Korea TESOL Journal

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KOTESOL
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Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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About KOTESOL

Korea TESOL, Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL), is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of ELT in Korea. KOTESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an Affiliate of TESOL (TESOL International Association), an international education association of almost 13,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA, as well as an Associate of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language), an international education association of over 3,500 members with headquarters in Canterbury, Kent, UK.

Korea TESOL was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE). Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals, Korea TESOL shall cooperate with other groups having similar concerns.

Korea TESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL and IATEFL, but also with PAC (Pan-Asian Consortium of Language Teaching Societies), consisting of JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching), ThaiTESOL (Thailand TESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Association of the Republic of China/Taiwan), FEELTA (Far Eastern English Language Teachers Association, Russia), and PALT (Philippine Association for Language Teaching, Inc.). Korea TESOL in also associated with CamTESOL (Cambodia), ACTA (Australian Council of TESOL Associations), and MELTA (Malaysian English Language Teaching Association).

The membership of Korea TESOL includes elementary school, middle school, high school, and university-level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, material writers, curriculum developers, and other interested individuals.

Korea TESOL has ten active chapters throughout the nation: Busan-Gyeongnam, Daegu-Gyeongbuk, Daejeon-Chungcheong, Gangwon, Gwangju-Jeonnam, Jeju, Jeonju-North Jeolla, Seoul, Suwon-Gyeonggi, and Yongin-Gyeonggi, as well as numerous International members. Members of Korea TESOL are from all parts Korea and many parts of the world, thus providing Korea TESOL members the benefits of a multi-cultural membership. Approximately thirty percent of the members are Korean.

Korea TESOL holds an annual international conference, a national conference, workshops, and other professional development events, while its chapters hold monthly workshops, annual conferences, symposia, and networking events. Also organized within Korea TESOL are numerous SIGs (Special Interest Groups) − Reflective Practice, Professional Development, Young Learners, Christian Teachers, Research, Multi-Media & CALL, etc. − which hold their own meetings and events.

Visit www.koreatesol.org for membership information.

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The Korea TESOL Journal is a peer-reviewed journal, welcoming previously unpublished practical and scholarly articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. The Journal particularly focuses on articles that are relevant and applicable to the Korean EFL context. The Journal is scheduled to release two issues annually.

As the Journal is newly committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to the application of theory to practice in our profession, submissions reporting relevant research and addressing implications and applications of this research to teaching in the Korean setting are particularly welcomed.

The Journal is also committed to the fostering of scholarship among Korea TESOL members and throughout Korea. As such, classroom-based papers, i.e., articles arising from genuine issues of the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. The Journal has also expanded its scope to include research that supports all scholars, from early-career researchers to senior academics.

Areas of interest include, but are not limited, to:

> Classroom-Centered Research
> Teacher Training
> Teaching Methodologies
> Cross-cultural Studies
> Curriculum and Course Design
> Assessment
> Technology in Language Learning
> Language Learner Needs

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Phatic Communion, Topic Selection, and Turn-Taking

Randon Sommars
Konkuk University, Seoul, Korea

Ken Beatty
Anaheim University, Anaheim, California, USA

Phatic communion (Malinowski, 1923) refers to the small talk that has a social purpose in binding individuals together, rather than a role in conveying new information. Although it is a common aspect of English language conversation, it is seldom taught, in part because of its unpredictable nature. Consequently, second language learners often misunderstand phatic communion and are confused about how to respond when another speaker initiates one. This article provides a discourse analysis of a conversation between an elderly mother and her daughter-in-law to illustrate key features of phatic communion before identifying classroom applications.

INTRODUCTION

This article analyzes an interpersonal conversation between two native speakers of English. The analysis primarily focuses on the finer details of phatic communion and its influence on turn-taking and topic shifting. For Nunan (2007), turn-taking in most situations is regarded as being a potentially tricky affair. Turn-taking usually involves several elements of strategic decision-making so that speakers can contribute in a timely and appropriate manner to a topic that is often highly competitive. The competitive nature of topic selection may not be apparent to second language (L2) speakers; however, topic shifting, influenced by turn-taking, is evident in the conversation that is the focus of this article. In the discourse, there is an unfolding of turn-taking and

topic selection that works toward a consensual outcome.

The context of this natural English conversation primarily involves a woman, age 66, and her mother-in-law, age 89. The majority of the interpersonal conversation occurs between two women, a daughter-in-law (*woman* in the transcript) and her mother-in-law (*mother* in the transcript) on the afternoon of March 24, 2013, while sitting on a porch in a countryside home in rural Cambridge, Minnesota (USA). Earlier that morning, the mother's husband had died, and the mother had been invited to spend the weekend at the home of her daughter-in-law. The conversation took place while other family members focused on different domestic tasks; the mother and the woman made small talk while a pet cat sat between them.

ANALYSIS

Phatic communion was first formally identified by anthropologist Bronislaw Mlinowski (1923). He thought of phatic communion as a type of communication in which the meanings of words that are used are almost irrelevant and aimless but, at the same time, socially important (Sun, 2004). This type of communication is often seen in contexts where interlocutors are establishing norms of sociability and personal relations by overcoming silence that is seen to be unpleasant and threatening (Zegarac, 1998).

Phatic communion is evident between the two interlocutors in the conversation below (see Transcript in Appendix B). The most striking aspect of the conversation is its minimalism. Within this interpersonal conversation, there are 12 significant pauses (i.e., pauses greater than 3 seconds) that total 59 seconds out of the 5-minute-53-second (5:53) conversation. This accounts for 17% of the conversation being in pause, or silence, that in other contexts may have caused an unpleasant or uneasy atmosphere among strangers. However, the presence of significant pauses is not the only condition that determines this discourse as having elements of phatic communion.

Schneider (1988) explains that many interlocutors who use phatic communion often activate and access highly conditioned topic selections in that their topics tend to be associated with elements of the immediate situation. In the conversation, this is immediately apparent with the first utterance involving the cat that is near to where the conversation takes

place; similar utterances dealing with the surrounding area and situation are found in lines 9, 10, 12, 15, 20, 31, 32, 46, 48, 69, 97, 105, 107, and 108. This leads to the inference that the conversation is guided more by the shared surroundings than by the need to inform each other of uncontextualized information. That is, the conversation's purpose seems to be the conveying of social knowledge instead of cognitive information (Cruz, 2013).

Narrations in the form of stories are also commonly found within phatic communion (Cruz, 2013). Narrations occur three times throughout the conversation between the mother and woman (see lines 9-20, 61-69, and 74-96). Narrations are useful because they provide background information, character, and sometimes, personal information. Throughout lines 74-76, 79-80, and 82, the woman provides several of Labov's (1972) key aspects of a story (abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, resolution, and coda) which are attended to from beginning to end by the mother who demonstrates active listening through back-channeling (see lines 78, 81, 83, and 85). Back-channeling comments ("Oh is that right?", "Yeah?", "I have no idea.") are ways of demonstrating an understanding of coherence and letting the speaker know that the listener is following the narrative structure. This is important because, at this time, the woman is sharing a particularly personal story with the mother of the woman's own father's death at a young age. An unconscious motivation behind this story might be to provide a contrast to the death of the mother's husband that day at a relatively advanced age. Such narrative acts have the potential to strengthen the bonds between the woman and the mother.

Another notable characteristic within the conversation is the high number of instances of turn-taking that take place over the course of 5 minutes and 53 seconds. This back-and-forth speaking throughout the conversation is balanced at 42 turns each. Although the turns are distributed equally, there remain imbalances. The woman speaks 438 words while mother speaks just 357 words. Also the woman asks more questions: 20 questions versus 12 for the mother.

This woman's dominance, however, appears to be much more of a mutual agreement than a struggle of speaking rights. The evidence for this is the low amount of overlap and interruption in the conversation. Related to this is the benign nature of the instances showing negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning takes place within the conversation at six points (5, 14, 49, 89, 94, and 106), and 83% of these are simply

confirmation requests to establish coherence. This sort of mutual respect is delivered with a reiteration of the question or statement but usually in a louder tone so as to be heard more clearly. Nunan (2007) states that casual conversation can be competitive and

> ...involves constantly monitoring the input of the other participants, and making strategic decisions about how to fit one's own contribution into the ongoing topic of the conversation, as well as diverting, subverting, and even changing the topic of conversation completely. (p. 94)

Reviewing at the entire discourse, the woman carries the conversation from one sub-topic to the next by asking questions, self-selecting, using stories, signaling, and by using the immediate environment, which in turn, helps to guide the sub-topics (see Appendix A). The woman is involved in more than 64% of all topic changes occurring after periods of silence greater than three seconds. There is only one instance where the sub-topic changes without the need of a 3-second-plus silence (see line 74).

Due to the mutual respect between the speakers, when a long silence is present there is no competitive drive to fight for speaker dominance, but instead, the interlocutors engage in mutual compliance. This compliance is what also drives the turn-taking rules, which make it possible for the "speaker and the hearer to change roles constantly and construct shared meaning by maintaining flow of talk" (Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 172). When this flow is disrupted, the more dominant speaker searches for different details or sub-topics that have not yet been discussed.

CLASSROOM APPLICATION

Teachers must raise awareness among learners that phatic communion is universal across languages and cultures and, therefore, a common human process (Sun, 2004), which

> shows up through a plethora of acts like greetings, welcomes, questions about the interlocutors, leave-takes, wish wells, farewells, compliments about obvious achievements or personal traits,

complaints, narrations, chit-chat or comments about trivial things or events. (Malinowski, 1923, p. 476)

In part, because of its highly personal yet subdued nature, a dialog such as this is a valuable starting point for introducing learners to the subtleties of phatic communion. This ultimate purpose is to improve learners' general conversation skills. By better understanding the relationships between turn-taking, topic shifting, and phatic communion, learners can improve their interactional harmony and avoid unpleasant tensions.

After having raised awareness of and explained phatic communion, teachers might provide learners with partial dialogs and then ask the learners to complete the conversations in role-play situations. The class, observing each pair of speakers' attempts to create cohesive and coherent discourse, will begin to see and internalize successful strategies to develop and maintain a favorable atmosphere within their conversations – entertaining, reinforcing, or strengthening previous information and attitudes, and influencing other interlocutors by means of sharing ideas and points of view (Rosnow, 1977).

Conclusion

Even though this study is based on a limited conversation, the analysis shows that turn-taking, along with topic shifting, illustrates the importance of phatic communion. Even though the talk is largely meaningless, such as repeated utterances of common knowledge or shared observances between the interlocutors, the larger purpose can be divined: to establish and maintain relations between two speakers. In the case of this conversation, the context of a death in the family frames the phatic communion as a way of establishing the comforting and consoling normalcy and continuance of life. It is an illustration of how, sometimes, silence says a great deal.

The Authors

Randon Sommars is an Instructor of Academic English at Konkuk University in Seoul, South Korea. He has studied Psychology and Sociocultural Studies

at Bethel University. Randon is currently completing his Masters in TESOL at Anaheim University. Email: Randon.Sommars@gmail.com

Ken Beatty is TESOL Professor at Anaheim University in Anaheim, USA. He received his Ph.D. from Hong Kong University and has worked in universities in Canada, China, Hong Kong, and the United Arab Emirates. Dr. Beatty has authored/co-authored more than 130 textbooks and given 200+ teacher-training presentations and 100+ conference presentations in 22 countries. Email: kenbeatty@mac.com

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APPENDIX A

Topic Change, Form, Instigator, and Timing

Line	Topic Change	Form	Instigator of Change	Seconds of Pause
1	Initial topic selected	Question	Woman	-
9	Cats in general → Cats kill mice	Self-selected	Woman	4
20	Cats kill mice → Expecting a new batch of kittens	Self-selected	Woman	5
33	Expecting a new batch of kittens → When will they be born	Signaled ending of utterance	Woman	6
45	When will they be born → Feeding the birds	Surrounding distraction	Father	4
48	Feeding the birds → Mother isn't petting the cat	Obvious surroundings	Woman	9
53	Mother isn't petting the cat → mother has always been nice to cats	Self-selected	Mother	5
57	Mother has always been nice to cats → Raising chickens	Question	Mother	10
69	Raising chickens → Cheese	Surrounding distraction	Woman/Son	5
74	Cheese → Memory of chickens	Story	Woman	0
96	Memory of chickens → Distraction	Surrounding distraction	Mother	4
103	Saving eggs → Distraction	Surrounding distraction	Woman	4
104	Distraction → Memory	Self-selected	Mother	5
107	Interaction → Waiting	Self-selected	Woman	8

APPENDIX B

Legend

Symbol	Explanation
. . .	Number of seconds provided for the pause (in this case, 3+ seconds)
~	Unintelligible and fading speech
Italics	Clarifications for the reader (e.g., *speaking to or about the cat sitting between the speakers*)
( )	Editorial insertion
CAPITALS	Raised voice
F	Father (woman's husband)
M	Mother (father's mother, mother-in-law to the woman)
W	Woman (daughter-in-law of the mother)
S	Son (son of the woman)

Transcript

0:00 − 5:53

1. W: *Oh that's nice.* Now Grandma isn't she nice?
   M: *Sure she's a nice cat . . .*
   W: *Yeah*
   M: Cats are still cats.
5. W: So what does that mean?
   M: I don't know we had so many cats all the time you know that ~
   W: But they don't hurt anything.
   M: Oh, no . .
   W: All they do is lay around and purr . . . . kill mice. We, we didn't
10. have any mice in the house this year.
   M: Yeah well I wouldn't doubt that.
   W: Mm hmm. Because they, well first off Wayne plugged whatever needed to, in the basement there.
   M: He what?

15. W: Well, we, there was a place where mice were getting in downstairs, and so he plugged it with somethin'. Cement or someth'n I don't know.
    M: Couldn't get, couldn't get in.
    W: Couldn't get in. So that, plus cats. We haven't had any mice. None. So happy.
    M: Well that seems funny that you could keep 'em out. (chuckles) . . .
20. W: I know living in the country, they come . . . . . *well I figure she's gonna have really pretty kittens. Because she's got the black*, you know and Jack is yellow and white so maybe we'll get some calico kittens.
    M: *Well you'll probably get her look like this.*
    W: Well, there's nothing wrong with that.
25. M: No. But that's a breed isn't it? The cats aren't going to be black or white because she's got that color.
    W: It's that tiger . . . Mm hmm, but she's beautiful.
    M: Yeah ~
    W: Wayne doesn't like this kind but I do.
30. M: Well, yeah I like the yellow one better.
    W: Mm hmm, see that pretty tail? (laughter) *Oh sweetheart you're so nice. You're so nice.* She's not purring though is she? . . . . . . (sigh)
    M: Isn't spring yet . . . *S'pose she'll have kittens this spring?*
    W: Sure. They usually do after a year don't they?
35. M: Well I suppose she would. She should show up with 'em . .
    W: Well it's only, the end of March.
    M: How long does it take for 'em?
    W: 90 days? I don't know.
    M: I don't know. Seems like we had 'em all the time.
40. W: (chuckles) They only have one batch right? One batch a year . . Can they have two?
    M: I don't know. They might have two. I don't know. We had cat's kittens, (door creeks open quickly, closes and locks) kittens all the time (door squeaks open).
    W: Well you had so many cats I suppose that was why (door squeaks
45. closed and locks) . . . .
    M: Well did you feed the birds?
    F: Yup I feeded them.
    W: . . . . You don't even want to pet her do you Grandma?
    M: Hmm?
50. W: YOU DON'T WANT TO PET HER.
    M: *She's just a cat to me.*
    W: (laughs)
    M: We had so many cats you know that . . . . . Oh I wouldn't go as,

I wasn't

55. W: (interrupts) Grandpa liked cats didn't he?

M: Yeah. I mean I was good to the cats. I didn't abuse them, but I didn't make a big fuss over 'em . . . .

W: Did you ever raise chickens?

M: Oh y-e-e-e-s.

60. W: And you had a brooder house?

M: Y-e-e-e-s . . . Not only did I raise 'em, I butchered chickens like, one day I butchered 30 of 'em I did it all myself. That's a lot of chickens.

W: Oh my word.

M: I'd catch a bunch of 'em and grab 'em by their leg. This won't take long, did it.

65. And then the head was gone (small laughter).

W: So what did you do with all of that? You'd freeze it then?

M: Oh yeah I'd freeze it. I'd sold some. I sold, I'd butcher them out like that. And sometimes I'd cut 'em up and sometimes I didn't have to when I didn't have to then I'd just filled 'em whole. You know. What have you got there? . . . . .

70. W: (Son giving Mother string cheese) Mozzarella cheese

M: Oh

W: You want one?

M: Naw I don't really want one right now.

W: You know one memory that I have of chickens, ah, when we lived on the farm

75. when I was a little girl. The chickens would would ah sleep up in the trees is that possible? And Dad had a long, thing that would grab their foot, and he'd grab 'em down off of the trees.

M: Oh is that right?

W: Mm hmm. And it seems like he would put a pill in their mouth,

80. you know kinda under their, open their mouth and stick a pill in.

M: Yeah?

W: What would that pill have been for?

M: I have no idea

W: You suppose worms or someth'n?

85. M: Might be.

W: I have vivid memories of my dad doing that.

M: Oh I have ~

W: (interrupts) And then I remember sometimes he put them in crates.

M: Huh?

90. W: HE PUT THEM IN CRATES.

M: Well that when he sold 'em I suppose.

W: And then he sold 'em . . . I can 're', I suppose I was little.

M: Huh?

95. W: I SUPPOSE I WAS LITTLE.

M: Yeah. No I didn't uh . . . .

W: Randy look. Randy look. *Now watch her back* . . . (The hair on the cats back rises and falls with every petting stroke)

M: When we saved them for eggs,

100. W: (interrupts) (chuckles) Funny?

M: when we saved 'em for eggs then we uh~

W: (Interrupts) Isn't that funny? . . . .

M: Catch 'em out of the trees . . . . .

105. W: (whispers) Give her a piece of cheese.

S: Huh?

W: Give her a piece of cheese . . . .

108. M: Did she eat it?

Comparing Korean and Japanese Blog Writers to Native Speaker Norms: Over- and Underuse of Keywords

Chris Hughes
Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST), Daejeon, Korea

Jamie Costley
Kongju National University, Gongju, Chungnam, Korea

Carter Peyton
Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (KAIST), Daejeon, Korea

There has been little investigation into how corpora analysis can help researchers understand how foreign language learners use English in online learning environments. This paper compares the text generated from Korean and Japanese foreign language learners' blogs with the BNC (British National Corpus) in order to highlight potential focus areas for EFL instructors. The comparison of word-use frequency among all three corpora − Korean, Japanese, and the BNC − was carried out using log likelihood to establish the degree of difference between the learner corpora and the BNC. Analysis showed significant overuse of first-person pronouns, basic adjectives, and ordinal and signal words by the Korean and Japanese learners. Furthermore, those learners also underused prepositions, auxiliaries, and determiners. These results will allow EFL practitioners to target specific knowledge gaps to increase intelligibility and specificity in online environments while offering students a practical approach to enhance their writing abilities.

INTRODUCTION

Learner corpora have received an increasing amount of attention in recent years due to the valuable empirical evidence they can provide about the ways learners use language. Learner corpora are constructed by collecting texts or utterances produced by learners of a second language. They can be contrasted with general corpora, which are representative of a language and are composed of texts of differing types, fields, and registers. The analysis of learner corpora gives multiple insights into the process of second language learning. This is because the analysis and comparison of learner corpora in relation to native corpora provide quantitative, descriptive data regarding learner behaviors that transcend intuitive judgment (Biber & Conrad, 2001).

Corpora analysis can show which words learners use more or less frequently, how learners tend to use lexical items and phrases, and what effect first language use has on target language use. Furthermore, these points of analysis can be compared to native speaker norms. However, there is a real disconnect between the possible uses of learner corpus analysis and the pedagogical practice (Römer, 2011). Corpus linguists suggest that analysis of learner corpora can give a greater understanding of the way learners learn, acquire, and use a language (e.g., Hunston, 2002). These insights can be used to assist educators in their classroom practices. To date, however, there has been limited crossover from theory to practice. This paper bridges that gap to some degree with an empirical study.

A common and useful way to interpret data on the way learners use a language is to compare a learner corpus with a general corpus generated using native texts and utterances. The greatest progress in this type of study has been in the field of English for Academic Purposes. Tribble and Scott (2006), for example, demonstrated that Polish learners of English used language in very different ways than expert practitioners when it came to writing post-graduate papers. Granger and Tribble (1998), along with Boulton (2009) and Lee and Chen (2009), have used learner corpora analysis to better understand advanced learners of a second language in specialized fields. Far less attention has been paid to learners of general English at a relatively lower level of competency. This paper presents a corpus analysis of blog posts constructed by Korean learners of English. It also compares these findings with those produced by an investigation into blog posts constructed by Japanese

learners of English (Foss, 2009).

The decision to compare Koreans learners with Japanese learners of English was made for three reasons. The first is methodological: The investigations use the same method used in Foss (2009), and a comparison of results could be used to validate not only his research, but in turn, his results could be used to add reliability and validity to this study. Secondly, the need for cross-language validation of second-language learner behavior is a gap in previous research. Although understanding individual language-learning groups is important, developing connections between similar language-learning groups increases the potential applications of this study, lending value to the comparison. Furthermore, a comparison of these blog posts is appropriate alongside similar comparisons of their use of the English grammar, pragmatic aspects of English (Chung, 2015), and their use of indirectness markers in English academic writing (Hinkel, 1997). The third reason is utilization and application of the research findings.

As Japanese and Korean share grammatical similarities, second language learners from these backgrounds could be shown to have similar tendencies to over- and underuse items in the target language. Additionally, practitioners in Japan and Korea frequently move between the two countries for work and collaborate often on language research. As these two teaching environments often offer similar pedagogical (Littlewood, 2007) and language policy (Butler, 2004) challenges, findings that are of use to practitioners in both contexts will help to inform and further this collaboration. Analysis of blogs was chosen for two reasons that connect directly with the usefulness of this study. In general, online writing and blogs have been increasing in use for developing learners' second language abilities. For this reason, learners' use of a second language in this type of environment is timely and of widespread usefulness. Blogs are also relatively easy to render into a form fit for analysis. This ease of analysis means that instructors can understand what is happening in the particular learning environment quickly and accurately.

The research questions we posed at the outset of this investigation were:

1. Which English words do Korean and Japanese language learners use statistically more often than native speakers?

2. Which English words do Korean and Japanese language learners use statistically less often?
3. How do Korean blog users compare to Japanese blog users in their English production when compared to native speaker norms?

The learner corpora were analyzed and compared with the BNC, and any cases where the Japanese or Korean learners over- or underused a particular word were included in the results. This broad, catch-all approach was used to create a practical list of English words that instructors could use to focus their lessons regarding over- or underuse of particular words. A frequency list and log-likelihood statistics were generated using the *WordSmith* (Scott, 2008) suite of corpus analysis tools. This list was then analyzed, and words from parts of speech that featured more prominently were extracted and put into groups. Using these, it will be shown that Japanese and Korean learners of English over- and underuse many basic elements of English. However, while the words they over- and underuse fall into similar grammatical categories, there are differences of degree and variation among which words within a particular category are over- or underused.

Learner Corpora

A learner corpus is a computerized textual database of the language produced by language learners (Leech, 1998). Cobb (2003, p. 400) states that learner corpus research "amounts to a new paradigm, and a great deal of methodological pioneering remains to be done." Learner corpora are constructed for a number of reasons. Key considerations when constructing a learner corpus are purpose, size, and variability. They can be designed to describe the target language, to characterize the learner, to analyze learner language, or for the purpose of instruction (Mark, 1998). In terms of size, bigger is not always better (Granger, 2004). Considerations of preparation and tailoring to a particular purpose are of greater importance (Ragan, 1996). To date, the majority of learner corpora have been made of academic writings (Pravec, 2002). One of the most popular and easily accessed learner corpora of writings is the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE). The types of variations within the ICLE can be seen in Figure 1.
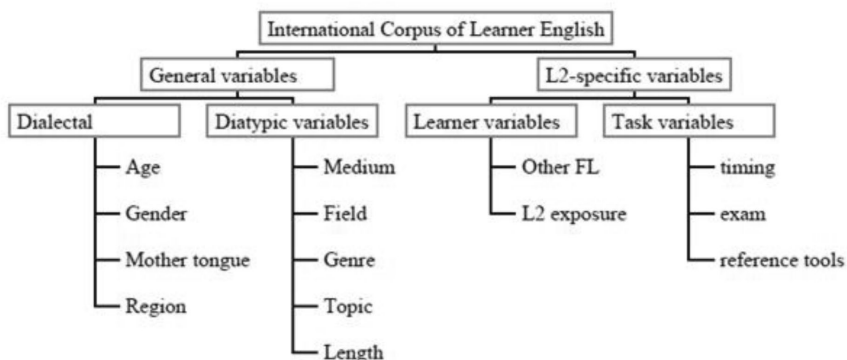
FIGURE 1. ICLE general and L-2 specific variables (Granger, 2004)**.**

The ICLE is unusual in that it is relatively easy to access. A lack of available learner corpus data, specifically those constructed outside of academic genres, is often cited among the rationale for constructing Local Learner Corpora (Seidlhofer, 2002). These are corpora constructed to answer questions about a specific group of learners. One major benefit of these local corpora is the ease with which their analysis can be used to inform classroom-based action research (for an overview on Local Learner Corpora, see Millar & Lehtinen, 2008).

Comparing Learner Corpora to Native Corpora in SLA

Despite a great deal of analysis of learner corpora, there has been little transfer to SLA practices. As Granger (2004, p. 136) states, "the number of concrete corpus informed achievements is not proportional to the number of publications advocating the use of corpora to inform pedagogical practice." Two factors cause this gulf. First, instead of SLA specialists, corpus linguists have conducted the research into learner corpora (Hasselgård, 1999). According to Flowerdew (1998, p. 550), "the implications for pedagogy are not developed in any great detail with the consequence that the findings have had little influence on [...] syllabus and materials design."

Second is the objection from SLA theorists that the comparison of learner and native-speaker language usage tends to adopt a normative perspective (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 66). The comparison of native and non-native language use is problematic. For a long time, British and American conventions were held up as the only admissible

models of pedagogy in English Language Teaching (Adamson, 2004; Bolton, 2003; Lam, 2002). These conventions have been challenged in recent years with strong arguments being put forward for World Englishes (Jenkins, 1998, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2006, 2007; Kachru, 1984, 1988, 1992, 2005; Seidelhofer, 1999, 2001, 2004, 2006). World Englishes suggests that, as English is an international language, norms and ownership cannot be exclusive to inner circle native speakers; local variations in outer and expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1985) should be seen as equally valid. Alpetekin (2002) argues against native speaker norms and for the need for pedagogic models of English as an international language.

However, scholars have found that in some contexts, particularly in expanding circle countries, native speaker norms are still considered desirable. Timmis (2002) showed in a survey of 180 respondents from 45 countries that learners consider achieving a more native-like grasp of grammar to be a "benchmark of achievement" (p. 245) and that the traditional idea of "mastering a language" survives (p. 248) among a majority of those surveyed. He concludes his study by stating that, while it may be inappropriate to force native speaker norms on learners, in many cases it is what learners want and expect.

Timmis' study is supported by a more recent study by He and Zhang (2012). They replicated Timmis' study among tertiary learners in China. Here it was concluded that, while "China English" could well supplant native speaker norms in the future, at present, native speaker norms are desirable among a majority of learners. Yoo (2013) claims that no one can be a native speaker of Korean English, and speakers in the expanding circle cannot claim ownership when there are no local varieties spoken. He justifies this statement by suggesting that English in Korea is used as a gateway to higher positions in society rather than for Koreans to communicate between each other. Finally, Kirkpatrick (2006) stated that, while a nativized or lingua franca model of pedagogy would be the most desirable, stakeholders still need to choose between a nativized or native-speaker model, as these are the only two on offer for the vast majority of learners.

It could be said that a major drawback of a study of the kind described in this paper is the assumption that the aim of learners is to conform to native speaker norms. However, as Hunston (2002) points out, this type of study has two advantages. The first is that a standard type of speech is clearly identified. This standard can then be changed

and replaced by another if it is deemed inappropriate. Second, this standard can be said to be realistic: A corpus-based study will reveal what native speakers actually do, rather than what they are said to do. Furthermore, regardless of the socio-linguistic question of what constitutes a language norm and the appropriateness of holding that norm up as an exemplar, it remains the case that many learners and instructors see native or native-like production as the end goal of second language learning.

A wide range of studies have been conducted using what Granger (2004, p. 123) labels computer learner corpus research. The vast majority of these studies have focused on written corpora, specifically on English for Academic Purposes (e.g., Flowerdew, 2001; Gilquin, Granger, & Paquot, 2007; Hyland & Milton, 1997; Milton & Tsang, 1991; Scott & Tribble, 2006). Of these, a number have sought to highlight and explain learner over- or underuse of lexical items by comparing corpora. Ringbom (1998), for example, made use of the ICLE to look at the way European language learners used English compared to a corpus of texts written by native speakers. The results showed a large degree of over- and underuse among the learners. For example the learners used the simple amplifier *very* far more often. Similarly, Granger and Tyson's (1998) comparison of essays written by native and non-native speakers illustrated the overuse of connectors by the former.

The main reason for the imbalance between studies into written and spoken learner corpora is the relative difficulty involved in recording and processing spoken data (Grainger, 2004). Despite this, the past few years has also seen an increase in the number of studies analyzing learner speech (e.g., Aijmer, 2002; Crossley & Salsbury, 2011; De Cock, 2011; Götz & Schilk, 2011). Notable among these studies is Shirato and Stapleton's (2007) analysis of Japanese learners. They built a corpus of 43,651 words and then generated a rank-order frequency list using the *WordSmith* suite of tools. They then compared this list with the conversational section of the 100-million-word British National Corpus (BNC). Their interest was to reveal which single items and word combinations non-native speakers (NNS) over- or underused compared to native speakers (NS). Their study showed, among many other things, a tendency to overuse common adjectives.

CSCL and Second Language Learning

The evidence that computer-supported collaborative learning (CSCL) helps with a learner's development in a second language is growing (Abrams, 2003; Hirotani, 2009; Levy, 2009). Gaspar, Langevin, Boyer, and Armitage (2009) note that writing online makes it easy for students to contribute to their level. This allows participants to do tasks and contribute in their zone of proximal development. Calibrating tasks so as to fit into the learner's zone of proximal development (ZPD) is important in all areas of education (Vygotsky, 1978) and particularly useful when applied to learning a second language (Chaiklin, 2003).

Any type of asynchronous CSCL gives second language learners opportunities to use the target language regardless of time or place. In the Bangert-Drowns (1997) study, there is evidence that writing online develops a more literate and academic tone in second language learners' writing. Learners in any online CSCL environment should actively engage in the environment's discourse. For this reason, CSCL environments are ideal for giving learners opportunities to negotiate and construct meaning.

Weigle (2002) notes that most educational institutions using CSCL in second language learning judge learner progress by the quantity of postings and the linguistic accuracy of the posts. This can vary as some instructors prefer fluency over linguistic accuracy. Research using the data from this study has been analyzed in terms of critical thinking, which lends weight to the use of blogs in a second language environment (Costley & Han, 2003a, 2003b). The increases in critical thinking over the course of a semester show the educational value of learners interacting in a CSCL environment.

Abrams (2003) hypothesized that including some type of blended approach to learning would lead to students producing more of the target language during their brick-and-mortar classes. Abrams showed that only online interactions that occurred synchronously lead to higher levels of face-to-face interaction. Abrams compared synchronous and asynchronous computer-supported learning. In his experiment, the group using an online chatting format met directly before classes that were measured; the group using an online blog began interacting a week before measurement. It seems reasonable to suppose that in this type of situation, the groups that were chatting online would produce more in class.

Hirotani (2009) experimented on the differences between chatting online and blogging for Japanese learners of English. Hirotani showed that the group using online chatting had a greater impact on English proficiency than the group blogging. Both Hirotani and Abrams were trying to map online supplementary lessons onto performance in conversation in a face-to-face environment. Payne and Whitney (2002) hypothesized that this is because of the linguistic similarity between chatting online and having a spoken conversation. The contents of online chats are more similar to spoken conversations than asynchronous interactions on forums. It has been hypothesized that spoken face-to-face interactions are more similar to chatting online than to blogging, which may be the cause of the better performance for treatments using chatting as opposed to blogging.

METHODS

The present study used three corpora; two learner corpora and one reference corpus. One learner corpus, the Japanese Learner English Blog Corpus (hereafter, JLEBC), was generated from Japanese university students' blog posts. The other, the Korean Learner English Blog Corpus (hereafter, KLEBC), was generated from Korean university students' blog posts. The reference corpus, the world edition of the British National Corpus (BNC), is a widely used tool for corpus analysis (see below).

The Corpora

The KLEBC was constructed at a national university in South Korea. Students in the first to fourth year of study were required to use a forum-style website to construct and respond to each other's blogs. These constructions and responses were mandatory parts of the course. Students were primarily graded according to levels of production with accuracy and grammar being a minor consideration. There were 3 instructors working with 73 learners. There were no set requirements on length or number of posts and no models were provided. The students are considered to be at an intermediate/high level according to TOEFL scores. There were no suggestions on blog topics from the teachers. The KLEBC consists of 299,443 words written by 73 students. These were

grouped together as 992 entries with responses.

The JLEBC is being constructed at a private university in Japan. First- and second-year students are required to complete blog entries using individually created blogs. Students are graded according to production. There are seven instructors teaching thirty classes. This means there are a number of variables, such as the provision of models by teachers, number of entries required, and number of words required. The majority of students were low/intermediate level, according to TOEFL scores. Of the topics students wrote on, 69% were generated in response to teacher-suggested topics, while 31% were created independently. The JLBEC consists of 1,625,741 words written by 654 students in 8,858 blog entries. Details of the two corpora can be seen in Table 1.

The British National Corpus (BNC) was used for contrastive analysis. The BNC has long been used as a reference corpus because of its size, availability, and perceived representativeness. While the first two reasons offered are certainly true (it consists of 100,000,000 words, and a version is free to download), the third is a little more contentious. It is vital to take into account representativeness (Biber, 1993) when selecting a normative corpus against which to compare a sample one. A corpus can be considered representative if it is composed of all major text types (Leech, 1993). A corpus' claim to representativeness is enhanced if these text types are somehow proportional to every-day language usage (Clear, 1992). While it is difficult to analyze how true this is of the BNC, its legitimacy can be seen in its continued use by dictionaries, such as the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, and as a model for scholars' composition of corpora designed to be representative of other languages (see, for example, Otlogetswe, 2001; Sharoff, 2006).

TABLE 1. The Two Learner Corpora

	Size	No. Students	No. Posts	Posts per Student	Words per Post	Teacher-Generated Topics	Independently Generated Topics
KLBEC	299,433	71	992	14	301.8	0%	100%
JLEBC	1,625,741	654	8,858	13.5	183.5	69%	31%

Data Analysis

To construct the KLEBC, learners' blog posts were edited for username and other superfluous data, and stored as files containing the original post as well as any replies. Any posts by instructors were not included. Once the corpus had been compiled, the data was analyzed using the *WordSmith 5.0* (Scott, 2008) suite of tools to generate a rank-order frequency list of single words. Finally, we generated a keyword list. Scott (2010, p. 149) defines a *keyword* as "a word (or a word cluster) which is found to occur with unusual frequency in a given text or set of texts." A list of keywords is formed by comparing the most frequent words found in a smaller corpus (or a single text) with those of a larger, general corpus, like the BNC (see below). *WordSmith* also generates a log-likelihood (Dunning, 1993) score for words on the list. Log-likelihood is a statistical function that describes a parameter given an outcome. The higher the number, the less statistical likelihood there is that a word would be used at the frequency it has been, and it is therefore being (comparatively) overused and vice versa.

RESULTS

High-Frequency Words Used More in the KLEBC and JLEBC Than in the BNC

There were a large number of similarities between the keyword lists generated for analysis. There were, however, significant discrepancies. Tables will be presented listing terms separated into categories, the first of which will be first-person pronouns. The tables will show approximations of the word occurrences per 10,000 words for the BNC, KLEBC, and JLEBC. A log-likelihood calculation will also be included.

TABLE 2. Overused First-Person Pronouns

Word	BNC	JLEBC	Log-Likelihood	KLEBC	Log-Likelihood
I	73.6	615.0	243,140.4	414.6	29,316.3
My	14.8	150.0	66,139.4	114.0	9,846.7
We	30.2	97.3	14,835.1	33.0	134.2
Me	13.2	37.9	4,826.0	50.4	2,516.1

Both Korean and Japanese learners overuse first-person pronouns (Table 2). The Korean learners overused these items far less than their Japanese counterparts did. This could be due to the Korean students being comparably more advanced (i.e., their TOEIC scores are generally higher). Indeed, the use of *we* by the Korean learners is almost the same as native speakers. The KLEBC keyword list featured many basic adjectives. A comparison of these can be seen in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Overused Basic Adjectives

Word	BNC	JLEBC	Log-Likelihood	KLEBC	Log-Likelihood
High	3.8	31.7	12,197.3	4.6	28.9
Good	8.1	38.9	9,490.2	31.4	1,588.7
Happy	1.1	11.9	5,341.8	11.0	1,086.8
Hard	2.2	15.5	5,266.5	13.0	926.8
Interesting	1.0	11.8	5,800.6	3.0	120.9
Beautiful	0.8	9.9	4,729.6	3.4	179.6
Fun	0.5	5.4	2,503.9	3.6	296.3
Bad	1.5	8.8	2,589.8	5.2	240.0
Difficult	2.2	9.9	2,408.5	4.4	99.1
Big	2.4	8.2	1,285.8	3.5	36.9
Important	3.9	10.3	1,138.3	5.5	56.0

There are a couple of very similar results on this list (*happy* and *hard*), but more striking is that, again, the Korean learners are shown to overuse terms significantly less. The most notable is the use of *high*. Foss puts this extreme overuse by Japanese learners down to the repeated occurrence of *high school* and *high price* (Foss, 2009. p. 70). However, we speculate that teachers at the Japanese university may have set student topics relating to their high school experiences, which would account for the extreme overuse of this term. Among the items present on the Korean list, but not on the Japanese, were the terms *great* (7.1), *cold* (5.6), and *kind* (5.3). Foss' paper addresses words that function as intensifiers or quantifiers and "vague" words (e.g., *people*, *thing*, etc.). Korean learners overused all of the same items in the former and several in the latter, but again significantly less. Of far more interest is the use

of words categorized as common ordinals and words used for signaling. There was a large difference between the two sets of these terms as can be seen in Table 4.

TABLE 4. Overused Ordinal and Signal Words

Words	BNC	J	Log-Likelihood	K	Log-Likelihood
First	12.1	31.2	3,307.3	13.7 (410)	64.7
Example	3.6	15.2	3,251.8	n/a	
Second	4.1	16.1	3,173.7	n/a	
Next	4.5	16.3	2,893.5	7.7 (230)	123.4
Finally	1.3	6.4	1,637.1	2.7 (81)	66.3

The differences in usage here are vast. Foss posits the reason for this phenomenon as the "influence of the learners' instructors; many of these words are explicitly taught in the writing program at this university" (p. 70). While we concur with this to some extent, we would also suggest that the fact that instructors set topics for students to write on had an effect. Students given a question by an instructor will tend to see this as an academic task to be completed, rather than a free-writing activity. The fact that the Korean students used far fewer of these more formal signaling terms supports our theory. Indeed, the Korean students did not overuse two of the words and were very similar to "native speaker norms" with the other three. Foss states that the overuse of *think* frequently appears in literature in learner writing (e.g., Aijmer, 2002; Ringbom, 1998), and our findings support this with likelihood values for both the Japanese (L = 11,589.5) and Korean Corpus (L = 2,021.56). Once again, the Korean learners overuse this item, but not as significantly as the Japanese learners do.

Words Used Less in the JLEBC and KLEBC Than in the BNC

The underuse of terms is, perhaps, even more significant than overuse. We agree with Foss when he says that "the absence or less frequent occurrences of these words in learner writing may indicate a lack of understanding or confidence where production of these words is concerned and therefore a need for further instruction" (2009, p. 72). Of key interest are items learners in Korean and Japanese contexts both

seem to struggle with: articles, determiners, and prepositions. As above, tables will be provided comparing words per 10,000 in the three corpora and the log-likelihood measures for the two learner corpora.

TABLE 5. Underused Articles and Determiners

Words	BNC	J	Log-Likelihood	K	Log-Likelihood
The	608.8	313.6	-29,428.9	180.2	-6,506.35
An	34.1	14.3	-2,370.1	10.4	-333.1
Which	36.8	18.1	-1,891.3	9.7 (289)	-448.4
No	23.1	9.2	-1,737.8	10.4	-89.3
What	22.7	11.2	-1,153.1	21.81	42.9
Those	8.8	2.6	-963.5	3.3	-57.3
Such	10.8	4.6	-723.5	3.2	-109.3
A	219.3	195.2	-452.5	135.5	-134.4

As with the Japanese language, Korean does not have articles. This goes some way to explaining why learners in both sets underuse these items (Table 5). Interestingly, if not significantly, Korean learners overused *what* while Japanese learners underused it. This might warrant further investigation at another time. Both keyword lists also highlighted underuse of and difficulty with prepositions. A selection of comparisons can be seen in Table 6.

TABLE 6. Underused Prepositions

Words	BNC	J	Log-Likelihood	K	Log-Likelihood
Of	306.6	166.1	-12,725.0	100.9 (3021)	-2,667.4
As	65.9	21.9	-6,414.3	22.9 (685)	-506.2
Into	15.9	3.0	-2,558.2	2.7 (82)	-297.5
On	73.5	44.8	-2,102.6	31.7 (950)	-327.5
From	42.8	26.4	-1,183.8	17.7 (529)	-217.4
Through	8.2	2.1	-1,046.0	3.1 (94)	-49.8
Between	9.1	3.2	-828.4	2.7 (80)	-94.2
By	51.6	36.7	-771.1	13.8 (413)	-613.5

Both the Japanese and Korean languages form prepositions in different ways to English; they both use form constructions attaching indicators of place and movement to nouns rather than by using separate terms. As with articles, these differences of grammar between learners L1 and the target L2 have a significant interference effect.

Finally, comparisons of common modal verbs, other auxiliary verbs, and verbs for reported speech show some striking similarities as well as some occasions where an item appears on the Japanese keyword list, but not the Korean list. This would indicate that while both sets of learners struggle with some of the same language use, there are inconsistencies (Table 7).

TABLE 7. Underused Modals, Auxiliaries, and Verbs for Reported Speech

Words	BNC	J	Log-Likelihood	K	Log-Likelihood
Would	23.1	8.3	-2,042.1	9.5	-119.7
Might	6.0	1.2		n/a	
May	12.8	7.6	-411.1	6.5	-30.7
Be	65.5	27.8		n/a	
Been	26.2	6.6	-3,376.1	6.6	-336.4
Had	41.5	25.6	-1,148.8	13.9	-343.0
Said	19.7	5.9	-2,134.4	5.7	-204.7
Says	4.0	0.8		n/a	
Told	3.6	1.2		n/a	

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The analysis performed in this study is of great use to English language instructors in Korean and Japanese environments. The results show significant differences between the Korean learners' language use and the native corpus (BNC). There were some differences between Korean and Japanese learners' language use as well, but there were also intriguing similarities. The similarities could be addressed in both environments, which would foster the creation of targeted materials and activities appropriate for either environment, while the differences offer additional teaching foci for more highly targeted materials, perhaps as

appendices to EFL texts targeted at East Asian markets.

Corpus-based analyses have been shown to provide remarkable insight into register-specific variation within English (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). Furthermore, the recognition of different functional and lexical patterns within a particular register has been suggested as a valuable skill for English language learners (Biber & Conrad, 2001). The ease of computer-assisted analysis and the continued rise in use of online writing environments makes this study particularly salient for EFL practitioners who are focused on written registers. Giving learners information on how their writing compares with native norms provides an important perspective for the development of their writing ability. In addition, this perspective is likely to be significantly different from standard methods of feedback, which tend to focus on grammatical and lexical inaccuracies (Richard-Amato, 2010). There is much to be gained by allowing learners to understand whatever artifact they are engaged with from multiple dimensions (Vygotsky, 1978). Furthermore, instructor-guided perspectives have been shown to further increase the levels of learning, critical thinking, student satisfaction, and sense of online community (Anderson, Rourke, Garrison, & Archer, 2001; Shea, Chun, & Pickett, 2006).

Classroom and Syllabus Application

In practice, teachers often gather materials and ideas from a wide variety of sources, which can be effective. However more weight should be given to materials developed in similar language learning contexts; in this case Japanese and Korean contexts. Additionally, we would suggest that textbook writers be made aware of language-specific interference and that textbooks be constructed for a regional rather than global market. By doing this, textbook designers could focus on issues specific to local markets rather than trying to apply a one-size-fits-all approach to language learning.

Findings from this study could be incorporated into both classroom practices and syllabus design. One useful application of this research would be to make the learners aware of the differences in their production and native speaker norms. Delivering this information regarding the differences between native speaker norms and their usage to learners could be done in a multitude of ways, either formally or informally, online, offline, or in a blended environment. What would

lead to the greatest amount of student engagement and uptake would be the greatest consideration for instructors in how to deliver the content to learners. Furthermore, it is unlikely that learners will bridge the gap between their usage and native speaker norms without any knowledge or instruction (Zhang, Sheng, & Li, 2014).

One way to make learners aware of the gap between their usage and native norms would be to show the learners the results. This would have to be done in a nuanced and systematic way. It would depend on the learner level, and any information of this type would have to be calibrated so as not to cause too much cognitive load. Activities, like pulling concordance lines from the BNC and comparing them to particular cases where learners are struggling, could lead to learners truly engaging with the differences between their use and fluent users. Studies have shown the use of this kind of approach "to be an amazingly powerful way of bringing out intertextual echoes between different texts" (Seidlhofer, 2002, p. 227). Allowing learners to engage meaningfully with discrete packets of text that demonstrate a more subtle understanding of language use will lead to a more developed discourse for those learners.

Another way to draw attention to the over- and underuse of items would be to have learners analyze their own writing and highlight the occasions when they have, for example, used a pronoun. They could then be given model blog entries written by NSs and have the exercise repeated. They could then be asked to tally up the uses in the two texts and look at alternatives to using pronouns presented in the NS blogs. A comparative over-reliance on simple adjectives demonstrated by both sets of learners could be countered by phasing in a wider variety of these items to the curriculum. Learners could also be introduced to and encouraged to use a thesaurus when writing. As these types of texts are asynchronous, there is time for learners to stop and reflect on their language use.

The disparity in the overuse of ordinals and signals between Korean and Japanese learners was attributed to the Japanese instructors setting of topics. We suggest that, if the goal of an activity within a syllabus is to produce more natural-sounding general English rather than academic English, allowing students to select their own topics is of benefit. In doing so, students are alerted to the fact that they are encouraged to write in a less formal manner. The underuse of articles, prepositions, modals, and verbs reporting speech is a problem familiar to

anyone who has taught in either the Japanese or Korean context. The absence of articles and the different syntactic use of articles in both language means that there is a great deal of interference from learners L1. One possible solution to this may be to encourage learners to use the spell checker in Microsoft Word or a similar program. This would admittedly hinder the development of fluency, but as mentioned above, blogs are asynchronous in nature and allow learners to reflect before posting.

Conclusions and Limitations

To further develop the usefulness of corpora and corpora analysis in the field of second language acquisition, researchers will find it useful to build multiple corpora that will allow analysis appropriate to the learning situation or research problems that require solving. This, at the same time, shows the usefulness and the limitations of this paper. This paper adds to the research agenda by empirically analyzing the language usage of non-native English speakers when compared to a native corpus (BNC). However, the usage of the BNC is a limiting feature of this research. The BNC is a corpus of general English not specific to online writing. This limits how much one can generalize the result. At the same time, this shows the need for further development of corpora that can be used to analyze the many varieties of discourse that are created by second language learners. Regardless, this research gives useful insight into the similarities and differences between Korean and Japanese learners writing in an asynchronous learning environment.

This research also gives researchers and practitioners a deeper understanding of the differences between non-native writing and native norms. It has shown the value of practitioners building and analyzing their own local learner corpus to inform decisions about how best to assist their learners to achieve their goals of greater fluency and natural use of English. Specifically, practitioners can achieve this by selecting materials produced in similar language learning contexts, raising awareness of differences in use and developing activities focused on areas of weakness. This is particularly useful in an EFL context as learners and instructors do not always have access to appropriate authentic materials for learners to use for increasing their control of the target language.

THE AUTHORS

Chris Hughes is a visiting professor in the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences at Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology. His research interests are centered on corpus linguistics, specifically the development of learner corpora. Email: chris.jl.hughes@hotmail.com

Jamie Costley is a visiting professor in the English Education Department at Kongju National University. His research interests include asynchronous learning networks and collaborative learning. He has recently completed his PhD in Education Technology. Email: costleyjamie@gmail.com

Carter Peyton is a visiting professor in the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences at Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology. His research interests include corpus linguistics and English as a lingua franca. Email: cdpeyton@kaist.ac.kr

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"It Should Never Happen Again": Writing Critical Reflections About Sewol

Lauren Harvey

Busan University of Foreign Studies, Busan, Korea

This article summarizes classroom-based research in a university-level EFL writing classroom examining Korean university students' ability to critically reflect on social issues in their writing based on data from a final examination assignment to write a cause-and-effect paragraph about the Sewol ferry tragedy. The content analysis showed that students were consistently able to identify three main causes and effects of the disaster, as well as to make critical reflections about their society as a result of the tragedy. The findings indicate that Korean university students are interested in, and capable of, writing about social issues such as the Sewol disaster.

INTRODUCTION

This article summarizes classroom-centered research in a university-level EFL writing classroom focusing on examining Korean university students' ability to critically reflect on social issues in their writing. The research centers on a final examination assignment to write a cause-and-effect paragraph about the Sewol ferry tragedy (the April 14, 2014, Korean ferry disaster in which 304 passengers, mostly students, died). This study seeks to gauge Korean university students' level of interest in, and ability to, write reflectively about social issues, specifically the Sewol disaster.

As Brown (2007) notes, critical pedagogy, which situates learning in relevant social contexts, has become an area of interest in EFL instruction, and it would be "remiss of any language teacher to skirt around issues of power and politics and religion in the classroom, simply

because they evoke strong emotions" (p. 513). Shin and Crookes (2005) and Shin (2004) have encouraged EFL teachers in Korea to explore the possibility of a more critical pedagogical approach to instruction. Using social issues in writing assignments to raise students' critical consciousness is one way to enact this approach.

METHODS

Data Collection and Analysis

This study focuses on a content analysis of student writing on the final examination in an English composition course at the end of the spring 2014 semester. The data sample is based on the in-class writing of a cause-and-effect paragraph about a social issue, using the writing process. Students chose from three possible topics, and about 25% of the students chose to write about the Sewol ferry disaster. The focus of this study is to analyze the nine writing samples related to the Sewol ferry disaster, as this data provides insight into Korean university students' ability to write about a socially relevant issue. The analysis specifically focused on answering these two questions: (a) What did students identify as the main causes of the Sewol disaster? (b) What recommendations did students make for social change as a result of the disaster?

To analyze the data, the author first read each writing sample and evaluated the overall writing organization, grammar, and content related to the final exam assignment grading. Then a more in-depth content analysis was done (see Creswell, 2003) to identify and to highlight commonalities among, and distinctions between, the students' perspectives on the important causes of the disaster as well as the social actions that students thought should be taken to avoid this type of tragedy in the future.

Participants

The participants were members of two sections of a second-year English composition course. The course content focused on writing process to develop skills in paragraph and essay writing. The sample included three female and six male students, of which four were

second-year students, one was a third-year student, and four were fourth-year students. The grades received on these nine final-exam writing samples ranged from 80% (B-) to 100% (A). This sample showed diversity in students' gender, age, and English writing proficiency.

RESULTS

The results of the content analysis of the students' writing showed that the students were consistently able to identify three main causes and effects of the disaster, as well as to make critical reflections about changes that they thought should be made in their society. Based on the content analysis, the three main causes of the disaster that were identified by the students were:

- improper modifications to the ship's structure,
- overloading of passengers and cargo,
- irresponsible behavior by the captain and crew (i.e., inexperienced steering, lack of evacuation protocol, and fleeing by captain and crew).

The main, or most important, reason cited for the disaster was the irresponsibility of the captain and crew. This irresponsibility includes inexperienced staff steering the ship, a lack of evacuation protocols, and the fleeing of the captain and crew. Several students noted this as the main cause of the tragedy. Student 4 wrote: "They abandoned the ship with passengers still aboard, so it expanded the scale of the causalities." Student 5 shared the idea that the captain and crew were at fault. He wrote that the crew did not evacuate passengers but only told them, "Sit down, don't move until I tell you." This student showed his frustration with the captain by writing "I want to ask the captain, 'If you were their parents, how are you doing?'" This calls into question how the captain, as a parent and responsible adult, could have left behind the mostly teenaged passengers and not considered the consequences.

In stating the causes of the tragedy, the students also clearly articulated their opinions on how the disaster could have been prevented. Student 3 wrote: "...the disastrous accident would never have happened if the captain and other crew members, including the company that owns

the ship, had taken careful precautions." Another student expressed his wish that similar types of disasters would be avoided in the future by writing: "in the future, I wish that terror is not in Korea."

Other students suggested actions that should be taken in the wake of the disaster. Student 1 wrote: "At both citizens and national authorities' level, we should figure out this problem and modify all the wrong situations around it. It should never happen again." Student 7 called for greater accountability for those in positions of authority and wrote: "Some peoples' irresponsibility made the accident. I hope people try to do their best in the position they hold." Student 8 focused on actions that should be taken to support the families of the victims. He stated, "...the need of bereaved families must be paramount, and the government must compensate the families!" Another result of the tragedy, the loss of peoples' confidence in the government, was also raised by Student 9, who wrote: "There are a lot of casualties. Korea has a lot of sadness about that. People are angry and the government loses confidence." These statements demonstrate the ability of Korean university-level ESL students to critically reflect on an important social issue and call for social change.

This content analysis clearly shows that university-level EFL students have the ability to critically reflect on social issues in their writing. As the most significant maritime tragedy in Korea's recent history, students had a strong reaction to the topic. The findings indicate that Korean university students are interested in, and capable of, writing about social issues such as the Sewol disaster.

DISCUSSION

The topic of critical pedagogy in EFL instruction in Korea has been explored and has been shown as a viable approach to support Korean students' English language development (Shin, 2004; Shin & Crookes, 2005). The post-Sewol context of English language teaching (ELT) in Korea has not been sufficiently studied. In this era of Sewol and other related social issues, Korean university-level students need to develop their skills in English in order to express their socio-cultural views.

Despite the small sample size, the results indicate that Korean university students are interested in, and capable of, critical writing reflection about social issues. Korean students can take a critical stance

on their government and culture, not only to identify the causes of the disaster, but also to recommend social action. Using writing to make critical reflections about social issues is an important way for teachers to ensure social relevance and for EFL learners to develop their critical consciousness (Kumaradivelu, 2003). This offers teachers the opportunity to engage students beyond the textbook content related only to writing process and organization, and give students a chance to raise their critical consciousness in such a way that promotes language use for critical socio-cultural purposes.

Future studies are planned with larger numbers of students using other writing genres. Further studies are needed on critical pedagogy in Korea, specifically in relation to the use of social issues in writing instruction.

THE AUTHOR

Lauren Harvey, MS Ed, is an Assistant Professor of English at Busan University of Foreign Studies (BUFS) in Busan, Korea, where she also teaches in the In-service Teacher Training Program and the Graduate TESOL Certificate Program. She has been involved in ESL/EFL teacher training in the United States and Korea for over ten years. Her interests include teacher education, critical pedagogy, and socio-cultural approaches. Email: laureneharvey@yahoo.com

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Jonny's Obesity Problem: A Critical Case Study on Bullying, Root Causes, and Grim Outcomes

Jeffrey Horn
Soonchunhyang University, Asan, Korea

This study examines how an individual bullying narrative of a South Korean upper-elementary school student, in the context of an EFL classroom, is affected by the culture specific framework of *wang-tta* (severe exclusion, or someone who is targeted for exclusion and isolation by peer groups) as interpreted within Valencia's (1997) deformity discourse framework (a discourse that views "abnormal" physical characteristics as deformities that are acceptable cause for group exclusion and ridicule, and are considered the individual's fault and responsibility to change). This study perceives a gap in the English language teaching literature that needs to identify approaches to protect victimized students during communicative activities within EFL classrooms. By employing an ethnographic approach to the investigation and critical analysis of three bullying-like incidents, the results of this study seek to provide foreign EFL teachers and teacher researchers in Korea with a framework for the production and analysis of individual bullying narratives, and a theoretical foundation, nested in an intercultural approach, for collaboration with Korean teachers for creating culturally appropriate, contextualized intervention procedures and classroom activities that are safe for victimized students in EFL classrooms. This study indicates that future research is needed to provide specific and practical procedures and example activities on how to integrate victimized students into group activities in a manner that is culturally appropriate and safe.

INTRODUCTION

This study began with general ethnographic observations of the author's sixth-grade South Korean EFL students at Gwangmyeong Elementary School and similar observations of eight fifth-grade students assigned to clean the third-floor English classroom after lunch under the direction of the foreign EFL teacher. Through the recording of these observations, the author hoped to identify emerging interactional patterns for this study. Near the end of the author's field notes, the author described an incident in which a sixth-grade boy, who was part of an after-school homeroom cleaning crew that was not the author's responsibility, gets struck in the face with a broom by another boy who has a history of bullying the boy who was struck. This incident occurred in the boys' bathroom, a known blind spot where authority figures are rarely present. In order to protect this boy's identity, he will be referred to as "Jonny" throughout this study. Jonny is obese in a society and in a school that is comprised mostly of lean people. Other than Jonny's weight problem, he "fits in" with his classmates; however, his weight sets him apart in a way that seems to be unacceptable to his peers, who exclude, bully, and make fun of him both directly and indirectly. Over the course of the three weeks following this incident, the author became more aware of Jonny's bullying narrative as he recorded two additional incidences that occurred within Jonny's sixth-grade EFL classroom. These three incidences, which are presented below as Situations 1, 2, and 3, represent the core around which this study is based.

It is not the author's intention to make generalizations about Korean society or culture at large, but to use these instances to call attention to the wider pedagogical issue of bullying-like behavior that is relevant to schools and classrooms around the world. That said, this study recognizes, identifies, and defines the cultural specific nature of bullying-like behavior in Korea, and employs it as a framework through which Jonny's bullying narrative can be understood. This phenomenon, popularly referred to as *wang-tta*, entails excluding and isolating students from the group for various reasons. This study defines the discourse employed to victimize individuals, based on the possession of non-mainstream physical attributes, as the deformity discourse, which derives from the *wang-tta* framework. Deformity discourse can be defined as situations in which natural and/or uncontrollable physical characteristics are perceived to be deformities and used as acceptable

determinants for group exclusion and/or other bullying-like behavior, which in turn, is considered the victim's fault and responsibility to change for group acceptance. This term, which the author coined, derives from the deficit thinking construct, in which students are systematically labeled as learning disabled or cognitively deficient, which in turn, is viewed as a problem within the individual despite the cultural and institutional disadvantages imposed by the dominate culture on non-mainstream students, leading to victim-blaming and to the perpetuation of the status quo (Valencia, 1997).

This case study attempts to explain, based on focused conversations with the author's Korean co-teachers and the author's observations of Jonny's interactions with his peers, why Jonny has been singled out and tormented in order to better understand the experiences of students like Jonny in Korean schools, considering larger trends in the greater community. In doing so, this study seeks to expand on the growing literature documenting the nature of bullying-like behavior into Korean upper-elementary school EFL classrooms. Specifically, it seeks to provide an initial framework for future investigations by teacher researchers (EFL or otherwise) into the individual bullying narratives of known victims in order to create interpersonal data sets from which to derive more effective intervention methods within Korean EFL classrooms and throughout Korean schools.

LITERATURE REVIEW

School Bullying as an International Issue

The problem of school bullying is an international issue that is affecting students' mental and physical health, and negatively impacting affected students' educational outcomes (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008). From an international perspective, there are common threads of abuse that weave similar narratives of physical and verbal violence in schools across the globe; however, within each country's specific sociocultural context, unique variations to this narrative of violence emerge (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008). The rates of bullying vary across countries as well: 13% of US students from grades 6 to 10 admitted to bullying other students, while 11% reported being targeted for bullying; 14% to

19% of English students reported bullying other students; 21% of German students reported engagement in bullying; and an international survey conducted across Europe and Northern America discovered that 9% of 11-year-olds engaged in bullying other students at least twice within the previous two months (Elgar et al., 2009). Korea is no different: In a study involving 2,926 students between the ages of 11 and 16, 5.8% reported being excluded from peer groups, and 10.2% reported excluding peers from social groups, while upwards of 40% of a sample of 1,756 middle school students reported participating in exclusionary practices (Hong et al., 2013). One common narrative pattern across sociocultural contexts is the detrimental effect of different forms of bullying on victimized students. These risk factors include a heightened risk of suicide, a heightened risk of depression with a correlation to suicide, and increased risks of anxiety, low self-esteem, and loneliness, which also correlates to a heightened risk of suicide (Hong et al., 2014). These findings hold true in Korea as Hong et al. (2013) reported, based on a survey of existing literature; that is, that Korean students involved in bullying are at a "heightened risk of behavioral, emotional, and social problems," and also display "significantly more suicidal/self-injurious behavior" (Hong et al., 2013 p. 433).

Wang-tta: Bullying-Like Behavior in South Korea

As mentioned above, despite similarities, there are cultural differences found in bullying narratives that are particular to any given country. The term "bullying" is an English language term that is frequently used in western literature. Olweus (1994) defines bullying as follows: "A person is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other persons" (p. 98). In order for this definition to be applied, there must be an imbalance in physical or psychological strength, leading to the victim being unable to defend herself or himself (Olweus, 1994). Olweus further posits that there is direct bullying, which includes the use of physical contact or abusive words, and indirect bullying, which includes "forms of social isolation and exclusion from a group" (p. 98). Definitions employed by western educators often contain three aspects used to identify bullying: (a) a power imbalance exists between bully and victim, (b) there is intent to inflict harm on the victim, and (c) the actions are ongoing (Costley et al., 2013).

Korean, however, does not have a directly translatable term for bullying; instead, Koreans employ terminology that correlates with their culture. There are several terms that indicate different types of bullying-like behavior in Korean: *jipdan-ttadolim*, which indicates "collective isolation"; *jipdan-goerophim*, which indicates "collective harassment"; and *hakkyo-pokryeok*, which indicates "school violence" (Lee et al., 2012). As of the 1990s, students began to use the term *wang-tta*, which is slang terminology that indicates either bullying-like behavior or the person being bullied (Lee et al., 2012). *Wang* acts as a prefix or a noun meaning "big" or "king," while *tta* is an abbreviation of *ttadolim*, meaning "isolation," or *ttadolida*, meaning "to isolate" (Lee et al., 2012). *Wang-tta* can be defined as severe exclusion, or someone who is targeted for exclusion and isolation by peer groups (Lee et al., 2012; Yoo, 2014).

Victims may be selected for exclusion for a number of reasons that include characteristics that lead to being regarded as "abnormal" (Lee et al., 2012, p. 3) or "different" (Yoo, 2014, p. 1186) from the group: Students with anxiety, depression, attention deficit hyperactive disorder, and tic disorders can be victimized; students with language disorders and autism can become targets; and students exhibiting problems such as cerebral palsy, epilepsy, asthma, eczema, diabetes, underweight/ overweight, and obesity can also be targets for victimization (Lee et al., 2012; Yoo, 2014). These conditions can produce symptoms in the form of unacceptable social behavior that create additional factors that result in exclusion, which perpetuates and intensifies the mental health problems caused by these medical conditions by adding the additional strain of health risks caused by *wang-tta* and other bullying-like behavior (Yoo, 2014). Students can be excluded by groups as large as an entire class, or even the entire school, with many of the students participating passively in order to maintain their inclusion in the group (Yoo, 2014).

Wang-tta is a term derived from specific sociocultural conditions within Korea to describe the manifestation of a unique form of victimization that emerges and exists within the cultural constraints of its society. In Western countries, bullying often indicates a power imbalance, whether physical or psychological, between two individuals, or within small groups, where the emphasis is on the individual nature of peer aggression, within a sociocultural environment that emphasizes the importance of the individual (Lee, 2011). Likewise, *wang-tta* has been shown to reflect the sociocultural characteristics emphasized in Korea, such as "strong group conformity, collectivism, bonding, and

integrity" (Yoo, 2014, p. 1186).

In a 1999 study conducted by No, Kim, Lee, and Kim (as cited in Lee, 2011), Korean upper-elementary school students were found to be highly concerned with joining a group for lunch because students without a group are labeled *wang-tta*, indicating an early recognition of the significance of group acceptance that is distinct from the desire of children in western contexts to have groups of friends within school. As seen above, there are multiple and various personal characteristics and behaviors that lead to students being labeled as "abnormal" or "different" and ultimately excluded. For this reason, "individuals in collectivistic societies may be more likely than in those individualistic societies to follow prevailing group norms" (Lee, 2011, p. 287) for fear that lack of conformity might lead to exclusion by the group (Lee, 2011). In general, physical aggression toward individual students is not considered *wang-tta* and is generally considered more wrong than exclusion (Lee, 2011). In fact, students who pursue physical aggression towards individual students, without agreement from the group majority, risk exclusion from the group; therefore, students who wish to use physical aggression on an individual student will target previously excluded students, students without friends, or students with abnormal or different characteristics; thus, leading to a heightened necessity to adhere to group norms and be part of a group in order to be protected from abuse (Lee, 2011).

Although blaming the victim can be considered a universal characteristic of bullying narratives across cultures, blaming the victim in collectivist cultures such as Korea, where "in-group norms are emphasized," requires more attention (Lee, 2011). The practice of exclusion is prevalent enough in Korean society that students have been found to consider peer exclusion as less wrong than other types of peer aggression because persons labeled *wang-tta* are thought to be "faulty" (Lee, 2011, p. 280) or to have something "wrong and lacking" (p. 282) in them, leading children to internalize and identify with these projections, and to cope by feeling that it is the excluded person's responsibility to "change oneself" (p. 282). As children develop cognitively and are socialized into the cultural norms of their society, they internalize the prevailing sociocultural perspectives and moral judgment standards (Piaget, 1932), which can potentially lead to future reproduction of harmful behavior, such as *wang-tta*. This can be seen in the fact that *wang-tta* is prevalent among Korean students' parents and in the workplace (Lee, 2011; Yoo, 2014). This indicates that students

reflect and imitate the social patterns, attitudes, and practices that are prevalent in the larger society.

As Kosciw et al. (2009) points out, "schools exist within the context of a larger community, and the overall climate of a school is therefore influenced by and potentially reflects the attitudes, beliefs, and overall climate of this larger community" (p. 984). This becomes particularly dangerous when prevailing social patterns indicate that victimized individuals seek relief in suicidal and self-injurious behavior. According to the *OECD Factbook 2011-2012: Economic, Environmental and Social Statistics*, South Korea's suicide rates have risen while other OECD countries' suicide rates have decreased, making South Korea one of, if not the, world's leader in suicides. According to *Time* magazine, "the leading cause of death among 10-to-19-year-olds in South Korea" is suicide (Yoo, 2013, para. 4). In March 2013, a fifteen-year-old high school student named Choi jumped from his apartment building after being bullied for two years (Yoo, 2013). In his suicide note, Choi wrote: "You'll never be able to spot school violence the way it is now. There are blind spots in classrooms and restrooms where no closed-circuit cameras are installed. That is where most school violence happens" (Woo, 2013, para. 4). In fact, Choi was the second youth suicide that month (Yoo, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

Wang-tta and the Deformity Discourse

This study focuses on the practice of excluding and blaming individuals for the possession of non-mainstream physical appearances, a harmful practice that has become viewed as less serious than other forms of bullying-like behavior due to its pervasiveness throughout Korean society. This perspective, let's call it the "deformity view," a term created by the author and derived from the deficit thinking construct described above (Valencia, 1997), instills in individuals the sense that people who are born with "deformities" that do not align with mainstream notions of acceptable physical appearance are socially acceptable targets for group exclusion, isolation, and collective verbal and physical abuse, until they take responsibility for their

non-mainstream appearance. More precisely, it maintains that it is acceptable to exclude, isolate, and bully individuals who do not meet mainstream standards of appearance. Due to the pervasive nature of the deformity discourse in Korean society, it becomes internalized and imitated by young, developing minds, leading to the reproduction of this deformity discourse by youth of all ages in the form of collective exclusion, ridicule, and other forms of bullying-like behavior of those born without acceptable mainstream appearances.

The core of this study presents a critical case study of a sixth-grade boy named Jonny, who has been targeted and excluded for his obesity, and who becomes the target of physical aggression by his male peers. Jonny's bullying narrative is presented as a critical case study that is interpreted through the lens of the *wang-tta* and deformity discourse framework presented above. This study seeks to provide foreign EFL teachers and teacher researchers in South Korea with a framework for the production and analysis of individual bullying narratives, and a theoretical foundation, nested in an intercultural approach, for collaboration with Korean teachers to create culturally appropriate, contextualized intervention procedures and classroom activities that are safe for victimized students in the EFL classroom. Finally, this study indicates that future research is needed to provide specific and practical procedures and example activities on how to integrate victimized students into group activities in a manner that is culturally appropriate and safe.

Ethnographic Approach: Participant Observer and Data Interpretation Reasoning

This study employs an ethnographic approach to the systematic observation, description, and analysis of bullying-like behavior in the target community from March 5 to April 22, 2013, by a participant observer in the role of an EFL teacher in a Korean elementary school. At the time of the study, the participant observer held this position for approximately one year and three months and was, therefore, familiar with the students under observation and the Korean English teachers interviewed on an individual level. At the time of the study, the participant observer was a graduate student in Applied Linguistics, collecting data for this study. Cumulatively, at the time of the study, the

participant observer, who is an American citizen, had four years and three months experience in Korea as an elementary school EFL teacher: three years in the private English academy sector, and one year and three months in the public school sector. This ethnographic study takes the position that "by looking systematically at behaviour in context, the researcher can eventually work back to an account of the deeper 'rules' that govern the behaviour" (Corbett, 2003, p. 96). That said, this study recognizes that its results cannot be duplicated due to the unique contextual and interpersonal characteristics of this study. And, for that same reason, the results are presented in a narrative-like format in order to highlight and give life to the dynamic nature of the incidences observed and analyzed.

The School: Sociocultural and Socioeconomic Context

Through a series of focused conversations with his Korean co-teachers, the author gathered the following general information about Gwangmyeong Elementary School, its students, its teachers, and the sociocultural and socioeconomic context of the school and its students.

Gwangmyeong Elementary School is located in Gwangmyeong City, in an area that has received a flood of people and families displaced by Seoul's ongoing gentrification. The author's co-workers refer to the neighborhoods surrounding the school, in which the students live, as "old Korea," meaning housing constructed before major modernization took place. Indeed, some students' parents work in the traditional market, which runs parallel to the school's outer wall; some parents work in fruit stands on the side of the road, which the author walks past on his way to and from work; others work as laborers and, as one of the author's co-workers explained, one girl's mom works as a "hostess." There are some white-collar families; however, for the most part, students at Gwangmyeong Elementary School are economically disadvantaged. According to the head English teacher, in 2011, Gwangmyeong Elementary School earned the lowest standardized test scores in the city, and in 2012, during the author's first few weeks there, the school was officially labeled "violent" by the Korean government. The term "violent" is used for schools where students are at risk of encountering serious bullying-like behavior. One co-worker described the situation at the school as one where students do not have funds to attend after-school academies, so they hangout on school grounds or in the streets

unsupervised, where bullying-like behavior can become more intense. This does not mean that by attending after-school academies students would avoid bullying-like behavior; however, in the case of Gwangmyeong Elementary School, this situation has led to an increase of incidents. Due to this climate, many teachers want to be transferred to different schools. In terms of physical appearance, the student and teacher body reflect the wider community in that, except for a handful of overweight students, the population is of average weight. Jonny, however, is the lone exception for his grade in that he is the only sixth-grade boy in the school who is obese.

The Boy: Characteristics and Context

Jonny is a thirteen-year-old sixth-grade student at Gwangmyeong Elementary School. Jonny was chosen for observation in this study for the reason that the interactional patterns between Jonny and his peers, as developed in the participant observer's ethnographic observations, displayed a pattern of bullying-like behavior that was disconcerting. A possible source of this bullying-like behavior seems to be that Jonny is obese, providing his peers with a physical characteristic to be viewed as "abnormal" or "different"; thus, making life exceedingly difficult for Jonny in the open view of his teachers and his fellow students in the EFL classroom, in the hallway outside of the EFL classroom, and in blind spots throughout the school. Despite Jonny's obesity, he has many things in common with his classmates: They are all Korean; they all live in the same neighborhood; for the most part, they all wear off-brand clothing; they all have similar levels of hygiene; the majority of them are poor at English and do not attend after-school English academies; they all have similar physical appearances (aside from Jonny's weight) and physical capabilities; and all appear to have relatively equal social skills. As indicated in the literature review, there are multiple and various factors that can contribute to a student's exclusion and targeting for bullying-like behavior; unfortunately, Jonny possess a physical characteristic that has been documented as a cause for group exclusion and bullying-like behavior.

Data Collection Techniques: Ethnographic Observation and Focused Conversation

Data collection was conducted via ethnographic observation in combination with focused conversations determined by, and designed to gain insight into, emerging interactional patterns between students in the English language classroom, in the hallway outside of the English language classroom, and in the boys' third-floor restroom, which the author considers to be one of the school's blind spots. Important ethnographic observations were recorded in shorthand, bullet-point form during class, and then immediately integrated into an inclusive narrative format that initially encompassed a wide range of student interaction; however, as time progressed, and patterns emerged, narratives increasingly focused on incidences of importance, until Jonny's case was determined to be the most significant. Finally, three representative instances were selected for interpretation and analysis to be presented in this study.

Simultaneously, focused conversations were prepared and implemented according to emerging themes in the ethnographic narratives. Multiple focused conversations were conducted, often directly after a class or series of classes, over the course of this study with Jonny's Korean English teacher, who was present for all incidences presented below; thus, she was uniquely able to provide cultural-insider insight and perspective into said incidences. Further focused conversations were conducted throughout the study with all three of the author's Korean co-teachers, during their lunch hour, in order to gain general knowledge about the school, the student population, and to situate that knowledge within a sociocultural and socioeconomic context. All focused conversation data was recorded immediately after, or within a few hours after each interview. Notes were not taken during the focused conversations in order to reduce affective pressure on the non-native English-speaking interviewees and to allow for a more naturalistic atmosphere in order to elicit as much information as possible.

Data Analysis Framework: *Wang-tta* and Deformity Discourse

The data that was analyzed for this paper was recorded in a journal in narrative and bullet-point format throughout the course of this study.

Due to the nature of how this data was recorded, how the pattern emerged, and the nature and culminating progression of the incidents recorded, the results of this study are presented in narrative format. The narrative format is presented as Situation 1, Situation 2, and Situation 3. This structure is based on the *wang-tta* research presented above, indicating that students who are targeted for exclusion due to "abnormal" or "different" physical characteristics may experience (a) whole class exclusion by actively participating students in combination with passive participants, (b) exclusion by a smaller group of peers with a heightened risk of additional bullying-like behavior, and (c) becoming an acceptable target for physical aggression, whose abusers are granted impunity by the majority and, therefore, do not risk exclusion for this behavior. Each situation is, in turn, analyzed through additional filters: (a) Is the bullying-like behavior manifested implicitly or explicitly? (b) Based on the incident observed, can it be determined that the victim suffered abuse based on "abnormal" or "different" physical characteristics? (c) Does the incident align with definitions and descriptions of *wang-tta* and other bullying-like behavior? (d) Can the incident be reasonably interpretable through, and described by, the deformity discourse?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

Jonny does not live in a vacuum; he comes from and is part of the same community as his bullies, and he is at least implicitly aware of the collective desire to adhere to standards of normality and the hypersensitivity toward weight and appearance as criteria for that collective standard, and that possession of an "abnormal" or "different" physical characteristic is considered his fault and, therefore, his responsibility to change. That is to say, he is at least implicitly aware of the deformity discourse. In addition, it is also important to bear in mind that students at Gwangmyeong Elementary School are aware of the greater communities' disapproval of obesity and being overweight as a group characteristic, and they know that it is considered grounds for exclusion.

For example, Jonny's Korean English teacher described Jonny's bullies as being "extremely creative with their insults." When asked to describe one of these insults, she replied that the insults consist of

"funny fat jokes," but declined to reproduce the jokes because she considered the insults to be "too mean." However, she continued to explain that when Jonny is bullied, he does not fight back. He simply absorbs the insults, while becoming increasingly silent and, when the situation becomes overbearing, he cries. This seems to perpetuate the situation because, by not taking a stand, he encourages his tormentors to increase the severity of their insults until they get a reaction out of him. When Jonny cries they tend to back off; however, Jonny does not cry as a defense mechanism because, potentially, the act of crying could be further cause for bullying-like behavior. Instead, Jonny tries his best to brush the insults aside and participate in the group; however, when he does this, Jonny seems to get his hopes up that he will be accepted by the group, so that when he is rebuffed, the effect is intensified.

It may be that Jonny's natural disposition is to be passive in confrontational situations, and indeed, Jonny is an extremely nice kid, who doesn't seem to have an insult for anyone. However, the author would like to pose a few questions: Is it possible that Jonny feels that he is in the wrong for being obese when everyone else isn't? Is it possible that Jonny could join the group and abuse himself? Is there an element of self-loathing involved in this situation? The author certainly hopes not, but he is in no position to know whether this is a contributing factor or not, as he is incapable of entering Jonny's mind. The author would like readers to reconsider these questions in the conclusion of this paper, bearing in mind the health risks indicated in the literature review.

Given that bullying narratives are persistent, on-going, and unfold over an extended period of time, the three situations presented below, which seemed to occur over a relatively short period of time (from the author's perspective) at the end of the data collection process, represent three snapshots of bullying-like behavior imposed on Jonny by his peers at intervals of about one per week for three weeks. It is important to keep in mind, however, that according to Jonny's Korean English teacher, who instructs his class three times a week, Jonny experiences situations like those presented below, to a greater or lesser degree, daily. Indeed, the author was aware of this for a long time; however, because of his own socialization within various public educational institutions, he has become relatively desensitized to the fact that people who are overweight have a hard time socially, and that he cannot do much to stop the situation unless explicit bulling-like behavior is observed. The author has intervened on Jonny's behalf multiple times to diffuse explicit

instances of bullying-like behavior, but it wasn't until he responded to and observed Situation 1 that he realized, for the most part, that he has been a passive participant in Jonny's victimization because he has taken relatively few steps, within his limited capacity as a foreign EFL teacher with weak Korean language skills, to create a safe learning environment for all students, including those dominated and excluded by the deformity discourse.

Due to the narrative format in which the data was collected and is presented, the main narrative section of each situation consists largely of the initial data collection journal entries with some rewording and expansion. In addition, because it is necessary to interpret each narrative as it unfolds, the discussion of the results is included within each narrative. Finally, the situations will not be presented in order of occurrence for the reason that the second incident provides the best transition into a discussion concerning this study's implications for EFL teachers.

Situation 1: Blind Spot

After school on a Wednesday in April 2013, the author heard crying in the hallway, and when he went to check it out, he discovered Jonny in the bathroom standing over the sink with blood pouring from his nose. There was a lot of blood all over the white sink. One boy stood in the hallway with a plastic broom and a dust pan, while another boy stood in the bathroom patting Jonny on the back. These three boys are part of a student cleaning crew assigned to clean their homeroom and the hallway outside of their homeroom after school. All students have similar assignments.

After the blood was cleaned up and Jonny had gone to the nurse and the boy with the broom was punished by the author's Korean co-workers (the culprit sat alone in a classroom, after an extensive lecture, and wrote English sentences from a textbook for thirty minutes, crying off and on), the author was able to get the whole story from his co-workers. The boy with the broom, let's call him "Ron," accused Jonny of stealing his baseball cap, which he didn't do, and when Jonny denied stealing the cap, Ron hit him in the face with the broom, causing the bloody nose. According to the author's co-workers, there was only a single accusation and a single denial before the violence occurred. This means that there was little, if any, build up to the violence. This wasn't surprising

considering that Ron is one of Jonny's main bullies. A couple weeks later, this same boy, Ron, gut-punched Jonny, during an information gap exercise, as described in Situation 3.

This is when the author began to understand that the violence in his school, and probably the most severe bullying-like behavior, occurs in the blind spots. Blind spots are spaces where students interact out of sight from teachers and administrators. These include not only physical spaces, but spaces in cyberspace, such as on Kakao-talk (Yoo, 2014). Some of Gwangmyeong Elementary School's biggest blind spots are the multiple boys' bathrooms because the majority of teachers at this school are women and, therefore, rarely do authority figures appear in these spaces. In addition, due to the nature of staffing and the delegation of work, overburdened teachers and administrators do not have time to patrol the hallways between classes much less monitor the bathrooms. And this is where Jonny was struck in the face: in the boys' bathroom.

Situation 1: Discussion

In general, Gwangmyeong Elementary School boys and girls are a physical bunch. It is completely acceptable and normal for groups of boys to wrestle in the hallway, and punch and kick each other in jest. However, it is quite rare that actual fights break out, and when they do, there is generally a processes of verbal escalation before things become physical. In Jonny's case, he was struck without verbal escalation or warning. In this case, Jonny may not have been explicitly struck for his "abnormal" or "different" physical characteristics; however, once this situation is contextualized in the narrative of Jonny's exclusion and abuse, it becomes clear that Jonny is a target for violent bullying-like behavior, deemed acceptable by the majority of his peers due to his weight. Within the framework of *wang-tta*, as presented in the literature review, students who are recognized as worthy of exclusion, or who are already excluded, for a number of reasons, including obesity, become vulnerable targets for bullies who seek to do personal harm to others, and who are then granted near impunity from their peers because it is the victims fault for not meeting group standards, and it is the victim's responsibility to change in order to be accepted. This is indicative of the deformity discourse. Thus, Jonny is indirectly victimized for his "abnormal" or "different" physical characteristics, while such violent bullying-like behavior is rationalized via the deformity discourse by the

bully and those granting him social impunity.

By taking into account the above information, it follows that Jonny is viewed as someone who is socially unacceptable by his peers and, therefore, within the deformity discourse, considered to be without dignity. For this reason, it is possible to see why the bully made use of physical violence without the process of verbal escalation. From the bully's perspective, the barrier between verbal and physical abuse was easier to cross for the following reasons: (a) It is socially acceptable to treat Jonny poorly because he has been excluded for his inability to conform to mainstream standards of group appearance. (b) Because of this, Jonny is viewed to be without dignity and, therefore, vulnerable, powerless, and unable to fight back. (c) Perhaps for the first time, Ron perceived that Jonny may have acted against him by stealing his cap. (d) Someone who is in Jonny's position doesn't have the right to hurt an insider's dignity. (e) And, finally, they were in a blind spot, where bullying intensifies.

Situation 2: Becoming Invisible

On a Monday in April of the same year, the author showed a textbook video to his sixth-grade class that depicted two boys, one Korean and one Caucasian, along with one Korean girl, who is overweight, climbing a jungle gym. On the third viewing, when the author paused the video to ask the class the names of the characters, they quickly provided the names of the two boys. When asked for the girl's name, one boy shouted "*tweji*" (Korean for "pig"). The whole class started laughing. Others began to join in, shouting "pig," "fat," "tweji"; all the while the rest of the class completely dissolved into laughter. The author had to shout over their voices to bring them to attention. The author explained the best he could, trying to overcome the language barrier, that she was a person with a name and that it is mean and disrespectful to call someone names for any reason, especially based on appearance. When the author asked what her name was again, the same boy who started the previous outburst, shouted "pig." Everyone laughed again. The author's co-teacher took the boy to the back of the classroom to have a talk with him so that the class could continue.

A similar scene took place in each of the author's sixth-grade classes that day. The class described above was Jonny's class and, while the students sank into laughter, the author took a moment to locate Jonny

and briefly observe his reaction. His face was caught between being expressionless and confused, between concerned and uncaring, almost as if he were trying to make himself disappear. Indeed, he didn't need to make himself disappear because as far as the students who were laughing and shouting "pig" at the overweight girl on the screen were concerned, he didn't exist as a sentient being in the classroom at that moment. Or, at least, he did not exist as someone whose feelings mattered. It seemed that Jonny's presence in the classroom as a fellow student had zero effect on the behavior of the entire class as they all joined in to make known their feelings towards people who are overweight: They are people we call "pig" and laugh at as a group. No one turned to Jonny directly during this escalation to remind him that he too is in this category. They didn't have to. He knew it without being directly singled out. In this instant, he knew for certain that he was not a member of the group based on his weight and that nearly the entire class was, at some level, laughing at him.

Situation 2: Discussion

Situation 2 reveals a lack of awareness on the part of the author's students concerning the effects such group behavior has on individuals who are singled out and degraded by their collective action. It is tempting to say that because students indirectly referred to Jonny as *pig* in this instance, and have called him "pig" and much worse to his face on other occasions, that some students view Jonny as less than human. By taking that view all subtly would be lost, and in Jonny's case, the author does not think that this is true. In instances where a bully goes directly at Jonny with "creative" insults, he/she is looking for a reaction, either from Jonny or his/her friends, in order to solidify her/his group membership. In other instances in the hallway, the author has witnessed sixth-graders bully physically smaller fifth-graders, who become enraged and fight back. When this occurs, other students join in to break it up or a teacher will take notice and the situation is resolved. At this point, the bully seems satisfied and loses interest. Or, as the author notes above, when Jonny cries, the bullies tend to retreat. For example, when Jonny was bleeding in the bathroom, a fellow student stood by his side to comfort him despite his social position. If they somehow thought that Jonny was less than human, they would not react this way to his very human reactions.

Jonny is still visible as a person; however, in the eyes of his classmates, who meet the accepted mainstream standards and "fit in," he is a person without dignity and someone who doesn't deserve dignity because to them it seems that to be obese is to be without dignity. Indeed, Jonny's dignity has become invisible to his classmates to the point that they can shout "pig" and laugh as an entire class at a person who is overweight on the TV screen, while Jonny sits quietly biting his lip, trying not to be seen.

Situation 3: Explicit Peer Exclusion

On a Monday in April, 2013, the Monday after Situation 1, the author set into motion an information gap exercise in which students were to walk around the classroom, interview their classmates, and record the results on a chart. Typically, some students are better at interviewing various people from around the classroom, while others tend to form small groups and take turns interviewing each other. On this occasion, Ron and two other boys who are in the after-school cleaning crew described in Situation 1, formed a group. This is a particularly difficult situation for Jonny as he is not an accepted member of any particular group; however, he is an assigned member of Ron's group, making the members of Ron's group (and the author) his best options for completing the assignment. The author watched Jonny approach the group and ask Ron one of the assigned questions to which Ron reply by punching Jonny in the gut as the group moved away. The boys were punished, but the punishments and the lectures never stop the bullying-like behavior. Jonny did not complete the assignment.

This is an interesting case because although it is an explicit representation of Jonny being both excluded for his physical characteristics and continuing to be an acceptable target for Ron to bully physically, despite having recently been reprimanded for inflicting physical harm on Jonny, it also reveals the weakness of such attempts to intervene by authority figures, while simultaneously highlighting the influential strength of the deformity discourse on these boys.

Implications for EFL Teachers in South Korea

Not only did Situation 3 occur in an EFL classroom, it occurred during a communicative activity, during which students need to feel safe

and relaxed in order to maintain low affective filters, so that the target language can be acquired (Krashen, 1982). This calls into question how foreign EFL teachers in Korea, who are not native to this particular cultural manifestation of bullying-like behavior called *wang-tta*, can approach situations involving the deeply rooted deformity discourse that leaves individual students isolated from the majority, without partners with whom to comfortably practice the target language, and without a sense of security. As this situation clearly reveals, the very nature of communicative tasks puts excluded students like Jonny in a vulnerable position.

At the very least, it is necessary for foreign EFL teachers to collaborate extensively with Korean teachers, who have a deeper and more intuitive understanding of how intergroup dynamics work in situations where students have been singled out for exclusion by the majority for not meeting in-group, mainstream standards. In this way, not only can more effective and localized intervention procedures be produced according to the unique and dynamic factors that contribute to create each victim's bullying narrative, but such collaborations can also lead to cross-cultural comparisons of bullying-like behavior in an international context (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008), and the creation of activities that would safely integrate excluded students into group activities.

Foreign EFL teachers in Korea can benefit greatly from such cross-culture collaboration with Korean teachers to understand bullying-like behavior in that it can prevent misinterpretations of such situations, as those described above, due to the projection of primary culture value systems onto target culture products and practices (Moran, 2001). Foreign EFL teachers' attempts at a cross-cultural understanding of bullying-like behavior in Korea can be situated in the construct of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which aims to equip individuals with the "ability to understand the language and behavior of the target community, and explain it to members of the 'home' community − and vice versa" (Corbett, 2003, p. 2). In this case, the behavior of the target community to be understood is *wang-tta* and its associated bullying-like behavior, within the appropriate sociocultural context.

ICC is achieved by reaching what Kramsch (2009) calls "Thirdness" or "Third Place." Third Place "is seen as a place of contact or encounter between speakers from two different cultures" (Kramsch,

2009, p. 244). Each speaker represents one side of a recognized dichotomy (first language/second language, native speaker/non-native speaker, primary culture/target culture) that can occur between two individuals, groups, or within a single person. Third Place concerns the relationship between dichotomies, which is generally one of difference and conflict, and the ability to make connections, communicate across boundaries, identify those boundaries, critically reflect on intercultural experiences and one's own intercultural identity, and take responsibility for contributing to successful intercultural communication (Kramsch, 2009). Therefore, an intercultural approach to understanding bullying-like behavior, in collaborations between foreign EFL teachers and Korean EFL teachers, perceives opportunities for cross-cultural understanding as emerging from the conflictual relationship between western definitions of bullying and the Korean definition of *wang-tta*, and expresses the need to experience and reflect critically on these relationships of difference in order to achieve a vantage point from which culturally appropriate, contextualized intervention procedures and inclusive classroom activities can be created in the EFL classroom.

LIMITATIONS OF INDIVIDUAL BULLYING NARRATIVES

This study identifies *wang-tta* and the deformity discourse as potential frameworks through which foreign EFL teachers in Korea can understand bullying-like behavior in upper-elementary school EFL classrooms and institutional blind spots. However, due to the idiosyncratic nature of individual bullying narratives, and the complex, dynamic interrelationship between students and their surrounding community, and the opportunities such relationships afford different students, this study has serious limitations on generalizability. Thus, the results of this study cannot directly contribute to determinations about other individual bullying narratives, nor can it be generalized to the experiences of victims excluded and abused based on a wide range of other characteristics, attributes, or uncontrollable medical and health issues. In addition, this study employs a basic definition and explanation of *wang-tta* that does not differentiate between the experiences of male and female students, nor does it provide an in-depth analysis of age differentiation. This data, while it may contribute to the creation of a framework for individual bullying narrative analysis by foreign EFL

teachers in Korea, it does not account for the hierarchical structures that exists between microsystems and macrosystems: the student within the classroom, within the family and its values and beliefs, within the neighborhood and school district, within the city, within the country, and within the country's culture and its various value systems (Benbenishty & Astor, 2008). Indeed, in the same way that the data represents a snapshot within Jonny's greater bullying narrative, this study presents a minimal account of the external, societal influences on Jonny's bullying narrative.

IMPLICATIONS

In terms of this study's implications for EFL teachers, this study seeks to raise concerns about the vulnerability of victimized students during group communicative activities in the EFL classroom. It also seeks to indicate a potential theoretical perspective for navigating cross-cultural interpretations of bullying-like behavior and the intercultural collaboration with Korean teachers necessary for creating culturally appropriate, contextualized intervention procedures and inclusive classroom activities in the EFL classroom. This study is limited to introducing a potential theoretical position to begin this process, based on the findings of Jonny's unique bullying narrative, and does not provide suggestions for potential intervention procedures or examples of inclusive classroom activities.

CONCLUSIONS

Concluding Remarks and Future Research Recommendations

The current study attempts to examine the characteristics of victimization in Jonny's unique bullying narrative within the narrow definition and framework of *wang-tta* provided. This study indicates that the deformity discourse is employed by upper-elementary school students as a means to rationalize and legitimize the exclusion of students based on "abnormal" or "different" physical characteristics that do not align with mainstream group standards, and thus, body parts become viewed

as deformities and people become targets for exclusion who are legitimately ridiculed until the individual takes on the responsibility of changing him/herself.

As Jonny's bullying narrative indicates, victims of exclusion and bullying-like behavior are at greater risk of physical violence in blind spots located around schools, indicating the responsibility of individual schools, each with its own unique set of characteristics, to take measures that will decrease these risks. At the same time, this study indicates that foreign EFL teachers are posed with the problem of appropriately interpreting the culture-specific manifestation of bullying-like behavior in Korea, and proposes that the adoption of an ICC approach can aid not only in making these appropriate interpretations, but also provide a theoretical foundation for approaching the necessary intercultural collaboration with Korean teachers to create culturally appropriate, contextualized intervention procedures and inclusive classroom activities in the EFL classroom. These steps are necessary due to the vulnerability of victimized students during group communicative activities in the EFL classroom as indicated by Situation 3 in Jonny's bullying narrative. Future research, in this regard, needs to focus on strategies EFL teachers can employ to safely integrate vulnerable students into group communicative activities without drawing further attention to the cause of these students' victimization.

Future research should identify, examine, and analyze, from an ecological perspective, how the interconnected relationships between the multiple and various ideologies, strategies, and information transmitted by macrosystems (e.g., celebrity, medical, health, political, religious, etc.) influence microsystem (peer group, family, school, etc.) interactional patterns within schools' differing age groups, gender relations, sexual orientations, and ethnicities in order to gain a deeper understanding of the driving forces behind bullying-like behavior (Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Due to the unique characteristics of each individual bullying narrative, teacher researchers are urged to undertake and produce critical case studies that examine the bullying narratives of known victims in their classrooms. This should be done in the hope that as these individual bullying narratives accumulate, general patterns will begin to emerge on more specific, interpersonal levels that statistical data is incapable of revealing, and as a result, more effective policies, intervention strategies, and decision-making methods within schools and classrooms can be accomplished.

Obstacles to Change

Jonny is not likely in danger of becoming suicidal; however, it is impossible to be certain of his future safety given the high rates of suicide in Korea. The fact that Jonny's obesity seems to be the main cause of his exclusion, and for his being targeted for additional bullying-like behavior, heightens the necessity for foreign EFL teachers to understand the social and cultural context of *wang-tta* and related bullying-like behavior in order to create safer environments for *all* students, and to create the conditions for these EFL teachers to show students how certain language creates hostile environments even if the language expresses a point of view that is considered relatively socially acceptable. It is challenging to teach some thirteen-year-old students that obesity is neither humorous nor a deformity when the mainstream community is lean, hypersensitive to weight and appearance as an in-group characteristic, and views "abnormal" or "different" appearances as legitimate cause for exclusion; however, this situation has grim possibilities, and to allow the status quo to go unchecked would be to leave certain students at risk.

THE AUTHOR

Jeffrey Horn is an English language instructor at Soonchunhyang University in South Korea. His current research interests include school violence, cross-cultural interaction, critical pedagogy, global English, and issues concerning English hegemony. Email: jeffhorn.tefl.applinguistics@gmail.com.

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Comparing Lightbown's SLA Generalizations with Teacher Beliefs in South Korea

Chris Young
The American University of Afghanistan, Kabul, Afghanistan

This article sets out to determine the beliefs held by native English instructors in South Korea as they relate to a set of SLA generalizations derived from Patsy Lightbown in order to ascertain and address any inconsistencies between the two. The beliefs were collected via an online survey. In addition, demographic information pertaining to the participants was collected and used to associate certain characteristics with the beliefs of those surveyed. It was found that while many of the beliefs were either agreed with or strongly agreed with, three of the beliefs found a majority of participants either unsure or in disagreement. The misguided beliefs centered around pattern practice, error correction, and fossilization. The findings reveal that, due to the basic educational requirements needed to teach English in Korea, the responsibility falls on individual institutions to update in-house training programs to provide their students with teachers having at least a basic understanding of the SLA generalizations.

INTRODUCTION

Regarding language teaching and SLA, Brown (2007) claims, "We are all practitioners and we are all theorists" (p. 309). However, Ellis (2001) sees a noticeable disconnect between the two, and attributes this to a difference of goals. The aim of SLA is to broaden technical knowledge, while language pedagogy seeks to further practical knowledge. Where technical knowledge is explicit and generalized, practical knowledge is implicit and intuitive, and the issue of the relationship between the two is of vital importance (pp. 45-47).

Theory and practice, however, are not mutually exclusive. In fact, Hadley (2000) feels that perusing the theories surrounding language learning allows teachers to become better acquainted with the beliefs fundamental to the various approaches to language teaching methodologies (p. 78). Similarly, Ellis (1997) claims the theories and research in SLA can also be useful in shaping teachers' personal approaches to language teaching (p. 80).

This paper seeks first to explore some of the relevant findings SLA research has put forth, and second, through the use of a survey, to uncover some teacher beliefs as to how a foreign language is acquired. Next, a comparison of SLA research and teacher beliefs is analyzed to determine if and to what degree the two are in agreement. Lastly, a discussion of discrepancies is given along with their implications on the fields of both SLA and language pedagogy.

BASIS FOR USING LIGHTBOWN (1985) AS A COMPARISON

The aforementioned survey used to ascertain the beliefs of foreign language teachers is based on the ten generalizations made in Lightbown (1985). Before continuing to the related literature regarding these generalizations, some consideration will first be given to the reasons for their selection.

Lack of a Unified Theory of SLA

One reason suggesting the use of the generalizations alluded to above is the lack of an overall general theory uniting the various beliefs held regarding SLA. Lightbown and Spada (2006) maintain that while language learning and teaching is seriously impacted by research focused on theory development, a complete theory "is probably, at best, a long way off" (p. 50).

Many factors help form the debate concerning the theorizing of the *how*, *what*, and *why* (Saville-Troike, 2006, pp. 2, 24) in the field of SLA. These include the "empiricist/behaviorist vs. rationalist/nativist" continuum described in Hadley (2000), where on one end experience dictates language learning such as Skinner's Behaviorist Theory and on the other a belief that humans are genetically hard-wired for language

development innately such as Chomsky's Universal Grammar Theory and Krashen's Monitor Theory with Connectionism and Cognitive Theory falling between the two.

Also adding to the complexity of a unified theory are the differing approaches regarding the study of SLA. These are the *linguistic*, *psychological*, and *social* frameworks. The theories linked to these have ranged over the years from Structuralism to Transformational-Generative Grammar to Functionalism to Minimalism; from Behaviorism to Humanistic models to Connectionism; and from Socio-cultural Theory to Variation Theory to Accommodation Theory to Social Psychology, respectively (Saville-Troike, 2006).

Varying models of SLA are also divided by particular points of contention. Brown (2007) points to certain topics that over the years have been the source of much debate. He mentions *explicit* vs. *implicit* learning, *awareness* (conscious vs. subconscious learning), optimal proportion of learner *input* vs. *output,* and *frequency* (as compared to *saliency* or *noticing*) as some of the more divisive issues in particular.

As Ellis (2001) states, the rapid growth of SLA since the 1960s has resulted in a diversity of research concerns no longer focused on the issues of language pedagogy. With all the complexities mentioned (among many others) and the general lack of consensus among experts (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), it should hardly be surprising that a researcher investigating SLA theories and research as compared to actual teacher beliefs might wish to opt for a more generalized and tangible set of guidelines related specifically to language teaching.

A Means of Gauging Beliefs Regarding Expectations

A second reason for supporting the use of the ten generalizations stems from their usefulness in tempering expectations for language teachers. Lightbown (1985) states clearly that SLA research provides little information about *what* teachers should teach, and findings relevant to *how* to teach had already been discovered. However, what it does provide are explanations as to *why* effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) in certain approaches can be expected, and moreover, "it helps teachers understand what can and cannot be accomplished in the language classroom" (Ellis, 1997, p. 71).

As Lightbown (1985) states, "Language acquisition research can offer no formulas, no recipes, but it is an essential component of teacher

education, because it can give teachers appropriate expectations for themselves and their students" (p. 183). By having an understanding of the research-based generalizations, teachers can expect more reasonably what may or may not be accomplished by themselves and the students they teach. Thus, teacher beliefs, when compared to the popular opinions and generalizations, could reveal which successes teachers feel are possible in the classroom and to what extent they believe this.

OUTLINE OF LIGHTBOWN

In this section the SLA generalizations (see Appendix A) will be outlined as put forth in Lightbown (1985, 2000, 2003). The generalizations are as follows:

1. Adults and adolescents can "acquire" a second language.

Lightbown assumes the term "acquire" to be essentially the same as that of Krashen's (2009), whereby acquisition refers to "child-like internalization of the rules underlying the target language" (Lightbown, 1985, p. 176) and is a "subconscious process" which "acquirers are not usually aware of" (Krashen, 2009, p. 10). Lightbown (2000) goes on to say

> While there is wide agreement that learners in both classrooms and informal learning environments come to know things that were never the subject of explicit teaching, there are different views about the extent to which this really takes place without the learner's "awareness." (p. 439)

While this certainly lends support to the generalization overall, it places limits on how much or to what degree acquisition is occurring.

For evidence of acquisition, Lightbown (2000) points to classroom research in French immersion, studies of pair and group work interaction between and among learners, studies which showed benefits for students who read or were read to in the target language in the absence of instruction, and also of an ESL program providing instruction solely in the form of listening/reading sessions where teachers provided mainly technical assistance.

2. The learner creates a systematic interlanguage which is often characterized by the same systematic errors as the child learning the same language as the first language, as well as others which appear to be based on the learner's own native language.

Lightbown (2003) mentions countless studies showing interlanguage as being part of a learner's development. This interlanguage system contains patterns that are not reflective of the types of patterns offered during instruction and cannot be explained in any straightforward manner.

Studies on English-speaking students in French immersion classes showed learners consistently used verbs in French that stemmed from their L1 formation, contrary to the preferences of native speakers of French. Similarly, on a correction task, native French-speaking students of English rejected correct English questions due to rules originating in their L1 (Lightbown, 2003).

Lightbown gives no support for the portion of the generalization claiming the learner's interlanguage will consist of errors similar to those of children learning the same language as a first language, although personal experience while teaching English in Korea and Afghanistan has shown this to be the case. Many students, for example, tend to extend the regular form of the simple past tense to irregular verbs much the same as children learning English as their first language.

3. There are predictable sequences in L2 acquisition such that certain structures have to be acquired before others can be integrated.

Lightbown (2000) mentions research that suggests that "learners can be taught only what they are ready to learn" (p. 443). Research evidence implies that developmental sequences dictate the acquisition of linguistic features. Lightbown also states that while Ellis supports the idea that the speed of the progress through this sequence may be sped up, the basic sequence is generally adhered to. Ortega (2009) adds

> Interlanguage development is systematic, not haphazard. For a substantial number of language areas, learners are seen to traverse several stages, each consisting of predictable solutions, on their way

to developing the various full-fledged sub-systems of the target language . . . learners undergo non-linear and unevenly paced increases and decreases in accuracy. (p. 83)

This suggests that not only is the learner's interlanguage systematic, but the sequence through which it progresses is also predictable. Additionally, the ebbs and flows in the learner's accuracy are also part of the process.

4. Practice does not make perfect.

Here, practice is of both the rote reproductive type and the practice of communicative exchanges. While the latter is indeed beneficial and possibly essential, research indicates that it does not lead to perfection in the form of a high degree of either accuracy or fluency. Although sequences, as mentioned above, occur, they do not always do so in a linear fashion. Many learners demonstrate a U-shaped development that occurs when a learner reaches a high level of accuracy only to drop off due to loss of mastery of the forms or structures before picking up again to more correct levels of accuracy (Lightbown, 2000).

5. Knowing a language rule does not mean one will be able to use it in communicative interaction.

Evidence shows that learners' interlanguage develops and maintains errors when used in communicative situations despite the explicit knowledge of the rules governing those errors. This may be due in part to a lack of time in communicative situations to implement the rules which they have learned, thus leaving output unaffected. It may also be due to not being "developmentally ready" (Lightbown, 2000, p. 445) to fully acquire features pointed out during instruction.

However, research has shown that learners can be led past such problems in interlanguage development. Evidence suggests the use of techniques such as enhanced input, or flooding, and a focus on form in CLT classrooms can indeed positively affect learners' interlanguage (Lightbown, 2000).

6. Isolated explicit error correction is usually ineffective in changing language behavior.

This is not to say that learners cannot benefit from feedback on errors. However, for feedback to be effective in form-focused instruction, it is essential that the correction be focused on linguistic features that students are able to learn (as in number 3 above) and be maintained over a period of time rather than be isolated in sporadic instances (Lightbown, 2003). Therefore, only when the correction is focused on a particular form and sustained (as opposed to occurring in isolation) can it possibly be considered effective in altering the students' systems of interlanguage.

7. For most adult learners, acquisition stops − "fossilizes" − before the learner has achieved native-like mastery of the target language.

There are two scenarios dictating this assumption. The first situation occurs when a second-language learner immersed in the natural setting of the target language is satisfactorily able to communicate and feels integrated into the community (Lightbown, 1985). In other words,

> Because a learner in a naturalistic setting will most probably attend more to meaning and real communication rather than form, it may not be difficult for the learner to acquire a high degree of fluency, but a high degree of accuracy in the L2 may be possible only if the learner focuses her attention on forms. (De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005, p. 76)

In this case, meaningful communication is the focus and, once achieved, the motivation for learner acquisition wanes.

The second reason for stymied acquisition in a foreign language learning environment can be attributed at least in part to students' interaction with other learners. Often the teacher is the only proficient model of the target language that students have in this setting. Learners, through their interaction, will likely share aspects of an interlanguage containing common errors that can foster practices counter to the targets (Lightbown, 2000).

In conjunction with these two scenarios, it is likely that the Critical Period Hypothesis is a factor. Lightbown (2000) describes this as the

belief "that post-puberty-aged learners of a second language will always be distinguishable from learners who have sustained substantial exposure beginning in early childhood" (p. 448).

8. One cannot achieve native-like (or near native-like) command of a second language in one hour a day.

Factors mentioned in 7 also contribute to this generalization. In addition, Lightbown (1985) asserts that native-like mastery simply cannot be done in the language classroom alone and provides estimates for the time learners spend in contact with a language. Six-year-olds spend between 12,000 and 15,000 hours in the process of acquiring their first language, while students will have been in contact with French for approximately 4,000 hours in a French immersion program by the sixth grade. A classroom setting providing 5 hours per week of instruction for six years would be shy of 1,000 hours.

For EFL learners, access to the target language in real-world, communicative situations may be somewhat lacking if available at all. Apart from sources such as the Internet or film, learners might not be in contact with the target language on a daily basis, and when they are, it is generally only with their teacher. In some situations, their teacher may not even provide a model of native-like proficiency. Any progress made in the classroom may eventually be lost due to lack of sustained exposure to the target language over an adequate period of time (Lightbown, 2003).

9. The learner's task is enormous because language is so enormously complex.

That learning the phonological, lexical, syntactical, and morphological systems of a language would provide a monumental challenge might sound like a rather intuitive assumption. Indeed, great numbers of students are unable to completely master these facets of a second language (Lightbown, 2003).

This is also compounded when students attempt to learn a language belonging to an entirely different language family. While aptitude can certainly help to lessen the hardships of individual learners, even these students are challenged with a lifelong commitment (Lightbown, 2003).

Supposing a good command over the lexicon and syntax still says nothing of a student's ability to master the many nuanced sociolinguistic features of a foreign language. In fact, Tarone and Swain found that students who lacked opportunities to speak French outside the classroom were unable to produce the informal style of language acceptably used among French speaking peers (as cited in Lightbown, 2003). Lyster made similar findings in French immersion classes regarding students' lack of exposure to the formal register used when dealing with adult strangers (as cited in Lightbown, 2003).

10. A learner's ability to understand language in a meaningful context exceeds his/her ability to comprehend decontextualized language and to produce language of comparable complexity and accuracy.

Using contextual cues and knowledge of the world, language learners are no doubt able to gather meaning from what they hear in the L2. They are quite capable of doing so even without the benefit of understanding every linguistic feature that helps to comprise the meaning. However, when strict emphasis is placed on understanding meaning rather than the learning of specific linguistic features, research observations have noted that students develop certain features of language more slowly, or the features are unable to be fully developed (Lightbown, 2003). Research conducted by White, Swain, VanPatten, and Spada and Lightbown all lend credence to this assumption (Lightbown, 2003).

In concluding the outline of Lightbown's generalizations, despite gains in the expectations of SLA research as applied to language teaching, Hatch's caveat "apply with caution" (as cited in Lightbown, 1985) should still be heeded. Though the research may add support for updates in teaching practices, ultimately teachers should still rely on experience with different techniques that demonstrate success (Lightbown, 1985).

Survey on Teacher Beliefs Regarding Lightbown's Generalizations

This section will provide information on the materials, participants, and methods used for conducting the survey to ascertain teacher beliefs related to Lightbown's generalizations about SLA.

Materials

The teacher beliefs were gathered by means of an online survey (www.obsurvey.com) with a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" applied to each of Lightbown's generalizations above (see Appendix B). Some slight rewording was used on the survey in an effort to eliminate any confusion due to terminology. The results of the survey on generalizations are found in Appendix C.

In addition to the SLA generalizations listed on the survey, demographic information for each participant was also collected as a means to isolate specific respondents and further examine responses. The results of the survey were compiled by www.obsurvey.com to aid in collection and analysis. The survey was available for seven days before being closed. Teachers were allowed only one response, and a response for every question was required to properly complete the survey. The responses for the demographics can be found in Appendix D.

Participants

Due to a lack of responses from colleagues at the author's university of employ, it was necessary to expand the pool of respondents. The list of 81 possible participants was compiled through social media and email contacts; all participants were known personally by the author to be native English-speaking teachers living and teaching English in Korea. Choosing only native English-speaking teachers was done simply as a means of narrowing the demographic of those involved while leaving the door open to a similar study on the beliefs of teachers whose first language is one other than English. Including both sets of speakers would require further analysis between the two and is beyond the scope of this paper.

Of the 81 teachers invited to participate, 57 completed the survey. Information regarding demographics was also compiled and included the number of countries taught in, types of institutions taught in, professional qualifications related to language teaching, age, and number of years spent teaching English as a second/foreign language.

Methods

Results from the survey were compared to the ten generalizations from SLA research. Survey statements to which at least half of the participants responded with either "strongly agree" or "agree" were taken to be in general agreement with the statement. Those to which at least half of the respondents replied "neutral," "disagree" or "strongly disagree" were considered to be in conflict with Lightbown's assertions, and thus in conflict with basic SLA theory and research findings.

RESULTS

As mentioned above, this section attempts to sort the responses into those that agree with Lightbown's ten generalizations from SLA research and those which do not. In order to accomplish this, the numbers of "strongly agree" and "agree" responses for each statement are added together and divided by the total number of participants. Results greater than 50% are considered to be in agreement while those less than 50% are taken to show disagreement.

Agreement with Lightbown

The participants, for the most part, agreed with the generalizations. The respondents agreed with seven of Lightbown's ten SLA generalizations. Using information from Appendix C the responses were ordered in Table 1 according to the percentage of respondents in agreement with the statement.

In particular, teachers were nearly unanimous in their agreement of Statements 5 (96.5%) and 10 (93%). In Statement 5, a total of 28 teachers strongly agreed and 27 agreed. Statement 10 tallied 27 teachers who strongly agree, with 26 choosing to agree.

TABLE **1.** **Percentage of Respondents in Agreement with Lightbown's Generalizations**
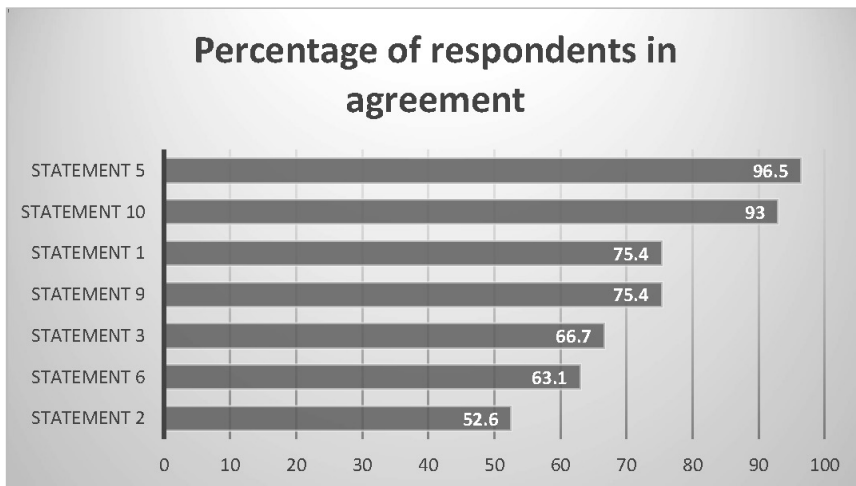
Also noteworthy, the responses to Statement 2 pointed to a possible lack of knowledge regarding interlanguage among a relatively large number of language teachers in Korea. While 28 teachers agreed with the statement, 18 were neutral, 7 disagreed, and 2 strongly disagreed.

Disagreement with Lightbown

More than half of the teachers gave responses of "neutral," "disagree," or "strongly disagree" for Statements 6, 4, and 7 from the Outline of Lightbown above as shown in Table 2.

Exactly two-thirds of the teachers chose options other than "strongly agree" or "agree" for Statement 6, which indicates teachers feel that isolated error correction may be effective in changing learners' behavior. The data showed 22 teachers disagreeing with Lightbown with one more strongly disagreeing. A total of 15 were neutral.

Over 56% of the teachers showed disagreement or neutrality with Statement 4. This would lead one to believe that a majority of the surveyed teachers find pattern practice to be useful in promoting accuracy in learners or that they are unsure of its effectiveness, contrary to evidence given in the Outline of Lightbown above. Most teachers (15) tended to disagree, with 6 strongly disagreeing and 13 neutral on the matter.

TABLE 2. Percentage of Respondents in Disagreement with Lightbown's Generalizations
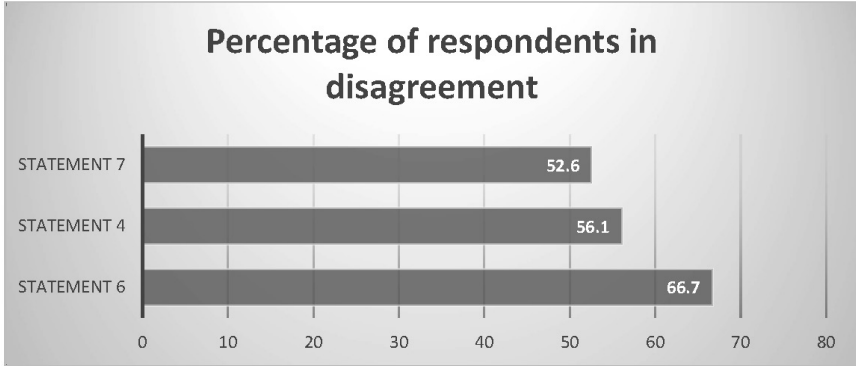
Statement 7 was also responded to with mostly neutrality by those not in agreement, indicating a fair degree of undecidedness on the part of teachers regarding adult learners and fossilization. Of those who didn't respond with "strongly agree" or "agree," 20 responded neutrally with 6 disagreeing and 4 strongly disagreeing.

In the next section, more attention is paid to these disagreements to uncover possible reasons for the discrepancies and their implications.

POSSIBLE EXPLANATIONS FOR DISCREPANCIES AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This section attempts to uncover some of the reasons for the discrepancies found between the generalizations made by Lightbown above and the data from the previous section. In addition, an effort will be made to identify just what these discrepancies imply regarding language learning and teaching. To do this, the website hosting the survey proves to be quite powerful. The data organized on www.obsurvey.com can be manipulated in such a way as to look to specific demographics to see how teachers responded to certain questions and vice versa. This is a tremendous help when looking for factors in the data that might contribute to any conflict with theory and/or research. In addition, some limitations of the study will be discussed.

Disagreement with Statement 6

The data for Statement 6 regarding the effectiveness of isolated error correction are a bit confounding. A total of 22 teachers disagreed with this statement. Of the 22, half have been teaching in Korea for at least nine years. Among these 11, a total of 6 possess a master's degree related to teaching English (1 PhD) and have CELTA/DELTA/TESOL certification. Additionally, seven have taught in at least three different countries. In sharp contrast, the other 11 who disagreed had only a non-related bachelor's degree or no degree at all.

The unexpected results, however, might well be due to the nature of the statement's topic. The debate on error correction is hardly settled (Nunan, 1989). There is still controversy over important questions such as when to correct, how to correct, and who should correct (Nunan, 1989). Krashen (2009) even claims error correction has little benefit whatsoever in the long term. It seems clear that if scholars cannot come to a consensus on the role of error correction in the classroom, then teachers might not as well. Therefore, on this point alone some disagreement is expected and does not necessarily indicate a lack of knowledge on the part of the teachers regarding the SLA generalizations.

In the broader sense, this would imply the need for more classroom-based research dealing with such things as the effects on learners of inconsistent error feedback compared to form-focused, sustained feedback over the same period.

More specifically, in the context of teaching English in Korea, the responsibility rests with institutions to consider updating their instructional guidelines and addressing the use of isolated error correction in the classroom. Perhaps these programs could reinforce a broader error correction method that introduces errors to the class as a whole after errors have been noted by the teacher rather than addressing each error individually to each student as they occur. Yet as the demographics indicate, the issue is hardly settled in Korea as both highly educated and minimally educated teachers disagreed with Statement 6 in nearly equal numbers.

Disagreement with Statement 4

The data from Statement 4 seem to be more straightforward. In this group, 21 teachers disagreed with the notion that practice does not make

perfect. The most easily noticeable of the demographic data would be age and experience. Among those who disagree, 17 are younger than 40, and of these, ten have five years or less of teaching experience.

Also, 12 of the 21 in disagreement hold CELTA/DELTA/TESOL certificates. These courses promote to varying extents the use of the PPP framework for classroom activities, which has been under attack since the 1990s (Maftoon & Sarem, 2012). The belief is that through controlled practice students will gain the ability to produce accurate language in a communicative setting (Hedge, 2000). However, as Skehan (as cited in Richards & Rogers, 2001) notes, this belief "no longer carries much credibility in linguistics" (p. 249). The implications here could possibly mean a retooling of the CELTA/DELTA/TESOL syllabus to reflect the research findings in SLA.

Due to the large amount of untrained/inexperienced teachers in English language learning classrooms in Korea, the onus ultimately falls on institutions to address the reliance on the use of PPP in classrooms. Institutions could consider curricula that rely less on PPP and more on alternative methods such as ESA, for example. This would involve modifications such as updating their textbook selection criteria as well as their teacher training procedures, although further classroom-based studies would need to be investigated in order to ascertain the effectiveness of alternatives vs. PPP in Korean classrooms.

Disagreement with Statement 7

Regarding the fossilization of language in adult learners prior to mastery of the language, many teachers were neutral. For Statement 7, 20 teachers responded neutrally, possibly indicating a lack of understanding of the statement. The data show that, as in the previous section, age, education, and experience may play a part.

Of the 20 teachers responding neutrally, 16 were under the age of 40, with 10 of them having less than six years of teaching experience. In addition, six held only a bachelor's degree while a total of 10 managed to add CELTA/DELTA/TESOL certification to their undergraduate degree. As the study of fossilization in a linguistic sense would be reserved for students studying at a master's level, it is predictable that those not having undertaken a graduate degree in the fields of linguistics or TESOL may have never heard the term. Further to this, there is no mention of fossilization in the CELTA

Syllabus (University of Cambridge, 2010), nor is there any mention of it in the Assessment Guidelines or the TESOL course content provided by Trinity College London's website (Trinity College London, 2013). While this is not an indication of a complete omission of fossilization in the courses themselves, it certainly limits its role as a featured part of the curriculum, and could be in part responsible for the relatively high number of certificate holders being in disagreement with Statement 7. The disagreement with Statement 7 may well be attributed simply to ignorance on the part of the teacher regarding the topic of fossilization. A simple remedy may not be possible in this case. As in the previous section, CELTA/DELTA/TESOL could again update their curricula to more accurately reflect SLA research findings in relation to adult learners. However, as Korea maintains for education requirements only a minimum of a bachelor's degree in any discipline, many teachers will remain in the dark about certain SLA theories and research until experience in the classroom allows them to intuit such things. Unless Korean educational institutions take it upon themselves to provide their English teaching staff with the SLA generalizations, many teachers may become frustrated with fossilization while not knowing that it is to be expected with adult learners.

Limitations of the Study

While this study has attempted to accurately determine teacher beliefs regarding certain SLA generalizations, it is certainly not without its limitations. Here three such limitations are discussed which might provide possible jumping off points for further study.

The study here included only 57 native English-speaking teachers as participants. This number is certainly low considering the thousands of native English speakers actively teaching in Korea. A larger sample size of course would provide much more insight as to the beliefs held by teachers regarding the SLA generalizations. Additionally, the participants selected might not accurately reflect the true demographics of the native English-speaking teachers in Korea. The list of participants was compiled from my social network of friends, colleagues, and acquaintances. There is certainly no reason to believe that this network is an accurate reflection of the real English teaching landscape. Casting a wider net would most likely result in a more exact picture of exactly who is teaching in Korea in terms of their education and experience.

Furthermore, the participants in the study were limited to native English-speaking instructors only. However, including non-native-speaking teachers of English in the study could provide further information as to the beliefs of those teaching English in Korea. Additional research comparing the native and non-native English teachers might reveal whether the problem is limited to only one group of teachers or the other, or if it is more systemic.

Finally, the study might benefit from an institution-specific investigation of the teachers. Although some information was collected regarding the types of institutions taught in, the information did not yield much information relating to the topic of this paper. However, if the study were done according to the beliefs of teachers in each type of institution (i.e., private academies, public schools, universities, etc.), then data could be obtained to see if the problem lies with any specific institution type, which could point out problem areas to be focused on.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has attempted to investigate teacher beliefs regarding relevant theory and research findings in SLA. Due in part to a general lack of consensus amongst those in the field regarding an all-inclusive theory and their general ability to uncover expectations teachers have regarding themselves and their students, Lightbown's generalizations, as first presented in her article "Great Expectations" and updated in subsequent articles, were used.

To acquire data regarding teacher beliefs, a survey was conducted with fellow English teachers in the Korean English-teaching community. They were asked to rank their opinions of the generalizations using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly agree" at one end to "strongly disagree" at the other.

The results found that for the most part teachers, regardless of their educational background or qualifications, were in agreement with the statements on the survey and with SLA research findings according to Lightbown. However, the majority of teachers did not agree with three of the statements. Upon investigation, it was found that in one case the topic itself is not settled and requires more research before any consensus can be reached. Education also seems to contribute to the teachers' disagreement. Many look to certification as a stepping-stone to

better teaching, yet if the information presented in certification courses does not accurately reflect the research findings, then they can potentially be misinformed. Lastly, in the case of information outside the scope required to teach in most institutions, many may simply be unfamiliar with the terms used in SLA and therefore are uniformed.

One of the broader implications of the findings presented above is related to the teacher training provided by the CELTA/DELTA/TESOL certification courses in regards to repetitive pattern practice and fossilization. Certain aspects of the certification programs run counter to the research in SLA that shows that, indeed, practice does not make perfect. Additionally, despite the findings in SLA pertaining to the realities of fossilization, the certificate courses do not feature this topic as part of their training or assessment. In order to provide teacher training that is in line with the research findings in SLA, these programs and others like them may wish to update both their practices and course content or, better still, include the generalizations in their curriculum as a set of maxims of a sort that might guide teachers as to what may and may not be possible in their English teaching classrooms. Further research focusing on a comparison of the SLA generalizations and the beliefs of those teachers who have completed ESL/EFL teacher training courses worldwide could give insight into whether this is an anomaly found in this survey only, or if the disagreement is more widespread.

The basic educational requirements for native English speakers to teach English in Korea may also contribute to the disagreement. Needing only to possess a bachelor's degree in any discipline, many who come to Korea to teach and continue to teach are unaware of the SLA generalizations and their implications, and without proper training they will likely remain so. Here the role of the educational institutions must be stepped up. Ultimately, the institutions are responsible for providing the proper instruction for their students who trust that this responsibility is met. Knowing full well that they are employing individuals with less than the basic fundamentals in language teaching, it is up to them to maintain curricula that are relevant and that match SLA research. As with the teacher training courses mentioned above, individual institutions may do well to include the ten generalizations in their in-house training sessions as a model that can help temper new teacher expectations as to what is and is not possible in the English language learning classroom.

THE AUTHOR

Chris Young is an English language instructor at the American University of Afghanistan. He received his MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Birmingham in 2013. He has also had extensive work in Korean universities as an assistant professor and visiting professor. Email: cyoung@auaf.edu.af

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APPENDIX A

Lightbown's Ten Generalizations from SLA Research

Ten Generalizations from SLA Research

1. Adults and adolescents can "acquire" a second language.
2. The learner creates a systematic interlanguage which is often characterized by the same systematic errors as the child learning the same language as the first language, as well as others which appear to be based on the learner's own native language.
3. There are predictable sequences in L2 acquisition such that certain structures have to be acquired before others can be integrated.
4. Practice does not make perfect.
5. Knowing a language rule does not mean one will be able to use it in communicative interaction.
6. Isolated explicit error correction is usually ineffective in changing language behavior
7. For most adult learners, acquisition stops – "fossilizes" – before the learner has achieved native-like mastery of the target language.
8. One cannot achieve native-like (or near native-like) command of a second language in one hour a day.
9. The learner's task is enormous because language is so enormously complex.
10. A learner's ability to understand language in a meaningful context exceeds his/her ability to comprehend decontextualized language and to produce language of comparable complexity and accuracy.

APPENDIX B

Survey on Teacher Beliefs Based on Lightbown's SLA Generalizations

Teacher Beliefs about Foreign/Second Language Learning

There is always the possibility of tampering from an outside source when using the internet for collecting information. While the confidentiality of your responses will be protected once the data are downloaded from the internet, there is always a possibility of hacking or other security breaches that could threaten the confidentiality of your responses. Please know that you are free to decide not to answer any question.

This survey is being done in order to gather some information regarding teacher beliefs about second language learning for a paper I am doing. Here is the topic:

Conduct a survey among your colleagues and / or students to investigate their beliefs about how a foreign / second language is acquired. Compare their beliefs with theories and research findings reported in the literature, and discuss the implications of any discrepancies you find.

I am very much looking forward to analyzing the results of my fellow language teachers. All responses are of course anonymous. Thank you in advance for participating in the survey.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Second language acquisition by adults and adolescents is possible. (Here "language acquisition" refers to the knowledge of language which learners develop without intentional effort on their part or emphasis on the teacher's part.)	○	○	○	○	○
The learner creates an interlanguage that is characterized by the same errors as those of children learning the same language as a first language, along with other errors based on the learner's own native language.	○	○	○	○	○
There are predictable sequences in acquisition so that certain structures have to be acquired before others can be integrated.	○	○	○	○	○
Practice does not make perfect. (Here "practice" refers to pattern practice and drills.)	○	○	○	○	○
Knowing a language rule does not mean that one will be able to use it in communicative interaction.	○	○	○	○	○
Isolated explicit error correction is usually ineffective in changing language behavior.	○	○	○	○	○
For most adult learners, acquisition stops--"fossilizes"--before the learner has achieved nativelike mastery of the target language.	○	○	○	○	○
One cannot achieve nativelike (or near-nativelike) command of a second language by studying one hour a day.	○	○	○	○	○
The learner's task is enormous because language is enormously complex.	○	○	○	○	○
A learner is more able to understand language in a meaningful context than to 1. comprehend language out of context and 2. produce language of comparable complexity and accuracy.	○	○	○	○	○

How many countries have you taught in *
○ 1
○ 2
○ 3
○ >3

Please select the type(s) of institutions where you have taught English *

☐ Private academy kindergarten or elementary (hakwon)
☐ Private academy middle or high school
☐ Private academy adult
☐ Elementary, middle or high school
☐ College or university
☐ Corporate/business classroom
☐ Private tutoring
☐ other

Please select any professional qualifications obtained related to teaching a foreign language (select all that apply) *

☐ Bachelor's degree (any discipline)
☐ CELTA or TESOL certification
☐ DELTA certification
☐ MA (unaffiliated with foreign/second language teaching)
☐ MA in TEFL/TESOL/Applied Linguistic/Translation Studies
☐ Ph.D in TEFL/TESOL/Applied Linguistic/Translation Studies

Current age *

○ 20-24
○ 25-29
○ 30-34
○ 35-39
○ 40-44
○ 45-49
○ 50-54
○ 55-59
○ 60 or older

Years spent teaching foreign language *

○ 0-1
○ 1-2
○ 2-3
○ 3-4
○ 4-5
○ 5-6
○ 6-7
○ 7-8
○ 8-9
○ 9-10
○ more than 10 years

powered by *obsurvey*

Thank you for participating in the survey. Please feel free to share with any foreign language teachers you may know.

powered by *obsurvey*

APPENDIX C

Survey on Teacher Beliefs: Individual Statement Responses

Statement 1

Second language acquisition by adults and adolescents is possible. ...

Response	Value
Strongly agree	13
Agree	30
Neutral	8
Disagree	5
Strongly disagree	1

Statement 2

The learner creates an interlanguage that is characterized by the s...

Response	Value
Strongly agree	2
Agree	28
Neutral	18
Disagree	7
Strongly disagree	2

Statement 3

There are predictable sequences in acquisition so that certain stru...

Response	Value
Strongly agree	9
Agree	29
Neutral	9
Disagree	9
Strongly disagree	1

Statement 4

Practice does not make perfect. (Here "practice" refers to pattern ...

Response	Value
Strongly agree	8
Agree	15
Neutral	13
Disagree	15
Strongly disagree	6

Statement 5

Knowing a language rule does not mean that one will be able to use ...

Response	Value
Strongly agree	28
Agree	27
Neutral	1
Disagree	1
Strongly disagree	0

Statement 6

Isolated explicit error correction is usually ineffective in changi...

Strongly agree	
Agree	
Neutral	
Disagree	
Strongly disagree	

4
15
15
22
1

Statement 7

For most adult learners, acquisition stops--"fossilizes"--before th...

5
22
20
6
4

Strongly agree	
Agree	
Neutral	
Disagree	
Strongly disagree	

Statement 8

One cannot achieve nativelike (or near-nativelike) command of a sec...

16
20
7
10
4

Strongly agree	
Agree	
Neutral	
Disagree	
Strongly disagree	

Statement 9

The learner's task is enormous because language is enormously complex.

16
27
5
8
1

Strongly agree	
Agree	
Neutral	
Disagree	
Strongly disagree	

Statement 10

A learner is more able to understand language in a meaningful contex...

27
26
4
0
0

Strongly agree	
Agree	
Neutral	
Disagree	
Strongly disagree	

APPENDIX D

Survey on Teacher Beliefs: Demographic Data

How many countries have you taught in

Countries	Percentage
1	42.1%
2	24.6%
3	26.3%
>3	7%

Percentage of Responses

Please select the type(s) of institutions where you have ...

Type	Percentage
Private academy kindergarte...	84.2%
Private academy middle or h...	61.4%
Private academy adult	59.6%
Elementary, middle or high ...	66.7%
College or university	64.9%
Corporate/business classroom	52.6%
Private tutoring	75.4%
other	21.1%

Percentage of Responses

Please select any professional qualifications obtained re...

Qualification	Percentage
Bachelor's degree (any disc...	91.2%
CELTA or TESOL certification	47.4%
DELTA certification	1.8%
MA (unaffiliated with forei...	19.3%
MA in TEFL/TESOL/Applied Li...	24.6%
Ph.D in TEFL/TESOL/Applied ...	3.5%

Percentage of Responses

Current age

Age	Percentage
20–24	0%
25–29	12.3%
30–34	40.4%
35–39	24.6%
40–44	12.3%
45–49	1.8%
50–54	7%
55–59	0%
60 or older	1.8%

Percentage of Responses

Years spent teaching foreign language

Years	Percentage
0–1	0%
1–2	1.8%
2–3	1.8%
3–4	10.5%
4–5	14%
5–6	12.3%
6–7	8.8%
7–8	10.5%
8–9	3.5%
9–10	15.8%
more than 10 years	21.1%

Percentage of Responses

Evaluating Context-Conscious Adaptations Recommended for Aligning Communicative Language Teaching with the Learner's Needs and Sociocultural Landscape of the Korean Tertiary EFL Environment

Conrad Brubacher

Chungnam National University, Daejeon, Korea

In a previous study by the author, recommendations were evinced for how communicative language teaching (CLT), born of western pedagogical values and beliefs, could be adapted into a context-conscious pedagogy harmonizing with the unique learner needs and sociocultural nuances inherent in the Korean tertiary EFL environment. Adaptations were recommended to the fundamental goal of CLT, communicative classroom practices, and the role of EFL teachers within communicative classrooms in Korea. In this study, the efficacy of those recommended adaptations is qualitatively evaluated within the context of a large-scale communicative project into which they were synthesized by analyzing learner interactions during the project for language exchanges contributing to their L2 development. Unlike related studies, which only recommend adaptation of CLT as a necessary condition of implementation in EFL environments, this study offers learner need-based recommendations for how that adaptation can be actualized for the local Korean context at the level of classroom practice. EFL practitioners in Korea can thus benefit from this study by gaining potential insights regarding how to reconcile CLT to the unique contingencies at play in their own L2 environments.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the prevalence in English language teaching (ELT) circles of various terms, concepts, and practices associated with communicative

language teaching (CLT), it has been argued that importation of CLT to EFL (English as a Foreign Language) environments may conflict with what EFL learners consider to be culturally appropriate or socially relevant pedagogy (e.g., Bax, 2003; Brubacher, 2014; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001, 2006b; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2006, 2013; Savignon, 2007; Sullivan, 2000). Rather than unquestioningly adopting an imported version of CLT, it is suggested instead that teachers in EFL contexts adopt a brand of CLT that is broader in scope and adapted to account for the unique nuances and sociocultural specificities inherent in EFL environments. Taking an adaptive approach to L2 pedagogy also coincides with CLT's evolution into an indefinable umbrella term for a "transnational pool" of ideas and techniques that teachers can exploit in the formulation of context-conscious "classroom practices which are real and meaningful to their learners and help learners towards fulfilling their communicative needs" (Littlewood, 2013, p. 10).

In a recent study by Brubacher (2014) advocating adoption of this type of context-conscious pedagogy, recommendations were proposed for adapting elements of CLT to resonate with the individual learner needs and a number of sociocultural exigencies inherent in the Korean tertiary EFL landscape. Informed by Korean tertiary EFL learners' (hereafter referred to as "Korean learners") reported needs and sociocultural elements related to Koreans' perceived need to maintain social harmony, that article recommended adaptations to the fundamental goal of CLT, communicative classroom practices, and the role of EFL teachers in Korea whose classrooms adhere to the principles and practices of CLT. In this study, the efficacy of those recommended adaptations is evaluated within the framework of the communicative I^5 project into which they have been integrated by qualitatively analyzing Korean learners' communicative interactions during a sample period of the project for the presence of language exchanges contributing to their L2 (second language) development. A detailed outline of the I^5 project design can be found in the Appendix, and a description of its underlying pedagogic rationale is explained as part of the forthcoming qualitative study.

Due to the contemporary notion that gaining L2 proficiency is now considered a dynamic, evolving process (De Bot et al., 2005; Brown, 2007) rather than a static event implied by second language "acquisition," the term "L2 development," indicating continuous change, is considered a more appropriate term for this process (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). In preference to the awkward terms "SLD" and

"language developer," though, the terms "SLA" and "language learner" (or simply "learner") are used as they appear in most literature.

Deeply rooted in the precepts of Confucian ideology, the Korean pedagogical sphere and the distinctive learning culture it has spawned provide a unique environment within which the influence of localized constraints on the implementation of CLT can be examined together with their potential for mitigation through adaptation. Functional elements of CLT, intended to cultivate Korean learners' communicative competence, were first introduced into Korea's Sixth National Curriculum in 1997 (Chang & Lee, 2009). Not long after, however, reports began to emerge that disparaged the success of their implementation at the elementary, middle, and high school levels (e.g., Li, 1998; McGrath, 2001). Obstacles to implementation were attributed to parental and institutional pressure on teachers to prepare students for grammar-heavy tests, Korean teachers' and learners' lack of proficiency in spoken English, and the absence of training programs for Korean teachers in how to properly manage classrooms committed to CLT. According to Jeon (2009), the shift from a traditional language teaching approach to a communicative one represented a significant upheaval for both students and teachers who were accustomed to a focus on linguistic competence, teacher-centered classrooms, and textbooks emphasizing sentence analysis as opposed to communicative scenarios. Recently, though, CLT has begun to garner more favorable perception in Korea, particularly at the tertiary level (e.g., McClintock, 2011), where the aforementioned obstacles to implementation are tempered by employing EFL teachers whose first language is English and by an increase in student motivation to study English as a way of broadening future employment opportunities (Nunan, 2003; Cho, 2004).

The paper begins with a review of literature regarding CLT's cultural appropriacy for the Korean context, and how Korean learners' specific language goals, their perceptions of their English skills, their beliefs regarding ELT, and their perceived need to maintain social harmony formed the basis for the context-conscious adaptations recommended to CLT. Presentation of the qualitative study follows with an outline of the design of the communicative I^5 project into which the adaptations have been synthesized and the methods used to evaluate their efficacy, and the discussion section subsequently interprets the results with respect to their significance for EFL practitioners in the Korean context. This study thereby offers useful insights regarding how EFL

teachers in comparable environments can translate the suggested adaptations, or contextually modified versions of them, into the prevailing practices of their own classes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is divided into two main sections. The first section reviews literature concerning the cultural appropriacy of CLT's principles, goals, and practices for Korean learners' and how Korean's Confucian-based belief in the need to maintain social harmony carries the potential to permeate the communicative process. In the second section, the previously recommended context-conscious adaptations to CLT and relevant literature are reviewed.

CLT's Cultural Appropriacy for Korean Learners

When earlier structure-heavy classroom methods began to fall out of favor with the ELT community, those advocating the virtues of CLT effected a shift towards communicative classroom practices that engaged learners in meaningful and collaborative exchanges like role plays, and creative activities or tasks with gaps in information, reasoning, or opinion, which were intended to be partial simulations of the type of unpredictable communicative interactions they would encounter in the real world (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b). Successful L2 development is considered to occur via negotiated modifications learners make to those communicative interactions, which allow them to contribute to the dialogue of meaning-making (Brubacher, 2014). Some examples of interactional modifications are clarification or confirmation requests, comprehension checks, paraphrase, expansion, elaboration, self-repetition, and sentence completion. When learners engaged in this process face an impasse in communication, negotiated modifications function as ways for them to collectively exploit whatever linguistic resources or communicative abilities they possess in order to make their input more comprehensible for their interlocutors (Hedge, 2000). Learners thus become cognizant of and are subsequently able to attend to their linguistic deficiencies by manipulating and restructuring the parameters of their evolving L2 repertoires toward a more complex and accurate representation of the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Concepts such as "interaction," "collaboration," and "meaningful communication," however, which have become associated with communicative classrooms, are "linguistically and historically linked to 'Western,' and particularly Anglo-Saxon, nations" (Sullivan, 2000, p. 118). As Sullivan (2000, p. 115) cautions and as the following sections expand upon with respect to the goals, practices, and teacher roles of a communicative approach: presuming "what works well in one educational setting will work well in another is to ignore the interrelatedness of history, culture, and pedagogy."

CLT and Korean Learners' Goals

The goal of developing "communicative competence" in learners has long been held up as the high-water mark for achievement within a communicative approach. It is defined as the capacity for being able to know and use language in a variety of situations and contexts for a range of communicative purposes (Saville-Troike, 2012). As Kumaravadivelu (2006b) points out, though, the criteria associated with communicative competence for a specific speech community arises from local, socioculturally determined factors such as learners' goals for learning the target language or how the target language is employed within a specific local context. As reported by Brubacher (2014), EFL learners in Korea have essentially no opportunities to use English for meaningful communicative discourse outside their EFL classrooms and their goals for learning English derive predominantly from instrumental rather than integral motivations. Hedge (2000, p. 23) summarizes *instrumental motivation* as "needing a language as an instrument to achieve other purposes such as doing a job effectively or studying successfully at an English-speaking institution," and *integrative motivation* as wanting to "integrate into the activities or culture of another group of people." Korean learners' language goals center predominantly on instrumental goals such as needing English proficiency as a prerequisite for gaining employment in Korea, the desire to establish friendships or communicate with foreigners, and needing proficiency in English to communicate while traveling overseas (Brubacher, 2014). For these reasons, associating CLT's fundamental goal with native-like mastery of English does not appear to be socioculturally appropriate for how and why English is learned in Korea.

Communicative Practices and Korean Learners' Beliefs and Perceptions

In spite of their intensive conditioning through traditional classroom practices heavily oriented towards form-focused instruction (FFI) and knowledge-transmission by the teacher (Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2006), a survey administered by Brubacher (2014) demonstrated that Korean learners have become disillusioned with the traditional approach and instead show significantly stronger belief in the principles and practices associated with CLT. Specifically, they strongly support meaning-based instruction and being given opportunities to engage in authentic English practice, and believe that teachers should incorporate grammar explanations within the flow of communication as opposed to isolated instruction. In addition, although they perceived their English strengths to lie in reading and listening, they perceive spoken English proficiency as being paramount to achieving their previously described language goals. With respect to FFI, Korean learners believe that an EFL classroom should not place an emphasis purely on form. They also discount the notion that learning English is equated with learning grammar rules, and support the necessity of interaction over formal grammar study. Learners do recognize at least some value in FFI, though, in particular, the necessity of teacher-led error correction and for the explanation of grammar rules to come both explicitly and during communication. In terms of communicative practices, therefore, these beliefs and perceptions evince Korean learners strong support for communicative-oriented language pedagogy with some attention paid to FFI.

CLT and the Maintenance of Social Harmony

A fundamental precept of Korean Confucianism, the maintenance of social harmony, is accomplished through the regulation of stable social relationships within overarching social groups (Shim et al., 2008; Yum, 1996). This precept, however, carries the potential to permeate and disrupt the socio-affective temperament of the meaning negotiation process through *chemyeon*, which is akin to "face," during age-asymmetrical communicative interactions and through the value Koreans attribute to silence.

Chemyeon is characterized as the prestige and pride associated with how one is perceived within social groups (Shim et al., 2008), and in communicative EFL classrooms in Korea, threats to learners' *chemyeon* emerge most saliently during anxiety-provoking communicative activities, where mistakes could be perceived by one's peers as a display of ignorance or where learners may feel that they are exhibiting a diminished level of L2 acumen (Hedge, 2000; Kang, 2002). As Koreans believe that "one's inadequacies will result in the loss of union with or expulsion from the group," their tendency to avoid potential *chemyeon*-threatening situations could hinder their willingness to contribute freely to the meaning-negotiation process (Shim et al., 2008, p. 74).

In Korea, social harmony in age-symmetrical relationships is regulated by the shared knowledge that power is balanced, but in age-asymmetrical relationships, social harmony is strictly regulated through conduct and honorific-laden language meant to reinforce the subordinate's unilateral deference to their senior's authority (Sohn, 2006; Yum, 1996). As a consequence for the meaning-negotiation process, younger students interacting communicatively with older students may regard their interactional modifications, such as negative feedback or attempts to restructure, as disregard for their seniors' *chemyeon*, and potentially precipitate a breakdown of the meaning-making dialogue (Naughton, 2006).

The third socio-affective consequence of maintaining social harmony is related to Koreans' belief that silence is a virtue. Embedded in the meaning-negotiation process is an implied requirement for learners to interact, which is typical of most communicative situations in the individualistic West. That is, when people are involved in direct, purposeful conversation, they have a tacit duty bestowed upon them to sustain the flow of verbal communication (Shim et al., 2008). In collectivist Korea, however, greater value is attributed to the subtle power of silence or to quietly contemplating one's answers before responding, with greater understanding emerging from "shared perspective, expectations, and intimacy" (p. 37) as opposed to explicit verbal expression of one's thoughts or feelings (Brubacher, 2014). This perception that "meaning can be sensed and not phrased" (Shim et al., 2008, p. 37) thus presents a conflict with the implied demand to interact, which is a prerequisite of the majority of communicative practices.

Recommended Adaptations to CLT

Informed by this knowledge of Korea's Confucian-based sociocultural sensitivities and Korean learners' reported goals, perceptions, and beliefs, the following adaptations were recommended for aligning CLT with the Korean tertiary EFL sphere (Brubacher, 2014):

- Adapt CLT's fundamental goal of attaining native-like mastery of English into an intelligible and acceptable level of fluency
- Adapt communicative practices to incorporate meaningful reading, social relevance, and spontaneous language play
- Implement communicative activities accumulatively within a Korean tertiary EFL syllabus
- Integrate and balance FFI within a meaning-focused classroom
- Refine group formation practices to consider the dynamics of timing and closeness

Adapt CLT's Goal to Reflect Intelligibility and Acceptability

As mentioned, the predominance of Korean learners' instrumental goals for learning English and their lack of opportunities for authentic communication in English outside their EFL classrooms do not necessitate achievement of native-like mastery of English. It was recommended instead that CLT's fundamental goal of communicative competence be scaled back to approximate Brumfit's (1984) notion of "fluency," which is attained through "fluency activities" that stimulate classroom discourse that is intelligible and acceptable (Stern, 1992), or "as close as possible to that used by competent performers in the mother tongue in real life" (Brumfit, as cited in Hedge, 2000). Some highlights of fluency activities include language focused on meaning with some attention paid to FFI; gaps in information, reasoning, and opinion; learner autonomy in deciding the subject matter of their interactions; and opportunities for the entirety of a leaner's English repertoire to be exploited (Brubacher, 2014). Brumfit's idea of fluency would represent for Korean learners a goal that is consistent both with their instrumentally oriented language goals and with how English functions in the local Korean speech community. Of greater significance for their L2 development, and as the results of this article's qualitative study later attest to, alleviating the burden of having to achieve native-like perfection with language may also contribute to their willingness to

engage in meaning negotiation (Brubacher, 2014).

Integrate Meaningful Reading into Communicative Practices

Integrating opportunities for learners to read for meaning in advance, or as part of, communicative activities coincided with Korean learners' reported strength in reading. In addition, giving intermittent prominence to texts rather than focusing purely on pair or group interaction speaks to the comprehension and translation skills learners attained through their heavily form-focused backgrounds. Such activities would not represent a departure from the tenets of a communicative approach as they still represent a form of communication through the written medium as opposed to the spoken (Fotos, 1998; Thompson, 1996). Furthermore, opportunities for teachers to highlight salient target structures in authentic texts also fits with learners' expressed belief that attention to grammar be given within the framework of communication.

Imbue Communicative Activities with Sociocultural Relevance

In communicative classrooms in the West, ESL teachers typically promote communicative interactions reminiscent of the "real" or "authentic" situations learners could expect to be confronted with outside their classrooms. As Sullivan (2000) points out, though, a learner's conception of what constitutes "real" or "authentic" varies depending on the context. It was recommended, therefore, that EFL teachers at the tertiary level in Korea use their learners' language goals as the starting point for designing communicative activities that are imbued with more socioculturally relevant content (Brubacher, 2014).

Incorporate Spontaneous Language Play into Communicative Activities

Spontaneous, teacher-fronted language play is defined as "verbal play within the social context of the classroom" (Sullivan, 2000, p. 123), and while playful banter of this nature could be perceived as extraneous to the lesson or as the teacher going "off-topic," language play is an important socially mediated activity through which learners can internalize valuable connections between form and meaning (Sullivan, 2000). Integrating occasional teacher-led language play into communicative activities rather than giving sole exclusivity to learner-learner interactions coincides with Korean learner's perceived strength in listening, and was also considered to elicit a sense of familiarity with the teacher-centered EFL pedagogy through which they

had been conditioned (Brubacher, 2014).

Implement Communicative Activities Accumulatively

Early on in a semester when the socio-affective temperament of a class had yet to crystallize, it was recommended that introduction of communicative activities begin with teacher-led activities intended to dissipate language anxiety-inducing threats to learners' *chemyeon*. Throughout the course of a semester, as learners progressively build rapport and cohesiveness, the design of communicative activities should also be evolving into more complex communicative situations such as learner-generated role-plays or activities with information, reasoning, or opinion gaps intended to bring about unpredictability in the discourse. In the final phase of a semester, when classroom relationships have solidified and learners are socio-affectively confident enough to assume increased control and autonomy over the process and outcomes of their own learning, the implementation of communicative activities can then culminate in larger-scale communicative projects of the type presented in this article.

Integrate and Balance FFI Within the Context of Meaning-Based Interaction

Predicated on Korean learners' reported beliefs in the need for grammar to be explained during communication, for explicit grammar instruction, and for teachers to correct learner errors, it was recommended that communicative teachers integrate a focus on form within the flow of learners' meaning-based interactions. This integration can be accomplished through explicit error explanations or corrective feedback that can aid them in making more precise contributions to the dialogue of meaning-making (Brubacher, 2014). It was further recommended that the integration of FFI into communicative interactions be balanced in the form of either recasts or prompts (e.g., metalinguistic feedback, repetition, elicitation, or clarification requests; Lyster, 2004), both of which provide learners with opportunities to acknowledge their "uptake," or receipt, of the feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Recasts were recommended for their unobtrusiveness and their value in mitigating the impact of teacher-initiated error corrections on learners' *chemyeon*, and prompts for their ability to elicit self-modified responses from learners (Brubacher, 2014).

Consider Group Formation in Light of Timing and Closeness

In the formative stages of a tertiary semester in Korea, classrooms are comprised primarily of out-groups as unilateral relationships have yet to solidify. As Shim et al. (2008) point out, the preservation of *chemyeon* during interactions with members of out-groups is easier than with members of in-groups as out-group relationships are bereft of the multiple layers of complexity that accumulate through the evolution of highly stratified in-groups. As such, younger students interacting asymmetrically with seniors early on in a semester may not consider unilateral deference to be an immediate necessity, and may have no difficulty modifying or restructuring asymmetrical communicative interactions. As the semester progresses and more unilaterally regulated in-groups begin to emerge, and as communicative practices begin to expand in complexity, autonomy, and the need for more intimate collaboration, it is at this point that communicative teachers in Korea should consider age and seniority as influential factors in the establishment of interactional compatibility.

Should the proportion of older and younger students in a class prevent formation of groups based exclusively on age-symmetry, a second dynamic recommended for teachers to contemplate was the level of "closeness" existing among particular class members. High value is placed on bonds of closeness that develop between asymmetrically aged Koreans as these bonds function to supersede the perceived power imbalance and negate the obligation to maintain harmony through unilateral deference (Choo, 2006). Therefore, Korean learners known to have close relationships can be safely placed in age-asymmetrical groups without diminishing their willingness to participate in meaning negotiation.

THE I^5 PROJECT: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

To evaluate the efficacy of the adaptations recommended to CLT, this section presents a qualitative study of the communicative I^5 project into which the adaptations have been synthesized (see Appendix for project design). The pedagogic rationale underlying the I^5 project is introduced in the next section followed by a description of the study parameters. The results are then interpreted and discussed with respect to contributions the recommended adaptations make to Korean learners' L2 development.

The Project

Coinciding with the adapted goal of fluency, the I^5 project emphasizes an acceptable and intelligible pattern of natural language interaction within the classroom. Unpredictability in the discourse and opportunities to negotiate meaning arise from knowledge gaps ingrained in each presentation and from the additional materials, objects, or visual aids learners use in demonstrating their subjects. While circulating and facilitating learners' communicative interactions, numerous opportunities also exist for teachers to engage in spontaneous language play with the learning groups.

Social relevance is infused into the I^5 project by encouraging learners to align their subject choices with their interests, majors, or career aspirations. In turn, this alignment provides the impetus for them to actively connect with and contribute to the discussions generated by those subjects. Additionally, elevating learners to the position of "knower" during their respective presentations adds an element of pseudo teacher-centeredness to each group coinciding with the transmission-style environments through which Korean students were conditioned (students even occasionally address presenters as "teacher").

As the I^5 project is autonomous and requires a relatively high degree of socio-affective comfort, it is implemented towards the end of a semester once interpersonal relationships and in-groups have had time to cement. FFI is employed within the flow of the I^5 project through teacher-initiated recasts or prompts, and reflecting metalinguistically on form-meaning relationships in authentic English texts connected with their subjects also helps to facilitate assimilation of new language features and lexical items into learners' L2 repertoires.

To ensure access to a rich diversity of input, I^5 groups are formed under the pretense that each member possesses a subject unique from their fellow members (e.g., science, current events, technology, or media). Group assembly is based on age symmetry wherever possible, or on known bonds of closeness between asymmetrically aged learners in classes with a disproportionate number of elder students.

The Study

To investigate ways in which the recommended adaptations contribute to learners' L2 development, communicative interactions from

two I[5] project groups were videotaped, and the recorded interactions were transcribed and qualitatively analyzed according to the following research questions:

1. **Adapted Goal of CLT** – What effects does the adapted goal of fluency have on Korean learners' willingness to negotiate meaning? That is, to what extent are they contributing to the dialogue of meaning-making by producing negotiation moves and modified output?
2. **Adapted Classroom Practices** – What contributions are made to learners' L2 development by integrating meaningful reading, social relevance, spontaneous language play, and FFI into communicative activities?
3. **Adapted Communicative Teacher's Role** – What contributions are made to learners' L2 development by forming groups according to the dynamics of timing or closeness?

Methods

Seven students participated in this study from various majors and of differing ages taking a Liberal Arts English course at a national university in Korea that met twice a week for seventy-five minutes over a fifteen-week semester. Class size was capped at twenty-five students. Most participants had studied English for at least eight years, but overall, their level of English proficiency was considered to fall within the range of intermediate-low to intermediate-high according to the most current ACTFL proficiency guidelines (2012).

The two I[5] groups comprised a four-person group (F-group) and a triad (T-group) from the same class with a total of six I[5] project groups, and at the time of data gathering, each group had been together for five classes. The F-group and T-group were formed with predominantly age-symmetrical students to ensure a relative balance of power, but due to a disproportionate number of upper-year students in the class, both groups included one older student known to have developed bonds of closeness with the other participants. All participants are referred to in the study by their self-titled nicknames and are described in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. F-group and T-group Participant Descriptions

F-Group	Age	Sex	Major	I[5] Project Subject
Cathy	20	F	Nursing	Nursing and First Aid
Dana	20	F	Astrophysics	Mysteries of the Universe
Yoon	20	M	Civil Engineering	Ancient Weapons
Sawyer	24	M	Environmental Engineering	The Art of Romance
T-Group	Age	Sex	Major	I[5] Project Subject
Deborah	20	F	Nursing	Sign Language
Bo	20	M	Management	Presentation Skills
Sun	26	M	Electrical Engineering	Secrets of Electronics

As a practical measure, the class selected for recording was chosen from among five classes in the same participant population based on that class having the highest overall rate of attendance, thus increasing the likelihood that all participants would be present at the time of recording. To eliminate perceptions of favoritism, all six I[5] groups in the class were recorded, and the F-group and T-group were chosen randomly for participation in this study. Videotaping was used to facilitate ease of transcription and to preserve the natural setting and flow of the I[5] project. The teacher acted as researcher and the recordings were made within the context of the project itself over the course of three scheduled I[5] classes using two cameras that recorded two groups per class. The students were informed in advance of the taping and all agreed to be recorded. Given that I[5] presentations are fifteen minutes long followed by a two-minute break for learners to write down newly learned vocabulary, the F-group was recorded for approximately one hour and ten minutes, and the T-group for approximately fifty minutes.

Results and Interpretation

The results are interpreted and discussed in this section according to the proposed research questions. As elaborate statistical analyses can misrepresent what is occurring at the level of the individual (Foster, 1998), the results are presented simply as numbers and percentages.

Contributions of the Adapted Goal of Fluency: Negotiation Moves

Negotiation of meaning was measured by coding the transcripts for the negotiation moves described in Table 2 (definitions from Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 68, citing Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 123-124; Naughton, 2006; Saville-Troike, 2012).

TABLE 2. Descriptions of Negotiation Moves

Negotiation Moves	Description
Confirmation Checks	The speaker's query as to whether or not the speaker's (expressed) understanding of the interlocutor's meaning is correct.
Clarification Requests	A request for information or help in understanding something the interlocutor has previously said
Comprehension Checks	The speaker's query of the interlocutor(s) to see if they have understood what was said
Sentence Completion	An interlocutor's solicited or unsolicited provision of words or chunks of language to a speaker meant to help that speaker articulate their intended meaning
Follow-up Questions	Questions prompting pushed output from an interlocutor

Instances observed in the video where unvoiced signals of non-understanding (e.g., quizzical glances, blank stares, or shrugs) prompted pushed output were also considered negotiation moves, and negotiation moves eliciting modified output made during the breaks between presentations were also included in the data.

Determining how the adapted goal of fluency contributes to Korean learners' willingness to negotiate meaning was accomplished by calculating negotiation moves produced by and within each group. The results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Distribution and Total Number of Negotiation Moves

F-Group	Negotiation Moves Produced by Each Participant	% of Total Number of Negotiation Moves
Cathy	26	18%
Dana	52	37%
Yoon	26	18%
Sawyer	38	27%
Total	142	-
T-Group	Negotiation Moves Produced by Each Participant	% of Total Number of Negotiation Moves
Deborah	40	36%
Bo	29	26%
Sun	42	38%
Total	111	-

Not surprisingly given the disparity in recording time, the F-group (142) produced more negotiation moves than the T-group (111). Detailed analysis of how those moves are distributed across individual participants reveals that negotiation is shared more or less equally in the T-group, but less equally in the F-group. In particular, Sun (38%) and Deborah (36%) produced the majority of negotiation moves in the T-group with Bo (26%) producing the least. In the F-group, Dana (37%) was the dominant negotiator, with Sawyer (27%) producing roughly a quarter of all negotiation moves, and Cathy (18%) and Yoon (18%) producing the least.

Some researchers could perceive the lesser number of negotiation moves produced by Bo, Cathy, and Yoon as a lack of overt engagement with the meaning-negotiation process. For example, according to claims made by Foster (1998) in the only other known study of negotiated face-to-face interaction among NNS's (non-native speakers) of English, they may have been inadequately motivated to understand the content of the discourse; their understanding of the discourse may have precluded the need for negotiation; or they may have felt comfortable benefitting parasitically from the interactions by having other members generate comprehensible input for them.

That the participants in the present study were acting in accordance with any or all of Fosters' claims is a distinct possibility. Important to

bear in mind, however, is that given the previously described Confucian-based regard Koreans' have for silence as a harmony-preserving strategy, exhibiting restraint in negotiating their interactions could also have been a reflection of the participants' desire to express understanding of the discourse not through overt, verbal expression, but through the greater understanding that meaning can be sensed without having to be phrased.

Despite the participants in this study exhibiting some individual variance in their willingness to produce negotiation moves, the total number of moves produced overall by both groups can be considered significant. Similar to the present study, Foster's (1998) study also investigated the extent to which NNSs produced negotiation moves and modified output during communicative activities within a natural classroom setting. Whereas the participants in her study produced relatively few or no negotiation moves over a number of classes, the groups in this study produced a substantially higher number of negotiation moves during only a single class. While follow-up interviews would have elucidated factors attributable to the participants' increased willingness to negotiate meaning (e.g., topic knowledge, topic interest, or degree of closeness), it is hypothesized that alleviating the burden of having to emulate native-like English competence helps free learners up to engage in meaning-making with less inhibition.

Contributions of the Adapted Goal of Fluency: Modified Output

Modified output was measured by coding the transcripts for incidences where a speaker modified a previous utterance through the modifications described in Table 4 (definitions from Pica et al., 1989, p. 88).

TABLE 4. Descriptions of Modification Types

Modification Type	Description
Semantic Modification	Modifications made through synonym, paraphrase, example, or repetition.
Morphological Modification	Modifications made through simplification of the previous utterance.
Syntactical Modification	Modifications made through elaboration.
Phonological Modification	Modifications made through phonological repair of a previous utterance.

To ascertain how the adapted goal of fluency contributes to learners' willingness to modify their responses to negotiation moves, modified responses were calculated as a percentage of the total number of negotiation moves produced by each group. The results are displayed in Table 5.

TABLE 5. Negotiation Moves Eliciting Modified Output

Group	Total Number of Negotiation Moves	Number of Moves Eliciting Modified Output	Modified Output as % of Total Number of Negotiation Moves
F-group	142	125	88%
T-group	111	97	87%

Table 5 reveals that when prompted by negotiation moves, learners in both groups (F-group 88%, T-group 87%) were highly likely to produce modified responses. If these numbers are again compared with those obtained by Foster (1998), her study revealed that modified responses occurred 20 times out of 87 negotiation moves for a modification rate of only 23%. It appears, therefore, that along with contributing to the conditions for learners to produce negotiation moves, disencumbering them from the need to attain native-like accuracy in English may also play a vital role in increasing the extent to which they are willing to modify their output.

Of further significance are the types of modified responses produced. Phonological modifications were almost never made (F-group 6, T-group 3) and neither group produced any morphological modifications. However, semantic modifications through example and paraphrase (F-group 67, T-group 48) and syntactic modifications through elaboration of previous utterances (F-group 52, T-group 46) were highly common. Production of semantic modifications provides learners with valuable opportunities to practice the target language and enhance their fluency, while manipulating, restructuring, and elaborating the syntax of the target language is integral in helping learners consolidate pre-existing linguistic knowledge, and both generate and internalize newly discovered linguistic knowledge (Swain, 2005). For these reasons, the adapted goal of CLT can not only be said to contribute to learners' willingness to modify output, it can also be said to contribute to the likelihood that they will do so through the type of modifications that are fundamentally important

to their L2 development.

Contributions of Meaningful Reading

Incorporating meaningful reading into the I^5 project contributes to learners' L2 development through a mutually supportive process. Reading authentic English texts related to their subjects serves as the initial means for learners to individually "notice" (Schmidt, 1990) and internalize the linguistic behavior of specific language items. Through subsequent elaboration or metalinguistic descriptions of those language items during their I^5 presentations, each presenter is then able to support their group's learning by increasing the salience of those items, and in turn, expedite the internalization of those items into their group members' linguistic repertoires (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

This supportive process is exemplified in Excerpt 1 below, taken from the T-group while Deborah is explaining the sign denoting a "fluttering" of the heart.

> **Excerpt 1.** *How Meaningful Reading Supports L2 Development*
> **1 Deborah**: And my heart flutters. My heart flutters.
> **2 Sun**: Flutters?
> **3 Deborah**: If you see the some beautiful woman heart is beating
> **4 Sun**: Right
> **5 Deborah**: My heart is flutter. Okay? Heart is where? Do you know?
> **6 Sun/Bo**: Ah...(*point to their chests*)
> **7 Deborah**: At the left side, right? So, please left side...and please fix your hand right here and tap (*taps the inside of her left hand with her right hand*). Tap, quickly. Okay? (*Sun and Bo make the sign*). Because your heart is like this. Stop at the left side and tap. (*Sun and Bo make sign*) Yes. Okay. And with a...very...bright face. Because you feel flutter. Yes. Do you have the experience of flutter?
> **8 Bo**: Ah...um...flutter?
> **9 Deborah**: Yes. I question. I ask.
> **10 Bo**: I don't have that experience.

In Excerpt 1, Deborah's linguistic knowledge of "flutter" was assumed to be either triggered or further supported by reading and reflecting meaningfully on authentic texts for her I^5 presentation. To increase the salience of this language item for her group members, Deborah overtly repeats "flutter" in lines 1 and 7 and elaborates its meaning through metalinguistic description in line 3. If this increased

salience leads to incorporation of "flutter" into the existing language resources of her group members, then Deborah's meaningful engagement with authentic English texts can be said to have successfully supported both her own and their L2 development.

Contributions of Social Relevance

The contributions of incorporating social relevance into the I^5 project emerge most clearly in the language produced as a result of learners' chosen I^5 subjects. By encouraging learners to customize their I^5 subjects according to their interests, majors, and career or travel aspirations, interactions arising during their I^5 project presentations allow them rich, communicative opportunities to generate, practice, and internalize linguistic items directly correlated with those goals.

One example of this correlation can be seen in Excerpt 2, taken from the F-group during Cathy's presentation. Her I^5 subject of "Nursing and First Aid" coincides with her major and was predicated on the goal of being able to communicate more efficiently in English with foreign patients admitted to the university hospital, and on the reality that proficiency in English affords her greater employment advantages in Korea's major hospitals. In Excerpt 2, she is describing some first-aid basics.

> ***Excerpt 2.*** *The Social Relevance of Cathy's I^5 Subject*
> **1 Cathy**: Ok, good. Today is we learn first aid. First aid is try relax. Try relax. Loosen tight clothes. Tight clothes loose! And...take medicine.
> **2 Dana**: Medicine?
> **3 Sawyer**: Do you take medicine?
> **4 Cathy**: No! Doctor is give...
> **5 Dana**: Ha ha.
> **6 Cathy**: Pain will subside. Three minutes.
> **7 Sawyer**: Subside?
> **8 Cathy**: Within three minutes. If we medicine take...medicine take, three minutes subside. If you don't, see a doctor. Okay? Okay!
> **9 Dana**: What if my heart is stop?
> **10 Cathy**: Ah. CPR. Give artificial respiration if required. We learn CPR so CPR. Give CPR.

A second example of the correlation between learners' I^5 subject choices and their language goals can be seen in Excerpt 3, taken from the T-group during Sun's presentation. Like Cathy, Sun's I^5 subject, "Secrets of Electronics," also coincides with his major in electrical

engineering, but the impetus for his choice was based more on frequent participation in international electronics competitions, where ability to communicate in English with representatives of foreign electronics companies increases his potential for future employment abroad. In Excerpt 3, Sun is using a multi-functional voltmeter to explain how to probe a circuit for current strength.

> **Excerpt 3.** *The Social Relevance of Sun's I[5] Subject*
> **1 Sun**: So...questions! If you want to check the voltage which circuit is needed to make the connect? I'll show you. This is a "probe." It's a "probe."
> **2 Deborah:** Okay.
> **3 Sun**: This is "probe" so because it's a picture right here and then "com" means the ground...ah...I mean it's like a reference signal...it means ground like a...ground. So always black one to "com." That's it. And then this is confusing things...the ampere and voltage in here but I said ampere is not most useful so always like this. That's better. So, if you put the circuit like this you can't get continuity. Next time I will use the continuity.
> **4 Deborah**: Is it dangerous?
> **5 Sun**: No.
> **6 Deborah**: Because the electricity explodes.
> **7 Sun:** Yeah. I know that but actually it's really, really small so even that the ground has a flow in your hands there's no any danger.

As seen in both these excerpts, allowing learners to align their I[5] subject choices with their individual perceptions of relevancy can induce communicative interactions that not only contribute to the development of their L2, but also promote interactions that serve as initial or continuing steps towards their future language goals.

Contributions of Spontaneous Language Play

There were seven occurrences of language play between the teacher and the F-group, and two occurrences with the T-group. As discussed, playful language exchanges occurring within the social context of the classroom function as valuable tools for learners to make meaningful connections with and internalize the linguistic structures of language (Sullivan, 2000). Excerpt 4 shows an example from the T-group where the teacher jokes with Sun regarding an apology he makes. The joke is in reference to a previous presentation made by Bo in which he stressed

to his group that good presenters never apologize for boring content as it diminishes the impact of their message.

> **Excerpt 4.** *Language Play in the T-group*
> **1 Sun**: Okay! So today we learning about checking the signal. I tell you the basics. So this is the items. It is the item to check the signal and it's like a boring time I'm sorry!
> **2 Teacher**: Bo. He made one mistake with his presentation.
> **3 Sun:** What is it?
> **4 Teacher**: He said, "I'm sorry."
> **5 Sun**: I'm sorry.
> **6 Bo**: Ah!
> **7 Sun:** Ah! I forgot don't say sorry!
> **8 Teacher**: Don't say sorry. Ha ha. You should say it is VERY exciting!
> **9 Sun:** I don't care about the boring time! It's EXCITING! Yeah! Presentation!
> **10 Deborah:** Ha ha.
> **11 Bo**: Ha ha.

After Bo and Sun display recognition of the joke's origin in lines 6 and 7, the teacher explicitly reminds Sun of his mistake in line 8 and embellishes the joke slightly further. Demonstrating his having understood the form-meaning connection of the joke, Sun elaborates on the teacher's embellishment in line 9, and the exchange concludes with Deborah and Bo indicating through appropriately-timed laughter that they had also been jointly attuned to the flow of the banter. The learners in this exchange are not exhibiting passive responses to the teacher's playfulness; they are contributing to their L2 development by mutually engaging with it and making connections between its meaning and form.

Contributions of Taking a Balanced Approach with FFI

Teacher-initiated FFI was measured by assessing the transcripts for occurrences of recasts and prompts. The results are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6. Results for Recasts and Prompts

Group	Recasts	Prompts	Total
F-Group	8	3	11
T-Group	0	2	2

There were 8 recasts and 3 prompts made by the teacher in the F-group, and 0 recasts and 2 prompts made in the T-group. Evinced by these results, a balanced approach between recasts and prompts was not achieved. The lack of balance was attributed to the shorter recording time overall for the T-group and to the recordings being done within the natural flow of the I^5 project. That is, attending to all the I^5 groups in the class may have detracted from the teacher's availability to administer balanced measures of FFI to these two particular groups.

Making at least some contributions to learners' L2 development, of the 8 recasts made in the F-group, participants demonstrated uptake of the feedback 5 times, and of the prompts made in both groups, participants demonstrated uptake every time. Despite the positive results concerning uptake, further study is necessary to determine how recasts and prompts can be effectively and evenly integrated into communicative activities focused predominantly on meaning.

Contributions of the Adapted Group Formation Practices

As mentioned, both groups were formed with one older student known to have developed close relationships with the other participants: Sawyer (24) in the F-group and Sun (26) in the T-group. To evaluate whether forming groups based on bonds of closeness functions to supersede younger Korean learners' reluctance to negotiate meaning with their elders, the average number of negotiation moves produced by the younger participants *before* their elders' presentations was compared with the number of negotiation moves they produced *during* their elders' presentations. The results are shown in Table 7.

Both Sawyer and Sun were the final members of their I^5 groups to give their presentations. Before Sawyer's presentation in the F-group, the results in Table 7 reveal that Dana was averaging 12 negotiation moves per presentation while Cathy and Yoon were averaging 7.6 and 6, respectively. During Sawyer's presentation, both Cathy and Yoon reduced their production of negotiation moves to 3 and 4, respectively, while Dana increased hers to 16. Before Sun's presentation in the T-group, Table 7 reveals that Deborah was averaging 15 negotiation moves per presentation while Bo was averaging slightly less with 10. During Sun's presentation, Deborah reduces her production of negotiation moves to 10 while Bo relatively maintains his average production of moves with 9.

TABLE 7. Comparison of Negotiation Moves Produced by the Younger Participants Before and During Their Elders' Presentations

F-Group	Age	Average Number of Negotiation Moves Produced Before Sawyer's Presentation	Number of Negotiation Moves Produced During Sawyer's Presentation
Cathy	20	7.6	3
Dana	20	12	16
Yoon	20	6	4
Sawyer	24	12	2

T-Group	Age	Average Number of Negotiation Moves Produced Before Sun's Presentation	Number of Negotiation Moves Produced During Sun's Presentation
Deborah	20	15	10
Bo	20	10	9
Sun	26	19	4

On the surface, these results appear to suggest that Cathy, Yoon, and Deborah exhibited some reluctance to negotiate meaning with their elders. Upon examination of both groups' transcripts, however, it was discovered that Sawyer showed a short video as part of his presentation during which his group refrained from negotiating meaning. In addition, both he and Sun frequently produced long and complex utterances that reduced the other participants' opportunities to produce negotiation moves. As this discovery indicates the absence of any significant differences between the younger participants' negotiation moves made before and during their elders' presentations, it can be said that forming groups in light of closeness helps to supersede younger learners' reluctance to negotiate meaning with their elders.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has used the context of the communicative I[5] project to qualitatively evaluate how the recommended adaptations to CLT contribute to Korean learners' L2 development. Findings from the study reveal the following:

- The adapted goal of fluency is hypothesized to increase learners' willingness to contribute to the dialogue of meaning-making as seen in their production of negotiation moves and modified output;
- Engaging meaningfully with authentic texts acts as a way for learners to support both their own and their interlocutors' learning;
- Imbuing communicative activities with social relevance allows learners to bring the content of their interactions in line with their future language goals;
- Integrating opportunities for learners to mutually engage in spontaneous language play with their teacher makes them more conscious of form-meaning connections;
- Recasts and prompts have led to some learner uptake, but further study is needed regarding how to attain balance between them;
- Adapting group formation to consider bonds of closeness aids in superseding younger learners' reluctance to negotiate meaning with their elder interlocutors.

In terms of limitations, the presence of a video camera or the fact that the recording was made at the request of a teacher may have altered or inhibited the participants' behavior or speech during their interactions. Further study is also needed to determine the effects of task type and evaluation on learners' willingness to negotiate meaning, and due to the small size and limited scope of this study, it is important to be explicitly cautious about assuming that its results can be extrapolated for all Korean tertiary EFL environments. What can be taken from this study, though, is the awareness that contextual constraints arising from the subtleties ingrained in EFL environments can invariably be superseded through continued innovation and adaptation, and by remaining cognizant of how the unique needs and beliefs of learners in those environments can impact what is culturally viable and socially relevant in local L2 classrooms.

THE AUTHOR

Conrad Brubacher is head of the visiting EFL professors department at Chungnam National University in Daejeon, South Korea. He received an MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Birmingham and his research interests are centered on ways in which ELT approaches can be adapted and

applied to sociocultural subtleties inherent in the Korean EFL landscape. Email: conrad@cnu.ac.kr

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APPENDIX

The I^5 Project

The Basics

Subject: Communicative English language project
English Proficiency: Appropriate for intermediate to advanced level university students.
Time: Completion over a span of six 1-hour, 15-min. classes is optimal but can be stretched to 8 classes or reduced to 4 classes if deemed necessary by the teacher. Ideally implemented towards the end of a semester after students have become familiar with one another, thus reducing their affective filters.
Objectives: For students to interact in presenting, discussing, and sharing information in English for authentic, spontaneous, and meaningful communicative purposes.
Prior Knowledge: Students can use whatever language or linguistic knowledge they currently possess or acquire while preparing for the project.
Materials: To be determined by the students.

The Project

Language learning can be incredibly difficult and boring if you are always forced to learn solely what the teacher tells you to learn, but if you were studying something that you were interested in, such as a sport, activity, or current issue, then you might be able to enjoy your own learning. The I^5 project is intended to allow you to customize your learning according to your own goals for learning English or just something that you are interested in. So…what does I^5 mean? It means:

- <u>I</u>nteresting
- <u>I</u>ndependent
- <u>I</u>nterdependent
- <u>I</u>nteractive
- <u>I</u>nnovative

First of all, each student will choose a subject. Your subject can be anything that you are interested in. After each student decides their subject, your teacher will divide the class into groups of four members, with each group member having a different subject. The I^5 project will be for 6 classes, and your groups will not change. Each class, you will do a 15-minute presentation in which you will teach your group members about one "part" of your subject, and each class you will also hear three other 15-minute presentations from your group members about one part of their

subjects. You are responsible for teaching your group about your subject, explaining new vocabulary, and asking/answering questions to create interest in your subject. Your teacher will give you some examples of possible subjects, but when you are thinking about what subject to choose, you should consider 6 important points:

- Am I interested in this subject?
- Can I break this subject into six teachable parts?
- Can I teach this subject in a way that my group members will enjoy?
- Is this subject connected to my life outside the classroom?
- When I research this subject, can I find sufficient information about it in English?
- Will this subject create discussion between my group members and me?

The Research

Research for this project can be done using any media source you like, but your research should be done using information from English sources so that you are using genuine, authentic language in your presentations. If you use sources written in Korean, translating into English is very difficult and time-consuming, and using translation websites is unreliable because the grammar and vocabulary is often unnatural.

The Presentations

At the start of each presentation, you should prepare 2 questions to ask your group members. These questions should be connected to your presentation for that day, and the questions should be designed to get your group members thinking about what you are going to talk about that day. After your group members all have a chance to answer the questions, you should begin your presentation.

When you do your presentation you should use teaching points, visual aids, and equipment. Examples of teaching points, visual aids, and equipment are power-point presentations, videos, pictures, drawings, charts, or any equipment you need (e.g., a yoga mat or snowboard). You can also use a laptop computer, a tablet, or your smartphone to show videos or pictures. These teaching points should help you to demonstrate, show, and explain your subject so your group members can understand it more clearly. The important thing is that you are NOT READING from your teaching points. You should prepare your presentation before the class so you don't have to read. Preparing a short script that is written using language from your English sources is a good idea, but remember that the script should

be something used to HELP you, not something that you read from entirely.

Your presentation time should include time for discussion between you and your group members, or if your subject is one that includes physical activity or movement, your group members should also have time to do the activity or movement. For example, if your subject is photography, your group members should have a chance to hold the camera and practice the photography technique you are teaching that class. During this time, you will act like a coach and help your group members to do the activity successfully. Your teacher will tell you when 15 minutes are finished; so, if you get done early, you can do a quick review quiz about your subject to see what your group members learned that day.

After your 15-minute presentation is finished, your group will have two minutes of review time when you can write down any new vocabulary you learned or expressions you think are important to know. You are NOT required to write down ALL the new vocabulary or expressions you learn, just choose words or expressions that you think are important FOR YOU. Your teacher will give you a paper for writing down new vocabulary. After the review time is finished, the next group member will stand up and begin his or her presentation.

Evaluation

You will be evaluated each class according to five categories:

1. Did you prepare questions/vocabulary to get your group thinking about your subject? /5
2. Did you prepare teaching points, visual aids, and/or equipment to demonstrate your subject? /5
3. Are you demonstrating/explaining/showing your subject or reading from your prepared materials? /5
4. Are you making an effort to speak English? /5
5. Are you participating in your group members' presentations (e.g., asking/answering questions) /5

So, each class you will have a score out of 25, and after 6 classes you will have a total score out of 150. The I^5 project is worth 20% of your total grade. There is no final evaluation for the I^5 project! You will be evaluated on the process of the project and not on the outcome. You will have to do some work when you prepare each presentation, but you should relax and just enjoy speaking English and learning about a variety of different and interesting subjects. Remember that a 15-minute presentation might seem like a long time, but you are not talking for the entire 15 minutes. Your group members will be participating in your subject discussion, so the time will go very quickly. I hope you enjoy the I^5 project!

The Effect of Music on Language Acquisition Among Adult English Foreign Language Learners

Nathan Galster
Kyungpook National University, Daegu, Korea

This study was conducted with freshman university students in Korea to determine if using popular music with adults in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom is a viable and helpful technique for educators in assisting second language acquisition. The current literature has shown that music can have a positive effect on the classroom environment. Previous studies have also demonstrated a link between music, memory, and retention. The goal of this study was to determine if using music as a means for learning specific language concepts is effective for adult learners. The study used various musical and non-musical methods with three test groups followed by a post-test to measure retention of specific grammar usage. The results showed that methods incorporating some level of music as a means for learning were successful in increasing understanding and retention of the target language. This study hopes to provide an example of viable alternatives to traditional second language learning.

INTRODUCTION

Music is an important part of human culture. It has been used as a way to narrate stories, share information, and entertain. Music "is a type of human creative activity that is closely tied to the general history of mankind, reflects the progress of social ideas, and effectively participates in this progress" (Belaiev, 1965, p. 21). As a part of that progress, it has also been utilized as a tool for learning. Music has been employed as an educational tool for children at a young age in English-speaking contexts for some time. Songs such as *The ABCs* are specifically designed for teaching children the alphabet based on the tune of *Twinkle,*

Twinkle, Little Star. The melodies and rhyming words found in most songs may have a powerful impact on language learning. Most English-speaking children are exposed to nursery rhymes and rhyming songs at an early age (Maclean, Bryant, & Bradley, 1987). Understanding the concept of rhyme could be an important experience for young children because the ability to recognize and produce rhymes demonstrates an understanding of and ability with phonological skills (Maclean, Bryant, & Bradley, 1987). Many studies, some of which will be mentioned later, have highlighted the benefit of using music as a learning tool, specifically with children and young learners, but can music be employed as a viable method for language acquisition in adult English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners?

The endeavor to learn English as a second language is one shared by adults around the world. According the National Center for Education Statistics (2013), in the U.S. alone, there were 838,581 adult learners participating in state-administered English as a second language programs in 2010. This number is most likely greater when taking into account informal and non-formal learning platforms through which many adults choose to learn. With the popularity of English language academies, private tutoring, and study groups focused on learning English as a second language around the world, gauging the exact number of English language learners around the world is difficult. However, Graddol (2006) states that there has already been a massive increase in the number of people learning English, which is likely to reach a peak of around 2 billion in the next 10–15 years. Adult learners choose to improve their quality of life or afford themselves greater opportunities by learning to use and communicate in the English language. Acquiring a second language indelibly comes with challenges. Educators are continuously searching for new and better ways to improve the language learning process. They seek the best practices to improve the learning experience for both students and educators. There is a recent trend in adult English language education to humanize the learning process and to facilitate students' learning in context by connecting the learning content to their lives outside the classroom (Larotta, 2010). How can educators assist adult English language learners to acquire the English language in the most efficient and accessible way? The answer may lie in music. Changing the method of teaching from using spoken or read texts to utilizing musically based material would provide students with the opportunity to practice and learn a second language through

entertaining and culturally rich songs (Salcedo, 2010, p. 20). Music presents several other possible benefits as a means for language learning in the English language classroom.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of music as a means for language acquisition may be a powerful tool. Examining the relative effectiveness of songs and lyrics could provide a better understanding of the use of songs in the teaching of language, helping English language educators to find more appropriate, interesting, and authentic English teaching materials (Li & Brand, 2009).

In reviewing the current literature related to this topic, several important factors or key points emerge. Numerous studies highlight the contention that music has an effect on the classroom environment. There are many other studies available that argue the ability of music to affect memory and text recall. There are also studies that exist within the literature that discuss the effectiveness of using music for learning a second or foreign language, specifically in children. There are few studies discussing the use of music as a learning tool for adult language learners.

Music and the Classroom Environment

Music has the potential to make the classroom learning process not only more comfortable and enjoyable but can also provide students with a method to connect learning to real world situations. Paquette and Rieg (2008) contend that music can create positive learning environments in classrooms, where students thrive academically, socially, and emotionally. "Despite a teacher's level of aesthetic appreciation and musical training, the value of fostering creativity and enhancing literacy instruction through music is vital in today's diverse early childhood classrooms" (Paquette & Rieg, 2008, p. 227). Larotta, however, (2010) cites Krashen (2003), stating that language is "learned" through a conscious process by studying. They also point out another key factor of language acquisition: Language is often acquired through spontaneous communication within daily life interactions and real-world situations such as interacting with neighbors, going shopping, listening to music, watching movies, or

reading for personal enjoyment. Utilizing an everyday cultural experience such as listening to music may improve and/or make more comfortable the learning environment for the language learner. Music also assists in exposing English language learners to other cultures. Li and Brand (2009) note that English language study should also encourage learners to successfully interact with people from other cultural backgrounds.

Music, Memory, and Text Recall

Music is also thought to have an impact on memory and text recall. There is a common and widespread belief that learning and remembering information can be enhanced by setting the information to music (Rainey & Larsen, 2002). Rainey and Larsen state that a common support of this phenomenon is that individuals are able to remember the lyrics of a song as adults that they listened to repeatedly at a younger age even if they have not heard the song lyrics in many years. However, Rainey and Larsen's study did not find conclusive results that music actually improved learning or recall. Participants in their experiment did not learn the material faster using music although there appeared to be some evidence that music had a positive effect on longer-term recall. They stated that the familiar melody used in their studies may have served as a retrieval cue for the lyrics when participants returned a week later for a second learning session.

In another study, Wallace (1994) also states that it does appear that music, specifically melody, does have an impact on text recall. Perhaps it is because text and melody in combination may make a memory more unique or more connected and therefore more easily accessible. It could also be that sheer repetition of example songs establishes a strong, stable memory (Wallace, 1994). Wallace cites prior studies by Bartlett and Snelus (1980) and Rubin (1977) that support the idea that melody has a positive effect on recall but notes that these studies used songs that had been previously well rehearsed so that there was sufficient opportunity to learn the melody and text. Wallace's study yielded results that support the position that music can improve text recall. The melody of a song can indeed make a text easier to remember when compared with hearing the text out of the context of the melody. This phenomenon seems more effective when the melody is simple and easy to learn (Wallace, 1994).

Thaut, Peterson, Sena, and Mcintosh (2008) also contend that music

has the ability to increase memory and retention of language. Their study found that, in patients with multiple sclerosis, music can improve word-order memory and suggests that there is also a therapeutic potential of musical study in verbal learning and memory. This impact on memory also appears to be beneficial for English language learners. Ludke, Ferreira, and Overy (2014) showed in their study that a listen-and-repeat singing method using simple, previously unknown melodies can provide a significant memory benefit for foreign language learning, both immediately and 20 minutes after instruction.

Music and Second Language Learning

Music appears to have a positive impact on both the classroom environment and text recall. Can music be used as a tool by educators for practical and useable language acquisition, specifically a second language? "Music, as a means of learning, provides structure, rhythms, and patterns of sound, as well as opportunities for the use of analytical and reflective skills. These processes are similar to those required for learning language" (Bygrave, 1995, p. 28). One of the first challenges of acquiring a new language is segmenting speech into words (Schon, Boyer, Moreno, Besson, Peretz, & Kolinsky, 2007). Music may be a means to overcome this and many other challenges related to English language learning. Music can provide an alternative method for learners to recognize and identify separate syllables, intonation, and specific vocabulary. Other research suggests that music does have properties that may be useful for language learning. Schon et al. (2007) mentions several ways in which songs may contribute to language acquisition. First, the emotional aspects of a song may increase the level of engagement, interest, and attention for learners. Additionally, from a perceptual point of view, the presence of pitch contours in musical lyrics may enhance the ability to discriminate phonology, since syllable change is often accompanied by a change in pitch. Finally, the consistent mapping of musical linguistic structure may be optimal for assisting language learners to operate learning mechanisms (Schon, et al., 2007).

Bygrave (1995) conducted a study in which children identified as having learning difficulties were placed into two separate learning programs: a music program and a storytelling program. The study produced data that indicated improved receptive vocabulary skills for students who participated in the music program.

Other studies with children and young learners have shown that music is useful in facilitating language learning. In a study involving children learning French, Jarvis (2013) found substantial evidence to support the benefit of employing song and rhyme in the foundation stage of language learning, particularly in terms of children's speaking and listening proficiency, motivation, and enjoyment. The study noted that although song and rhyme were used here for the acquisition of the mother tongue, they could also be effective in second language learning.

Many other studies promote the idea that music and songs can be an effective means for language acquisition. Salcedo (2010) states that introducing songs in the classroom may aid in the text retention, while producing an involuntary, internal mental repetition that may stimulate language acquisition. Murphey (1992) studied the use of pop songs in teaching English to speakers of other languages. He concluded that pop songs offer short, affective, and simple native texts with a wealth of familiar vocabulary that can be recycled. He added that pop songs may be too vague. However, their vague references allow learners to fill in their own content and allow teachers to use them with a variety of methodologies and for a variety of reasons.

Music and the Adult EFL Learner

There are limited studies available that address how music affects learning in adult EFL learners. The subjects involved in Salcedo's (2010) study had a mean age of 22. Two test groups learning Spanish as a second language were tested on text recall and delayed (long-term memory) text recall: one through song and the other through spoken recordings. The study found that there was a significant increase of text recall when learning through song, but the results varied depending on the song. Additionally the findings showed no difference in delayed text recall between the two groups.

Another study of particular interest (Li & Brand, 2009) addresses the use of music for English language learning with university students in mainland China. The study states that many EFL teachers report success in using music as a tool with EFL students but highlights a lack of empirical evidence concerning music's effectiveness as a language-learning tool. The results of their study appear to show that, overall, music has a positive effect both on test scores, both immediately following treatment and delayed (three weeks) after treatment, and on

attitudes towards learning English. However, they found that instruction containing no music was more effective than instruction using a mix of music and no music.

The majority of the research related to this topic that is currently available is focused on children and young EFL learners. Moreover, there appears to be little information regarding South Korean learners. Additionally, some previous studies seem to yield inconclusive, or even conflicting, data and results. In order to address these issues and promote more effective teaching methods within adult EFL classrooms, the following study was developed.

METHODS

Statement of Purpose and Research Question

The aim of this study is to obtain information on the effectiveness of utilizing music as a tool for language acquisition in adult learners in South Korea. Can adult EFL learners acquire practical and useable vocabulary and language using music as a means for learning? This study will attempt to determine if music, as a learning tool, can efficiently assist a language learner enrolled in a national university in Korea in developing a better understanding of the English language and retaining relevant vocabulary and grammar that can be used for practical communication. This research will attempt to address the following question:

> How effective is music as a learning tool in assisting young adult South Korean EFL learners in acquiring and retaining a practical use of the English language?

Design

This study followed a quasi-experimental quantitative research design. The study attempted to identify the effect or influence that a method of instruction, the independent variable, had on learning, the dependent variable (Creswell, 2012). By utilizing a between group comparison of post-instruction test scores, the quantitative method was chosen in hopes of yielding the most clear data to determine if a

cause-effect relationship exists between music and language learning. This study was quasi-experimental rather than experimental (Creswell, 2012) because the participants were already enrolled in a university English course and could not be randomly distributed into test groups as it would have disrupted the already scheduled learning in that course. The quasi-experimental design was chosen as the best method to test whether there were any measurable differences between three separate methods of instruction.

Participants

The participants of this study were university students, enrolled in the Freshman English 1 credit course at Kyungpook National University in Daegu, Korea. Permission to conduct this research experiment was given by the program director of the Freshman English 1 program. The program director advised the author that no consent was required from Kyungpook National University to conduct this research. The test groups were made up of existing Freshman English 1 classes. This quasi-experimental assignment was chosen as randomly assigning students to test groups would disrupt classroom learning (Creswell, 2012). The assignment of each group to a different method of instruction was done randomly. All participants were advised in both Korean and English prior to conducting the experiment that participation in this study was completely voluntary and choosing not to participate would not negatively affect their grade in Freshman English 1 or them in any way.

Procedure

This study involved a total of nine classroom groups divided equally into three test groups. Each group was randomly assigned using a random numbers table to one of three methods of instruction. Thus, each method of instruction was administered to three classroom groups. A fourth test group emerged during the research process. Ten students who were absent during the instruction phase of the research were administered the post-instruction test without receiving any instruction whatsoever of the target language.

The first test group was exposed to a predetermined language skill (verb tenses) using music as the primary means of learning. Three songs,

In My Life by the Beatles (Lennon & McCartney, 1965), *I Still Haven't Found What I'm Looking For* by U2 (Bono & U2, 1987), and *Have You Ever Seen the Rain?* by Creedence Clearwater Revival (Fogerty, 1970) were used to expose students to different verb tenses. They listened to the songs and were provided with the lyrics to the song in which they filled in missing verb tenses (Appendix A). The first group listened to each song twice. The second test group utilized a combination of both musical exposure using the same three songs as the first test group as well as instructor-facilitated study and practice of the target language (verb tenses). They were provided with the same lyric worksheets (Appendix A) as well as activity worksheets to supplement the instructor-led facilitation (Appendix B). The second group listened to each song once. The third test group studied the same predetermined language skill (verb tenses) using a non-musical method of instruction. No music was used, and instructor-facilitated activities were done in order to practice the target language. They were provided with the same non-musical activity worksheets (Appendix B) as the second group. The instruction methods as well as the post-test were administered to all three test groups by the author, who was their assigned Freshman English 1 instructor at the time. All three test groups were taught identical language content: verb tenses. The instruction period consisted of 30 minutes within a 50-minute regularly scheduled class. Each test group was given the same amount of instruction and in-class practice time. All subjects were asked not to engage in extra study time outside of the class. A post-instruction test consisting of 10 questions (Appendix C) was administered in the next regularly scheduled class. The same multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank, and short-answer quiz was administered to all test groups in order to assess their retention and understanding of the target language (verb tenses).

The decision was made by the author not to administer a pre-test prior to the instruction methods in order to reduce the threats of testing, instrumentation, and regression (Creswell, 2012). The students who participated in this study already had a relatively high perceived level of English and had previously demonstrated to the author an ability to learn and apply other language structures quickly. Thus, administering a pre-test may have provided them with enough prior knowledge to significantly affect the results of the post-test, making the post-test results difficult to attribute only to the instruction methods given by the author/instructor.

RESULTS

Participant Demographics

The 10-question post-test was administered to a total of N = 155 students. Male students accounted for 58.7% (n = 91) of the total participant sample, while 40.7% (n = 63) of participants were female. Gender information was not provided by n = 1 participant (0.6% of the sample). The mean age of all participants was 20.28. Three independent classes comprised each of three test groups, a total of nine classes with an average of 16.1 students per class participating. Demographic details of each test group can be found in Appendix D (Test Group 1, Test Group 2, and Test Group 3). There were no significant differences in individual test group demographics. All test group demographics fell close to the full sample averages reported above with the exception of Test Group 1 in which the number of males (76.4%) to females (23.6%) in the classes was slightly higher. A fourth test group was added later to this study and consisted of 10 students who were not present on the class day in which the instruction portion of the research was conducted, but were present on the day in which the post-test was administered. These students completed the post-test without any instruction in the target language.

Data Analysis

Differences were observed in the mean scores of each test group. The independent variables were the three methods of instruction (music exposure only, music exposure and teacher instruction, and teacher instruction only, and no instruction in the additional fourth test group); the dependent variable was the score on the verb tenses post-test. Analysis of the test scores for each group showed the highest mean score for the test group who received both music exposure and teacher-facilitated instruction. The group who received teacher-facilitated instruction also scored higher than the music exposure-only group. The lowest mean score was seen in the group with no music treatment or instruction administered. Table 1 summarizes the results of the post-test scores for each test group.

TABLE 1. Summary of Post-Test Scores by Group

Test Group	Total Mean Score	Class	Mean Score	Class	Mean Score	Class	Mean Score
Test Group 1. Music Exposure Only	6.93	1	6.59	2	6.71	3	7.38
Test Group 2. Music and Instruction	7.66	1	7.86	2	7.94	3	7.19
Test Group 3. Instruction Only	7.28	1	6.60	2	7.73	3	7.28
Test Group 4. No Music or Instruction	5.55	-	-	-	-	-	-

DISCUSSION

Using a quasi-experimental approach, this study set out to determine if music can be used as a learning tool for language acquisition with adult EFL learners. Other studies, referenced in the literature review, have purported the usefulness of music to assist in memory and text recall (Wallace, 1994) as well as to improve the atmosphere of the classroom (Paquette & Rieg, 2008). Music is used and often applauded by teachers in EFL classes (Schon, et al., 2007). The question of music's actual effectiveness in assisting language acquisition for adult learners continues to be a topic of discussion.

Based on the results of the post-test administered to all test groups, music does appear to have some effect on language learning in adult EFL learners. Although not drastically different, various methods of instruction utilizing music showed measureable differences in regards to target language retention. The instruction method that yielded the highest score on the post-test was the test group that received a combination of both music exposure and teacher-facilitated instruction. It is interesting to note however, that music exposure-only yielded a lower result in post-test scores than teacher-led instruction utilizing no music at all. It should be noted that the music exposure-only group was given almost no explanation or instruction at all. The participants were simply asked to listen to songs and fill in missing verb tenses. They were told only to pay attention to the verb tenses. Thus, mere music exposure with little direction or guidance from an instructor is not as effective in assisting

language learning, according to the results of this study. Not surprisingly, the fourth test group that received no instruction or music therapy at all scored the lowest on the post-test. The main finding from this study is that music along with instructor-facilitated guidance and instruction can be more effective than instruction without music in helping adult EFL students in acquiring and retaining a target language.

So, why is music effective in helping students to retain information? One study (Salcedo, 2010) proposes the theory of melody-text integration, meaning that the melody and the text of songs are learned together as one integral unit. According to this theory, the song is stored in memory as one unit, and the melody will serve as a memory trigger for the text. As noted earlier, many researchers and educators cite music's ability to enhance the enjoyment of learning for students. Jarvis (2013) states that second language learning should be made as enjoyable and motivating as possible. Music has the power to do this. The enjoyment of singing and listening to music can enhance language skills (Jarvis, 2013).

The results of this research study are in accordance with some aspects of other studies mentioned in the literature review involving adult language learners. Li and Brand (2009) also found in a study using varying degrees of music in adult EFL instruction that test groups that received more music and song exposure produced higher post-test scores. Additionally, Ludke, et al. (2014) found that singing as a learning condition was more effective than speaking or rhythmic speaking for adult participants in their study.

However, there were some notable differences when comparing the results of this study to others. Li and Brand (2009) also found that variety in instruction method yielded different results in achievement scores. Yet, their study noted that the most effective method of instruction was purely musical and that instruction with no music at all was more effective than mixing musical and non-musical instruction. The researchers concluded that using music intensively rather than intermittently is more effective (Li & Brand 2009). This study found that the method of instruction that yielded the highest retention was a mixture of both musical and non-musical instruction. These conflicting results call for further and more rigorous research of this topic.

It may also be important to note the difference in time between instruction and administering the post-test to each test group (Table 2). Two classes in Test Group 2 had a longer gap between the instruction

and completing the post-test due to a scheduling issue. Yet, Test Group 2 produced the highest overall score on the post-test. Several questions arise from this. Is music more effective in long-term recall? Would the scores of these two classes have been higher had they been administered the post-test one scheduled class following the instruction as were all of the other classes? Does producing the highest overall score, despite having the longest overall gap between instruction and post-test further, support the finding that music has an effect on language learning? Also note that Test Group 3 produced the next highest score, yet had the shortest overall time gap between instruction and post-test. Another study (Salcedo, 2010) noted that music may be more effective for shorter-term memory. The study found very little difference in long-term memory and delayed recall of learned material between test groups. This indicated that neither musical instruction nor text instruction assisted the students in retaining the information long enough to be stored in long-term memory. This suggests that a longer period of instruction may be necessary for a significant effect of music on retention to show up.

TABLE 2. Number of Days Between Instruction and Post-test

Test Group	Class	Days	Class	Days	Class	Days
Test Group 1 Music Exposure Only	1	5	2	5	3	5
Test Group 2 Music and Instruction	1	3	2	7	3	7
Test Group 3 Instruction Only	1	3	2	3	3	5

One other consideration was noted by the author. Test Group 1 had a higher ratio of males (76.4%) to females (23.6%) than the overall average as well as the ratios in all the other test groups. Aside from the fourth test group (no instruction) added later in the study, Test Group 1 produced the lowest mean score on the post-test. It may be possible that the male to female ratio had an effect on the mean score of this group. The author has noted in previous experiences in the English language program at this university that females enrolled in the course, in general, tend to be more motivated and receive higher final scores. This is not supported by any research or evidence and is only an observation and a generalization. However, it may raise another question

for further study: Are males and females affected differently by music as a means for language learning?

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are several limitations to this research study. The differences in time between instruction and administering of the post-test may call into question the accuracy of the overall results. Additionally, the quasi-experimental design is not as rigorous as a true experimental design with more threats to internal validity (Creswell, 2012). Additionally, the data collection tool (post-test) for this research was created by the author and may put the validity of the results into question. Using an already established and proven data collection tool, utilizing a completely random assignment of participants to test groups, and ensuring more control and standardization of time between instruction and post-test could lead to a more rigorous and stronger study.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has examined the effect of music on language acquisition for adult EFL learners. Although the results are not significant, they are measureable and do show that music, when paired with instructor-led facilitation, can be more effective than instruction without the aid of music in helping adult EFL learners in Korea to acquire and retain a target language. This study contributes to prior research by providing information on the effectiveness of music as a learning tool in the adult English as a Foreign Language classroom. It also offers a representation of Korean adult EFL learners and how music can be useful for them in acquiring the English language.

Based on the results of the study, it does appear that music can have a positive effect on memory, text recall, and retention. As educators, utilizing music as a tool to aid and improve retention could be a fun and interesting way to assist learners. Other research purports that the use of songs for language learning could replace less-exciting or over-used readings, which would not only relieve some stress and anxiety for

language learners but also possibly improve the long-range potential for better pronunciation. Songs provide a way for beginning students to repeatedly hear the native pronunciation in a natural occurrence until they are comfortable enough to produce speech (Salcedo, 2010).

There are numerous ways that music could be employed as a means for retention with adult EFL learners. In EFL classrooms, music can be a powerful means for making connections to language. Listening exercises such as filling in the blanks or correcting the grammar in lyrics while listening to a song are great ways to aid language acquisition. Adult educators may feel that music is a tool more suited for educating children. However, many exercises using music as a learning tool for children could be easily adapted for adult learners. Music exercises could be used as an introduction to a topic or icebreaker in a class. Engaging adult students in creating their own lyrics with catchy melodies as a way to remember new vocabulary terms or grammar rules could create a fun learning environment that improves participation as well as retention. Music lyrics address nearly any topic or social issue and could be a way to spark discussion and aid in the retention of important information related to these issues. The opportunities for applying music as a retention tool in the classroom are bounded only by the educator's imagination.

Further study is certainly required to determine how music can best be utilized in the adult EFL classroom to assist learners. It is the hope of this author that readers and adult EFL instructors can use this information and apply the use of music as a language learning tool in classrooms, knowing that it has at least some effectiveness in assisting language acquisition. Further study and research can be conducted within adult EFL classrooms around the world to further develop this teaching tool.

THE AUTHOR

Nathan Galster is a Visiting Professor at Kyungpook National University in Daegu, Korea. He is currently pursuing a Master of Arts degree in Adult Education from Colorado State University. He has worked as an EFL teacher in both Costa Rica (2007-2009) and Korea (2009-present). Email: nathan.galster@hotmail.com

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APPENDIX A

Instruction Materials: Music Exposure

Have You Ever Seen the Rain?

By Creedence Clearwater Revival

Someone _____ me long ago
There's a calm before the storm
I know, it's been _____ for some time

When it's over, so they say
It will _____ a sunny day
I know, shining down like water

I want to know, have you ever _____ the rain?
I want to know, _____ you ever seen the rain?
_____ down on a sunny day

Yesterday, and days before
Sun is cold and rain is hard
I know, (It's) _____ that way for all my time

And forever, on it goes
Through the circle, fast and slow
I know, it can't stop, I wonder

I _____ to _____, have you ever seen the rain?
I want to know, have you _____ seen the rain?
Coming down on a glorious day

Yeah!

I want to know, have you ever seen the rain?
I want to know, have you ever seen the rain?
Coming down on a glorious day

In My Life

By The Beatles

There are places I _____ all my life,
Though some _____,
Some forever, not for better,
Some _____ and some remain.

All these places _____ their moments
With lovers and friends I still can recall.
Some are dead and some are living.
In my life I_____ them all.

But of all these friends and lovers,
There is no one compares with you,
And these memories _____ their meaning
When I _____ of love as something new.

Though I know I_____ never _____ affection
For people and things that _____ before,
I know I_____ often _____ and think about them,
In my life I___ _____ you more.

Though I know I'll never _____ affection
For people and things that _____ before,
I know I_____ often stop and _____ about them,
In my life I love you more.

I Still Haven't Found What I'm Looking For

By U2

I _____ (climb) highest mountain
I _____ (run) through the fields
Only to be with you
Only to be with you
I _____ (run)
I _____ (crawl)
I _____ (scale) these city walls
These city walls
Only to be with you
But I still haven't found what I'm looking for
But I still haven't found what I'm looking for
I _____ (kiss) honey lips
_____ (feel) the healing fingertips
It burned like fire
This burning desire
I _____ (speak) with the tongue of angels
I _____ (hold) the hand of a devil
It _____ (be) warm in the night
I was cold as a stone
But I still haven't found what I'm looking for
But I still haven't found what I'm looking for
I believe in the Kingdom Come
Then all the colors will bleed into one
Bleed into one
But yes I'm still running
You _____ (break) the bonds
And you loosed the chains
_____ (carry) the cross of my shame, of my shame
You know I _____ (believe) it
But I still haven't found what I'm looking for . . .

APPENDIX B

Instruction Materials: Instruction Only; No Music

Verb Tenses

1. Give the Past Simple and Past Participle of each verb:

be	_____	_____	find	_____	_____
believe	_____	_____	hold	_____	_____
break	_____	_____	kiss	_____	_____
burn	_____	_____	loose	_____	_____
carry	_____	_____	run	_____	_____
climb	_____	_____	scale	_____	_____
crawl	_____	_____	speak	_____	_____
feel	_____	_____			

2. List other examples of verbs in the tenses listed below:
   - simple present -
     _____
   - simple past -
     _____
   - simple future -
     _____
   - present perfect -
     _____

3. Find someone who...
   a. has never eaten sushi.   (Name:_____)
   b. has ridden in a helicopter.   (Name:_____)
   c. has been to the USA.   (Name:_____)
   d. has never had a pet.   (Name:_____)
   e. has eaten exotic food.   (Name:_____)

   Example:
   A: Have you ever eaten sushi?
   B: Yes, I have.

A: Really. When was it?
B: Last year.
A: How did you like it?
B: It was delicious.

Choose a verb. Write the verb here: _____
Write 4 different sentences using a different verb tense in each sentence.
1. (simple present)

_____
2. (simple past)

_____
3. (simple future)

_____
4. (present perfect)

_____

APPENDIX C

Post-Test

The information from this exam will be used in a research study. The purpose of this study is to determine the effectiveness of using music as a learning tool in the classroom to help adult ESL learners to acquire and retain a practical use of English. Participation in this exam is voluntary. This exam will not be graded. You are free to choose not to take this exam. There will be no negative affects upon you or your grade if you choose not to take part in this exam. Your name will not be used in this study. By choosing to complete this exam, you are giving your consent to use the results of your exam in this research study.

이 테스트에 대한 정보는 조사연구에 사용될 것입니다. 이 연구의 목적은 성인 ESL 공부를 하는 학생들에게 실용영어를 습득하고 유지하는 것을 돕기 위한 학습방법으로써 수업시간에 음악을 이용하는 것이 효과적임을 밝히는데 있습니다. 이 테스트는 자발적 참여로 이루어집니다. 테스트 참여 여부는 자유입니다. 테스트 불참으로 인한 어떠한 불이익도 발생하지 않습니다. 이 테스트 점수는 이 강의의 점수와 무관합니다. 실명은 거론되지 않습니다. 이 테스트의 참여는 테스트의 결과를 이 연구에 사용함에 동의하는 것으로 간주됩니다.

Please provide the following information before beginning the exam.

Age: _____   Circle one: Male   Female
For how many years have you studied English? _____
Have you ever studied abroad?   (Circle one)   Yes   No
(If you circled "Yes," please answer the next question.)
How long did you study abroad? _____

Please complete this exam to the best of your ability.

1. Choose the correct form of the verb.
   In my life so far, I (eat) _____ many different kinds of food.
       a. will eat   c. have eaten
       b. ate   d. am eating

2. Change the following sentence into a question.
   You have traveled to Europe.

_____

3. Fill in the blank with the correct verb tense.
   Yesterday, I (walk) _____ in the park with my mother.

4. Answer the following question in the negative form.
   Have you heard the new song from The Beatles?
   _____

5. Fill in the blank with the correct form of the verb.
   Tomorrow I (meet) _____ my friend for dinner.

6. Fill in the blank with correct verb tense to answer the question.
   What do you study these days?
   These days I (study) _____ English and French.

7. Choose the correct form of the verb.
   Have you ever been to South Korea. No, I _____ there.
     a. wasn't   c. haven't never been
     b. was never   d. have never been

8. Fill in the blank with the present perfect tense.
   She (eat, never) _____ octopus.

9. Answer the following question in the positive form.
   Did you see that movie?
   _____

10. Choose the correct form of the verb.
    My sister (exercise) _____ at the gym three times since Monday.
      a. exercised   c. is exercising
      b. exercises   d. has exercised

Thank you for participating in this exam.

APPENDIX D

Results

Music Exposure Only

Test Group 1	Total	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Number of Students	**55** (35.48% of total participants)	17	17	21
Average Number of Students per Class	**18.33**			
Average Age	**20.54**	20.52	20.53	20.57
Average Years Studied English	**9.37**	9.76	9.06	9.29
Male	**42** (76.4% of Test Group 1)	13	12	17
Female	**13** (23.6% of Test Group 1)	4	5	4
Number of Students Who Studied Abroad	**5** (9.1% of Test Group 1)	1	3	1

Music Exposure and Teacher Instruction

Test Group 2	Total	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Number of Students	**47** (30.32% of total participants)	14	17	21
Average Number of Students per Class	**15.66**			
Average Age	**20.14**	20.36	19.76	20.31
Average Years Studied English	**9.59**	10.79	9.06	8.93
Male	**22** (46.8% of Test Group 2)	5	10	7
Female	**25** (53.2% of Test Group 2)	9	7	9
Number of Students Who Studied Abroad	**6** (12.8% of Test Group 2)	3	3	0

Teacher Instruction Only

Test Group 3	Total	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3
Number of Students	**43** (27.74% of total participants)	10	15	18
Average Number of Students per Class	**14.33**			
Average Age	**20.12**	20.2	20	20.17
Average Years Studied English	**9.42**	10.3	8.7	9.22
Male	**22** (51.2% of Test Group 3)	2	8	12
Female	**21** (48.8% of Test Group 3)	8	7	6
Number of Students Who Studied Abroad	**6** (13.9% of Test Group 3)	1	3	2

No Instruction

Test Group 4	Total
Number of Students	**10** (6.45% of total participants)
Average Age	**20.3**
Average Years Studied English	**8.7**
Male	**5** (50% of Test Group 4)
Female	**4** (40% of Test Group 4)
Undeclared	**1** (10% of Test Group 4)
Number of Students Who Studied Abroad	**1** (10% of Test Group 4)

"Just Read": Recreational Reading Effects in a Korean Elementary School

Matthew Smith
Gyeseong Elementary School, Seoul, Korea

A two-month-long recreational reading program was delivered to an upper-level English proficiency class in a private elementary school located in an affluent neighborhood in Seoul. Research was guided by discovering how recreational reading affects students' attitudes toward learning English and performance on reading tests. During the semester, students read at least two books at their leisure from a self-selected reading list. An attitude questionnaire and reading aptitude test were administered to all 42 participants. Eight students were interviewed throughout the study. It was observed that these students already possessed positive attitudes and interest towards reading self-selected books. Interviewees expressed confidence with their reading abilities as a result of scoring better on tests. Reading test results were conclusively positive after participating in the program. Positive effects of this research include instilling confident reading habits and increased fluency. It can be logically concluded that recreational reading may be an effective means of increasing English as a second language ability.

INTRODUCTION

"Will This Be on the Test?"

I handed a 4th-grader a yellowing paperback copy of *The Hobbit* and told him to read it. "Why?" he asked. "Will this be on the test?" I politely responded, "Not at all. It's just a really good book. I think you'd like it." His puzzled expression made me smile. He countered, "I don't understand. If this isn't on the test, why do you think I'd like it?" I

replied, "Because it's a book written over 75 years ago, and people are still enjoying and talking about it. Give it a try. You're ready for it." The boy quizzically surmised, "If it's so great, why isn't it on the test?" It hit me; the boy had a good point. Why was this great book absent from any test he would ever take? Furthermore, I was his English teacher. Wasn't I supposed to be teaching him English? Not talking about dwarves and dragons? I had no intention of giving him a test. No quizzes. No vocabulary lists. Just read. Read for the sake of reading. Could I simply give him the book, ask him to read it, and expect his English to improve? I set out to discover just that.

Background

Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) can be daunting. From questionable teaching methods to fluctuating popular opinions, the proper way to learn English is subjective at best. While best practices vary according to the expert, most researchers, theorists, and practicing EFL instructors agree that a combination of methods and resources are necessary to address the diverse needs of students (Ellis, 2008; Lau, 2012; Nation, 2009). In addition to good classroom curriculum, several supplemental programs should be used in an effort to increase motivation, integrate technology, or practice newly acquired vocabulary.

One common method of increasing communicative competency of English language learners (ELLs) is introducing an additional or supplemental reading instruction method. Typical examples include read-alouds (Wiseman, 2011), sustained silent reading (Siah & Kwok, 2010), shared reading (Stahl, 2012), and guided reading (Avalos, Plasencia, Chavez, & Rascón, 2007). These methods have been shown to increase competency in one or several domains of English (Fawson, Reutzel, Read, Smith, & Moore, 2009). However, this action research focuses on an alternative method known as "recreational reading" (also known as "extensive reading").

Modern interpretations of the method typically entail offering easily accessible, lightly structured reading for one's leisure with minimal or no comprehension assessment. This is done with the understanding that easily comprehendible reading increases fluency and helps acquire or solidify vocabulary (Nation, 2009; Pečjak, Podlesek, & Pirc, 2011). It can be plainly stated that recreational reading is reading for the sake of reading. Motivation stems from the pleasure that comes from acquiring

new ideas and beliefs through age- and level-appropriate fiction and nonfiction titles of varying length. Most often, recreational reading is set up by a classroom teacher or librarian. Book selection takes the form of either a prepared set of books to choose from in a specially prepared section or from a wider selection, such as an entire library, with recommendations from a list of appropriate books to help narrow choices for students.

Reading is a quintessential skill that forms a cornerstone to language and knowledge acquisition. However, motivating reluctant readers can be a challenge as too forceful instruction or assignments could lead to further alienation. However, recreational reading has been shown to motivate reluctant readers under the pretense of being low-stress and low-pressure (Allan & MacDonald, 1971).

Recreational reading is not a commonly accepted method of supplemental English language learning in South Korea. Reading in a second language, particularly English, is done for a set purpose, such as preparation for a test or for answering comprehension questions. This attitude continues into adulthood and puts English in a sort of vogue art form that is respected for its depth but rarely used in casual settings. Oftentimes, South Korean students score adequately on performance exams, but do not have sufficient "buy-in" to study or use English for their own benefit (Kim & Krashen, 1997). One aspect that is within the scope of this research is addressing the link between reading English books and intrinsic motivation. Instead of forcing yet another book report or interpretation of a classic work, a recreational reading program was introduced.

The question remains: Is recreational reading an effective method of increasing English proficiency in upper-level Korean elementary school students? What attitudes do Korean ELLs have regarding reading English books? What kind of observable effects occur during a recreational reading program?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Generally, the field of reading-targeted interventions for second language learners is well researched and represented. Searching for successful reading interventions for almost any language minority or age group yields promising results. In the same way, the subfield of

recreational reading is also generally well canvassed. However, when recreational reading is narrowed in terms of Korean language learners, considering their unique cultural and linguistic idiosyncrasies, there is a noticeable dearth of published articles.

At face value, recreational reading might be interpreted as any form of reading that is done for recreation. According to that lax definition, Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) (DeBenedictis & Fisher, 2007) and Drop Everything and Read (DEAR; Lee-Daniels & Murray, 2000) could also be folded into the recreational reading label. Recreation is surely one of the aims of SSR and DEAR time allotments. While these methods have their merits, they differ from recreational reading in a few ways, most notably in implementation. For example, recreational reading takes place outside of the classroom and its length of time is at the student's leisure (Mohr, 2006; Shin & Krashen, 2004); SSR and DEAR take place in school for a fixed amount of time in lieu of instruction (DeBenedictis & Fisher, 2007; Lee-Daniels & Murray, 2000). Therefore, SSR and DEAR articles are not incorporated into this literature review.

Furthermore, all reading programs are interventional in nature; that is, they are designed to address a deficiency of the target students, be it the entire class or a select few students (Allington, 2011). Therefore, all sources included are action research interventions in some form or other. Some studies are reactionary in addressing a problem while others are labeled as "early interventions." For this literature review, recreational reading sources are only so identified if they follow three commonly shared themes present in all programs: student motivation, selection choices, and improved reading comprehension. Only in a few instances were recreational reading programs not so labeled. For these exceptions, the terms "guided reading" and "home literacy" were used; however, their methods and implementations followed the same procedure as recreational reading. Therefore, these few exceptions were also included.

Student Motivation

Throughout the research, the topic of increasing student motivation in reading was a frequent goal. In most cases, a classroom instructor directly addresses reluctant readers (Allan & MacDonald, 1971; Arthur, 1995; Cho, Kim, & Krashen, 2004). Also, a frequent target among these reluctant readers is low-ability or poorly

performing students (De Naeghel, Van Keer, Vansteenkiste, & Rosseel, 2012; Fawson, Reutzel, Read, Smith, & Moore, 2009; Pečjak, Podlesek, & Pirc, 2011). This lack of intrinsic motivation is complex as students with high self-efficacy are also independently motivated. However, the question of what comes first, underlining ability or sustained interest in the language, is debatable.

However, when looking at the Korean EFL context, the situation becomes more polarized. Korean students are open to new and different forms of reading programs, but are unexposed to recreational reading (Kim & Krashen, 1997). The result is unanimously positive in terms of increasing motivation (Cho & Kim, 2005; Cho, Kim, & Krashen, 2004; Pae, 2004; Shin, & Krashen, 2004; Siah & Kwok, 2010). This result has been consistent across different age levels: preschool (Yoo & Lee, 2006), elementary (Cho & Kim, 2005; Cho, Kim, & Krashen, 2004; Kim & Hall, 2002), and university (Pae, 2004).

Selection Choices

Recreational reading also allows great freedom for students to select their own books according to their interest. However, most, if not all, programs prepare a smaller set of books to choose (Arthur, 1995; Avalos, Plasencia, Chavez, & Rascon, 2007; Donovan, Smolkin, & Lomax, 2000; Gilmore, 2011). These programs also feature a teacher-heavy, previously prepared list of approved books and material (McLaughlin, 2013; Mohr, 2006; Pečjak, Podlesek, & Pirc, 2011; Shin & Krashen, 2004).

Although teachers are not the only preparers of recreational reading programs, they are the most well-represented. Nontraditional preparers, such as librarians and parents, also appear to be heavily involved in the pre-selection of student books (Donovan, Smolkin, & Lomax, 2000; Gilmore, 2011; Ranker, 2007; Yoo & Lee, 2006). In the Korean EFL context, student self-selection from a previously prepared list of approved books is also present (Cho & Kim, 2005; Cho, Kim, & Krashen, 2004; Pae, 2004; Shin & Krashen, 2004). What remains to be seen is a study that allows total freedom of choice apart from teacher interaction.

Reading Comprehension

Lastly, and arguably the most important goal for a recreational reading program, is the increase in overall reading comprehension. Fluency and vocabulary acquisition fall under this category. Unsurprisingly, all research paradigms reported an increase in all or some domains of English proficiency to include fluency and vocabulary acquisition (Avalos, Plasencia, Chavez, & Rascon, 2007; Block & Mangieri, 2002; De Naeghel, Lau, 2012; Fawson, Reutzel, Read, Smith, & Moore, 2009; Nation, 2009; Pečjak, Podlesek, & Pirc, 2011; Van Keer, Vansteenkiste, & Rosseel, 2012). In most cases, student achievement was directly linked to the amount of motivation and interest in the texts (McLaughlin, 2013; Mohr, 2006; Shin & Krashen, 2004). Regardless, all forms of reading intervention clearly demonstrated increased student achievement (Lau, 2012; Nation, 2009; Siah & Kwok, 2010; Stahl, 2012; Wiseman, 2011).

Research-Based Best Practices

All prior research has influenced this action research in a positive way. It is encouraging to see increases across the board in almost all domains, most notably in motivation, fluency, and vocabulary acquisition. What greatly differs is the participants in the study. Previous research has been predominantly conducted in the United States with both native English-speaking students and second language learners of varying linguistic and cultural origins. Limited findings were those that were inclusive of solely Korean language learners, as they represent a significantly unique group of ELLs.

Best practices for successful programs include researchers who themselves are avid readers or who intrinsically value reading (Block & Mangieri, 2002; Gilmore, 2011; Kim & Hall, 2002). It stands to reason that those who possess sound educational backgrounds and employ effective strategies are also fit to carry out reading intervention programs (Allan & MacDonald, 1971; Block & Mangieri, 2002; Fawson, Reutzel, Read, Smith, & Moore, 2009; Krashen, 2003;). What defines best practices varies according to the researcher or expert, but all contend that a structured, print-rich environment with adequate teacher involvement contribute to student success

(Ellis, 2008; Krashen, 2003; Nation, 2009). What makes this most interesting and applicable to recreational reading is the removal of the assessment portion of the traditional classroom curriculum.

Plainly stated, even without the stress and pressure of performing well on a test, students who are guided and encouraged to read on their own outside of class show increased reading comprehension skills (Fawson, Reutzel, Read, Smith, & Moore, 2009; Pečjak, Podlesek, & Pirc, 2011). All available research points towards a common best practices template: The teacher prepares level-appropriate texts offered in a low-stress, high-interest environment that fosters a keen growth in motivation, comprehension, and self-selection skills. This is consistent throughout the available research.

Lastly, Korean students attend cram schools known as *hagwons*, which are ubiquitous after-school institutes whose aim is to help students achieve better academic performance (Jones, 2012). Since considerable social pressure to attend these institutes exists, despite their notoriously questionable educational benefit, they are mentioned in this study.

METHODOLOGY

The author implemented a recreational reading program designed to address observed reading deficiencies in his advanced-level fourth-grade students. The author prepared a low-stress reading program to observe and gauge student reading behaviors and attitudes. With the aid of a prepared book list, students were guided to select books of interest to them at the school library. Students were instructed to read at least two books at their leisure outside of class time. To record data, an attitude questionnaire and reading test were administered at the beginning and at the end of the study. Furthermore, two randomly selected students were interviewed. Anecdotal observation notes were also recorded.

Research Questions

1. How does recreational reading affect students' attitudes toward learning English?

2. How does recreational reading affect student performance in reading?
3. What observable student behaviors occur after the introduction of a recreational reading program?

Research Design

Participants were instructed to read, at their leisure, at least two of the 35 authentic, Lexile-ranked titles available. No outside assessment, such as a book-specific comprehension test or chapter-related vocabulary quiz, was employed. Participants were actively involved in the research process and implementation. As the researcher directly interacted with each participant, he offered advice and guidance to select appropriate titles to match student interest. Students had regular access to the school's library twice a week in addition to once a month with the researcher. Since the recreational reading list was made available on the school's website, some parents chose to purchase selected books for their children, although this was not required.

Participants

The demographic makeup of the participants was rather unique. The study took place at a private Catholic elementary school located in an affluent neighborhood in Seoul, Korea. Admittance into the school is through an annual lottery-style drawing. In additional to rigorous core curriculum testing, all 720 students at the school are tested and retested at the beginning of each semester to determine their English proficiency level. Each grade level, first through sixth, is composed of four homeroom classes of 30 students each, labeled "4-1," "4-2," "4-3," "4-4," "5-1," "5-2," and so forth. English placement testing covers five areas: grammar, reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Once results are obtained, students are divided into three levels: "Approach," "On," and "Beyond." During each homeroom's scheduled English period, the 30 students are evenly divided into thirds: the lowest performing students are placed in "Approach," the middle third into "On," and the highest performing into "Beyond." Despite objective testing and scoring, level placement is a highly competitive and contested semesterly event.

Presently, nine teachers are divided into three teams with three members each. The researcher's role is designated "1st Grade Beyond" and "4th Grade Beyond." For the purposes of this research, the researcher will only refer to the 4th-grade classes. The researcher had

direct access to 42 students divided into four different classes: two classes with ten students ("4-1," "4-4") and two classes with eleven students ("4-2," "4-3"). Each fourth-grade class receives instruction three times a week for 40 minutes per class.

Typical English classwork for these students involves a chapter in an American curriculum-based leveled textbook. Each thematic unit is comprised of a lengthy reading passage, and the introduction and use of 8-10 new vocabulary words. The teacher administers a spelling quiz at the end of each week. Typical daily homework assigned per class is 2-3 pages of grammar homework located in a take-home workbook prepared by the teacher at the beginning of the semester. Half of the workbook grammar questions are independent of the weekly class topic, while the other half are directly related to the story in the book. The teacher also assigns weekly journal writing related to the textbook-based story as well as a weekly in-class self-assessment diary, known as a "Language Log."

The researcher observed that most "Beyond" students are independently motivated to perform well in school, English included. Furthermore, all students attend one or more private institutes after school at least once a week. These after-school private cram schools, known as *hagwon*, play a key role in the social and academic life of all students in Korea. While specialized *hagwons* exist for virtually all subjects, including science, mathematics, taekwondo, practical art, music, and traditional Chinese calligraphy, English *hagwons* are the most prevalent.

Evaluation Methods and Tools

The evaluation data collected are both qualitative and quantitative in nature; two instruments, the Attitude Questionnaire (Appendix B) and the Reading Test (Appendix C), were used for quantitative purposes while two other instruments, Interviews (Appendices D, E, and F) and observations, were used for qualitative purposes. Qualitative methods are discussed first.

Results of the research were obtained by careful input of responses marked on an attitude questionnaire and the categorical analysis of interviewee responses. Furthermore, the researcher incorporated observed behaviors from two separate class visits to the school library as well as careful development of grading and input of grades from the reading test designed for this research project.

Interviews were conducted outside of class instruction time with two

students per class in each of four classes for a total of eight students. All students were chosen by stratified random sampling: one male and one female student per class. To gauge interest and overall attitude toward learning English and reading in general, interviews were conducted three times: before, during, and after the research. All interview questions were designed by the researcher (see Appendices D, E, and F) and conducted in English. No discernible lack of understanding was noted. In applying stratified random sampling, the only category deemed important enough to make a distinction in was gender. Therefore, one male and one female were selected at random per class.

In addition, observational notes were taken on two "library days" during classtime: one at the beginning of the program and one at the end of the program. Categorical analysis was used for both observations and interviews. As with interviews, qualitative data taken from observations were analyzed and interpreted into nominal data categorical themes.

Quantitatively, an attitude questionnaire was administered in class at the onset and end of the action research study. The questionnaire covered two topics: "Ability and Confidence" and "Overall Interest." Each topic consisted of 10 questions for a total of 20 questions measured on a four-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" (see Appendix B). Additional quantitative data were collected at the onset of the program and at the end of the program in the form of a custom-designed, advanced-level reading achievement test. The test was four pages in length and administered during class time (see Appendix C).

The teacher-created recreational reading book list was adapted from the National Education Agency's Top 100 Books for Children (see Appendix A). Level choices range from "Level 1" (least challenging) to "Level 7" (most challenging). Each level consists of five books. Book level enrollment choice was at each student's discretion. Crucial criteria for the study were the involvement in the program, not the difficulty level of the books selected. For this effect, the researcher instructed participants to avoid books that they had previously read.

Process

Once consent forms were returned with signatures, the researcher administered the attitude questionnaire and initial reading test. After this, the researcher scheduled interviews with two students per class

and recorded their responses in private outside of the regular class time. Student responses were recorded on individual interview sheets and compared for categorical patterns. For the final step, the researcher wrote down observations regarding student attitudes and behavior when taken to the library, shown where the books were located, and offered recommendations.

During the middle portion of the study, roughly one month after the initial test, the same randomly selected students were interviewed again with different questions. Their responses were recorded and compared against each other and initial observations. Close to the end of the study, roughly a month and a half after the initial test, the students were taken to the library again to help select books. Observations were recorded by the researcher, and further categorical analysis was carried out.

Finally, at the end of the study, roughly two months after the initial test, the same interviewees were asked a final set of questions. Their responses were recorded. All participants were administered the same attitude questionnaire. Immediately following the questionnaire, the same reading test was administered in the same way as before. Once completed, tests were scored, data were recorded, and the same previously selected students were interviewed a final time.

RESULTS

Results were unanimously positive, regardless of the number of books read, the gender of the participant, or initial reading test score. Participants scored on average 25.52% better on the reading test and read an average of six books during the duration of the project. All students interviewed regarded reading positively in general and in participating in the project. Not surprisingly, interviewees expressed that they had been exposed to English books at an early age, mostly by their teachers in English immersion kindergartens, an expensive option affordable by most of the school's families. Interviewees expressed a considerably well-informed "buy-in" for reading books in English and thus were already in possession of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for reading.

Quantitatively, participants had an average score of 62.49% on the initial reading test. Because this reading test was designed at a level slightly above the students' current ability level, the relatively low scores

were encouraging. Upon retest at the end of the program, the students scored an average of 77.99%. Students scored an average of 25.52% better on subsequent testing. Furthermore, participants exceeded expectations by reading more books on average than required.

Qualitatively, the selected students displayed significant categorical similarities in interview responses, particularly related to buy-in and initial exposure to habitual recreational reading. The level of self-awareness of the participants was alarmingly positive. All interviewees indicated they read books largely because they believe that the act of it, not the quality or content of the book, leads to overall language ability increase. Upon discovery of this conviction, there were further lines of questioning. Particular interest was addressed to the person responsible for exposing and instructing such language learning theory. All but one student indicated picking up this habit while attending English-immersion kindergarten. The one participant who indicated otherwise claimed that her mother, who by the mother's claim, is proficient in English, instilled this habit in her child prior to attending school.

All students interviewed claimed one or both parents read books to them as children, but none presently continue this practice. Four students claimed the books they read were a mixture of English and Korean language while the other four students reported only being read Korean books at night. Regardless, the habit of reading was introduced during kindergarten and reinforced at home by one or both parents in either their native language and/or English.

Significantly positive behaviors during "library days" were observed. Students mostly selected age- and level-appropriate books. Those who could not immediately find books of interest instinctively asked their peers or the teacher for recommendations. Book selections were a mixture of graphic novels (e.g., *Diary of a Wimpy Kid*, *Pokemon*), books geared toward boys (e.g., zombie-themed books, shocking science-related books), books geared toward girls (e.g., princess-themed books, middle school relationships), general interest biographies (e.g., Steve Jobs, Coco Chanel), and leveled books recommended by the teacher ("classics" such as *The Hobbit*, *Sarah, Plain and Tall,* and *The Giver)*. Some students, possibly due to competitiveness, initially selected higher-level books (*Harry Potter* and *To Kill a Mockingbird*, for example) only to later put the book back and self-select a title more appropriate for their ability level.

While the students involved in this project represent a broad range of abilities and backgrounds, almost all instinctively selected a book, found a friend, and rushed off to a quiet place in the library, such as a bean-bag corner, and began reading without distraction. When the allotted time for reading ended, students expressed genuine interest and asked when the next "library day" would occur. Such encouraging behavior provided more credibility to interviewee responses and initial questionnaire responses.

Data analysis yielded some interesting realizations. Obtained data suggest a fascinating lack of relevance in the number of books read; namely, that reading more books did not affect overall test score (Figure 1).
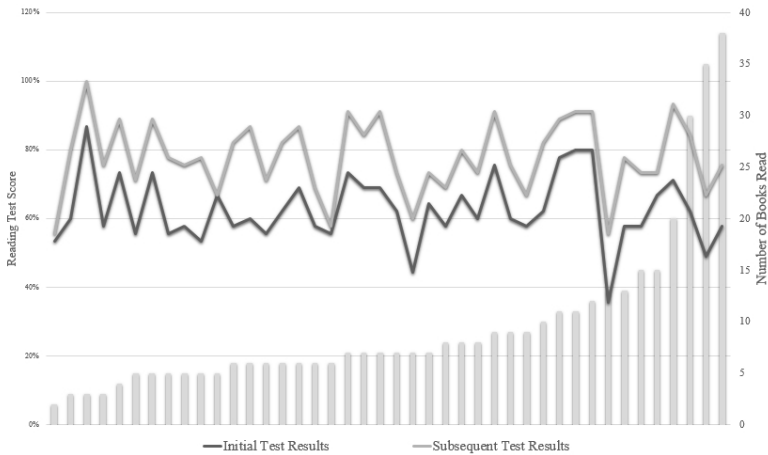
FIGURE 1. Data Results. Reading test scores and number of books read.

Additionally, according to the administered attitude questionnaire, the sampled students' confidence in English was remarkably high. The questionnaire also indicated a high level of competitive behavior (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Attitude Questionnaire

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Ability & Confidence				
1. My friends comment that my English is very good.	45%	52%	2%	0%
2. I try harder to use English more than my classmates.	45%	55%	0%	0%

3. I can read English books almost as well as I can read Korean books.	45%	48%	7%	0%
4. I can easily read English signs or any print on the street.	83%	17%	2%	0%
5. I speak English with my friends when I have free time.	12%	52%	29%	7%
6. I can easily translate for my friends or family.	71%	26%	2%	0%
7. I understand everything Mr. Smith says in class.	71%	26%	2%	0%
8. I'm good at using English.	64%	36%	0%	0%
9. I easily pay attention in class.	62%	38%	0%	0%
10. I am competitive.	57%	36%	5%	2%
Overall Interest				
1. I often read English books at home.	40%	50%	10%	0%
2. I might read more if my teacher would introduce more interesting books.	69%	26%	5%	0%
3. I would study English even if it were not for a test.	57%	38%	5%	0%
4. I would like to use English and live abroad when I grow up.	55%	36%	10%	0%
5. One or both of my parents speak English very well.	62%	17%	17%	5%
6. I go to bookstores with my parents to look at or buy English books.	36%	52%	12%	0%
7. My parents read English books.	29%	33%	24%	14%
8. I would be happy if our school library had more English books.	57%	36%	7%	0%
9. It is easy for me to sit down and read books for a long period of time.	67%	29%	2%	2%
10. I like English.	86%	14%	0%	0%

Adapted from K. S. Cho & H. J. Kim (2005).

Table 2 shows a variety of reading habits, including selection, location, and motivation for reading. There was also an almost unified response in buy-in as the main motivating factor behind reading English books. Participants across the board indicated that reading was a means

to an end: a way to score better and perform better on tests. This behavior was reiterated during interviews and with teacher observations during "library days." Students showed strong interest in reading, but upon questioning offered almost unified reasons behind such motivation: to improve their grades. Table 1 offers more revealing attitudes of student attitudes. Table 2 indicates select data gathered from interviews.

TABLE 2. Reading Habits

Student Code	When do you like to read?	What level of noise is ideal?	Where do you like to read at home?	Where do your book rec's come from?	Primary reason for reading English books
41G1	after school	ambient	sofa	older sister	books are fun
41B1	after school	ambient	sofa	Newberry Medal winner	books are fun
42G1	after school	silent	chair	self-select by genre	books are relaxing
42B5	nighttime	ambient	bed	self-select by cover	sense of accomplishment
43B3	nighttime	silent	sofa	self-select by cover	books are relaxing
43G4	after school	silent	sofa	*hagwon*	enjoy learning new material
44G1	nighttime	silent	bed	*hagwon*	good habit for life
44B1	after school	silent	sofa	friend	enjoy learning new material

DISCUSSION

The researcher had expected to form brand-new recreational reading habits for the students through classroom instruction. Instead, this researcher discovered well-informed students already programmed to read as a means to indirectly increase English ability. Therefore, the "joys" of reading that this researcher had hoped to instill were tainted by preconceived notions instilled by parents and former teachers. However, the project still uncovered interesting habits and competitive behaviors as manifested by academic performance. The experience was altogether worthwhile and professionally enriching.

Regarding how the program affected student attitudes, responses marked on the attitude questionnaire indicate that recreational reading is one of many ways to increase performance on tests. It was revealed that the sampled students had been instructed by either parents or former

teachers to see the reading of English books as something more for increasing study skills and English ability and less for pure enjoyment. This notion is supported by the interviewees who echoed similar sentiments. For example, one student said that reading was enjoyable, but that it is a lot like homework in that it has to be done. Another student confided that if reading didn't increase her English ability, she probably would not read on her own. However, due to her parents' involvement, she felt that she had no choice but to read on her own.

It is fairly conclusive that the sampled students' attitudes were already biased before the project ever began: Reading had already been ingrained as a means to an end and as a way to improve their educational standing. Therefore, it is difficult to determine changes in student attitude due to an already existing belief that had been reinforced for at least four years prior to this researcher's influence.

Determining how the program affected student performance in reading is easier to determine. Student performance universally increased with the exception of one student who scored the same upon retest. The average increase was 25.52% upon retesting. Whether this increase was due to inevitable Flynn effects, by the standard curriculum taught by the researcher independent from the project, or by the project's design, is inconclusive. However, the results are encouraging; despite the number of books read, simply participating in the program netted a positive gain in reading test scores.

Regarding observable student behaviors, they were unanimously positive. The students appeared excited and eager to participate in the program, even upon learning that participation did not affect their in-class final average. Regardless of where they learned to pick up books for whatever purpose, they appeared happy to just be able to read.

EVALUATION

If other instructors are aiming to instill recreational reading habits or gauge pre-existing habits, it behooves them to understand the potential sample student background. For example, in this project, the researcher had access to advanced ability-level students. Perhaps due to their high performance or competitive personalities, it was revealed during the project that recreational reading habits already existed, albeit for purposes other than "reading for the sake of reading." This was

unexpected. If this pervasive attitude had been known before the start of the research, the design might have been altered to accommodate it.

The project's strengths lie with its peculiar sample set of students, as the possibility to sample such a large group of advanced ability-level students is not readily available. The large size of the school and English program format made selecting advanced-level students conveniently possible. The project also was well supported by the school's ample library with plentiful English books from which to select. Although some students did choose to purchase books for themselves, most students checked out books from the school's library.

Another strength of the project is the support of the parents and students as all students who were asked to participate did so actively and genuinely. Motivation and enthusiasm remained notably high throughout the project. The researcher did not once encounter a student who openly expressed disinterest in the project or its purpose.

Lastly, the school's approval of the researcher's independent role as both project creator and classroom instructor ultimately led to control over most parameters that helped to minimize mitigating factors. Having the creative control to design and implement the desired project made this a project of passion.

However, the project suffered slightly due to a few limitations. The most notable of which was the relatively short length of the study, which limits the sustainability of the results. It is difficult to say that any new habits were formed during this project as all students interviewed expressed pre-existing habits related to independently selecting and reading books. Recreational reading is a life skill and difficult to assess properly in only two months.

Another possible problem exists with honesty in the number of books reported to have been read. This researcher found it difficult to fully trust the responses of four of the students. For example, student "42G2" claimed to have read 20 books, student "42G4" claimed to have read 30 books, "42G6" claimed to have read 35 books, and "43B1" claimed to have read 31 books. In two months' time, even at an advanced rate of reading, the ability to have read such a large number of books is doubtful. Since the project was not set up to accommodate dishonest reporting, these possible discrepancies were not addressed.

While this project can be surely deemed an effective use of time and contribution to the field by expounding on the effects of recreational reading in the Korean EFL context, caution is offered to other

researchers looking to replicate this study. As previously mentioned, the participants in this study were unique and while they shared similar characteristics with most Korean students learning English as a foreign language, their resources and social standing were certainly not indicative of the typical EFL student in Korea. From their exceptional school environment, the overwhelming prevalence of parents who proficiently speak English, and a much higher than average family income, it would be unrealistic to apply the same study's methods to the average Korean public school student body and expect the same results. However, such a study would be fascinating to conduct.

Another limitation of this study lies in the direct influence that the researcher had with the participants. As the students' primary English teacher, certainly without intention on the part of the researcher, ignoring or dismissing direct influence, however little, would also be ill-advised. If a true experimental method were employed, the teacher and researcher would ideally not be the same person, while they were in this study.

This researcher would prefer another researcher to delve into the connection to native language reading habits and how they relate to second language reading habits. Also, the participants in this study appeared to have active, involved parents that encouraged their English studies. It would be interesting to discover parental involvement of below-average-performing students and how they compare to the advanced-level students. Lastly, it would be interesting to find out if the researcher instilled any significant life-long habits. Of course, this would only be possible to ascertain by contacting the same students years later in some sort of longitudinal study.

CONCLUSIONS

Looking back at the 4th-grade boy who was given a copy of *The Hobbit* at the end of the program, the boy returned the dog-eared book with a curiously wry grin on his face. When I asked him if he liked it, he responded, "That was a lot better than the movie. What else do you recommend?" Another convert. A small victory, but well worth the effort.

I set out to conduct a two month-long action research project with the intention of instilling advanced-ability-level 4th-grade students with new reading habits. I wanted to have the students not only "just read"

but also develop a lifelong habit of reading in English as a means of relaxation, acquiring new knowledge, and even as a means to improve their English. Care and consideration were given to address the three guiding research questions. I guided and instructed participants to self-select books from a carefully prepared list of recommended books based on difficulty, and ensured that all titles were available at the school's library. Enthusiastic student participation to follow my lead and just pick up and read books outside of class was thoroughly enriching. The experience adequately answered the research questions and even led to some new discoveries.

Most curious was that the simple act of reading, regardless of number of books completed, led to an increase in the reading test score. Students were able to discuss books that they had read with ease and showed genuine accomplishment in the number of books read and their higher test scores at the end of the semester. The implication that setting a student up for success goes beyond sending them to late night cram schools and worksheets. This study shows that modeling good reading habits and providing a lightly structured reading program is also a viable option.

THE AUTHOR

Matthew Smith is a certified elementary classroom teacher from Texas and currently teaches English at Gyeseong Elementary School in Seoul, Korea. He received his MEd from the University of North Texas and an MA in English Language Learning from Western Governor's University. Email: matthewlynnsmith@yahoo.com

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APPENDIX A

Recreational Reading Book List

Level 1	Level 2
• *Brown Bear, Brown Bear* by Bill Martin, Jr. • *The Story of Little Mole* by Werner Holzwarth • *Room on the Broom* by Julia Donaldson • *Goodnight Moon* by Margaret Wise Brown • *Curious George* by Hans Augustro Rey	• *Where the Wild Things Are* by Maurice Sendak • *Love You Forever* by Robert Munsch • *The Little House* by Virginia Lee Burton • *Olivia* by Lan Falconer • *The Snowy Day* by Ezra Jack Keats
Level 3	**Level 4**
• *The Tale of Samuel Whiskers* by Beatrix Potter • *The Giving Tree* by Shel Silverstein • *Little House in the Big Woods* by Laura Ingalls Wilder • *Officer Buckle and Gloria* by Peggy Rathmann • *Harry and the Dirty Dog* by Gene Zion	• *Where the Sidewalks End* by Shel Silverstein • *Charlie and the Chocolate Factory* by Roald Dahl • *The BFG* by Roald Dahl • *Heidi* by Johanna Spyri • *My Father's Dragon* by Ruth Stiles Gannet
Level 5	**Level 6**
• *Ballet Shoes* by Noel Streatfeild • *Tintin in Tibet* by Herge • *James and the Giant Peach* by Roald Dahl • *Because of Winn Dixie* by Kate Dicamillo • *Sideways Stories from Wayside School* by Louis Sachar	• *Danny & the Champion of the World* by Roald Dahl • *Summer of the Monkeys* by Wilson Rawls • *Peter Pan* by J.M. Barrie • *The Wrinkle in Time* by Madeldine L'Engle • *Black Beauty* by Anna Sewell
Level 7	
• *Hatchet* by Gary Paulsen • *Alice in Wonderland* by Lewis Carroll • *To Kill a Mockingbird* by Harper Lee • *The Hobbit* by J.R.R. Tolkien • *The Little Prince* by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry	**Mr. Smith's Beyond Class Expectations** 1. Pick a level, any level. 2. Read <u>at least</u> two (2) of the five (5) books in that level. 3. If you have already read one of the books listed, pick another. 4. That's it. Have fun!

Adapted from National Education Association (2007).

APPENDIX B

Attitude Questionnaire

Ability & Confidence

1. My friends comment that my English is very good.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

2. I try harder to use English more than my classmates.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

3. I can read English books almost as well as I can read Korean books.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

4. I can easily read English signs or any print on the street.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

5. I speak English with my friends when I have free time.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

6. I can easily translate for my friends or family.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

7. I understand everything Mr. Smith says in class.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

8. I'm good at using English.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

9. I easily pay attention in class.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

10. I am competitive.
    ○   ○   ○   ○
    strongly agree   agree   disagree   strongly disagree

Overall Interest

1. I often read English books at home.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

2. I might read more if my teacher would introduce more interesting books.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

3. I would study English even if it was not for a test.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

4. I would like to use English and live abroad when I grow up.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

5. One or both of my parents speak English very well.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

6. I go to bookstores with my parents to look at or buy English books.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

7. My parents read English books.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

8. I would be happy if our school library had more English books.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

9. It is easy for me to sit down and read books for a long period of time.
   ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

10. I like English.
    ○ strongly agree   ○ agree   ○ disagree   ○ strongly disagree

Adapted from K. S. Cho & H. J. Kim (2005). Using the newspaper in an English as a foreign language class. *Knowledge Quest*, *34*(2), 47-49.

APPENDIX C

Reading Test

Name: _____ Class: _____ Date: _____ ____/45

<u>Part A</u>. **Fact or Opinion: Write F for *fact* or O for *opinion*** (1 point each)

1. Sage is a smart girl. _____
2. Ms. Kim likes chocolate. _____
3. In 1910, all women in America were able to vote. _____
4. Most Tuesdays and Thursdays, Roger has soccer practice._____
5. General Murks was a good man who should be respected by everyone._____

<u>Part B</u>. **Vocabulary: Match the words to their meaning** (1 point each)

misunderstood   obedience   unique   desperate   tangled

6. twisted together in a mass: _____
7. one of a kind: _____
8. understood someone incorrectly: _____
9. very bad or hopeless situation: _____
10. the willingness to follow instructions: _____

massive   jealousy   wisdom   disguise   crisscrossed

11. marked by intersect lines: _____
12. common sense: _____
13. envy: _____
14. very large in size: _____
15. dressed as someone else: _____

<u>Part C</u>. **Vocabulary: Circle the answer choice that best matches the meaning** (1 pt each)

16. mission
    Ⓐ an impossible feat   Ⓑ a special task   Ⓒ a command

17. alert
    Ⓐ alive   Ⓑ attentive   Ⓒ loud

18. swelling
    Ⓐ to break off   Ⓑ to increase in size   Ⓒ to stay the same

19. forbidden
    Ⓐ common   Ⓑ prohibited   Ⓒ allowed

20. irresistible
    Ⓐ tempting   Ⓑ not common   Ⓒ uneasy

Part D. Word Choice: Choose the word from the box that correctly completes the sentences. Write the word on the line. (1 point each)

hurricanes	Florida	speeds	category	August

One of the worst _____ in the United States in terms of property damage was Hurricane Andrew. Andrew became a tropical storm in the southern Atlantic Ocean on _____ 17, 1992. At first, Andrew was a small storm with winds of about 40 miles per hour. Later, the storms rapidly gained strength over the warm waters and wind _____ reached 155 miles per hour. Andrew was a _____ 5 hurricane by the time it passed over the Bahamas and began heading east toward _____.

Part E. Inference: Read the short passage below and answer the questions that follow. (1 point each)

A pit viper is named for the two large pits or dents on each side of its head. When both pits feel the same temperature, the pit viper knows it is facing its prey and it springs forward. **Lunging**, the viper digs its fangs into the animal. The poisonous bite causes bleeding, swelling, and suffocation. The three types of pit vipers in the United States are rattlesnakes, copperheads, and cottonmouths, which are named for their appearance. Copperheads and cottonmouths are sometimes called moccasins. Pit vipers live in the southeastern United States, the West, and the Midwest.

26. What is this passage mainly about?
    Ⓐ how pit vipers find their prey Ⓒ general information on pit vipers
    Ⓑ rattlesnakes   Ⓓ where pit vipers live

27. In this context, what do you think **lunging** means?
    - Ⓐ thrusting forward
    - Ⓒ sliding
    - Ⓑ flying
    - Ⓓ biting

28. What can you guess will happen if someone is bitten by a pit viper and not given any medicine?
    - Ⓐ they will fall asleep
    - Ⓒ they will get very sick, but live
    - Ⓑ they will die quickly
    - Ⓓ they will die in a couple of days

29. Why do you think the cottonmouth pit viper is called a cottonmouth?
    - Ⓐ they eat cotton
    - Ⓒ they can be found near cotton fields
    - Ⓑ the discoverer was named Cotton
    - Ⓓ the inside of their mouth is white

Part F. Comprehension: Read the passage and circle the correct answer. (1 point each)

Marcia says that all of her friends have a cell phone, but Marcia's mom doesn't want to buy her one. Marcia's mom doesn't want Marcia to play video games either. What is more, the Internet scares her. Marcia's mom says, "If Marcia has a cell phone, how do we know whom she is talking to? Video games are bad for you. The Internet is dangerous and uncontrolled. It's like having a gun in the house. We should just ban her from using the computer, and I'm not buying her a cell phone until she is eighteen. This is the only way we can be sure that Marcia is safe."

Marcia's dad disagrees with Marcia's mom. Although he agrees that there are some dangers to it, he likes the Internet, and finds it to be very useful. "The trouble is," he says, "we just can't stop Marcia from using the Internet, as this would put her at a disadvantage. What is more, I like video games. I think that, when played in moderation, they are fun. Obviously, it is not good to play them without restraint or self-control. Finally, I think Marcia needs a cell phone. We can't take these things away."

30. Which of the following best describes the difference between Marcia's mom and Marcia's dad?
    - Ⓐ Mom wants to stop Marcia from using the computer, while Dad plays video games.
    - Ⓑ Mom thinks technology is dangerous, while Dad thinks it can be useful.
    - Ⓒ Mom cares little about Marcia's future, while Dad is very supportive.
    - Ⓓ Mom is very strict, while Dad is open-minded.

31. Which of the following best describes the similarity between Marcia's mom and Marcia's dad?
    Ⓐ Mom and Dad both like technology.
    Ⓑ Mom and Dad both think video games are bad.
    Ⓒ Mom and Dad both think the Internet is dangerous.
    Ⓓ Mom and Dad both care about Marcia's wellbeing.

32. Marcia's mom says, "It's like having a gun in the house." Why does she say this?
    Ⓐ to support the idea that the Internet is dangerous
    Ⓑ to reject the claim that guns can be safe if used responsibly
    Ⓒ to encourage Marcia's dad to purchase a gun
    Ⓓ to explain why the Internet is uncontrolled

33. Marcia's dad says, "We just can't stop Marcia from using the Internet, as this would put her at a disadvantage." What does Marcia's dad mean by this?
    Ⓐ Marcia needs to learn how to use the Internet if she wants to have friends.
    Ⓑ Marcia should not stop using the Internet because it will slow her learning.
    Ⓒ If using the Internet becomes important, Marcia will be at a loss.
    Ⓓ If Marcia does not learn to use the Internet, she will never learn of its dangers.

34. Marcia's dad says, "Finally, I think Marcia needs a cell phone." Given what you know about Marcia's mom's concerns, what is the best reason Marcia's dad can provide to convince Marcia's mom that Marcia needs a cell phone?
    Ⓐ Marcia can use her cell phone, instead of needing to borrow one of ours.
    Ⓑ Having a cell phone will teach Marcia how to use new technology.
    Ⓒ It would be unfair to disallow Marcia to have a cell phone.
    Ⓓ If Marcia is in trouble, she can use her cell phone to call for help.

35. Which of the following describes a level of game play that Marcia' dad would disapprove of?
    Ⓐ Marcia plays video games all evening. The next day, she wakes up early and goes for a walk through the woods near her house.
    Ⓑ Marcia plays video games for an hour or two. Then, she goes out with her friends.
    Ⓒ Marcia plays video games all morning. When her friends ask her to come play outside, Marcia tells them that she is too busy and continues to play.

Ⓓ Marcia plays video games for an hour every day for five days straight.

Part G. Antonyms: Choose the word that has the opposite meaning. (1 point each)

36. cautious
    Ⓐ release   Ⓑ careful   Ⓒ edged   Ⓓ careless

37. forbid
    Ⓐ allow   Ⓑ annoy   Ⓒ professional   Ⓓ ancient

38. knowledge
    Ⓐ computer   Ⓑ teacher   Ⓒ ignorance   Ⓓ wisdom

39. passive
    Ⓐ a woman   Ⓑ valley   Ⓒ travel   Ⓓ active

40. thrifty
    Ⓐ a loose   Ⓑ trusting   Ⓒ wasteful   Ⓓ modest

Part H. Word Parts: Identify the proper meaning of each root word or prefix. (1 pt each)

41. hypo-
    Ⓐ too much   Ⓑ too little   Ⓒ too fat   Ⓓ too skinny

42. exo-
    Ⓐ sickly   Ⓑ inside   Ⓒ healthy   Ⓓ outside

43. tele-
    Ⓐ history   Ⓑ technology   Ⓒ close   Ⓓ far

44. aqua
    Ⓐ fire   Ⓑ earth   Ⓒ water   Ⓓ machine

45. chron
    Ⓐ time   Ⓑ nature   Ⓒ color   Ⓓ heat

Adapted from Read Theory (2012) and from D. R. Bear, J. Dole, J. Echevarria, J. Hasbrouck, S. Paris, T. Shanahan, & J. Tinajero (2007).

APPENDIX D

Interview Questions: **Before**

Student Name: _____ Class: _____ 10/28/2013

1. How do you like to read books?
2. Who introduced English books to you?
3. Do you use books at your *hagwon*?
4. Did your parents read to you as a kid?
5. Why do you study English?
6. Is it stressful?
7. What's your ideal reading spot?
8. Do you read books on your own?
9. Do you go to bookstores? Libraries?
10. What's your favorite kind of book?
11. Do you have a role model for English?

APPENDIX E

Interview Questions: During

Student Name: _____ Class: _____ 11/15/2013

1. How many books have you read since we started the project?
2. When do you find time to read?
3. Do you think you'll be able to finish at least two books by the end of December?
4. What might make it easier for you to read?
5. How did you select the book you're reading now?
6. Would you recommend it?

APPENDIX F

Interview Questions: After

Student Name: _____ Class: _____ 12/18/2013

1. Do you feel that this program increased the way you look at reading?
2. As a result of the program, did you read more books than you normally would have?
3. Do you think reading makes you smarter? Why or why not?
4. Do you think you would be in the "Beyond" class even if you didn't read as much?
5. Do you think Mr. Smith has made you read more, less, or the same amount?
6. Do you feel pressure to read English books? Korean books?

Effect of Practicing a Collaborative Genre-Based Approach in a CALL Environment on EFL Learners' Writing Skill

Victoria Sadeghi

Iranian Academic Center for Education, Culture, and Research; Tehran, Iran

Based on the increasing role of technologies in modern life, it seems that traditional classrooms cannot supply the needs of learners for employment in high-tech positions. Therefore, they might be reluctant to spend their time in the classroom and avoid modern tools which could be used on a daily basis. To address this need, a CALL environment grounded in the socio-cultural theories of Vygotsky was implemented using genre-based writing tasks. The participants were assigned into four different groups: The first group practiced writing individually using paper and pencil; the second group of individuals used computers and then typed their writing tasks. The third practiced collaboratively and used traditional paper and pencil. For the fourth, collaborative practice was undertaken using computers. The effect of the environment (paper and pencil vs. CALL) and method of writing (individual writing vs. collaborative writing) was studied to determine the improvement of writing skill. The findings in the present study showed a significant positive effect of practicing collaborative writing in a CALL environment.

INTRODUCTION

It is generally agreed that writing is the most challenging skill to master for foreign- or second-language learners. In addition, compared to other language skills, writing has not been emphasized so much in syllabus design and teaching methodology. Consequently, many teachers do not seem to be keen on teaching it in the classroom. Therefore, both learners and teachers may seek an opportunity to waive the burden of

this task. According to Widodo (2006), this difficulty is due to not only the need to generate and organize ideas using an appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence, and paragraph organization but also to the need to turn such ideas into what Richards and Renandya (2002) call a readable text. This difficulty is the same even in first language classes. What distinguishes foreign language contexts is the trouble learners experience while trying to transfer ideas from their native language to the target language (i.e., Persian to English in the present study). For this reason, a writing task is seen not only as product-based but also as process-based. Two influential approaches (process- and genre-based) to the teaching of writing have been proposed in the field of teaching writing. The researcher has tried to combine both of them in order to study the likely impact of this approach on EFL learners' writing skill.

Kim (2007) recognizes the 1960s as the starting point of research with a focus on development of innovative and practical techniques in teaching writing in a second language. The first phase of this research was dedicated to the process approach, in which students were able to work through several stages to finalize their writing tasks. Afterwards, there was an inclination towards writing based on a situation, or as Kim reported, a "genre-based approach" that emphases models and key features of texts written for a particular purpose. Kim clarifies the differences between these two approaches as follows:

> In the process-based approach, a teacher typically leads students to follow the steps of prewriting, writing, revising, and editing before achieving the final product, and this sequence teaches students how to write. In the genre-based approach, samples of a specific genre are introduced, and some distinctive characteristics of the given genre are pointed out so that students notice specific configurations of that genre. Next, students attempt to produce the first draft through imitating that given genre. (p. 33)

Writing, just like all other fields of language teaching, has experienced some integral changes, and the understanding of scholars in this domain has shifted as well. Richards (2003) traced the hints of transition from modernism (the rejection of prescription, authority, untested claims, and assertions in favor of reason, empirical investigation, and objectivity closely associated with the scientific method) to postmodernism (the rejection of modernism for failing to recognize the cultural relativity of all forms of knowledge and an

emphasis on the autonomous individual). This later term was elaborated briefly by Atkinson (2003, p. 3). He introduced the era as a "post-process" one − a term earlier used by Trimbur (1994, p. 109).

In foreign or second language writing, a genre-based approach refers to teaching learners how to make use of language patterns to achieve a purposeful, coherent composition (Hyland, 2003). Hyland adds that the genre-based approach has largely drawn on the theory of systematic functional grammar originally developed by Michael Halliday. This theory addresses the relationship between language and its social functions and sets out to show how language is a system from which users make choices to utter meanings. In other words, the genre-based approach focuses heavily on the reader and on the conventions that a piece of writing needs to follow in order to be successfully accepted by its readership (Muncie, 2002). Using the genre-based approach, a teacher is required to get learners to write or produce a text or composition on the basis of purpose, organization, and audience (Paltridge, 2001).

The genre-based approach lets the teacher present the generic structures and grammatical features of written texts explicitly. This awareness of the target task creates a guided practice of writing as students develop language skills for meaningful communication through whole texts.

The main purpose of this study is synthesizing the genre- and process-based approaches through mediation with learner collaboration. This collaboration is in line with Vygotsky's (1987) concept called the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which suggests that at initial levels of learning how to write, learner knowledge is not sufficient to write an assigned composition. He argues that there is a "distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving." Paving the way towards the target level would be facilitated "under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

Instructional input alone is not enough for students to write an assigned composition independently. For this reason, students need support from a teacher as a more competent person to model for and mentor the student. Through joint text construction, the teacher and students develop texts together and share the responsibility for performance until the students have the knowledge and skills to perform independently and with sole responsibility of producing the text. Later,

this type of collaboration can be continued between students as peer support, where a peer acts as a more knowledgeable support. The present study encouraged students to do the same. It also encouraged them to write a composition with regard to clear purpose, audience, and organization. In other words, the students were encouraged to think of why they were writing a composition, who they were writing for, and how they were constructing their writing with clear organization (Feez, 1998).

In formal schooling in many parts of the world, children are presumed to be literate by the time they reach third or fourth grade. From this point forward, reading and writing pass from being the object of instruction to a medium of instruction. Reading and writing are an efficient means of passing along ever-increasing amounts of classroom information and communication.

In many schools, for example, web-based resources, tablets, interactive whiteboards (IWB), and other resources are now routinely used for reference and communication within schools. Consequently, school announcements are presented in videos, integrating spoken language, text, music, graphics, and images. These popular technologies are becoming a standard tool in today's classrooms, and writing has not been outside of their influence. Technology has a crucial influence on the life and education of students (Amiri & Sharifi, 2014). Since technologies have permeated the lives of students, it is apparent that computer technology should be an integral part of learning in contemporary schools (Yelland, 2008). Using traditional blackboards as teaching media, for example, is no longer suitable for the new generation growing up with computers (Yang, Wang, & Kao, 2012).

Furthermore, the use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has been identified as being more motivating and effective in improving the language teaching and learning environment (Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010). CALL is a language learning and teaching approach in which the computer is used as a tool for presentation, assisting students, and evaluating material (Jafarian, Soori, & Kafipour, 2012). Email, websites, blogs, podcasts, and interactive whiteboards (IWB) are all different examples of CALL applications that are being used in educational systems and, more specifically, in language learning. Tablets also offer an easy way for students to share and view what they are writing. They can also be loaded up and presented on interactive whiteboards with applications that can help students to practice grammar, translate their

writing into other media, or work together with classmates on a variety of different projects. To examine the effects of this technology, CALL has gained considerable attention from different users, including writers and researchers.

In conclusion, this researcher has attempted to synthesize process- and genre-based writing through practicing them in a collaborative mode. She has also designed a CALL environment for this practice. The main purpose of initiating the present study was to investigate whether any significant difference in development of writing skill occurred while collaborating through a CALL environment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been a lack of attention to the role of literacy in classroom language learning due to the historical development of the field of second language acquisition. Emerging out of linguistics, this field has undoubtedly been colored by the evolution and resulting focus of study in linguistics in the United States, which was mainly focused on the spoken forms of languages. In particular, while there has been a tendency at least since Aristotle to regard writing simply as speech written down (Olson, 1994), this tendency became especially pronounced in the 20th century among linguists and teaching scholars.

Historical Development of Approaches Toward Writing

This idea that writing is simply speech written down and therefore not worthy of serious attention has been replaced by a much more complex view of the nature of writing with the growth of composition studies and the field of second language writing.

Research on writing at language schools was initiated in the late 1960s, and most efforts were centered on proposing techniques for teaching writing. In the 1970s, learning to write in a second language was mainly seen to involve developing linguistic and lexical knowledge as well as familiarity with the syntactic patterns and cohesive devices that form the building blocks of texts (Hyland, 2002). Learning to write involved imitating and manipulating models provided by the teacher and was closely linked to learning grammar. The sequence of activities in a

writing lesson typically involved the following:

- Familiarization: learners study grammar and vocabulary, usually through a text.
- Controlled writing: learners manipulate fixed patterns, often from substitution tables.
- Guided writing: learners imitate model texts.
- Free writing: learners use the patterns they have developed to write a letter, paragraph, or other type of document.

Activities based on controlled composition predominated during this period with its focus on preventing errors and developing correct writing habits. Later, the focus in teaching writing shifted to a paragraph-pattern approach with a focus on the use of topic sentences, supporting sentences, and transitions and practice using different functional patterns, particularly narration, description, comparison-contrast, and exposition. It became apparent that good writing involved more than the ability to write grammatically correct sentences. It was thought that sentences needed to be cohesive and the entire text needed to be coherent.

In the 1990s, process writing introduced a new dimension into the teaching of writing with an emphasis on the writer and the strategies used to produce a piece of writing. Writing was viewed as a "complex, recursive and creative process that is very similar in its general outlines for first and second language writers; learning to write requires the development of an efficient and effective composing process" (Silva & Matsuda, 2002, p. 261). The composing processes employed by writers were explored as well as the different strategies employed by proficient and less-proficient writers. Drawing from work on first language composition theory and practice, EFL students were soon being taught such processes as planning, drafting, revising, and editing as well as how to give peer feedback.

Writing, as mentioned above, has experienced some integral changes, and the understanding by scholars in this domain has shifted as well. Richards (2003) traced the transition from modernism to postmodernism. Later, more attention was paid to the nature of writing in various situations. This then brought popularity to the genre-based approach, which focuses on models and key features of texts written for particular purposes. Therefore, second language writing instruction in some parts of

the world has been influenced by a genre approach. This approach looks at the ways in which language is used for particular purposes in particular contexts. Writing is therefore seen as involving a complex web or relations between writer, reader, and text.

Drawing on the work of Halliday (1978), Martin (1993), Swales (1990), and others, the genre approach seeks to address not only the needs of EFL writers to compose texts for particular readers but also examines how texts actually work. Discourse communities such as business executives, applied linguists, technicians, and advertising copywriters possess a shared understanding of the texts they use and create as well as the expectations as to the formal and functional features of such texts. Genre theory has generated types of writing (narrative, descriptive, and argumentative writing) as well as different text types (research reports, business letters, essay examinations, and technical reports). According to Hyland (2003), contemporary views of L2 writing see writing as involving composing skills and knowledge about text, context, and readers. Writers not only need realistic strategies for drafting and revising but also a clear understanding of genre to be able to structure their writing according to the demands and constraints of a particular context. The field of second language writing is hence a dynamic one today and one that is generating an increasing amount of research. The process-based approach generally represented a reaction against the product-based approach, whereas the genre-based approach represents a reaction to the so-called progressive curriculum.

In conclusion, in the process-based approach, the teacher typically has the students follow the steps of prewriting, writing, revising, and editing before achieving the final product, and this sequence teaches the students how to write. Walsh (2004) explained how the procedures of process writing help learners to develop more effective ways of conveying meaning and to better comprehend the content that they want to express. In the genre-based approach, samples of a specific genre are introduced, and some distinctive characteristics of the given genre are pointed out so that students notice specific configurations of that genre. Next, students attempt to produce a first draft through imitating the given genre. In other words, the genre-based approach is canalizing the process of writing.

Hedge (1993) indicated that writing involves knowledge about language (as in product- and genre-based approaches); knowledge of the context in which writing happens, particularly the purpose of the writing

(as in the genre-based approach); and skills in using language (as in the process-based approach). Writing development happens by drawing out the potential of the learners (as in the process-based approach) and by providing input to which the learners respond (as in the product- and genre-based approaches). Martin (1993) explained that writing, in one of his central insights of genre analysis, is an embedded process of genre in a particular social situation, so that a piece of writing is meant to achieve a particular purpose that comes out of a particular situation. An example might be an estate agent writing a description of a house in order to sell it. This purpose has implications for the subject matter, writer-audience relationship, organization, channel, and mode.

Genre-Based Approach

Sabouri, Zohrabi, and Vafa (2014) describe genre as a particular class of speech events – written texts included – which are considered by the speech community as being of the same type, such as prayers, sermons, conversations, songs, speeches, poems, letters, or novels. A genre is usually characterized by its communicative purpose(s) in general, associated themes, conventions (rhetorical structure, lexico-grammar, and other textual features), channel of communication (spoken, electronic, hardcopy), audience type, and sometimes the roles of the writer and reader. They continue that genre for most people is associated with the world of fiction writing, and categories such as thriller, science fiction, or gothic horror immediately spring to mind. What most L2 students need to produce when they need to function in English are things like a letter to a prospective employer, a business report, or the write-up to a scientific experiment. The key to the concept of genre is the purpose the piece of writing serves. Therefore, from another perspective, genre refers not only to types of literary texts but also to the predictable and recurring patterns of everyday, academic, and literary texts occurring within a particular culture (Hammond & Derewianka, 2001). Genre or text-type, either spoken or written, is often identified or grouped according to its primary social purposes. According to Swales (1990), the genres that share the same purposes belong to the same text-types.

Writing Genre-Based Text in the Classroom

While genre analysis focuses on the language used in a particular text, the processes by which writers produce a text reflecting these elements should also be included under the term Badger and White (2000) call "process genre." This would cover the process by which writers decide what aspects of the topic should be highlighted, as well as knowledge of the appropriate language. In the writing classroom, teachers need to replicate the situation related to the target genre as closely as possible and then provide sufficient support for learners to identify the purpose and other aspects of the social context. Therefore, learners who, for example, wanted to be an estate agent would need to consider the following:

> ...that their description is meant to sell the house (purpose), that it must appeal to a certain group of people (tenor), that it must include certain information (field), and that there are ways in which house descriptions are presented (mode). Then drawing on their knowledge of things such as vocabulary, grammar and organization, these writers would use the skills appropriate to the genre, such as redrafting and proof-reading, to produce a description of a house which reflects the situation from which it arises. (Badger & White, 2000, p. 158)

In terms of classroom implementation, a genre-based approach is similar to a process-based approach to teaching writing. However, the genre-based approach also resembles the product approach in that a model text is analyzed on the basis of grammatical and text features. This is followed by guided writing in a joint construction stage before a final, free-writing stage (Badger & White, 2000). In short, as several authors (Derewianka, 2003; Feez, 1998; Hyland, 2003) suggest, there are two main teaching-learning cycles in standard genre-based writing teaching: writing with the class and writing independently. Each of these cycles has its own associated activities. Writing with the class involves (a) building knowledge of the field, (b) exploring the genre, and (c) joint text construction. Writing independently includes (a) building knowledge of a similar field, (b) drafting, revising, and conferencing, and (c) editing and publishing. Each stage has different purposes in terms of the writing process.

Teaching Genre-Based Text in the Classroom

Badger and White (2002) stated that different genres require different types of knowledge and different sets of skills, and both the knowledge and skill involved in different genres, are limited. However, teachers are expert writers of many genres, and a key feature of this approach is that they should draw on their own knowledge of, and skills in, particular process genres. The development of writing will vary between different groups of learners because they are at different stages in their writing development. Learners who know a lot about the production of a particular genre, and are skilled in it, may need little or no input. Some groups of learners will have a good awareness of how a potential audience may understand what is written. Other groups may lack the knowledge of what type of language is appropriate to a particular audience. In this case, the learners need some type of input in terms of the language appropriate to a particular audience or the skills to decide who the potential audience may be. What input is needed will depend on the particular group of learners.

One of the most daunting challenges that teachers may face in their classes is that they may not be able to find out what the learners know or can do before a class begins. In this case, the deep-end approach modeled on Willis (1996, p. 100) may be appropriate. Learners try to carry out one element in a particular genre, and then compare their texts or skills in text production with some expert's (possibly the teacher's) version of this. On the basis of this comparison, they or the teacher can then decide if they need further input of knowledge or skill.

As Badger and White (2000) suggest, where learners lack the knowledge, the teacher can draw on three potential sources: the teacher, other learners, and examples of the target genre. Teachers may provide input in terms of instruction; other learners may do the same in the less threatening context of group work, but perhaps the most distinctive source of input about contextual and linguistic knowledge in a genre-based process approach are awareness activities. Genre analysis attempts to reveal the similarities between texts written for the same reason, and so it is likely that these language awareness activities will be based on a corpus of the relevant genre. In the house description exercise mentioned above, learners might investigate the types of sentence structure used in estate agents' descriptions of a house, the type of vocabulary used to make the position sound attractive, and where the

price appears. Flowerdew (1993) and Dudley-Evans (1997) also suggest activities such as using flow charts to illustrate the organization of particular genres and translation. Learners may also require input about the skills needed for writing. A rich source here comes from observing other students and the teacher. Teachers may find direct instruction on skills effective, but an alternative is a demonstration by the teacher or other skilled writer, possibly accompanied by a commentary attempting to explain the mental processes that underlie such an exercise of skills. For example, teachers might explain why they include certain information about a house and leave out other information.

Lin (2006) believes that learning and teaching in a genre-based approach focuses on the understanding and production of selected genres of texts. According to Rogers (2001), this approach is the major trend of ELT in the new millennium. However, despite its background and deep roots in approaches such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as well as being used in native language classes, it is not widespread among ESL learners, but there have been a few examples in the literature, especially in Asia. The main focus of this approach is to create meaning at the level of discourse, not syntactical forms. This meaning should "accumulate and evolve over a stretch of text" (Derewianka, 2003). The text is in turn a harmonious collection of meaning that Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, and Yallop (2001, p. 3) describe as having a "unity of purpose." In other words, the macro-purposes of language are important and not just the semantic micro-functions of individual words. As Muncie (2002) elaborates, a successful student needs to be able to produce texts that fulfill the expectations of readers in grammar, organization, and context. Therefore, the role of grammar remains important but needs to be rethought. Here, the genre-based approach does not treat grammar as separate from communicative goals. Thus, it is both a "whole-to-part and part-to-whole approach" (Lin, 2006, p. 30).

Advantages and Disadvantages of a Genre-Based Approach

Kim and Kim (2005) are among the advocates of this approach. They studied a group of Korean university students' writing skills and pointed out that one of the main causes of the low performance of the students in English writing was, among other things, a lack of genre-specific writing across the curriculum (p. 3). For example, the high

scorers on English tests performed poorly even on small writing tasks, and most of them consistently exhibited difficulties in expressing themselves in writing, choosing appropriate vocabulary, organizing a structure depending on the topic or the purpose of writing, following correct grammar rules, and integrating ideas. Consequently, to solve these problems that learners face in writing tasks, genre-specific writing instruction may be useful since it presents some examples to students who have only limited exposure to authentic English writing.

Kim and Kim (2005) reported that, on the positive side, students generally appreciate the models or examples showing specifically what they have to do linguistically. Studying a given genre also provides them with an understanding of why a communication style is the way it is through a reflection of its social context and its purpose. Swales (1990) pointed out how rhetorical instruction plays as pivotal a role in writing improvement as prior knowledge (p. 83). In this context, the genre-based approach is very beneficial because it brings together the formal and functional properties of a language in writing instruction, and it acknowledges that there are strong associations between them. Bhatia (as cited in Kim & Kim, 2005, p. 6) suggests that it is meaningful for writing instructors to tie the formal and functional properties of a language together in order to facilitate student recognition of how and why linguistic conventions are employed for particular rhetorical effects. If the rhetorical structure of content is analyzed by students in the genre-based approach, some common patterns can be identified in each genre. Naturally, these patterns form a type of background knowledge students can activate in the next learning situation. Eventually, this prior knowledge will make it easier for students to produce acceptable structures in their writing tasks. Therefore, an assigned genre seems to serve as an influential tool for both the learning and teaching of writing for both students and teachers.

Furthermore, the genre-based approach encourages students to participate in the world around them, to comprehend writing as a tool that they can use, and to realize how writers manage content to promote logical organization. It also allows students to become more flexible in their thinking and eventually to realize how authors organize their writings. However, some proponents have indicated that the genre approach is more suitable for learners at elementary or intermediate levels of proficiency in a second language rather than those at advanced levels, in which students are released from deep anxieties about their

writing tasks. When people learn something new, they commonly want to find some cases that they can refer to or consider as samples. There is no doubt that writing tasks can be more demanding than other language skills, so students at a low level of proficiency absolutely need something that they can rely on since they have had little exposure to English writing (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998, p. 310).

Despite these beneficial roles in helping learners to produce written work with confidence, there are two concerns about the genre-based approach. One is that it underestimates the skills required to produce content, and the other concern is that it does not support learner autonomy (Byram, 2004, p. 236). Byram maintains that the genre-based approach not only places too much emphasis on conventions and genre features but is also less helpful for students in discovering a text's true message due to the targeted aspects of the specified genre. Likewise, if teachers spend class time explaining how language is used for a range of purposes and with a variety of readers, learners are likely to be largely passive. Thus, the genre approach is blamed for putting limits on learners by not allowing them to generate their own content, and is criticized in that it overlooks the natural processes of learning and learner creativity (Badge & White, 2000, p. 157). Finally, Bawarshi (2000) points out that, at its best, it helps learners to identify and interpret literary texts, while at its worst, it interferes with learner creativity (p. 343). This concern means that students may end up writing genres as meaningless reproductions. They may also rely excessively on the models prepared for them by the teacher; therefore, a deep understanding of this approach could be ignored. Badger and White (2000) report that this approach undervalues the skills needed to produce a text and is highly product-focused. Lin (2006) also warns us of the consequences of the blind application of a genre-based approach. He refers to extending a rigid prescriptivism to the level of the text and explains that this approach demands extreme conformation of this model as it can stymie any further innovation or individual expression. Lin reminds us that a genre-based approach is not a panacea or a final revelation.

However, according to Bakhtin (1986), genres always evolve through incorporating a rich variety of voices, styles, discourse features, and points of view. The genre-based approach allows students to be exposed to the plurality of a genre, which implies that students still have chances to develop their creativity in the genre approach. Thus, if the

genre-based approach is to remain true to the fundamental nature of genres, then teaching in this approach should include a final step in which students are encouraged to break the style of the existing genre and let it evolve.

Application of CALL Resources in Educational Contexts

Incorporating CALL resources into a genre-based approach offers advantages such as acting as a mediator to facilitate the process of learning. There have been some case studies in the literature supporting the use of CALL in educational contexts as they have indicated that learners might reap the benefits of integrating computers and technology into the teaching process. For instance, students can use word processor tools, such as a spelling and grammar checker, to do surface-level language revision on their writing drafts (Pennington, 2004). In addition, a thesaurus enables students to find synonyms that they can use for variation of lexical use. More importantly, a teacher can employ the track changes and comment functions of Microsoft Word to provide students with writing feedback. Secondly, students can employ PowerPoint for their presentations. Lastly, by utilizing Internet resources (for example, websites and email), students can browse for required information to generate ideas and develop them into completed essays. Feedback can be presented through email as an alternative activity, and students can submit their finished essays through email. Widodo (2006) has reported that with integrative CALL resources in a genre-based writing class, the teacher focuses not only on helping students write better, but also, as suggested by Egbert (2005), encourages them to employ technology in order to facilitate the entire writing process. Al Emran and Shaalan (2014) have found managing course-material (lectures, hand-outs, and assignments) to be the major problem that Al Buraimi University College (BUC) students in Oman are suffering from. Their study led them to introduce a solution that combines four technologies: M-learning, an E-podium, a BUC website, and video-conferencing. This approach can motivate learner participation in class activities and create many opportunities for both students and educators.

Integrating Socio-cultural-Based Theories with a Genre-Based Approach

Because students become part of the professional sector of society after graduation, they need to build communication skills and be able to perform a broad range of social purposes for writing English as well as competency in specific genres. As a result, scholars and curriculum designers should try to include genre-based writing in academic programs.

In spite of its important role in the career of students, a genre-based approach may promote passivity in the process of language learning. Badger and White (2000) argue that this approach undervalues the skills needed to produce a text because it is highly product-focused.

This later concern has been alleviated by borrowing from Vygotskian (1978) socio-cultural theory. Kim and Kim (2005) have suggested a product-process oriented genre-based approach as a combined solution. This solution has been used in many academic settings, including an Australian educational context (Derewianka, 2003) and at Nagoya University (Lin, 2006) in Japan. This approach distinguishes the socio-cultural theories of Vygotsky from current cognitive theories in the domain of SLA as every act of learning occurs within a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). It is inter-psychological first, and then transfers to intra-psychological. Vygotsky explained that learning begins at a social phase called object-regulation in which all concrete manifestations of culture function as sign systems to mediate learning. It then progresses to the other-regulation phase, which can include anyone who knows more than the learner, for example, a more knowledgeable peer. The final phase of learning, called self-regulation, is the time when a learner can process and manipulate their gained knowledge.

The work of Vygotsky can also provide us with a greater understanding of CALL. Bateson (1972) identified a relationship between humans and tool-use. Warschauer (2005) explained that this relationship can be clarified by the socio-cultural theories of Vygotsky (1978). Computer-assisted language learning (CALL), which is used in academic contexts to facilitate the learning process, could be considered as a tool at the service of academic purpose. Therefore, the socio-cultural principles of Vygotskian theory can be applied to a CALL environment.

The three main aspects of Vygotskian theory include mediation, social learning, and genetic analysis. Vygotsky views every human

activity as being mediated by tools or signs, which also transform activities. Warschauer (2005) concludes that CALL plays the same role. In other words, through practicing writing in language classes, we do not have a traditional form of writing plus the computer, but rather we have entirely new forms of writing that need to be taught in their own right (Shetzer & Warschauer, 2001). The second principle is based on the existence of a social origin for every mental functioning. Thus, writing needs to be strengthened within social interaction in a class, and the participants in this social interaction are teachers and peers. They all help the learner to advance in their ZPD and reach the desired independency. Within such contexts, learners can incorporate the linguistic chunks of others and refine their writing for an authentic audience. The third principle makes it possible to understand various aspects of mental functioning via analyzing the historical background and origin. CALL can be understood only if it is placed in a broader historical, social, and cultural context. To put it simply, understanding the motivation of students and attitudes toward working with technology is not possible unless we recognize the importance of new technologies in today's economy and society.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants were 143 male and female high-intermediate language learners who participated in a coed class in the English department at the Iranian Academic Center for Education, Culture, and Research (ACECR). Their age range was from 15 to 32. All the learners were literate in their native language. About 12.5 percent of them were graduate students and 45 percent were either undergraduate students or undergraduate degree holders. The rest did not have any university education. The students' initial placement in this department was based on their score on a multiple-choice mock TOEFL test that did not have a writing section and on an oral interview administrated by the Center.

Materials

Course Book
A two-level high-intermediate/advanced course, *Summit*, was used for teaching and developing competence and language proficiency in all

four skills. This text was assigned by the research and teaching department of ACECR. The *Summit* student's book contains a writing syllabus that includes rigorous practice and clear models of important rhetorical and mechanical writing skills. Each unit of the *Summit* textbook contains a page entirely dedicated to building student writing skills. Each lesson provides practice in the writing process from prewriting to revision. The unit begins with a presentation of a writing skill and includes numerous examples. A writing model provides students with a sample of what is expected (Teachers' Edition and Lesson Planner, *Summit*, 2006, p. xvi).

Supplementary Book

The course book, *Letter Writing Book* (Jalali Chimeh & Kasraeian, 2004), was used as a source of presenting various genre-samples for writing. Since all the types of letters in this book were not going to be practiced during this study, the researcher prepared a booklet in which only specific chapters were included. This booklet included different samples of genre for students. Since it was used in classes without access to the Internet; its purpose was to compensate for this lack of access to online samples. However, the other students in the experimental group were equipped with Internet access and computers, so it was possible for them to search various models of genre online. This booklet was given to the students who did not have access to the Internet in the classroom so they could use the content to model writing of various genres.

Computer and Internet Access

In order to practice in a CALL environment, the researcher set the class in the language laboratory of the ACECR center. This site was equipped with 20 computers, and Internet access was available to all users. The teacher was able to monitor each single system using intranet software called NetSupport School. This software is a class-leading software solution, providing teachers with the ability to instruct and visually/audibly monitor, as well as interact, with their students individually or as a pre-defined group or whole class. NetSupport School provides the capability to deliver lesson content, monitor each student PC, and work collaboratively.

Notepad Software

Windows XP was installed on the computers; therefore, the users were able to write their texts in a Notepad window. Unlike Microsoft Word, this software does not possess any editing tools. This lack ensured the teacher that the learners were using their own knowledge in recognizing their writing errors and correcting them.

Test

General Language Proficiency Test

The general IELTS test was used only in the grouping phase of the study. The purpose of administrating this test was to determine the learners' level of general language proficiency because the researcher needed a homogenous sample for further steps in the study. This was a standard version of the IELTS test that was purchased by ACECR to be used for teacher training courses. The test included four sections: speaking (11 to 14 minutes), listening (four sections, 40 items, 30 minutes), reading (three sections, 40 items, 60 minutes) and writing (two tasks, 60 minutes). Due to a lack of time, the test was given to the learners over two sessions. The listening and reading sections were administrated in session one, while the speaking and writing sections were administered in the second session. The total score band of the test was 9.

General IELTS Writing Test

Since the main focus of the present study was on improving the students' writing skills in fulfilling genre-based tasks, the researcher applied the general type of IELTS test and focused on Writing Task 1. In Task 1, the candidates were asked to respond to a given situation with a letter requesting information or explaining a situation. They were assessed on their ability to engage in personal correspondence by demonstrating skill such as eliciting and providing general factual information; expressing needs, wants, likes, and dislikes; and expressing opinions and complaints. This type of writing test was used in the grouping phase in order to extract the target participants for carrying out the study as well as the post-test phase in order to do the final analysis and obtain the results of the research. The writing test was a paper-based one. In other words, all the students had to take the test individually and without using any external source − regardless of the type of treatment

they were to receive.

The score scale used to assess the writing test was based on the standard scale introduced by the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (British Council, 2015) in which four main criteria were considered: Task Achievement, Coherence and Cohesion, Lexical Resource, and Grammatical Range and Accuracy. The total possible score on the writing task was 9.

Piloting Phase

It is taken for granted that every test should be piloted before being administrated as an assessment tool in a study. However, the researcher did not pilot this test in person because it was an already-piloted standard version and therefore did not need to be piloted again.

Grouping Phase

The first step in the study was ensuring the homogeneity of the participants. Thus, the researchers ran a simulated IELTS test over the two initial sessions of the course: listening and reading during the first session, and speaking and writing during the second session. This division was done due to the limited time in each session. The skills were scored, and the band scores were calculated by the researcher. In order to determine the inter-rater reliability, another colleague rescored them. The statistics guaranteed acceptable reliability between two sets of scores. Through descriptive data analysis, it was found that 102 learners were able to get a band score in the range between one SD above and beneath the mean. The mean score was 4.99, and the SD was calculated as 0.669. Consequently, the scores in the range from 4.321 to 5.659 were extracted as homogenized participants for the following phase.

TABLE 1. IELTS Scores in the Grouping Phase

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	SStd. Error
IELTS Scores	43	4.0	6.5	.993	.0559	.6687	.447	.330	.203	.346	.403
Valid N (listwise)	43										

TABLE 2. Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
IELTS scores during the grouping phase	43	00.0%		0%	43	100.0%
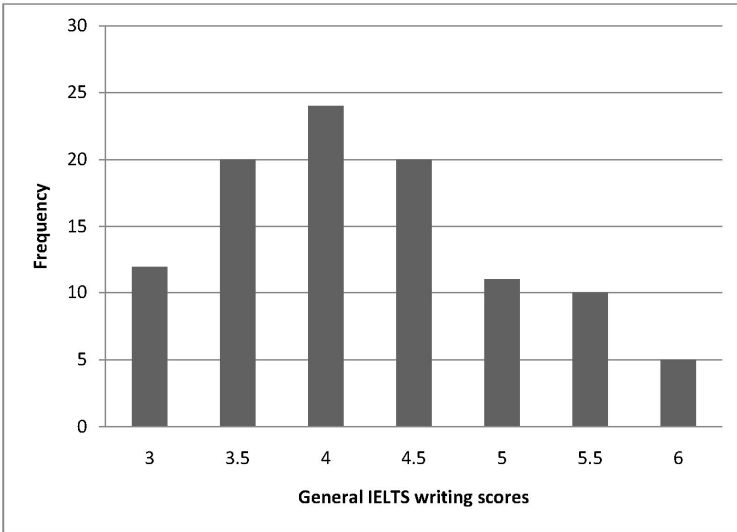
FIGURE 1. IELTS scores during the grouping phase.

The other criterion for selecting the target participants was their level of writing proficiency. For this, the researcher extracted the writing scores on Task 1. A colleague had rescored this part before, and they made sure that the inter-rater reliability was acceptable by calculating the correlation among the two sets of scores. She also analyzed the scores and picked out her final 64 target participants as those whose writing score fell in the range between 1 SD above and below the mean. The mean was 4.04 and the SD was estimated at 0.824. Therefore, the scores between 3.216 and 4.864 were picked out as the target participants.

TABLE 3. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	SStd. Error
General IELTS Writing Scores on the Homogenizing phase	102	3.0	6.0	4.044	.0816	.8238	.679	.601	.239	-.405	.474
Valid N (listwise)	102										

TABLE 4. Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
General IELTS Writing Scores during the grouping phase	02	1.3%	1	8.7%	43	100.0%
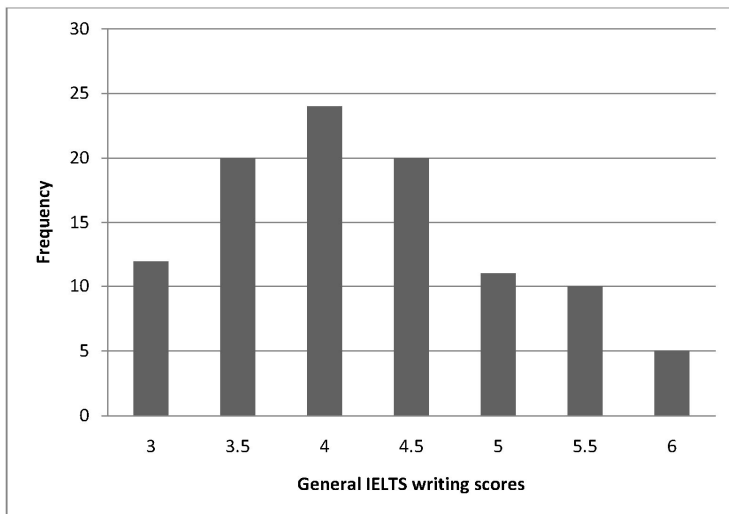
FIGURE 2. General IELTS writing scores during the grouping phase.

The learners were divided into two groups. The group that was going to practice paper-based writing attended a common classroom equipped with chairs arranged in a semi-circle. The other group, the group that was going to practice in the CALL environment, had classes held in a language lab. The paper-based class was in turn divided into two groups: The first one practiced all the writing tasks individually without the help of other classmates; the other group was allowed to write collaboratively, and they experienced pair work. The same strategy was used in the language lab: One group practiced individual writing, and the other one practiced collaborative writing.

Treatment

Every educational semester in the ACECR center lasts 20 sessions. The two initial sessions were dedicated to the grouping phase. The 19th session was spent distributing the post-test, and the last session was dedicated to the formal final test. Consequently, there were 16 sessions left to treat the learners in the experimental group. The researcher brought different topics for writing practice. All of them were genre-based writing tasks that were selected from the available standard samples of the general IELTS test (Task 1). The learners studied and became familiar with different processes of writing from prewriting to revision according to the syllabus based on the *Summit* text. They had also practiced some of the rules throughout the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels of the previous texts.

The students were divided into four nonrandom groups. There were 16 students in each group. Group 1 practiced a collaborative genre-based approach to writing in a CALL environment. Group 2 practiced the same approach in a paper-based environment. Group 3 practiced individual writing in a CALL environment, and Group 4 practiced the same mode of writing in a paper-based environment.

In the paper-based classes, the learners received a booklet that included different samples of genre writing based on the *Letter Writing Book* (Jalali Chimeh & Kasraeian, 2004) in addition to their course book. The samples were chosen by the researcher. They were mainly on the most probable topics that students might be in need of in their further educational life or career, such as writing an application letter or statement of purpose letter. The researcher gave a short and comprehensive lecture on each genre before starting the writing process.

The researcher used the whiteboard in order to present her data to the learners. The students were responsible for analyzing the genres further and discovering their principles based on the prepared samples. The students sat in their chairs in a semi-circle arrangement, which is common in all language classes at ACECR. The means of writing was with paper and pencil and a hard copy of the samples was available for each student.

In the CALL classes, the learners had access to the Internet instead of using a hard copy in order to analyze samples of genres. They were allowed to search the Internet for different samples and use them as a model while writing. They also typed their tasks in a notepad window instead of writing them on paper. As with the previous group, the researcher spent some time introducing the genres. However, the method of presenting the lecture was different: The lecture was presented on a presentation screen using a video projector that was connected to the teacher's computer. The presentation used a PowerPoint program prepared by the researcher. The classroom was equipped with a total of 24 single computer units. The units were arranged in pairs with three pairs in each row. Each unit had a PC system unit, monitor, keyboard, mouse, and pair of headsets. All the systems were connected through an intranet using NetSupport School software. Therefore, it was possible for the researcher to monitor each student and control the transmission of information. She was also able to hear the conversations within the pairs when they were collaborating to fulfill the writing task.

As mentioned above, there were two groups that experienced the CALL environment: individual and collaborative. In the individual writing group, the learners were not allowed to comment on each other's' writing. Each writer was responsible for their own task. The entire process was conducted individually. Each writer had to go over the booklet information or surf the Internet, brainstorm, type the draft, edit, and revise their texts. Each sat in their chair to work on their writing task. The researcher did not interfere with the process of writing at all. She only monitored the participants' activities while they were trying to fulfill their writing tasks.

The collaborative classes experienced pair work in all the mentioned steps of writing. The students were allowed to comment on or correct the work of other students. They pooled their information and cooperated. The first step was the assignment of the participants into different groups. Students were given the chance to decide on their own

partners in each single session. The possibility of changing the arrangement of pairs in each session helped them to practice and reinforce their social relationship for their future communicative life. The groups were self-selected and consisted of both genders in most instances. The researcher encouraged the participants to experience this peer activity with a different partner in each session. It could give them the opportunity to increase their social relationships and handle any probable uncomfortable feeling regarding working with a specific partner. For instance, if the participants did not match very well, they were given the opportunity to experience a collaborative activity with different partners in the following session in order to mollify their uncomfortable feeling about collaborative work, which might act as a future impediment. This constant change in arranging pairs prevented the effect of getting accustomed to a single partner and helped students to learn how to handle different situations in communicating with others. The participants had the chance to have discussions with different partners. They were able to practice all the stages of analyzing the sample genre, brainstorming, sharing opinions, correcting mistakes, and discussing before doing any writing in a collaborative mode. In other words, they were allowed to share their ideas, and knowledge about language and provide each other with immediate feedback. The process of pooling their linguistic resources was manifested as "collective scaffolding," a term introduced by Donato (1994, p. 38). In each pair, one of the participants was in charge of writing down or typing the text. They discussed the topic, suggested their own ideas, and came to a consensus to work out the final product. They sometimes stopped now and then to discuss and correct some grammatical or lexical errors. These tasks were not graded, but collected, saved, and printed out at the end of each session and subsequently returned to the students with some written comments.

Before starting this treatment, the researcher gave a short introduction about collaborative work and tried to clarify its foremost principles. She explained how they could scaffold each other in fulfilling their writing tasks, they were allowed to comment on lexicon and structure use, combine sentences, and maintain the texts' coherency.

Post-test Phase

During the last session of the semester, all of the participants took

a standard sample from a general writing IELTS topic to write about individually, which was considered as a post-test. The texts composed by the students were analyzed and scored using the standard IELTS criteria scales. In order to check for inter-rater reliability in scoring, the compositions were rescored by another rater. The statistics demonstrated a high level of reliability.

Before running the two-way ANOVA, the researcher had to ensure the normality of the data. As shown in Table 5, the data were normal, so it was possible to run a two-way ANOVA in order to analyze the estimated scores on the post-writing test.

TABLE 5. Descriptive Statistics in the Post-test Phase

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Collaborative writing in a CALL environment	16	6.3125	.85391	-.611	.564	-.091	1.091
Collaborative writing in a paper-based environment	16	5.1563	.62500	.723	.564	-.283	1.091
Individual writing in CALL	16	5.2813	.85574	-.486	.564	-.225	1.091
Individual writing in a paper-based environment	16	4.9688	.80558	.115	.564	-.283	1.091
Valid N (listwise)	16						

RESULTS

After 16 sessions of treatment, the researcher administered a general writing test as the post-test among the four different groups of students and ran a two-way ANOVA in order to analyze the data. Referring to Table 4, there were two independent variables: mode and environment. By mode, the researcher meant the way that the learners practiced the writing tasks as either collaborative or individual. The environment refers to a CALL or paper-based environment. The statistical findings are shown in Tables 6 and 7.

TABLE 6. Between-Subject Factors

		Value Label	N
Collaborative/Individual	.00	Collaborative	32
	.00	Individual	32
CALL/Paper-Based	.00	CALL	32
	.00	Paper-Based	32

TABLE 7. Descriptive Statistics for the General IELTS Writing Scores on the Post-test Phase

Collaborative/Individual	CALL/Paper-Based	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Collaborative	CALL	6.313	0.8539	16
	Paper-Based	5.156	0.6250	16
	Total	5.734	0.9417	32
Individual	CALL	5.281	0.8557	16
	Paper-Based	4.969	0.8056	16
	Total	5.125	0.8328	32
Total	CALL	5.797	0.9908	32
	Paper-Based	5.063	0.7156	32
	Total	5.430	0.9338	64

In Table 8, the significance value for the three items of mode, environment, and mode*environment was less than .05. This showed that there was a significant main effect of mode, environment, and mode*environment on the genre-based writing skills of the EFL students, $F_{(1,60)} = 9.5$, $p < .003$; $F_{(1,60)} = 13.8$, $p < .000$; $F_{(1,60)}$, $p < .037$.

TABLE 8. Test of Between-Subject Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	17.418 A	3	5.806	9.286	.000
Intercept	1886.816	1	1886.816	30 17.649	.000
Mode	5.941	1	5.941	9.502	.003
Environment	8.629	1	8.629	13.800	.000
Mode * Environment	2.848	1	2.848	4.554	.037
Error	37.516	60	.625		
Total	1941.750	64			
Corrected Total	54.934	63			

Note: R-Squared = .317 (Adjusted R-Squared = .283)

The analysis of the statistics is shown in three separate sections of Table 9 (a, b, and c). In the first section, the participants taking part in collaborative writing are shown to have outperformed those who were practicing the individual mode of writing. The second section indicates that practicing in a CALL environment had a more significant effect on writing skill. The final section shows writing in a CALL environment through a collaborative-based approach to be the most effective treatment among the four treatments that were studied in this research.

TABLE 9. Dependent Variables

a. Collaborative / Individual

Dependent Variable: General IELTS Writing Scores on Post-test Phase

Collaborative/ Individual	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Collaborative	5.734	.140	5.455	6.014
Individual	5.125	.140	4.845	5.405

b. CALL / Paper-Based

Dependent Variable: General IELTS Writing Scores on Post-test Phase

CALL/ Paper-Based	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CALL	5.797	.140	5.517	6.076
Paper-Based	5.063	.140	4.783	5.342

c. Collaborative / Individual * CALL / Paper-Based

Dependent Variable: General IELTS Writing Scores on Post-test Phase

Collaborative/ Individual	CALL/ Paper-based	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Collaborative	CALL	6.313	.198	5.917	6.708
	Paper-Based	5.156	.198	4.761	5.552
Individual	CALL	5.281	.198	4.886	5.677
	Paper-Based	4.969	.198	4.573	5.364
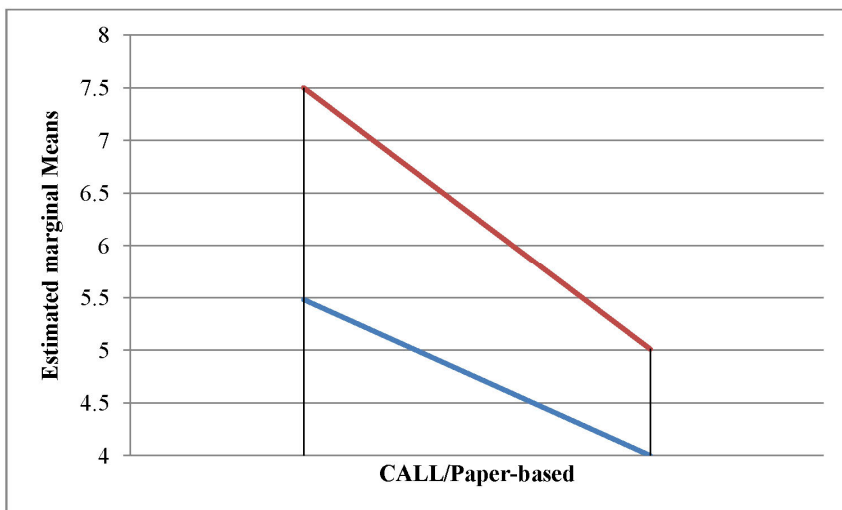
FIGURE 3. Estimated marginal means of the General IELTS writing scores on the post-test phase.

Figure 4 represents the results of those students who practiced collaborative genre-based writing using CALL.
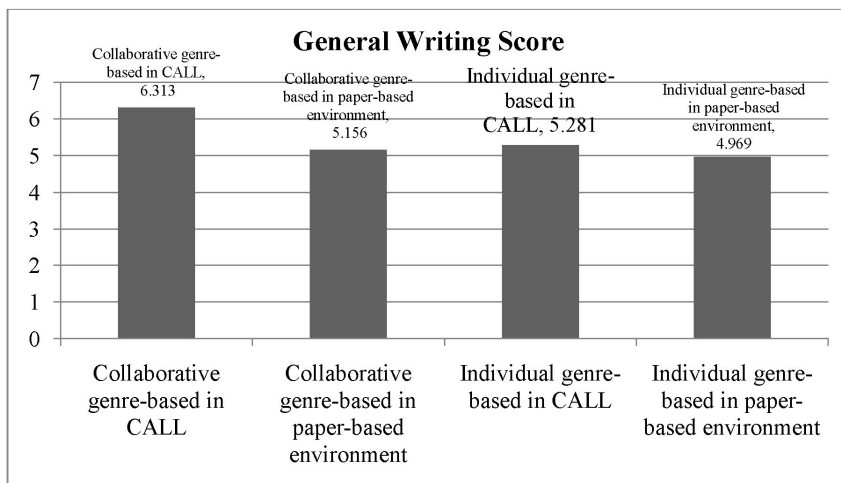
FIGURE 4. General writing scores.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Badger and White (2000) adopted genre and process approaches together as an alternative in a model called the process-genre approach. Through their research, they affirmed that this dual approach works well if the writing cycle begins with models, description of the key linguistic features, discussion of the social situation in which it happens, and analysis of the recommended rhetorical patterns of each genre. Student writing is then subjected to a sequence of drafts using a process-based approach (p. 157). Such an approach embraces teaching the appropriate language along with using a set of revision processes by which a final draft can be produced.

Bruning and Horn (2000, p. 27) discuss writing as "a complex, protracted, problem-solving task" that causes challenges for students that can be moderated by the help of a more knowledgeable other as Vygotsky (1978) called for. Practicing collaboration in writing classes seems to offer students an opportunity to pool ideas and provide each other with required feedback. The process of pooling of knowledge about language, which is termed "collective scaffolding" (Donato, 1994, p. 38) seems effective in helping students to improve their writing skill in the classroom since there might always be some points in writing skill that one student is more versed in. In such a case, such student can provide the required scaffolding and help the level of their partners to increase. This skill development will be guaranteed through the pooling of knowledge.

The findings of the present study support such a claim and have been shown to be applicable to the field of teaching writing. This way of practicing writing might facilitate the challenging process of writing in being a more interesting and affective one in the domain of language schools. Writers at all levels might be helped by this method. However, some more specific help could be given to higher-level writers because these groups of writers, who may be found among international students at universities all over the world, are in need of writing a variety of complex genres in their academic life and future careers.

The fast pace of innovation and development in educational technologies, particularly computers in the classrooms, is an undeniable fact. Computers offer benefits and can act as a more knowledgeable peer. They can be used to motivate students to take part in the writing process, help them find required sources, and share them with other

members of the class. They are the answer to the question of "where should I start?" because they assist learners in accessing a large source of samples to be used as a model.

Using computers in the classroom in order to teach, perform, and even assess language skills is a novel experience for some students and may also be used for groups of learners with specific disabilities. Computers may be used for those learners who face problems in communicating with their classmates as they facilitate indirect collaboration without the need for very close contact. Pennington, Ault, Schuster, and Saunders' (2010) research on teaching story writing to students with autism spectrum disorders (ASD) showed that these students may have difficulty acquiring writing skills (Smith Gabig, 2008). However, through the process of teaching and learning with computers, Pennington et. al were able to achieve a positive effect. Therefore, it seems to be appropriate to address the effects of CALL on writing skills among autistic learners as well. Learners with autism may be more attentive and motivated, and learn more vocabulary by using a computer than in a behavioral program.

A genre-based approach could also be applied in other skill teaching: listening, speaking, and reading. Paltridge (2001) explained how it may be used in teaching conversation for speaking skills. Eggins and Slade (1997) stated that casual conversations in English follow generic patterns of opening and closing, turn taking, and topic management, which are all realized through particular grammatical features in the same way as written genres. Improving reading skill in the classroom is also another area to explore. Tindale (1966, p. 16) has mentioned a genre-based approach for teaching reading to students.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The results show that using genres in classroom settings in EFL contexts is beneficial if the learners are taught the construction of moves for various types of social writing, especially in writing narration and description, which are two important areas for improving the ability of learners. Through this type of instruction, English students can achieve higher scores in writing. Also, considerable progress can be achieved in the construction of compositions and paragraphs in the writing of students in Iran, which is an EFL context like Korea. Practicing this

genre in a collaborative mode through passing the steps of the writing process will improve the ability of learners to pool this information and knowledge by using software and tablets to compose their texts.

Even though the study was conducted in Iran, it has relevance for the Korean ELT context. Examining learning strategies in particular, rather than teaching approaches, Kamalizad & Samuel (2014) found that the strategy inventory that Iranian college EFL learners' use is similar to the strategy-use patterns of Asian EFL learners at the same proficiency levels. Both Iran and Korea, in addition, have high access to technology in most educational institutions. Although Kamalizad & Samuel (2014) examined learning strategies, instructional approaches are informed by students' learning preferences; therefore, the study is informative for these results and Korean ELT. The results can therefore enhance scholars' understanding of the similarities of educational contexts across countries, despite apparent surface differences, and inform instructional approaches for such countries.

In conclusion, practicing a genre-based approach to fulfill a writing task that offers support through all phases of the writing process is more effective if it is done in a collaborative mode and uses computer-assisted language learning resources.

THE AUTHOR

Victoria Sadeghi has been teaching English as a Foreign Language for 11 years. She graduated with an MA in Teaching English as Second Language and a BA in English Language and Literature. Her MA thesis focused on active collaborative learning. Her current interests are in integrating e-learning (writing in CALL environments) and collaboration to augment educational outcomes. She has always been keen to encourage students to experience an active learning process and share their knowledge in order to accomplish task-based activities. Email: victoria.sadeghi@gmail.com

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Early Childhood L2 Development: All Fun and Games with *Genki English*

Samantha Ferrell
April Institute, Songdo, Korea

This study used classroom action research to examine *Genki English* software (Graham, 1999) as an introduction to English, for its ability to motivate learners, and to prepare them for further language learning. For this study, 18 current and 10 former students were observed and compared to a control group of 16 peers who did not participate in the program for a total of 44 Korean participants. The subjects were observed for a three-month period. *Genki English* was shown to be a viable curriculum that encouraged emergence from a silent period and through the preproduction period of language acquisition. Students were highly motivated to learn English using the songs and games provided by the program and were capable of transferring those skills to higher levels of language learning. Further study regarding the curriculum with a larger sample size across South Korea and to achieve different educational goals would be beneficial to confirm these results.

INTRODUCTION

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has long been a crucial area of study for non-English-speaking nationals hoping to work internationally or with large, multi-national organizations. English proficiency is a necessity for financial and academic well-being (Jambor, 2011). English education is one component of the hyper-competitive educational environment in South Korea. Education has been high on the list of governmental priorities in Korea since the Korean War, having achieved universal primary and secondary education and achieved universal access to tertiary education in that time (Lee, Kim, & Byun, 2012). Despite being a minority language, English education is in high

demand in Korea because of the role test performance plays in admission to top universities both in Korea and around the world (Paik, 2009). The Korean government has prioritized English by mandating its study for students, ages 9−18 (Ministry of Education, 2012), but the average age for initial enrollment into English studies is five years old (Paik, 2009).

Since the Korean government does not offer these early English studies via public schools, private academies known as *hagwons* have sprung up to fill the void. Parents are also pursuing private education after their child's normal school day, with upwards of 85% of school-aged students enrolled at some type of private academy (Kim & Lee, 2010). In the ever-competitive surge to be the best, English education has become a multi-billion dollar industry with some parents enrolling their children in expensive English-immersion pre-school programs as infants (Kim & Lee, 2010) or participating in costly surgeries to improve pronunciation (Paik, 2009). Korea's Ministry of Education has attempted to combat the huge expenditures on private education, particularly for young EFL learners, by creating a common curriculum in the publicly administered kindergartens and daycares, increasing teacher training, and providing more financial support to low-income families (Ministry of Education, 2012). However, these incentives have done little to shift the current education model.

The English studies program in public schools is well documented − there is at least a single bilingual Korean-English teacher in every classroom, with most elementary classes being administered by a native English teacher. The class sizes are usually large, 25-60 students per class (Ministry of Education, 2012). The classes are not leveled by ability, but rather by age. This program is slated to change slightly, phasing out the native English teacher by 2015 (Ramirez, 2013), but this is the current construct that the public schools operate within. Academies, on the other hand, vary wildly. When picking academies, a huge motivation for parents is the presence of a native English teacher (Parent, 2011). Despite the general lack of teaching credentials, teaching experience, or passion for teaching (Seo, 2012), parents are still drawn to this educational environment for its smaller class sizes, tailored curriculum, and personalized interaction (Parent, 2011). However, parents can, and do, remove their children from the private program anytime they are dissatisfied with the services provided, as there are many academies vying for their attention and money.

Lacking a curriculum for introductory-level students, the researcher's

employer introduced the *Genki English* (GE) program based on a recommendation from another teacher (Graham, 2014). GE is software created and designed by Richard Graham, an English teacher in Japan, in 1999. It consists of lessons designed to teach English phrases through a variety of songs, games, and visual input. The GE website (genkienglish.net) has additional suggested activities that complement each lesson. GE has not been widely studied, but it has been implemented in public schools throughout Japan and Thailand, and is also prevalent in public and private schools throughout the world (Graham, 2014). The only research that is currently available was completed in Tanzania, where GE was a supplement to a structured lesson plan that was integrated with a phonics and reading program (Schlemmer, 2012). The overall program had a positive impact on learning outcomes, with student achievement increasing by 60% on average after six weeks.

A solid introductory English program is of the utmost importance in the private school context. However, a good deal of research regarding EFL education in Korea has centered upon the secondary and tertiary levels of public schooling, while the elementary and pre-elementary levels have largely been ignored by academia. In addition, research in the EFL private sector is almost nonexistent, despite nearly universal enrollment in urban areas of Korea (Kim & Lee, 2010). If parents are willing to spend exorbitant sums to send their children to private English kindergartens or immersion programs, further research should be done into precisely which programs are effective and what English acquisition looks like at these basic levels.

As a result of these circumstances, this study was guided by the following questions:

1. Will a six-month course of GE help introductory-level students' progress through at least one stage of language acquisition?
2. Does the use of songs and games foster an atmosphere of excitement for learning in introductory-level students?
3. Are students better prepared for the next level of language instruction (intensive literacy) than their peers who did not receive the program?

Language Acquisition Stages and Progression

Haynes (2007) identified five stages of ESL language acquisition, relying heavily on the stages set forth by Krashen and Terrell (1983). Haynes' stages consisted of preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency. The preproduction stage is also termed a "silent period," which Haynes estimates to last anywhere from 0–6 months, but can be defined by a series of behaviors that range from silence to copycat-style parroting of new language. Haynes characterizes this stage as an important receptive vocabulary-building stage, where students are expected to understand about 500 words. The second stage, early production, can last for up to six months, and students will produce one- to two-word responses to questions with a receptive vocabulary of 1,000 words. The third stage, speech emergence, takes an additional period of one to three years to achieve. This is a time when students are heavily reliant on visual cues, and are capable of asking simple questions and using simple phrases and sentences. The fourth stage, intermediate fluency, is characterized by a 6,000-word active vocabulary, and students are capable of asking clarifying questions, cognitively processing English information and problem-solving in English, and understanding more complex and abstract ideas. Reaching this stage can take three to five years of language study. The final stage, advanced fluency, takes up to ten years to achieve and is characterized by a native or near-native understanding of the language.

There are a vast number of theories and methodologies supported in EFL contexts that are intended to produce increased levels of language acquisition. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the prescribed teaching methods currently in place in Korea, used in conjunction with Teaching English Through English (Kim, 2013). CLT is a teaching method that uses interaction as the major mode and goal of education (Nunan, 1991), giving language a function in life and requiring that communication take place for language learning to occur (Hymes, 1974). In countries where a higher mean TOEFL score was achieved, language instruction, small class sizes, and the use of CLT characterized classrooms (Çelik & Karaca, 2014). However, Shin (2012) argues that CLT's current implementation in Korean public schools is marred by novice teachers' tendency toward assimilation with old, outdated practices already in place at their school sites. This means that

an approach intended to get students talking from the outset and proven to improve English performance is failing to produce proficiency because of poor implementation. Addressing the school structures and cultural institutions that create such an inconsistency would require a total overhaul of a culturally ingrained system. The implementation of a more structured curriculum with a myriad of materials, resources, and an online community of supportive teachers might be a simpler solution.

Motivation

Krashen and Terrell (1983) determined that the most important goal of the preproduction stage should be to lower the affective filter and to convince students that they have the ability to be successful language learners. Krashen and Terrell argue that the lower a students' affective filter (i.e., anxiety), the better and more willingly they will perform in the classroom (1983). This creates positive feedback in the language learning cycle, allowing students to succeed, receive praise, and increase their own motivation to participate in activities. Motivation is integral to prompting usage of L2, which in turn increases proficiency (Liu & Park, 2012). However, this motivation can be difficult to sustain. As Seo (2012) discovered, motivation to learn in English classrooms in Korea decreases with age, partially as a product of native English teachers themselves and their lack of training, patience, and passion.

Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) emphasize the role of interactive gaming in increasing student motivation to learn. The students who played language-based games more often consistently outperformed their peers who played less (2012). Such students are highly motivated by the gamified nature of language learning in this context. Stockwell (2013) lends even more weight to the theory, arguing that technology has an inherent motivational factor. However, Stockwell makes the important distinction that technology is only one cog in the machine − context is also important (2013). Wu, Yen, and Marek (2011) make the similar point that technology-assisted learning alone will not yield positive results, but must be couched in active, student-centered learning. Technology as a tool for learning has been likened to a new toy for children, and just like a new toy, the students naturally want to engage with it at first. Providing English content through technology is one way to harness its inherent motivation and increase proficiency in English, but it must be supplemented by student-centered learning that is active

and kinesthetic.

In pedagogical studies of teaching methodologies, songs and games have continually been identified as positive learning materials for young learners. Chou (2012) found that songs, games, and stories were beneficial to learners in primary school, increasing their English vocabulary and performance on English vocabulary tests. Campos (2014) also found a correlation between active learning activities that included songs and games and an increase in student speech production. Students respond well to songs and games that require their interaction, as opposed to a more teacher-centered lecture-style environment. A positive language-learning environment can be established when combining motivational technology-assisted learning with language- producing songs and games.

The Path to Literacy

Linguistic interference and linguistic interdependence are two important concepts for the early EFL instructor. While cross-linguistic skill transfer (Whitley, 2002) has been a widely observed and accepted phenomenon, the research regarding interdependence of L1 and L2 skills is often language-dependent. Cárdenas-Hagan, Carlson, and Pollard-Durodola (2007) showed that Spanish-speaking students tended to have higher phonological awareness in English when they already had high phonological awareness in Spanish. This study suggests that students must have a firm phonics foundation in L1 in order to develop better phonics intelligence in L2. This further suggests that L2 literacy instruction should not begin until a student has achieved basic literacy in L1 − ages 6−7 for Korean students.

Since the Korean language is not logographic in nature, unlike Chinese or Japanese, students have letter-to-sound processing functions that will transfer from L1 to L2 (Birch, 2014), despite still needing to learn the English alphabet. Birch argues that such students need to spend an extended period of time in the lower levels of reading (i.e., phonics) so that they can learn to recognize the alphabet and decode its sounds quickly and efficiently (2014). Birch's findings show that a firm foundation in phonics is the key indicator of successful skill transfer, ranking higher than speaking ability and listening comprehension.

So how can EFL students become properly prepared for reading instruction? Successful readers integrate a large receptive vocabulary

with grammar and comprehension skills (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). Reaching this level of success is marked by a series of much smaller, necessary achievements − decoding skills and vocabulary development being of chief importance at the earliest stages (2013). Grabe and Stoller argue that an early reading classroom will thus focus on fluency practice, extensive reading, and development of a large receptive vocabulary (2013). This implies that EFL classrooms that combine a vocabulary-building program with a phonics program will ultimately prepare students for basic literacy instruction.

METHODS

Participants and Classes

Participants attended the classes either two or three times weekly, receiving 45 minutes of GE instruction, accompanied by 45 minutes of a school-mandated phonics program, unrelated to GE. The classes occurring twice a week will henceforth be referred to as "Rookie 1/2 TTh" (as the classes occurred on Tuesdays and Thursdays). The classes occurring three times a week will be referred to as "Rookie 1/2 MWF" (as the classes were held every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday). Because Rookie 1/2 MWF received an extra lesson each week, this time was used to review material in order to keep them on the same schedule as the Tuesday/Thursday students.

The software consisted of individual lessons, which included at least one target question and a minimum of eight responses. Each lesson included digital flashcards, a mini-lesson that could be used to teach the students at least one song, and at least one game. Some lessons had picture books associated with them, and some lessons had up to three different associated games.

The class consisted of a physical warm-up (1-2 minutes), a review game of the previous lesson's target language (5-7 min.), a choral drilling of the new target language and working with the digital flashcards (5 min.), practicing a song without the music and then the addition of the music later (5-10 min.), practicing the language using the computer games that accompany the software (5 min.), a Total Physical Response activity to practice target language (5-10 min.), and lastly, a craft, coloring page, or other take-home activity (10 min.).

There are two different sections − Rookie 1 (students who were new to the program, having little or no proficiency in English) and Rookie 2 (students who had spent three months learning basic English during Rookie 1). Rookie 1 begins with the most basic topics − "What's your name?" "How old are you?" "What's your favorite color?" etc. Rookie 2 continues this thread of learning, but expands the students' vocabulary further. Rookie 2 topics include holiday-related vocabulary, prepositions, and classroom English.

Student sample size originated from a single private academy. The academy's overall size was 364 students ranging in age between 5 and 12. A total of 44 students participated in the study. Students were selected for the GE program based on a collection of factors that included a pre-enrollment interview to assess English ability, the student's previous exposure to English, and the goals of the student's parent(s). For all students, upon entering the program their prior English education and exposure was negligible. All students were ethnic Koreans with Korean being their primary language. Socio-economic status was unreported.

There were 18 current students observed, between the ages of 5 and 8; 9 were female and 9 were male. Their enrollment in the program varied from one to six months. Students were split into two groups: Rookie 1 (7 students) and Rookie 2 (11 students). Rookie 1 MWF had two boys and two girls, ages 7−8, in the class. Rookie 1 TTh was made up of two girls and one boy, ages 5−6. Rookie 2 MWF was made up of two girls and five boys, ages 7−8; and Rookie 2 TTh was made up of three girls and one boy, ages 6−7.

In addition to the 18 current students observed, students who had "graduated" from the program (completed six months in the Rookie program) were also observed (10 students; 6 female and 4 male) in relation to their peers who had not take the introductory course (16 students; 4 female, 12 male) who served as a control group.

Observation and Assessment

Three female U.S. English instructors teaching in Songdo International City, Korea, administered the classes, one of whom was the researcher. The 18 current students were taught and observed by the researcher, while the other two teachers administered the classes for graduates of the program and the control group. These teachers also

observed classes, providing data and feedback to the researcher.

The researcher taught a six-month course of GE before developing this study, using Classroom Action Research as a guiding method (Hopkins, 2008). The instructor assessed each incoming student's baseline English ability and placement on the language acquisition spectrum into the following categories: silent period, some repetition of classroom language, constant parroting of classroom language, mixed repetition and language production, or full independent language production. Students going through a silent period, repeating some classroom language, or constantly repeating classroom language could be further grouped into the preproduction stage of language acquisition (Haynes, 2007; Krashen & Terrell, 1983), while students independently producing language, however small, could be grouped into the early production phase (Haynes, 2007).

In order to determine growth over time, the instructor assessed the students' individual performance each class period using a teaching diary and a simple quantitative method of a 1−5 point rating scale of a variety of traits and skills over a three-month period (1: poor, 2: below-average, 3: average, 4: above-average, 5: excellent) in the following areas: acquisition of target language, speaking effort, and motivation.

Two colleagues observed these classes separately on a weekly basis to provide observational data twice a week over the course of a month to triangulate language acquisition and motivation data. They attended the class twice weekly for one month in the course of the three-month term (weeks 4−8). The researcher also interviewed these teachers to provide contextualized feedback.

In order to further assess the groups' motivation, the instructor sent home a questionnaire that first assessed parents' satisfaction with the overall program and contained an open-answer section of what they liked about the program and what they would like to see done differently. The second questionnaire was also given to the parents and intended for parent and child to complete together, assessing the child's satisfaction with the class and which English activities they liked best. Five Rookie 1 students (71% response rate) and four Rookie 2 students (36% response rate) returned the questionnaires.

In order to determine if GE prepares students for their next level of language learning, the instructor completed interviews with the instructors of the next level 10 weeks into the study to determine comparisons between Rookie graduates and the control group without

identifying the former students or the control group to their current teachers. The researcher asked the current instructors to rate each student on their speaking, reading, writing, and listening abilities, as well as their confidence, discipline and motivation.

RESULTS

Progress Through Language Acquisition Stages

Upon entrance into the program, student placement along the language acquisition spectrum was assessed. As shown in Figure 1, most of the students entering the GE program experienced a silent period, defined by a minimum of three teaching hours without language production, or participated in constant repetition of the teacher and/or classmates. This means that 87% of the students entered into the program displaying skills consistent with the preproduction stage of language acquisition. There were no students entering the program who participated in independent language production. Upon exiting the program (after six months of GE), student placement along the language acquisition spectrum was assessed again.
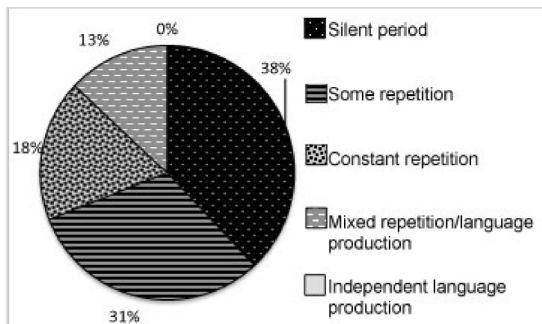
FIGURE 1. **Incoming language acquisition assessment** (N = 24).

As shown in Figure 2, there were no students who exited the program still experiencing a silent period, and most students emerged from the program participating in some form of independent language production. Students experiencing a "silent period" emerged after an average of six hours of language instruction. Of the students who exited

the program, 75% were categorized as having skills consistent with the early production stage of language acquisition or being on the verge of entering that stage. This language acquisition is reflected in the daily language acquisition rates.
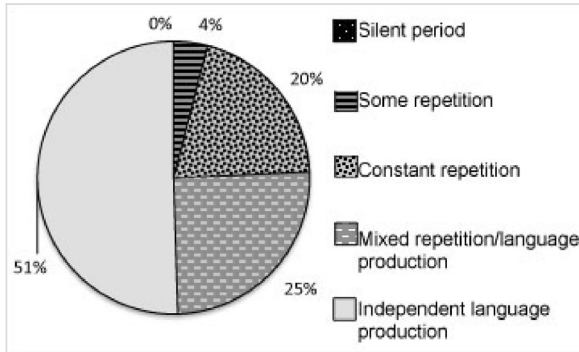
FIGURE 2. **Outgoing language acquisition assessment** (N = 24).

Both the TTh and MWF groups showed positive language acquisition growth over time. Preproduction-stage students began displaying signs of early production language skills after an average of 15 teaching hours for TTh students, as shown through the increase in language acquisition around week 4 (Figure 3), and 30 hours for MWF students − around week 7 (Figure 4). However, such improvement is not stable: Students regressed and progressed along the language acquisition spectrum based on individual moods, confidence, affective filter, and the target language of the day. Students did not progress past the early production stage through the course of the term (Figures 3 & 4).
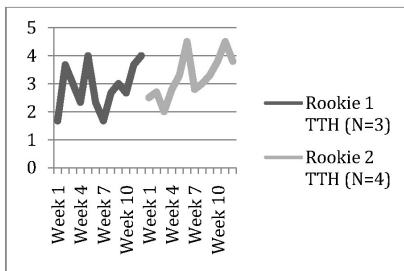
FIGURE 3. **Language acquisition over time** (Rookie 1/2 TTh).
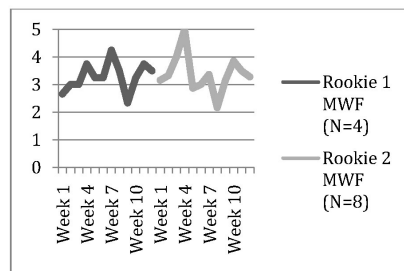
FIGURE 4. **Language acquisition over time** (Rookie 1/2 MWF).

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Speaking effort correlates to higher levels of language acquisition for both sets of classes. Weeks with lower effort reflected lower levels of acquisition. Rookie TTh classes experienced a more overtly positive growth in effort and language acquisition over time (Figure 5), whereas the MWF classes showed less overall growth (Figure 6). However, all classes showed positive levels of effort throughout the term, only infrequently dipping below average.
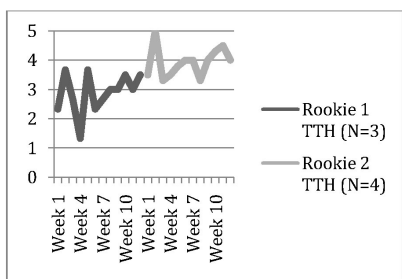
FIGURE 5. Speaking effort over time (Rookie 1/2 TTh).
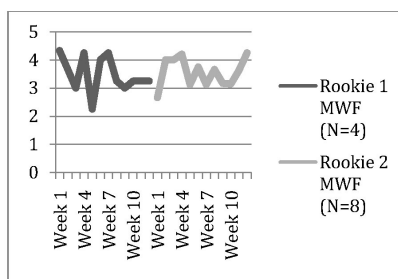
FIGURE 6. Speaking effort over time (Rookie 1/2 MWF).

Motivation

Motivation was assessed based on student willingness and excitement to participate in all classroom activities. Rookie TTh students had higher motivation levels with positive growth in motivation throughout the term (Figure 7), whereas MWF students did not (Figure 8).
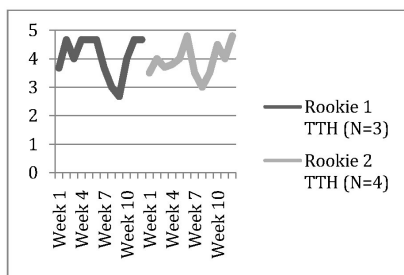
FIGURE 7. Motivation over time (Rookie 1/2 TTh).
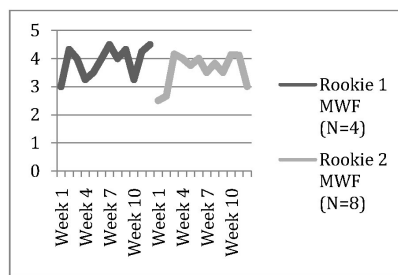
FIGURE 8. Motivation over time (Rookie 1/2 MWF).

Additionally, all students surveyed seemed to enjoy the class activities (Figure 9) and were observed by other teachers as being highly, and equally, enthusiastic. This observation is reflected in the 100% retention rate − no Rookie students quit the program. This is compared to the 87% retention rate for the rest of the school's elementary population. The efficacy of the program, however, is not the lone indicator of high retention rates − parental awareness of their young child's need for stability (Entwistle, 1991), the convenience of the school and/or location, the enrollment of a sibling at the academy, or a lack of stable childcare options could also contribute to these students' continued enrollment. Nevertheless, when students were surveyed regarding their enjoyment in the program, 100% said that they enjoyed learning English.
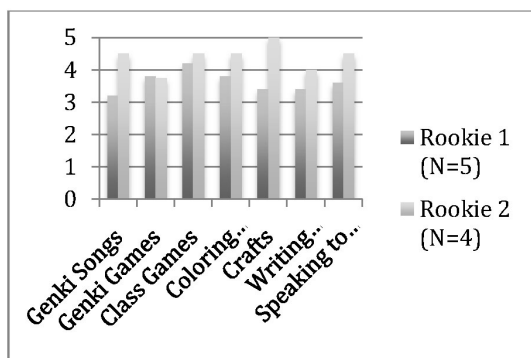
FIGURE 9. Student ratings of class activities.

When parents were asked about the positive aspects of GE, many of the comments were geared toward the classroom activities. These are examples of the most common comments:

- "The singing and activities help," Rookie 1 parent.
- "Having fun [is] the most positive aspect of the class," Rookie 1 parent.
- "The best program is playing games with the native teacher," Rookie 1 parent.

Path to Literacy

When all measured factors for students that had graduated from the Rookie program were compared with those for their peers who had not taken the Rookie program, Rookie graduates were shown to out-perform

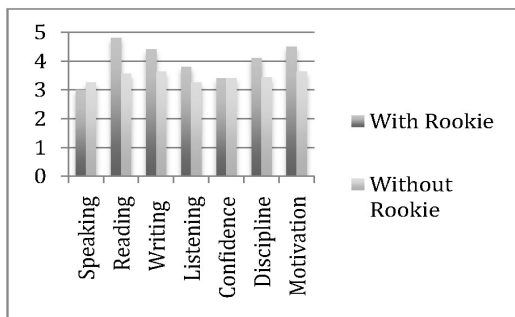their peers in all areas except for speaking effort and confidence.

FIGURE 10. Performance at the next language level (Rookie graduates vs. control group)**.**

   Teachers were interviewed about Rookie graduates' skills compared to the control group and indicated that Rookie students appeared to have less ability to express themselves than their peers, but that they tried very hard to be understood. In addition, the Rookie students, although up to two years younger than some control group participants, were capable of engaging in the literacy learning environment for a longer period of time and with more sustained focus. Finally, their teachers emphasized the important role of listening comprehension to success in the classroom.

DISCUSSION

Findings of the Study

   The findings of this study show that GE helps students' progress through one phase of language acquisition during a six-month course. Students are learning in an environment where they are regularly motivated to participate, as shown through students' regular and sustained classroom excitement. This study also showed that when compared to a control group, students were generally more prepared than their peers for literacy instruction; however, students were slightly less prepared for English conversation.

   All students experienced language growth through the course of the

study with most moving past the preproduction phase into early production. Initial progress through the preproduction phase was rapid, or even instantaneous. Students who entered the classroom feeling anxiety about learning English or meeting foreigners rarely held onto such inhibitions for longer than two class periods and by the second week of instruction, their anxiety even turned to excitement. No students moved into emergent speaking (use of phrases, full sentences, and questions) during their time in the course because the curriculum itself does not promote emergent speaking skills. GE is intended to teach both questions and vocabulary related to those questions. However, interactive pictures and games accompany the vocabulary, whereas the questions themselves do not feature widely in the game portion of the software. This is ultimately because questions are more abstract and difficult to illustrate in a child-friendly way. In order to promote emergent speaking skills, the software or the program would need to encourage full-sentence answers and student-initiated questioning, which it does not. However, software that promotes emergent speaking would likely be ineffective, as emergent speaking is promoted through sustained, interactive, and authentic communication. The software is highly effective at improving listening comprehension skills, increasing vocabulary and response times in English, and learning about Western culture through studying Western holidays and related language, while progress through the language acquisition stages should be the onus of the instructor.

One of the most surprising observations was student recollection of language from songs learned several weeks prior. Even when students could not accurately mimic the song at the time of learning, they would often recall a lesson's song weeks later without prompting, often more accurately than when it was first learned. The researcher terms this phenomenon "latent language recall." It was observed across all classes involved in the study on seven different occasions. This phenomenon reinforces the idea that immediate learning and long-term acquisition are occurring in measurably different ways. Perhaps a student did not show immediate target language acquisition, but they may still have had retention of that language and managed to transform it into long-term acquisition. This type of acquisition should ultimately be the goal, as it has been coded into long-term memory and will form the bedrock of a student's vocabulary and future language learning.

Both groups of students had high levels of motivation, rarely becoming less motivated or unmotivated. Elevated levels of motivation

were observed in TTh students. The lower motivation of MWF students could be a contributing factor to their lower and less consistent acquisition, since motivation is an important component of language learning (Liu & Park, 2012). Ideal student motivation was achieved by a combination of activities of interest to students and language that was immediately applicable. The games provided in the curriculum captivated students at first, but lost their appeal around weeks 9 and 10 − during the days of the week and the weeks if the program when the lessons were more abstract. The review days had a tendency to produce less motivation and excitement overall, as students were generally more enthused when new material was introduced. More dynamic classroom activities that deviated from the software always elicited elevated rates of motivation and, in turn, increased spoken output. Some of the most successful activities were quiz games, a blindfolded maze when learning direction words, and a school-wide scavenger hunt when learning *where* questions.

Students who had graduated from the Rookie program performed better than their peers who did not receive the treatment in all areas (confidence, motivation, etc.) with the exception of spoken production. This finding is surprising because GE focuses almost exclusively on developing speaking skills. This could be attributed to the fact that the control group's prior language experiences at other academies and at home were relatively unknown. Although they had not received any language training at the academy in this study, there is no guarantee that other language training or exposure to English was negligible. However, all factors being considered equal, this finding suggests that students do not have enough opportunity to put their active vocabulary skills to use in the GE classroom, but are building their receptive vocabularies instead. This finding is bolstered by the students' elevated listening comprehension skills, the key domain of the receptive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary is also an essential component of literacy instruction, as students have an easier time decoding familiar words and can more easily comprehend the stories without relying entirely on pictures (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). Essentially, the students understood what their teachers are saying and what they read in their books, but were having difficulty using learned language spontaneously. This finding is supported by Coyle and Gracia (2014), who found that songs are an excellent method of increasing a child's receptive vocabulary but do little to increase their active vocabulary.

Although surprising, this finding doesn't invalidate the curriculum. Educators and school directors need to prioritize learning goals − should students move along the language acquisition spectrum quickly or be prepared for literacy instruction? For the former, less focus on songs and increased focus on CLT techniques may be necessary to improve speaking fluency outcomes for GE students. For children of this particular age group, competitive speed-based games increased speaking output for even the shyest of students. Using these kinds of games as a reinforcement activity after using the software to introduce the new language would certainly provide more speaking practice than the games inherent to the software, but still wouldn't necessarily increase spontaneous language output. According to Krashen (1982), such communication is rarely achieved via explicit instruction alone and requires development through authentic interaction. The GE classroom provides a medium for such interaction, but this particular six-month course may be too short to produce a noticeable impact. If the goal is to prepare students for intensive literacy instruction, GE performs a crucial role in developing receptive vocabulary that is essential to students' success as readers (Grabe & Stoller, 2013).

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited first and foremost by its scope. The sampling size is small and was conducted with a single population in a single town in Korea. In order to clearly understand the application of GE in a Korean academy context, more variables need to be considered. Students of various ages and stages of language acquisition and their response to the curriculum should be addressed to determine GE's value for students at later acquisition stages. Socio-economic data should also be collected in the future to determine GE's value in classrooms where benefit must be weighed against cost. Additionally, the length of observation could have been longer, to provide longevity data to the study. The measures themselves were accurate, but could have been more objective by relying more on test data than on observations. These measures could have been improved by measuring latent acquisition by testing student acquisition a week or more after initial learning of the material.

More research into the phenomenon of latent language recall would be beneficial to characterize the nature and process of additional

language learning. Additionally, language-teaching techniques should be catalogued according to the kind of vocabulary retention they promote − whether receptive or active − so that teachers can determine which activities will help students achieve their various learning goals. Finally, the gamification of learning is still an area of relative obscurity in its relation to language acquisition. Its effects on such young learners should continue to be studied to determine which skills it can promote in the earliest levels of language learning.

CONCLUSIONS

Genki English is a strong language development program that helps students advance rapidly through the stages of language acquisition. It can be attributed with developing a receptive vocabulary and listening comprehension skills that are crucial for early literacy. *Genki English* helps to motivate students and increase their desire to learn English. Depending on the aims of the individual school and students, *Genki English* alone may not be enough to develop a robust active vocabulary or to encourage independent communication, but further research with larger sampling sizes is necessary to make any concrete claims.

THE AUTHOR

Samantha Ferrell is an English instructor at April Institute, Songdo Campus, in Korea. She received her MEd from the American College of Education. Her research interests are centered on classroom action research, TESOL, and early language acquisition. Email: mssamanthaferrell@gmail.com

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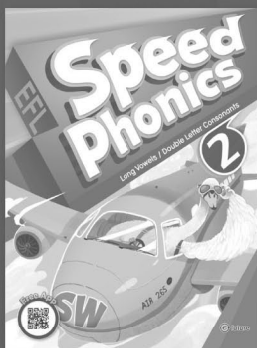
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