating a moderator and modeling the activities were deemed less effective in comparison to the other intervention strategies employed. After the first intervention week, the Big Siblings discussed and determined, while reflecting on the week's lessons, that BS should act as the moderators in groups when necessary rather than the moderators being designated by the Teaching Group. From then on, the intervention of designating a moderator had been removed from the Teaching Group's survey, and this may be the reason that this intervention appears to be less effective. In addition, modeling the activities was mostly in the hands of the Teaching Groups rather than BS and, thus, it seems reasonable that the modeling intervention strategy was viewed by the Big Siblings to be less effective than others.

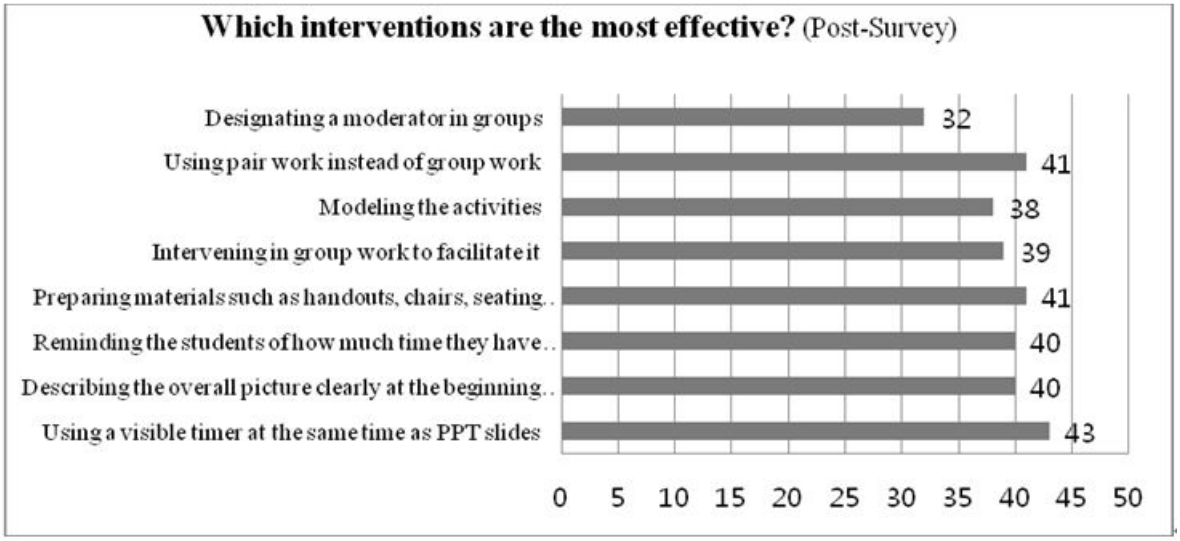

Figure 5.1.3 Composite Effectiveness Scores for Intervention Strategies

Based on the data collected from surveys and reflections, we found that some intervention strategies for time management were particularly effective for managing time in class. The interventions that seemed to have the greatest impact on time management were the timer, reminders of time remaining, and Big Siblings intervening in group work. Modeling on the part of the Teaching Group also had a great impact, but not so much for the BS since their ability to effectively model a task was limited to what they could do during class time (see Figure 5.1.3). We will discuss the impact of these strategies and how they affected management of class time and students' academic learning time.

5.2. Key Intervention Strategies

The strategies mentioned above will be discussed in three main sections beginning with the visual timer and reminders of time remaining which will be discussed together due to their being so closely related to one another. The visual timer enabled the Big Siblings as well as the Teaching Groups to remind the Little Sisters of how much time was left. Next, we will discuss intervening in group work, followed by an examination of task modeling.

5.2.1. The visual timer and reminders of time remaining

We implemented the visual timer and reminders of time remaining in order to help students to make full use of allocated time. Figures 5.2.1.1 and 5.2.1.2 each show that the Teaching Groups implemented the two strategies

during each lesson. At the same time, we noticed the degree of using the reminding strategy decreased on Tuesday of the first week and Thursdays of the third and fourth week, according to Figure 5.2.1.3.

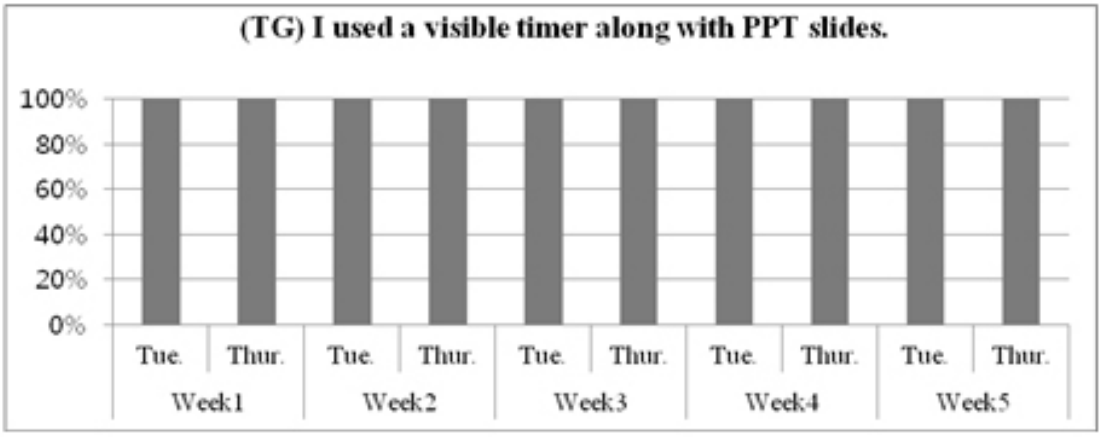

Figure 5.2.1.1

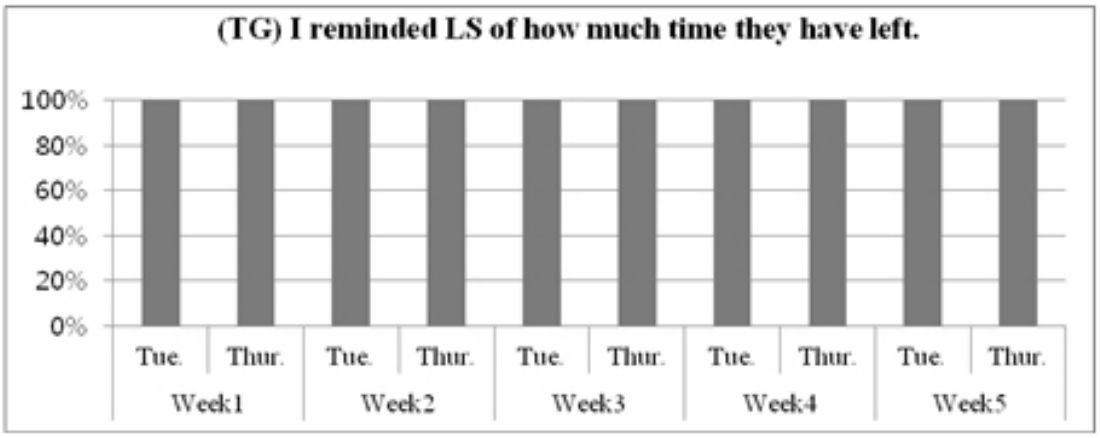

Figure 5.2.1.2

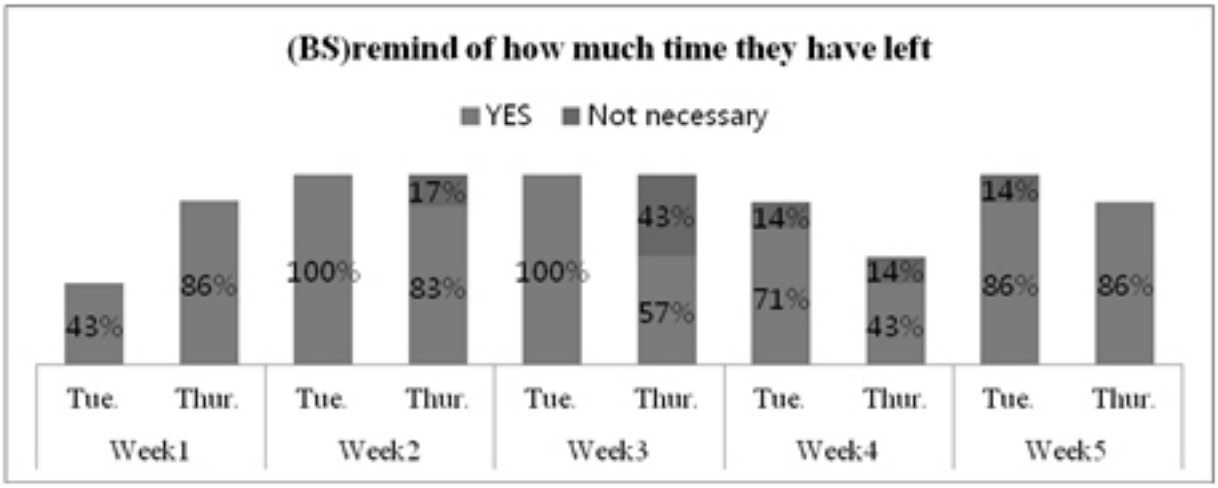

Figure 5.2.1.3

The reflections and surveys of BS revealed the difficulty in using the strategy on Tuesday of the first week. The teaching group had utilized the visual timer along with their Powerpoint slides, but the timer did not accurately reflect how much time was left. It created confusion among BS, so more than half of BS failed to implement the intervention strategy. This is also evident in the general evaluation of the time management of that day (see Figure 5.2.1.4). Therefore, we can conclude that a visual timer and reminders of time remaining are effective strategies for time management in class, but this is contingent upon proper use of the timer.

...Time management seemed to be a bit of an issue as well...they had their timer on the projection screen, but I was a bit confused when we were told it was time to move on even though the timer showed we still had over 2 minutes remaining. This happened twice ... the clock should be adjusted accordingly so that it shows the actual amount of time that remains. Ending activities while there is still time remaining might be discouraging for people who believe they have time to finish something and then suddenly have to go to the next activity.

- MM, October 16, 2016

...A visible timer is essential for time management, but it didn't function well this week. It rather made me confused and difficult to manage time for group work. For example, when we did jigsaw activity, Michael and I guided the group sharing, checking how much time was left. However, the activity was informed to be over even though there were more than 2 minutes left.

- HK, October 15, 2016

...As for the time management, I did not manage the time well because I was confused with the time marker……..That made me in rush making them all confused with the time left. So I should have warned them the time left gradually rather than letting them stop and move on to the next quickly.

- JY, October 15, 2016

Figure 5.2.1.4 The Big Siblings' Survey

Figure 5.2.1.4 shows BS evaluated the time as well-managed on Thursdays of the third and fourth weeks even though the degree of using the intervention strategies was quite low (see Figure 5.2.1.3). The survey of BS revealed that LS had little difficulty completing their tasks within the allocated time, so it was not necessary for BS to remind them of the time remaining, which suggests a tangible improvement of time management had taken place. This conclusion also corresponds to the overall outcomes of the final two weeks. The implementation of two strategies, using a visual timer and reminders of time remaining, seemed to raise the awareness of time management among LS while doing activities and improve LS's ability to manage the allocated time in class which, in turn, can help LS maximize their academic learning time.

5.2.2 Intervening in group work

Figure 5.1.3 shows that "Intervening in group work to facilitate it" earned a score of 39 and, although this intervention strategy ranks slightly lower in effectiveness than some other strategies, Big Siblings' reflections regarding the facilitation of group work show that it was an important factor in maximizing academic learning time for the Little Sisters. Quite often, Big Siblings would intervene in group work to provide clarification of the task goals or to help students stay on task and finish their work on time.

...In this lesson, I emphasized guiding our members to keep the objectives of the activities in mind. For example, in activity 2, when students generated descriptive words looking at the picture, they tended not to focus on the descriptive words. Thus, I reminded them of focusing on the descriptive words. In addition, when writing, students should follow the parts of a paragraph. When our group missed the topic sentence, I encouraged them to write it and remind them of the paragraph format.

- HK, September 17, 2016

...Whenever some group members had hard time thinking of seasonal festival, I tried to give my opinions first in order to encourage them starting off the discussion...I learned from this week's class that if I don't intervene and guide students on the moment I realized something is going wrong, finally they can be hurt and go behind. They can feel a bigger discouragement after they find themselves going wrong.

- KY, September 24, 2016

...I tried to give example sentences to students for making a proposal. Then, they grasped the purpose and structure of the writing.

- YK, October 14, 2016

The Big Siblings' reflections show that concerted efforts were being made on a regular basis to provide scaffolding that would assist the Little Sisters in understanding and completing tasks within the allotted time, and these efforts contributed to increasing academic learning time through helping them to get tasks started and guiding them through tasks to completion. Because this English in Action class was focused on writing, variances in student writing speed came into play and, when more advanced students completed their writing before others, additional intervention on the part of Big Sibling facilitators was required to ensure that academic learning time continued beyond task completion while other students finished their work.

...When I saw my group members complete their writing faster, I encouraged her to read her writing again and find the way to improve it. And I read it together and talked about it together. I think it worked well.

- HK, on September 25, 2016

The weekly surveys completed by the Big Siblings as well as the Teaching Groups indicate that intervening in group work was successfully carried out with regularity. First, the Teaching Groups reported successful group work facilitation occurring in every class except the Thursday of the first week that action research interventions were implemented (see Figure 5.2.2.1).

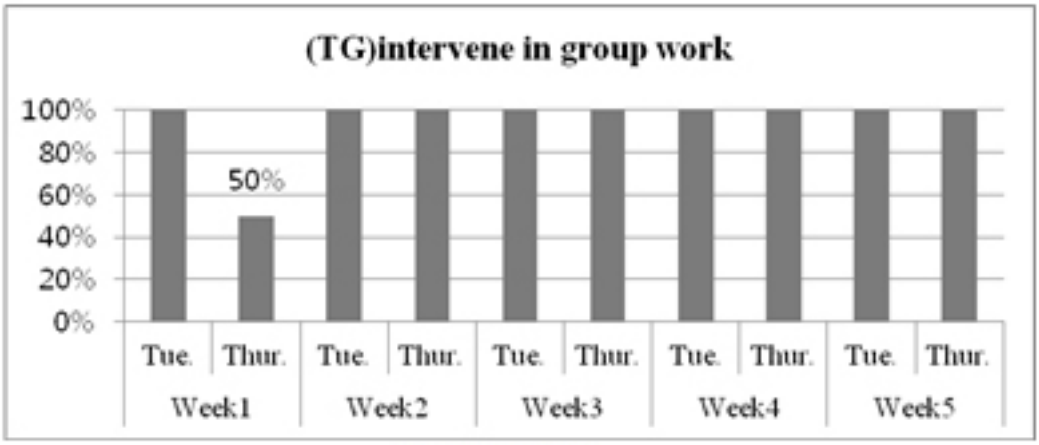

Figure 5.2.2.1

In the first week, the Teaching Group's reflections described their difficulties in intervening in group work. These difficulties appear to be one of the factors that influenced the overall effectiveness of time management; resulting in a slightly lower score in week 1 (see Figure 5.1.1).

...As for the transition, I was frozen to guiding them to the next activities. I thought there were already too many activities before me and they seemed to be well focusing on their work. But that would've been better if

they got informed with more explanation and PPT at the beginning of the activity for promoting the students' further understanding.

- JY, October 15, 2016

...In the middle of instruction, I realized that I used a wrong expression. It made me less confident in teaching. I need more study on correct expressions and confident teacher talk.

- EJ, October 15, 2016

In addition, it is true that this intervention strategy was most consistently executed on Thursdays, but even on Tuesdays the vast majority of Big Siblings reported success in this area (see Figure 5.2.2.2).

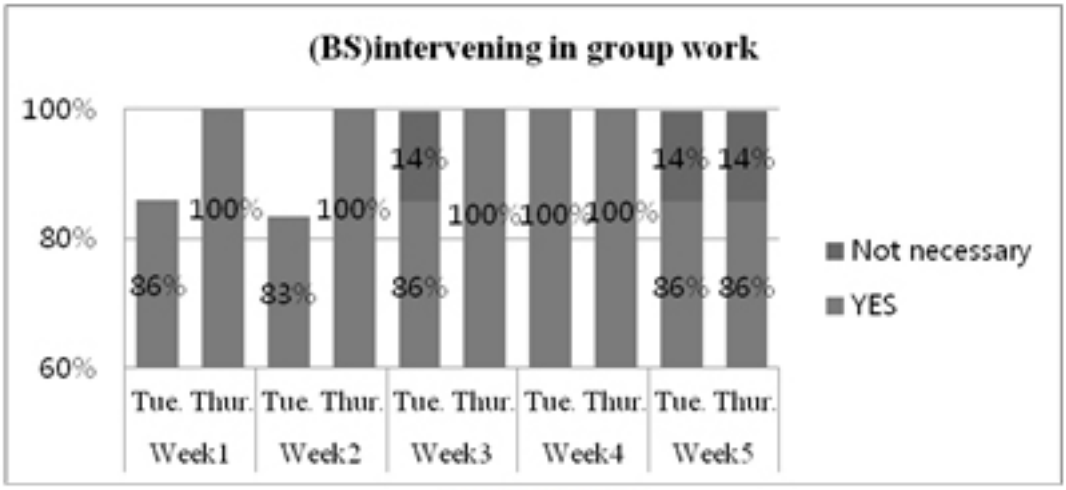

Figure 5.2.2.2

Figure 5.2.2.2 shows the lower scores of intervening in group work on Tuesdays of Week 1 and Week 2. The reflections of the Big Siblings may prove that they had difficulty in intervening due to the complexity of the task in Week 1 and there seemed to be little space for intervening in Week 2 due to the Little Sisters being busy with their writing.

...As a facilitator I should have done a better job of focusing the group on the true audience for Thursday's leisure activity proposal. At first, our group wrote about leisure activities as if the audience was tourists, but it wasn't until a bit later that we realized the focus needed to be on satisfying government officials. As with any piece of writing the audience needs to be considered before any writing can get done, and I think we were a bit slow in realizing this. As far as group activities go, Tuesday's cookie baking thing was a nice activity that had everyone involved, but there were just too many steps to put in order. Something with fewer steps would have been more practical given the amount of time we had. Also, I think the "argument" part of the week's lesson was a bit lost in the activities. There were certainly opportunities for arguments to be made, but forming a coherent argument seemed like an afterthought.

- MM, October 16, 2016

...I think students felt hard to finish so many writings in limited time. As they came up with their ideas for making the proposal writing, they had to write many paragraph including body, introduction, and conclusion. In this way, students were very busy to write their own, change and revise other pair's writing, and revise their own writing based on the peer review sheet.

- YK, October 28, 2016

What is interesting is that, while confusion inhibited the Teaching Group's intervention in the first week, Big Siblings were likely to intervene in their group to facilitate their Little Sisters out of the confusion. 100% BS' intervening in group work on Thursday in Week 1 seems to support this conclusion.

...there were some moments to make us confused in spite of clear direction. The teaching group asked students to bring pictures relating to Tuesday activity, survey. However, even though Thursday activity, proposal was different from it, we were suggested to use the pictures and survey for Thursday activity. Honestly, Michael and I, as facilitators, did not follow the direction and we decided not to use the survey for the leisure guide and encouraged our students to make a connection between the pictures and the new activity. Consequently, it worked well.

- HK, October 15, 2016

However, the Teaching Groups generally made consistent efforts to intervene in group work in order to provide clarifications, suggestions, and guidance. The regular interventions by the Teaching Groups and the Big Siblings resulted in the Little Sisters becoming autonomous and collaborative learners, which was reflected in Figure 5.2.2.2 which shows that 14% of BS felt that intervening in group work was not necessary.

...As a teacher, I have tried to give the instruction per each activity in front of the classroom, and I always walk around the classroom while students do the activities. As I walk around the classroom, I tried to help students who could not understand the instructions or do not have ideas for activities. Also, these kinds of teacher's action can help students to participate in the activities and can encourage students who fall back from the group activities.

- YK, October 21, 2016

...In general Ss started their work right away after the activity direction was given. Secondly, because it's been 11th week since our first teaching in September, Ss get involved in activities quickly than before and they seem to know what they have to do in a certain activity.

- EJ, November 13, 2016

Furthermore, some comments from the Little Sisters' surveys show that the Big Siblings' endeavors to intervene in group work were effective in encouraging the LS to engage in their tasks, thus decreasing unproductive time.

I don't have ideas about the certain job but big sibling helped me.

- Little Sister, November 1, 2016

I got some useful information from my big sibling.

- Little Sister, November 3, 2016

As an intervention strategy aimed at increasing academic learning time, intervening in group work on the part of both the Teaching Groups and Big Siblings was largely successful and indicative of the importance of the teacher's role in a task-based learning environment.

5.2.2. Modeling

Figure 5.1.3 shows that the modeling intervention strategy was considered less effective than some other strategies. On the other hand, we found that modeling was singled out as an issue in many of the Big Siblings' reflections, showing that it was significant in getting the Little Sisters to be more engaged in productive learning time.

...I thought modeling is very useful and effective strategy for students to understand what they have to do in the activity. I tried to give example sentences to students for making a proposal. Then, they grasped the purpose and structure of the writing. Thus, I will do my best to figure out the lesson plan more clearly first and to give students simple and easy examples during the activities.

- YK, October 14, 2016

...Even though the instructions were clear and understandable for students it would be better if the examples for each activity were shown on the screen. Our group struggled a couple of minutes figuring out the activity.

- KY, October 14, 2016

The weekly surveys completed by the Teaching Groups indicate that employing the modeling intervention strategy on a regular basis was challenging compared to the other strategies which were executed consistently during the intervention period.

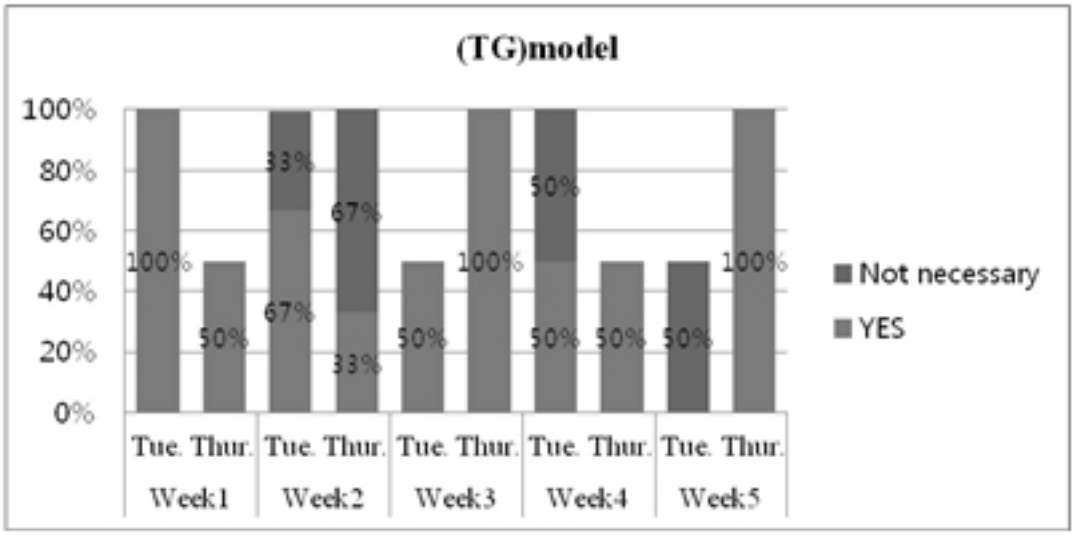

Figure 5.2.3.1

As we see above, it appears that the Teaching Groups did not utilize the modeling strategy sufficiently in Week 1 and Week 3. This could be one of the factors that influenced the Teaching Group's self evaluation of time management in those weeks (see Figure 5.1.1). Modeling was also cited as an issue in the Big Siblings' reflections in those weeks. In Week 1, the TG utilized the modeling strategy but it didn't appear to be effective or sufficient. We believe that ineffective use of modeling likely contributed to the low scores of the effectiveness of time management in that week. Furthermore, the reflections in Week 3 show that, while the TG had difficulty modeling on Tuesday, they utilized the modeling intervention effectively on Thursday, which corresponds to Figure 5.2.3.1.

...On Tuesday, students wrote 'argumentative' paragraph advocating their own private leisure time activities. They easily came up with ideas for leisure activity they wanted to do with their friends but they agonized the structure of argumentative writing. If there was a simple example as a model of writing, it would be more easy writing activity for students.

- YK, October 14, 2016

...Models of leisure guides were shown which helped students visualize possible layouts, but they didn't really help when it came to writing a strong argument. Stephen was reminding groups that arguments should be strong, definitive statements and I think this should have been reinforced in the PPT.

- MM, October 16, 2016

...I had a hard time on Tuesday's last activity, writing complaint and acceptance letters. I provided a model of each letter with different context. Indeed, the model was not effective for students because it was written in different contexts. I was worried about giving them the direct answers which they could copy but it might be better to show a model connected to the context of letters.

- KY, November 4, 2016

I have no experience about how to write formal letter. Hence, it takes quite long time to complete it.

- Little Sister, Tuesday class of Week 3

...For Tuesday writing activity, I also think providing the scenarios and the model letter to each group would be better to reduce unproductive time. However, you learned from Tuesday and did it for Thursday, and it was really helpful. Ideal Modeling.
- HK, November 6, 2016

In the same vein, Figure 5.1.2 shows the Little Sisters had difficulty completing their writing tasks in Week 3, resulting in the lowest scores for the completion of tasks. The majority of the LS wrote comments about why they did not complete the tasks and indicated that they spent the allocated time unproductively without effective modeling, which can be interpreted as evidence that modeling is one of the most essential elements in reducing unproductive time.

I have no experience about how to write formal letter. Hence, it takes quite long time to complete it.
- Little Sister, November 1, 2016

took time to choose job & think about what to write
- Little Sister, November 3, 2016

didn't understand quickly
- Little Sister, November 3, 2016

In discussing how time was well managed in the final two weeks of interventions, it seemed that modeling had been thoroughly employed. However, the Big Sibling's reflections demonstrated that modeling done by the Teaching Groups during the intervention period had taught the Little Sisters how to effectively do the tasks, and thus the LS required little modeling for activities in the final two weeks. This result also indicates the LS were able to make great use of the allocated time without hesitation or confusion, which led to maximizing their academic learning time.

...Another thing that was very well done was the modeling for how to write a thesis statement. The example of Superman was easily applied to another example of climate change, and then it was also easy to translate that strategy to the topic we were assigned.
- MM, November 13, 2016

...In terms of instruction, the activities were not complicated and focused on writing an essay, so there was little confusion. Students have already known what they should do. The short instruction about the thesis statement, introduction, and conclusion encouraged students to remind their knowledge and I think it was effective for students to jump into their writing without hesitation.
- HK, November 12, 2016

The data reveals that modeling is necessary to reduce unproductive time in class, in particular when an activity is new and unfamiliar with students.

5.3. Other Outcomes

Throughout the whole course of English in Action Writing, we have found that writing practice done under strict time limits may have had a great impact on developing time management skills in writing as well as writing fluency. In the Big Siblings' reflections, lack of time for completing writing was frequently cited as an issue. Figure 5.1.2 also revealed the Little Sisters did not have sufficient time to complete their writing, particularly in Week 2 and Week 3. In Week 2, 12 Little Sisters out of 17 wrote comments about the lack of allocated time for writing.

There is really short time to write down.
– Little Sister, October 25, 2016

We ran out of time as we were writing.
– Little Sister, October 25, 2016

From the Big Siblings' reflections, we also found that the Little Sisters struggled to complete their tasks within the short allocated time.

...I think students felt hard to finish so many writings in limited time. As they came up with their ideas for making the proposal writing, they had to write many paragraph including body, introduction, and conclusion. In this way, students were very busy to write their own, change and revise other pair's writing, and revise their own writing based on the peer review sheet.
- YK, October 28, 2016

...I think the time management should be a little bit stricter by teaching group and myself as big sibling on starting and finishing for students to practice writing on time. Whenever they keep sharing ideas when doing group works or pair works I ask them to start writing, clarify questions, or give my ideas.
- KY, October 30, 2016

On the other hand, the professor who supervised this action research pointed out that strict time management could be helpful for the Little Sisters' writing fluency. Additionally, reflection responses from that professor and a reflection from one of the Big

Siblings emphasize how the Little Sisters' writing with time limits has improved their time management skills within tasks.

> *...It's good that we push them to write a lot, and writing a 5 paragraph essay will be the normal thing from now on. With practice, they will learn to write faster, and this will help them to be able to write better essays in the final term examinations.*

> *...good point about the need for teaching groups and facilitators to be more strict about the time, though the teaching group generally did a good job with time management this week.*
>
> *- DR, November 1, 2016*

> *...when Lois and Yoonhee in my group worked on the first draft & revision of paragraph 1, their time-on-task was at a low degree which means they couldn't finish the task at all in an allocated time… When they work on paragraph 2, I kept pushing both to complete the task on time… I tried to promote the degree of the time-on-task hoping that they can be successfully engaged in their learning…When working on paragraph 3, they seemed to know how to process the writing activity…after brainstorming individually, they were passing over the next task to maximize the time for their successful engagement and kept negotiating the ideas, not just waiting for the other to produce the learning outcome. Finally, they became very fluent to complete the tasks being satisfied with their equal participation by explicitly identifying their roles, being confident to understand the clear instructions by examining the review criteria and being fully engaged in their own learning by maximizing the academic learning time.*
>
> *- JY, October 29, 2016*

Lastly, a self-reflection activity in the final class of English in Action Writing proved that the Little Sisters recognized their improvement in writing fluency and time management skill development, although there was some grumbling about the lack of time (see Appendix F).

> *I learned how to write things faster as I disciplined myself to write stuff within a time limitation. I learned how to manage time.*
>
> *- Little Sister 1, December 13, 2016*

> *I feel like now I'm quite fast in writing an essay. If I finish brainstorming, I can start writing right after.*
>
> *- Little Sister 2, December 13, 2016*

> *I write faster. I am a slow writer, and that is probably because I enjoy writing so much and I want to make my essays perfect. Since many of the tasks had time limit, I was able to manage my time more efficiently and focus more on writing.*
>
> *- Little Sister 3, December 13, 2016*

> *I can improve writing speed. The class and many assignments have limit time to do, so I have to keep time. I think that experience really helpful for me.*
>
> *- Little Sister 4, December 13, 2016*

During the course, the Little Sisters showed an inclination to require more time to complete their writing tasks. However, pushing students to write more and at a quicker pace within a strict time limit turned out to be effective for developing writing fluency.

6. Discussion

In order to address the issue of academic learning time, we examined the issues our students, facilitators, and teaching groups were facing and chose intervention strategies that would have a direct effect on allocated time, time-on-task, and transition time. These interventions were designed to have the cumulative effect of increasing ALT which, as previously stated, is defined as students' successful engagement in learning activities. In order to achieve this, we needed to see improvements in the transition time required to move between tasks, how students used allocated time which represents the upper limit of ALT (Gettinger & Seibert, 2002), and the level of student engagement in the tasks presented as defined by time-on-task (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Although there has been little discussion in this action research about the effects of being organized and prepared for class ahead of time, there is absolutely no doubt that dogged preparedness on the part of the Big Siblings week after week was an important part of maximizing academic learning time. Gettinger and Seibert (2002) cite procedures in the delivery of instruction to be a factor that can influence ALT, and one of the ways this was handled was through careful preparation of handouts and other class materials before the start of class. Procedural errors became less common as the intervention cycle progressed because teaching groups were arranging handouts in sequential stacks to be used in the order in which they were arranged, and facilitators often helped with this as well as placing the appropriate classroom supplies on all of the desks such as scissors, markers, and tape when needed. This enabled groups to move from one

task to another quickly and seamlessly, and this effort was also aided by teaching groups starting each class by giving a summary of the day's agenda. Giving students a snapshot of what was to come made it easier for them to switch gears when it came time to move to the next task.

The insufficient amount of time allocated to a number of tasks early in the semester was clearly noted in numerous reflections written by the Big Siblings acting as both facilitators and teachers but, when considering the results of this action research, one could argue that the amount of time allocated wasn't necessarily the problem; the real issue, rather, was the way allocated time was being used. A significant part of addressing this was the introduction of a timer which was visible at all times during tasks. This intervention actually began before we had commenced the intervention cycle in Week 7 of the semester, and the fact that it immediately became the norm after struggling with time management in the first few weeks of class speaks to the effect it had on both the students' ability to pace themselves and also the overall flow of each lesson. This gave facilitators the ability to remind their groups of how much time remained for the completion of the task, and it also gave students a sense of whether they needed to quicken their writing pace. Reminders of time remaining was instantly adopted as well, but the implementation of this particular intervention was less consistent due to the nature of how it must be carried out on an ongoing basis throughout a single class. Classes where reminders were consistently given, however, did result in favorable time management ratings from Big Siblings and Little Sisters alike. In addition to the timer and reminders, teaching groups also began modeling tasks in order to provide the Little Siblings with guidance on what they needed to be doing. The post-intervention cycle survey indicates that modeling was not perceived by Big Siblings to be as effective as other interventions we implemented but, as previously discussed, this could be due to the fact that modeling was mainly the domain of the teaching groups rather than facilitators; as such, it may have been seen by the Big Siblings as less of a daily responsibility than other intervention strategies that were more pervasive. This inconsistency between perceived effectiveness and the resulting effect on the use of allocated time can be clearly seen in reflections during the intervention cycle, and it played a big part in steering group work in the right direction.

Time-on-task was addressed by an increased commitment on the part of both facilitators and the teaching groups to intervene in group work whenever necessary. Big Siblings began offering prompts, asking questions, and giving clarifications with greater frequency, and these actions led to higher engagement on the part of the Little Siblings. According to Gettinger and Seibert (2002), one of the most important aspects of a teacher's self-analysis is reflecting on how they are facilitating lessons. Because classes during four out of the five weeks in our intervention cycle ended with the Big Siblings completing a self-analysis survey, the facilitation of lessons was carried out consistently and, according to our post-intervention survey, intervening in group work was an effective way of increasing time-on-task. The teaching groups who led each week's classes were also very involved in facilitating, and they made a point of checking in with groups and facilitators to make sure instructions were understood and tasks were being done as intended.

7. Implications

While it is clear that most classrooms do not have a team of facilitators available to intervene in group work and provide other assistance to a teacher who is leading a class, there are still numerous ways that the findings of this action research can be applied to everyday teaching situations. First and foremost are pre-class organization and the use of a timer when needed, such as during a task-based lesson. Timers come in many forms and are accessible both online and in the form of cell phones and other devices, and keeping careful track of time can mean the difference between a lesson being successfully executed in a meaningful way and falling flat due to an inability to complete the lesson as planned. Providing reminders of how much time remains for a task to be completed is also easily implemented regardless of class size or the number of teachers present. Organizing materials before a class begins is also of great importance. Although this “strategy” might seem like common sense to most, every teacher has had days when other items on the to-do list seem to take priority over sorting handouts and getting supplies ready. Not only does pre-class organization make classes run more smoothly, but it also makes classes far less stressful for all parties involved. Students are often willing and eager to assist with this sort of work when asked, and helping a teacher to prepare might even give them a sense of pride or motivation that could yield benefits in the classroom.

Modeling tasks can be done via a screen projector or, if need be, examples of what a completed task might look like can be posted on a wall or passed

around a classroom. Regardless of how modeling of a task or lesson is accomplished, it can prevent problems before they arise by giving students the means to visualize what they are going to do and how they will go about doing it. Creating mock examples might be needed, but if a lesson has been completed by a previous class it would certainly be easier and more valuable to show an example of work that an actual student has already completed successfully.

Out of all the intervention strategies that were implemented in this action research, probably the most difficult for a single teacher to execute is facilitating multiple groups at the same time. Again, without a team of colleagues at the ready, this particular intervention might well seem impossible. However, we believe that this is another area where certain students could be called on to assist. Naturally, such students would need to be carefully selected, but they can serve as disseminators of information; rather than a single teacher needing to be everywhere at one time, it might be far more efficient for the teacher to designate group leaders who can reliably receive the teacher's instructions and accurately convey them to their group.

8. Conclusion

8.1. Summary

In this action research, we have explored how time management strategies might assist students in managing their time and effectively facilitate their engagement in learning activities. In the course of English in Action Writing, we ran a five-week intervention cycle in order to address issues that affected academic learning time, and the positive outcomes demonstrated in our data analysis are the direct result of the intervention strategies deployed: the visual timer and reminders of time remaining, intervening in group work, and modeling.

8.2. Limitations

Although we have seen positive effects brought about by the time management strategies discussed in this action research, there are certain aspects of this study that are either less than ideal or highly atypical of traditional classrooms. For starters, one of our initial data collection methods was found to be lacking in validity, and this resulted in a new data collection method being devised. In retrospect, although the data we collected was both valid and highly valuable, we feel that we may have been able to collect more targeted data were it not for practical concerns that limited the scope of what we were able to measure. Precise measurement of time usage, for example, was something we avoided because of the meticulous effort required, and we did not want to detract from our core responsibility of teaching. Also, although the Little Siblings went to great effort in this class to improve their writing and made noticeable gains, it is possible that external factors such as independent study or changes in motivation may have also influenced their improvement. Another limitation lies in the interpretation of data collected in the form of Little Siblings' comments and Big Siblings' reflections. While the assumptions and interpretations resulting from this empirical data is triangulated with quantifiable survey results, there remains the possibility that certain comments might be interpreted differently by other parties. The most obvious limitation of this study, however, is in the very conspicuous presence of no less than nine teachers working together in a single classroom.

8.3. Future Studies

The focus of this action research is academic learning time which can be viewed from many angles not explored in our intervention cycle. With future writing classes in mind, one of those angles is in the revision process. We discussed extending the Little Siblings' ALT by encouraging students who finished their work early to go back and review what they had just written. In the early stages of our interventions, they were given a simple "review checklist" which prompted them to look at mechanical items such as spelling and grammar as well as the content of their writing and how they might improve on things like word choice and descriptive language. This time-permitting review task was occurring at a stage when revision had not yet been introduced as a major part of the writing process. Later in the intervention cycle, however, Teaching Groups were including revision in their lesson plans and suddenly we were faced with a new conundrum: what should students do when they are finished revising? When viewed strictly through the lens of academic learning time, the easy answer would be to give those students a new task that can be completed within just a few minutes while others finish their revisions. Delving deeper into what kinds of tasks would be appropriate, practical, and academically valuable within the context of improvement in writing skills, however, is a more difficult question to answer.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Checklist for the Teaching Group

For the Teaching Group				
Strategies for Time Management		**Yes**	**No**	not necessary
to reduce transition time	Did I use a visible timer at the same time as PPT slides?			
	Did I describe overall picture clearly at the beginning of the lesson?			
	Did I remind the students of how much time they have left, checking on progress?			
	Did I prepare materials such as handouts, chairs, seating plan, and etc. before the class?			
	Did I intervene in group work to facilitate it?			
to minimize unproductive use of students' time	Did modeling I provided help Ss write?			
	Did I use pair work instead of group work?			
Do you think the time was well-managed in general?		**Yes**	**So-So**	**No**
Why? (Writing why is highly recommended.)				

Appendix B: Checklist for the Big Siblings

For the other Big Siblings				
Strategies for Time Management		**Yes**	**No**	not necessary
to reduce transition time	Did I help prepare materials such as handouts, chairs, food, and etc. before the class?			
	Did I clarify the instruction for activity?			
	Did I remind the students of how much time they have left, checking on progress?			
	Did I intervene in group work to facilitate it?			
to minimize unproductive use of students' time	Did I model the activity? (when necessary)			
	Did I use pair work instead of group work? (when necessary)			
	Did I work as an active moderate in a group?			
	Did I give a self-review sheet to a fast writer? (when necessary)			
Do you think the time was well-managed in general?		**Yes**	**So-So**	**No**
Why? (Writing why is highly recommended.)				

Appendix C: Little Sister Survey

Name: Date: Tuesday 10/25/16 Teachers: Heekyung, Rachael, Yoonjung

1A. Did you have time to finish the following activity? Please circle "Yes" or "No."		
→ *Warmup games (unscramble, mystery box, etc.)*	Yes	No
If "No," please provide some details about what happened:		

1B. Did you have time to finish the following activity? Please circle "Yes" or "No."		
→ *Writing thesis statement & topic sentences*	Yes	No
If "No," please provide some details about what happened:		

1C. Did you have time to finish the following activity? Please circle "Yes" or "No."		
→ *Paragraph writing: Halloween food & decorations*	Yes	No
If "No," please provide some details about what happened:		

1D. Did you have time to finish the following activity? Please circle "Yes" or "No."		
→ *Paragraph writing: Halloween costume*	Yes	No
If "No," please provide some details about what happened:		

2. Did you stop writing when the teachers said it was time to stop? Please circle one.	*1.* Always *2.* Usually *3.* Sometimes *4.* Never *5.* Does not apply (I always finished early)

3. If you finished an activity early, what did you do next? Please circle all that apply.	*1)* I socialized with other group members *2)* I proofread or revised my writing *3)* I did something else *4)* I didn't finish early

Appendix D: Post-intervention survey for all Big Siblings

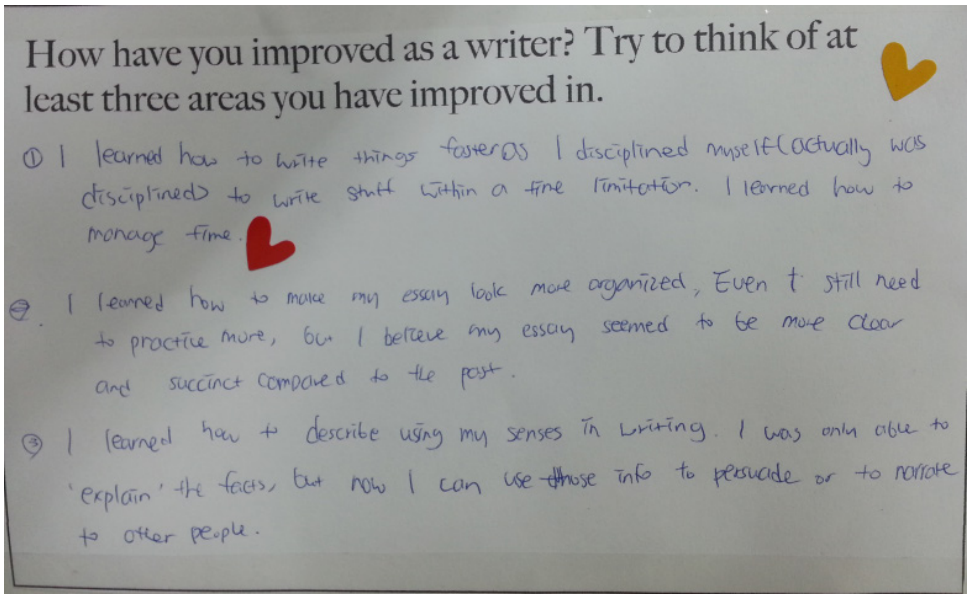
Post-Intervention Survey On a scale of 1 to 5, please rate the effectiveness of each time management intervention. "1" is least effective, "5" is most effective.					
Using a visible timer at the same time as PPT slides	1	2	3	4	5
Describing the overall picture clearly at the beginning of the lesson	1	2	3	4	5
Reminding the students of how much time they have left, checking on progress	1	2	3	4	5
Preparing materials such as handouts, chairs, seating plan, and etc. before the class	1	2	3	4	5
Intervening in group work to facilitate it	1	2	3	4	5
Modeling the activities	1	2	3	4	5
Using pair work instead of group work	1	2	3	4	5
Designating a moderator in groups	1	2	3	4	5
Additional comments:					

Appendix E: Self-Review Checklist

First, please re-read what you just wrote.		**Check**
➢ Did I write...	• a topic sentence?	
	• supporting sentences?	
	• a closing sentence?	
➢ Can I fix any errors in...	• grammar?	
	• spelling?	
	• punctuation?	
➢ Can my word choices be improved?		
➢ Can I add more details?		
➢ Can I use more descriptive language?		
➢ Did I meet the objective of this writing exercise?		

Appendix F

Little Sister 1's reflection



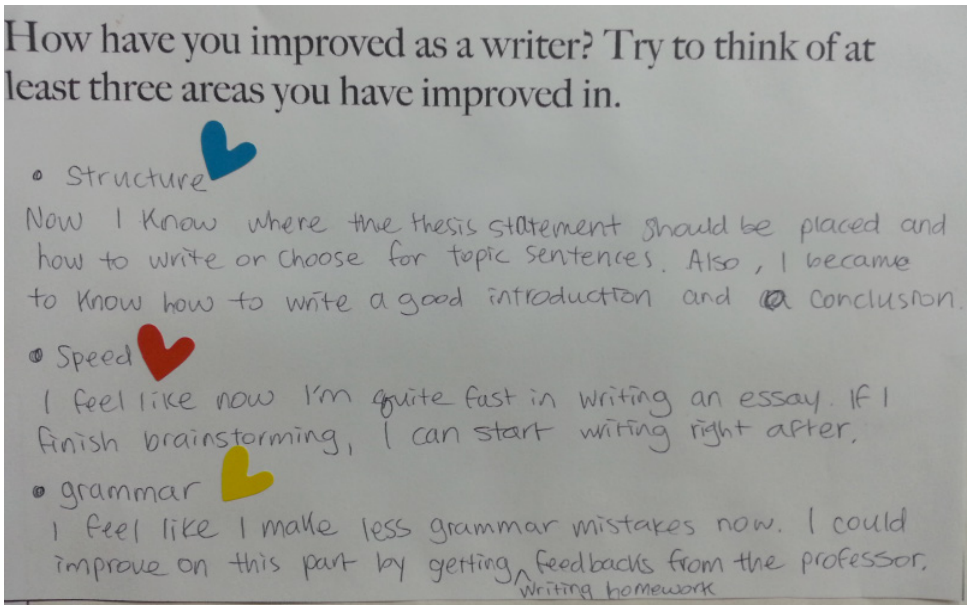
How have you improved as a writer? Try to think of at least three areas you have improved in.

① I learned how to write things faster(as I disciplined myself(actually was disciplined) to write stuff within a fine limitation. I learned how to manage time.

② I learned how to make my essay look more organized, Even t still need to practice more, but I believe my essay seemed to be more clear and succinct compared to the past.

③ I learned how to describe using my senses in writing. I was only able to 'explain' the facts, but now I can use those info to persuade or to narrate to other people.

Little Sister 2's reflection



How have you improved as a writer? Try to think of at least three areas you have improved in.

- Structure

Now I know where the thesis statement should be placed and how to write or choose for topic sentences. Also, I became to know how to write a good introduction and a conclusion.

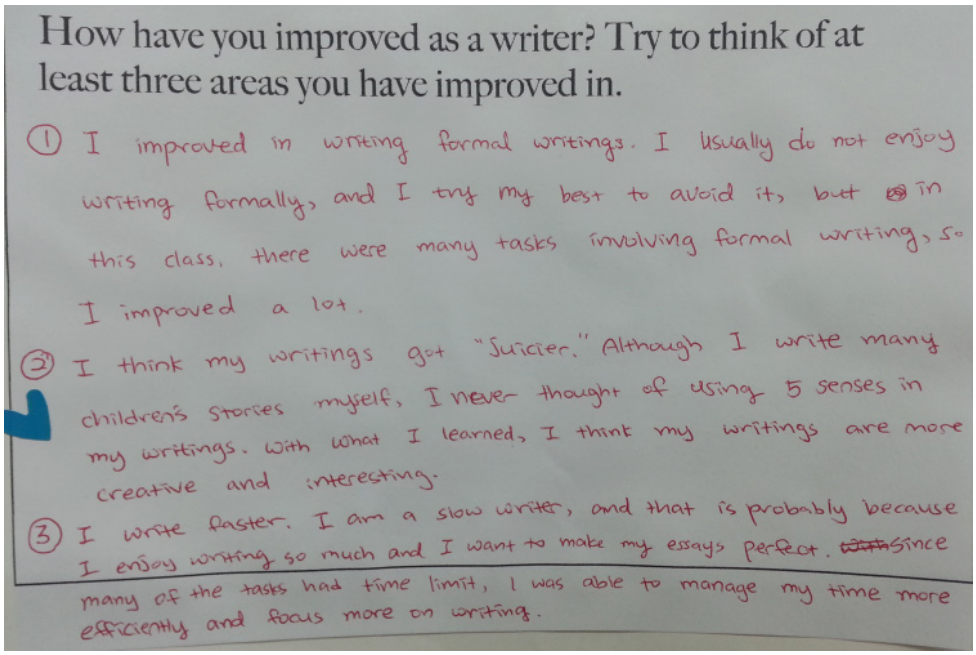
- Speed

I feel like now I'm quite fast in writing an essay. If I finish brainstorming, I can start writing right after.

- grammar

I feel like I make less grammar mistakes now. I could improve on this part by getting writing homework feedbacks from the professor.

Little Sister 3's reflection



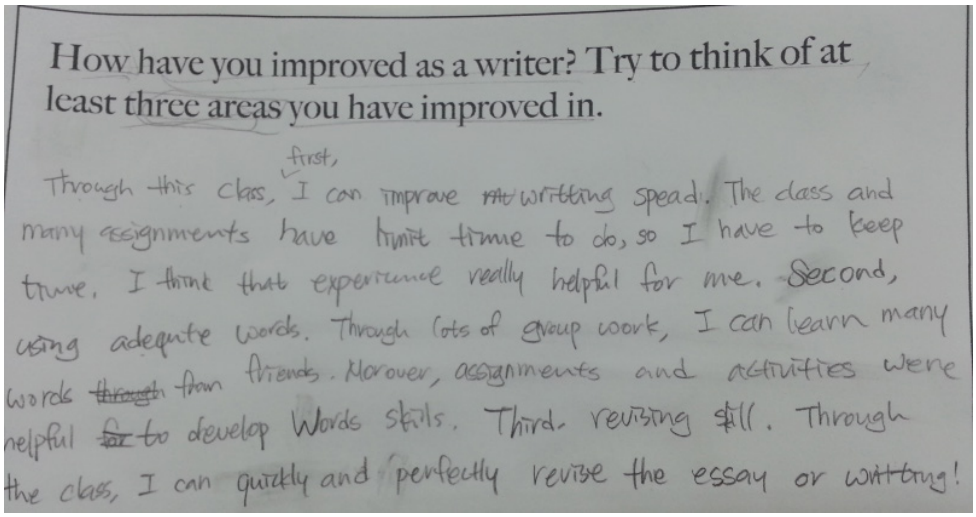
How have you improved as a writer? Try to think of at least three areas you have improved in.

① I improved in writing formal writings. I usually do not enjoy writing formally, and I try my best to avoid it, but in this class, there were many tasks involving formal writing, so I improved a lot.

② I think my writings got "Juicier." Although I write many children's stories myself, I never thought of using 5 senses in my writings. With what I learned, I think my writings are more creative and interesting.

③ I write faster. I am a slow writer, and that is probably because I enjoy writing so much and I want to make my essays perfect. ~~with~~ Since many of the tasks had time limit, I was able to manage my time more efficiently and focus more on writing.

Little Sister 4's reflection



How have you improved as a writer? Try to think of at least three areas you have improved in.

Through this class, first, I can improve ~~ra~~ writing spead. The class and many assignments have limit time to do, so I have to keep time. I think that experience really helpful for me. Second, using adequite words. Through lots of group work, I can learn many words ~~through~~ from friends. Moreover, assignments and activities were helpful ~~for~~ to develop Words skils. Third, revising skill. Through the class, I can quickly and perfectly revise the essay or writing!

GRADUATE THESIS ABSTRACTS

ENGLISH FRONT VOWEL PERCEPTION BY KOREAN ELEMENTARY AND UNIVERSITY EFL STUDENTS: THE INFLUENCE OF SYLLABLE CODAS AND FOREIGN LIVING EXPERIENCE

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This thesis examines the role of foreign living experience (L2/C2), L1 transfer and speaker-listener phonotactics on Korean English learners' (KE) perception of English front vowels. Studies have shown that L2 learners can have difficulty perceiving the sounds of their L2. This study uses a direct-realist model and methodology (PAM; Best, 1995) to examine the influence of variable syllable codas and L2/C2 on the perception of English front vowels. This study found that different consonant codas change how KEs categorize and discriminate English front vowels. Additionally, L2/C2 experience improves perception, but is not correlated with the amount of time spent in the L2/C2 for L1/C1 returnees. A direct-realist perspective suggests that L2 speech perception is affected by situated environment-dependent factors.

Key words: L2 speech perception, direct realism, PAM-L2, L2 returnee

THE EFFECT OF ACTIVITY-BASED GRAMMAR PRACTICE ON YOUNG LEARNERS

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This thesis observes the effect of activity-based grammar practice on young learners to increase students' performance and participation in class. Compared to control group, which was taught by text book-based, the activity-based grammar practice approach was considered an effective way to increase the students' performance as well as participation and revive the class atmosphere, which requires natural interaction between students (Ellis, 2003). An experiment was conducted for the current study. There were two groups which are control and experimental group to be compared. For data collection, pre-test, post-test, students' surveys and interviews were used. Throughout the experiment, activity-based grammar practice was shown to not only bring a lively and interesting environment but also increase the learners' participation in class. Moreover, students performed better on their post-test, especially on writing test. Students were able to apply grammar into their writing more computably with accurate grammar. Most of the students found that activity-based grammar practice was more motivated and engaged students than the textbook-based practice. If activity-based grammar teaching can show its benefits a lot more in improving performance on test, not just writing test, it would be more welcome to Korean school students who are caught in a double bind between interest and test scores. Without time limitation in experiment, it might be possible.

Key words: grammar practice, young learners, participation, motivation

AN ACTION RESEARCH ON USING GAMES FOR FOURTH GRADE EFL LEARNERS

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The primary aim of this action research was to explore the effectiveness of grammar games on young learners from the point of view of an English teacher working in a private elementary school. The opinions of the students from the intensive grammar course were collected through questionnaires and the results of this study demonstrated that there are various ways of using games in grammar teaching to enhance the students' grammar skills. Having fun in a class made the students have a positive attitude towards English, and henceit boosts grammar learning. This study suggests that Korean English teachers should consider the effectiveness of using games in grammar teaching.

Key words: grammar, games, young learner

ELEMENTS OF NON-NATIVE SPEAKER DYNAMIC PAIRS IN SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION

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This thesis examined the effect that a shared first language (L1) or lack of a shared L1 had on the types of dynamic pairs formed in synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) chat tasks. Over ten weeks, twelve upper-intermediate university learners from South Korea and Japan formed 12 pairs; six of the pairs were Korean/Japanese, three were Korean/Korean, and three were Japanese/Japanese. These pairs performed four chat tasks of varying difficulty and complexity for a total of 48 chats. These chats were analyzed with Riggenbach's (1999) model of discourse analysis for both micro and macro-elements to find what affected the type of dynamic pairing formed, according to Storch's (2002a) model of patterns of pair interactions. The optimal pair type was collaborative. Using grounded theory, four macro-elements emerged that showed to affect the type of pairings, which were preparedness, affability, joint ownership, and timeliness. The study found that pairs with a different L1 had more instances of the four elements, which correlated to more collaborative pairings. The implications of this study are that providing opportunities to interact with learners from other countries, where English is the only shared language, create an environment that is more conducive to forming collaborative pairings.

Key words: SCMC, dynamic pairs, EFL pair work, shared L1, collaborative chat

A STUDY ON KOREAN EFL TEACHERS' BELIEFS IN GRAMMAR TEACHING

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This case study reports on three Korean middle school English teachers' beliefs towards grammar and grammar teaching in their own teaching practices. Furthermore, factors influencing the teachers to practice in accordance with or against their beliefs are observed. Findings from surveys, class observations and interviews indicate that Korea-specific environmental factors such as heavy focus on grammar in textbooks and a tight schedule of national curriculum not to mention the accuracy-focused exams limit and discourage Korean teachers to venture further from the traditional grammar instruction methodology despite the individual differences in teaching beliefs. Also, the participants' schooling, professional education, cultural background, and their teaching preferences affect their pedagogical decisions. Additionally, their lack of awareness on the discrepancies in their beliefs and teaching practice as well as of their learners' potential influence the congested teaching practice. This research itself holds value for teachers to reflectively acknowledge the limitations within and outside of the class, to open up and share teaching with one another. For textbook writers and education policy makers, the findings reveal a necessity to allow flexibility in the textbooks, curriculum, and to provide opportunities for meaningful learning transactions among teachers.

Key words: teachers' beliefs, teacher cognition, grammar teaching, EFL, Korea